CHAPTER – 2
THEORETICAL FOUNDATION OF THE STUDY

Factors or variables that influence Second Language Learning and Teaching:

Second language teaching is one of the most complex and difficult jobs. In this job teachers need not only to have an understanding of the language but also to have insights into the process involved in second language learning. Success in Second Language learning is influenced by a complex of factors that are not only linguistic but non-linguistic or environmental as well. Robert Lado (1964) defines the learning of a second language as under:

‘Learning a second language is defined as acquiring the ability to use its structure within a general vocabulary under essentially the conditions of normal communication among native speakers at conversational speed. More specifically it means the acquisition of the ability to use, in speaking, the units and patterns of expression of the second language associated with the units and patterns of content that together constitute the language. And it means the acquisition of the ability to group the units and patterns of content when listening to the second language. It means in other words learning the expression, the content and their association for rapid use in the proper position within the system of the target language.’

Factors involved in learning a Second Language:

1. Plentiful exposure to natural communication in the target language helps learners to learn a second language in an effective way. In fact the wider and
richer is the exposure of the learner to the target language the higher is the level of learning to take place. Exposure promotes a subconscious processing of the language data in the mind of the learner that ultimately leads to the acquisition of the language. Again language processing can take place only in a natural and at the same time meaningful environment. In other words the language input must be comprehensible to the learner so as to facilitate easier access to processing and acquisition.

2. Language learners are known to undergo a silent period during the initial stages of language learning. The same applies to second language learning also. During this period the learners' minds are actively engaged in processing and making sense of the incoming language data. Learners at this stage may begin to understand words, phrases and even sentences in the target language but they may not be able to produce these language forms themselves. Language learners at this stage therefore calls for careful handling and any attempt at forcing them to use the language will prove too early and may cause anxiety or harm to the learners.

3. Learners learn to communicate in the new language by actually using it for natural communication in different kinds of situations. And although regular and constant practice of language structures has a crucial role to play in language learning in formal teaching situations the need for sufficient abundant exposure to comprehensible and natural communication is far more crucial.

4. Errors are a natural part of the process of language learning. Learners can't be expected to produce only correct language forms while they are still in
the process of learning the language. Errors are inevitable and can't and need not be easily eliminated from the earlier stages. M.L. Tickoo (2003) comments in this regard that committing language errors by learners at this stage does not indicate retrogression or unlearning but a normal stage in language development and system expansion. In other words the presence of errors indicates that the learner is experimenting with language and trying out hypotheses about the language system. Implication of this crucial stage in language development for the teacher of English as a second or foreign language is that he or she must not resort to over-correction of errors or getting impatient with learners for making errors as such an act/stance on his part will only cause anxiety and prevent learners from using language for spontaneous communication.

5. For language learning to take place a relaxed and anxiety free environment is most essential. Such an environment encourages learners to take the risk of using the target language in actual communication situations. Excessive anxiety can slow down the language learning process by discouraging learners from risk-taking and preventing them from making use of opportunities to tryout and practice language. William Littlewood (1988) comments on classroom anxiety in the following words. ‘In the classroom anxiety can hinder learning and make learners reluctant to express themselves through the second language. We should therefore avoid becoming over-critical of their performance, try to create space for each learner's individuality to express itself, and work to produce a relaxed classroom atmosphere with co-operative relationships.’
6. Learners' motives, emotions, needs, attitudes and interests play a very important role in language learning and need to be taken care of.

7. There are individual differences among learners in the pace of learning and the manner in which they respond to language data. Some learners, learn better when information is presented visually while some others may work in a more abstract fashion. Learners' individual needs and interest, their personality factors, home backgrounds, aptitude, attitude and motivation also exert a considerable influence on their learning fashion / style. It is because of this that despite the same amount of exposure provided to learners their learning pace may vary in some perceptible way.

8. All learners are likely to learn some amount of language provided the environment is motivating and promotes sufficient exposure to the language and opportunities to make use of it.

Environmental Factors in Learning and their implications for Teaching:

In the second language teaching situation the teacher is faced with many other factors largely beyond his own control but none the less important from the learning point of view. In general, these will be features of the narrower and the broader contexts in which learning and teaching are to take place. In addition to the linguistic and psychological factors the teacher has to bear in mind the conditions -- nonlinguistic or environmental under which he has to work while deciding on the methods and techniques that he is going to adopt / use. In fact a consideration of his own qualities as a teacher, the characteristics
of his pupils and the physical and other conditions in which he has to work is an essential professional pre-requisite for a second language teacher.

The Educational Context

One important feature of the learning context is that of time. The time factor has a crucial role to play in determining the level of attainment in learning a second language. Therefore in the designing of a language course or syllabus the question of how many hours are available for teaching is so important. The time made available for a second language learning/teaching programme varies from four to five hours a week to fifteen to twenty hours depending on the nature of the course offered. However it is the contact frequency of the learners with the second language that is more significant a variable than even the total amount of time available. In fact the higher is the frequency of contact the greater is the level of attainment in learning the second language. In the conventional school language learning situation/programme the contact may be as little as four to five hours a week while for intensive courses it is from fifteen to twenty hours a week. Apparently it is impossible to suggest strict numerical limits at either and as both involve dangers of similar nature - boredom and loss of motivation. Just as too little contact as in the conventional second language schooling programme may fail to inculcate a sense of progress and achievement and may result in serious lack of interest and motivation in learning, so also contact for more than twenty hours a week may cause fatigue. On the other hand there is a serious danger of forgetting when the contact is so sparse. This danger of forgetting is there even in the intensive courses as some
observers tend to say that what is quickly learnt is quickly forgotten. This carries serious implications for the teacher of second language. He has to work in a situation where the objectives have been set for him and he has only a fixed and often inadequate amount of time to achieve the objectives. In other words the number of contact hours is beyond his control. In such a situation he has to effect either some compromises between the set objectives and the exigencies of real achievement or so orientate his methodological stances/approaches as to effectively scale over/negotiate the handicaps put by the inadequacy of the time factor.

Another significant variable that has a bearing on the learning and teaching of language is the number of pupils in the class. The optimal size for a class of language learners is neither possible nor particularly necessary to prescribe. However classes with more than 30 - 40 students are said to be large classes and large classes present a number of problems.

Jean Forrester (1965)\textsuperscript{4} points out that majority of the students in a large class are deprived of the opportunity of speaking or reading in every lesson and for that matter participation in the class which is one of the preconditions for effective teaching and learning. Another handicap suffered by the large classes is the failure on the part of the teacher to correct written assignments given to students. Large classes hinder individual attention and create problems of indiscipline. Forrester also recorded his finding that in a class of 40 students taught by even a competent teacher only 17 students opened/had a chance to open their lips. This led to the alarming revelation that 23 students out of 40 i.e. 57.5 percent students failed to enjoy full participation in the teaching-learning
process. In another large class Forrester saw that even the best effort of the teacher to make every student speak by way of repeating the answer to every question resulted not only in boredom but also a small amount of work covered. To overcome these problems Forrester has suggested a number of ways that may provide for more expression on the part of the pupils and a number of devices for handling large classes. These include:

1) Chorus speaking in which a number of pupils answer questions or read together.

2) Short individual controlled answers and sentence by sentence reading.

3) Group methods

Obviously there are merits as well as defects of all these methods. Forrester says that it is as well to accept the fact that there is no perfect solution to the problem of large class except that of breaking it up into smaller classes and that any devices are at best a makeshift. Success in using these devices depend upon the details of organisation—details which must be understood thoroughly by the pupils if they are to respond and get the best from the devices. Of the three methods however it is the Group method that comprises the division of the class into small groups each under a pupil leader that is suitable for matriculation classes according to Forrester.

Prof. Robert L. Saitz (1965) is another scholar who also talks of the problem of large classes particularly with regard to the Oral-Aural Method. Referring to the Colombian experience he said that for teachers of English there the recurrent question in English teaching seminars was ‘How could they teach
spoken English to large classes comprising of between forty and seventy students?' The easier way to deal with a large class both from the point of view of discipline and teaching method according to Prof. Saitz is to give students written exercise in translation and dictation. This was the most preferred way for over fifty percent of the teachers of English though it was in actual practice probably the least effective way to teach a language as in such a case students can learn only vocabulary but not the structure of the language as well as its spoken aspect. Prof. Saitz therefore offers his solution in dividing the class into two equal halves and then giving exercises in spoken English to one half and exercises in writing the same patterns to the other half followed by a reversal of the process. Another arrangement suggested by him is to divide the class into rows or groups of rows working with two rows or about ten students as a unit. The teacher can then use choral drills and repetition and supervise/monitor the students' performance with on-the-spot remediation of errors whenever necessary. This will provide better scope for the teacher for control and effective teaching. The teacher can also stimulate the spirit of competition among the students and this spirit of competition may further be strengthened by creating a pleasant cultural ambience in the class. The teacher may try to utilize any social or cultural activity that will stimulate student motivation in the language and culture. Employment of the methods of language teaching based on sound linguistic principles can be another solution towards the handling of large classes. If a pleasant classroom atmosphere can be established, if the teacher can work orally with the class as much as possible and if he can organise his presentation of the language on the basis of drills in the
fundamental patterns of the language, the teacher can be sure of a fair amount of
success even in a large class.

Geoffrey Broughton et al., (1978)\textsuperscript{6} also talk about the problems of
teaching English to large classes and suggest some remedial measures. They
observe that in teaching large classes the teacher has to think very carefully
about the most appropriate ways of enabling every pupil to participate as fully
as possible in the lesson. To ensure this the teacher must break his class down
into smaller units and engage the units in practising the same piece of language
or preparing the same piece of written work. This will result in some other
benefits as well. The informal and anxiety-free environment born out of the
breaking of the large class into small units will prove much more pleasant and
conducive for effective learning. For the teacher, now it will be easy to develop
the natural conversation ability of the learners by means of the face to face
contact in small groups than through speeches made in public in front of the
whole class. For, the more informal the situation the more natural the
interaction. The small group situation will benefit the class in yet another way.
It will help build confidence of the learners as well as provide much more
intensive opportunities for practice than in any full class situation. The exercise
also helps in the reduction of monotony and an increase in pupil concentration.
Only, the teacher has to proceed carefully and gently with a clear statement of
the aims of the activities undertaken and the reasons for working in groups to
the students. E. V. Gatenby (1965) also points out the disadvantages of the large
classes when he says ‘Classes and groups must be kept small. The pace slows
down if there are more than ten adults or twenty children to one teacher.’\textsuperscript{7}
The physical arrangements too cannot be ignored. Classes cannot be split into groups if classroom furnishings are immovable fixtures. Similarly, inadequacy of lighting and such other physical impediments may warrant special attention from the teacher. In any case, while devising his overall strategy for teaching the teacher should not ignore the situation in which his teaching has been done.

The final element in the physical context of learning is the stock of resources which the teacher will be able to exploit. Talking about the essential resources Wilkins (1982) remarks: 'A language teaching situation may be characterised by the presence or absence of all or any of the following: textbooks, supplementary readers, workbooks, exercise books, writing paper, drawing paper, pens, pencils, chalk, black board, tapes, tape recorders, language laboratories, wall-pictures, wall charts, flannel boards, other display facilities, slides, filmstrips, cinefilms, television, radio, record players, video recorders, closed-circuit television and libraries. Naturally enough, what can be achieved in any situation will depend on the resources that are available. Conversely the absence of certain resources will place serious limitations on what the teacher can achieve. You cannot teach people to read if adequate reading material is not available. They cannot learn to understand natural spoken language if no means exists for them to hear natural spoken language. In the same way therefore an awareness of what resources are available is necessary from the beginning of a teaching operation. Resources are not an adjunct but an integral part of the learning situation. The position of resource / the resource status also determines objectives setting and selection of teaching methods. It is not that the teacher
would set his objectives first, select his teaching method and then take stock of the resource position rather it is the other way round i.e. the teacher will have to be aware of the resource position and then go for deciding his objectives and determining his methods of teaching.

The Social Context:

A number of factors in the wider social context in which the school is located also influence language learning and teaching to a significant degree. Of particular importance, first of all, are certain attitudes which are characteristic of the society to which the learner belongs. Social and cultural attitudes have a very deep influence on individual learners. In view of this a teacher may be either aided or hindered by factors quite beyond his own control. Wilkins (1982) who also endorses the view affirms in this context that if social attitudes are negative, the overall achievement can be relatively poor no matter how well the teacher does his job. If social attitudes are positive, learning may proceed even where teaching is not particularly efficient. The achievement will be highest where attitudes and teaching together promote effective learning and lowest where attitudes are negative and teaching is weak. Wilkins (1982) who also endorses the view affirms in this context that if social attitudes are negative, the overall achievement can be relatively poor no matter how well the teacher does his job. If social attitudes are positive, learning may proceed even where teaching is not particularly efficient. The achievement will be highest where attitudes and teaching together promote effective learning and lowest where attitudes are negative and teaching is weak. Wilkins (1982) who also endorses the view affirms in this context that if social attitudes are negative, the overall achievement can be relatively poor no matter how well the teacher does his job. If social attitudes are positive, learning may proceed even where teaching is not particularly efficient. The achievement will be highest where attitudes and teaching together promote effective learning and lowest where attitudes are negative and teaching is weak.9 William Littlewood (1988) also strikes the same point where he says ‘one of the factors influencing how we experience the process is our attitude towards the foreign culture itself. If this attitude is negative, there may be strong internal barriers against learning, and if learning has to take place because of external compulsions, it may proceed only to the minimum level required by these external demands.’10 Quoting two major studies of foreign language learners in Great Britain by

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Burstall et al. (1974) and Green (1975) Little Wood maintains that successful learners develop favourable attitude and this in turn encourages more success. Wilkins (1982) while talking about the case of learning English observes that English is better learned in those parts of the world where it enjoys favourable attitude instead of where its position is looked upon with hostility. In a society that continually expresses critical attitudes about the people who speak the language it is difficult for the pupils to make the considerable effort required for learning the language.

Success in language learning like success in the learning of other subjects depends to a large extent also on the social background of the learners. Referring to research into the learning of French by young children Wilkins (1982) argues that children of white-collar and middle class parents have the greatest chance of success unlike the children of the blue-collar parents. In view of this even the adoption by the teacher of a uniform approach to language teaching will not ensure a uniform level of achievement. What is needed in such a situation is that the teacher must adopt methods that are sufficiently flexible enough to suit learners of different socio-cultural backgrounds.

Mary Finocchiaro (1958) also talks of the impact of the social context on the teaching and learning of English. She writes ‘The community in which the school is located cannot be ignored in any discussion of the forces which affect the curriculum of a school or class. In addition to the implications inherent in the language spoken in the community other factors must be taken into consideration. The socio-economic level of the community very often influences the aspirations of parents and students and determines the amount of
pressure which parents may place on school authorities to make changes in the curriculum, to buy materials and to organise co-curricular programmes. There are other instances of how the size and composition of the community may affect the learning and teaching of English. As stated by Finnocchiaro (1958) a recent study showed that where non-English speaking pupils were in the minority in an English speaking community of high socio-economic level, they learned English much more quickly, since English was the language of stores, of the movies and of all other community agencies. On the other hand where the non-English speakers are the majority group in a lower socio-economic community even the younger English speaking pupils may have poor experiential and language backgrounds and pupils of this class will have to be given a rich background of experiences to ready them for language activities. Pupils in such a culturally deprived environment may have little opportunity to practice English outside of the classroom. Nor do many of the working parents, sometimes illiterate themselves, encourage the use of English either in the home or on the outside. However the importance of factors like pupils' motivation, age, maturity and native ability which can and do offset environmental influences can hardly be ignored in any programme of teaching English as a second language.

That attitude towards the second language community affects learning of a second or foreign language is also endorsed by Littlewood (1988). As he says a learners' motivation is likely to be enhanced when the learner is favourably disposed towards the speakers of the language he is learning. This is because the
learner with more favourable attitudes will wish for more intensive contacts with the second language community.

**The learner:**

Probably the largest variable of all in the learning situation is the learner himself. Several factors inevitably impact on the success of the language learners. These factors make each learner unique and are intricately tied to a learner's very sense of identity. Motivation, age, language aptitude, personality, active learning strategies, learner beliefs and the learners' previous language learning experience are some of the distinctive factors that characterise the learner in the process of learning a second language.

Motivation is said to be one crucial factor in second language learning. It is a complex phenomenon and includes many components such as the individual's drive, need for achievement and success, curiosity, desire for stimulation and new experience and so on. Motivation is of four types – Intrinsic motivation that originates from within the learner, extrinsic motivation that originates outside the learner, instrumental motivation that is used as a means to an end and integrative motivation that is used as a means of integrating with a target community and in learning a second language one or the other of these types of motivation is essential. And on the other hand there may be a substantial overlap between different types of motivational orientation and that different types of learners may be characterised by different elements of motivations than exclusively by a given individual motivational orientation (Agnihotri & Khanna 1997).
The primary motive for learning a language springs from the means of communication that the language provides. A learner is therefore most likely to be drawn towards learning a second language if he perceives a clear communicative need for it. Again a certain degree of self-motivation can be seen in a class of voluntary learners which needs to be exploited fully. But when learners are not volunteers the teacher must himself stimulate and sustain motivation. The situation throws a major challenge to the teacher and carries considerable pedagogical and methodological implications. For many learners some methods and techniques will be much more readily motivating than others so that the teacher will have to go for varied and interesting methodology in order to keep the motivation sustained. The benefits of language learning may need to be kept continually self-evident. Weakly motivated learners have difficulty in recognizing long term benefits and need to find the learning process itself an interesting one. Attitude towards the second language community also influences motivation and as individual attitudes may be culturally conditioned, the rigid, ethnocentric and authoritarian views of the learners have to be delicately handled by the teacher of second language so as to instill in the learners a favourable attitude towards the target culture in greater interest of success in learning the target language.

Language aptitude or ability to learn a language is another important variable that determines the individual learner's speed and success in language learning. The word ability is often restricted to cognitive aspects of a person's ability to learn, notably intelligence and a set of more specific language learning abilities called 'language aptitude'. It is this language aptitude that refers to a
broader set of factors which, given similar motivation and opportunities, make some people better at learning than others. Littlewood uses it in a broader sense to include not only cognitive factors but also the effects of personality, age and active strategies which the learner adopts. Success in second language is related not only to general cognitive ability but also to a more language specific set of learning abilities which are usually called 'language aptitude'. Language aptitude is a phenomenon whose exact nature is not yet known. Investigation by researchers are on and various aptitude tests have been devised from time to time to select students for language courses. One of the best known of these tests – The Modern Language Aptitude Test of John Carroll and Stanley Sapon (1958) (quoted in Little Wood 1988) focuses on the following abilities in the belief that they form part of language aptitude:

1. The ability to identify and remember sounds.
2. The ability to memorise words.
3. The ability to recognise how words function grammatically in sentences.
4. The ability to induce grammatical rules from language examples.

Other writers focusing on the reliability of the Modern Language Aptitude Test as a predictor of language learning outcomes in a wide variety of situations include Carroll (1981) and Gardner and Lambert (1972). Nevertheless, it is generally accepted that high motivation can compensate for apparent lack of natural aptitude (Carol Griffiths 2006).

Age is yet another most crucial and stable learner characteristic as a learner is as old as he or she is and there is nothing anyone can do to change that. Over the years the effect of age on language learning has called
considerable critical attention as a debatable issue. For most people it is almost axiomatic that children can learn a second language better than adults. The observation is based upon the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) during which the brain is flexible and language learning can occur naturally and easily. Since this period ends around puberty adolescents and adults can no longer call upon these natural learning capacities and language learning for them turns out to be an artificial and laborious process. However in recent years this view is being criticised and opposed on several stand points and the view that even adult learners do acquire a high level of proficiency in a second language has come to stay. Some studies have shown that even older learners seem to learn more efficiently. In fact, given more or less equal opportunities, efficiency in second language learning increases with age and young learners are superior only in acquiring pronunciation skills (Catherine Snow and Marian Hoefnagel-Hohle 1978, Ann Fathman 1975, Clare Burstall et al. 1974 as cited in William Littlewood (1988). But concerned as we are more with the formal schooling system with children as learners we have to see how their natural language learning faculties can be so nurtured and geared as to harvest maximum gain in the act of learning the second language.

Personality is another learner characteristic that influences second language learning. Though the links between personality and second language learning ability are weaker than they are generally supposed to be an extrovert person is usually thought to be well suited to second language learning. However as William Littlewood (1988)\textsuperscript{15} argues quoting studies conducted by Naiman \textit{et al.} extroversion does not always yield positive results, it is rather
some traits often associated with extroversion such as assertiveness and
adventuresomeness that were found to correlate with learners' success in second
language learning. Carol Griffiths (2006)\textsuperscript{16} talks of the Myers-Briggs Type
Indicator (MBTI) which is the most commonly used measuring instrument for
personality from which a pattern of results is generated by four bipolar
constructs: extroversion versus introversion, sensing versus Intuition, thinking
versus feeling and judgement versus perception. Griffiths further quotes Ehrman
as having discovered that learners with introverted-intuitive-thinking-judging
personalities are over-represented among the best language learners although
overall good language learners display a wide variety of personality types.

Some other personality traits like a high level of self-esteem, greater
tolerance for ambiguity and a high capacity for empathy have some correlation
with second language proficiency. On the other hand it is also true that
personality interacts in complex ways with other factors in order to affect
learning. For example extroversion could turn out to be a greater advantage in
natural learning situations than in formal learning or when it is combined with a
high degree of field independence, Similarly particular combinations of
personality traits may be important rather than particular traits in themselves.

Active Learning Strategies:

Successful language learners employ a wide variety of strategies for
learning. Language learning strategies might be defined as activities consciously
chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning.
Good language learners are also both metacognitive and autonomous in their
behaviour. By virtue of their power of metacognition such learners enjoy the
ability to reflect on their own learning, to prepare and plan, to select and use appropriate strategies, to monitor learning, to orchestrate strategies, to evaluate learning and if necessary to make changes. Without metacognition students lack direction and are unable to maximise learning opportunities. Again good language learners are autonomous in as much as they are capable of taking charge of their own learning by determining objectives, defining content, selecting methods, monitoring procedures and evaluating progress. (Enderson, Little 1999 and Holac 1981 as cited in Griffiths 2006).  

Rubin (1975) quoted in Diane Larsen Freeman and Michael H. Long (1994) defines strategies to mean the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge. Good language learners to him are willing and accurate guessers who have a strong desire to communicate and will attempt to do so even at the risk of appearing foolish. Moreover such learners practise and monitor their own speech and the speech of others.  

Beliefs that learners hold have also significant influence on the effectiveness of their learning. As has been shown by research learners with rigid ethnocentric and authorian views are less successful in language learning. Learner beliefs are shaped in part by cultural norms and expectations. According to Cynthia White, good language learners do not have rigid sets of beliefs, but are capable of adapting their beliefs to make the best of various learning possibilities (Griffiths 2006).  

Of some other factors that may influence pupils' learning mention may be made of the matter of their previous language learning experience or the pupils' literacy in their native language.
The Teacher:

The teacher is the most important single variable in any teaching and learning situations. His skill and his personality are instrumental in creating the conditions for learning. The skill of the teacher is dependent on his own proficiency in the language and his knowledge of and expertise in methods and techniques of language teaching. The language proficiency of the teacher is so important that it cannot be taken for granted. According to Lado (1964) the language teacher must be professionally well-qualified. He must have the general professional preparation of a teacher. Besides he must have some other special qualifications in the field of the foreign language he teaches. These include a high level of proficiency of the language teacher in the foreign language to be fit to be imitated by his students, adequate knowledge of linguistics, of culture, of teaching techniques, of language laboratories and their use. The Modern Language Association of America has also set qualifications for language teachers as (1) Aural comprehension (2) Speaking (3) Reading (4) Writing (5) Language analysis (6) Culture and (7) Professional preparation each of which is described on three different levels of excellence—superior, good, and minimal.\textsuperscript{20} Report of the Study Group on Teaching, of English, Government of India, New Delhi, 1971 also lays great stress on the need of the professional competence of the teachers of foreign language [English teachers in this case]. The group believes that good teaching depends greatly on a successful meeting of minds, on the creation of a living dialogue between the teacher and the learner, and on the teacher's capacity to inspire learning. The quality and character of the teacher of English are therefore, of the first importance for the
success of any programme of foreign language teaching. The Study Group therefore strongly recommended an overhaul and qualitative upgradation of the teacher training programmes/institutes of the country so that English teachers could be properly trained up to meet the demands of the hour.  

We may have teachers who are relatively ill-taught and are as a result hardly able themselves to use the language for real communication with any degree of fluency and accuracy as well as teachers that are competent to handle the language with fluency and accuracy so that there is sure to be in any situation considerable difference between individual teachers. What the teachers are able to achieve will be limited to what their own command of language permits. This amounts to the fact that even the act of setting objectives is very much influenced by the teacher's own skill in and command of the language for it would be unrealistic to expect a teacher to set objectives which he himself is not capable of reaching.

The same may be said of teaching methods. Different methods demand different linguistic skills from the teacher. And more particularly in these days of considerable methodological innovation the professional skill of the teacher – his knowledge and understanding of language and language learning and his command of methods and techniques of language teaching besides a greater command of pedagogic skills are obviously in high demand. Nevertheless the success of an individual teacher is by no means entirely a matter of high degree of professional training. He may be characterised by certain important personality traits that can go a longway towards qualifying his success in the act of teaching. Negative personality traits like insensitivity to students' needs,
authoritarian and rigid behaviours are likely to yield negative teaching and learning outcomes whereas a measure of inherent sensitivity to other people coupled with an intuitive flexibility on the part of the teacher will result in a humanistic and sympathetic concerns for students' learning. Under the guidance of such teachers students are likely to learn with happiness and with success.

Mary Finocchiaro (1958) while visualizing the role of the teacher in the teaching learning process says the following:

"The teacher is the most important single element in any teaching situation. It has been frequently said there are no good or bad methods; there are only good or bad teachers.

The personality of the teacher coupled with his attitude towards his pupils, his colleagues, his supervisors, and his work will determine the extent to which any program, no matter how well formulated, will be carried out. Naturally, the general teaching skill of the instructor, his special training in the field of language teaching, and his linguistic ability will also affect the teaching-learning situation. But whereas it may be more difficult to modify personality and attitude, teaching skills and language ability can be acquired. Any teacher is capable of teaching English as a second language provided he is willing to devote sometime to general reading in the field, to taking pertinent courses, to attending lectures and to visiting more experienced teachers so that he will master not only the essential teaching techniques but also the fundamental features of the English language – its structure and its sound system."
Opportunities for Learning:

Another very important factor that influences the proficiency of the second language learner is the quality of the learning opportunities which the environment offers. Four aspects constitute this factor: namely, the opportunities that exist for using the second language, the emotional climate of the learning situations, the nature of the linguistic input to which the learner is exposed and the effects of formal instruction.

The second language learning mechanisms get activated when the learner is involved in communicative activity. Learners therefore should have access to situations where the language is used as a natural means of communication. The opportunities and the communicative need for use of the language may vary from situation to situation. For example in a bilingual community the communicative need and the opportunities for using the second language will be higher than in a situation where monolingualism is the norm and practice. Bernard Spolsky (1989) illustrates the importance of this factor in second language learning as follows: "whatever the language learner brings to the task, whether innate ability, a language acquisition device, attitudes, previous knowledge and experiences of languages and language learning, the outcome of language learning depends in large measure on the amount and kind of exposure to the target language." It is not simply a factor of time or amount as some researchers hold but also the kind of exposure that is relevant. Exposure to the new language is a necessary condition for learning. Spolsky sets a number of conditions for second language learning among which condition Nos. 51 and 62 directly relate to the factors of exposure to and opportunities for using the
language. Condition 51 defines ‘The more time spent learning any aspect of a second language, the more will be learned’ while condition 62 which Spolsky terms as ‘opportunity for practice condition,’ asserts that learning a second language involves an opportunity for the new skills to be practised and the result is fluency.  

C. J. Dodson (1967) talks of the importance of this factor in terms of contact frequency of the learners with the language material of the target language. This contact frequency is again related to I.Q and age of the learners, as, the higher is the I.Q and age of the learner, the lesser is the need of contact frequency with the language. In any case the consolidation of the language material requires sufficient opportunities for contact frequency on the part of the learner according to Dodson.  

E.V. Gatenby (1965) also recommends the ‘opportunity for use’ condition very strongly. He says that for the success of learning a second language what is essential is that the language being studied should be as far as possible the sole medium in any given environment. As regards the necessity of contact frequency with the language he says ‘the rate of progress depends obviously upon the amount of time that can be allotted to the language. With three or four hours a day both children and adults may become proficient in speech in less than a year.’ In other words in order to be learnt the language must be used.

Lado (1964) discusses the point in the following words: ‘when teaching in a setting where the second language is not spoken, all experiences and practice will have to be provided by the class and the teacher. The ideal setting for teaching a language is of course the country where it is spoken natively. By residing in that community and being forced to use the language for
communication, the full impact of a language as the chief means of communication in a culture is brought out. Lacking this setting the next best thing is to create the atmosphere of the second culture through proper decoration of a classroom, a language, and/or when possible a house. Agreements to speak only the second language and to be active in language clubs can be realised with varying degrees of success.27

Likewise the emotional climate of the learning situations has a crucial role to play in helping learners to maximise and consolidate their learning of the second language. Learners must not feel anxious, insecure or constrained in the learning situation. Equally important is the nature and quality of the linguistic input. The ideal input for acquiring a second language is such that it should be comprehensible, relevant to their immediate interests and not too complex. Learners' natural acquisition mechanisms can operate effectively when exposed to such linguistic input. J. C. Richards (1990) also endorses the view and says that the second language learning process is strengthened as much by the quality of linguistic input provided by the teacher as by the opportunities for speaking the language.28 And lastly the role of formal instruction in providing learning opportunities to the pupils which is equally significant in this regard. As we know, given the right kinds of exposure, second language learning takes place both in natural and formal settings. Some researchers even go the extent of undervaluing the necessity of formal instructions in second language learning. But that is a wrong notion and formal instruction has an important role to play in second language learning. Nevertheless it is difficult to draw a sharp line of distinction between natural and formal learning in the classroom. In fact the
learning processes in both the settings are known to overlap as researchers have revealed that a learner's natural processes are active inside the classroom as well as outside. It is therefore that in recent times there have been increasing attempts to exploit the natural processes of the learners by providing communicative experience in the class in imitation of the natural environment. In any case the endeavour to eliminate the distinction between natural and formal learning is a sure way towards creating a more realistic and effective classroom situation. And the teachers attempt to achieve this by controlling the learners' exposure to the language, making them become aware of significant features and patterns, providing opportunities for practising the language and ensuring feedback to the learners about their performance.

Problems of Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language
– An Exploration into Expert Views:

The teaching and learning of L2 is a complex process. It is in fact the result of an interaction of a complex set of factors and variables that determine its effectiveness or otherwise. Again a number of problems continue to plague the process. Some of the problems are of universal nature while others are situation-specific with variations in the magnitude of influence that they exert on the teaching and learning of L2. The same is true of the process of teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language. The fundamental problems that beset the teaching and learning of English may be discussed as
under in the light of the research findings and observations of some of the ELT experts and practitioners both foreign and native.

Commenting on the greatest difficulty in L2 learning in an article J.C. Catford (1975) quotes Henry Sweet as having said that the real intrinsic difficulty in learning a foreign language lies in that of having to master its vocabulary. In the same article Charles C. Fries is also quoted as saying that in learning a new language the chief problem is not, at first, that of learning vocabulary items. It is, first, the mastery of the sound system – to understand the stream of speech, to hear the distinctive sound features and to approximate their production. It is, second, the mastery of the features of arrangement that constitute the structure of the language. In the same article Herald Dunkel is also quoted as having opined that in language learning we are confronted with the most baffling complexities of language and learning that demand simultaneous handling. In view of this situation Dunkel goes on to comment, J.C. Catford maintains, that the odds are certainly against our knowing much about the teaching or learning of a second language. What sounds important here is the mastery or need of a sound knowledge of the psychology of teaching and learning of a second language not only on the part of the teacher but also on the part of the learner the absence of which creates problems in the process.29

While talking about the complexities of L2 teaching Mr. Catford says that any language teaching operation takes place in a context of highly variable external factors and must be adjusted to suit them. Some of these factors are – the geographical situation, political affiliations and economic conditions of the country where the teaching is carried on, the internal linguistic situation there,
the student's age, intelligence, educational and cultural background, motivation etc., the teachers' training, experience, cultural background etc., characteristics of L2, characteristics of L1 and specifically the differences between L1 and L2.

The selection of literary text is another major factor that may create problems in L2 teaching, for, although the teaching of language needs literature as its prime material, in the context of L2 teaching literature raises special problems. Elaborating the point further Catford (1975) maintains that one of these problems is purely linguistic. Up to a certain stage in a graded course it is obvious that real literature must be ruled out. But there comes a point in a general purpose course when it is desirable to introduce literature and particularly with adult students the reading of the real thing in the original may be an exciting experience and a powerful stimulus to further effort. Quoting Jespersen, Catford further remarks that one needs to know a foreign language pretty well in order to get more out of the original than out of translation. The other problem is cultural rather than linguistic. It involves the question of cultural difficulty and cultural grading. The understanding of the literature of an L2 demands some understanding of the cultural background, the cultural context of the language and its literature. Conversely knowledge of the cultural context is a help in both learning and teaching of the language. Cultural difficulty and linguistic difficulty are not necessarily correlated. A linguistically difficult work may appear culturally simpler and appealing provided the same deals largely with general human values and situations. It is therefore that the choice of English literary texts according to Catford, must be based on both cultural and linguistic grading that is optimal to the level it is meant for.
Prof V. D. Singh (2000) also refers to this aspect in his H.M. Patel Memorial Lecture. He writes 'During the middle phase the utility of the study of literature came to be distrusted. The way it was taught as part of language studies was seen to be of little use in furthering the learning of the target language. Where learners needed competence in language skills they were served a different menu. SL literature reading and the learning of SL were seen as unrelated, if not antithetical to each other in which the former had little to contribute to the latter. This is not however to justify the way in which literature is/was taught in many places. Today we see literary texts as rich resource for language teaching when used in a proper way.'

The English Review Committee also makes it clear that its emphasis on the teaching of the English Language is not intended at the expense of the teaching of English Literature. The Committee opines at the very introduction to its report that there can be no inherent conflict between the claims of literature and those of language. For proper appreciation and understanding of literature the knowledge of the English language is indispensable just as literature is indispensable for learning the English Language as the English Language cannot be taught in a vacuum. In fact sample of good English Writing in prose and verse can serve as the best reading materials to strengthen the linguistic base of the student.

Robert Lado (1964, 1966) also refers to the culture constraints in language teaching. He observes that the language teacher must understand the intimate relation between a language and its culture. The student can't go far into the target language without facing differences in cultural meanings because the meanings expressed in a language are largely culturally determined (1964).
This view of Lado transpires that for a teacher of foreign language a thorough knowledge of the cultural ethos and association of the target language is an indispensable component of his professional qualification. Some other writers supporting this view and referred to in this regard include Rao Zhenhui (1999), US Hendon (1980), Betty Wallace Robinett (1978) and Safnil (1996).

Inadequacy of exposure is also one of the major hurdles of effective teaching of a foreign or second language. J.A. Bright and G.P. McGregor (1983) endorse this view in the following words: “There is no learning without exposure. It may be salutary to consider the kinds of English to which pupils are normally exposed and what therefore they have the opportunity to learn. Exposure need not of course be limited to school situations and what happens outside may be important. But in most places it is what is done in school that will have the greatest effect.”

Interference from L1 was also considered as an impediment in successful teaching and learning of L2 till early sixties. P. Gurrey (1964) comments on the issue as under: “But for the teacher there is a special difficulty that is not commonly considered. It is the difficulty of overcoming the barrier of the pupil’s mother tongue. For the mother tongue acts as a block in all the learner’s language reactions and impedes the learning of the new language because it is so firmly seated as the first language ... ... this makes the task of the foreign language teacher a task that requires special procedures and technical methods. Furthermore the mother tongue is so deeply embedded in our mental lives and inner consciousness that learning a second language requires at first a different reaction to language; one that is a reorientation and in part
reorganisation of consciousness. Therefore special exercises, certain kinds of language drill and carefully devised methods are necessary to help the pupils to form new language habits.\textsuperscript{35}

Michael West in his book \textit{Teaching English in Difficult Circumstances} (1960) expresses his views on the problems of teaching English as a foreign language in unequivocal terms. His work is based upon his experiences and observations made in India before the war and in the middle-east and elsewhere later and exclusively throws light on the teaching of English under unfavourable circumstances. West visualises the position of the teaching-learning situation of English in the unfavourably circumstanced schools as follows: ‘By “unfavourable circumstance” we mean a class consisting of over 30 pupils (most usually 40 or even 50) congested on benches (not sitting at individual or dual desks) accommodated in an unsuitably shaped room, ill-graded with a teacher who perhaps does not speak English very well or very fluently, working in a hot climate. Moreover the pupils in such schools are more subject to elimination than those who are more favourably circumstanced; more of them leave school before completing the course; less of them go on from school to higher studies.’\textsuperscript{36}

The characteristic problems of such schools as enumerated by West are:

1. The problem of over-crowded classes where the teacher has three outstanding problems. They are – a) To keep up the pupils' practice time to the maximum, b) to keep the class together and c) To lessen teacher fatigue. (2) The problem of training of teachers which refers to the difficulty in getting a sufficiently quick turn-over to enable us to improve the examination and so
encourage the trained teachers to take advantage of their training and put it into practice. (3) The problem of the textbook. This problem relates to the difficulty/problem of preparing a "back of the class-book" with the pupils as the main focus and the practice material and the machinery for practicing it in order to compensate for the professional deficiency of the teacher as a resource of the unfavourably circumstanced school. Yet another problem West talks about is the problem of speech teaching which involves three aspects – the problem of individual pupil practice time, the problem of reality and the problem of elimination and surrender value.

Teachers' resistance to change is another problem in successful L2 teaching as stated by M' Barek Ahellal (1993). Ahellal discusses the problem in the light of certain grammar-oriented teachers' reaction to the communicative approach in recent years [in the Morocco situation]. Ahellal holds that on account of some reasons some teachers develop an attitude of reluctance to conform to change. The attitude of the individual teacher towards the innovations/new reforms and his/her role in the spread of innovative modes of teaching is of crucial importance for success in L2 teaching. Ahellal quotes Widdowson (1984) as having observed that language teachers have the responsibility to mediate changes in pedagogic practice so as to increase the effectiveness of language teaching. In Ahellal's opinion the following are some of the reasons for teachers' reluctance to conform to the change. 1) Some teachers reject the new trend only because it is 'new'. As in other domains traditionalists refuse to change the status quo. 2) Some teachers think that the new approach has introduced an element of disorganisation into the materials.
In their opinion the merit of structural materials is that they are based on sound criteria of selection and grading. 3) Another category of teachers simply feel more secure with the way they have been doing things for years. 4) Others fail to understand the purpose of the new strategies adopted in the design of materials and in the techniques of implementation in the classroom. Such teachers continue to adhere to the old structural approach even if the materials assigned are functional. J. Stephen Sherwin (1969) also offers a similar view when he talks of the problems of nurturing a respect for what research can reveal and an willingness to apply research results with regard to some of the stakeholders of the programme of teaching English.

Coming on to the Indian situation we have Prof. V. K. Gokak (1964) who comments on the teaching of English at the schools of our country in early sixties of the last century as under: ‘The teaching of English in our schools is in a chaotic state today. With the great expansion in education that has come in the wake of independence, it has become extremely difficult to find trained and qualified teachers for any subject, specially English. The foundational years for the teaching of English in schools are in the hands of teachers who neither know enough English nor are familiar with the latest and far reaching developments in the pedagogy of English. Pupils are taught English for about six periods a week for the six years but it has been estimated that they hardly know 1500 words by the time they join a university. This means that they have hardly been able to learn English words at the rate of one word per period. They don't know how to use the commonest structures of English.’ Prof. Gokak attributes this position to a number of problems in the field. These are — a) Untrained teachers who are
not competent to deal with the situation, b) Teachers who are trained are also generally unable to cope with the situation because of the doubtful utility of the training they receive in our training colleges. What is needed is something like a revolution in the pedagogy of English taught in our training Colleges. c) Diminution of the volume of exposure is another setback. In the past even the Grammar-Translation Method succeeded as the effective method of teaching English as during those days English was the medium of instruction in the high schools and pupils got plenty of reading and writing practice in all subjects which stood them in good stead. But at present even the Direct Method or Oral Method have failed to provide the exposure in the hands of teachers who have no proficiency in oral English. Spoken English is no longer used outside the English classroom and one is not very sure how far of it is used even during the English periods in schools. d) The problem of large classes. e) The problem of a judicious use of Mother Tongue in the English class. f) The Problem of having to work in 'cramped conditions'—[the infrastructural inadequacy]. g) The problem of insufficient provision for English in the time-table. h) The Inadequate examination system and i) The problem of teaching pronunciation. Here the problem is the problem of choosing a model. We Indians generally adhere to the RP but to Gokak RP is an unattainable goal. We should rather endeavour to follow the native GIE model.

The English Review Committee appointed by the University Grants Commission (1965) to examine the teaching of English at the college and university level also gave its opinion and recommendations as regards the position of English Teaching at the school stage. The committee held that the
University must begin where the school leaves off not in terms of syllabus but in terms of actual achievement. The improvement of standard at the college and university-level depends very much upon the standard obtaining in the high school and the effort to improve must begin there. For the effort at school will yield better results than the same amount of energy put in at a later stage in the college or university.\textsuperscript{40}

But there are some problems that need to be addressed with real earnestness, the committee observed. One such problem is the problem of lack of uniformity as regards the number of years for which English is to be taught. There are variations in this regard from state to state. While most states prefer 6 years of study of the language at the school stage beginning from class V and ending with Class X, there are others which prefer a 3–4 year duration besides there being still others that advocate the teaching of English from class III itself for a period of 8 years. Such disuniformity creates problems — particularly as the committee argued that taking English down to standard III or standard V means taking it down to the level at which education is expanding most rapidly, where it is reaching to the farthest and smallest villages, to classes in society which have not had even the remotest of connection with education. There is a shortage of teachers. Those available are not competent enough to teach English, with their faulty pronunciation and limited vocabulary etc. Widest divergence between aim and achievement is another problem that calls for serious attention. Similarly over-emphasis on grammar (teaching) in the earlier classes is yet another problem in the pedagogic aspect as listed by the committee. The committee therefore recommends arrangements for proper
teacher training, inspection work and improvement of the examination system with proper focus on the development of both the receptive and productive skills of the learners in the English language.

The Study Group on Teaching of English appointed by the ministry of Education and Youth Services, Government of India, New Delhi (1969) which was asked to prepare a working paper outlining a practical programme of action for improving the teaching of English both at the school and the University stages observes in its report on the then situation of teaching English at the school stage in the following words—'We have, of late, witnessed tremendous expansion in primary and secondary education. Many more children now enter school and receive instruction at various levels and a large percentage of them come from uneducated families. Their environment does not provide them with any opportunities of using English outside the classroom.'

As viewed by the Group, growth in numbers has necessitated the recruitment of many more teachers both in the primary and the secondary schools as the training programmes of the country have failed to keep pace with the mounting needs for teacher education and training with the result that the specialist task of teaching English has to be left with incompetent teachers at the school stage leading to a situation that results in acquisition of bad English or no English by the students. This again presents a new set of problems for the teaching of English at the university level. Much time has to be devoted to repairing the damages done or in building the foundations that are necessary for the minimum essential use of this language at the undergraduate and post
graduate stages. The Study Group listed the following problems in the field of teaching English in our country –

1. There is a grave shortage of trained and fully qualified teachers of English at almost all stages of the educational system.

2. There have been frequent changes in governmental policy towards the teaching and learning of English in several states.

3. The state education departments have been slow in taking decisions, and even where decisions have been taken, enough resources are not available to carry them out. Very often departments fail to utilize fully the facilities available at various specialist centres and to organise their own courses for retraining or in-service training.

4. In general the facilities available for reform and reorganisation have been inadequate. The result is that curricular changes have been very slow. In the circumstances even trained teachers have been unable to make any great contribution to the improvement of the teaching of the subject.

5. The supervision of English teaching in schools continued to be neglected with hardly any trained specialists engaged in this task.

6. In the majority of the schools there is a great gulf between the avowed approach and the actual practice. Most teachers make free and often unsystematic use of the pupils' mother tongue on the lines of the old Grammar Translation Method. Neither guidance nor material is available to help teachers make a systematic and judicious use of a bilingual method wherever the situation so demands.
The Study Group therefore suggests that efforts should be made both at
the centre and in the states to remove the inadequacies and remedy the defects
in the existing structure and the order of priority of focus should be – ‘Men’,
‘Materials’ and ‘Methods’ – the three cardinal factors responsible for success or
failure of any teaching programme.

Dr. Miss K. Bose of Central Institute of Education, Delhi University, in
visualises the problems of teaching English in India in these words: ‘The whole
venture of teaching English to Indian Children is to combat against a defeatist
mentality. It calls for a determination rather than complacency, an active
planning rather than disinterest, a careful execution of a programme rather than
a passive repetition of a blue print handed down by so called experts.’ Dr Bose
further observes in the same book that the learning of a language and the
acquisition of a certain amount of proficiency depend not so much on the
number of years it is studied but very much on the motivation of the students,
the types of teachers, methods of teaching adopted and instructional material
designed. Dr. Bose then goes on to discuss the difficulties or problems of
teaching English in the Indian situation. To her opinion the main difficulties
include— the time available for teaching English which is too short, the non-
congenial and non-permissive school environment as well as the out of class
environment, the want of a functional situation for language teaching, the
demotivated and ineffective teacher, the wide range of ability among pupils that
creates further complications, the uninteresting, drab and dull textbooks in
English and lack of proper motivation.
P.T. George (1982) looks at the issue from a socio-economic standpoint and sorts out the problems as under:

i) The inadequate language proficiency of the average teacher of English. Such teachers can't be expected to function as the chief source of language experience for the learner.

ii) Too large classes held in congested rooms.

iii) Limited time provided for English in the curriculum.

iv) Inadequate provision for sufficient practice opportunity to individual learners.

v) Want of elaborate language learning aids.

vi) Want of sufficient self-teaching, self-study facilities such as good children's libraries.

vii) The social situation in the case of majority of learners does not facilitate the learning or the using of English outside the classroom.43

Mr. George suggests his solution in terms of developing an appropriate methodology based on resource-specific planning that the average English teacher can use independently of the aids and regardless of the odds.

S. Prakash Rao (1991) summarises the problems of teaching English at the secondary and college level as —

i) Over-crowded classes

ii) Lack of practical work

iii) Too much emphasis on academic work.

iv) Lack of contact with practical world.

v) Lack of essential laboratory facilities.
vi) Lack of family involvement, and

vii) Language chosen for the teaching, and the remedies suggested by him include—training of teachers in a scientific manner and that university teachers should receive pedagogical training and should have more contact with primary and secondary schools.44

Presenting a paper on Developing an ELT Methodology for rural schools Mr. V.C. Devasundaram (1978) from RIE, Bangalore highlighted the following major problems for ELT in rural areas,

i) Teachers in rural schools were not sufficiently competent either in content or in methodology.

ii) Guidance and training facilities for the teachers to improve their techniques were inadequate.

iii) Satisfactory reading materials were scarce.

iv) The present examination system did not encourage teaching techniques.

Other handicaps and deprivations that Indian students in the rural schools suffer are, as enumerated by Mr. Devasundaram—

i) The schools are ill-equipped.

ii) The teachers lack basic competence in the use of English.

iii) Pupils have practically no exposure to English in any form.

iv) Most of the students are first generation learners.

Solutions suggested in this regard by Mr. Devasundaram are—

i) A shift in the priorities given to the four skills—to concentrate on speaking and reading during the first three-four years and on teaching writing in the last two years.
ii) A rural bias in the materials produced with regard to the methodology developed.

iii) Additional support to the teaching of English in rural areas in the form of — a) A wider range of reading materials, b) Visual Aids, c) Broadcast facilities, d) Special attention to the training of teachers.\(^{45}\)

C. Paul Verghese (1993) also lists six problems in the field of teaching English in India. He writes— Teaching English as a second language in India is thus beset with problems such as poor motivation, inadequate exposure to the language, poor classroom conditions, lack of teaching aids and materials, incompetence of teachers, bilingualism and its effects on the learners etc.\(^{46}\)

A major factor that afflicts English Teaching in most parts of the Indian situation is the meagre acquisitional resource for learners. Prof. V.D. Singh (2001) has talked of the impact of this factor in the teaching and learning of English in our country. Suggesting remedies to overcome this problem Prof. Singh observes that one of the alleviating measures to tackle the ailing teaching of English is to make learners available an enriched environment. This includes materials for reading that afford enjoyment. Disadvantaged learners are starved of reading materials. Reading materials need not be classics of another age that may present comprehension problems. They could be popular writing or pedagogically designed materials for learners. Some other enrichment providing sources are activities like skits, plays, play reading by learners in the class room or in the school\(^{47}\). Similarly M.L. Tickoo has also referred to this problem not only in the context of our country but in the broad Asian context in his book Teaching and Learning English (2003) \(^{48}\).
The above discussion thus brings into focus the views of different writers, experts, committees and commissions etc. on the problems of ELT. There is a correlation between the impact of these problems and the type of management of the School, its geographical location, teacher motivation and competence, the type of students the school caters for and the type of parents and the political intervention in the system. Efforts at solving these problems of the ELT of a particular situation presupposes a study of the problems in relation to that particular situation, as, to speak in the vein of N.S. Prabhu (1987) typologies of teaching situations should be seen as an aid to investigating the extent of relevance of a pedagogic proposal rather than as absolute categories."
References:


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