CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE
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“In learning, there is neither the teacher nor the taught; there is only learning.” J. Krishnamurti.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of review of literature is to find out how much research has been done in the same area, to justify the need for more studies on that topic, to fill in existing gaps, to clarify inconsistencies or substantiate existing facts. It can help with procedures and processes for research or to get new ideas and perspectives.

This chapter is devoted to the review done by the researcher of available literature relevant to the present study. The researcher has gone through the related literature which gave her the direction for this research.

The researcher referred to a number of books, journals and researches at M.Phil, and doctorate level. The researcher visited a number of libraries for reviewing literature.

The researcher went through 50 books like those on language skills, writing skills and methods of teaching language skills, books on cognitive development and theories of language learning, and task-based teaching, 2 encyclopedias, and 70 journals and articles and 10 PhD. The purpose of referring to the journals was that journals on education often contain the latest research reports about experiments carried out in various countries on teaching of language skills. The researcher used articles in the net related to the topic of study which also enabled her to get an idea about the recent trends in teaching language skills in different parts of India.

Substantial research has been done on language skills and teaching learning of L2, particularly English, all over the world. A thorough search of the internet also led the researcher to find a number of useful studies which proved to be closely related to this research.
2.2 RESEARCH REVIEW

2.2.1 Ph.D. DISSERTATIONS


Objectives:

Ram (1989) studies the effect of methods and techniques of teaching English used by teachers at class VI level.

Findings: He found that teachers used traditional techniques of teaching though they had been trained to use new techniques and methods.


Objectives:

Bhagyesh Thakkar (1996) developed and validated a strategy for Mastery Learning in statistics of students of the std. the study was conducted in three phases:

1. In the first phase, the investigator developed rapport with the students and understood their study habits, interests an studied the group dynamics,

2. In the second phase, the investigator developed a strategy for Mastery Learning for statistical portion of the Mathematics syllables from the textbook.

3. In the third phase the strategy was implemented by the investigator in 8th std. of an English medium school.

Findings: The results showed that the Mastery learning Strategy worked very well and many students liked to “learn by doing” and to learn through “fun and cooperation”.

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Objectives:

Saraf (1990) conducted a survey to study whether the type of schools, social background of students, sex differences, competence of English language teachers teaching methodology the stage when English is learn, language needs of students, and the like have any effect on language learning.

Methodology: A sample of 26000 students from 10 different countries was selected. Questionnaires, objective tests, attitude scales were used to evaluate the four language skills of students.

Findings: It was found that proficiency of teachers in English language, schools factors, and use of audio-visual aids and frequent use of mother tongue has a positive on the language learning. The study indicated that there is no single teaching methodology applicable to all students.


Objectives:

Rama Gopal (2000) conducted a research on teaching of mother tongue through creative activities. The research was done on Telugu language in Andhra Pradesh. To develop the four language skills the following techniques were devised:

- Preparation of worlds with one unit_ by implementing the idea the child starts reading the words after completion of two alphabets.
- Coloring the letters_ Different figures from newspapers were collected and the child colored the figures. Cards with alphabet in double line were prepared. Cards where alphabet was imbedded in the pictures were also used.
- Alphabet clock_ for oral drilling and recognition of alphabet.
- K. Prasad (2000) used drawing as medium to teach Telugu, English, EVS and Mathematics in his research 'Education through drawing’. The objective was to develop creativity, self-confines and understanding in the students. Alphabet was presented in a picture and students had to identify them.

Objectives:

M. K. Gill (1966-67) conducted an experiment to determine whether incorporating activities in English teaching, English helped in improving language skills. Parallel group design was used and the experiment was conducted for a period of four months.

Findings: The performance of the experimental group was found significant at 0.01 levels. Use of activity method helped in improving reading speed and comprehension, grammar, spelling, vocabulary and learning the content material.


Objectives:

Varsha Nafarsheth (1990) developed a strategy. She tried it out for enrichment of vocabulary of the students in English. Gujarati medium schools were selected for the study.

Methodology: Two-group pre-test /post-test design was used for the study. The strategy included various activities through world games, games through octagonal cards and wordbook exercises. Retention test was given after ten days of experiment.

Findings: The developed strategy was found to be significantly effective than the traditional method on retention test.


Objectives:

Jyoti Joshi (1983) conducted a comparative study of the effectiveness of the Activity Method and Routine Method of teaching Arithmetic 4th Std. students. Parallel group design was used. The findings showed both methods to be equally effective.

To study whether collaborative learning has any significant impact on Iranian EFL learning’s motivation Mitra Sandani (2005) carried out a research.
**Methodology:** The study was conducted on 60 female EFL learners at the first grade of private high-school. It was found that collaborative learning improves the learners’ personality dimensions, such as self-confidence. As a result of collaborative learning, cooperative situations generally have a positive emotional tone which means that the learners generate less anxiety and stress than other learning formats.

**Findings:** It was concluded that the employment of collaborative learning has a significant impact on the improvement of Iranian EFL learners’ motivation and achievement.


**Objectives:**

To carry out a survey on the relationship between teaching style and personality type of Iranian TEFL teachers. A descriptive analysis revealed that meta-cognitive strategies were used more than other strategies while affective strategies were the last. Results from a t-test analysis showed that women used social and cognitive strategies more than men, but the difference in relation to other categories was not significant. Another t-test analysis revealed that extroverts used social, cognitive, memory and affective strategies more than introverts, the highest differences being in social and cognitive strategies respectively.

The role of peer correction in the development of Iranian EFL learners’ writing ability was studied by Reza Parpinchi in 1996. It was found that peer-correction is a valuable form of feedback and response that it is wise to include this technique in writing instruction, that it results in more and more accurate and reliable written work on the part of the most students, and that it creates a constructive classroom atmosphere for teaching writing and specifically composition.

**Methodology:** To carry out this project, the students were asked to write compositions on an expository topic in 30 minutes. Three scorers scored the compositions. Then ten minutes were allotted to reading the paragraphs and underlying the probable problems, ten minutes to commenting on the given paragraph and correcting the errors by the students and finally ten minutes to reformulation of individual sentences and paragraph on the whole. After the period of treatment was
over, a pre-test was given with the same value. The mean score of the experimental group was considerably higher than that of the control group which is an indication of positive effect of this method on improving writing ability.

**Findings:** During the treatment it was observed that the power of group work was evident. In particular, the increased opportunities for negotiation of meaning within the class seemed to the researcher to be an important factor regarding the amount of learning taking place. Students could learn from each other’s mistakes. Meanwhile, certain students were reluctant. In higher levels they were ready to discuss. Students did not think that they could be good critics.


**Objectives:**
To study students' performance regarding incidental vocabulary learning through the problem-solving task of text-generation in ESL context (India) is superior to their counterparts' performance in EFL context (Iran).

**Findings:** It was found that Iranian students who have stayed in India at least for one year, have been able to deal with the unknown vocabulary items more successfully than the Iranian students in Iran. Hence, it can be concluded that the context of learning is one of the most important factors which enhances the incidental way of vocabulary learning.

**Methodology:** In a study done in 2008 by Mojgan Yarahmadi in Pune on three groups of students, 42, one group of Indian students, one group of Iranian students studying in India and one group of Iranian students studying in Iran all in the second year MA students.

Objectives:

To identify the language learning strategies associated with higher levels of written proficiency in Iran.

Methodology: the learning strategies were assessed using a 99 item strategy questionnaire devised by Oxford (1990).

Findings: The results indicate that more proficient writers use more language learning strategies in particular more meta-cognitive and cognitive strategies than do their less proficient counterparts.


Objectives:

It was an attempt to understand whether collaborative learning has any significant impact on Iranian EFL learners’ motivation. In addition, the degree of achievement of both control and experimental groups was considered as another hypothesis.

Methodology: the study was conducted on 60 female EFL learners at the first grade of private high school in Tehran. They were assigned to experimental and control groups.

Findings: it was found that the employment of collaborative learning has a significant impact on the improvement of Iranian EFL learners’ motivation and achievement.


Objectives:

To investigate teacher’s role through considering four factors such as teacher talk, error correction, classroom management and lesson planning and presentation which may affect the linguistic achievement of Iranian EFL learners at high school.

Methodology: two questionnaires with different wording with almost identical purpose with items seeking learners’ ideas about the matters mentioned above were distributed among 63 teachers and 310 students.
Findings: it was found that what the teacher says and does is not significant in establishing classroom atmosphere that it can outweigh the effects of materials, methods, and educational facilities. Although the impact of the above mentioned factors on the students was confirmed by both groups of the participants and the difference between the teachers’ and student assessment about the first factor was a bit remarkable.


Objectives:
To find out whether among the factors involving in material selection and preparation there is any relationship between learners’ interest in topics and the development in the speaking abilities of the students.

Methodology: a sample of 100 selected subjects participated in this study. This sample included Iranian female students majoring English Translation at the Islamic Azad University, Central Branch. There was one control group and one experimental group each having 30 students.

Findings: it was found that choosing the discussion materials based on the students’ interest has a significant effect on EFL students’ speaking ability.


Objectives:
The purpose of the study was to investigate the degree of correspondence between second language learners’ preferred activities and the ones teachers believe the learners like.

Methodology: to carry out the research 129 male and female students who were learning English were randomly selected. A questionnaire was used to detect the learners’ preferred classroom activities. Another questionnaire was given to 30 male and female teachers teaching English. Then, two groups of learners were taught according to the preferred class room activities.
Findings: the results show that employing the learners’ preferred activities has desirable effects on their language proficiency level.

Relevance:

All the above mentioned PhD dissertations were researches about the learners’ preferred activities, teachers’ preferred activities, the role of learning strategies, and learners’ motivation in learning the effect they have on learning the English language.

2.2.2 BOOKS

DEFINITION FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

According to Sapir (1921) language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntary produced symbols.

A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates, Bloch&Trager (1942).

Hall (1968) states that language is an institution through which human communicates and interacts with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols.

Noam Chomsky (1957) defines language as: “A set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements.”

Holistically language is a dynamic, creative and systemic tool for communication of information and building interpersonal relations by means of verbal and non-verbal signs and codes, which are community specific, arbitrary as well as productive.

LEARNING

Gambhir (1991) in this connection observes: The most important thing for second language learners is to be able to acquire or assimilate rules as to what different structures may mean in different social situations in a given language…”, and again: “The format of the classroom and teaching materials has to be as far as possible close to natural socio-linguistic situations that a person is likely to encounter in the target society. The classroom should be less of formal academic centre where the teacher is explaining how a language works and students are taking notes; or, a teacher is
making students drill key structures of a language. A language classroom should emphasize activities which take place in real life communication rather than pattern rehearsal…”

There are three major theorists associated with the topic of instructional objectives: Mager (1962), Gronlund (1978), and Gagne (1985). While Mager conceptualized instructional objectives in strictly behavioral terms, Gronlund argued that, particularly when the objectives involve mastery of such unobservable things as concepts and values, it is necessary to refer to these abstract entities as well as to their observable manifestations in order to make clear the universe of discourse that instruction is to serve, the way Gronlund suggested the instructor do this was by first looking at long lists of observable objectives such as those prescribed by Mager and then, based on what the objectives appear to share in common formulate general objectives or goals from which the ones in the original list can be deduced; and finally, under each general objective, derive up to fine specific terminal behaviors using action verbs.

Gagne contributed the idea that once an instructional objective has been formulated, it is important to identify the skills necessary to attain it; he termed this process of identification task analysis. Both instructional objectives and task analysis will be discussed.

Definition of Instructional Objective:

An instructional objective is a statement of behavior the instructor wants the student to be able to enact following instruction.

The Multifaceted Nature of Instructional Objectives: the Instructional Domains

Human behavior can take one of three forms: cognitive, affective and psychomotor- and it is possible for the teaching-learning effort to address any of these three psychological modalities. Educational theorists have developed taxonomies of instructional objectives for each of these domains; the most widely known of these taxonomies will be discussed in the following pages.

The Taxonomy of Instructional Objectives for the Cognitive Domain

The cognitive domain of instructional objectives involves mastery of material involving rational thinking. Bloom, Engelhart, Frust, Hill and Krathwohl (1956)
developed a widely known taxonomy of instructional objectives for the cognitive domain. This scheme, known as “Bloom’s taxonomy”, consists of a hierarchy of cognitive process ranging from relatively simple (knowledge or memorization) to highly mastery at a higher level can be attained. The following paragraphs consider two aspects of Blooms’s taxonomy: the levels of the cognitive domain and issues that have been raised concerning it.

Bloom’s Taxonomy has six levels:

**Knowledge.** At the knowledge level of the cognitive domain, the instructor’s objective is to enable the student to memorize fact and procedures that the student can later repeat on demand. Examples of knowledge in this sense are being able to repeat the multiplication table, knowing one’s home address, and being able to tell the year in which Columbus first arrived in Western Hemisphere.

**Comprehension.** At the comprehension level of the cognitive domain, the instructor’s objective is to enable the student to understand the reason for a rule or event, or to mentally grasp the implications of some formulation. An example of an instructional objective in the comprehension level is, “The student will be able to describe in his or her own words the rule for deriving the least common denominator, and state the rationale behind this rule.”

**Application.** At the application level of the cognitive domain the instructor’s objective is to enable the student to use rules, and ideas.

There are other outlooks towards learning. As Dale Parnell (2001, p.16) reckons, connecting the why of concrete reality of the teaching process which provides an essential motivational force for leaning.

Elaine Johnson (2002) believes that the heart of contextual teaching and learning is the connection that leads to meaning. When young people can connect the content of an academic subject such as mathematics, science or history with their own experience they discover meaning and this meaning gives them a reason for learning. Connecting learning to one’s life makes studies come alive, and this connection is what CTL is primarily about.
As Johnson indicates we learn from science that human beings are naturally disposed to seek connections among dissimilar things such as say, politics, movies, tennis, art, and business. By making connections, we generate a context for learning and living, because we are self-organizing, self-regulating creatures, constantly we seek information and use it to create our own meaning.

The more teachers are aware of the process of learning and its nature, the better they can choose the proper classroom activity to teach the four types of skills.

Capra, 1982 says: In our interactions with our environment, there is a continual interplay and mutual influence between the outer world and our inner world… our responses to the environment….are determined… by the direct effect of external stimuli on our biological system [and] …by our past experience, our expectations, our purposes, and the individual…interpretations of our perceptual experience.

Johnson 2001 believes that the principles of interdependency, differentiation, and self-regulation (self-organization) show us that making connections comes naturally to human beings.

Freeman (1998) from Berkley University believes that “a stimulus excites the sensory receptors, so that they send a message to the brain. That input triggers a reaction by which the brain constructs a pattern of neural activity… that pattern …constitutes the meaning to the stimulus for the person receiving it.

And Capra (1982) says the impact of the environment on the brains’ neurons changes their patterns or in other word changes the brain’s physical structure. He notes, “As the environment changes the brain models itself in response to these changes….you can never wear it out; on the contrary, the more you use it, the more powerful it becomes.”

Other types of learning are:

- social learning theory,
- experiential learning,
- andragogy,
In the social learning theory, Bandura emphasizes the importance of observing and modeling the behaviors, attitudes and emotional reactions of others. Bandura (1977) states: “learning would be exceedingly laborious, not to mention hazardous, if people had to rely solely on the effects of their own actions to inform them what to do. Most human behavior is learned observationally through modeling: from observing others, one forms an idea of how new behaviors are performed, and on later occasions this coded information serves as a guide for action. Social learning theory explains human behavior in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral and environmental influences. The component processes underlying observational learning are: 1) Attention, including modeled events (distinctiveness, affective valence, complexity, prevalence, functional value) and observer characteristics (sensory capacities, arousal level, and perceptual set, past reinforcement), 2) Retention, including symbolic coding, cognitive organization, symbolic rehearsal, motor rehearsal, 3) Motor Reproduction including physical capabilities, Self-observation of reproduction, accuracy of feedback, and 4) Motivation, including external, vicarious and self reinforcement.

Experiential Learning: Rogers distinguished two types of learning: cognitive (meaningful), and experiential (significant). The former corresponds to academic knowledge such as learning vocabulary or multiplication tables and the latter refers to applied knowledge such as learning about engines in order to repair a car. The key to the distinction is that experiential learning addresses the needs and wants of the learner. Rogers lists these qualities of experiential learning: personal involvement, self-initiated, evaluated by learner and pervasive effects on learner.

To Rogers, experiential learning is equivalent to personal change and growth. Rogers feels that all human beings have a natural propensity to learn; the role of the teacher is to facilitate such learning. This includes: 1) setting a positive climate for learning 2) clarifying the purposes of the learners, 3) organizing and making available learning resources, 4) balancing intellectual and emotional components of learning and 5) sharing feelings and thoughts with learners but not dominating.

Andragogy: Knowles’ theory of andragogy is an attempt to develop a theory specifically for adult learning. Knowles emphasizes that adults are self-directed and
expect to take responsibility for decisions. Adult learning programs must accommodate this fundamental aspect.

Andragogy makes the following assumptions about the design of learning: 1) Adults need to know why they need to learn something 2) Adults need to learn experientially, 3) Adults approach learning as problem-solving, and 4) Adults learn best when the topic is of immediate value.

In practical term, andragogy means that instruction for adults needs to focus more on the process and less on the content being taught. Strategies such as case studies, role playing simulations, and self-evaluation are most useful. Instructors adopt a role of facilitator or resource rather than lecturer or grader.

Models of Learning

D. Rumelhart and D. Norman (1978) proposed that there are three models of learning: accretion, structuring and tuning. Accretion is the addition of new knowledge to existing memory. Structuring involves the formation of new conceptual structures or schema. Tuning is the adjustment of knowledge to a specific task usually through practice. Accretion is the most common form of learning; structuring occurs much less frequently and requires considerable effort; tuning is the slowest form of learning and accounts for expert performance.

OBJECTIVES

Knowing about the models of learning helps teachers to choose the proper classroom activity according to these types of learning. Teachers must be completely familiar with the nature of learning and the factors that affect this process. Teachers can employ a panorama of activities in which these models are included so that learners are not at a loss or miss parts of the lesson or get disappointed by the process of language learning.

2.2.2.1 TEACHING ENGLISH IN INDIA

According to Dr Y. K. Singh (2005), pre-independent English occupied a very important place in India. It was official language of the administration, medium of instruction and subject of study in the Indian school and University level. Acknowledge of English became a fashion of the day. It is an important foreign
language that has attained the status of link language in different countries of the world. English language has been enjoying a privileged status in India in pre-independent period of British India. In fact, English language has occupied medium of instruction in the public schools, technical, medical, law and other institutions. A large number of English medium schools are coming up. There seems to be a sudden increase in the craze for such schools. Several English departments of education are attempting now to introduce English in the third year of a child’s education. Several English language teaching centers and regional institutes of English have been set up in order to train teachers of English in new method and techniques of teaching English.

He continues that: on the basis of above mentioned aspects we can conclude that the importance of English in our national life and educational system cannot be denied by any one. English plays a role of paramount importance in the country’s national life as well as educational system. English was of great importance in the British India. It is more important today than it used to be in British period in India.

He continues and emphasizes the importance of the English language: everything of importance which happens day by day is printed in English in newspapers or spoken in English over radio all over the world. %50 of the world’s newspapers or over %50 of the world’s scientific and technical periodicals and more than %60 of the world’s radio stations use English as medium of communication.

“Because of rapid spread of industrial development, science and technology, international trade and commerce and the closer inter-dependence of nations, English has become a world language.”

Nehru says “English is our major window on the modern world”.

The Radhakrishnan University Education Commission observed “It (English) is a language which is rich in literature- humanistic, scientific, and technical. If under sentimental urges we should give up English, we would cut ourselves off from the living stream of every growing knowledge.”

F. G. French believes that through the English language we have “distilled essence of modern knowledge in all fields of human activity. Anyone who can read English can keep in touch with the whole world without leaving his own house.”
Singh (2005) believes that without learning English it is impossible to be in tune with the latest changes and progress in the technology and science. He put emphasis on the oral abilities. He believes that students must have a good command of English to follow the higher education in English. He believes that students must be competent in English so that they can use books in English for their research and studies.

He suggests that in Indian schools English should be taught as a language and not as literature. He reckons that it is also very important for an English teacher to know what he is trying to achieve by teaching language. He should know the aims of teaching English. He must be able to decide his methods and techniques of teaching English, the English is taught as a second language in India, the teaching aids is the need of modern approach to teach all the language specially English.

He counts some objectives of teaching English in India:

1. To teach students to hear and understand the spoken language.
2. To teach them to understand what they read.
3. To teach them to write it.

He lays emphasis on teaching these skills because he believes that Indian students are weak at these skills.

Dr Singh says that the teaching of English in Indian schools is in a chaotic state. English is taught in India under conditions which are far from satisfactory.

Mishra and Mahapatra (2001) observe: “…the teacher’s task consist pre-eminently in strengthening the individual students’ resolution to progress on the basis of their successful learning experiences which the teacher necessarily critically most sensibly makes use of to stress the fact that confidence–level of the participating students is boosted and contribution-level later on in terms of involvement and dedicated hard work is remarkably upgraded on every subsequent teacher-student evaluation-based interaction. Here again, the teacher creates and fosters a non-threatening learning-ensuring atmosphere using his understanding of the students’ background - cultural, socio-economic and the like - which play important role in determining learning success and the rate and pace of its consolidation.”
V. K. Gokak says that “pupils are taught English for about six periods a week for six years. But it has been estimated that they hardly know 1500 words by the time they join a university. It means that they have hardly been able to learn English words at the rate of one word per period. They do not know how to use the commonest structures of English.”

Then he pinpoints the shortcomings of teaching English in classrooms:

1. **Purpose and Clear-Cut Objectives**: the teacher does not bother to clarify the aims and the objectives of teaching English. He teaches this subject since it is included in the syllabus. Pupils learn it just to pass the time. The aim of teaching English remains purposeless. Clear-cut objectives are not conveyed. Hence pupil does not understand speak, read and write correct English.

2. **Well Equipped Teachers**: many teachers in schools who are teaching English neither know enough English not are familiar with the latest and far reaching development in English, as such, they lack of techniques of foreign language teaching. Their knowledge of English is inadequate and their pronunciation is faulty.

3. **Over-Crowded Classrooms**: over-crowding in classes is a common problem of our schools. English should have a room of its own, where the pupils can move about, from themselves in triangles, circles, lines and speak to each other. This is but dreams in our schools, where classrooms are over- crowded or even do not exist.

4. **Faulty Method**: F.G. French permits the use of the mother tongue for explaining the meaning of words, provided we get back into English as quickly as possible. But in our schools, this object is never followed.

Singh (2005) believes that the teacher must be aware of the students’ needs and beliefs.

1. **Text Books**: A survey of text books by our teachers is of vital importance. Often we hear about serious scarcity of proper textbooks. According to Singh (2005) text books are prepared by less experienced teachers.

2. **Exam Techniques**: the system of examination has been a topic of heated controversy.
3. Teaching Methods: this is another topic of controversy, choosing the proper method.

Then Dr Singh counts a number of characteristics for proper teacher and the type of relationships he or she must have with the pupils and other people such as colleagues, parents, learners and the like.

An analysis of curricular statements and syllabi of the states of Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Mizoram, Manipur and Nagaland reveals how planning for language in education is not looked at holistically in terms of basic assumptions about language learning / acquisition (how language learning takes place), learner profiles and the contexts in which learning takes place, and the recent developments in language learning-teaching. Most states refuse to move beyond the good old structural approach of the 1950s and the 60s, while they stress for communication skills to help the learner for an upward movement. This, in reality, reveals the paradoxical situations of an English language education which would further place the rural learner in a very disadvantaged situation (Meganathan, R., 2009).

As Meganathan (2009) says “While the demand increases on the one hand, the quality of English language education in our state run schools, more particularly in rural schools, presents an abysmal picture. The ‘divide’ between the urban and rural is further contributed by the way English language education is making its way as a medium of instruction.”

He continues that the diverse English language education situation in the country shows both a rosy and an abysmal picture. Schools in different regions and systems operate in their contexts. The state policy on language education, curricular statements and syllabi and materials for teaching-learning of English along with teacher inputs decide the quality of education in schools more so in rural schools. An analysis of language policy practices and the curriculum and syllabi of five the states, Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Mizoram, Manipur and Nagaland reveals how planning for language in education is not looked at holistically in terms of basic assumptions about language learning / acquisition (how language learning takes place), learners profiles and the contexts in which learning takes place and the recent developments in language learning-teaching.
According to the statistics, India today has 92.07% schools at the primary stage teaching through mother tongue, and the rural and urban comparison shows 92.39% schools in rural areas and 90.39% school in urban areas teach through mother tongue. At the Upper Primary stage, 91.34% teach through mother tongue which consists of 92.71% in rural areas and 87.37% in urban areas. 12.14% at the primary stage, 14.47% schools at upper primary and 18.53% at the secondary stage have two or more media of instruction. It is also interesting to note that 91.95% of schools in the country at the primary stage teach two or more languages.

In an interview with Times of India, David Graddol, a British linguist, says: “very many know a few words, but only a few have a high level of competence in both local and more standard varieties of English. He continues that majority of students in Indian higher education do not have good enough English. His claim is based on the statistics given by the British Council and the scores of those who were intending to go abroad to study. Only one third of the ones who participated in the IELTS could acquire 6.5 out of 10. He says that if you move out of the high ways, you hear less English in India.

2.2.2.2 TEACHING ENGLISH IN IRAN

Teaching English in Iran, at junior high schools and high schools almost suffers from the same type of shortcomings like India. The material is not proper or native like, the type of testing is teacher made test not standard tests, teachers do not have a good and correct command of English, and they transfer their mispronunciations or their wrong grammatical information to learners yet, there are good private language schools that somehow compensate but this is not the remedy. Parents must have extra budget for it, so when parents are not rich enough it is the student who suffers. At private language schools, the methods are up-to-date, the teachers are well trained and they have good command of the language, they are observed by supervisors who are more knowledgeable and experienced teachers, they must participate in on the job training courses, the exam system is standard, learners are exposed to the material which is prepared by natives, they are exposed to lots of listening in English by native speakers, various up-to-date methods are used to teach the four fold skills.
OBJECTIVES

In order to talk about or to solve the problems of teaching and learning English and the existing shortcomings if any the nature of the problem under scrutiny must be known very well away from being prejudiced in both countries.

So, the process, the methods, the curriculum used to teach English in both countries must be recognized.

2.2.2.3 FACTORS AFFECTING LANGUAGE LEARNING

AUTONOMY

What is autonomy and how it affects learning? Is it an inborn ability? How does it contribute to the process of learning? How is it defined? Who can be called an autonomous learner? And how does it affect learning process?

For a definition of autonomy, the researcher might quote Holec (1981: 3, cited in Benson & Voller, 1997: 1) who describes it as ‘the capacity to take charge of one’s learning’.

In one interesting recent definition, Little (2000a: 69) combined Holec’s definition with his own:
Autonomy in language learning depends on the development and exercise of a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action (see Little 1991: 4); autonomous learners assume responsibility for determining the purpose, content, rhythm and method of their learning, monitoring its progress and evaluating its outcomes. (Holec 1981: 3)

On a general note, the term autonomy has come to be used in at least five ways (see Benson & Voller, 1997: 2):

a) for situations in which learners study entirely on their own;

b) for a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning;

c) for an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education;
d) for the exercise of learners’ responsibility for their own learning;

e) for the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

In order to help learners to assume greater control over their own learning it is important to help them to become aware of and identify the strategies that they already use or could potentially use’ (Holmes & Ramos, 1991, cited in James & Garrett, 1991: 198).

Autonomy is the quality of state of being self-governing or being independent (Merriam Webster’s Dictionary). Another definition is: The quality of having the ability or tendency to function independently (Medical Dictionary).

The ability to take charge of one's learning. (Holec, 1981:3).

Autonomy is an attribute of learners, rather than learning situations (cf. Dickinson 1987: 11).

These are general definitions of autonomy. When it comes to autonomous language learner, autonomy is defined as follows:

The concept of learner autonomy integrates these approaches:

"Essentially, autonomy is a capacity - for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action. It presupposes, but also entails, that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning. The capacity for autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts"[Little 1991].

There are ‘degrees of autonomy’ (Nunan 1997: 192) and that the behavior of autonomous learners ‘can take numerous different forms, depending on their age, how far they have progressed with their learning, what they perceive their immediate learning needs to be, and so on’ (Little 1991: 4).

There are levels of autonomy. Nunan’s (1997: 195) attempt involved a model of five levels of ‘learner action’ – ‘awareness’, ‘involvement’, ‘intervention’, ‘creation’ and ‘transcendence’ – which could inform the sequencing of learner development activities in language textbooks.
These levels also involved dimensions of ‘content’ and ‘process’. At the awareness level, for example, learners would be ‘made aware of the pedagogical goals and content of the materials’, ‘identify strategy implications of pedagogical tasks’, and ‘identify their own preferred learning styles/strategies’. At the transcendence level, learners would ‘make links between the content of classroom learning and the world beyond’ and ‘become teachers and researchers’. While Nunan’s model remained within the framework of language learning, Littlewood’s (1997: 81) three-stage model involved dimensions of language acquisition, learning approach and personal development. In the context of language acquisition, autonomy involved ‘an ability to operate independently with the language and use it to communicate personal meanings in real, unpredictable situations’ (autonomy as a communicator). In the context of classroom organization, it involved learners’ ‘ability to take responsibility for their own learning and to apply active, personally relevant strategies’ (‘autonomy as a learner’). And in a broader context, it involved ‘a higher-level goal of . . . greater generalized autonomy as individuals’ (‘autonomy as a person’). At around the same time, Macaro (1997: 170–172) proposed a somewhat similar three-stage model involving ‘autonomy of language competence’, ‘autonomy of language learning competence’ and ‘autonomy of choice and action’. Scharle & Szabó’s (2000: 1) resource book for the development of autonomy was also informed by a three phase model involving ‘raising awareness’, ‘changing attitudes’ and ‘transferring roles’.

**Versions of autonomy**

To the best of my knowledge, Benson (1997) was the first paper to introduce the idea of different ‘versions’, or ways of representing, the idea of autonomy. The terms ‘technical’, ‘psychological’ and ‘political’ were used to describe three major versions of autonomy in language education circles. Subsequent writers have cut the cake in different ways and distinctions introduced in the recent literature include Ribé’s (2003) ‘convergence’, ‘divergence-convergence’ and ‘convergence-divergence’ positions; O’Rourke & Schwienhorst’s (2003) ‘individual-cognitive’, ‘social interactive’ and ‘exploratory-participatory’ perspectives; Oxford’s (2003) expanded version of Benson’s model, which recognized ‘technical’, ‘psychological’, ‘socio-cultural’, and ‘political-critical’ perspectives; and Holliday’s (2003) ‘native-speakerist’, ‘cultural-relativist’ and ‘social’ approaches. Smith (2003) has made a more general distinction between ‘weak’ and ‘strong’ pedagogies for autonomy, while
Kumaravadivelu (2003) makes a similar distinction between ‘narrow’ and ‘broad’ views of autonomy. These models are again related to the movement of the idea of autonomy into mainstream language education, as each implies a distinction between mainstream perspectives and more radical, socially oriented, alternatives. Smith (2003: 131), for example, associates ‘weak pedagogies’ with the idea of autonomy ‘as a capacity which students currently lack (and so need ‘training’ towards)’. ‘Strong pedagogies’ on the other hand, are based on the assumption that students are ‘already autonomous’ to some degree, and focus on ‘co-creating with students optimal conditions for the exercise of their own autonomy’. Ribé (2003: 15) similarly associates ‘convergence’ models of autonomy with a movement towards shared, other-directed curriculum goals, while ‘divergence’ models are associated with more open approaches to language curricula in which autonomy ‘lies in the wide range of choices around the process affecting almost all levels of control, management and strategic decisions’.

Learning strategies may also play an important role in independent learning. Oxford (1990) describes learning strategies as “steps taken by students to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, and more transferable to new situations” (p. 8, emphasis added). Higher proficiency students have been found to use both a greater number and wider range of strategies (Anderson, 1991) as well as more meta-cognitive strategies (Cohen, 1998). That is, more successful learners are more likely to plan and evaluate their own learning – a key element of independent learning.

OBJECTIVES

Autonomy is another crucial factor in the process of learning and here language learning. It affects learners’ choice; which classroom activity they prefer; which one is according to their taste in the process of learning; which one is more useful or interesting to them. Autonomous learner is self directed so in this regard they have their beliefs about classroom activities. Autonomy is freedom in directing learning; it values individualism which values individual’s ideas; their likes and dislikes. Autonomy very much influences language learning in adults. They especially are willing to direct the process of learning themselves.
MOTIVATION

Motivation in language-learning plays a vital role. It is motivation that produces effective second-language communicators by planting in them the seeds of self-confidence. It also successfully creates learners who continuously engage themselves in learning even after they complete a targeted goal (Makiko Ebata, 2008).

To talk more about motivation Ash continues that in most forms of behavioral theory, motivation was strictly a function of primary drives such as hunger, sex, sleep, or comfort. According to Hull’s drive reduction theory, learning reduces drives and therefore motivation is essential to learning. The degree of the learning achieved can be manipulated by the strength of the drive and its underlying motivation. In Tolman’s theory of purposive behaviorism, primary drives create internal states (i.e., wants or needs) that serve as secondary drives and represent intrinsic motivation.

According to Hussin, Maarof, and D’Cruz, “positive self-concept, high self-esteem, positive attitude, clear understanding of the goals for language learning, continuous active participation in the language learning process, the relevance of conductive environment that could contribute to the success of language learning” (2001). They state that six factors influence motivation in language learning: attitudes, beliefs about self, goals, involvement, environmental support, and personal attributes (2001). Above all, three specific elements are strongly believed to build motivation towards language-learning: self-confidence, experiencing success and satisfaction, and good teacher-learner relationships as well as relationships between learners. All three factors are believed to be correlated to each other in the process of motivation development.

The motivated learners held in common characteristics of openness, sociability, taking part actively in class, and trying quite hard to achieve good results. Those who were less motivated were very varied with respect to sociability, didn't tend to participate actively in class, but did try quite hard. Finally, those who were not motivated also varied with respect to sociability, didn't tend to take part actively in class, and did not try hard.
Makiko Ebata conducted a research in 2008 about motivation. Sixteen college freshmen were interviewed regarding the class contents, materials, and the ideal teacher. Half of them had already experienced studying abroad; the other half had not, but their English abilities were as functional as those of returnees. More students preferred visual aids for new information and their memorization. This means that when teachers introduce new information, visual aids are necessary for students to grasp main points and details. In addition, the students enjoyed thinking rather than talking and individual studying more than group studying; this proves that even returnees who had more opportunities to participate in group studying abroad feel comfortable with a passive studying style. Furthermore, thinking comes before trial according to the survey. This means that students need to obtain time to use their critical thinking strategy before they actually start trying in language learning. The students answered the question, “What kind of teacher do you prefer?” like below.

- A teacher who knows how to deal with students, especially teenagers.
- A teacher who does not force ideas on the students.
- A tolerant and responsible teacher with a sense of humor.
- A funny teacher who can be serious when necessary.
- A caring teacher.
- A friendly teacher.
- An active teacher.
- A teacher who can understand what students' expectations are.
- A trustworthy teacher.

Since motivation plays a very important role in the process of learning any subject, lack of it can have a diverse or inhibiting influence. According to Cottrell (2001) it is very common for motivation to wane as a long course progress. The eager enthusiasm that students had at the beginning can diminish when study becomes difficult and especially if life outside the course presents additional difficult. Tutors can maintain higher motivation, by timetabling some careers education, and more generally through teaching methods which make course content relevant to the lived realities of the student’s experiences. It is difficult to maintain interest in abstract information when motivation is low. Concrete and relevant examples, case studies and relating
information to one’s personal life, make abstraction meaningful, and can increase motivation.

OBJECTIVES

Motivated learner tries to find the best ways to make the process of learning faster and more interesting, also more convenient and to the point, less time consuming. Based on these factors they pick up classroom activities which match their taste. Motivated learners have their own way of choosing methods and ways of learning which play an important role in forming their ideas about the process of language learning and classroom activities. Motivation affects their ideas regarding their likes or dislikes towards classroom activities.

TEACHERS’ BELIEFS

Teachers of any language hold their own beliefs towards language learning and language teaching. Their beliefs are affected by their own language learning experience and language teaching experience; simultaneously the instructions they received to be teachers.

The types of beliefs teachers hold depends on the country in which they teach since they will be subconsciously affected by the culture of that country, the type of relationship exists between the student and the teachers, their mother tongue, etc.

Johnson conducted a qualitative study of the pre service beliefs of four English as a second-language teachers. Beliefs were inferred from teachers' narratives, intentions and instructional practices. One of the more important implications of the findings of this study was that the teachers' beliefs were largely based on images from their formal language learning experiences and that these beliefs may have been responsible for the teachers’ ineffectual teaching practices. The four teachers in the study criticized their own teacher-directed instructional practices. At the same time, "they described feeling powerless to alter their instructional practices because they had few, if any, alternative images of teachers and teaching to act as a model of action" (p.449). Feelings of being overwhelmed by classroom restraints and issues related to classroom management led to more teacher-centered instruction in spite of the desire to want to have more student-centered teaching.
Freeman's (1991) findings of a study of the evolution of perceptions and understandings of four foreign language teachers are similar in many ways to Johnson's findings. Issues of classroom management led to tension in teachers' thinking. As foreign-language teachers, the study's participants understood the need for genuine and spontaneous interaction in order to promote language development. Yet, with class sizes of 20-30 adolescents, spontaneous interaction resulted in discipline problems and required teachers to provide more control and discipline.

Williams and Burden (1997) affirm that teacher beliefs play an important role in the language learning process and that, for this reason, teachers must understand their own beliefs, theories or philosophy. They argue that teachers must maintain a continuous process of personal reflection and that it is by becoming aware of their beliefs that they come to understand their own "implicit educational theories and the ways in which such theories influence their professional practice". The authors also posit that, although a syllabus or curriculum may be set down precisely for teachers, it is personally shaped by the teachers’ own belief systems. The authors explain:

Teachers' beliefs about what learning is will affect everything they do in the classroom, whether these beliefs are implicit or explicit. Even if a teacher acts spontaneously, or from habit without thinking about the action, such actions are nevertheless prompted by a deep-rooted belief that may never have been articulated or made explicit. If the teacher-as-educator is one who is constantly re-evaluating in the light of new knowledge his or her beliefs about language, or about how language is learned, or about education as a whole, then it is crucial that teachers first understand and articulate their own theoretical perspectives. (p. 56)

Yet practically such thing does not take place, especially in developing countries due to certain problems such as economical problems, consequently they are less in touch with the latest theories of language teaching and learning whereas certain other hinders are involved.

A similar argument is put forth by LeLoup (1995) in her longitudinal study of the evolution of beliefs of pre-service language teachers. LeLoup's study is premised on the argument that students who enroll in foreign-language methods' courses already have a set of beliefs about language learning. These beliefs are formed by their
"internalization of how they were taught and their perceptions of how they learned" (p. 137). These beliefs often result in teachers having misconceptions about language learning which could not only negatively impact on their understanding of the course content, but which could, as well, impinge on their success as FL teachers.

What teachers believe about language learning and language teaching affects their way of teaching and the type of activities they pick up to teach the four types of skills.

At one extreme end of a continuum are those who subscribe to the view that literacy education requires students to master hierarchies of sub-skills that are combined to produce a single composite of skills that constitutes "literacy". At the other end of the continuum are those teachers who view language and literacy learning in a holistic way and draw heavily on the views of Halliday (1975) and Cambourne (1988) among others to shape their understandings.

Whatever teachers’ outlooks are towards language learning one thing is for sure according to what follows:

Language and literacy learning is essentially a contested process where social interactions between the learner and the more literate adult or peer play a significant role in promoting language acquisition and the development of literacy skills and knowledge. In this process the teacher plays a pivotal role in shaping the classroom environment which may facilitate students’ socialization into literacy as well as their literacy beliefs, behaviors and outcomes (Gump, 1989; Morrow & Rand, 1991; Neuman & Roskos, 1993). The teacher and any other adult engaged in the literacy process supports the student in moving from one level of understanding and performance to the next. The manipulation of these environments by skilled teachers can affect the quality and variety of a child’s oral language use, engagement in literacy behaviors and story composition (Nielsen & Monson, 1996).

The study on language learning beliefs combined a Likert-type questionnaire with a more descriptive, open-ended questionnaire. LeLoup concluded that while some of the beliefs held by pre-service teachers represent "accurate appraisals of the knowledge base in language learning", others represent "FL learning myths" that need to be informed and revised according to second language acquisition research. Many
of the beliefs held by the pre-service teachers underwent revision by the end of their FL methods’ course.

Woods (1996) found that, given a new curriculum and two different teachers, two very different interpretations result in the course to be taught. Teachers’ underlying beliefs, assumptions and knowledge (BAK) about "what language is, how it is learned, and how it should be taught" resulted in differing classroom experiences for the learners. Given a new curriculum, the two teachers in his study experienced conflict between interpreting the curriculum in a way which would be consistent with his BAK as opposed to interpreting it in a way that would be more consistent with the "institutional system". Woods found that, not only do teachers interpret curriculum innovations in light of their BAK, they also interpret theoretical and pedagogical concepts related to second-language learning.

The study suggests that "each teacher has an individual system of interwoven beliefs, assumptions and knowledge, a system which has evolved in an individual and organic fashion when aspects of that teacher's BAK have interacted with experience, especially experiences that resulted in a conflict with the BAK’s current state" (p. 248). Woods affirms as a result of his investigation that while teachers’ BAK influences their interpretation of the curriculum in the case of a curricular evolution, the curriculum itself influences the evolution of a teacher’s BAK. The overall role of a teacher’s beliefs assumptions and knowledge is emphasized by Woods as he comments on their "pervasiveness":

It was not as if teachers’ networks of beliefs, assumptions and knowledge were activated in particular cases in order to resolve ambiguous cases or deal with conflicting situations. Rather it seemed to underlie everything that the teachers did and said: as if it was through their individual BAK systems that the teachers structured their perceptions of the curriculum and their decisions as to how to implement that curriculum, from overall organization of the units down to the specific classroom activities and verbalizations. (p.282)

Beliefs are notoriously difficult to define and evaluate, but there do appear to be a number of helpful statements that we can make about them. They tend to be culturally bound, to be formed early in life and to be resistant to change. Beliefs about teaching,
for example, appear to be well established by the time a student gets to college (Weinstein 1989). They are closely related to what we think we know but provide an affective filter which screens, redefines, distorts, or reshapes subsequent thinking and information processing (Nespor 1987). Our beliefs about one particular area or subject will not only be interconnected, but will also be related to other more central aspects of our personal belief systems, e.g. our attitudes and values about the world and our place within it. Because they are difficult to measure, we usually have to infer people's beliefs from the wars in which they behave rather than from what they say they believe (Agyris and Schon 1974).

It was stressed earlier the importance of teachers reflecting upon their own actions in order to make explicit their often implicit belief systems and to help them clarify what is personally meaningful and significant to them in their professional roles. Teachers' beliefs about what learning is will affect everything that they do in the classroom, whether these beliefs are implicit or explicit. Even if a teacher acts spontaneously, or from habit without thinking about the action, such actions are nevertheless prompted by a deep-rooted belief that may never have been articulated or made explicit. Thus teachers' deep-rooted beliefs about how languages are learned will pervade their classroom actions more than a particular methodology they are told to adopt or course book they follow. If the teacher-as-educator is one who is constantly re-evaluating in the light of new knowledge his or her beliefs about language, or about how language is learned, or about education as a whole, then it is crucial that teachers first understand and articulate their own theoretical perspectives.

In a research done by Bonnie Piller and Mary Jo Skillings in 2005 in NewDelhi primary school the following ideas were found through observation and interviews:

Teacher and Administrator Beliefs about Literacy Instruction
1. includes listening, speaking, reading and writing
2. uses formal and informal methods
3. is structured and unstructured
4. is developmental
5. is holistic
6. is integrated
7. uses repetition
8. uses patterns
9. use questioning
10. happens in a safe and supportive environment

A more recent study by Kern (1995) demonstrated how the BALLI can be used to compare teacher and student beliefs and to tease out differences that may exist. In a study of the beliefs of 288 first and second semester college French students and their instructors, it was found that in certain domains teachers’ beliefs bore little, if any, relationship to students’ beliefs. For example, students’ and instructors’ opinions on pronunciation, error correction, and the importance of rule learning contrasted more at the end of the semester than at the beginning. Kern highlighted the importance not only of the nature of the textbook but also of the test materials. As he put it, “In the final analysis it is not what we say that is important or unimportant, but rather what we assess, and how we assess it, that will send a clear message to our students about what instructed language learning is all about” (Kern, 1995: 81).

OBJECTIVES
In the present research, teachers’ beliefs and the role it plays in teaching style and methodology is crystal clear. The type of ideas teachers’ hold towards language learning and teaching directly affects the type of classroom activities they pick up to teacher learners of the language.

LEARNING STYLES AND LEARNING STRATEGIES

Learning styles can be defined, classified, and identified in many different ways. Generally, they are overall patterns that provide direction to learning and teaching. Learning style can also be described as a set of factors, behaviors, and attitudes that facilitate learning for an individual in a given situation.

Styles influence how students learn, how teachers teach, and how the two interact. Each person is born with certain tendencies toward particular styles, but these biological or inherited characteristics are influenced by culture, personal experiences, maturity level, and development. Style can be considered a “contextual” variable or construct because what the learner brings to the learning experience is as much a part of the context as are the important features of the experience itself.
Each learner has distinct and consistent preferred ways of perception, organization and retention. These learning styles are characteristic cognitive, affective, and physiological behaviors that serve as pretty good indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment.

Students learn differently from each other and it has been determined that brain structure influences language structure acquisition. It has also been shown that different hemispheres of the brain contain different perception avenues. Some researchers claim that several types of cells present in some brains are not present in others.

**Learning styles change as we age.**

There are various ways of learning. We use our senses to learn; sometimes one sense, sometimes a mixture of them.

By using more than one sense we bombard our brain with the new information in multiple ways. As a result we learn better. Rief (1993) says that students retain:

- 10% of what they read
- 20% of what they hear
- 30% of what they see
- 50% of what they see and hear
- 70% of what they say
- 90% of what they say and do

The way in which an individual characteristically acquires, retains, and retrieves information are collectively termed the individual’s learning style (Felder R. M, Henriques E. R, 1995).

According to them there are two types of language learners: sensors and intuitors who learn through a variety of learning styles. Sensors tend to be concrete and methodical, intuitors to be abstract and imaginative. Sensors like facts, data and experimentations; intuitors deal better with principles, concept, and theories.

**Styles are based on the way one views the world.**
Different men construe [the universe] in different ways; some of the alternative ways of construing are better adapted to man's purposes than are others, Schwienhorst, K. (1998). Thus, man comes to understand his world through an infinite series of successive approximations" [Kelly 1963]. The learner's view of the world is characterized by a "continuous process of hypothesis-testing and theory-revision" [Little 1991] to make sense of the world around him. When this view of the world requires little or no adjustments of the underlying hypotheses and theories, learning will take place without great difficulty, when it requires substantial changes, learning will be difficult or even painful [Little 1991]. One of the strongest points Kelly makes is that these diverse personal constructs need to be explored and laid open. In language learning terms, learners need to become more aware of their personal constructs and thus of their personal learning process. Another important consequence of this approach is the need for the creation of personally meaningful learning environments and materials, private spaces that can be constructed by each learner.

Papert who adopted Jean Piaget's idea that people construct new knowledge from their experiences in the world, added that they do so "with particular effectiveness when they are engaged in constructing personally-meaningful products"[Bruckman & Resnick 1995].

Student learning may be classified according to the sensory modalities by which one prefers to take in information. One such classification scheme uses the VARK instrument, which categorizes learning preferences as visual (V), auditory (A), reading-writing (R), or kinesthetic (K). Many students have single, strong preferences ("uni-modal"), whereas others have multiple ("multimodal") learning preferences. Although limited in scope and reliability, knowledge of student learning preferences is important for reasons of pedagogy. Teaching and student learning styles may also affect student academic success in science coursework and fulfillment of student career goals (Breckler J, Jou D, Ngo H., 2008). They carried out a study to determine the learning styles of physiology students’ interests in health professions. They found that the majority of students interested in the health professions have multimodal learning preferences. Furthermore, a greater percentage of premedical students had multimodal preferences compared with pre-dental and pre-scientist students. When data were compared by gender, they found that more female than male students had
multimodal learning preferences. They also observed some gender differences when separating student groups by career choice. For example, more premedical men had multimodal preferences compared with non-premedical men. In contrast to men, women showed little differences in their learning style profiles whether premedical or not and also self-predicted their learning preferences more accurately. Thus, career choice may be an important consideration in determining whether or not there are gender differences among students.

This part can be called a short history of various learning styles:

There is no agreement on the number or variety of learning styles. A number of learning style models can be found in the research on this subject. These fall into general categories such as information processing, personality patterns, and social interaction (Conner, 2004).

In a survey done by Ogeyik, M. (2009) in Turkey the following learning strategies regarding writing and speaking were found:

**Strategies for writing skill:**

1. I decide my goal for writing and I write depending on this goal
2. Before writing I think of what I know about the topic
3. I make an outline before writing
4. I determine my writing strategies regarding the text type: If write an argumentative text, I determine the criteria of such text
5. Before writing I plan the introduction, development, and conclusion parts of my writing.
6. In my writing, I organize the sentences coherently regarding linguistic rules
7. I organize the coherence of sentences regarding unity of ideas
8. I choose the proper words regarding the contextual meaning of the words
9. I always hesitate to use the same words repeatedly
10. I carefully use the proper forms of the words such as adjectives, verbs, nouns, etc.
11. I always encourage myself by repeating “you can manage to write”
12. I complete the text I am writing with the help of my classmates
13. While writing, I always check how comprehensible my writing is
14. I always check whether there are linguistic errors or mistakes
15. I read my text after writing in order to check if it is comprehensible
16. I determine the weak and strong points of my text after writing it
17. I evaluate whether the strategies I determined before writing are effective or not
18. I evaluate whether my text is consistent with my purpose I determined before writing it

**Strategies for speaking skill:**
1. I determine my goal about the topic before speaking
2. I think about my speaking strategies before my speech
3. I try to find out what I know about the topic
4. I try to choose the proper words while speaking
5. I check whether I affect my audience by my speech
6. I use simple language structures to convey my ideas clearly
7. I focus on the common topics while speaking
8. I practice speaking on my own in order to be fluent
9. I use real objects to express my ideas clearly
10. I use body language while speaking
11. I encourage myself while speaking
12. I talk to my classmates in English to gain fluency in my spare times
13. If I forget what to say, I try to carry on my speech with proper contextual information
14. After I finish my speech, I check whether I have been understood by the audience
15. I assess myself after my speech
16. I evaluate whether I have achieved my strategies I determined before my speech
17. After my speech I assess whether I managed to talk in the direction of my goal
18. I determine the weak and strong points of my speech after I finish my speech

**Information Processing**

This distinguishes between the way learners sense, think, solve problems, and remember information. Kolb's Learning Styles inventory and Gregorc's Mind Styles Model are those most frequently mentioned in this category. Learning Styles inventory (Kolb, 1984) includes:

**Diverging (feeling and watching)** - People with diverging styles are able to look at things from different perspectives. They are sensitive. They prefer to watch rather than do, tend to gather information and use imagination to solve problems. They are
best at viewing concrete situations from several different viewpoints. Kolb called this style 'Diverging' because these people perform better in situations that require idea-generating, for example, brainstorming. They have broad cultural interests and like to gather information. They are interested in people, tend to be imaginative and emotional, and tend to be strong in the arts. They prefer to work in groups, to listen with an open mind and to receive personal feedback.

**Assimilating (watching and thinking)** - The Assimilating learning preference is for a concise, logical approach. Ideas and concepts are more important than people. These people require good clear explanation rather than practical opportunity. They excel at understanding wide-ranging information and organizing it in a clear logical format. They are less focused on people and more interested in ideas. People with this style are more attracted to theories than practice. In formal learning situations, people with this style prefer readings, lectures, exploring analytical models, and having time to think.

**Converging (doing and thinking)** - People with a Converging learning style use their learning to find solutions to practical issues. They prefer technical tasks, and are less concerned with people. They can solve problems and make decisions. A Converging learning style enables specialist and technology abilities. People with a Converging style like to experiment with new ideas, to simulate, and to work with practical applications.

**Accommodating (doing and feeling)** - The Accommodating learning style is 'hands-on', and relies on intuition rather than logic. These people use other people's analyses, and prefer to take a practical, experiential approach. They are attracted to new challenges and experiences, and to carrying out plans. They commonly act on 'gut' instinct rather than logical analysis. Also, they tend to rely on others for information. This learning style is prevalent and useful in roles requiring action and initiative. People with this learning style prefer to work in teams to complete tasks. They set targets and actively work in the field trying different ways to achieve an objective (Kolb, 1984).

A. F. Gregorc's Mind Styles Model identifies four major learning types (Gregorc, 1985):
Concrete Sequential (CS) these learners like order, logical sequence, following directions, predictability, and getting facts. They learn best when they have a structured environment. They can rely on others and can apply ideas in pragmatic ways. They find hard: working in groups, pointless discussions, an unorganized environment, incomplete or unclear directions, unpredictable people, abstract ideas, demands to "use your imagination", questions with no right or wrong answers.

Abstract Random (AR) these learners like listening to others, bringing harmony to group situations, establishing healthy relationships with others, focusing on the issues at hand. They learn best when they are: in a personalized environment, given broad or general guidelines, able to maintain friendly relationships, and able to participate in group activities. They find hard: having to explain or justify feelings, competition, working with dictatorial/authoritarian personalities, working in a restrictive environment, working with people who don't seem friendly, concentrating on one thing at a time, giving exact details, accepting even positive criticism.

Abstract Sequential (AS) These learners like: their point to be heard, analyzing situations before making a decision or acting, and applying logic. They learn best when: they have access to experts or references, they are placed in stimulating environments, and they are able to work alone. They find hard: being forced to work with those of differing views, having too little time to deal with a subject thoroughly, repeating the same tasks over and over, lots of specific rules and regulations, "sentimental" thinking, expressing their emotions, being diplomatic when convincing others, and not monopolizing a conversation.

Concrete Random (CR) these learners like: experimenting to find answers, taking risks, using their intuition, and solving problems independently. They learn best when: they are able to use trial-and-error approaches, they are able to compete with others, and are given the opportunity to work through problems by themselves. They find hard: restrictions and limitations, formal reports, routines, re-doing anything once it's done, keeping detailed records, showing how they got an answer, choosing only one answer, having no options.
Personality Patterns

These focus on attention, emotion, and values. Understanding these differences allows predicting the way learners react and feel about different situations. Two well known personality pattern are: The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and the Keirsey TemperamentSorter.

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator measures preferences on four scales derived from Jung’s Theory of Psychological Types (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). People are classified according to their preference for:

- **Introversion** (I) (interest flowing mainly to the inner world of concepts and ideas);
- **Extroversion** (E) (interest flowing mainly to the outer world of actions, objects, and persons);
- **Sensing** (S) (tending to perceive immediate, real, practical facts of experience and life);
- **Intuition** (N) (tending to perceive possibilities, relationships, and meanings of experiences);
- **Thinking** (T) (tending to make judgments or decisions objectively and impersonally);
- **Feeling** (F) (tending to make judgments subjectively and personally);
- **Judging** (J) (tending to act in a planned and decisive way);
- **Perceiving** (P) (tending to act in a spontaneous and flexible way).

On this basis, some claim that an individual learning type can be made out of sixteen possible combinations of these preferences (Felder, Felder, and Dietz, 2002). For example, an ENTP would have a preference for extroversion, intuition, thinking, and perception. A preference for one or the other category of a dimension may be mild or strong. Students with different type preferences tend to respond differently to different teaching styles. Extroverts like activity and group work; introverts prefer working alone. Sensors like concrete learning experiences and clearly defined expectations and dislike instruction heavy in abstractions such as theories and mathematical models; intuitors like instruction based on understanding concepts rather than on memorization of facts, rote substitution, and repetitive calculations. Thinkers like logically organized presentations of course material and feedback related to their
work. Feelers like those teachers who establish a personal rapport with them and show appreciation of their efforts. Judgers like well-structured instruction with clearly defined assignments, goals, and milestones. Perceivers like to have choice and flexibility in their assignments and dislike rigid timelines (Felder et al., 2002).

David Keirsey identifies the following temperament types (Keirsey, 1998):

**Artisans:** born for action, particularly for artful action -- making free, spontaneous maneuvers that get quick, effective results. They have a natural talent for all the arts, not only the fine arts but also the dramatic, athletic, military, political, and financial arts.

**Guardians:** undertake tasks and actions cautiously, and always with careful preparation. Guardians are sensible, down-to-earth people. They believe in following the rules and regulations.

**Idealists:** have an instinct for interpersonal integration, sometimes become leaders, and often speak interpretively and metaphorically of the abstract world of their imagination.

**Rationals:** tend to be organizing and planning, or inventing and configuring operations. They are competent and pragmatic.

Among other models that could be considered as belonging in the personality-based are given by B. McCarthy and H. Gardner. McCarthy (1990) identified four learning styles:

**Innovative learners:** they look for personal meaning while learning, draw on their values while learning, enjoy social interaction, cooperate and want to make the world a better place.

**Analytic learners:** they want to develop intellectually while learning, draw on facts while learning, they are patient and reflective, they want to know “important things” and to add to the world’s knowledge.
**Common sense learners**: they want to find solutions, they value things if they are useful, they are kinesthetic, they are practical and straightforward, and they want to make things happen.

**Dynamic learners**: they look for hidden possibilities, judge things by gut reactions, synthesize information from different sources, and are enthusiastic and adventurous.

H. Gardner's (1985) concept of multiple intelligences', as mentioned earlier, is commonly viewed as, in fact, a model of learning styles. According to this point of view, the following types of learning styles can be identified (Gardner, 1985):

**Visual Learners.** These learners need to see the teacher's body language and facial expression to fully understand the content of a lesson. They tend to prefer sitting at the front of the classroom to avoid visual obstructions. They may think in pictures and learn best from visual displays. They often prefer to take detailed notes to absorb the information.

**Auditory learners.** They learn best through verbal lectures, discussions, talking things through and listening to what others have to say. Auditory learners interpret the underlying meanings of speech through listening to tone of voice, pitch, speed and other nuances. Written information may have little meaning. These learners often benefit from reading text aloud and using a tape recorder.

**Tactile/Kinesthetic learners.** They learn best through a hands-on approach, actively exploring the physical world around them. They may find it hard to sit still for long periods and may become distracted.

**Social Interaction**

This looks at likely attitudes, habits, and strategies learners will take toward their work and how they engage with their peers when they learn. The Reichmann-Grasha model, for instance, focuses on student attitudes toward learning, classroom activities, teachers, and peers. This model identifies the following types and their characteristics (Reichmann & Grasha, 1974):
Avoidant students tend to be at the lower end of the grade distribution. They tend to have high absenteeism; they organize their work poorly, and take little responsibility for their learning.

Participative students are characterized as willing to accept responsibility for self-learning and relate well to their peers.

Competitive students are described as suspicious of their peers leading to competition for rewards and recognition.

Collaborative students enjoy working in harmony with their peers.

Dependent students typically become frustrated when facing new challenges not directly addressed in the classroom.

Independent students, as the name implies, prefer to work alone and require little direction from the teacher.

Lile reckons that a student will find it difficult to perform in a stressful environment, (2002). He also mentions that “the lessons must be very simple, yet fun and interesting, with a lot of changes from a writing exercise, to a speaking, listening, back to writing, and so on”. Nunan states that “students need to be able to use the skills taught in the classroom to do things other than those that they had been specifically taught” (1999). This implies that in order for language learners to experience success and become satisfied, it is essential for instructors to create a relaxing learning environment so that students can perform successfully. Moreover, a language class needs to contain a variety of materials and activities focusing on all necessary skills. By encouraging students to practice not only one skill but all, the class will become more challenging and effective.

OBJECTIVES

Learners’ have their own ways of learning, or their own strategies or learning styles. Such strategies and styles form learners’ ideas about learning and naturally influence their ideas regarding classroom activities. Strategies are selected according to the taste of the learner; if the learner is introvert or extrovert; how much that strategy makes
the process of learning faster and easier. So, they play a crucial role in forming the body of beliefs one holds towards learning a language and classroom activities employed to teach the four types of language skills.

LEARNERS’ BELIEFS

Generally speaking, learners hold their own ideas and beliefs about learning. Now, language learning is a different field. Everybody views language learning different from learning other subjects. And it really is. So their beliefs affect their learning process especially if they are grownups, yet most language learners are teenagers and young people. So, other factors will also affect their learning such as age, gender, motivations and certain psychological changes they go through at this age due to puberty along with other factors. These beliefs may have positive or negative effect on the process of language learning. They can be hindering or persuading; encouraging or discouraging;

In the classroom context, the perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, and meta-cognitive knowledge that students bring with them to the learning situation have been recognized as a significant contributory factor in the learning process and ultimate success (Breen, 2001).

Beliefs are defined as "psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true" (Richardson, 1996, p.102), and said to act as strong filters of reality (Arnold, 1999).

While a considerable amount of research has so far been conducted in the language acquisition area, Wenden (2001) argues that foreign and second language learner beliefs, so far, have been a neglected variable. Language educators have long recognized that learners bring to the language classroom a complex web of attitudes, experiences, expectations, beliefs, and learning strategies (Benson, 2001; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Oxford, 1992).

Flavell proposed three categories of meta-cognitive knowledge: a) person variables: these are the individual’s beliefs about himself and other people (e.g. that s/he can learn better by memorizing vocabulary items, or his/her friend can learn languages better because s/he has a better memory etc.); b) task variables: these are the
individual’s knowledge about a given task (e.g. whether the task is interesting, familiar, and whether it is within the capabilities of the individual to accomplish); c) and strategy variables: these involve selection of appropriate cognitive processes to fulfill a task (e.g. whether the task requires summarizing, analyzing, expressing personal opinion etc. or whether the individual needs to ask for further clarification etc.).

Studies using the BALLI, have, for instance, compared the beliefs of Russian learners of English to those of American learners of French and Spanish (Tumposky, 1991). Interestingly, in that study, the 54 Russian students were more likely to hold the belief that it was important to take risks and to practice speaking the language, while the 36 Americans were holding themselves back from practicing the speaking skill, although they were motivated to achieve fluency. These American students believed that the learning of the target language was not viewed by their compatriots as an important or valued achievement, nor would it necessarily lead to better employment opportunities. It should also be pointed out that the Russian students were a select group of undergraduates who were in the U.S. on an orientation program before being placed as exchange students in American colleges, so they had already committed themselves to risk taking and were in an ESL, not an EFL, situation.

A more recent study by Kern (1995) demonstrated how the BALLI can be used to compare teacher and student beliefs and to tease out differences that may exist. In a study of the beliefs of 288 first and second semester college French students and their instructors, it was found that in certain domains teachers’ beliefs bore little, if any, relationship to students’ beliefs. For example, students’ and instructors’ opinions on pronunciation, error correction, and the importance of rule learning contrasted more at the end of the semester than at the beginning. Kern highlighted the importance not only of the nature of the textbook but also of the test materials. As he put it, “In the final analysis it is not what we say that is important or unimportant, but rather what we assess, and how we assess it, that will send a clear message to our students about what instructed language learning is all about” (Kern, 1995: 81).

A research was carried out by teachers at Colombia University. They noticed that students lack oral ability. When students did communicate orally, it was generally with the teacher rather than with other students. There was very little interaction or group work.
Another study done by a number of researchers show that learners who held unrealistic beliefs or misconceptions about language learning were more anxious than those who held more positive and realistic beliefs. Moreover, these beliefs have links to proficiency - the more proficient learners were, the more realistic and/or positive were the reported beliefs. Finally, statistically significant differences were found among some beliefs with respect to gender (Siebert, 2003).

The findings of Siebert's (2003) study are relevant to this study since student-BALLI responses are later used to compare data with the current study. The beliefs about language learning held by ESL students and teachers in an intensive English setting at institutions of higher education in the Northwest region of the US were investigated to explore similarities and differences, as well as the influence of national origin/ethnicity and gender on these beliefs. The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (Horwitz, 1985; 1987; 1988) and demographic questionnaires were administered to 181 participants: 156 students (91 males and 64 females) and 25 teachers. Students had an approximate TOEFL score of 425, and came from a variety of nationality backgrounds including Angola, Brazil, Chile, China, Colombia, Ecuador, Egypt, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Kuwait, Laos, Qatar, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Taiwan, Thailand, Turkey, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, and Vietnam. BALLI findings obtained in a US context reveal that students generally recognize the existence of foreign language aptitude, place strong emphasis on pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary acquisition, and report being highly motivated (for a detailed discussion see Results section). Siebert also noted that a number of student beliefs, such as those related to language learning methods, differed from those held by their teachers', and that this had significant pedagogical implications (Siebert, 2003).

With respect to gender, Siebert found a number of significant belief differences among males and females in relation to language learning and strategy use. For example, findings revealed that male students were more likely than female students to rate their abilities highly and more likely to respond that they have a special ability for learning languages, and were much more optimistic about the length of time it takes to learn a language. There were also other significant differences between males and females with respect to the importance of grammar, and practicing with cassettes, videotapes or computers.
In addition, Siebert noted that national origin or ethnicity does have an effect on students' beliefs about language learning, with some of the most striking difference found in the areas of ability, length of time it takes to learn a language, and the difficulty of the English language. For example, Middle Eastern students tended to underestimate the length of time it takes to learn a language and were more likely to believe that they have special language abilities. The opposite was found in Japanese students, for example. Siebert also reported a number of statistically significant differences among teachers’ and learners’ beliefs on 16 BALLI items. Extending on previous BALLI research, Banya & Chen (1997) have conducted one of the more extensive studies on the relationship of beliefs about language learning and factors such as motivation, attitude, motivational intensity, strategy use, anxiety, and English achievement. Data from 224 Taiwanese EFL learners was collected for statistical analysis, based on subjects' responses to i) Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) (Horwitz, 1987); Motivation/Attitude Inventory for English Learning (MAIEL) (Cheng, 1995); Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford, 1990); and, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). Findings show that all abovementioned variables were influenced by students' beliefs, with attitude being the variable most greatly influenced by beliefs, while anxiety was negatively related to beliefs. In other words, students with positive beliefs about foreign language learning tend to have stronger motivation, hold favorable attitude and higher motivational intensity, use more strategies, are less anxious, and have better language achievement.

Other studies have focused on belief differences among and within various nationality groups. For example, Prudie, Hattie and Douglas (1996) found "clear differences" between Australian and Japanese High School students' conceptions of learning (p.25), while Tumposky (1991) compared the beliefs of Soviet and American students and found that "culture does contribute to the belief system… in ways which may relate to motivation and strategy selection, but may not be as potent as a force as other factors, such as previous experience or preferred [learning] style" (p.62). Truitt (1995) found that Korean university students studying English as a Foreign Language held different beliefs than those in Horwitz' (1987, 1988) original study of both Americans studying foreign languages and international students studying English in the U.S. The beliefs reported by Truitt's study were also
different than those of other research (Park, 1995; Yang, 1992, 1999). Truitt interpreted these differences as possibly culturally based; though Horwitz (1999) concluded that it is premature to seek to explain inter-group belief differences in terms of culture, and that the differences likely reflect the relative status of language learning in the various countries and indicate that social, political, and economic forces can also influence learner beliefs. Further, she notes that if significant intra-group differences in beliefs exist, these could also be explained in terms of learning setting and individual characteristics.

**Language learning is context-specific.**

In a large-scale study, Rifkin (2000) investigated 1000 learners of 10 different languages at different levels of instruction in three different institutions, which has produced some significant findings. One of his three null hypotheses was that there is no relationship between beliefs about language learning and the nature of the institution. Among other variables, he had compared the learners' beliefs across three different institutions to see whether beliefs differed depending on the context of the institution (e.g. large research institution and a small private college). Rifkin's study reported that, while there were numerous instances in which learners at research institutions held beliefs similar to those held by learners at the small private colleges, the statistical analysis found 21 instances in which learners of these different kinds of institutions held beliefs that were significantly different. This represents 66% of all the items in Horwitz' five categories. Consequently, the null hypothesis was rejected.

**OBJECTIVES**

Knowing a history of learners’ beliefs about language learning is an essential part of the present study.

**CURRICULUM**

Undoubtedly, materials and books used to teach English to learners of this language play the main role in learning and motivating learners of all cultures and lands. Books must be up-to-date, authentic and meet the needs of the learners. They must be appealing to the learner according to the age of the learners. Tze-Ming Chou, P., 2010
believes the use of course books in the ESL classroom is very common because the course books have the advantages of being visually appealing, easy for the teacher to prepare, and the activities fits well into the timetable. However, from the researcher’s own teaching experience, there are several problems and issues with the course books such as uninteresting topics, repetitive activities, and not enough language exposure. This in terms may affect the student’s learning attitude and motivation. It was suggested that if ESL course books are to be used, it is necessary for the teacher to prepare and develop other activities, especially extensive reading to keep the classroom atmosphere more interesting and the students more interested in what they are learning.

Sometimes it is based on our impressions and expectations of what teaching materials should look like. Other reasons might be that the course books are visually appealing, easy for the teacher to prepare, and the activities fits well into the timetable (Angell et al., 2008). However, all course books should be chosen based on its educational values and whether or not it meets the program objectives. Most importantly, students should learn something beyond just simple practices of ABC’s. According to Cheung and Wong (2002), the major premise of an academic curriculum should aim at developing students’ intellectual abilities in subject areas that are most worthy of study. This means that the curriculum should provide intrinsically rewarding experiences for the students while developing their affective and cognitive domain. Schwartz (2006) mentioned that a good curriculum is not only designed for the students, it is also designed for the teachers as well. In other words, a good curriculum not only educates the student, but teachers can also teach something of value to the students.

The lack of challenging reading materials could also slow the students’ language development creating a plateau effect.

As for the shortcomings of curriculum Mishra (2009) believes the general poor response of students in literature classes in English is indicative of the fact that a good deal needs to be done to make classes interesting, involving and interactive. When literatures is offered the teacher has to make the book (textual stuff prescribed) practically as many times conveniently broken up into inter-linkable parts as possible. These parts are to be further appropriately planned to be reproduced on a revision
teaching format to ensure that comprehension questions are asked, vocabulary exercises for synonyms, antonyms and then right words in right situations and expressions, idiomatic expression etc. are given, composition exercises based on the selected paragraphs or the ideas with which the classes have been conversant are assigned and work produced by students where they show evidence of what they have learnt, what sequence of events on a logical chain they have been able to give to the events, and what organizational pattern in terms of cohesion and coherence they have been able to use is corrected to put matters in proper perspective – remedial lessons as may be found useful could be conducted to enable less successful students to come up when proper encouragement in continuous doses is provided to them both individually and ,when groups work, in suitable uniformly progressing compatible groups.

The second issue that teachers should consider is student motivation. Most college students expect their English courses to be something different from their high school English classes. So when we give them course books that are similarly designed as their past learning materials, the students may quickly lose their interest and motivation to study. This is because the similarities in the ESL course books may cause the students to feel bored due to the “sameness” or “repetitiveness” of the lessons and activities (Tze-Ming Chou, P., 2010).


A cohesive curricular policy based on guiding principles for language teaching and acquisition, which allows for a variety of implementations suitable to local needs and resources, and which provides illustrative models for use. (P .3)

According to Harmer (2007), it may be relatively easy for students to be extrinsically motivated; however, the challenge is sustaining that motivation. Although motivation can be sustained through varied class activities, if the content of the course book is uninteresting and repetitive, then sustaining the motivation will be problematic for the teacher no matter how hard they try.

In devising the curriculum children or here learners of that language can play an important role. Curriculum designers can hold in mind while preparing the material
the needs and the preferred activities that have been accessed through questionnaires. As Rao, 2005 says the role of children’s problems in curriculum building is one index of determining the effectiveness of the curriculum. If living in school is to be the practice of democracy at work, the solution of children’s problems is the center of the curriculum; their purposes in learning are real. The teacher’s identification of children’s problems, the children’s awareness of purpose in learning, and for both teacher and children the experiencing and communicating which are essential aspects of problem-solving-these become the processes of learning and teaching.

In an experience done in a school called Alden, the humanistic approach was administered and good results were arrived at. As Rao states by social education tried at this school it was felt that much had been accomplished in helping children understand and meet current problems of living today. The “here and now” and the “far away”, both in time and in space, had been brought more closely together. The goals were to the faculty one measure of the effectiveness of the curriculum of Alden School. The experience caused both children and their teachers learn a great deal. Much of the knowledge they absorbed was by living together, meeting day to day situations, facing their problems, and finding ways to solve or overcome undesirable circumstances. They took time to try and understand one another and by doing this they could see how important every person is for successful group living. That was not only applied in the classroom but throughout their home and community life. By seeing how interdependent they were, they learned how each is responsible for his surroundings and for his behavior as it affect others. They became more appreciative or their freedom and American way of living, but also realized that they can have freedom only so long as they respect the rights of others. They stressed the similarities of various groups, yet recognized individual differences among people.

Certain activities were employed to teach writing ability to these students at that school. Again it had instructive effects for pupils and teachers. They tried to find ways of presenting new skills, integrating the various learning areas, discovering methods and approaches that are within the child’s experiences and understanding are vital in teaching skills. In the language arts they worked a lot with phonics- beginning and ending sounds, vowel sounds, careful pronunciation, dividing into syllables and rhyming. Meanings of words were also emphasized- different meanings for one word,
use of a word in its context, synonyms and antonyms, and use of a word dictionary. These skills were developed in reading and spelling. Oral reading was done mostly through our sharing program in which we shared stories and poems that we enjoyed reading.

Again for writing skills as activities students wrote business letters to the various travel agencies, and many of them were answered. Several of the students visited different travel agencies in Wilmington and obtained considerable information. Several of the pupils went to the public library, where they not only found information about their countries but found some language books, they next listed people they knew who would be able to give them some firsthand knowledge about a country.

No direct transferences are possible. Learning is a process and builds on prior knowledge and learning experiences. The sensible curriculum must start with the student - student engagement with the content is the crucial first step, (KFI, 2008).

Researchers have studied instructional conversations as central mechanisms for supporting active, strategic learning in language and literacy. Brown and Campione (1994) and Goldenberg (1996), for example, studied African American and bilingual students at risk for literacy failure; other studies have focused on at-risk children with learning disabilities (e.g., Echevarria, 1995; Englert, Tarrant, Mariage, & Oxer, 1994; Gaskins et al., 1997; Graham & Harris, 1996, 1997, in press; Palincsar & Klenk, 1992, 1993; Palincsar, Parecki, & McPhail, 1995), and still others are concerned with the prevention of reading failure (Pressley, 1998).

Curriculum designing has undergone changes due to various schools of psychology affecting teaching methodologies. Accordingly, syllabus is designed.

David Nunan gives the following definition for syllabus: “Syllabus design is concerned with the selection, sequencing and justification of the content of the curriculum.” (2001).

He defines and compares the traditional and modern syllabus:
Traditional approaches to syllabus developed were concerned with selecting lists of linguistic features such as grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary as well as experiential content such as topics and themes. These sequenced and integrated lists were then presented to the methodologist, whose task was to develop learning activities to facilitate the learning of the pre-specified content. In the last twenty years or so a range of alternative syllabus models have been proposed, including a task-based approach (Nunan, D., 2001).

OBJECTIVES

Curriculums are based on tasks and classroom activities. They are based on various methods and principles of language teaching; they are based on approaches to language teaching. So, the text books used to teach the English language have direct effect on the formation of ideas in the learner and teacher. Whether the textbook places more emphasis on reading or on listening and oral skills or grammar; which method is employed to teach grammar rules; if grammar is taught deductively or inductively; if mother tongue is used to give meaning of the new words; the approach a textbook has towards teaching the target language plays an important role in the process of language learning.

CULTURE

Everyday there are more and more people in need of learning the English language, as the whole world is in closer touch with each other, as the economy is getting more global, as there is more immigration to various parts of the world, the need for an international language rises and this language for the time being is English. Yet, the ones who are in need of this language come from different parts of the world with different cultures which deeply affect language learning and teaching. Teachers are facing more and more classes with international students, a fact which causes them to employ a variety of teaching styles according to the culture of their learners. This is a fact which forces them to be cautious in employing teaching styles and classroom activities; also how to deal with the learner. Simultaneously, it helps teachers to discover how and why learners learn in various ways; why some of them are introvert or extrovert, why some of them have less participation in classroom activities, why they hesitate to ask their questions, or why they are shy and the like.
Culture, undoubtedly, is complex. It is multi-layered and multifaceted. Indeed, some have likened it to an iceberg of which only the top is visible while a massive part remains unobservable below the surface of the water (Pratt-Johnson, Y., 2006). Others have compared culture to an onion with its many layers (Hofstede, 1991). As one layer is peeled, another layer lies beneath, waiting to be discovered. Both metaphors powerfully address the complexity of culture. In these complexities lies the challenge that teachers of ELLs face.

Competence in cross-cultural communication requires diving below the surface to see the rest of the iceberg, and it involves onion peeling, too: acquiring a corpus of deeper cultural information that might affect how a teacher instructs and how a student learns (Pratt-Johnson, Y., 2006).

On the other hand, other cultures acquire information through "non-academic" sources--for example, through elders, nature, spirits, or symbols. Some cultures do not have the same quantity and quality of experience with books or similar forms of research. These cultures may place greater value on information and knowledge acquired through oral tradition.

Cultures have different ways of solving problems. It is surprising that given the same set of problems and circumstances, cultures can arrive at very different solutions. Cultures reason differently and arrive at solutions based on their distinctive values, philosophy and beliefs. This can be seen when people from various cultural backgrounds face a problem and they try to solve it. Suppose you are on a boat with your mother, your spouse and your child. Suddenly, the boat begins to sink. You determine that you can only save one of the other passengers. Whom do you save?

According to survey results, 60% of Americans save their spouse, 40% save their children. The reasons typically offered run along these lines:

- Save Spouse: "My spouse is my partner for life and I can have more children."
- Save Child: "Children represent the future, so it is vital to protect them first. Probably, my spouse would support this decision."
However, among Asian cultures, or Americans of recent Asian descent, nearly 100% of respondents state that they would save the mother. The rationale the author has heard offered is this:

- Save Mother: "My mother gave me life; I owe her my life. I can marry again; I can have more children, but I cannot replace my mother or otherwise repay the debt I owe her." (Texin, 2002).

Cultures have different ways of communicating non-verbally, and it is crucial for teachers to be aware of these differences. In a class that is culturally diverse, any or all of the following might be observed in the classroom: children who will not make direct eye contact when talking to a teacher, because to do so would show lack of respect in their culture; children who smile not because they are happy but because they are embarrassed or do not understand and are afraid to ask questions; others who rarely smile, such as students from Korea: "In Korean culture, smiling signals shallowness and thoughtlessness. The Korean attitude toward smiling is expressed in the proverb, 'the man who smiles a lot is not a real man'" (Dresser, 1996).

Conflict is a fact of life. It is in observing how people deal with and react to conflicts that we see clear differences between cultures. Some cultures view conflict as a positive thing, while others view it as something to be avoided. In the United States, conflict is not usually desirable; nonetheless, conventional wisdom in this country encourages individuals to deal directly with conflicts when they do arise. In fact, face-to-face encounters are usually suggested as the way to work through whatever problems exist.

By contrast, in many Asian countries, open conflict is experienced as embarrassing or demeaning. As a rule, these cultures hold that differences are best worked out quietly. Thus, written exchanges might be preferred over face-to-face encounters as a means of conflict resolution (Dupraw and Axner, 1997). In the multicultural school setting, symbols that are unique to various cultures should be correctly understood and interpreted. Otherwise, problems can arise. One case in point occurred in an elementary school in New York City. A math teacher asked her students to embellish their math portfolios by drawing pictures to accompany them.
She was incensed when she saw her young student from India drawing what she thought was a swastika. Furious, she took the student’s "artwork" and ripped it in half in front of the whole class! Subsequently, she learned from another teacher at the school, a Hindu, that what had looked to her like a swastika was actually a sacred symbol of wisdom that Hindus throughout the world have used for thousands of years (Pratt-Johnson, Y., 2006).

**When it comes to language learning culture has its own effects.**

Genc and Bada (2005) believe L2 students; language study seems senseless if they know nothing about the people who speak the target language or the country in which the target language is spoken. Acquiring a new language means a lot more than the manipulation of syntax and lexicon. According to Bada (2000: 101), “the need for cultural literacy in ELT arises mainly from the fact that most language learners, not exposed to cultural elements of the society in question, seem to encounter significant hardship in communicating meaning to native speakers.”

According to McDevitt (2004) learning a second language is trying to figure out the nature of other people.

Pulverness (2003) asserts that due to the undeniable growth of English as an international language cultural content as anything other than contextual background began to be included in language teaching programs.

Kitao (2000) giving reference to several authors lists some of the benefits of teaching culture as follows:

* Studying culture gives students a reason to study the target language as well as rendering the study of L2 meaningful (Stainer, 1971).

* From the perspective of learners, one of the major problems in language teaching is to conceive of the native speakers of target language as real person. Although grammar books gives so called genuine examples from real life, without background knowledge those real situations may be considered fictive by the learners. In addition providing access into cultural aspect of language, learning culture would help learners relate the abstract sounds and forms of a language to real people and places (Chastain, 1971).

* The affect of motivation in the study of L2 has been proved by experts like Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1965, 1972). In achieving high motivation, culture classes does have a great role because learners like culturally based activities such as singing,
dancing, role playing, doing research on countries and peoples, etc. The study of culture increases learners’ not only curiosity about and interest in target countries but also their motivation. For example, when some professors introduced the cultures of the L2s they taught, the learners’ interests in those classes increased a lot and the classes based on culture became to be preferred more highly than traditional classes. Besides these benefits, studying culture gives learners a liking for the native speakers of the target language. Studying culture also plays a useful role in general education; studying culture, we could also learn about the geography, history, etc. of the target culture (Cooke, 1970).

McKay (2003) contends that culture influences language teaching in two ways: linguistic and pedagogical. Linguistically, it affects the semantic, pragmatic, and discourse levels of the language. Pedagogically, it influences the choice of the language materials because cultural content of the language materials and the cultural basis of the teaching methodology are to be taken into consideration while deciding upon the language materials. For example, while some textbooks provide examples from the target culture, some others use source culture materials.

In the survey done by Genc and Bada in 2005 68.4% students answered yes to the question if the course helped them to get familiar with the culture of the target language, and 31.6 %of them chose no.

**OBJECTIVES**

The more teachers learn about their students of diverse backgrounds, the better they become as cross-cultural communicators and the more likely they will be to contribute to optimal student learning outcomes. Banks concurs: "If teachers are to increase learning opportunities for all students, they must be knowledgeable about the social and cultural contexts of teaching and learning" (Banks et al., 2001).

**2.2.3 ARTICLES AND JOURNALS**

A variety of factors affect the process of language learning. The following section focuses on the literature through articles and journals.

In order to make the process of learning, no matter what the subject is, the teacher must be familiar with the nature of learning so that they can make the process and the endeavor fruitful and less time consuming.
LEARNING

Webster’s Dictionary defines learning as “the act or experience of one that learns; knowledge of skill acquired by instruction or study; modification of a behavioral tendency by experience.” Learning is often defined as a change in behavior (Birkenholz, 1999), which is demonstrated by people implementing knowledge, skills, or practices derived from education. Basically, from an educator’s perspective, learning involves helping people along the learning process, and learning includes all of the things that we do to make it happen. As an end result, we know that learning occurs when people take newfound information and incorporate it into their life. For example, if we are working with an audience that lacks basic financial management skills for budgeting, one of our objectives is to see people gain knowledge in this area and to actually implement the new skills – hopefully, over a long period of time.

According to Wilkinson, L.C., & Silliman, E.R. (2001), these are the properties of learning:

- Learning is a social activity -- interpersonal behaviors are the basis for new conceptual understandings.
- Learning is integrated --- strong interrelationships exist between oral and written language learning.

Learning requires student interaction and engagement in classroom activities -- engaged students are motivated to learn and have the best chance of achieving full communicative competence. Knowledge is actively constructed by the individual. Learning is not a passive activity. The process of learning takes place when individuals attempt to make sense of the world around them. In response to an environmentalist viewpoint, those who espouse a constructivist view would contend that learning takes effort on the part of the learner; there is no “osmosis” effect (Akyalcin, 1997; Crowther, 1997; Geary, 1995; von Glaserfeld, 1995; Hein, 1991; Heylighen, 1997; Mahoney, 1995; Murphy, 1997; Piaget, 1926; Piaget & Inhelder, 1969; Sexton & Griffin, 1997; Vygotsky, 1978).
OBJECTIVES

Knowing about the models of leaning helps teachers to choose the proper classroom activity according to various types of learning. Teachers must know the nature of learning and the factors that affect this process. Teachers can keep a panorama of activities in which these models are included so that learners are not at a loss or miss parts of the lesson or get disappointed by the process of language learning.

Regarding language learning in children, Perez and Torres-Guman (2002, p.33) note that “language acquisition is one of the most important developmental tasks” faced by children. Virtually every child is successful in this endeavor when it comes to learning a first language and when given the opportunity most children can learn a second or even multiple languages. But there is no absolute amount time for such a task or tasks.

AUTONOMY

Holec’s (1981) defined as ‘the ability to take charge of one’s own learning’ (p. 3). Dickinson (1987: 11), for example, described autonomy as ‘the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his learning and the implementation of those decisions’. Holec’s (1981) definition of learner autonomy has proved remarkably robust and remains the most widely cited definition in the field. Freedom in learning is not the same as autonomy (Little, 1996). Autonomy in language learning depends on the development and exercise of a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action (see Little 1991: 4); autonomous learners assume responsibility for determining the purpose, content, rhythm and method of their learning, monitoring its progress and evaluating its outcomes. (Holec 1981: 3) Now what is the important component of autonomy? According to Nunan (1997: 192) and that the behavior of autonomous learners can take numerous different forms, depending on their age, how far they have progressed with their learning, what they perceive their immediate learning needs to be, and so on (Little 1991: 4).

A study done by Wallis (2005) suggest that the way learners conceptualize language learning not only has an effect on whether they are ready for they independence as in Benson and Lor’s (1998) study, but also will influence types of activities they select. It could be seen as holding quantitative conceptions of language learning (Benson &
Lor, 1998), as demonstrated by her belief that she “learned the dictionary” and her rejection of conversation as a learning method. Therefore, a stronger foundation for independent learning needs to be laid in the classroom so that the considerable time and effort many learners put into independent learning is more efficient. Some form of scaffolding may be beneficial to our learners, as their approaches to vocabulary learning indicate that they are more likely to continue with activities when they receive some form of feedback, as is the case with vocabulary in the centre.

Similarly, it may be beneficial if sessions in the SAC also have a stronger focus on fostering independence, rather than just on answering questions. Better systems for checking that students follow up on suggestions also appear requisite.

OBJECTIVES
An autonomous learner does not wait for the teacher; he or she starts learning, shapes her or his own ideas about classroom activities, or the methodology used in the classroom to teach the fourfold skills; he or she learn by themselves sometimes with no need to the teacher. An autonomous learner knows his or her goals and knows where he or she is heading to in the process of learning.

LEARNING STRATEGIES AND LEARNING STYLES
Learning strategies may also play an important role in independent learning. Oxford (1990) describes learning strategies as “steps taken by students to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, and more transferable to new situations” language learning strategies are specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that the students employ—often consciously—to improve their own progress in internalizing, storing, retrieving, and using L2 (Oxford 1990). The most common finding is that the use of appropriate language learning strategies leads to improved proficiency or achievement overall or in specific skill areas (O’Malley and Chamot 1990).

Some findings of relevant strategy research outside of the L2 field have also shown the powerful role of learning strategies in improving students’ learning outcome. According to the investigations concerning LLS, it is possible to distinguish among different types of strategies which assist learning at a more specific analysis. Successful learners often use metacognitive strategies such as organizing, evaluating,
and planning their learning along with cognitive strategies like analyzing, reasoning, transferring information, taking notes, and summarizing. Those behaviors might be considered as truly effective learning (Brown, Bransford, Ferrara, and Campion 1983 in Oxford 1993). The findings have also revealed that competent learners often use compensation strategies such as guessing or inferencing. Memory strategy indicators which are often used by competent learners are grouping and structured reviewing.

The investigations mentioned above have also come up with the results which show that some of the best learners use affective and social strategies to control their emotional state, to keep themselves motivated and on-task, and to get help when they need it (Dansereau 1985 in Oxford 1993). Many students are largely unaware of the potential of affective and social strategies.

The use of language learning strategies will also be influenced by the classroom culture (SriLengkanawati, 2004).

Investigations dealing with the use of learning strategies applied outside the L2 field have also shown the power of learning strategies in the process of gaining knowledge. Almost all learning strategies such as metacognitive, cognitive, compensation, memory, affective, and social strategies are employed by successful learners. For example, Oxford (1993) says that effective learners actively associate new information with existing information (Oxford, 1993).

A study done by Reid (1987) and Stebbins (1995) regarding the learning styles of Korean ESL learners. This study agreed with Stebbins’ findings, showing a strong preference for Visual learning (VPS) (60%), compared with Auditory learning (APS) (30%) and Tactile learning (TPS) (1%) (n = 161). In addition, 9% of students responded with equal scores for VPS and APS. These results are in stark contrast to Reid’s.

OBJECTIVES

Learning strategies are formed based on learners’ preference. They pick up the strategy which is more useful to them related to the topic they are learning. They choose the learning style and strategy which is more helpful and to the point. So, it is related to the preferred learning classroom activity.

MOTIVATION

M. Ash (2004) believes that motivation is a pivotal concept in most theories of learning. It is closely related to arousal, attention, anxiety, and feedback/
reinforcement; for example: a person needs to be motivated enough to pay attention while learning; anxiety can decrease our motivation to learn. Receiving a reward or feedback for an action usually increases the likelihood that the action will be repeated. Weiner (1990) points out that behavioral theories tended to focus on extrinsic motivation (i.e. rewards) while cognitive theories deal with intrinsic motivation (i.e. goals).

There is a similarity between the experience of success and satisfaction; the experience of success at all times satisfies people not only in language-learning but also in anything. To make it short, it is strongly believed that the experience of success comes hand in the hand with the sense of satisfaction (Makiko Ebata, 2008). The motivated learners held in common characteristics of openness, sociability, taking part actively in class, and trying quite hard to achieve good results. Those who were less motivated were very varied with respect to sociability, didn't tend to participate actively in class, but did try quite hard. Finally, those who were not motivated also varied with respect to sociability, didn't tend to take part actively in class, and did not try hard. Since most of the endeavours people do are for the sake of success and then successively satisfaction, it seems that this feeling can be a very strong and affective motivation. Experience of success provides students with more power to pursue a new goal. It allows language learners to understand the purpose of trying and have pleasure in communicating with others. Some people might feel successful when they can communicate their thoughts to people; others might feel the sense of success when they complete a difficult task in a targeted language. The feeling of success time and again emerges specifically when he realizes the degree of his improvement and achievement (Makiko Ebata, 2008).

Motivation has been identified as the learner's orientation with regard to the goal of learning a second language (Crookes and Schmidt 1991). It is thought that students who are most successful when learning a target language are those who like the people that speak the language, admire the culture and have a desire to become familiar with or even integrate into the society in which the language is used (Falk 1978). This form of motivation is known as integrative motivation. When someone becomes a resident in a new community that uses the target language in its social interactions, integrative motivation is a key component in assisting the
learner to develop some level of proficiency in the language. It becomes a necessity, in order to operate socially in the community and become one of its members. It is also theorized that "integrative motivation typically underlies successful acquisition of a wide range of registers and a native like pronunciation" (Finegan 1999:568).

In contrast to integrative motivation is the form of motivation referred to as instrumental motivation. This is generally characterized by the desire to obtain something practical or concrete from the study of a second language (Hudson 2000). With instrumental motivation the purpose of language acquisition is more utilitarian, such as meeting the requirements for school or university graduation, applying for a job, requesting higher pay based on language ability, reading technical material, translation work or achieving higher social status. Instrumental motivation is often characteristic of second language acquisition, where little or no social integration of the learner into a community using the target language takes place, or in some instances is even desired.

Many theorists and researchers have found that it is important to recognize the construct of motivation not as a single entity but as a multi-factorial one. Oxford and Shearin (1994) analyzed a total of 12 motivational theories or models, including those from socio-psychology, cognitive development, and socio-cultural psychology, and identified six factors that impact motivation like attitudes, beliefs about self, goals and peer support.

OBJECTIVES
Motivation is one of the keys to successful language learning. Maintaining a high level of motivation during a period of language learning is one of the best ways to make the whole process more successful. As each individual is motivated in different ways, we have to find the right balance of incentives to succeed (or "carrots") and disincentives to fail (or "sticks"), encouragement, and the right environment in which to learn.

TEACHERS’ BELIEFS
Beliefs of language teachers about language learning and teaching have a significant impact on their Practice (Sinan Ozmen, 2012).
Dilts (1999) defines beliefs as judgments and evaluations that people make about them, about others and about the world around them. However, despite this seemingly
simple definition, and despite the fact that they are considered “the most valuable psychological construct to teacher education” (Pintrich 1990), beliefs are in fact difficult to conceptualize. Pajares (1992) suggests that one of the reasons for such a difficulty is the fact that beliefs are a “messy construct” and are often referred to by means of such different terms as: attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertories of understanding, and social strategy, to name but a few that can be found in the literature. Teachers come to the classroom with their own system of beliefs and, to some extent, these determine many of the choices they make in relation to what and how they teach. Murphy (2000) establishes a definition of teachers’ beliefs based on Pajares’ synthesis of the notion of beliefs. She defines teachers’ beliefs as the representation of: a complex and interrelated system of personal and professional knowledge that serves as implicit theories and cognitive maps for experiencing and responding to reality. Beliefs rely on cognitive and affective components and are often tacitly held, (Murphy, 2004).

Richards defines teachers’ belief as “the information, attitudes, values, expectations, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning that teachers build up over time and bring with them to the classroom” (Richards 1998:66).

It is for this reason that an investigation of teachers’ beliefs is necessary in order to gain a better understanding of what goes on in the classroom (Borg 2001).

Sinan believes that the findings of studies must be used in two ways: The mechanics of STs’ beliefs’ change should be studied empirically in different countries and contexts, and the findings of those studies must be utilized to reshape the current content and structure of teacher education programs.

Although teachers’ beliefs are characterized in various ways, the literature is centered around two major categories; namely, (1) teaching as a process of knowledge transmission, and (2) teaching as a process of knowledge construction (Entwistle, Skinner, Entwistle, & Orr, 2000; Kane, Sandretto, & Heath, 2002; Samuelowicz & Bain, 2001; Teo, Chai, Hung, & Lee, 2008). The transmissive view addresses the tendency of teachers toward didactic teaching during which students adopt a passive role. In this view of teaching, the teacher is the source of knowledge and the authority, identifying the objectives, pace of teaching and methodology, also known as traditional teaching. The other view is the constructivist view of teaching, stressed by
Chai, Teo, and Lee (2009) as “the importance of students’ efforts to make sense of their experiences and the teachers’ role in facilitating this process” (p. 353). Generally, most of the studies have revealed that students adopt an eclectic approach integrating traditional and constructivist views of teaching (Brooks, 2002; Entwistle et al., 2000; Minor et al., 2002; Van Driel, Bulte, & Verloop, 2007).

Freeman and Johnson (1998) point out that “learning to teach is a long-term, complex developmental process that operates through participation in social practices and contexts associated with learning and teaching” (p. 402). This statement implies that there is a need for the adoption of a constructivist view of teaching in SLTE. Similarly, Crandall (2000) mentions the changing trends in SLTE in the 1990s, referring to (1) a theoretical shift from behaviorism to constructivism, (2) the heavy influence of STs’ prior learning and beliefs, (3) the realization that SLTE programs did not adequately prepare STs for real classroom teaching and (4) the growth of professionalism among ELT practitioners.

Beliefs about language learning are viewed as a component of metacognitive knowledge (Flavell, 1987), which include all that individuals understand about themselves as learners and thinkers, including their goals and needs. Flavell (1979, 1981) emphasizes the study of meta-cognitive knowledge in second language learning and focuses on the person. He calls this "person knowledge." Person knowledge is knowledge learners have acquired about how cognitive and affective factors such as learner aptitude, personality, and motivation may influence learning. In addition, it includes specific knowledge about how the above factors apply in their experience. For example, is it the learners' belief that they do, or do not, has an aptitude for learning another language or, that their particular type of personality will inhibit or facilitate language learning (Wenden, 2001).

Beliefs have also been said to "act as very strong filters of reality" (Arnold, 1999, p. 256). Johnson conducted a qualitative study of the pre-service beliefs of four English as a second-language teachers. Beliefs were inferred from teachers' narratives, intentions and instructional practices. One of the more important implications of the findings of this study was that the teachers' beliefs were largely based on images from their formal language learning experiences and that these beliefs may have been responsible for the teachers’ ineffectual teaching practices.
David Nunan, in a mini conference on line (2003), talks about his own language learning experience. He says: “My language learning experiences have taught me the importance of affective factors in language learning, the role of the teacher in either motivating or crushing the learner, and the importance of developing a flexible range of learning strategies.”

In the scenario of globalization, human existence has become very troublesome without adequate competence in English language skills. All states of India are trying their best to train their young ones in this essential skill. Mayawati, Chief Minister of U.P has announced its decision to make English compulsory from the first class. ‘Some teachers are finding it difficult to adjust to the new reality as their own knowledge of English is questionable.’ (The Times of India, 2008, p.30).

It was found that most of the B.Ed entrants had good background in literature but they were found less proficient in language skills. The syllabus analysis report of B.A. and B.Ed syllabi of the representative universities of U.P region also reveals that little weight is given to the development of language skills among the students. In the absence of proper training it becomes really difficult for the ESL teacher trainees to do justice with their profession. The prospective teachers are found weak not only from the language point of view but are also found less competent in the pedagogical skills of English language. (Saxena & Satsangee, 2008).

Wing (1995) emphasized that today’s language teachers are expected to have multiple roles along with target language competence: ‘In structuring the foreign language environment, the teacher needs to be a manager who facilitates language acquisition; a resource developer who uses to the greatest advantage the target and native languages, materials, and technology; an analyst who observes and evaluates what is happening in the classroom (p.168).’

According to Williams (1975), in order to teach the language effectively, a teacher needs two major competencies well as having excellent knowledge of the target language s/he is teaching, s/he should have teaching skills to apply in the classroom. According to Williams’, argument, language teacher should have a good blend of target language knowledge on the one hand and skills to present and teach the target language to the students on the other. In a study with 200 foreign language teachers teaching English, French, Arabic, and Hebrew to 406 ninth-grade high school
students, Brosh (1996) identified the perceived characteristics of effective language teachers. According to the results of this study, desirable characteristics of effective language teachers include: knowledge and command of the target language, the ability to organize, explain, and clarify, and the ability to arouse and sustain interest and motivation among students.

Penner (1992) believes that years of teaching English and being an experienced teacher does not guarantee that one is a good teacher. He believes that teachers must constantly look for ways to develop themselves professionally and sharpen their teaching skills along with the subject matter.

A survey done by Karabenick and Clemens Noda (2004) about 729 teachers:
1. Most district teacher-respondents (80%) considered it possible to be equally proficient in more than one language.
2. The more students are exposed to English, the more they will learn.
3. More than half (52%) believed that the use of a first language (L1) at home interferes with learning a second language (L2), whereas 29% did not believe this and 23% were unsure.
4. Sixty-five percent of the teachers, however, did not believe that learning in one’s L1 interferes with learning in an L2; a small proportion (16%, or 118) did agree, and approximately the same proportion (19%) neither agreed nor disagreed.

OBJECTIVES

Teachers are very much affected by their outlooks towards language teaching which comes from their own experience while learning the language. In this regard, they pick up the classroom activity which is closest to that perception to achieve the desired result in teaching the fourfold skill.

LEARNERS’ BELIEFS

Kunts defines beliefs as “Notions about learning that learners have acquired before receiving or giving instructions.” (Kuntz, 2000). Nunan (1988) compared the rating of useful ESL activities of 60 Australian ESL teachers and that of 517 Australian migrant ESL students conducted by Willing (1988, cited in Nunan1988) and the reports little correlation between teacher and learner viewpoints. Students rated pronunciation practice and error correction much higher, and self discovery of errors,
pair work, and listening to/ using cassettes much lower than the teachers. Nunan concludes that teachers seem to favor communicative activities, while learner like traditional activities more.

Block (1994) used an oral diary technique supplemented by classroom observation and interviews to investigate further the perceptual gap between teachers and learners in an EFL situation. One EFL teacher and six EFL learners were asked to comment on language classes on a day to day basis.

In a study done in the English department at a large university in northeast of china through questionnaires and interviews it was found that Chinese learners believe that Rote Learning strategies are preferable to other many strategies for learning and memorizing vocabulary because it is consistent with traditional Chinese culture and values. (Xiuping Li, 2004). In the context of second or foreign language learning, beliefs held by students can relate to, inter alia, the nature of the language under study, its relative difficulty, the usefulness of various learning strategies, the length of time it takes to acquire a foreign language, the existence of language aptitude, the effects of age and gender on second/foreign language acquisition, among others (Bernat, 2006).

Horwitz (1988), in her study of the beliefs of beginning university foreign language students about language learning, found that while certain of these beliefs were consistent with the practices associated with communicative teaching methods, the learners also stressed the important of error correction, translation, grammar rules, vocabulary lists and pronunciation.

Barkhuisen (1998) surveyed perceptions of around 600 students in a high school in South Africa about the enjoyment and usefulness of 15 classroom activities and again reported learners’ resistance to participating in communicative-type activities and their preference for more ‘traditional’ classroom work (p.95). The two communicative activities ‘class discussion’ and ‘class debates’ which were acknowledged to bring enjoyment were, however, ranked low in their usefulness.

More positive results can be found in Spratt’s (1999) study at Hong Kong University who reported that students in this study generally rated communicative activities
higher than learners in other studies of the kind and that teachers in the studies underestimated the learners’ preferences for the communicative activities (p.143).

From personal experience, Gower (1999) who studied Russian and Italian at elementary and intermediate level respectively also reported less reluctance to participate in group discussion as an intermediate student than as an elementary one.

Some research comparing learners at different language levels revealed that there were different preferences for classroom activities among learner group of different proficiencies. In a study of learners’ views about teacher-fronted activities and student-centered activities, Garrett and Shortall (2002) investigated the perceptions of 103 Brazilian EFL students at beginner, elementary and intermediate level and found that there was ‘a pathway towards more interactive student-centered activities as they move up through the language levels’ (p.47). The beginners saw teacher-fronted grammar activities as better for learning than the student-centered activities, while the intermediates saw student-centered activities as more fun and relaxing. However, it made no difference about how these activities affect the learning outcome.

**OBJECTIVES**

Since the main focus of the present study is on learners perceptions of the classroom activities this part is directly related to the topic. Whatever perceptions learners hold towards language learning, it affects their preference for classroom activities employed to teach fourfold skills and then their language learning.

**CULTURE**

Language learners from various cultures are affected by their cultures in the ways they learn a language, in the ways they behave in a language classroom, and in the strategies they pick up to learn a language according to the culture they come from.

**Culture has so many definitions.**

Allen and Harley (1992:207) refer to it as "way of life" or "life style of a community." They add that culture includes value systems and relationships of personal and family nature.

Ethnologists broadly define culture as the study of everyday life made up of component based on value systems. These systems include ways of communicating
ways of thinking way of knowing and ways of behaving.(Le Blanc & Dicks, 2003).
“Culture is an attribute of individuals, of small groups, of organizations and of nations a single person can belong to a multiplicity of culture and one of which may be important at any given time.”(Zhang, 2006).
In relation to the importance of the students' learning a language Harmer (2002) has the opinion that different culture value different learning behavior. Most of the time teachers insist upon one kind of good learner profile. Moreover, this situation leads to the teachers' demand that students should act in class in a certain way, whatever their learning background.
Knowing these differences, the teachers should not risk imposing a methodology on the students that is inimical to their culture.
Peter Dash (2003) believes that The need for practicing educators to figure out as to what are mostly significant factors of an individual's learning make-up and behavior as a specific person versus those which more relate to say collective ethnic background - so as to facilitate SLA processes represents no easy task And from an ethno linguistic viewpoint, should in fact, educators avoid attaching culturally connected learning "tags" to students because of their particular racial, ethnic or national background or simply look at students independently of such evaluations? Are such efforts latent with risk of reducing the effectiveness of making objective assessments of those differences which really limit or enhance the student's performance? One of the reasons he gives to prove that culture does not play a decisive role in learning a language is what he quotas from Mangubhai. Mangubhai (1997:24) states, "Nonetheless, it is possible to discern certain patterns of behavior, or primary tendencies within a cultural or sub-cultural group that permit one to address learners as a group." At the same time, he refers to the work of a number of scholars (McNamara 1973, Genesee and Hamayan, 1980) who conclude that most children have neither a positive nor negative attitude to the target language or the people who speak it. Mangubhai (1997) also acknowledges variation in behavior within a cultural or sub-cultural group(s). This inherent variation may further make it complicated to determine as to what are the real cultural traits of a supposed member of a cultural or sub-cultural group and hence, how the cultural factor might affect that student's SLA processes.
Littlewood (2003) states that “the stereotype of Asian students as ‘obedient listeners’ whether or not it is a reflection of their actual behavior in class – does not reflect the
roles they would like to adopt in class. They do not see the teacher as an authority figure who should not be questioned; the teacher should have a greater role than themselves in evaluating their learning”.

In a study done by Nenden Sri Lengkanawati (2004) it was found that the students learning strategies, as has been reported by some research undertaken, have powerful impact on the students learning outcome. The study reported here tries to focus on how the learners from different cultural background learn a foreign language using their language learning strategies.

**OBJECTIVES**
The culture under which learners have been brought up plays a very decisive role in the ways they learn, act in the classroom, their motivation, authenticity, participation in classroom activities, their learning strategies, and their preferred classroom activities. It can help curriculum designers to prepare textbooks; it can help teachers understand why certain learners from certain countries have different performance. Accordingly, teachers can decide how to treat them and what type of classroom activities to pick up to teach the fourfold skills.

**CURRICULUM**
Curriculum role is another part of the present study. The type of curriculum and the way it presents items of the language, if it is prepared by native speakers of the language or speakers of another language if they have a native speaker command of the target language plays a very important role in the process of language learning.

By going to a bookshop more than dozens of textbooks claiming to teach the English language in the best way can be found. But for an English teacher the methodology based on which the text book is devised is important. Whether the book follows audio-lingual approach or cognitive approach are two different things.

Curriculum means different things to different writers. Cuban (1995) considers official curriculum as the curriculum frameworks and courses of study set forth by the state and district officials to be taught by the teachers and learnt by the students. Under this view, the curriculum is a framework imposed by the authorities and is limited to the courses of study to be taught.
Lunenburg (2011) suggested that objectives, content or subject matter and learning experience are the three major components of the organization of the curriculum. Objectives point towards the main aim, content takes into account what to teach and learning experiences include both teachers and students. Thus, curriculum effects as well as affected by three major contributors: Curriculum developers, who are responsible for the development of curriculum; students, for whom it is developed and teachers, who exploit it in such a way to give their best to the students.

Teachers’ role in curriculum development is of utmost importance. Teachers’ involvement and knowledge of the To find out the effect of curriculum on language learning Ghazala Kausar and Raja Nasim Akhtar (2013) conducted a research. They focused on group discussions with two groups of teachers, one male and the other female were conducted. One curriculum officer responsible for designing and implementation of English curriculum was also interviewed to get the government viewpoint on curriculum designing. Findings revealed that college teachers’ didn’t consider the curriculum and examination system useful for English language learning and teaching in Pakistani colleges. They claimed that the prevailing system has failed to address practical problems and difficulties faced by the teachers in the implementation of the curriculum at the college level. The generalizations that can be drawn from the study are that it is crucial to take into account teachers’ points of view in the development of curriculum and the examination system. Teachers’ involvement will create ownership and they will play their active role in teaching English with more devotion and commitment.

Three major areas found to be critically important in the development of early and emerging literacy skills (Braunger, Lewis, Hagans, 1997; Lonigan et al., 1999; Snow et al., 1998; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998) are: 1) a strong foundation in oral language skills, 2) an awareness of the sound structure of language, and 3) much exposure and experience with print.

A strong foundation in oral language skills develops as children gain an understanding of the structures and meaning of language. When children begin to realize that the words they say not only have meanings but also have structures that can be manipulated, they are developing phonological awareness, which is the explicit awareness of word structure--syllables, sounds, etc.--that can be changed depending on the context.
Tze-Ming Chou, P. (2010) talks about his own teaching experience. She or he believes that most course books contain a lot of activities where students do "questions and answers". After a few lessons, many students may find the learning process boring and uninteresting. In addition, the reading selections in the ESL course books are often quite short and they often fail to present appropriate and realistic language models as well as fostering cultural understanding (Kayapinar, 2009).

Yordanova (2000) believes that curriculum is an attempt to specify what should happen in the classroom, to describe what actually does happen, and to attempt to reconcile the differences between what ‘should be’ and what actually ‘is’.

According to David Nunan, 'curriculum' is a large and complex concept, and the term 'curriculum' is used in a number of different ways. In some contexts it is used to refer to a particular program of study (for example the 'science curriculum' or the 'mathematical curriculum')(Nunan 1989:14). In other contexts, it is used more widely. Nunan uses 'syllabus' to refer to the selecting and grading the context, and 'curriculum' more widely to refer to all aspects of planning, implementing, evaluating and managing an educational program (Nunan 1988).

In the United States, the term ‘curriculum’, rather than ‘syllabus’, is used to refer to all aspects of the planning, implementation and evaluation of curriculum. The term is also used for a particular course of instruction. In Britain, the term ‘syllabus’ is used to denote that part of curriculum activity concerned with the ‘what’ of the curriculum. It can be said that the term ‘curriculum’ incorporates those elements designated by the term ‘syllabus’ along with considerations of methodology and evaluation. According to David Nunan, in relation to language teaching, the key elements for consideration within the curriculum are as follows: initial planning including needs analysis, grouping learners, goal and objective setting, selection and grading of content, methodology (which includes materials and learning activities), and finally assessment and evaluation (Nunan 1988: 14).

**OBJECTIVES**

The most important part of language learning is curriculum; if it is prepared by native speaker of non-native, if it serves the purpose or needs of the learners, if it is to the point, if it is authentic, if it is grammatically correct.
It can encourage or discourage the language learners if the textbooks are not appealing. Textbooks must cover all the areas of language so that learners’ time is not wasted. National Focus group on Teaching of English (2006) has highlighted the field of curriculum development for teaching of English as a thrust area of research because of the urgent need to improve quality of English language teaching in India.

2.2.4 UNIQUENESS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The present study is unique since:

- A comparative study about learners’ and teachers’ perception of preferred English language learning activities has never been carried out in both countries;
- Another fact is that it was carried out in private language schools or institutes. This is another factor which makes the study unique.
- There is another factor which is studied through the present research project; that is the role of the culture which affects learners’ perception and behavior towards the nature of learning a language and the degree to which learners’ perceptions are counted by teachers in the process of learning the language and choosing the proper activity to teach fourfold skills in Iran and in India.
- It also affects teachers’ perception about choosing classroom activities to teach the four fold skills and the degree they care for the learners’ perception.
- Present study reveals teachers outlooks towards teaching English in Iran and India. It gives a picture about both countries regarding teaching English. In this regard the present study is unique.
- It shows the role of authentic curriculum in teaching English especially in India.