CHAPTER TWO

AFFECTIVE FACTORS IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING
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Successful second language learning entails a complete personal participation of the learner. Learning a second language is not merely an intellectual activity, nor is it, as postulated by behaviourists, the outcome of habit formation, because a total physical, intellectual and emotional involvement is necessary to successfully send and interpret linguistic messages. In recent years the researchers have established the significant role of affective factors in second language learning.

'Affect' is a cover term under which a wide range of constructs and behaviour are included, e.g., "cognitive style" (Brown, 1973), "ego boundaries" (Taylor, 1974), "reserved vs. outgoing personality" (Chastain, 1975) and "adventuresome" (Tucker et al, 1976). According to Scovel (1978), "Affective variables have often been defined as the converse of cognitive variables; that is, they are everything which impinges on language learning which is unrelated to cognition." But Brown (1981) is of the opinion that "Language is inextricably bound up in virtually every aspect of human behaviour. It is, therefore, difficult to isolate the component parts of second language acquisition; it is even more difficult
to treat one of these components - affective domain - without reference to other domains.\textsuperscript{2}

It is hypothesized that unsuccessful language learning is largely due to affective blocks of different kinds. Affective factors include a large number of variables, starting from the self-centric factors to the exterior world of social interactions and interpersonal communications. In this chapter, we shall look principally at what we know about different affective factors in second language learning and attempt to analyse their relevance to the process of second language learning.

It is difficult to construct water-tight compartments for the different aspects of the affective dimension because they are very closely interrelated in terms of their effect on L\textsubscript{2} learning. However, they need to be discussed separately because they involve not only personal factors such as the learner's self-concept and self-esteem but their projection into the wider dimension of socio-cultural environment.

\subsection*{1.1.0 SELF-CENTRIC (INTRA-Personal) FACTORS}

It is rather easy to claim that cognitive and affective endeavour will fail without a certain amount of self-confidence,
knowledge of the self and belief in one's own capability for that endeavour. The most important knowledge of the world is perhaps the knowledge of the 'self'. The 'self' is the centre of the universe for an individual. The whole world veers round the 'self' and is understood, appreciated and conditioned by the attitude of the 'self'. Therefore, our comprehension of the universe originates from the knowledge of the 'self' - 'self realisation'.

Every normal human child is born with certain optimal innate abilities which are either enhanced or reduced by the conditions of the environment in which he is placed. In the process of development, the human child becomes aware of his physical boundaries and is able to distinguish himself from the objective world around him. In other words, the development of personality means the development of a person's concept of self, acceptance of self and reflection of self on others as seen in the interaction between self and others.

2.1.1 **Self-Concept**

Self-concept is how learners feel about themselves. Second language learning is affected by how learners feel about themselves, because the better the
learners feel about themselves, the more likely they are to achieve success. Arthur Combs (1973) explains: "... what a person believes about himself is crucial to his growth and development ... a person learns this self-concept from the way he is treated by significant people in his life. The student takes his self-concept with him wherever he goes. He takes it to Latin class, to arithmetic class, to gym. class, and he takes it home with an effect on his self-concept."³

While learning a second language, an adult learner feels about himself in two ways. He comes to a second language class with a definite self-concept but he faces an identity crisis when he starts learning the second language because he has to take a new role with infantile characteristics. He has to pronounce words like a small child which certainly affects his self-concept. In the other situation, he gathers a sense of achievement by learning a second language because he becomes able to converse with a greater variety of people.

2.1.2 Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is generally defined as the worth persons place upon themselves. This, in a way, can be called the self-respect or self-confidence which they derive from experiences with themselves and with others and from their estimation of the external world which surrounds them.
There can be three levels of self-esteem. The first is 'global self-esteem' which is general. The 'specific self-esteem' is the second level of self-esteem which generally refers to one's assessment of one's self in specific situations in life. In specific situations one has to perform certain tasks. The 'task self-esteem' which constitutes the third level of self-esteem, is related to one's appraisal of the task in the specific situation.

In the case of second language learning, all the three levels of self-esteem are experienced. Global self-esteem refers to the context of second language classroom in general, specific self-esteem refers to the specific situation of second language learning itself, and task self-esteem may refer to specific tasks in the process of second language learning such as the acquisition of particular language skills viz. speaking, writing, etc. The 'task self-esteem' may also refer to one's appraisal of particular methods of learning/teaching of a second language or particular language exercises in the class. Heyde (1979) has found that all the three levels of self-esteem correlated positively with performance on an oral production measure.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) as well as Brodky and Shore (1976) conclude that self-esteem is an important
variable in second language learning. At this point, a classic question arises: does high self-esteem cause success in a second language, or does success in a second language cause high self-esteem? Both are interacting factors but it seems that proficiency in a second language gives rise to self-esteem which in a spiral way helps to improve proficiency and the process goes on as a chain reaction. The findings of Heyde (1979) suggest that the language teacher can play a positive role in creating high self-esteem.

2.1.3 **Self-actualization**

Hence, self-concept and self-esteem play a very crucial role in second language learning. In the same direction, Cecil Patterson (1973) advocates that the basic principle of education is the development of self-actualizing persons. Self-actualizing persons are human beings in their fullest capacity. Patterson feels that "It (self-actualization) is the single basic common motivation of the individual."⁴ Communicating in a second language means communicating one's self in countless ways in the fullest capacity. Some highly sophisticated methods of language teaching have failed to develop communicativeness in the learner because they have overlooked the importance of spontaneity and creativity in successfully sending and interpreting linguistic messages with variations.
Successful communication in a language may mean spontaneous and creative expression in sending out linguistic messages, and an impulsive understanding of the incoming messages. A second language learner with self-actualization as the target can achieve a fair amount of creativity in the language. Of course, this is the highest stage of self-realization which is attained at an advanced level of second language learning.

2.1.4 Inhibition

Closely related to the notion of self-esteem and, in some cases included in self-esteem, is the concept of inhibition. Inhibition is a psychological technique to build different kinds of defences to protect a fragile ego. Every human being builds a set of defences to protect his ego.

Children do not have inhibition but, with the growth in age, they learn to differentiate themselves from others and search for self identity. In adolescence, there occur physical, emotional and cognitive changes giving rise to a system of affective traits. At this stage, the teenagers and pre-teenagers develop mounting defensive inhibition to ward off feelings that challenge their self-esteem. The process of building different sets of defence continues and in some cases, it develops to a greater dimension when they enter into adulthood.
A second language learner, especially an adult learner, develops such inhibition towards a second language because he is apprehensive of losing his self-esteem when he is required to take on a new identity in the process of learning a second language. According to Brown (1981):

"Some persons—those with higher self-esteem and ego strength—are more able to withstand threats to their existence and thus their defenses are lower. Those with weaker self-esteem maintain walls of inhibition to protect what is self-perceived to be a weak or fragile ego or a lack of self-confidence in a situation or task."

(Brown, 1981: P.16)

Curran (1972), Begin (1971) and La Forge (1971) have made attempts to show how inhibition stands as a hurdle to any learning where communication or, more precisely, interaction with another person is required. The experiment of Savignon (1972) on "communicative competence" aimed at reducing inhibition in language classes. Inhibition in second language learning exists because of the presence of 'language-ego' in the learner.

Guiora (1972) identified the existence of "language ego" when he attempted to explain the ability of some people to acquire native-like pronunciation. Guiora's notion of "language-ego" is somewhat parallel to Freudian
construct; 'body ego'. In the course of general ego development, the child acquires body-ego when he differentiates himself from the world of objects around him. He builds ego boundaries as the limits of his physical being.

Similarly, in the course of general ego development the child develops language-ego boundaries. The sounds, words and syntax of his language become objectified and become firm boundaries. In early years of development, language-ego boundaries are permeable but in the course of development they become fixed in later years.

A second language learner experiences some degree of identity conflict because he assumes a new identity when he enters into the linguistic world of a new language. His already-acquired language-ego stands in the way of his acquiring a second language. Guiora, Beit-Hallahni, Brannor, Dull and Scovel (1972) equated this rigidity of ego boundaries with heightened level of inhibition. An adaptive language-ego enables the learner to lower the heightened level of inhibition.

Guiora et al (1972) conducted one of the few remarkable experiments on inhibition in relation to second language...
learning. They reasoned that if inhibition could be lowered in some ways, it would give way to ego permeability because lowering of inhibition could cause reduction of ego-rigidity. In their classic experiment, they gave subjects varying amounts of alcohol and tested their pronunciation in a second language. They gave alcohol to their subjects to induce a temporary state of uninhibitedness. It was found that the pronunciation of the subjects who were administered alcohol was better than that of the control group. The experiment of Guiora et al (1972) concluded that there existed a direct relationship between inhibition (a component of language-ego) and pronunciation ability in a second language. The moral of Guiora's alcohol experiment is not to serve cocktails before every second language class but the reduction of inhibition in a second language class through some normal means.

Ever since Guiora's experiment was conducted, big steps have been taken in second language teaching methodology to reduce inhibition. Curran's counselling learning and community language learning are the most popular and successful products of this endeavour where the learners take part in language learning activity in an atmosphere free from inhibition. It is found that the
students in community language learning classes learn the language well and they learn it faster.

2.1.5 Mistakes

One cannot learn a language without goofing or committing mistakes because mistakes are very much a part of second language learning. A learner tests his hypotheses about a second language by trial and many errors. Children learn their first language, and adult second-language learners make progress by learning from their mistakes.

If a learner does not speak a sentence until he is completely assured of its correctness, he cannot speak it at all. But sometimes, mistakes pose potential threats to one's ego. The learner is conscious/critical of his own mistakes internally, and externally, he is criticised by others (teachers and peers) for his mistakes. There appears an alienation between his critical self and performing self. Earl Stevik (1976) describes this as an alienation between the learner's own language and the target language, between him and his peers, between him and his teacher. This alienation is caused because of the rigid ego boundaries which are built around one's self to protect the ego. But such defences bring about negative effects in language learning and therefore, need to be removed in order that
an optimum level of proficiency in a second language is achieved.

2.2.0 **INTERPERSONAL FACTORS**

In the previous section, we have discussed the intra-personal factors, which can be termed as self-centric or ego-centric factors. In this section, we shall discuss interpersonal factors which are in operation when a person comes out of his self and attempts to reach beyond the self in communication with others. We are social beings, and language provides us the means to reach beyond the self for interaction with each other in the society. Many of the language teaching methods have failed to achieve their goal because they have either overlooked this social nature of language or have considered socially oriented problems in language learning simply as a matter of acculturation.

There are a variety of transactional factors which can be related to second language learning. Empathy and ego permeability are the most crucial in transactional affectivity and deserve serious attention as they are responsible in bringing about successful communication. With the recent emphasis on 'Communicative Competence' a study of these factors have greater relevance today.
In the recent years, the communicative approach has become the catchword heard in discussions of language teaching, and its objective is to develop 'communicative competence' in the learner. But, somehow, the term 'communicative competence' does not include the process of spontaneous transaction in a language involving two or more persons. Savignon (1974) has discussed this function of spontaneous transaction. Perhaps by communicative competence, the ability has been restricted to socio-cultural rules of language. In the opinion of Horwitz and Horwitz (1977):

"For want of a thorough description of second language competence, we, have all too often added the notion of socio-linguistic competence (knowledge of socio-cultural rules for language use) to linguistic competence and called this amalgam communicative competence".

(Horwitz and Horwitz, 1977: P.109)

In order to correctly define communicative competence, one has to take into account the findings of developmental psychology regarding the development of first language communicative competence. One has also to bear in mind the lessons from studies in transactional analyses (please see Bern, 1961; Harris, 1967) to get a comprehensive idea about how interpersonal communication
takes place.

Flavell et al (1968) and Glucksberg (1975) in their studies in developmental psychology have found that one cannot make appropriate response to varying requirements at an early age. The ability to adapt one's communication develops at a later age and it develops at a slower pace than linguistic competence. This means that all persons are not equally communicatively competent although they are linguistically and socio-linguistically competent. Feffer and Suchotilff (1966) working within a developmental frame-work suggest that the adults vary in their ability to make use of appropriate communicative strategies in different situations, even in their native language.

It seems that the competence to adapt one's language to ever-changing interpersonal communication does not depend only on one's knowledge of appropriate socio-cultural rules of a language but also on one's ability to judge the perspective of the other person involved in the speech situation. The process of taking the perspective of another person is commonly described as "empathy".

2.2.1 **Empathy**

Empathy, like many other personality variables, defies an adequate definition. Empathy is commonly
thought of as "putting yourself in someone else's shoes".

However, Guiora (1972) defines empathy as:

"... a process of comprehending in which a temporary fusion of self-object boundaries, as in the earliest pattern of object relation, permits an immediate emotional apprehension of the affective experience of another, this sensing being used by the cognitive function to gain understanding of the other."

(Guiora, 1972: p.142)

Guiora feels that people

"who are more sensitive in their interaction with others, who are more receptive to subtle cues of behaviour and feelings, would have an enhanced capacity to discern those cues and nuances which, when incorporated in speaking, produce authentic native-like pronunciation."

(Taylor et al, 1969: p.463)

Delia and Swanson have further explained Guiora's understanding of the notion of empathy. According to Delia and Swanson (1976), the term 'empathy' includes "all the interpretative processes by which a person represents another's perspective or point of view on a situation." These interpretative processes depend on a large number of factors. Psychologists agree that there are two important concepts of development and exercising of empathy. Hogan (1969) maintains that
empathy needs self-awareness and identification with another person. In fact, empathy is very much required to successfully receive, interpret and send linguistic messages. Brown (1981) makes it clearer when he says:

"Communication requires a sophisticated degree of empathy. In order to communicate effectively, one needs to be able to understand the other person's affective and cognitive states; communication breaks down when false presumptions or assumptions are made about the other person's state."

(Brown, 1981: P.119)

Any communicative act involves a certain knowledge about the structures of the language and the ability to make correct judgements about the emotional state of the participants in the communication. It is essential at every stage of a language, starting from the syntactic level to the most abstract and meaningful levels. In order to make correct assumptions about the emotional state of another person, one has to surmount one's ego boundaries, or in Guiora's term, one has to "permeate" ego boundaries so that one can send and receive linguistic messages clearly.

2.2.2 Empathic Communication

Empathic communication is easier to be achieved in oral communication because a misunderstood word or phrase can be clarified by the learner. He can do so
till the message is correctly interpreted by him or communicated to him by the speaker. But in written communication, the writer may not be available for an immediate feedback. Therefore, written communication needs a special kind of empathy by which the writer, at least intuitively, can make clear judgements about the reader's state of mind. In the case of second language learning, the problem of empathy is still more complex because the learner-speaker has to make correct assumptions in a language in which he is insecure. The learner-hearer attempting to comprehend a second language finds that his own affective and cognitive state are misjudged by the other person and, as a result, communication breaks down.

Thus, a high degree of empathy is predictive of success in second language learning. Now, the challenge is how to bring empathy building into second language teaching methodology. Curran's community language learning is a brilliant example of this possibility. We can develop drills and empathy-building exercises in such a way that the learner will be required to predict or guess another person's response successfully. Guiora et al (1972) suggest that ego-permeability is inducible which is encouraging for a language teacher. If an adult
second language learner can have success in assuming childlike ego states, there exists greater ego-permeability and a wide scope for empathic communication.

2.3.0 PERSONALITY FACTORS

Personality factors are relatively stable. They include characteristics which some people have and some people do not have. It is generally believed that a good second language learner is characterized as one who possesses some of these characteristics. In this section, an attempt will be made to discuss a variety of personality variables, which are responsible for successful second language learning, such as, reserved vs. outgoing, tolerance for ambiguity, sensitivity to rejection, etc.

2.3.1 Extroversion/Introversion

Extroversion and its antithesis, introversion, are the most interesting and salient variables in the acquisition of a second language. Extroverts are talkative, outgoing and amiable in nature. Introverts are shy, quiet and reserved type of persons. It is a popular myth that the extroverts are better language learners than the introverts. It is also axiomatically held that the introvert personalities create problems for the language teachers because the teachers have to seek ways and means of encouraging extroversion. The issue is
still more complicated by the demands of modern language teaching methodology which gives greater emphasis on speaking in the classroom.

Overtly, this distinction between a learner's extroversion and introversion is misleading. The major consideration is culture-based or rather culturally decided. Extroversion is not encouraged in some cultures and therefore, the people of these cultures, in general, are introverts. Teachers accept the stereotype that some people are introverts or extroverts without a proper judgement of the cultural differences involved in producing such behaviour. A careful analysis of cross-cultural differences in second language learning may alter this notion. Ausubel (1968) observed that extroversion and its antithesis, introversion may be "a grossly misleading index of social adjustment." 6

However, it is interesting to note that the findings of two studies concluded in the same year, 1975, contradict each other. Naiman, Frohlich and Stern (1975) found no significant correlation between scores on an extroversion/introversion scale and performance on listening comprehension or imitation task. On the other hand, Chastain (1975) concludes that the "Reserved vs. outgoing does seem to be a significant factor in course
Since the correlation was positive, the assumptions can be made that the outgoing student tended to make higher grade. 7

Two years later, Hamayan (1977) conducted another study to test this extroversion/introversion hypothesis. Hamayan et al. administered HSPQ (The junior-senior High School Personality Questionnaire) to students learning French as a second language. The questionnaire was designed to assess 14 personality dimensions which included personality traits such as reserved-warm hearted and shy-adventurous. Hamayan (1977) found that shy students performed less well. He reasoned that "learning a second language is more effective when the language is practised and in so far as shy students may be less likely to practice it, they will attain less proficiency even when reading is concerned." 8

In an experiment on students learning English as a second language, Rossier (1975) found that extroverts were better speakers of English than introverts if other factors were controlled. In other words, if everything else remains constant, extroverts speak better than the introverts. But in a real-life situation "everything else" is rarely constant. Extroversion as predictive of success in a second language is a controversial issue.
Thus, it is not very clear whether extroversion or introversion facilitates or hinders the process of second language acquisition. It seems that extroverts are better second language learners because of some other considerations. First, those who are called introverts by teachers are not necessarily introverts if we take cultural variations into account. Covertly, they may be more open to share and comprehend, although apparently they appear to be introverts. Second, extroversion is sometimes related to empathy but perhaps without any cause-and-effect relationship. Extroversion may be a technique to protect the fragile ego. Extroverts may talk in an outspoken manner to protect the defensive barriers of ego-boundaries. Rather, the introverts display high empathy -- "an intuitive understanding and apprehension of others" -- and they outwardly appear reserved and unassuming. Third, extroversion may be predictive of success in the speaking of a second language but not in the other skills like listening, reading and writing. Especially for the receptive skills, neither is extroversion essential nor does it facilitate learning. In this context, it is worthwhile to consider to what extent drama, pantomime, humour and role playing are effective in second language teaching methods and what degree of extroversion is required.
2.3.2. **Tolerance for ambiguity**

Language learning is a complex activity in which the learner comes across ambiguous situations where the topics of conversation are not very clear. The learner fails to make appropriate responses at the appropriate time. He feels disgusted and, at times, attempts to avoid the task of learning a second language. According to Schumann (1978), "those learners who have a low tolerance for ambiguity might be expected to react to such (ambiguous) situations with depression, dislike or avoidance." Naiman et al (1975) found in their research that the scores in tolerance for ambiguity correlated significantly with the scores in listening comprehension. Cohen (1977) suggests that the students who have less tolerance for ambiguity cannot listen more attentively and, as a result, they are confused by the linguistic input. They are unable to comprehend it well and hence, can attend to it much less efficiently.

2.3.3. **Sensitivity to rejection**

Closely related to tolerance for ambiguity is another personality variable: sensitivity to rejection. One group of learners does not have the tolerance
for ambiguous situations in second language learning whereas the other group of learners has the tendency to avoid the activity for some reasons. In most modern language classes a learner is expected to take part in oral communication in different ways. He is required to form his own sentences in grammar classes, to respond to drills and recite dialogues or linguistic texts. In all these situations there is always a possibility that the learner may not perform to the teacher's expectations. This gives rise to a negative reinforcement for the learner. The learner who is sensitive to negative reinforcement would become anxiety-ridden in such situations. In the experiments of Naiman et al (1975), scores on sensitivity to rejection scale correlated with performance scores but there was no significant correlation between the two factors. However, it is felt intuitively that this sensitivity to and expectation of rejection might compel a student to avoid active participation in the class because no one is prepared to be ridiculed by his classmates and the teacher in the class. Second language teachers should be careful about these personality traits in the learner.

2.4.0. MOTIVATION

Motivation is the hidden urge within us which impels us to behave in certain ways. This urge may be
purely instinctive, like the need for food, or it may arise from the rational decision to achieve a certain end or it may be the result of a combination of both these factors. Motivation is commonly held as the most important factor for success or failure in any complex task. Woodworth et al. maintain that "all activity except purely reflective action is motivated." It is needless to overemphasize the role of motivation in successful second language learning. It seems to be the most important affective factor in second language learning and it virtually controls all other affective factors because a learner can overcome many difficulties in other areas if he is well-motivated.

Innumerable studies and experiments have shown that motivation is the key to learning but these claims can be made clear by answering a few questions and, therefore, in this section, we shall discuss what motivation is, what the sub-components of motivation are and what relevance motivation has to second language learning and what it means to say that someone is motivated.

2.4.1. Ausubel's notion of human needs

Motivation is need-based. A particular inner desire or emotion directs one to a particular action.
To be more specific, human beings universally have inner needs or drives which are more or less innate, yet their intensity is environmentally conditioned. Ausubel (1968) has identified six desires or needs which underlie human motivation: (1) the need for "exploration", (2) the need for "manipulation", (3) the need for "activity", (4) the need for "stimulation", (5) the need for "knowledge" and (6) the need for "ego-enhancement".

The need for exploration is the need to go beyond the known world, probe into the unknown, the need to unravel the mystery of the universe. The need for manipulation is the need to operate on the environment to cause necessary changes. The need for activity is the need to be practically involved in both mental and physical activity or exercise. Man needs to be active in order to fight against the state of inaction and stasis. The need for stimulation is the need to be stimulated or excited by other people, feelings and thoughts. Man needs to be thrilled by new thoughts and ideas. The need for knowledge is the need to systematically internalize the results of exploration, manipulation, activity and stimulation. The need for ego-enhancement is the need for the self to be known and accepted by others.
2.4.2. Hierarchial needs of Maslow

There are other possible needs which may underlie human motivation. Maslow (1970) has suggested that the fundamental motivational tendencies (which he, like Murray, calls needs) are organised in a hierarchy. At the bottom, there are the physiological needs, then safety, then love and belongingness, then self-esteem, and at the summit lies self-actualization -- the effort to realize the maximum fulfilment of all potentialities and abilities and especially the creative abilities. The higher needs are not the removal of deficits but their expression in motivated behaviour is itself positive and pleasurable. There would be many other needs like achievement needs etc., etc., but the sixfold needs of Ausubel and the hierarchial needs of Maslow cover the essentials of general human needs and these needs have a direct relevance to the process of learning a second language.

2.4.3. Motivation as the satisfaction of needs

A second language learner attempts to satisfy all these needs. To be more precise, successful second language learning is not possible if these needs are not met inside and outside the classroom. A learner is motivated because certain needs are important to him, particularly; needs for exploration, stimulation and knowledge.
If certain needs, like self-esteem and ego-enhancement, are not met, he loses interest and becomes less motivated. The second language learner who is either intrinsically or extrinsically fulfilling his needs in learning the language, will be positively motivated to learn. Motivation, as fulfilment of needs, acts like a reinforcer in the behaviouristic model. If one speaks a second language and speaks it well, then it enhances his ego and the ego-enhancement in itself acts like a reinforcer to continue the activity.

2.4.4. Instrumental vs. Integrative motivation

In the 1950s and 1960s Wallace Lambert, Richard C. Gardner and others at McGill University began to examine the influence of attitude and motivation on second language acquisition. In his study on "Foreign Language abilities", Pimsleur (1961) finds that "the two biggest factors .... are the very general ones of verbal I.Q. and motivation". This conclusion was supported by the research of Lambert et al (1961) and to some extent by Pimsleur's (1964) study on under-achievement in foreign language class. After reviewing the literature, Pimsleur (1962) posited that verbal intelligence and motivation are the two most important variables in second language learning.
Although the studies of Kelly (1965) and Savignon (1972) failed to reveal any significant correlation between motivation and achievement or between attitude and the achievement, the studies of Spolsky (1969), Gardner and Lambert (1972) found a positive correlation between motivation and second language learning. One of the best studies on motivation in second language learning was carried out by Gardner and Lambert (1972). Over a period of twelve years, extensive studies were conducted among second language learners in Montreal, Maine, Louisiana, Connecticut and Philippines. This research indicated that there were two independent factors which contributed to achievement in second language learning. The motivational factors had two components, namely, an integrative and an instrumental orientation based on the attitude of the learner.

Integrative motivation is the type of motivation which makes the learner want to integrate himself with the target language group (TL group). Here the learner wants to talk, meet and participate actively with the members of the TL group. Perhaps he wants to behave and talk like the TL speakers. An instrumentally oriented learner is one who wants to learn the language for some utilitarian purposes, such as getting a good job,
furthering a career, business, travel or reading technical literature and books in that language.

Many studies of Lambert and Gardner and one study of Spolsky (1969) showed that integrative motivation generally accompanied higher scores on proficiency tests in a second language. Moreover, it has been generally regarded that integrative motivation is more powerful than instrumental motivation because it implies a desire to integrate with the speakers of the target language. A learner with instrumental motivation will be interested in learning the second language up to the point where his specific instrumental goals are satisfied. For instance, during travel the learner can manage to achieve his goals with a very low level of proficiency in the second language. Even some researchers and teachers have claimed that integrative motivation is absolutely essential for successful second language learning.

Such a claim does not, however, seem to be foolproof. Recent research has shown that these two types of motivation may vary depending on the situation where it is required. According to Schumann (1978):

"The motivational orientation associated with proficiency in the second language seems to vary according to setting. An integrative motivation appears to be more effective in settings where it is neither necessary nor an accepted fact of life."
that the second language be acquired. Such conditions obtain in the United States with regard to learning languages such as French, German or Italian. On the other hand, in settings such as Iran and Saudi Arabia, learners may have very little integrative motivation to acquire English, but they may have a great deal of instrumental motivation to learn the language in order to be able to deal with English-speaking technical advisors, educators and businessmen. 

(Schumann, 1978: P.168)

Empirical evidence has also confirmed this view. Lukmani (1972) found that Marathi-speaking Indian students learning English in India were instrumentally motivated. In another study on the attitude and motivation of Oriya-speaking Indian students towards learning English as a second language, Pramanik (1981) concluded that the students, in general, had instrumental motivation. The main purpose of their learning English was to pursue higher education. Kachru (1977) explained that Indian English was a variety of Englishes and it had become an international language in third world countries. Therefore, it could be learnt successfully for instrumental reasons.

Even Gardner et al (1974) in a follow-up study to their research of 1972, concluded that the integrative motivation "seems to be one which is particularly effective
in many cultural settings where second language acquisition is not either necessary or perceived as an accepted fact of life. In the Indian setting, learning English has become an accepted fact of life. Although there is a variation in degree of its acceptability in different parts of India yet it is very much a lingua-franca in the country.

The instrumental/integrative construct helps us to understand the process of learning a second language, but it is also true that there is no single best means of learning a second language. The findings of these studies also suggest that these two types of motivation are not mutually exclusive. In particular settings, a mixture of the two kinds of motivation may be required. However, it needs further studies in different settings to find out the learner's motivation for learning a second language. The student's interest in a second language and their motives for second language learning have to be studied carefully. It is yet to be examined seriously how to motivate students in a situation where social motivation is conspicuously absent. To some, motivation is a goal-directed behaviour. Without a clear perception of the long-term goal, the learner may not be well-motivated to continue the complex task of second
language learning. A student may drop out or be disinterested if he is guided by short-term goals.

Second language learning is an emotional activity and motivation is an inner drive which can, like self-esteem, be global, situational or task-oriented. All the three levels of motivation are required for successful second language learning. If a learner has a high global motivation but low "task" motivation then the achievement will be less than what would be normally expected. For instance, if one is motivated to read and write without fluency in speech or accuracy in listening, then one's language learning is far from being complete.

2.5.0 ATTITUDES
2.5.1 Place of attitude in social science research

Attitude is yet another important affective factor in learning a second language. Like motivation, it has two components: individual attitudes and attitudes which are socially oriented. It has a key place in social science research. Trying to define the place of attitude in social science research Lemon (1973) says, "'Attitude' is one of the most ubiquitous of all terms used in social science."\(^{13}\) Both Zanaceiki (1918) and Allport (1935) have given a very important place to attitude in social sciences. They have described it as "social
psychology's central problem and the concept is heavily represented in practically all of the social sciences. ATTITUDE refers to the psychological process which determines an individual's behaviour. Allport (1935) defines attitude as "a mental and neural state of readiness organized through experience exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects or situations with which it is associated." The role of attitude in second language learning is no exception to it because the positive attitude of a learner provides imperatives for an individual's response to all objects or situations which are associated with the process of second language learning.

2.5.2. ATTITUDE and MOTIVATION

The terms 'attitude' and 'motivation' are, to an extent, interchangeable in a second language learning situation. This fact is evident in the coinage of terms like attitudinal motivation or motivational attitude. Numerous studies have been conducted which investigate the relationship of students' attitudes and motivation to achievement in second language learning. One of the initial studies in this series was conducted by Gardner and Lambert (1959). Since then, a number of studies on attitude and motivation have been reported (Spolsky, 1969;
Fuenstra and Santos, 1970; and Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Lukmani, 1972). John Oller and his colleagues (Oller, Hudson and Liu, 1977; Oller, Bacca and Vigil, 1977) have conducted several large scale studies of the relationship between attitudes and language success. The theoretical bases for the studies in the paradigm of Gardner and Lambert have been (1) that the students' attitudes towards the speakers of the target language would influence achievement and (2) that an integrative orientation reflecting a desire to be accepted into or to identify with the other cultural and linguistic community would be more conducive to achievement than an instrumental orientation reflecting utilitarian reasons for studying the language.

2.5.3 Interpretation of the attitudes

The hypothesis that integrative orientation contributes to success in learning a second language has led to inconsistencies in the results because, (1) the relationship between achievement and attitudes varies considerably from one cultural context to another, and (2) the interpretation of what constitute integrative as opposed to instrumental reasons for learning a second language also varies from one setting to the other. A factor analysis of the study of Gardner and Lambert (1959) concluded that English-speaking students in Montreal shared
a positive relationship between integrative orientation, positive attitude toward French Canadians and achievement. However, in a similar study in the same setting, Gardner (1960) found that language learning orientations emerged independent of general ethnic attitudes, and ethnic attitudes appeared independent of achievement. This was also found true in some studies of Anisfeld and Lambert (1961) and Lukmani (1972).

Now, let us analyse the issue of interpretation. In fact, what were the instrumental reasons for English speaking Canadians learning French in Montreal (Gardner and Lambert 1959, Gardner 1960) were more meaningfully construed as integrative reasons for Jewish high school students learning Hebrew in the study of Anisfeld and Lambert (1961). Studying Hebrew to become a rabbi (guru) involved a deep participation in the Jewish culture and therefore could not be called 'instrumental' and hence, it was interpreted as an integrative orientation. In the Phillipine setting, investigation by Frenestra and Santos (1970) and in the Indian situation, the study by Lukmani (1972) proved that instrumental orientation was the best predictor of achievement.

John Oller and his colleagues (Oller et al, 1979;
Oller et al (1978) looked at the relationship of Chinese, Japanese, and Mexican students' achievement in English and their attitude towards the self and the native language group, their reasons for learning English, and their reasons for travelling to the United States. Although the studies reached different conclusions, one common finding emerged from them: a positive attitude towards self, native language group and the target language commonly yielded better proficiency in the language. In one of the studies (Oller et al, 1977) which was aimed at studying the relevance of the attitude of native speakers of Chinese in the United States to their proficiency in English as a second language (ESL) it was found that there was a negative correlation between their desire to stay in the U.S. and attainment of proficiency in ESL. Further there were always relative advantages and disadvantages of integrative and instrumental motivation. The Chinese students did not like to stay in the U.S.; yet they performed well in ESL.

2.5.4 Attitudes of different people

The role of attitudes in second language learning is very complex because a learner comes across a number of people whose attitudes to each other seem to be significant. Hence, attitudes consist of a cluster of factors: the attitude of the learner, his attitude to
second language learning, attitude to second language teachers, peer attitude and the attitude of the parents. All these factors appear to be playing different roles in different situations of second language learning inside and outside the class. In his discussion on attitudinal aspects of second language learning, Bernard Spolsky (1969) comments:

"In a typical language learning situation there are a number of people whose attitudes to each other can be significant; the learner, the teacher, the learner's peers and parents, and the speakers of the language."

(Spolsky, 1969: P.273)

2.5.5 **Attitudes of the learner**

2.5.5. For our convenience, let us analyse these different aspects of attitudes separately. Undoubtedly, the attitudes of the learner (both individual and social) emerge as very crucial. From the studies reported earlier, it is quite clear that a learner would attain better proficiency if he has a positive attitude towards his self and if he has a positive attitude towards the target language community. It is commonly held that if a learner has positive attitude toward his second language teacher he will be interested in continuing his efforts to learn the language. Even his attitude towards the course work has a role to play. Wofford and Willoughby (1968) showed
that the grades in a course are significantly related to the students' attitude towards the course.

2.5.6 Attitude of the peers and parents

The attitude of the learner's peers and parents is of great importance. John Carroll has emphasized the importance of the attitude of parents. In his study of foreign language majors, he found that:

"The greater the parents' use of the foreign language in the home, the higher were the mean scores of the students. Thus one reason why some students reach high levels of attainment in a foreign language is that they have home environments that are favourable to this, either because the students are better motivated to learn, or because they have better opportunities to learn."

(Carroll, 1967: P.138)

Both the studies of Gardner (1960) and Feenstra (1967) clearly showed that the English-speaking students, in Montreal, were apparently reflecting their parents' attitude. The parents had a positive attitude toward the French Canadian Community. Of course, there have been studies with slightly different conclusions. For instance, Bausenhart (1971) studied the attitudes and motivation of German language school children in Canada. He observed that "Parental reinforcement in the form of helping with German home work was found to have no effect on the child's motivation!"
However, the number of parents who "wouldn't care" in the event of child's failure in GLS (German Language School) was found to be relatively higher among those with a positive attitude."\textsuperscript{16} This is a clear indication of the fact that parental encouragement and parental care in second language learning do play a definite role in enhancing proficiency.

2.5.7 \textbf{Attitude towards SLL}

Besides a learner's attitude towards the target language community, peers, parents and teachers; the attitude he has towards the very activity of second language learning occupies a special place in a discussion of affective factors. To Bartley (1970), "the students' attitude toward learning is probably the important factor in academic success, whether one refers to scholastic behaviour in general or to the particular area of foreign language learning."\textsuperscript{17} If the learner does not have a positive attitude to learn, specially a second language, he may not achieve success even with all other components of attitude. If a student succeeds in his attempts to learn a language, the success experienced in the acquisition of a second language could act as a stimulating force in the student's attitudinal system. This notion has been supported by empirical studies of Clare Burstall (1974). If we think of first language
acquisition the child enjoys babbling when he is on his own, so that he derives satisfaction from it without fulfilling particular social needs. This provides a different explanation from that given by Gardner and Lambert when it is transferred to the second language acquisition process. This means that attitude is not necessarily something very stable but varies depending upon the achievement levels at various stages of the language course. This appears to be confirmed by Clare Burstall's hypothesis:

"...that the acquisition of foreign language skills and the development of attitudes towards foreign language learning during the later years may be powerfully influenced by the learner's initial and formative experience of success or failure in the language-learning situation."

(Burstall, 1975 : P.17)

Then it is not only the attitude which motivates the learner to take up the task of learning a second language, but it seems that the task itself produces a type of attitude in the learner. Both the types of attitudes (Motivational in the beginning and Resultant of the initial experience) are somehow interdependent. This is precisely the stand taken by Hermann (1980) in his Motivation vs. Resultant Hypothesis. In his own words
"... it seems justifiable to argue that the development of real competence in a second language depends to a certain degree of a dialectic interrelationship between the acquisition process and permanent as well as short-term values."

(Hermann, 1980: p.250)

In spite of a set value system which forms the attitude, the acquisition process itself can have effect on the learner's attitudinal system. In some cases, it may challenge the ethnic attitudes which are socially present and success or failure may act as a catalytic agent to change the attitudes.

Like motivation and self-esteem, attitudes may be global, specific and task-oriented. The task-oriented attitude may refer to a learner's attitude to a particular method of language teaching or any specific task as speaking or reading. The major two-year study by Scherer and Werteimer (1964), for instance, looked into the relative effectiveness of an audio-lingual approach and a traditional approach to teaching German in college at the tertiary level. The study brought out many interesting points, but basically it demonstrated that there was no real difference between the two methods except that the
traditional students were better at writing and translation and the audio-lingual students were better at speaking. Smith and Berger (1968) and Smith and Baranyi (1968) in another setting showed that the traditional students did better than audio-lingual students.

2.5.8. **Attitude towards the text**

Along with the learner's attitude toward particular methods of teaching, his attitude towards a particular task affects proficiency. For instance, let us take the case of reading. Rye (1983) says that ".... the efficiency with which a passage is read is determined by the child's purpose and ability, the reading task that is presented and the child's attitude to reading." According to him, in comprehension, many things depend upon the child's attitude to the task of reading. It is conditioned by how the child judges and rates the teaching materials. He makes his stand clear when he says: "the importance of attitudes in influencing comprehension does not depend only on theoretical conjecture." Various empirical studies (Manis and Dawer, 1961; Shnayer, 1969; Estes and Vaughan 1973) have proved that reading material which
is accepted with a positive attitude is more successfully comprehended than the material which is unfavourably viewed. It means that even the reading material is accepted with either negative or positive attitude. This is a clear pointer to the teachers and material producers to be careful in selecting reading passages.

2.5.9. Attitudes can be changed

From the foregoing discussion, it seems that the learners have both positive and negative attitudes which are individual or social in nature. They benefit from the positive attitudes, and negative attitudes may lead to decreased standard of proficiency in the language. But the relieving factor is that attitudes are not very stable as they were considered to be in the past. Sometimes, negative attitudes are replaced by positive attitude and vice versa. Even psychologists agree that new attitudes can be formed in the learner. Here the language teacher can play a pivotal role. For slight mistakes, negative attitudes may be formed in the learner. In the same way, by careful efforts negative attitudes can be changed, often by exposure to reality. Negative attitudes are formed by false stereotyping and undue ethnocentrism. The role of information
seems to be particularly interesting here. A learner who is well-informed about the speakers of target language is apparently less inclined to build negative attitudes. Accurate and favourable information about each other may resolve a lot of conflicts. Secondly, it seems quite clear that the attitudes do not have a one-way channel from the learner to others but there are all possibilities of an interrelationship between the attitudes and success or failure in the second language acquisition. A language teacher should be aware of this fact, at least in the initial stages of second language learning.

2.6.0. **SOCIO-CULTURAL VARIATIONS**

2.6.1. **The Definition of Culture**

Culture is the context in which a person lives, thinks and feels. It is the collective identity of which each of us is an integral part. Kundu (1982) describes culture as a force which guides the life style of people. According to him, "the culture of a people includes all systems, techniques and tools which make up their way of life." Larson and Smalley (1972)
describe culture as a "blue print" which :

"guides the behaviour of people in a community and is incubated in family life. It governs our behaviour in groups, makes us sensitive to matters of status, and helps us to know what others expect of us and what will happen if we do not live up to their expectations".

(Larson and Smalley, 1972 : P.39)

2.6.2. Culture provides the context for affective and cognitive behaviour

Culture provides the context in which both affective and cognitive behaviour gets manifested. To Whorf, even thinking is not psychological but cultural (Caroll, 1972; pp.57-65). In fact, we think and feel culturally. Both language and culture have great influence on the life style of people. A language is deeply rooted in the culture of the people who speak the language. A language grows in the culture and bears the imprints of the culture. That is why problems faced by new comers to a culture have always been a concern of second language teachers. With the growing interest in the humanistic teaching and learning (please seen Grittner, 1973 and Brown, 1975), cultural adjustment has become the principal focus of second language
researchers and teachers. Lindsay (1977) has discussed the reasons for resistance to learning English as a foreign language. Attitudes to the "culture" and the effects of the "culture" on the foreign language learner are considered as reasons for the resistance.

2.6.3. Culture Shock

In the process of second language learning, the learner experiences 'culture shock' which Schumann (1978) defines as "anxiety resulting from disorientation encountered upon entering a new culture." He describes the effect of culture shock on language learning as follows:

"The learner, when moving into a new culture, finds himself in a dependent state. The coping and problem-solving mechanisms that he has at his disposal often do not work in the new culture. As a result, activities which were routine in his native country require a great deal of energy in the new environment."

(Schumann, 1978: P.167)

There exist a lot of differences between the culture of the learner and the culture of the people whose language he learns. There is always a distance between social groups. Schumann (1976) developed the
notion of distance between social groups to explore the ways in which social factors influence the degree of success experienced by second language learners. This, he calls, 'social distance'. In fact, what is acceptable to one culture is not acceptable to another culture. Rather, it is interpreted as something which is quite opposite to the culture of the learner.

The Negro children, for instance, show respect by not looking directly in the eyes of the person with whom they talk. This is a mark of respect for Negro children. But this is interpreted by white teachers as lack of interest. In India, begging apology during the course of conversation occurs vary rarely. But this is recurrently present in English culture in the form of 'excuse me', 'beg your pardon' and 'pardon please' etc. etc. These expressions can be used as techniques for empathic communication by the learner-listener to make the contents of a message clear to him. At times, it is difficult for the second language learner to conceive some social traditions such as marriage, table-manners and religious rituals. They appear as culture shock to the second language learner.
2.6.4. **Language shock**

Another impediment to second language learning is "language shock" which is closely related to "culture shock". There is the problem of correct naming of objects and ideas. In our native languages, we feel dissatisfied when we do not get correct words to express ourselves. It becomes even more intensified in a second language. The learner is haunted by doubts as to whether or not his use of words and expressions accurately reflect his ideas. The learner faces a sense of insufficiency in the language. Words often carry with them visual images, but a word in the second language may carry an image that is quite different from the one carried by the first language. For instance, words like 'butterfly', or 'lady's finger' may bear a different visual image for the second language learner. The learner may think that 'butterfly' is a food item because 'butter' is an eatable. Similarly in the case of a 'lady's finger', he may think to be a part of the body whereas the lady's finger is again a vegetable to eat. The use of a second language may cause a sense of shame and insufficiency which affects the narcissistic gratification of the learner. Stengal (1939) claims that the learner's "narcissism is deeply hurt by the necessity for exposing a
serious deficiency in a function which serves as an important source of narcissistic gratification."

2.6.5. **Culture Stress**

According to Schumann (1975) "while the extreme symptoms of culture shock may pass relatively quickly as ways of coping with the new environment are learned, more subtle problems may persist and produce stress that can last for months or years." Larson and Smalley (1972) calls this phenomenon "culture stress". Culture stress often centres around questions of identity. Culture stress takes away time and energy from the second language learning, and the learners feel dejected in the new culture. They start rejecting the task of second language learning. Smalley (1963) correctly points out that "culture shock and culture stress can induce a whole syndrome of rejection which diverts attention and energy from learning the second language." The issue of language shock and culture shock has been discussed from different angles by different researchers.

2.6.6. **Culture shock as a clash of consciousness**

Clarke (1976) has discussed culture shock and
language shock in terms of clash of consciousness; students' inability to learn a second language and their difficulties in the culture are seen as resulting from fundamental differences in reality. Individuals are, in general, exposed to a state of tension in any new environment. Howard Scots (1965) describes it as the outcome of attempts to solve problems in a new environment. At this stage, the individuals find themselves in a continuous state of double bind. Bateson (1972) summarizes the characteristics of the double bind situation as:

1. "... the individual is involved in an intense relationship that is, a relationship in which he feels it is vitally important that he discriminates accurately what sort of message is being communicated so that he may respond appropriately.

2. ..... the individual is caught in a situation in which the other person in relationship is expressing two orders of message and one of these denies the other.

3. ..... the individual is unable to comment on the message being expressed to correct his discrimination of what order of message to respond to, i.e. he cannot make a metacommunicative statement."

Second language learners, especially in the culture of the second language, at one time or another
suffer from all three of the above conditions. Virtually every encounter with the people or ideas from the other culture manifest itself as a clash of consciousness. An essential part of one's self is one's consciousness which is the organized pattern of meaning that the individual relies upon in order to guide him through his encounters with the new environment. Consciousness, of course, develops in a social context and reflects the reality of everyday life (Berger and Luckmann 1967). This reality is never questioned, nor even, perhaps recognised as potentially different from the reality as perceived by others. Second language learners are forced to confront a different reality. It is the responsibility of the second language teachers to make that reality intelligible to the student.

2.6.7. The relevance of cultural realities to SLL

The culture establishes a context in which individuals perceive a reality which is "created", not necessarily "objective" reality. "The meaningful universe in which each human exists is not a universal reality, but a 'category of reality' consisting of selectively organized features considered significant by the society in which he lives"25 (Condon, 1973). Misunderstanding between members of different cultures are likely to occur because
our perception of reality is quite subjective. The extreme manifestation of subjective reality takes the form of false stereotypes and undue ethnocentrism. Of course, social typing is natural and inevitable to organize life systematically. But when these are based on prejudices like racial and cultural superiority, they become ethnic stereotypes. The conception of 'cultural relativity' in anthropology states that no culture is inferior or superior. In fact, most of these cross-cultural hurdles in second language learning can be removed by a realistic understanding of the other culture as something that, although different from one's own, is to be respected and valued.

Clarke (1976) concludes in his theoretical discussion that "the essential first step in 'curing' culture shock is to make explicit all of those presuppositions which form the fabric of modern consciousness. Once our students recognize the subjective, socially constructed nature of reality, they will be in a much better position to understand the target language and culture."26 It is the responsibility of second language teachers to identify these realities, and they must keep these in view while teaching students. Klayman (1976) proposed to teach the culture of the target language in the learners' mother tongue. But this does not seem to be viable because such
a course may need more time and class hours. In a situation like this, some of the essentials of the new culture may be briefly discussed to create a fair amount of awareness about the culture of the people whose language the learners attempts to learn. Salem and Salem (1973) propose the following six realities which have great relevance for second language learning:

1. Culture influences every aspect of learning.
2. Culture influences ways of establishing rapport.
3. Culture influences communication.
4. Culture influences what educational variables are going to be effective.
5. Culture influences value orientation.
6. Culture affects teaching methods.

If all the above-mentioned realities can be taken into account while teaching a second language, then cross-cultural communication can be effective.

2.7.0. ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

2.7.1. Environment as the infrastructure

If culture is the context, then environmental
factors act like the social infrastructure which provides immediate impetus to the learner for second language learning. All other factors (self-centric factors, interpersonal factors, personality factors, motivation and attitude) get a broad base for better expression in the social environment which presents every day reality. In the same culture, the environment may vary from place to place depending upon the social stratification. For instance, an industrial area may differ from a tourist area, as may an urban educational centre from a tribal area. If the social environment is not conducive to learning of a second language then, in spite of positive self-esteem, the motivation for learning gets adversely affected. The social environment acts like a big canvas where the learner can use his brush.

During the last twenty years, there has been a radical change in the viewpoint about the process of second language learning. According to Hamayan et al.:

"the views held by linguists and psycholinguists about language learning have shifted radically during the last ten years. Language learning is now seen as involving the development of a rule-governed, but creative, process whereby the learner comes to formulate and modify a series of hypotheses about the rules governing the language to which he is exposed."

(Hamayan et al, 1977: p.225)
2.7.2. The shift in theoretical views concerning SLL

The shift in theoretical views concerning developmental psycholinguistics has led to a better understanding of the process of language learning. Previously language learning was thought to be a discrete, isolated process. Most recently, however, researchers have begun to study the non-structural aspects of linguistic development. In many studies (Dulay and Burt 1974; Sampson and Richards 1975), it has been suggested that there are similarities between second language learning and first language acquisition. Specifically, the strategies involved in second language learning may be essentially the same as those which characterize the acquisition of mother tongue. The importance centres around exposure to the language in the environment. The more the learner is exposed to the language, the more he is expected to learn it successfully. The learner gets the opportunity to use the language and test his hypotheses about the second language. Like the first language learner, the second language learner needs to be involved in conversation and practice of the language in meaningful contexts which are not contrived.
2.7.3. Different sources of the exposure

The learner is exposed to the second language in many possible ways. For instance, if English is to be learnt as a second language then the exposure comes from:

1. Use of English by parents: Frequency of speaking English to friends of the family and members of the family.

2. Use of English by peers: Frequency of speaking English to classmates.

3. Use of English with strangers: Frequency of speaking English to waiters, delivery people, maintenance people, sales people, bank tellers and bus drivers.

4. Use of English with acquaintances: Frequency of speaking English to brothers/sisters, relatives, parents and neighbours.

5. Use of English by the learner: Frequency of writing letters in English to father, friends, relations, writing applications in English, and using English for note-taking and note-making.

6. Radio programmes: Frequency of listening to radio programmes broadcast in English.

8. Books and Newspapers: Reading newspapers and books in English.


2.7.4. Environment as a vehicle of change

The environmental exposure may influence and modify the affective behaviour of the learner. Some of his earlier attitudes may be changed. The learner can develop a sense of self-confidence in the language by frequent use of the language. The learner may do so without inhibition as he is free from the educational evaluation process. A study of the environmental factors can have some predictive value for second language learning as far as affectivity is concerned. For
instance, if the frequency of use of the second lan-
guage by the learner is very high outside the class, then
it may be predicted that he has positive 'affection'
towards the language. Most of the affective blocks which
stand in the way of learning a second language can be
removed by an adequate exposure to the second language
in the social environment.

2.8.0. SUMMARY

2.8.1. Affective factors do play an important role

This chapter has highlighted the relevance of affec-
tive factors to the process of second language learning.
From the theoretical investigations and empirical studies
discussed in this chapter, it is found that affective
factors do play an important role in language learning,
especially, second language learning, because learning a
second language is an emotional activity involving
the personhood of the learner. It is also found that
the language teacher can control and modify the affective
behaviour of the learner in many ways.

2.8.2. Affective behaviour can be changed

The self-concept of a learner can be appreciated
by attempting to know and respect the 'self' of the
Learner's self-esteem can be enhanced by encouraging participation in the class and tolerating language mistakes at the initial stage. Inhibitions can be reduced by possible means of ego-permeability. Empathy can be taught through empathy-building exercises. Attitudes can be changed by presenting the everyday reality to the learner. It is quite encouraging that motivation can be induced or learnt by acquainting the learner with a clear perception of language learning goals. Even, the socio-cultural variations can be controlled by valuing and respecting the cultural differences between different social groups. Language shock and culture shock can be cured by avoiding clash of consciousness.

It is commonly argued by practising language teachers that affective factors are not very important in second language learning because one cannot do much about changing the affective traits which are innate and relatively stable characteristics of a learner. But, from our discussion, it is quite clear that the language teacher can do a great deal about changing the affective behaviour of the learner.
2.8.3. **Affective variables can be measured**

It is also held by many that the affective factors cannot be measured objectively. It would be quite improper to avoid/neglect this crucial issue of affectivity in second language learning, just because it cannot be measured. Attempts have to be made to measure these factors with more accuracy. Our discussion about the empirical studies makes it clear that the affective variables can be measured in some ways. Different scales of measurement have been used in all these empirical studies. Of course, studies in affective factors are still in their infancy. In the days to come, new scales will be prepared, and old methods of measurement will be refined and improved. We will know more and more about the individual differences among second language learners.

In this chapter, we have argued that motivation is the most important factor which virtually regulates all other factors. If the learner is well-motivated to learn a second language, it becomes easy for him to overcome many of his difficulties. In view of the importance of motivation in second language learning,
it is suggested that the second language teachers, materials producers and curriculum designers acquaint themselves with recent developments in research on the affective domain and incorporate the developments in language teaching methods and materials. In the next chapter, we shall have a detailed discussion of the theories of human motivation and the role of motivation in second language learning.
NOTES


