

Block

1

THE LANGUAGE LEARNER

Course Introduction	3
Block Introduction	4
Unit 1	
The Language Learner-1	7
Unit 2	
The Language Learner-2	24
Unit 3	
Learner Factors in Second Language Acquisition-1	41
Unit 4	
Learner Factors in Second Language Acquisition-2	51

EXPERT COMMITTEE

Prof. Ramakant Agnihotri (Retired)
Dept. of Linguistics
Delhi University

Now:

Prof. Emeritus
Vidya Bhawan Society
Udaipur

Prof. Yasmeen Lukmani
Retired- Dept. of English
University of Mumbai

Prof. Jacob Tharu (Retired)
Dept. of Evaluation
EFLU (formerly CIEFL)
Hyderabad

Prof. Pushpinder Syal
Dept. of English
Punjab University, Chandigarh

Prof. M.L. Tickoo,
EFLU (formerly CIEFL)
Hyderabad
Ex. Singapore University

Dr. A. L. Khanna (Retired)
Reader, Dept. of English
Ramjas College, Delhi University

Dr. Rajni Badlani
Formerly Reader
EFLU (formerly CIEFL), Hyderabad
Retired as Manager English Studies
American Centre, New Delhi

Prof. Neera Singh
Director-School of Humanities,
IGNOU

School of Humanities (English Faculty)

Prof. Anju Sahgal Gupta, IGNOU
Prof. Neera Singh, IGNOU
Prof. Malati Mathur, IGNOU
Prof. Nandini Sahu, IGNOU
Prof. Parmod Kumar, IGNOU
Dr. Pema Eden Samdup, IGNOU
Ms. Mridula Rashmi Kindo, IGNOU
Dr. Malathy A, IGNOU

COURSE COORDINATOR

Prof. Anju Sahgal Gupta
School of Humanities, IGNOU

BLOCK PREPARATION

Unit Writers

Prof. Jacob Tharu (Unit 1 & 2)
Retired-Dept. of Evaluation
EFLU (formerly CIEFL), Hyderabad

Dr. Sapna Miranda (Unit 3 & 4)
Assistant Professor
Cochin University

Dr. Monishita Hajra Pande (Unit 5)
Assistant Professor
Ambedkar University, Delhi

Block Editor

Prof. Anju Sahgal Gupta,
School of Humanities, IGNOU

Secretarial Assistance and Composing

Ms. Premlata Lingwal
PA (SOH)

MATERIAL PRODUCTION

Sh. C. N. Pandey
Section Officer (Publication)
School of Humanities, IGNOU

August, 2019

© Indira Gandhi National Open University, 2019

ISBN:

All rights reserved. No part of this work may be reproduced in any form, by mimeograph or any other means, without permission in writing from the Indira Gandhi National Open University.

Further information on the Indira Gandhi National Open University courses may be obtained from the University's office at Maidan Garhi, New Delhi-110 068 or the website of IGNOU www.ignou.ac.in

Printed and published on behalf of the Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi by Registrar, MPDD.

Laser Typeset by : Rajshree Computers, V-166A, Bhagwati Vihar, (Near Sector 2, Dwarka), Uttam Nagar, New Delhi-110059

COURSE INTRODUCTION

‘.....teaching is an attempt to understand and to intervene in the process of language learning.’

Brumitt, 1984. P.23

The Certificate Programme in the Teaching of English as a Second Language is essentially an attempt to enhance the teachers’ understanding of their learners, the learning process, the nature and structure of language, and the teaching of it in terms of new and more effective methodologies of classroom management, material selection and evaluation. This programme will help the teachers to:

- (i) gain insights about the language learner, not only as a cognitive entity, but as a social being functioning in a multilingual environment.
- (ii) understand the nature of language as a dynamic entity, subject to variation and change.
- (iii) enhance proficiency in English, not only in terms of the structure of English (sound, words, grammar) but also at the level of discourse.
- (iv) critically reflect over classroom experience and innovate in teaching strategies so that the teacher-learner may more effectively teach the four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing. At the same time to integrate all the skills so that the learner may use these skills for better communication.
- (v) make the teacher-learner aware of new theories that are prevalent in terms of the learners, the learning process, classroom management, material selection and creation, evaluation and methodology of teaching.
- (vi) carry out action research.

We are aware that teachers are primarily concerned with and committed to classroom teaching, and not philosophical and theoretical questions about it. While our programme does provide an update on the current theories in this area, our main concern is with the practical problems of the teacher in the classroom.

The crucial factor in the language learning process is, of course, the learner, so the programme begins with the attempt to understand the learner, and specifically the learner factors which affect second language acquisition. These factors include learner readiness, language attitude and aptitude, motivation, age, sex, nature of previous experience of learning, and so on.

To intervene meaningfully in the process of language learning, we need to understand the nature of language learning and language acquisition. In Course 1 itself, we present a succinct account of the current views on these issues in terms of the physiological, cognitive and affective processes. In subsequent courses we relate these issues directly to teaching methodology. The classroom is the space where teaching-learning takes place. We discuss the strategies within this space to make learning more effective.

No language can exist in a social vacuum. We show the relationship between language and society and the social factors which influence language. Since our learners function in a multilingual, multicultural society, we have attempted to describe such a society, as well as the multilingual learner. We also give suggestions for using multilingualism as a resource in the classroom.

One of the main aims of this programme is to make you aware that language is a dynamic entity, subject to variation and change. English is spoken differently in different parts of the world, as well as in different regions of India. The over-emphasis on purist 'norms' and 'standards' should be avoided by the teacher. We discuss the status and role of English locally and internationally.

Another major objective of this course is to enhance the teachers' proficiency in English. It was decided in this regard that we would follow a top-down approach, i.e., start with discourse, and then move on to sentence types, words and finally sounds. This would give the teacher a perspective on the organization of language beyond the level of the sentences. The language teacher is familiar with the sentence based approach, and sentences fall in the domain of grammar. But to understand the true nature of language, it becomes necessary to look at patterns of organization in language which go beyond the sentences and incorporate these insights into the teaching of language. In Course 2, we take up all these issues.

Some of the questions which teachers are generally confronted with are:

- (i) What will be the effect on my class if I use textbook X rather than textbook Y?
- (ii) What are the best procedures of correcting mistakes, and evaluating with a human face?
- (iii) What are the effective methods and strategies used in teaching-learning the different skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing?
- (iv) Are there more interesting and effective ways of classroom organisation and management?

These questions have been dealt with in Course 3 of this programme. Courses one to three are the compulsory courses. There are two optional courses as well. The participant may choose any one course out of these.

Course 4 Teaching English - Elementary School

Course 5 Teaching English - Secondary School

In both the courses we give a profile of the learners at the different stages, and the teachers' role in dealing with such learners. We also focus on the disadvantaged learners and learners with minor disabilities. This is in keeping with the government policy of integration of all groups within the mainstream of education. The optional courses are of a practical nature, where the different skills are taught by taking into account actual case histories and teaching experience. These courses can be used as resource material for practising teachers which they actually use in the classroom. The overall scheme of courses is as follows:

Compulsory Courses (Three)

CTE-101: The Language and the Learner

CTE-102: The Structure of English

CTE -103: Teaching Strategies

Optional Courses (any one)

CTE-104: Teaching English - Elementary School

CTE-105: Teaching English - Secondary School

BLOCK INTRODUCTION

WHAT DOES THIS BLOCK CONTAIN?

The main focus of our programme is the learner as an individual who brings with him/her preferred learning styles, degree of intelligence, aptitude for language learning, attitude, motivation, and so on. In the first two Units of this block (Units 1 and 2), we give you a general description of the learners in terms of their capabilities and learning resources (personal and social). In Unit 3 we give evidence from research of learner factors which influence second language learning. In Unit 4, we discuss the discourse strategies used by teachers to enhance the teaching-learning process.

Our aim in this block is to help you understand your learners so that you will be able to make your teaching more learner centred by

- providing learners with more efficient learning strategies
- assisting learners to identify their own preferred ways of learning
- encouraging learners to set their own objectives and adopt realistic time frames to achieve them
- developing the learners' skill in self-evaluation

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The material (pictures and passages) we have used is purely for educational purposes. Every effort has been made to trace the copyright holders of material reproduced in this book. Should any infringement have occurred, the publishers and editors apologize and will be pleased to make the necessary corrections in future editions of this book. Some of the material has been taken from earlier CTE Courses.



ignou
THE PEOPLE'S
UNIVERSITY

UNIT 1 THE LANGUAGE LEARNER-1

Structure

- 1.0 Objectives
- 1.1 Introduction: Learners as a Central Factor in Pedagogic Planning and Practice
- 1.2 Man as a Social Being: The World of Culture
- 1.3 Learning and Human Nature
- 1.4 From Potential to Actual Learning: The Role of a Supportive Environment
- 1.5 The Capacity to Learn: Every One's Gift
- 1.6 The Setting of the Formal School: A Structured Component of Socialization
- 1.7 Children as Active Contributors to the Learning Process: Resources they Bring to School
- 1.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.9 Suggested Readings
- 1.10 Answers

1.0 OBJECTIVES

This unit aims to introduce you to an emerging perspective on education in which the roles of learners and teachers are different from what was traditional. Traditionally, the teacher and the textbook have stayed at the centre of the learning process. Today we think that learner should be at the centre of the teaching-learning process. The unit will help you to understand and appreciate

- the centrality of learner and learning in the development of the child into a member of human society
- the importance of environmental support for all aspects of learning
- the nature of the potential for learning every child is born with
- the challenges faced in making formal group oriented instruction sensitive to individual needs, and
- the varied resources children bring to class that need to be recognized and built upon.

The matter in this unit has more to do with changing conventional mindsets about teaching and learning, than with introducing new and complex theoretical concepts.

1.1 INTRODUCTION: LEARNERS AS A CENTRAL FACTOR IN PEDAGOGIC PLANNING AND PRACTICE

In this unit we will review the perspectives and images we have of learners that influence the way we treat them when we engage with them as *students or pupils*. Some of these are widely shared everyday as lay persons' ideas; some are informed by concepts and principles in the academic fields of psychology and pedagogy. Other perceptions of the child-learner are based on assumptions (we may not be aware of) on which well established practices—syllabus structures, classroom organization, weekly time tables, frequent tests, homework, etc. are based. Changes in society – economic, political and social, cultural – have led to changes in the general approach to public education. The teaching of English is largely in the context of formal education. It is useful to be aware of some of the newer perspectives on education that influence thinking about the 'curriculum' taken in a broad sense.

One of the most significant changes in the nature and scope of public education over the last several decades—especially in countries like India which were once under colonial rule—is the move from an elitist to a democratic pattern. Earlier only a very small proportion of children got more than 3 or 4 years of primary schooling. Only the children of a small section of society (mostly urban located and socially and economically privileged) went on to high school and college. Today we are committed to education for all, up to high school. The **Right to Education Act of 2009** states that all children are entitled to education of quality. So we cannot assume now that many children (especially from poor homes and in rural areas) will drop out and get forgotten by the system. All learners have to be welcomed and supported pedagogically in our classrooms now, not only those who appear to be bright and hardworking.

A second significant change relates to the role of the learner in the learning process. Earlier we assumed that teaching effectively was in the teacher's hands, and learners should take in or absorb what teachers presented, even though we had slogans like **learner-centred education** and **teachers as guides**. A number of ideas (which were there earlier but not taken very seriously) have been put together and strongly endorsed in the National Curriculum Framework (NCF), 2005. In this new perspective, knowledge in the textbook has to be enriched by relating it to life outside the classroom as experienced by diverse learners. Also learners are seen as active participants who contribute from what they already know to the creation of new knowledge, and not just passive receivers of finished knowledge, presented or transmitted by the teacher and textbook. So the status of the learner has changed. She/he (even in primary school) is a partner along with teacher and peers in the process of curriculum transaction.

We generally think of teaching as a process of 'promoting learning' today. So we need to know many things about the process of learning: much more than in the past when 'effective teaching' was emphasized. This means knowing more about learners and the nature of learning which is our aim in this first unit. We begin by recalling one or two aspects of human nature, especially our normal practice of living in communities. Later we will see how this is related to learners and learning.

The two important changes that have impacted public education in recent times are:

.....

.....

.....

.....

Activity 1

- 1 Read about the Right to Education Act of 2009 from the internet or any other source and write about the five most significance aspects of the Act.
- 2 Have you read the National Curriculum Framework 2005? What are some of the issues that you thought were important in your contexts. Have you looked at the NCERT Position Papers on ‘The teaching of Indian languages’ and ‘The teaching of English’? Please do so.

1.2 MAN AS A SOCIAL BEING: THE WORLD OF CULTURE

If we are asked what the unique and important qualities of humans (as compared with animals) are, most of us would mention the capacity to think and to use language. Human beings are sometimes referred to as ‘talking animals’ to emphasize the use of language. Talking inevitably involves talking to others and listening to them. So this quality points to the fact that we are **social beings**. We grow up in communities and many of our activities are as members of various groups. One consequence of this social nature and the human being’s capacity to think is to solve problems by working with others. We make tools and we live in the ‘artificial’ world of civilization and not in direct contact with the natural physical world. We live in buildings not caves, we travel in vehicles on roads rather than walk or climb or swim across jungles, hills and rivers, we take food out of a cupboard or refrigerator rather than pluck it off trees. Unlike animal species who live in (and normally can survive only in) their *natural* habitats humans are able to create a comfortable (artificial) environment in *any* part of the earth. The houses, factories, hospitals, jails, vehicles, roads, dams, etc. form the material and visible aspects of civilization. But there is also a set network of customs, traditions, built around these physical structures. We normally eat at set times, not when we are hungry; sometimes we feast and overeat, sometimes we fast. The clothes we wear are more related to fashion than the physical need for covering/protecting the body. In addition to the visible activities related to work and recreation, human communities have developed a whole complex of knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, values, and so on. All of this together is given the broad label *culture*.

The most important component of culture is of course language. Language is the basic means we use to communicate with one another, but it is what we can express and communicate that is truly significant. Language allows us to go beyond the here and now which we can see and touch, and discuss past events, possible future events, things which are imagined, abstract concepts and

principles and so on. The human being's capacity to think, formulate new ideas and invent things depends greatly on language. Language and many other aspects of culture together create an 'atmosphere' which strongly influences the lives of all members of a social group or community. The term atmosphere is used here to stress the fact that many aspects of culture are hidden and not stated in the form of detailed descriptions or rules. But they are still powerful factors.

Variability and ongoing change in culture

One striking aspect of culture is that it has an amazingly wide range of actual forms. Each nation, region or state, religious sect, small group (community) and even family has a number of specific and unique elements in its culture, while at the same time sharing some common features with other groups. A person's acceptance by and sense of belonging to a group/community strongly relates to knowing and sharing its specific culture. Most of us would have studied about different 'ways of life' of communities around the world in high school geography. Some aspects of these cultures are related to physical factors such as climate, terrain, vegetation, but many traditions, attitudes and values are not. The fact of variations in culture – especially conventions and expectations about 'how to behave' – becomes very clear when one moves to another country. Even if the language is not new to the visitor, she/he will find many everyday ways of doing things different and confusing at first, and some time make funny mistakes.

Thus we see that human culture is not one fixed thing. Just as the capacity to use language has led to the development of many thousands of *languages*, there are an innumerable number of specific cultures. The diversity of cultures across places is well known. But there is an aspect of culture that may not be noticed and given much attention because of its dynamic and evolving nature. The culture of any group is not a stable or 'steady state' system. It is rather something that changes along with political, economic and technological developments, and also as new ideas (coming initially from individuals or groups that think differently) spread. It is interesting to note that the geography of a place does not change, except over very long periods of time. Similarly, animal instincts are static in nature. They remain the same over successive generations. But the artificial world of objects and culture (created by man) is constantly changing and growing. Though we talk of old and new civilizations, the process of change is *continuous*. Many aspects of culture that young children encounter would be different from what their parents found.

Socializing the young: Becoming members of human society / promoting the learning of culture.

Unlike the physical environment which is separate from us, culture is something we are integrated into. Each one of us is a part of a culture, and that culture is part of our identity and outlook. Being a healthy 'social animal' involves living with other people, and participating with them in a range of cultural activities. Simply surviving physically is not enough. This means that as the child grows up, she/he has to learn the language and come to know many aspects of the culture of the community, especially conventions about ways of behaving in public – eating, dressing, interacting with elders, and so on. The gaining of all this cultural knowledge is a long and slow process of learning. It is aided by the relatively long duration of *human childhood*. During this phase (between about fifteen and eighteen years in duration) the individual – treated as a child – has

to be protected, fed and cared for by parents or other caregivers. After that she/he is expected to become independent and be responsible for earning a living and obeying the laws of the land. This process of preparing the young to become adult members – responsible citizens – who can participate in the affairs of society seems to occur ‘naturally’ everywhere. It is usually referred to as *socialization*.

Many things related to culture are learnt informally or naturally, as children grow up. This happens without any planned instruction by *teachers*. A major part of socialization occurs through this informal and unplanned learning spread over years of growing up from an infant into a teenager or young adult. In places where formal schools have not been established, the wider process of socialization goes on quite successfully. Many of these cases are communities who do not have a written form of their language. This learning process outside school also covers quite sophisticated technical knowledge and skills. Traditionally many skills (making baskets and mats, spinning and weaving, agricultural operations, carpentry, masonry, leatherwork, metalwork, midwifery, bone setting, preparation of medicines, and several such items) were learnt from elders in the family or community. This was a process of apprenticeship – observing, practicing, getting guidance in normal work settings – and not direct training in special schools. (These largely caste based family occupations where children did the same work as their parents have become far less common now. Opportunities for broader vocational training through ITIs and other such agencies or through professional courses at the college level are reaching more and more people.) Learning through apprenticeship is an idea we will meet again when we consider teaching strategies in Block 3. The point to note here is that even fairly complex skills *can be learnt* in relatively natural contexts – which are much less structured than formal classrooms.

Socialization covers *all* children. There are very few ‘dropouts’ from this informal and unplanned – hence ‘pressure free’ – process. It is generally a happy and successful experience for children. They do learn a range of things, even if many other things are not learnt or are avoided all together. This points to the *capacity to learn* that every child has. This is the central principle we want to pick up here.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1 What do you mean by the term ‘culture’? Is culture a static phenomenon? Explain giving examples from your own culture.

.....

- 2 Suggest some of the aspects from your own life which could be covered under the term ‘culture’.

.....

1.3 LEARNING AND HUMAN NATURE

The process of socialization, as we saw above, is a necessary part of the human 'life cycle'. The helpless infant slowly becomes an independent active member of a human community, by gaining the knowledge, skills, and an awareness of attitudes, beliefs, values, etc., that allow full participation in its culture. This process of human *learning* is what we look at more closely and try to understand now. Ideas from here will help us in planning and supporting learning in school settings.

The capacity to learn of the human child is the point of interest. Comparing human and animal life is helpful here. Animal species normally live and can survive only in their *natural habitat*. They are born with *instinctive* behavior patterns that enable them to survive in these specific environments – taking care of physical safety and food mainly. These biologically inherited patterns *unfold automatically* as the baby animals grow bigger and stronger. Birds begin to build nests, spiders begin to weave webs, cats begin to catch mice, monkeys leap and swing in tree branches, and so on. These are biologically programmed patterns which appear in every individual animal – unless there is some severe disturbance like injury, starvation. Removal to a very different environment often causes death quite soon.

Human beings are fundamentally different. Firstly, there is *no specific natural habitat* for which we are biologically suited. People live in deserts, tropical forests, high mountains and icy arctic regions, near the seaside, in concrete towers of big cities, submarines and space stations. The invention of tools, clothing, buildings, cooking and preserving food has made this possible. Secondly, human communities have developed elaborate cultural environments which largely determine their way of life. These vary widely across places and groups and as we have seen, many items of this culture have to be acquired by the growing child, and on the whole they do succeed in this. The question that arises is whether there is some genetic (inherited) programming that the child is born with which would help in the process of cultural learning. Is there anything similar to instinctive behavior patterns? The answer has to be 'NO'! The reason that it is not possible to predict beforehand *which particular cultural environment* a child will be born into. Even after a child has been conceived, the pregnant mother can move to another place or community. This can also happen a few weeks or months after the child is born. So where the human child will grow up (which community) is a matter of chance. Therefore any programming that is matched to a specific 'future' environment will be useless. The child will be in some quite different environment. Thus *all the behavior* related to the surrounding culture has to be developed after birth through inputs from the environment. There is *nothing that will unfold* automatically from within the child. The only biologically programmed features are *bodily reflexes*: sucking, grasping, crying, blinking and vomiting. These are necessary for physical survival. Everything else – using a cup or spoon, sitting on a stool, hopping and skipping, speaking the home language, singing – has to be learnt/acquired.

We learn from this that the human child is born not with readymade patterns of behaviour but the *potential to learn*. This is perhaps not very surprising. It seems a matter of common sense. But on looking more closely, we see that this potential for learning is truly amazing. The child is able to learn what is

appropriate and needed *wherever* she/he is, and whatever the culture there contains. This means that the potential or capacity to learn needs to cover practically everything found in any culture — old or new. This is an aspect of human nature. In a later section we will look at the significance of this wonderful human resource — the potential for learning — for the planning and organization of formal education. But before that, the question of how this potential is realized needs to be discussed.

Check Your Progress 3

1 What is learning and how does it happen in the human species?

.....

2 What are some of the things that you learnt in an unstructured way?

.....

3 Give four ways in which humans are fundamentally different from animals.

.....

1.4 FROM POTENTIAL TO ACTUAL LEARNING: THE ROLE OF A SUPPORTIVE ENVIRONMENT

The sections above have shown us how the basic capacity for learning is a necessity for human social existence, and a part of human nature. It is important to be very clear about what this *potential* means. It is something that only *makes learning possible*, and is *not* the same as actual (successful) learning in any field. When we say every child has the potential to learn, it means that *if the opportunity and support are provided* by the environment, learning can take place. There are hardly any biological and unalterable *limitations within the child*. We often see lack of interest and poor motivation to learn certain things and these are child based negative factors. But they are *not* evidence of any permanent lack of capacity to learn, they are temporary conditions that can be altered. The basic potential or capacity to learn is what we are discussing.

The term *learning* has a specific meaning in psychology. It is defined as: *changes in a person’s behavior (or potential for behavior) that occur as a result of interaction with the environment*. This is to distinguish learnt behavior from new behavior patterns that unfold from within. If there is no interaction with the environment there is no learning. Some input and support from the environment is a *necessary* component of the process of learning. The long period of childhood will be filled by learning related to culture *only if* there

is active interaction with a supportive environment. Interaction is a *two-way process* which involves other *persons*. Contact with various aspects of the physical environment is also needed for some aspects of learning.

Since very many different things have to be learnt by the child depending on where she/he is growing up, the potential for learning must be *open ended or 'plastic'*. It should not be linked to particular types of ability, but allow learning in any area. There is hardly any evidence that some people are born with special qualities that help in the learning of particular skills. From what we know of persons who have developed certain abilities to a high level or excelled in various fields — humanities, science, creative writing, art, sports — is clear that many of them came from ordinary backgrounds. Most of them did not have parents who were outstanding in these fields, though some probably did have this advantage. In any case, what even they got from their parents was encouragement; they did *not* inherit special qualities biologically. Teachers and mentors who inspired and supported them are frequently mentioned in their stories. Factors in the environment must have played the major role in their learning — though it is not clear exactly how this works.

We also know about the critical role of the human social-cultural environment in normal development. Many of us would have read reports about children who were separated from human contact soon after birth. Some grew up among animals. In some cases children were locked up in sheds or underground rooms by cruel adults and only given water and plain food to keep them alive. When discovered and saved or rescued these children showed hardly any of the behavior patterns we consider natural or normal in a human community. They had only survived physically but not developed in other (cultural) ways.

Thus human development over the years of childhood is crucially dependent on inputs from the environment. This is in sense good news for us as teachers. The environments for learning we help to create in our classrooms does make a difference.

Check Your Progress 4

Say how the environment for learning that we create in our classrooms makes a difference in the teaching-learning process.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

1.5 THE CAPACITY TO LEARN – EVERY ONE’S GIFT

The discussion above has emphasized the vastness and richness of the learning that every individual needs to do over a lifetime (not just childhood), and the potential for this that is available at birth. The notion that *every individual* has this powerful potential is not always properly understood and appreciated. It

is true that individuals differ from one another in many ways, including their success levels in learning various things. We tend to assume that some people have some special – probably inborn – capacity. It is important here to make the distinction between developing knowledge and skills to a moderate and useful degree and becoming a highly competent specialist. Most people reach the first level in a range of activities. Only a few go on to become real (famous) experts. This is because they want to do so and make the effort and also have support from the environment. Others are not interested and may even try and give up, but this does not show they *lack the capacity* to learn.

However, there is some apparently contrary evidence. This comes mainly from the school setting. Achievement levels of many students in public education programmes are quite poor. (This must be why for most students ‘exams’ are associated with anxiety and discomfort.) Test results at all stages of education show that many students face difficulties and also fail in various subjects. This is even true for language, which we know is easily acquired even before children come to school and language is indeed an extremely rich and complex system of knowledge. (However, we must remember that languages in childhood are acquired in informal settings where there is no stress or anxiety.) Such negative evidence has come from many countries all over the world, year after year. It is a finding or fact that has to be taken seriously. How can we make sense of this contradiction? If all children have a powerful capacity to learn as we saw above, why is it that in the school (a place meant for learning) there is so much lack of progress by learners? We will discuss this matter in the next section. But first the claim that many children are ‘doing badly in school’ has to be seen in a proper perspective.

The data used to support the general statement comes from formal tests and examinations. These cover subject knowledge in certain fields. Let us look at a child (in class VI) who fails in mathematics and physical science. We can accept that she is weak in these particular subjects. But she might be doing fairly well in other subjects like language and EVS and history. Also the tests do not tell us *anything* about her level of skill in working with others on projects, and in singing, drama, art, sports, caring for weaker children. These are only some of the aspects of the all round development of the child which education aims at. So in the publicity about poor performance in school there is often successful learning in many other areas which tends to get overlooked. What the evidence shows is that for certain school subjects test scores indicate that many students are not making satisfactory progress; nothing more. Thus, the argument that all children have the capacity to learn has not been weakened.

In trying to understand poor progress in learning school subjects, we need to consider the possibility that the syllabus and teaching methodology might not match the readiness and needs of all students with their diverse qualities. Also, if the school has poor facilities, if the teacher does not teach ‘well’ (possibly because of lack of proper training), if there is a social climate which marginalizes and demoralizes children from some groups, if a child has been absent on account of illness, it is almost inevitable that learning levels will be low. This is especially true of children who do not have study facilities and the stimulation and support of educated family at home.

The simple point is that we must be very careful not to interpret ‘poor performance’ – on a test or even a class assignment – as an indication of poor learning capacity/ability without considering other explanations.

Check Your Progress 5

- 1 Formal school tests often do not truly assess the capabilities of the learners. Discuss.

.....

.....

.....

**1.6 THE SETTING OF THE FORMAL SCHOOL:
A STRUCTURED COMPONENT OF
SOCIALIZATION**

All modern societies have the institution of formal education which deals with certain areas of the socialization of the young in a carefully planned and structured manner. This is based on the principle that certain areas of knowledge and skill and also values and attitudes are desirable or necessary, and all children must be given instruction to promote the relevant learning in an organized manner. It cannot be left to the informal processes of socialization. About ten years of study in formal school is *compulsory* for all children in most states today. Our work as teachers (of various subjects) is framed by the policies, provisions and regulations of public education. In practice as we know this means that students are placed in grade levels for each of which there is a prescribed syllabus (plus related textbooks) and an examination scheme. The teacher and her class of 30 or 40 or more students follow or implement the syllabus over about 200 sessions or lessons mainly. This is a very different setting for learning from the informal or natural settings we discussed above. How do we understand and deal with *learners* in this structured context, marked by a given syllabus and a group of students to teach together?

Let us look at some of the specific features of school based instruction and how these might influence learning. Firstly, there is the need to follow a syllabus according to a fixed timetable and plan for the term and deal with 30 (or more) students together. This means that *the readiness, needs and interests of individual students in a class are not (cannot be) a primary concern of the syllabus*. The informal learning we discussed earlier happens as and when the child is ready and often with individualized attention and support from one or more helpers.

Secondly, formal instruction is monitored through frequent tests and examinations. These are based on the principle that everyone must be assessed in the same manner—to be fair. It is inevitable that some students will perform better than others, and generally stay ahead. This means that many students (about half) *always get the negative message that they are near the bottom of the class*. Special inputs to help the ‘weaker’ ones improve is not a part of the regular plan.

Thirdly, the focus of instruction at school programme (most of the time everyday) and of tests is on subject related knowledge given in textbooks. *This means that many talents and interests children do have in the area of social*

relations, emotional maturity, manual and artistic skills, risk taking and creativity are ignored and even belittled sometimes.

What we see in these examples is that the standard syllabus is inappropriate for many children in various ways. Appropriate instruction based on readiness and learner centred pacing is not what they get. This will hinder effective learning, and will also lead to demoralization and loss of interest. Teachers especially need to keep these negative factors outside the child in mind, and not lose faith in the capacity for learning if *given a fair chance that all children have.*

Despite these problems many students struggle and overcome them. Teachers who care, and who are resourceful and imaginative are able to ‘beat the system’ by making adaptations to suit local conditions. All of us must know such persons, and we must celebrate their contribution and try to follow them. However, there is very little that individual teachers can do to change the basic structure of the large and complex system of public education which prescribes the same instruction for each child. Change has to come at the systemic (or policy) level. In this context we can happily note that some interesting and encouraging changes are slowly taking shape. The NCF 2005 referred to in the introduction embodies a whole new approach to education. As the suggested reforms are better understood and implemented, perhaps slowly, some of the problems we just noted will be eased. *One truly significant new idea is that children have a role as co-constructors of knowledge.* They are not only passive receivers and absorbers of what the textbook and teacher give. This suggests that they can be *partners* in the process of education. Let us look briefly at some implications of this new perspective on the role of learners.

Check Your Progress 6

1 Debate the statement given below:

Formal learning is necessary but may often contribute negatively to a child’s development.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

2 Talk about one teacher you know who challenged the system. What did s/he do? How did s/he do it?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

1.7 CHILDREN AS ACTIVE CONTRIBUTORS TO THE LEARNING PROCESS: RESOURCES THEY BRING TO SCHOOL

One of the major problems with syllabus based group instruction is that the standard syllabus does not match the needs of individual learners. Teachers try to adapt the given content, especially by simplifying subject matter or otherwise providing help to ‘weaker students’ through supplementary materials. Such efforts are of course useful and must be kept up. But they still have their focus on covering the given content or portions. The new approach we are considering looks at the knowledge to be gained differently. It suggests that the body of knowledge in the syllabus is more a starting point for learning than the end. The aim of instruction is not to gain all of it as it stands but to relate concepts and principles to life outside the text book and the classroom. It will take us a long time to fully understand and work with this profoundly new orientation for all subjects and for all levels of education. But we can pick up one idea. Relating to life is not only a matter of teachers devising practical applications, but also of *children doing some of this thinking and exploration according to their perceptions*. This provides material for sharing and discussion, and the teachers will have to guide and moderate them. But it does bring new ideas (beyond the correct answer already in the book) into the classroom. Children can thus be *active participants and contributors* to the classroom process. And in this sense partners.

A central idea underlying this approach is *diversity*. We are aware of many types of differences within any large collection of people. The most obvious are along ‘bio-data’ categories – age, sex, mother tongue, religion, place of birth, rural/urban location, and so on. We often see such information in statistical tables in reports of ‘users of government hospitals’, ‘candidates for elections’, ‘teachers in elementary schools’ and so on. This is static information. In the context of the process of education we are concerned with the diversity of attitudes, opinions, interests, aspirations, beliefs among children (and teachers) in a school and its classrooms. This diversity comes partly from different cultural backgrounds, and the term used for this is *multiculturalism*. Since children also come with different home languages, and often also know other local languages, multilingualism is also a major aspect of diversity. It is unfortunate that teachers are often not even aware of the linguistic and cultural diversity present in their classes; this diversity can be a major resource for the creation of knowledge.

One message of the new approach is that such multicultural, multilingual diversity has always been there in public education, but it has been ignored and sometimes viewed as a problem. Now we want to recognize and value diversity in our classrooms. We will find it not in official registers, but through interacting and engaging with students. This is where *discussion* – which provides a space for children’s voices to be heard – is important in the new pedagogy. We can also see that without such diversity ‘discussion’ in class would fail to take off. Every child will say more or less the same thing (as they now do when writing examinations answers.) How boring this would be! All this is only a glimpse of a new philosophy and approach to education. A few general examples of how classroom lessons can be organized to let children be active participants

and contributors are given here. (We might come back to these possibilities and consider relating them to teaching English in Block 3)

Children love to talk and *tell others* about what they saw and heard, what they did, what they like, and so on. Only a few children who seem generally to be very shy and withdrawn or even uncomfortable in the company of others are ‘non-talkers’. However, interested listeners are usually found only at home. When groups of children are together in an unstructured or free setting, a few tend to dominate and not give others a chance. Also, many children come to school with strong image of school as a place where the right thing to do is keep quiet and listen to the teacher talk. If opportunities for ‘sharing experiences’ are created in class (and outside), with a *fair chance* for all, children will begin to talk more. But no child’s experiences or feelings should be pre-judged as right/wrong or good/bad. In fact there is no right answer. If this safe space to talk is provided in small ways in class, the level of participation would also improve over a period of time.

Most lessons have a ‘topic’ in focus, which could be an object, event, situation or idea expressed in words. Students in a class because of their diversity (age, sex, social background, interests) will perceive and respond to this *stimulus* in varied ways in an open discussion. Their initial responses are all valid, and cannot be categorized as right/wrong. If the teacher understands this and sends such a signal, more children will open up and contribute. It is in such discussions that ‘relating textbook knowledge to life outside’ takes place.

One of the most delightful and lovable (but also at times irritating) qualities of children is their *curiosity*. Anything that is new and moderately *puzzling* invariably activates the desire to see, touch, explore and ask questions. Teachers often complain about children showing boredom and lack of interest in class. This could be because dry information (facts, definitions, rules/principles) are being presented, one after the other – seemingly only to be memorized. When questions to which there is no clear correct answer and those that lead to other questions are raised, children are likely to participate with greater interest in such discussions. If the information (in the portions) that have to be covered is seen as possible answers to questions raised in *their minds* it may seem less boring.

Children enjoy playing games where there is friendly/healthy competition between individuals and teams. In team settings it is natural to help one’s peers. It is common experience that there is competition among students in class for ‘high marks’. But there is also evidence that this occurs largely among those ‘near the top’, and pressure from parents is a factor. Most students are *not* caught up in intense competition with others. Interesting small group (team) activities involving cooperation can give all children opportunities to participate in class without worrying about being wrong. The feeling that they have ideas and suggestions to contribute is also important for children’s self concept. Intergroup competition can be added sometimes for fun.

Encouraging children to express themselves during transactions in class has a further significance. We can see that it is a way of discovering and recognizing diversity as a resource. But *valuing diversity* means going further. Letting children write their own interpretations and stories in *their* books and accepting them generously while assessing and giving feedback is of course an important first step. But students in a class (and school) need to engage with, learn from one another – especially those who are *different* in various ways. For this sharing

and discussion, and working together in groups/teams has to be a main strand of class activity, not only an occasional extra. It is important for children to see that everyone has some contribution to make – children of varying backgrounds, profiles of interest and skills, including those who have special needs (differently abled). The idea and ideal of the *inclusive* classroom in which *all* children are accepted and welcomed is a major commitment we have today – inspired in part by the NCF and energized by the Right to Education (RTE).

These few examples are meant to get us to think more positively about children and what they might contribute as active learners in class. It is useful to note that language as a school subject (especially English) is not concerned primarily with transmitting a fixed body of knowledge, as is the case with many content subjects. Some information about the language as a system of rules (grammar, pronunciation, word formation, etc.) must be given or elicited. But the focus is on developing the ability to comprehend and express meaning – using these rules as resources. So in the English class, especially, letting children express themselves in speech and in writing is not going to take time away from important ‘subject matter’ in the syllabus.

Check Your Progress 7

- 1 Why is it necessary to encourage children to use their mother tongue?

.....
.....
.....

- 2 Give three instances through which the teacher could improve participation in their class.

.....
.....
.....

1.8 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we introduced you to a new orientation to education that is spreading and gaining strength in which the way the learner is viewed has changed. The new curricular approach stresses the role of the learner as an active participant who co-creates new knowledge as a partner with the teacher, rather than one who receives and stores knowledge given to her/him. This does not at all mean that the role of the teacher has been minimized in any way; her role in fact becomes more challenging.

We noted that human existence is primarily in the artificial world of civilization that human beings have created, and in which culture which takes many forms plays a dominant role. What individuals think, feel and do is strongly influenced by the culture around them. We saw that every child (individual) has to *learn* many aspects of culture after birth since there is nothing related to specific cultural practices that is inherited biologically from parents. This means that every child is born with the potential to learn a wide range of things; most of all she is born with a capacity to acquire languages.

We noted the important principle that learning (facilitated by the child's potential) is crucially dependent on inputs from the environment, and most of these are based on interaction with other persons. Many persons help the process of human learning, and only some of them are 'teachers'.

We were reminded of the familiar fact that all children learn (develop knowledge, skills, attitudes and values) in a range of fields quite successfully through the informal and unplanned processes of socialization in everyday settings. We realized that the state controlled structure of formal education in school creates a setting for learning which is very different from the informal and child friendly settings for learning associated with socialization in every situation. Two aspects are important: the need to complete a fixed syllabus within a given time, and the provision for one teacher to deal with 30 or more students together. The result is that the readiness and needs of many students cannot be met satisfactorily and they begin to fall back and often also lose their interest and motivation. It was emphasized that low performance and even failure of many students (widely found in test results) can have many external causes, and poor learning capacity of individuals is only one possible factor.

We noted that one of the main challenges facing the teacher is to adapt the fixed syllabus to try and meet the needs of diverse students. Here we saw that the new approach recognizes what children experience and come to know in their lives outside school as a contribution to the knowledge creation process in school. This helps us to appreciate how students are partners and diversity is a resource. Finally we looked at a few classroom activities that would encourage active participation by all learners, and noted that such participation is important to achieve the goal of inclusive education.

1.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

National Curriculum Framework (NCF), 2005

N. Spada and P. Lightbown, (2013) *How Languages are Learned (Oxford Handbooks for Language Teachers)*, Oxford University Press.

1.10 ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1 The Right to Education Act of 2009
- 2 Learner as an active participant in the teaching-learning process, which we call learner-centred education.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1 The complex network of knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, values is known as 'culture'. Culture is dynamic and evolving and changes along with political, economic and technological elements, as also introduction to 'new ideas'.
- 2 Do it yourself.

Check Your Progress 3

- 1 Learning as a process which occurs when a helpless human infant slowly

gains knowledge, skills, beliefs and values which enables it to participate in its culture. This is developed by a process of socialization in a particular culture.

- 2 Do it yourself.
- 3 (i) Animal species normally live and can survive only in their natural habitat. There is no specific natural habitat for humans.
(ii) Animals are born with instinctive behaviour patterns. Humans do not have instinctive behaviour patterns which help to survive them.
(iii) Animals: inherited patterns unfold automatically.
Humans: nothing will unfold automatically from within the child except bodily reflexes.
(iv) Animal: no potential to learn more than biologically programmed.
Humans: have the potential to learn new things all their lives.

Check Your Progress 4

Do it yourself.

Check Your Progress 5

- 1 All children have an inborn capacity to learn even highly specialized knowledge and skills if they so desire and if the environment supports them.
However, the contrary evidence comes from the school system, where achievement levels of many students in the public education programmes is quite poor.
In trying to understand poor progress in learning school subjects, we need to consider the possibility that the syllabus and teaching methodology might not match the readiness and needs of all students with their diverse qualities. Also, if the school has poor facilities, if the teacher does not teach 'well' (possibly because of lack of proper training), if there is a social climate which marginalizes and demoralizes children from some groups, if a child has been absent on account of illness, it is almost inevitable that learning levels will be low. This is especially true of children who do not have study facilities and the stimulation and support of educated relatives at home.
The simple point is that we must be very careful not to interpret 'poor performance' – on a test or even a class assignment – as an indication of poor learning capacity/ability without considering other explanations.

Check Your Progress 6

- 1 Formal education which concentrates on covering a syllabus does not take into account
 - learner readiness and interests of individual students
 - weaker students not given enough support as part of a regular plan
 - talents and skills of students ignored and performance in tests is privileged

- inclusion of students as partners in the teaching-learning process.

2 Do it yourself.

Check Your Progress 7

- 1 (i) It would help the classroom be a space where diversity is encouraged.
(ii) Encourages children to share their varied experiences.
(iii) Encourages an inclusive classroom where all children are accepted and welcomed.
- 2 (i) By encouraging use of mother tongue in the classroom.
(ii) By giving opportunities to students to “share” their experiences.
(iii) By not categorizing student responses as right or wrong.



UNIT 2 THE LANGUAGE LEARNER-2

Structure

- 2.0 Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction: Learner Factors that Affect Learning in School
- 2.2 The Personal and Unique Quality of Learning
- 2.3 The Student's Readiness to Engage with a New Topic
- 2.4 Interest and Motivation for Schoolwork or Studies
- 2.5 Learner Characteristics that Influence Learning at School
 - 2.5.1 Characteristics Lying More in the Cognitive Domain
 - 2.5.2 Learning Styles and Preferences
 - 2.5.3 Multiple Intelligences
- 2.6 Flexibility in the Curriculum: Valuing Diversity and Promoting Autonomy
- 2.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.8 Suggested Reading
- 2.9 Answers

2.0 OBJECTIVES

This unit aims to help extend your understanding and appreciation of

- the various ways in which children (as whole persons) differ from one another;
- the distinction between capacity to learn and alternative styles or modes of learning;
- how some of these characteristics influence children's engagement with the curriculum; and
- special aptitudes that nearly all children have which can make them contributors to the curriculum.

2.1 INTRODUCTION: LEARNER FACTORS THAT AFFECT LEARNING IN SCHOOL

Learning occurs both through natural process of socialization in everyday life and through planned formal instruction in school. Both are important for the development of the child into an adult who is well integrated with society. In this unit we will focus on child related factors that influence learning in school, which is our primary (but of course not only) concern. What are some of the *personal characteristics* of learners that we need to keep in mind when developing the curriculum and planning classroom activities? Some of the points we discuss relate to school based learning in general, and some are more directly related to **learning language**.

2.1 THE PERSONAL AND UNIQUE QUALITY OF LEARNING

Learning is an individual process. Even if there is a class of thirty, receiving the same lessons based on the same textbook and monitored by the same tests, each child's learning is a unique process. Schools and classes may be large, but it is the progress of the individual – shown in the report card – that children (and parents) are interested in. Even in our mass education system with several lakhs appearing for a Board examination, each answer script is *evaluated separately*. Thus what each child learns from common instruction is our focus of interest. Earlier we tended to think that the new knowledge in a lesson simply got added to a store in the learner's mind. This was called the “jug and mug model” of teaching. Knowledge from the teacher's jug is poured like milk or water into each child's mug. We know now that children's minds are not ‘mugs’ of the same type and little packets of (new) knowledge are not simply received as they are. Even more important is the idea that learners are not merely receiving additional packets of knowledge. It is useful to think of each child's development over time as a journey on which many things are experienced, including of course what comes from school lessons. The learning from all these prior experiences is what each *child brings to class* on any day. The new input from the lesson has to be *integrated* with the knowledge that is already there. So the new learning is not a simple matter of adding little bits. Various personal qualities of the child will affect this process of learning or ‘uptake’ from a lesson. A recognition of this uniqueness – which means diversity in the class – is central to the approach to curriculum and learning. One of the major challenges facing the teacher is to adapt the standard or common material in the text book to suit the qualities or needs of varied learners.

In this unit we take up two themes that might help us understand more about individual differences among learners that we hope common instruction will respond to. One is the notion of readiness for learning – the link between prior learning and what is new in a lesson. The other is the variation in children's *ways of learning* – which is related to *how* they engage with and take in the new knowledge that is presented to them in school lessons. Our focus will be on language learning.

2.1 THE STUDENT'S READINESS TO ENGAGE WITH A NEW TOPIC

All of us have had the experience as students in school of finding certain topics taken up in class ‘difficult’. The basic ideas did not make sense, the explanations did not help and we could not handle the practice exercises or problems. In some cases a sensitive and resourceful teacher has provided special help in various ways to help learners overcome such difficulties fairly quickly, so that they could keep up with the others. In other less happy cases, the difficulty and lack of understanding was overcome only much later – in remedial lessons, but some times never at all. This happens over and over again to many students at all levels. This is because there is a *mismatch* between what the teaching plan for the topic *assumes as available prior knowledge* and what individual students actually have. This is a problem that always comes up when a standard syllabus is covered according to a fixed calendar. Many learners are not ready

for the given lesson. If they do not learn as expected, it is because of this inadequate preparation, and not because of low learning capacity

The standard syllabus for any subject is based on certain logical and reasonable assumptions. The syllabus for Class V builds on the Class IV syllabus, and the Class VI syllabus builds on what is in the Class V syllabus, and so on. The problem in the classroom arises because every child has not properly learnt or mastered everything covered earlier. Teachers often do some revision before taking up a new topic. This is of course useful, but may not be enough. The important concepts that the new lesson or unit will build on need to be identified carefully and revision should target these points. This will enable those who are less prepared or behind others to follow the new material and keep up with the others in class. The important idea about readiness is that it is *not a fixed* characteristic of the child, but a highly variable factor closely *linked to particular topics*. A child might be unclear about certain point of grammar (e.g., She lives in X /She is living in X/ She lived in X). But the same child might know most of the words in a story or poem that comes in the same textbook unit. In other subjects too we will find children having difficulties with ideas related to one topic but at the same time learning quite happily in another area. Thus the factor of low readiness which may come in different lessons and subjects is not related to any basic ability or capacity to learn. It is *not a fixed* characteristic of the child. A student who shows lack of relevant knowledge in any area needs to be given specifically planned help. As mentioned earlier this will allow her/him to catch up with others. If sufficient help is provided in the initial weeks of a term, a student’s readiness problem might slowly disappear. This is one of the most challenging areas in pedagogy.

Check Your Progress 1

- 1. What is ‘readiness’? What are the ways in which this factor can be used effectively by the teacher in the learning process?

.....
.....
.....

- 2. ‘Readiness’ is not a fixed characteristic of a child. Discuss the statement in the light of what you have read in the unit and understood from your own experience.

.....
.....
.....

2.4 INTEREST AND MOTIVATION FOR SCHOOLWORK OR STUDIES

All of us must have had the experience ourselves or of those we know well losing interest in studies and wanting to give up – and even drop out – at some time or the other. Fortunately, these negative moods change after some time in many cases. When these students get back to studies they usually have

a large backlog to deal with or may have lost a year. We need to note the distinction between this *general loss* of interest and motivation, and negative attitude students sometimes develop to a particular subject or topic or teacher. This will affect learning in that subject, but the student might be doing quite well in other subjects, and on the whole be happy at school. The general problem of interest and motivation is not linked to a particular subjects or teacher. The negative attitude seems to apply to practically all school activities, which can also lead to getting more isolated and unhappy. There are two possible causes of this condition. One is the feeling that everything is too difficult and that there is no real help from teachers or students (friends). It could be that the student started the term with many gaps in prior learning (readiness), but no diagnosis leading to appropriate action was taken up. She/he would have found lessons difficult to follow from the beginning. Sometimes other children may make fun of such students. Unit tests reinforce the fact of being far behind others, and usually no help to improve is provided. All this can lead to feeling unable to do anything successfully and a sense of worthlessness. (We will discuss this idea again under *self-esteem*). Such loss of confidence often makes a child unwilling even to try, and interest and motivation are slowly lost. Such occurrences are not the individual teacher’s fault: the problem lie in the larger system. The already overburdened teacher cannot provide intensive individual attention to each student. However, as already noted, the teacher can try and adapt the syllabus and materials to some extent. The important point here is that teachers need to convey to ‘weak’ students that they (teachers) are aware of students’ difficulties and are trying to help them. Encouragement can be shown in small ways. The feeling of being cared for matters greatly to such children. Reaching out to such children is linked to what we said about the inclusive classroom. Children need to feel they are welcome in school and class, and also that they are respected. The gentle pressure they feel should be to try and keep trying, and not necessarily to succeed.

Low motivation as we noted is nearly always a *temporary condition* initially. It can become more pronounced if there is no support. But helping a student to overcome loss of motivation and interest even in one subject area can have positive effect in other areas also. Thus we can see the value of creating and maintaining a supportive social climate in classrooms.

Check Your Progress 2

1. Why do students lose interest in school work in general? What can teacher do to help them renew their interest in their studies?

.....

2.5 LEARNER CHARACTERISTICS THAT INFLUENCE LEARNING AT SCHOOL

The two factors we considered above – readiness and motivation – are strongly influenced by what happens to the child, in other words, by external events. By changing the environment a student’s readiness and motivation can be changed. There are also factors which influence learning that lie within the child

and seem to fairly stable. When we describe a person we usually focus on such qualities. As students of literature at high school we have all written ‘character sketches’ of individuals who appear as characters in plays or stories. The qualities focused on are ones that lie within and do not change. Certain qualities of individuals that are related to their general nature or *personality* are of interest to us in the context of learning at school. We now look at some of these qualities that differentiate different types of learners among children. We must remember that these characteristics *especially of school age children* are not altogether fixed. Though relatively stable they can change gradually and teachers and peers can contribute to this process.

Some qualities appear to be more related to the capacity to learn and solve problems especially in the context of studies at school. A second category is more related to preferences and habitual ways of doing things i.e. what a person is comfortable with. Feelings and social relationships are covered here.

2.5.1 Characteristics Lying More in the Cognitive Domain

a) General Scholastic Ability

One of the very commonly used words when teachers and parents talk about children in school is ‘bright’. Parents sometimes compare one child with a brother or sister and describe one as ‘bright’ and the other as less so. Teachers also know who the ‘bright’ ones in their classes are. The term is associated with ability to understand and remember what is taught in various subjects, learning quickly and doing well in tests. It is unfortunately often used carelessly as we shall see later in this section. The basis of the term is the notion of *intelligence* – which is well known (but not well understood.) It is true that some individuals consistently perform better in school tests, and are good at solving puzzles and riddles and in memory based games. They do relatively well on mental ability (or intelligence) tests which have items on reasoning, pattern recognition, problem solving. The mental quality or ability that such tests measure is also called *scholastic aptitude* since this seems to help students to do well in their *studies* which are related to school subjects.

We need to remember that the label ‘studies’ does not include learning in many areas which are seen as important for the holistic or well rounded development of the child: art, music, dance, sports, drama, team work, caring for others, leadership, and so on.

Obviously students with a higher level of scholastic ability will perform better in many class activities and tests related to them than others, especially when knowing and remembering what is in prescribed texts and writing long answers are involved. But curriculum transaction today also includes more open ended activities (not linked to a single ‘correct answer’): dialogues, dramatization of themes, situations from stories and poems, creating displays/charts, sharing experiences outside school and so on. In this wider context of activities where written answers (to test questions) are only one component, those students with high scholastic aptitude will not automatically have any big advantage. So we can state that the general level of scholastic ability of students does not influence their language learning in class in a strong and consistent way. This is especially true now, when communication skills are being emphasized rather than knowledge about language. Therefore, teachers should not simply assume that learners who get high or low grades in other subjects will perform similarly in the language

class. The earlier discussion about prior learning and readiness is relevant here. Students who have not learnt what is needed as background for new learning will of course face difficulties. This is related to lack of opportunity to learn, *not* to low capacity to learn. While we should be happy about students who are doing well in studies, *we must be very careful not to judge others as low in scholastic ability without proper evidence. We should expect so called scholastically weak students also to do well—especially in the language area.*

b) Language Learning Aptitude

We often come across people who have learnt a number of languages both at school and college and when they have travelled abroad. So there is a popular idea that some people have a knack for languages, just like having a feel for music or dancing or being good with one's hands. In the second half of the last century the study of languages, especially foreign languages, began to increase—covering more languages and more students. Linguists and psychologists took up research on language aptitude, and two well known tests were developed: the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT) of Carroll and Sapon (1959), and the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery (PLAB) of Pimsleur (1966). These tests have sections dealing with specific sub-skills like phonetic coding, grammatical sensitivity, sound discrimination, sound symbol association, short term memory after rote learning. *They do not look like language tests* at all, as they focus on some of the 'hidden' cognitive processes that underly the speaking or listening we normally do while using a language. The theory is that if a person gets high scores on these sections, s/he has basic abilities which are a big advantage when learning a new language. These tests were found to be fairly useful in identifying potentially good students of language(s) and those who found language study difficult. They were widely used especially in the USA for several years.

We are interested here in the nature of a basic aptitude for learning language, languages actually, which has implications for pedagogy. Here we find that the two tests have limitations. One is that they contain tasks (items) which look complicated and only someone who has been educated in formal school for about eight years would understand the instructions. The tests are meant for older learners, and so they do not give us any useful data about the 'language aptitude' of primary school children. Secondly, they were developed more than half a century ago. The approach to language instruction then emphasized drills and pattern practice, learning about the system (rules of grammar and pronunciation). Now, with much greater focus on meaning and participation in communicative activities, the processes and sub-skills involved in learning would be different. New aptitude tests need to be developed.

If we go back to what we noted about children's learning capacity, we find there is a basic problem with the idea of aptitude. *All children learn to speak their home languages* long before they start formal school. There is no indication of different levels (low, average, high) of aptitude among children: everyone learns successfully. It is true that when the learning of reading and writing starts in school, there are always different success levels. This is the challenge we face. How can we make the teaching-learning of the written form of language more like the success story of learning to speak the home language? There is no scientific evidence that differences in aptitude for language are a factor in early

learning at school. Anyway, our education policy commits us to help children learn *languages* — three in most cases. Aptitude is not a relevant or helpful idea for us. Later when, college level optional and advanced language courses come up, language aptitude test scores can help in choosing to study or not study languages as special subjects. It is in such a setting that the MLAT and PLAB were most helpful.

Check Your Progress 3

1. What is intelligence? Do children with scholastic ability/intelligence do well in all subjects?

.....
.....
.....

2. What are the implications of aptitude research for classroom teacher?

.....
.....
.....

2.5.2 Learning Styles and Preferences

c) Learning Styles

Educational psychologists studying the processes of learning have found that individuals seem to have different styles of learning. These are *not* linked to higher or lower levels of the capacity to learn. They are rather equally natural and effective ways of engaging cognitively with new experiences and ideas. The alternative styles are rather like being left-handed or right-handed, but they are not so sharply different or fixed. A student's typical learning style in class is an orientation or preference for how information and ideas are taken in and processed. But even these styles can and often do change over time, though only slowly. Also students can have different styles for different types of subject matter or curricular activities. Learning styles are of relevance to us because they influence learning. If there is a match between the teaching style and the student's style, learning will be more comfortable and effective. A mismatch could result in obstacles to effective learning.

Several different ways of describing and categorizing styles have been proposed by various scholars. One survey found there were about 70 such models! Obviously there is a lot of overlap, because many different words are used to talk about the same thing. We will look here only at a few interesting styles and sets of differences that might be relevant when planning for teaching. This overview only provides a general background. Some of the interesting areas in which style differences have been identified are:

(i) Sensory preference

The word teaching is associated primarily with something the teacher provides or does – usually telling or presenting. Some *input* (received through the senses – listening, seeing and feeling) is central to teaching-learning experiences especially in relation to subject matter in the syllabus. Remember that the same

message can be conveyed or presented in different ways. For instance, when we have to give someone directions for reaching a house from the station or bus stand, this can be done in different ways – using words mainly, or words and gestures or a diagram/map. Similarly, when teaching a lesson, the presentation could use different types of sensory input.

One difference among learners is in the way of ‘taking in’ information, i.e., which one suits them best. These are orientations or preferences for the mode of sensory input. The possibilities or options are: visual, auditory, tactile and kinesthetic.

Visual is based on seeing. Students with this orientation learn best from written statements (on the board or worksheets) and pictures, diagrams, models they can see.

Auditory is based on hearing. Spoken messages (like teacher talk) seem best for some students to learn.

Tactile (relating to touch) and *kinesthetic* (sense of moving body parts) are taken together. Some students learn best when they can touch and feel objects (especially models) or are themselves moving (as in demonstrations and role play).

Most teachers would say that they use all these ‘methods’ at different times during their lessons. And they would be right. The point here is that specific ways of presenting information can be chosen and used in a more planned manner after the teacher comes to know about individual students’ styles. This is especially useful when giving individual attention to students or organizing activity in pairs or small groups. Students also differ in the way they engage with or cognitively process the ‘inputs’ they receive. We now look at these differences in the way children learn.

(ii) *Whole or part focused learning*

Some learners tend to focus more on general ideas or the ‘big picture’, while others pay much more attention to the small details. This has also been described as the global versus sequential style of processing information. Some students learn better when the teacher presents and discusses general ideas and assigns related tasks; they may have a tendency to ‘switch off’ when a lot of time is spent on small details. But others may respond well to specifics and details, and feel somewhat lost when the focus is on abstract ideas.

This orientation is related to a broader factor called field dependence – field independence. Field dependent individuals are influenced by the context. For example, in a group where most people favour one opinion in a set of possibilities they are more likely to agree with others. Those who are more field independent are better able to see basic facts or arguments by themselves. This does not mean that they are independent thinkers or misfits. Their style of thinking is more analytical, that is all.

(iii) *Inductive vs. deductive learning*

Inductive learning occurs when a body of specific facts or data is given and effort is directed to finding pattern(s) or *inferring* a general principle. Tasks involving trying out possible explanations – exploring without knowing beforehand what is the best thing to do – involves such learning. Grammar is often taught

inductively in deductive learning, usually a rule or principle is given to begin with, and the discussion is on its implications and applications. Many problems in mathematics and science involve sets of deductions. Here too it is found that some students are more comfortable and learn better with the first of these approaches. They seem to enjoy finding things out for themselves – learning by discovery. Other students are more comfortable when principles and rules are stated, and the challenge is to understand and apply them.

(iv) Convergent thinking vs. divergent thinking

This dimension is related to the distinction sometimes made between ‘intelligence’ and ‘creativity’. Psychologists who have studied the way people deal with problems that require thinking and analysis have found two broad approaches. The more common one is to analyze the problem logically using relevant knowledge from mathematics or biology or economics, and then *proceed systematically* step by step towards the solution. There is a gradual progress of narrowing down or converging to the solution. This is rather similar to the deductive approach mentioned above. Some people do not go directly to the problem *as given*. They will look at it from different angles and sometimes even try to change or reformulate it. This can lead to unusual or creative suggestions. The process here is one of opening up or widening the discussion. That is why the term divergent is used. Many innovations or discoveries in science and new theories have come from people who were divergent in their thinking. However, both approaches are useful and important. Having convergent and divergent thinking students in the same class is a great resource. The problems introduced in class should allow both types to try their approaches and share their experiences.

These learning styles were mentioned here mainly to illustrate what they are. There are many others. Note that there are no ‘good’ or ‘bad’ styles. What we have seen are equally useful and effective *alternative* ways of learning. If teachers can organize some aspects of their teaching to match the styles of different students, this could facilitate better learning. To enhance the chances of such matching of styles, teachers need to add more variety to their teaching styles—by including more types of presentations and activities in their lesson plans. They need not know all the names and definitions of several learning styles. Once they have the basic concept, as they interact with successive batches of learners they will recognize different learning styles. This knowledge can guide them when planning their teaching.

d) Personality dispositions – feelings, emotions and social interactions

The term personality is a familiar one. When we talk about and describe individuals, we always say something about their *personality* – their typical *ways of behaving* in their daily lives and especially when relating to others. This is something in addition to and different from their abilities and skills, achievements, status and so on. When students write about ‘my favourite teacher’, ‘my hero’ these personal qualities are emphasized. These are fairly stable qualities or characteristics of a person (referred to as *traits*), and can be seen even in children. The study of personality is one of the major sub-fields of psychology, and involves many different theories and models. Several personality dimensions have been proposed. We will look at a few of them here to get a sense of what personality factors are. They are of interest because they seem to influence learning, but in a different manner than the more cognitive factors we just looked at.

One widely mentioned list of personality dimensions (called the big five) – aspects on which individuals differ – are the following

Extraversion - Introversion

A person near the extraversion end is generally active, energetic, outgoing, talkative and friendly.

Openness – Closed Mindedness

A person high on openness is likely to be curious, imaginative, original and has wide interests.

Conscientiousness – Undirectedness

A person high on conscientiousness behaves in an organized, efficient manner and is thorough and reliable in getting things done.

Agreeableness – Antagonism

An agreeable person is generally good natured, kind, trusting, generous, modest and appreciative

Neuroticism – Stability

A person high on neuroticism is often anxious and insecure, gets upset easily and shows signs of self-pity.

This is only an outline. The descriptions above are not at all complete. They give us a general sense of what psychologists treat as aspects of *personality*. We must note carefully that we cannot put people (especially children) into such categories. Even psychologists who conduct elaborate tests are careful about this. What is important here is that these personality dispositions are fairly stable –almost natural qualities of a person. They are not expressions of conscious and deliberate decisions to act in particular ways—they are like all established habits one does not think about. Some dispositions of children (see examples below) seem to be positive for classroom participation and others less so. The teacher must remember that a child with a certain disposition is *not doing anything deliberately*.

Let us consider personality related differences among children. Look at the examples below of different types of learners we might see in a class:

- an extraverted child who is active and talkative and likes to be interacting with others,
- a child who is more introverted and does not participate actively in group work,
- a child who is anxious and gets easily discouraged,
- a child who seems inattentive and careless about work and does not complete assignments,
- a child who seems keenly interested in new ideas and activities and enjoys engaging with them.

We should recognize that no such ‘type’ is good or bad in itself. Also, as noted already, these ways of behaving are not conscious choices made by individuals.

Teachers should appreciate that they represent children’s habitual styles or pre-dispositions, and accept them without judging them. It is true that in the conventional classroom, some types seem not well adjusted. Scolding or putting pressure on a child whose behaviour seems ‘negative’ will not help. As far as possible they should be involved in other activities. There are spaces within the curriculum where a shy and withdrawn child or even the child who seems careless is not a ‘problem’. Remember that a high pressure competitive classroom is not the ideal, though it is commonly found. The classroom climate can be changed. As teachers understand such predispositions of children and work sensitively with them, these children too can learn successfully; they may also contribute to others’ learning in small ways. And to repeat an earlier point, changes in aspects of personality can occur, but only slowly and based on a lot of supportive interaction.

Some further dimensions of personality

Another aspect of personality which is fairly easy to see is *self-esteem*. This is related to confidence and a capacity to accept challenges, take risks and risk failure without much anxiety. A person with high self-esteem is able to accept criticism, and is not worried about being unpopular at times. Teachers and peers are fortunate when there are such students in class. There will also be others low on self-esteem. We can be sure that they were not born that way. They must have been through many negative experiences in the past both in and out of school. Using the many types of situations and activities of the total curriculum to provide such children positive experiences is not very difficult for teachers using the support of peers.

Some people have a marked tendency to be strongly influenced by the opinions of those around them. This disposition is called *social conformity*. While all members of society are expected to generally follow group norms and obey rules and so on, a certain degree of independence and thinking for oneself is also treated as normal and healthy. A child who seems always to watch what others do and say, and tries to follow them and ‘not be different’ would be high on the social conformity dimension. This is not the same as low ability and confidence. Such a student might be getting quite good grades, but may not participate in group activities where each child has to contribute his/her own ideas and opinions, and may try to avoid tasks calling for innovation.

We have reviewed various dimensions on which there are individual differences among students covering both the cognitive and social-emotional dimensions. We will now look at a model which brings many of these and certain other qualities into a comprehensive picture.

Check Your Progress 4

1. List the categories of cognitive styles mentioned. According to your experience in the classroom, what are the cognitive styles which best bring about second language learning? You may take up case histories of particular students in answering this question.

.....
.....
.....

2. Have you ever thought of your students’ personality dispositions? Go through the register and mark them according to the categories mentioned. Then make an analysis of these categories and the language learning ability of each student.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

2.5.3 Multiple Intelligences

A very interesting new discussion about differences among children with implications for their progress as learners started about thirty years ago, when the psychologist Howard Gardner presented his Theory of Multiple Intelligences (in 1983). In this scheme there are seven *intelligences*, and later an eighth one was added:

Logico-mathematical, linguistic, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, spatial, inter-personal and intra-personal. Later an eighth one – *naturalistic* – was added. Traditionally we thought of ‘intelligence’ as related only to logical thinking and problem solving. Gardner says that having a feel for words (images, rhymes, striking expressions, multiple meanings) is also a form of intelligence. Similarly the powerful sense of one’s own body (which dancers and gymnasts have) is related to intelligence. The basic capacity which allows some persons to become good painters, sculptors, designers of visuals is spatial intelligence. It is easy to see what the names musical and inter-personal point to. Intra-personal intelligence is what allows people (even children) to be happy in themselves (accept their strengths and weaknesses, preserve a high self-concept). Some persons seem to have a feel for the many things in the natural world – living things, water, minerals. They not only enjoy nature but can participate with understanding and sensitivity in activities linked to the environment.

We will not go into more details about multiple intelligences. The significant idea here is that scholastic aptitude is *only one* among the special aptitudes individuals have. In fact, other psychologists had suggested even before Gardner that ‘social intelligence’ and ‘emotional intelligence’ should also be recognized as special aptitudes some persons might have. The principle that there are different types of aptitudes can be linked to what we noted about the potential for learning that all children have. We see now that often there could also be some special aptitude, which means that knowledge and skill can develop to a level of excellence. Children in schools and classrooms will have different profiles of strengths and interests. We need as teachers to be aware of this diversity and develop the capacity to recognize special aptitudes. But we must be careful not to hastily brand children as strong in one or two areas and weak in all others. We need to nurture their special potentials within our basic commitment to promote the all round development of each child. No learning opportunity should be held back from any child.

Check Your Progress 5

1. “Knowing individual learner’s learning style can help the language teacher devise learning strategies to enhance their performance...” State what the teacher should do to exploit multiple intelligences of the students in the classroom to an optimum extent.

.....

.....

.....

2.6 FLEXIBILITY IN THE CURRICULUM: VALUING DIVERSITY AND PROMOTING AUTONOMY

In the sections above we have looked at some of the ways in which individuals differ. The focus has been on individuals as persons who have their own thoughts, feelings, hopes, needs and so on. The focus has been on these psychological aspects, which lie beyond the more obvious physical ones such as sex, age, physical development, health etc. The survey has been brief and has covered only some of the many possible dimensions of individual differences. Even so we have gained a sense of how vast and rich human diversity can be. A class of 35 or even a small group of 10 has children whose unique personalities will lead to different patterns of learning. This diversity can be seen as a resource now, and we need to try and adapt the ‘standard curriculum’ to suit individual needs. This is a big challenge of course, but the new approach to the curriculum also has a source of support. This is the principle that the child relates ideas coming as inputs in lessons to her/his life outside the school and thus becomes an active co-creator of new knowledge. This knowledge will be personal and therefore different for different children. In other words, we do not have to try to make every child in a class learn exactly the same things, in the same manner, at the same rate which was the underlying principle of the traditional curriculum. In a traditional classroom, the given syllabus was covered following the required or recommended method. Individual teachers tried to give so called weak students some special help. Those who could not meet the requirements ‘failed’ and dropped out of the system and were forgotten. The RTE made drastic change in this process. Every child had the “right to education of quality” through the elementary stage (till Class VIII), which meant no failures, no dropouts. Obviously the education in this framework has to be flexible in many ways. It is necessary in a public education system to have an official syllabus and a prescribed textbook. These can have some elements of flexibility, but the real flexibility and adaptation occurs in the day to day transactions in class. This too is not something the teacher does following a detailed lesson plan with many parallel segments – but rather a process based on the joint activity of the teacher and the learners.

Flexible classroom transaction as described above involves learners’ active participation. Active participation is not only doing what is asked for in exercises and tasks which is typically the same for all students. It means importantly that learners *contribute* their ideas and suggestions, ask questions to keep the activity

going—and not only give answers to questions already raised by the teacher or in the textbook. This points to initiative and independence on the part of students who are members of a team working together (with their different skills and styles) for the benefit of all. Such cooperative activity is an opportunity both to know about others’ talents, styles and needs and to respect them.

Learner Independence and Autonomy

These two terms are often used interchangeably. Both point to the capacity to learn on one’s own – without relying heavily on the teacher’s inputs and guidance. Such a capacity is seen as an asset in the broad setting of a learner centred education. It is especially desirable for students of a second or foreign language who do not normally use this language for social communication outside class. Developing communication skills in a second or foreign language will be greatly aided by the learners’ own efforts to extend contact with the language by using or practicing it outside class. The typical five sessions a week of classroom contact can only provide a base. Much more effort by the learner is needed for effective skill development. Even intensive courses of 100 or 150 hours spread over about 6 weeks cannot in any way be complete. So the learner’s own efforts are important.

Another perspective on learner independence has come from the distance and open learning sectors. For courses in this mode there are no time tabled ‘teaching sessions’. Well designed course material is provided – in print and audio-visual media. The student has to find a suitable place and time to ‘study’ – keeping to a schedule of 15 (for example) hours a week. Such courses are thus based on self-managed or self-directed learning. The effort and discipline has to come from within. We can see here that the personal quality of independence or autonomy is important – for all areas of study, not only language. It is also true that the use of modern technology (ICT) in education is linked to modes of learning which are different from students and live-teacher interaction. This is *not* to say that the classroom has no importance any more, but rather that classroom based instruction has to be supplemented. Here again the learner’s initiative is called upon.

Check Your Progress 6

1. What was the difference between the traditional curriculum and the present day curriculum? What is learner autonomy?

.....

2. How do you make your students more independent in acquiring the second language?

.....

2.7 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have made a survey of the various ways in which individuals differ, focusing on those characteristics that might influence how they learn. We saw that two negative factors the teacher often encounters – low readiness to deal with subject matter and low interest and motivation – are caused largely by what *happens to* a student in terms of external conditions. They are not fixed characteristics of the individual and so *can be changed* by providing appropriate stimulation and support.

We saw that there are differences among children in scholastic aptitude and language learning aptitude, but we also realized that the impact of these factors on learning – especially communication skills development – is not very large. So even in a large class with an apparent gap between strong and weak learners (high marks and low marks in previous tests), there would be many activities that all can participate in and benefit from.

We also looked more closely at a few selected aspects of personality: the typical (in a sense habitual) ways in which individuals think, feel, behave. These qualities have nothing to do with the capacity to learn, but they can influence the ways in which learners participate in curriculum transaction. This influence covers both what they take in from inputs and what they contribute. The interesting aspects of diversity lie in these personal characteristics. The well known model of multiple intelligences brings the cognitive and social, emotional and bodily aspects of personality together as possible areas of special aptitudes. It is important to recognize these qualities, and make instruction flexible. Including a variety of techniques and activities will ensure that more learning styles have a match in the curriculum. Finally we noted the relevance of learner autonomy in education and especially for communication skills.

2.8 SUGGESTED READING

Gass Susan M (2017) *Input, Interaction, and the Second Language Learner* (Routledge Linguistics Classics), University College London, UK

2.9 ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1 Readiness refers to the receptivity of a learner (in terms of ability, attitude and interest) to learn new items. All of us have had experience of some students finding a particular topic ‘difficult’. This is because there is a mismatch between the teaching plan for a particular topic and the students’ ability to assimilate and understand it. In other words, some students lack readiness for a particular topic not because of low learning capacity but because of inadequate understanding/knowledge required for the topic.

A student who shows lack of relevant knowledge in any subject must be given specific planned help. This will allow her/him to catch up with the others. If sufficient help is provided, before a topic is taught, a student’s readiness problem might slowly disappear.

2 Read Section 2.2 for the answer.

Check Your Progress 2

Here are some clues:

- Subject is too difficult
- There is no real help from teachers or friends
- Sometimes other students make fun of such students, leading to low self-esteem.

Teachers can:

- provide intensive individual attention to those students.
- adapt the syllabus and materials to some extent.
- be sympathetic and sensitive to these students.

Check Your Progress 3

1 Intelligence is primarily concerned with reasoning, pattern recognition and problem solving.

Students with higher level of scholastic ability perform better in many class activities. However, they may not perform as well in more open ended activities such as – dialogues, dramatization of themes, situations from stories and poems, creating displays/charts, sharing experiences from outside school and so on.

2 There is no scientific evidence to suggest that aptitude is a factor in early learning at school. Aptitude is not a relevant or helpful idea for teachers at the school level.

Check Your Progress 4

1 A List of categories of cognitive style mentioned:

- Whole or part focus learning (field dependence – field independence)
- Inductive vs. Deductive learning
- Convergent thinking vs. Divergent thinking

2 Do it according to your own experience.

Check Your Progress 5

1 Here are some hints:

- Teacher should be aware of the diversity of the children, their strengths and interests.
- Teacher should recognize special aptitude of the children and nurture their special potential.

Check Your Progress 6

- 1 The traditional concept of curriculum was the standard curriculum which was constructive by so-called experts. The new approach to the curriculum involves the child as well. The child thus becomes an active co-creator of new knowledge. In a traditional curriculum the given syllabus is covered by following a recommended method to be used by the teacher.

Learner autonomy refers to a student's ability to set appropriate learning goals and take charge of his or her own learning. However, autonomous learners are dependent upon teachers to create and maintain learning environments that support the development of learner autonomy.

- 2
 - Develop communication skills in the second language so that students can use it for social communication outside the classroom.
 - Encourage online learning using ICT.



UNIT 3 LEARNER FACTORS IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION - 1

Structure

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Age
- 3.3 Sex
- 3.4 Aptitude
 - 3.4.1 What is Aptitude?
 - 3.4.2 Aptitude Measures
 - 3.4.3 Review or Research on Aptitude
- 3.5 Social Class
- 3.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.7 Suggested Readings
- 3.8 Answers

3.0 OBJECTIVES

In second language acquisition the role of learners is of seminal importance. What are the learner factors which impact language learning? In this Unit we will study in detail four variables which research has shown have some impact on second language learning. These are:

- age
- sex
- aptitude
- social class

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The emphasis of theory and practice of second language learning in the late nineteenth and greater half of the twentieth century was mainly on the behaviourist ideas of association between stimulus and response. It viewed the human mind as a blank slate and considered language learning as a mechanical process of habit formation. The greatest advocate of this view was the American psychologist B.F Skinner. This view was challenged by the revolutionary ideas of Noam Chomsky in 1959. He felt that behaviourism simplified the learning process and underestimated the role of **creativity** of the human mind. He asserted the remarkable capacity of the child to “generalize, hypothesize and process information in a variety of very special, apparently highly complex ways...

which may be largely innate, or may develop through some sort of learning or through maturation of the nervous system (p.158)”. This shift had a tremendous impact on research in both the first and second language learning. The learner, rather than the teacher or the materials, became the focus of the study. The learner began to be viewed as an active participant in the process of teaching-learning.

In teaching, more and more emphasis began to be given to those exercises in teaching which would help the learner to induce the language system and internalise the rules that govern the target language. However, focus on the learner gradually led researchers such as Widdowson, Morrow and others to look beyond the linguistic needs to the **communication** needs of the learners. Another important consequence of the increasing focus on the learner was that the output of the learner began to be considered independent of the learner’s first or target language. This output began to be called ‘transitional competence’ (Corder 1971), ‘approximate system’ (Nemser 1971) and ‘interlanguage’ (Selinker 1972).

This shift from the teacher and the teaching materials to the learner, his/her needs and his/her linguistic output also led some researchers to look into the learner characteristics in greater detail and identify those characteristics that appear to be more responsible for success or failure in second/foreign language learning. Significant among the learner characteristics identified so far, include the learner’s age, intelligence, aptitude, motivation, attitude, personality and cognitive style. In this Unit we will look at: age, sex, aptitude and social class.

3.1 AGE

There has been continuous debate among researchers to decide who is a better learner – is younger the better or are adult learners at an advantage when it comes to second language acquisition? Popular beliefs put the younger learner at an advantage. In the case of acquisition of English as a second language, “this belief [younger the better] partly accounts for the expansion of English language teaching to younger and younger children in many parts of the world” (Hall 2011:126). However, there have been continuous debates among the researchers on the factor of age in second language acquisition. Penfield (1953) had argued that the human brain loses its plasticity after puberty. The debate goes back to Lenneberg’s (1967) Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) which stated that maximum learning takes place in the initial years of one’s life before lateralization of the brain takes place. In his words, “...automatic acquisition from mere exposure to a given language seems to disappear [after puberty], and foreign languages have to be taught and learned through a conscious and labored effort. Foreign accents cannot be overcome easily after puberty.” (Lenneberg 1967: 176). According to CPH there is a “critical period” for the acquisition of behaviour, including language acquisition (Lenneberg, 1967). CPH was formulated on the basis of studies on first language skills of children before and after brain damage. The children who had suffered brain damage to the left hemisphere, which is associated with language learning, before and after the age of 12 were studied. He found a transfer of language abilities to the right hemisphere in the children who suffered the damage before 12. This happened rarely in those who were injured after the age of 12. Similar results were observed by Penfield and Roberts (1959) in their study of children suffering

from brain damage. They observed that those children whose brains were damaged before the ages of 9 to 12 were able to recover their language skills successfully but not those whose brains were damaged after puberty. The hypothesis actually took shape from the studies in L1 acquisition. Another term for this period is the *sensitive* period which presupposes a gradual decline in the ability to acquire language rather than an abrupt decline as espoused by CPH. The hypothesis pegs the end point at around 12 years of age followed by a slow and gradual decline.

Some studies comparing adult learners and children have found that the adults were quick starters, but the children were able to catch up with them soon. However certain language skills are acquired at a faster rate by children who obviously seem to have an edge over the adults. Studies have shown that children are better in acquiring a native-like accent which could be attributed to motor skills. It is argued that “late learners may face neurological or motor skill constraints, such as entrenched articulatory habits or restricted perceptual targets for phonetic categories, that render the possibility of native like attainment highly unlikely or impossible” (Moyer 1999: 82 in Gass and Selinker 2008: 407). Other studies have shown that native-like competence can be achieved even by people past puberty and that hasty conclusions cannot be drawn about age in second language acquisition.

Studies (Brown, 2007 and Cook, 2008) state that adult learners tend to learn and retain vocabulary better than children. However, the evidence in favour of a particular age for the acquisition of language remains largely inconclusive and highly debatable. “Age may exert universal effects on the learning of a second language, but context moderates these universal effects and needs to be considered carefully” (Ortega 2009: 17). We have to keep in mind the other social and psychological factors that may interfere with second language acquisition along with age.

Gass and Selinker (2008: 412) after the review of many studies conclude that ...the evidence indicates that young children are more likely to attain native-like proficiency in a second language than are teenagers or adults. Nevertheless, adults often learn certain parts of a new language more quickly (e.g., early morphological and syntactic development). The evidence is much more solid for an advantage for children in the acquisition of phonology, although there is some support for an advantage in other areas of language as well.

To quote Cook (1991)

The sum up, if children and adults are compared who are learning a second language in exactly the same way, whether as immigrants to Holland, or by the same method in the Classroom, adults are better. The apparent superiority of adults in such controlled research may mean that the typical situations in which children find themselves are better suited to L2 learning than those adults encounter. Age itself is not as important as the different interaction that learners of different ages have with the situations and with other people.

(Cook, 1991: 84)

He further adds

Adults start more quickly and then slow down. Though children start more slowly, they finish up at a higher level.

(Cook, 1991:85)

Thus, the researchers working on the importance of age in second language learning have shown that age is an important learner characteristic and therefore it cannot be ignored in deciding when to start teaching a second language. It is equally important to find out what materials and teaching style/strategies would be suitable for a particular age group in a specific learning situation.

Check Your Progress 1

- 1. Why according to some researchers, should a second/foreign language be taught at an early age?

.....
.....
.....

- 2. In what aspects of language are children found to excel more than adults?

.....
.....
.....

- 3. Does language acquisition after puberty always occur through the left hemisphere of the brain? Yes/No. In what circumstances does it take place through the right hemisphere?

.....
.....
.....

- 4. Who in the long run performs better, a child or an adult?

.....
.....
.....

- 5. In what way is the research on 'age' relevant for the classroom teacher?

.....
.....
.....

- 6. In your class, what is the average age of starting to learn English? Do you think it has any effect on their performance in class?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

3.3 SEX

Sex difference has been considered an important aspect of second language acquisition. It is part of one's psychological and sociocultural dimensions of personality. Sex began to be considered a sociolinguistic variable especially after the influential studies by Labov (1972) and Trudgill (1974). Research has pointed towards a 'typical pattern' whereby women tended to score more closely to the standard prestige variant compared to the scores of men (Downes, 1998).

Many sociolinguistic studies have considered sex as an important variable in the study of linguistic proficiency. Studies conducted by Labov (1966) and Trudgill (1972, 1974) show women scored closer to the 'standard prestige variant' than men. In a patriarchal society women have been excluded from centers of power and wealth. As a result, they try to compensate and 'over report' by performing better than men. The 'prestige variant' of language is seen as a marker of status and power and women being denied the other markers of power and prestige turn to language as their status marker.

According to Trudgill, it is because women try to compensate for their insecurity in a male-dominated world that they perform better linguistically. Also, the social construct of femininity expects women to be gentle, polite and discreet. This in turn gets reflected on the use of 'appropriate' language among women.

Popular belief also favours women over men in the acquisition of a language. This could be because of the society and culture which expects them to be behaving in a particular manner and inculcate social norms and mores in their children as a carrier of culture. Such behaviour in a woman is rewarded and reinforced by society. Other follow ups of variationist studies which quantify gender (Macaulay, 1978; Shuy, 1970; Wolfram, 1969 in Mesthrie et al., 2009) have found a statistical spike in women's use of 'prestige' variants of language. These early studies were straightforward with binary gender distinctions and do not emphasize diversity among women and men (Mesthrie et al., 2009: 240).

Recent studies see gender as a fluid term and study it against various contexts that dynamically underlie social and cultural interaction using language. The issues of inequality, power, identity and status are contested and examined in the light of socio-economic and cultural underpinnings. While commenting on the studies of Milroy, Nichols, and Thomas, Mesthrie et al., (2009: 221) say, "in order to understand gender differences in language it is important to look at women's and men's lifestyles in different communities: whom they interact with, and what might motivate them to adopt certain varieties." The choice of a particular variety of language over others is also suggestive of an 'act of identity' by women. There are other notable studies on gender and language that need to be mentioned here. Lakoff's (1975) 'Deficit Hypothesis' states that women's language is lacking in several aspects and the way they speak keeps them away from centres of power. Zimmerman and West (1975) look upon the aspect of 'Dominance' in the use of language among men and women. They argue that men use language to dominate and interrupt women while conversing. Pamela Fishman (1983) posits that women tend to show more cooperation and interest in their conversations with people. Another school of thought (Maltz and Borker 1982; Tannen 1990) considers the language of men and women as belonging to Different 'gender subcultures' and as a result their use of language also differ.

However, the works of Deborah Cameron (1995a, 1995b, 2006, and 2007) challenges the Differences hypothesis and questions these popular beliefs. These are all instances of how language is used as a tool to negotiate one's identity in a society charged with economic, sexual, political and cultural overtones.

Indian studies (Sawhney, 1980; Khanna, 1983 and Agnihotri et al., 1988) have found boys to be more proficient in English. However, it should be noted that these data were obtained from lower economic strata and it is bound to reflect the better exposure and opportunities enjoyed by the boys in society. Studies conducted among the elite urban population of Delhi showed women to be better performers (Sahgal, 1983). In a study of Panjabi migrant children in England learning English as a second language, Agnihotri (1979) showed that girls assimilated the prestige linguistic variants faster than the boys while resisting the stigmatised variants. Another researcher, Satyanath (1982) found that Kannadiga women in Delhi showed a higher percentage of assimilation of linguistic features associated with Hindi (the language of the host society) and a higher degree of usage than men. He found that younger women assimilated the host society's language and culture maximally. Unlike Trudgill (1974) who considered social insecurity to be responsible for higher use of prestige forms, Satyanath explained this in terms of the sociocultural aspects of the Kannadiga community in which women negotiate a greater part of the interaction with the host society.

Check Your Progress 2

1. Who, according to research, are better language learners, boys or girls? Why?

.....
.....
.....
.....

2. Have you ever consciously tried to notice any difference in language learning habits of girls and boys? Make a list of the differences. If you have not noticed these things before, observe 2-3 boys and 2-3 girls in your class for a month or so, and make a list of differences in their learning habits. Also take a note of what language features each of the sexes tries to learn faster than the other.

.....
.....
.....
.....

3. Who are better performers in your class? Girls or boys? What do you think propels their performance in English?

.....
.....
.....

3.4 APTITUDE

3.4.1 What is Aptitude?

Aptitude for a particular job or skill is the ability to learn it quickly and easily and to do it well. What people generally call a 'knack for languages' is nothing but aptitude for languages. But it is very difficult to determine what this knack is. It is certainly more than 'having an ear' for languages because everyone learns his/her first language.

It is popularly believed that some people have more aptitude for learning second languages than others. This observation has generally been made in connection with classroom learning, and not learning in real-life situations.

3.4.2 Aptitude Measures

The two best known measures of FL (foreign language) aptitude for native speakers of English are the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT) developed by Carroll and Sapon (1959) and the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery (PLAB) (1966). MLAT incorporates four main factors that predict a student's success in the classroom. This consists of

- (i) phonemic coding ability: student's ability to use phonetic scripts to distinguish phonemes in the language.
- (ii) grammatical sensitivity: student's ability to pick out grammatical functions in a sentence.
- (iii) inductive language learning ability: student's ability to generalise patterns from one sentence to another.
- (iv) rote learning: student's ability to remember vocabulary lists of foreign words paired with translations.

There are several slightly different forms of MLAT available. The MLAT itself is for use with people of 14 years of age and above. There is also an elementary form (EMLAT) for use with children between the ages of eight and eleven. There is also a short form of the test for use when the time is limited.

Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery (LAB) is appropriate for children aged 13 to 19. It emphasises inductive language learning capacity and auditory ability. Pimsleur et. al (1966) suggested that 20 to 30 per cent of children underachieve in foreign language learning because they have poor auditory ability.

3.4.3 Review or Research on Aptitude

Most research in language aptitude since then has been either in validation of the existing tests, or developing aptitude batteries for use in particular countries. For instance, the York Language Analysis Test has been developed and has been widely used in Britain. The most important research aimed at the production of a new test battery has been carried out by the American Armed Forces. This was the result of dissatisfaction felt with MLAT for not being able to discriminate at higher levels. Another type of research has examined the component for aptitude in greater depth. Skehan (1980 - 1982) examined the memory component in detail. He hypothesized that an ability to analyse text,

to extract its propositional content and remember such content would be related to greater foreign language learning success (Skehan 19139: 31). Jakobovits (1970) suggested that sub-contents of foreign language aptitude may be exploited usefully in foreign language teaching. The teacher who has the information about the aptitude of his/her students can modify his/her instructional materials accordingly. This information can also be used to stream students into different classes with different goals. It can also help to advise students whether s/he should set a particular target in a given time frame.

Check Your Progress 3

1. What are the implications of aptitude research for classroom teaching?

.....
.....
.....

3.5 SOCIAL CLASS

William Labov had included Class as one of the sociolinguistic variables which had potential to influence second language acquisition (Labov 1966, 1972). Social class was decided on the basis of education, income and occupation. Labov’s study showed a correlation between social class and language. However, class alone is not to be considered as a reason for variation in second language acquisition.

“It should not be assumed that to relate language variation to a social variable, such as social class, is to explain language variation as being *caused* by social class variation. There are several reasons for this caution, the chief of which is that there may be many aspects of social behaviour that are not accounted for in a single social variable, and also underlying social factors that are subsumed under such a label as ‘social class’ (such as educational level) which may sometimes yield more precise correlations than the main composite variable (in this case social class)” (Milroy and Milroy 1997: 53-54 in McKay 2005: 293).

Research on social class as a factor in second language acquisition is scarce and far between (Block, 2014). We find some reference to social class in recent research in Ellis (2008), Ortega (2009), and Block (2010, 2012 and 2014). However, social class has not received the importance it should have, in the field of language acquisition. A learner’s socio-economic status could influence his/her attitudes and motivation for learning a second language. In the Indian context, English is seen as social-leveller and for a person from a lower socio-economic status, the attainment of English could be his/her goal of ‘ideal self’.

3.6 LET US SUM UP

After reading this unit, do you get a better idea of the factors which affect the language learning potential of your students? Because, in this unit, we have cited research on some learner variables which affect language learning/ acquisition. This includes factors such as age, sex, aptitude and social class. Does your experience in the classroom corroborate the research findings? Do write and tell us at IGNOU.

3.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

Burstall, C. 1975. 'Factors affecting foreign language learning: a consideration of some recent research findings'. *Language Teaching and Linguistics: Abstracts* 8.1: 5-21.

Chomsky, N. 1959. 'Review of Skinner's verbal behaviour'. In Jakobovits, L.A. and Mixon, M.S. eds. 1967. *Readings in the Psychology of Language*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall (originally published in *Language* 35: 26-58)

Cook, V. 1991. *Second Language Learning and Language teaching*. London: Edward Arnold.

Jakobovits, L.A. 1970. *Foreign Language Learning: A Psycholinguistic Analysis of the Issues*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

Lenneberg, E.H. 1967. *The Biological Foundation of Language*. New York: Wiley.

Seliger, H.W. 1978. 'Implication of multiple critical hypothesis for second language learning'. In Ritchie, W.C. ed. *Second Language Acquisition Research*. New York: Academic Press.

Skehan, P. 1989. *Individual Differences in Second-language Learning*. London Edward Arnold.

Whitaker, H.A. 1978. 'Bilingualism: A Neuro-Linguistic Perspective'. In Ritchie, W.C. ed. *Second Language Acquisition Research Issues and Implications*. New York: Academic Press.

3.8 ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1 Read 3.2 for the answer. However, here are some suggestions:
 - greater plasticity of the brain associated with small children which makes them better language learners than older people (Penfield, 1953)
 - lateralization makes the brain function to become specialized in early teens. Therefore, language learning is best carried out before the outset of puberty. The adult's abstract thinking process interferes with natural language learning process.
 - adults lack the same pressure motivations and attitudes that children have with regard to second language acquisition/learning.
- 2 Pronunciation of the second language.
- 3 Yes. In case there is an injury to the left hemisphere.
- 4 Evidence shows that adults start more quickly and then slow down. Children start more slowly, but finish up at a higher level.
- 5 For finding out suitable materials and teaching/learning strategies for each age group.
- 6 Do it yourself.

Check Your Progress 2

Look at 3.3 for the answer. Here are some points which you could consider.

- 1 Generally girls are better language learners than boys because of
 - social insecurity which increases the pressure on them to use the more correct forms. (Trudgill, 1974: Agnihotri 1979)
 - greater interaction with the host society (Satyanath, 1982)
- 2 Do it yourself.
- 3 Do it yourself.

Check Your Progress 3

- 1 The teacher who has some information on the aptitude of her students can
 - modify instructional materials accordingly
 - stream students into different classes with different goals.
 - advise students on their goals and the time-frame they would require to achieve it.



ignou
THE PEOPLE'S
UNIVERSITY

UNIT 4 LEARNER FACTORS IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION-2

Structure

- 4.0 Objectives
- 4.1 Cognitive Style
 - 4.1.1 What is Cognitive Style?
 - 4.1.2 Types of Cognitive Styles
- 4.2 Personality
 - 4.2.1 Review of Research on the Role of Personality
 - 4.2.2 How is Personality Measured?
- 4.3 Attitude
 - 4.3.1 What is Attitude?
 - 4.3.2 Review of Research on the Role of Attitude
 - 4.3.3 Some Unresolved Issues
- 4.4 Motivation
 - 4.4.1 What is Motivation?
 - 4.4.2 Types of Motivation
 - 4.4.3 Is Motivation the Cause or Result of Success?
- 4.5 Learner Autonomy
- 4.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.7 References and Suggested Readings
- 4.8 Answers

4.0 OBJECTIVES

This unit is the second part of the learner factors in second language acquisition introduced in Unit 3. It defines some other important learner variables and discusses their contribution in second/foreign language learning. This unit focuses specifically on the following learner variables:

- Cognitive style
- Personality
- Attitude
- Motivation

We have already briefly discussed some of these learner factors in Unit 3 of this block. In this unit, we are concerned primarily with the research studies conducted with regard to these variables; and the effect of these variables on language acquisition, especially second language acquisition.

4.1 COGNITIVE STYLE

4.1.1 What is Cognitive Style?

It refers to an individual's typical way of organising his/her universe, and reflects his/her personality or preference and not his/her ability or intelligence. For example, two boys Anwar and Kanwal, look at two different kinds of cars but their responses are quite different. Anwar thinks of how comfortable each car is, whereas Kanwal comments on each car's engine, its capacity and how each car is designed differently. These responses of Anwar and Kanwal show that Anwar focuses on the usefulness of the car and Kanwal on the technical aspects. The former therefore is a functionalist and the latter an analyser. Both the responses reflect different styles of learning or cognitive styles.

4.1.2 Types of Cognitive Styles

a. Field independence - Field dependence

Researchers have broadly identified three different cognitive styles, which they call field-independence/field-dependence, reflection-impulsivity, and categorization styles. The cognitive style called field-dependence is defined by a person who cannot consider an object or event separately from the context in which it appears. The context in which an object appears is its field. On the other hand, the field-independent persons have the capacity to process information or consider an object or event independent of the context. For example, when a person with a field independent cognitive style looks at a painting he has no difficulty in finding the central motif of the painting and relating the details to the central motif.

Researchers have related this concept of field independence/field dependence to second language learning. Skehan (1989) noted that the field dependent persons would have greater communicative competence, greater conversational resourcefulness, greater negotiation skills, all of which should be beneficial for exposure to language and therefore to language development through interaction (p.111). One research group noticed that field independence helped the learners with conventional classroom learning. Another research group found a very significant relationship between field independence and performance on a French oral production test and on a French listening comprehension test. On the other hand, some other researchers did not find any significant difference in how much the learners spoke and how well they spoke among the learners with either the field dependent or field independent cognitive style. These and many other researchers suggest that there is at best, a weak relationship between field independent cognitive style and second language learning.

b. Reflection - Impulsivity

The cognitive style that refers to the degree to which children reflect upon a problem is called reflection - impulsivity. One of the tasks used to find out whether a particular individual is reflective or impulsive is to ask him/her to choose a picture or design that is similar to the standard picture or design. This method is known as Matching Familiar Figures Test. Here is an example of an item taken from the Matching Familiar Figures Test. The child is asked to find out which of the following six pictures on the bottom is exactly the same as the 'standard' on the top.



The learners who are faster and less accurate are called **impulsive**, and those who are slower and more accurate are called **reflective**. Researchers have shown that learners after the age of eleven are better able to answer with greater speed and more accuracy. The tendency to be reflective/impulsive is not fixed and therefore can be altered with training.

c. Categorization styles

The cognitive styles broadly called categorization styles refer to how an individual classifies or arranges information, things or objects. They have been subdivided into three types:

- i. descriptive - analytic style
- ii. categorical - inferential style
- iii. relational - contextual style

A **descriptive-analytic** cognitive style concentrates on a single detail common to all objects. A categorical-inferential style focuses on the class of objects, whereas a relational-contextual focuses on a common theme or function.

Each of these cognitive styles may have its effect on second language learning. Though the field independent/field dependent cognitive style has been explored in detail in relation to second language learning, other cognitive styles need to be studied in detail in this context. It is felt that a difference in the cognitive style of a learner may make a significant difference in success in second language learning. It is also important to remember that since these differences are highly individual they should be kept in mind at the time of selecting teaching strategies and developing any educational curriculum.

Check Your Progress 1

- 1 What is a cognitive style? Make a list of the cognitive styles listed by researchers. Illustrate all of them with at least one example each.

.....

.....

.....

.....

- 2 Which of the cognitive styles do you think is more important for developing communicative skills in second language learning?

.....
.....
.....

- 3 ‘Learners have different cognitive styles’. How is this observation useful for classroom teachers and material writers?

.....
.....
.....
.....

4.2 PERSONALITY

4.2.1 Review of Research on the Role of Personality

Several researchers (e.g. Pimsleur et. at 1964, Smart et.al 1970, Bartz (1974) have emphasized the importance of personality in foreign/second language learning. Pimsleur et al (1964) compared average achievers and underachievers in high schools and noted that a successful learner was invariably found to have personality traits such as **social conformity, extroversion, flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity**. Smart et al (1970) on the other hand, showed that higher achievers received significantly lower score on social spontaneity scale than others, and were found to have introvertive tendencies. Bartz (1974) found that introversion, soberness and self-sufficiency were strongly correlated with oral components of communicative competence. He further demonstrated that students with traits of imagination, placidness and low anxiety tended to score higher on the written components of communicative competence test. Genessee and Hamayan (1980) failed to find any positive relationship between personality variables and achievement. Even Strong (1983) working on a group of kindergarteners in a California school did not find any relationship between a measure of extroversion and various measures of structure, vocabulary and pronunciation of the target language. Thus, it is evident that the question whether certain personality traits help language learning is still an open question. Skehen (1989) suggests that future research must firstly attend more vigorously to contextual factors such as the age of the extroverts learning a second language and the environment in which it is learnt. For instance, extroverts in the younger age group may have different relationship with language proficiency as compared to the older extroverts. Similarly, extroverts learning a second language in a formal situation may not have the same set of correlations with proficiency in the second language as the extroverts learning it in a naturalistic environment. Secondly, future research must also try to improve the definition of the trait-contrast as used in language learning. For example, a construct like extroversion may have certain meaning as it is used in psychology, but it may have a restricted meaning in second language learning. Thirdly, the instruments used to measure personality traits need to be more systematic and reliable.

4.2.2 How is Personality Measured?

Personality traits in a person have been elicited by psychologists in a number of ways. Most commonly, a questionnaire consisting of several statements is given and the subject is asked to agree or disagree with them on a 5-point scale, ranging from 'not at all' (scored '1') to 'very often' (scored '5'). The aggregate score on the statement is regarded and score for the trait measured. Not all traits are assessed by agreement or disagreement to verbal statements. For example, in the technique called Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) the subject is presented with a number of pictures usually of people involved in somewhat ambiguous situations, and is asked to write a story about each. These responses are analysed to find out the personality traits of the subject.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1 What are the main personality traits explored in the foreign/second language research?

.....
.....
.....
.....

- 2 Which of the personality traits is found to have more influence on second/foreign language proficiency?

.....
.....
.....

4.3 ATTITUDE

4.3.1 What is Attitude?

According to Allport (1954:45), 'an attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related'. In operational terms an individual's attitude is according to Gardner (1985) 'an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual's beliefs or opinions about the referent (p.9)'.

4.3.2 Review of Research on the Role of Attitude

The nature of attitude of a second language learner can vary from the attitude towards the teacher or the language itself or the group that speaks the language. It may also refer to more general dispositions such as ethnocentrism, authoritarianism or anomie. Attitudes towards learning the second language and the second language community have received more attention than other factors in second language research. Some researchers support the belief that measures of attitudes towards learning a second language and the second language community correlate significantly with achievement. For example, Lambert and his associates at McGill University conducted a series of studies (Gardner & Lambert 1972) to investigate

the role of attitude in second language learning and came to the conclusion that ‘a friendly outlook towards the other group whose language is being learnt can differentially sensitize the learner to the audio-lingual features of the language, making him more perceptive to forms of pronunciation and accent than is the case for a learner without this open and friendly disposition’. (Gardner & Lambert 1972: 134)

Spolsky (1969) argues strongly that ‘one of the most important attitudinal factors is the attitude of the learner to the language and to its speakers’ (p.274). In an investigation of 315 foreign students from 80 different countries living in the U.S.A., he found significant association between the perception of similarity between self and English speakers and grades in English. Similarly, Oller, Hudson and Liu (1977) found achievement in the second language correlating highly significantly to evaluative reactions to the target language group. Burstall (1975) quotes several studies which show a positive correlation between attitudes and achievement. But she is skeptical about the casual relationship between the two. She quotes the NFER evaluation which shows that an early achievement in French affected later attitudes towards and achievement in French to a significantly greater extent than early attitudes towards French affected the subsequent development of attitude or achievement. The initial success or failure in language learning may thus be a powerful determinant of linguistic attitudes.

Research in second language learning has also shown that success or failure in a second language is also related, though weakly, to general disposition of the learners such as **ethnocentrism** or **authoritarianism**. Gardner and Lambert (1972) believe that

‘Learners who have strong ethnocentric or authoritarian attitude or who have learned to be prejudiced towards foreign people are unlikely to approach the language learning task with an integrative outlook (p.16).

Authoritarianism refers to anti-democratic feelings and is generally measured through respect for authority, use of force, nationalism, etc. Agreement or disagreement with some of the following statements may elicit the second language learners’ authoritarian / democratic disposition:

1. Children should always obey their elders.
2. Eve-teasing or rape is a serious crime; the culprits should be hanged in public.
3. If people would talk less and work more, everybody will be better off.
4. What young people need is strict discipline and the will to work for the country.

Ethnocentrism, on the other hand, refers to people who suspect foreign people and ideas and is generally measured through attitude towards the foreigners, preservation of nationality, respect for national symbols, etc. Agreement or disagreement with the following statements can elicit second language learners’ ethnocentric tendencies:

1. Certain people who do not salute the national flag should be punished.
2. India is surrounded by enemies on all sides; we should strengthen our armed forces very fast.

3. Epics greater than Ramayana' and 'Mahabharata' cannot be written.
4. Indian women are chaster than women elsewhere in the world.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) examined the influence of these dispositions in learning second languages in Maine, Louisiana, Connecticut and Philippines. It is only in the Connecticut study that authoritarianism was found to have significant correlations with achievement variables other than listening comprehension. In Maine, the ethnocentric syndrome is not directly related to any of the French achievement measures. In the Connecticut study, ethnocentrism configurates only with achievement variables of free speech. Similarly, in the Louisiana study ethnocentrism configurates only with one component of listening comprehension. Khanna (1983) working with undergraduates found very significant correlations between achievement in English and authoritarian and ethnocentric tendencies.

In sum, students who have an authoutarian and ethnocentric tendencies generally do not acquire the second language with the same proficiency as those who do not have these tendencies.

4.3.3 Some Unresolved Issues

Research on the relationship between attitudes towards the target language and achievement in it has raised several issues. It has been found that attitudes towards learning languages are more related to language achievement than attitude towards any other school subject. Further, some aspects of attitude are more highly related to language achievement than others. Some research has shown girls to be better second language learners than boys. Attitudes have also been found to be influenced by the students' upbringing as well. Attitudes towards the target language vary from one geographical area to another. Some research has shown that attitude towards learning a second language becomes less positive with age because learners become more mature and set in their ways. It is also noticed that as learners grow older, the correlations between the attitudes towards the target language and achievement grow higher, though less positive. More research needs to be done on the effect of age and sex on evaluative reactions towards the target language speakers. Research has shown that the learners who had more exposure to the target language also had more exposure to the target language speakers. It has also shown that the learners who had more exposure to the target language also had more favourable attitudes towards it.

Check Your Progress 3

1. Is attitude towards a thing/person inborn or acquirable?

.....
.....
.....
.....

2. Is attitude an individual trait or family trait?

.....
.....
.....
.....

3. Are attitudes static or subject to change. If the latter, what, according to you, can change a person's attitude?

.....

.....

.....

4 How do you distinguish authoritarianism from ethnocentrism?

.....

.....

.....

5 In section 4.3.2 you have been given statements that can be used to elicit authoritarian and ethnocentric attitudes of people. Make a questionnaire using these statements and ask some informants to respond to these statements on a five-point scale as below

i. Children should always obey their elders.

Completely agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Completely disagree
5	4	3	2	1

If a person puts a tick (✓) at 4 he is an authoritarian, and if s/he ticks (✓) at 2, s/he will be called non-authoritarian or democratic.

6. A researcher used the following statements to elicit the informants' attitude towards learning French:

1. Learning French is really great.
2. I enjoy learning French.
3. French is an important part of the school programme.

Think of at least 4 statements that you may like to use to elicit Indians' attitude towards learning English.

.....

.....

.....

.....

7. A researcher used the following statements to elicit attitude towards French Canadians whose language was being learned by a group of learners:

1. I would like to know more French Canadians.
2. Some of our best citizens are of French Canadian descent.
3. French Canadians are a very sociable, warm-hearted and creative people.

Think of four statements that would elicit Indians' attitude towards English speaking Indian elite.

4.4 MOTIVATION

4.4.1 What is Motivation?

The term motivation in the second language learning context is seen according to Gardner (1985) as 'referring to the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity (p.10).' The desire to learn the language or favourable attitudes towards learning the second language, do not always reflect motivation to learn. The individual may wish to learn the second language and enjoy doing it, but, if this is not accompanied by a striving to do so, then it is not motivation in the real sense. It is only when the desire to learn the second language and favourable attitude towards it are linked with the effort or drive to achieve it, then we can say that the learner is motivated.

Motivation is one of the most dominant and researched areas of second language acquisition. The concept was pioneered by the studies of Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) and Gardner (1985) and has come to be known as the 'socio-educational model' of motivation. Gardner's (1985) AMTB – Attitude/Motivation Test Battery has been the basis for many studies along the socio-educational model of motivation.

The focus of motivational studies had been the intensity, attitudes towards the L2 and personal investment made in the learning process. Gardner and Lambert's model of motivation further divided motivation into instrumental motivation and integrative motivation. Integrative Motivation refers to the learners' desire to empathize with and assimilate the language and culture of the target language group. Instrumental Motivation refers to the desire in learning a language for all the practical and material benefits it brings to the learner.

4.4.2 Types of Motivation

As mentioned earlier, Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) have done pioneering work to explore the nature of motivation specific to language study. They built on Mowrer's (1950) concept of identification, which is the tendency of the child to imitate the parent in first language development. They considered the extent to which people esteem and want to identify with not only particular individuals but also foreign peoples. Gardner & Lambert suggested that those people who identify positively with the target language group would like to resemble the target language group, understand their culture, and be able to participate in it. This pattern of motivation they call an **integrative orientation**. Gardner & Lambert (1972) contrasted this orientation with **instrumental orientation** which is characterized by utilitarian objectives such as obtaining admission in a particular course, professional advancement, and so on, The learners' interest in the other group is confined to achieving personal advantages. In order to elicit these motivational orientations, statements such as the following have been devised.

Integrative motivation

I am studying English because

1. It will help me to mix with English people.

2. It will improve my personality.
3. It will help me to better understand English people.
4. It will help me to read and understand and appreciate English literature, music and films.

Instrumental motivation

I am studying English because

1. It will help me to get a good job.
2. It will help me to become a better educated person.
3. It will help me to get a degree.
4. It will help me travel anywhere without any difficulty.

Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) showed that success in a foreign/second language learning is likely to be less if the underlying motivational orientation is instrumental rather than integrative. Burstall (1975), however, pointed out, that this hypothesis was examined in the course of NFER evaluation of the teaching of French in primary schools and only a partial support to the view put forward by Gardner & Lambert could be established. Although pupil's attitude and achievement proved to be closely associated, motivational orientation of individual pupils appeared to be neither exclusively integrative nor instrumental. It is interesting to note that in the Philippines study (reported in Gardner & Lambert 1972) the authors' hypothesis was challenged. Their research showed that in settings where there was an urgency about mastering a second language for utilitarian ends, the instrumental orientation to second language learning is very effective. Wong (1982) in fact, did not find motivational orientations of Chinese students learning English correlate with their achievement. A (1988) study gave substantial evidence against the hypothesis that integrative motive was positively related to second language achievement. However, Khanna, Verma, Agnihotri and Sinha (1990) did find significant correlations between the motivational orientations of ESOL learners in U.K. and the teachers' ratings of their English skills. These studies clearly suggest that a student may learn a second language with an integrative motivation or with instrumental motivation or with both or with some other motivation. The relative importance of these orientations varies from one part of the world to another, and is also dependent on the learners' mental makeup and cultural background.

This rather binary view of looking at motivation has been attacked by many researchers on the ground that these studies of Gardner and Lambert were limited to the Canadian context and that motivation is a dynamic aspect influenced by time, context and behaviour (Dörnyei & Otto 1998; Dörnyei, 2002; Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005). "Orientations and attitudes vary across contexts for L2 learning..." (Ortega 2009: 189). The latest concept associated with research on motivation is that of 'L2 Motivational Self System' propounded by Zoltan Dörnyei (2005). The concept has been developed from the psychological theories on affect and motivation by E. Tory Higgins. It is based on the proposition that human beings have the ability to 'self-regulate' their behaviour and that there is a 'promotion focus' which would enable people to work harder to better their individual selves. It is possible for us to foresee this gain and it is associated

with an ‘ideal self’ that is, the kind of person we would like to become as a result of our efforts and hard work. Dörnyei’s idea of ‘L2 Motivational Self System’ also reworks the notion of ‘Integrative’ motivation. According to him the learner need not necessarily have to identify with the target language community. “That is, the highly motivated individual will score high in integrativeness while simultaneously being intrinsically as well as instrumentally motivated to learn the L2 because of a formed L2 speaking ideal self that she or he can anticipate as a reference point and that links L2 success with a promotion focus” (Ortega 2009: 186). L2 Self consists of L2 related dimensions of hopes, aspirations, and desires and if this ‘Self’ is associated with the mastery of an L2 i.e., “if the person that we would like to become is proficient in the L2, we can be described – using Gardner’s (1985) terminology – as having an ‘integrative’ disposition”. Another dimension is the “Ought - to L2 Self” which concerns the ‘extrinsic’ mental motives consisting of our duties, obligations, responsibilities, etc. This self may have very little to do with a person’s own desires or wishes. The third aspect in the Ideal L2 Self is the ‘L2 Learning Experience’ which “concerns executive motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience” (Dörnyei in Dörnyei and Ushioda 2009: 29). Dörnyei et al.’s (2006) study on motivation in the Hungarian context looks into the acquisition of English as a second language. The study stresses on the global nature of English and the learner has no choice but to assimilate the English language. Under such a situation, personal constructs regarding the language does not really matter. No country owns English anymore and it has become part of our global identity. “This lack of a well-specified target language community, in turn, has a considerable impact on L2 motivation theory because it in effect undermines the attitudinal base of Gardner’s (1985) traditional concept of integrative motivation” (Dörnyei, et al., 2006: 145).

The famous Hungarian study on motivation “conceptualized the generalized aspects of L2 motivation in terms of seven components: Integrativeness, Instrumentality, Attitude Towards the L2 Speakers/Community (formerly labeled by Dörnyei & Clement (2001) as ‘Direct Contact with L2 Speakers’), Milieu, Linguistic Self- Confidence, Cultural Interest (formerly, ‘Media Usage’) and Vitality of the L2 Community. These seven motivational constituents are amongst the most common dimensions investigated in past L2 motivation research...” (Dörnyei et al., 2006: 10).

As seen in our discussions on motivation, the latest research, especially the ones pioneered by Zoltan Dörnyei has focused on the area of ‘motivational self system’ which treats motivation as a dynamic and evolving system wherein the learner along with his/her orientations, attitudes and context of learning is important.

4.4.3 Is Motivation the Cause or Result of Success?

Another question that has engaged the attention of second language researchers is whether it is the motivation that causes success or vice versa. Burstall (1975) working with primary school children learning French came to the conclusion that it is the achievement which is primary and motivation the consequence. Hermann (1980) too argued that it was the degree of success within the instruction which had produced the different motivational orientations. Similar results have been reported by other researches. However, Gardner (1985) asserts that there is no evidence that differential success influences attitudes and motivation. In the absence of any conclusive evidence about the direction and

nature of relationship between motivation and success, more in-depth research is needed which monitors levels over time in some detail rather than takes the 'snapshot' approach through test administration at the beginning and end of courses.

Check Your Progress 4

1. How is instrumental motivation different from integrative motivation?
.....
.....
.....
2. Can you think of some other types of motivation? For example, if a person tries to learn a language under pressure of circumstances, will it be right to call it an instrumental motivation?
.....
.....
.....
3. How is your motivation to learn your mother tongue different from say, learning English as a second language in India?
.....
.....
.....
4. Is your motivation to learn English in India the same as the motivation of an Indian immigrant learning it in England or America?
.....
.....
.....
5. Make a list of 5 instrumental and 5 integrative reasons for which you and some of your class mates at the study centre may have learnt English. Then prepare a questionnaire and give it to a sample of 25 students. Analyse the responses and find out whether these students, have primarily an instrumental or integrative motivation.
.....
.....
.....
6. What implications may the research on motivation have for materials writers and classroom teachers?
.....
.....
.....

7. With reference to the ‘motivational self system,’ are you able to see this concept at work in the Indian context of learning English where practical and material benefits tend to overshadow ‘bettering of the self’?

.....
.....
.....

4.5 LEARNER AUTONOMY

The concept of Learner Autonomy was introduced with Holec’s definition of the term: “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning” (Holec 1981: 3). There have been many studies on learner autonomy debating “whether it is characterised by learner responsibility or learner control; whether it is a psychological phenomenon with political implications or a political right with psychological implications; and whether the development of learner autonomy depends on complementary teacher autonomy” (Little, n.d.).

“Autonomous learners understand the purpose of their learning programme, explicitly accept responsibility for their learning, share in the setting of learning goals, take initiatives in planning and executing learning activities, and regularly review their learning and evaluate its effectiveness” (Holec 1981:3). It should be the aim of any teaching-learning pedagogy to create autonomous learners. There has been considerable research on learner autonomy with respect to second language acquisition.

Originally, the concept of learner autonomy was intended to be a practical look at the way languages were learnt in context and the role played by the learner in the learning environment. It would mean taking full responsibility for one’s learning process. Learner autonomy is more than developing a metacognitive awareness of the learning process. It means to have a commitment to self-learning and being proactive in the process of learning (Little, 1991). The concept revolves around learner involvement, as the paradigm shifted from the teacher to the learner in the recent years. A reflective and self-motivated learner is autonomous and brings in his/her own personal styles and strategies to the learning experience and does not totally depend upon the teacher or facilitator. The autonomous learner would be self-directed and follow reflective thinking. However, it is to be remembered that autonomy does not mean learner isolation.

Research into learner autonomy has shown that learners can be taught to be autonomous, to take charge of their own learning thereby making the process of second language acquisition a fruitful one. Studies have shown that learner autonomy is closely tied with a ‘strategic learning’ approach. For instance, Sugata Mitra’s ‘Hole in the Wall’ project proved that “even in the absence of any direct input from a teacher, an environment that stimulates curiosity can cause learning through self-instruction and peer shared knowledge” (TED 2013). His theory has challenged and exploded traditional theories of learning. Even with limited input and resources, learning can take place.

However, the construct of an ‘autonomous’ learner in the Asian context has been critiqued, contested as well as questioned. The concepts of ‘individualism’ and ‘autonomy’ are largely ‘Western’ whereas the image of the Asian learner has been “that of an individual whose learning styles and preferences are largely

conditioned by values of collectivism, conformity and respect for authority inculcated through early experiences at school and in the family” (Benson et al., 2003: 23). Thus, from this perspective, being autonomous in the Asian context is fraught with contradictions.

Oxford (2003) has given a concise overview of research on learner autonomy. She has described autonomy from four perspectives with different focus: **technical** perspective which focuses on the physical situation, **psychological** perspective which focuses on the characteristics of learners, **sociocultural** perspective which focuses on mediated learning and **political-critical** perspective which focuses on ideologies, access and power structures. Emerging theoretical perspectives have reported a link between learner autonomy and motivation (Murray et al., 2011).

Learner autonomy is of special interest to the open and distance way of learning. In fact the open and distance learner is expected to be autonomous in their learning process. “Distance learners are often assumed to be learning autonomously because they control a number of aspects of their learning, such as the time, the pace, what to study and when to study, ...” (Murphy 2007: 74). However, they are also required to take responsibility for setting goals, planning or strategizing learning. It is more important for the open and distance learner to be autonomous in his/her learning as the contact classes are not compulsory and they need not report to a teacher regularly. This results in greater freedom but can result in greater chances for the learner to lose focus and drop out. To conclude, learning becomes more successful when the learner is aware of his or her own responsibility towards the learning process (Little, 1991). Therefore efforts should be on to instill a sense of responsibility in the learner towards learning.

Theory and research on learner autonomy has been criticized on the basis that it has been more inclined towards advocacy and plain empirical research without much concern for the fact that autonomy is “a contextually-variable construct”. However, research on learner autonomy has now slowly started including factors like age, gender, cultural context and the like and become more critical and “often qualitative in nature, of the ways in which learners and teachers respond to such initiatives and of the ways in which learner and teacher autonomy develop in the longer term across contexts of teaching and learning” (Benson 2006: 34).

Check Your Progress 5

- 1 Make a list of statements that you think would elicit your student’s autonomy in learning English. For example, ‘How often do you create a time-table for English and stick to it?’

.....
.....
.....

- 2 Evaluate and classify your students as autonomous or non-autonomous.

.....
.....
.....

3 What do you think is responsible for their being autonomous/non-autonomous?

.....
.....
.....

4.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we focused on some more learner variables, and the effect of these on second language acquisition/learning. These variables/factors are:

- cognitive style
- personality
- attitude
- motivation
- learner autonomy

While we are sure that you already know your students quite well, these two Units have given you an idea in more concrete terms about the learner factors which influence their achievement in the second language. As you can see, these factors have been identified and research conducted all over the world in different environments in several studies. It would be a good idea for you to conduct some kind of informal action research on your learners in terms of these factors, and how much they influence your students' achievement in the second language

4.7 REFERENCES AND SUGGESTED READINGS

Au, S.Y. 1988. 'A critical appraisal of Gardner's social-psychological theory of second-language (L2) learning.' *Language Learning* 38.1 75-100.

Benson, P. (2006). Autonomy in language teaching and learning. *Language Teaching*. 40, 21-40.

Burstall, C. 1975. 'Factors affecting foreign language learning: a consideration of some recent research findings.' *Language Teaching and Linguistics: Abstracts* 8.1 : 5-21

Dörnyei, Z. & Otto, I. (1998). Motivation in action: a process model of L2 motivation. *Working Papers in Applied Linguistics*. 4, 43-69.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2009). Motivation, language identities and the L2 self: Future research directions. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 350-356). UK: Multilingual Matters.

Gardner, R. C. & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and Motivation in Second – Language Learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Gardner, R.C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.

Genessee, F. and Hamayan, E 1980. 'Individual differences in second language learning.' *Applied Psycholinguistics* 1 : 95-110.

Khanna, A.L. Verma, M.K. Agnihotri, R.K. and Sinha, S.K. : 1990. 'Attitudes and motivation of adult ESOL learners in Great Britain: a cross cultural pilot study' *Language Issues* 4.1 : 4-8.

Mowrer, D.M. 1950. *Learning Theory and Personality Dynamics*. New York: Ronald.

Oller, J.W., Hudson, A.J. and Liu, P.F. 1977. 'Attitudes and attained proficiency in ESL: socio-linguistic study of native speakers of Chinese in the United States'. *Language Learning* 27: 1-26.

Oppenheim, A.N. 1966. *Questionnaire Design and Attitude Measurement*. London : Heinemann

Skehan, P. 1989. *Individual Differences in Second-Language Learning*. London: Edward Arnold.

Spolsky, B. 1966. 'A psycholinguistic critique of programmed foreign language instruction.' *IRAL* 4.2: 119-27.

Strong, M.H. 1983. 'Social styles and second language acquisition of Spanish-speaking Kindergartners' *TESOL QUARTERLY* 17.2: 241-58.

4.8 ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

1. Cognitive style refers to an individual's typical way of organising his/her universe, and reflects his/her personality or preference. Different cognitive styles are:
 - i) Field independence - field dependence
 - ii) Reflection - impulsivity
 - iii) Categorization styles
2. Of the three cognitive styles listed, it appears that field independence - field dependence best correlates with language learning ability.
3. Do it yourself.

Check Your Progress 2

1. The main personality traits explored with regard to foreign/second language research are: social conformity, extroversion, flexibility, tolerance for ambiguity, self-sufficiency, imagination, anxiety, and so on.
2. All the aspects of the personality mentioned in section 4.2 have not been adequately researched with regard to learning the second/foreign language. Different researchers have come up with different results.

Check Your Progress 3

Write your own views on questions 1-3

4. See 4.3 for the answer. Some cues - Authoritarianism refers to anti-democratic feelings.

Ethnocentrism is concerned with insularity, preservation of nationality and a suspicious attitude towards foreigners.

Check Your Progress 4

1. Instrumental motivation is concerned with fulfilling certain utilitarian goals, such as getting a job, passing an examination, etc.

An integrative motivation, on the other hand, exists when there is a desire to learn a language in order to communicate with people of another culture who speak it. There is a desire to identify closely with the target language group.

Write your own views on questions 2-6.

7. In the Indian context, economic/material benefits tend to outweigh 'bettering of the self'. Not many learners approach the learning of English with a purely integrative motivation. The factor of Social Class also needs to be considered here.



