CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

II.i. <u>INTRODUCTION</u>

Allport (1954) defines attitude as "a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting directive response to all objects and situations with which it is related"(45). Dealing with attitudes as an abstract aspect of human behaviour, makes identifying the essence of attitudes a very complicated task. Even though many researchers have tried to define attitudes, nevertheless, what has been identified so far is the outcome of attitudes, but the neural mechanism that disposes upon attitude formation is not yet clarified. When a learner is favourably disposed towards the speakers of the language he, is learning, there are two main reasons why his attitudes are likely to be favourably affected. First, learners with more favourable attitudes would seek more intensive contact with the second language community. In this respect favourable attitudes reinforce the extent to which a learner perceives communicative need. Second, there is a close link between the way we speak and the way we perceive our identity. When we try to adopt new speech patterns, we are adopting a new identity.

Learning a new language involves more than just acquiring a new set of verbal habits. The language learner must adapt to various features of behaviour which characterise another linguistic community. The lexicon, rules of grammar and even the sounds of the target language are representations of another cultural group. The learners' attitudes towards that group is likely to influence the extent to which the learner can incorporate the representations of the target language.

The process of second language learning carries within its folds a latent process of neural changes manifested in attitude change towards the target language and its community, as well as towards a new behavioural milieu "Once the second language learner comes to understand the behaviour of the speakers of the target language, regardless of the original motivation for study, the task of adding the language becomes far simpler, both through acceptance of the speakers of the language and through increased knowledge of what the language means as well as what it says" (Valdes 1987 :2).Favourable attitudes play an important role in integrating with the target language community, by directing effort and perseverance in the process of learning the target language.

In interaction, students can use all they possess of the language in real-life situations in which expressing the real meaning

is important to them. They thus have experience in creating messages from what they hear, since comprehension is a process of creation; and in creating discourse that conveys the speaker's intentions.

Attitudes with their different facets, are not sufficient predictors of success in foreign or second language learning. However, attitudes whether favourable or unfavourable often correlate with motivation, hence attitudes are; how do I feel towards a certain object or situation? and how do I react to what I feel ?. Motivation in this study is defined in terms of choice, engagement and persistence, as determined by interest, relevance, expectancy and outcomes. Motivation thus defined can be linked with attitudes as a refining factor, as well as with language learning processes and language pedagogy.

In the present study, attitudes refer to a mental state concerning feelings. When attitudes are favourable they lay the ground for a positive psychological positioning towards the language and its community in the language context. Favourable feelings towards the language and its community do not in themselves lead to language learning. They, however need to be coupled with strong motivation either instrumental or integrative or both. Hence motivation is the step that initiates action and not action in itself. Type of motivation gives direction to the action either towards utilitarian purposes or for integrating with the language community.

It specifies the course of action students are intending to take for achieving their goals.

Motivation characterised by readiness for action is manifested in using and manipulating available resources and opportunities for language learning. While engaged in satisfying the motivational intentions (integrative and/or instrumental), students resort to devising ways by which they can benefit from the effort they invest in language learning. The availability of a wide range of academic and social opportunities enables the students to frequently use and test their self-made learning strategies. Hence, language learning strategies are steps taken by the leaner to simplify the input provided by the academic and social environment in which learning is taking place.

Earlier research (Gardner and Lambert 1972; Gardner 1968, 1985) establishes that attitudes and motivation have an inter-linked relationship, which can determine how serious and devoted the learner is. The presence of any one of the variables will enhance the development of the other, want plus disposition (Gardner 1985). The learner's motivation for language study may be determined by his attitudes to the target language, and to the target language community, and to the whole process of learning a second language. The student's motivation could take many possible forms, an "instrumental" outlook, reflecting the practical value and advantages

of learning a new language, and/or an "integrative" outlook, reflecting a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group.

The effects of attitudes on motivation and proficiency have been investigated in a large number of studies, notably those by Gardner and Lambert (1972). These researchers relate their findings to two basic kinds of motivation which they call integrative and instrumental. These are distinguished as follows:

- A learner with integrative motivation has a genuine interest in the second language community. He wants to learn their language in order to communicate with that community more satisfactorily and to gain closer contact with them and their culture.

- A learner with instrumental motivation is more interested in how the second language can be a useful instrument towards furthering other goals, such as gaining a necessary qualification or improving employment prospects.

It is clear that the two kinds of motivation do not exclude each other; most learners are motivated by a combination of integrative and instrumental reasons.

Gardner (1985) defines motivation when he states that "Motivation is a combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language"(10). Motivation as a crucial factor in the development of second or foreign language learning can be gauged

by the extent to which an individual learner strives and perseveres to learn the target language. Thus, perseverance or striving to learn the target language leads the learner to look for new and effective learning strategies, in addition to modifying the existing ones from his past learning experience, that can help him in learning the target language. Motivation refers to choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will extend in that respect. **It is important to note that attitudes and motivation are distinct, while attitudes remain at the affective feeling level, motivation relates to initiating action. Motivation also specifies the type and direction of action embodied in applying effective learning strategies.**

Learning strategies are broadly defined by Dansereau (1978) as any set of operations or steps used by a learner that will facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information. Learners may apply different strategies to different language learning activities such as explained by Michael O'Malley et al. (1984) (Comprehension, oral production or vocabulary learning).

"An individual with lots of natural ability and motivation but with little opportunity may have difficulty in acquiring a language. If opportunity is present, but there is little motivation or poor learning skills, then, we may expect that

language learning will proceed slowly. Equally, a person with lots of natural ability and opportunity may fail to learn because of poor motivation".

Joan Rubin, 1975:44)

A "good language learner" uses a variety of learning strategies. These include; cognitive strategies for exercising "executive control" through planning, arranging, focusing and evaluating his/her own learning process in progress; social strategies are used for interacting with others and managing discourse; affective strategies are for directing feelings, motivation and attitudes related to learning; compensation strategies are for guessing unknown meanings while listening and reading or using circumlocution in speaking and writing, for overcoming deficiencies or weaknesses in knowledge of the English language.

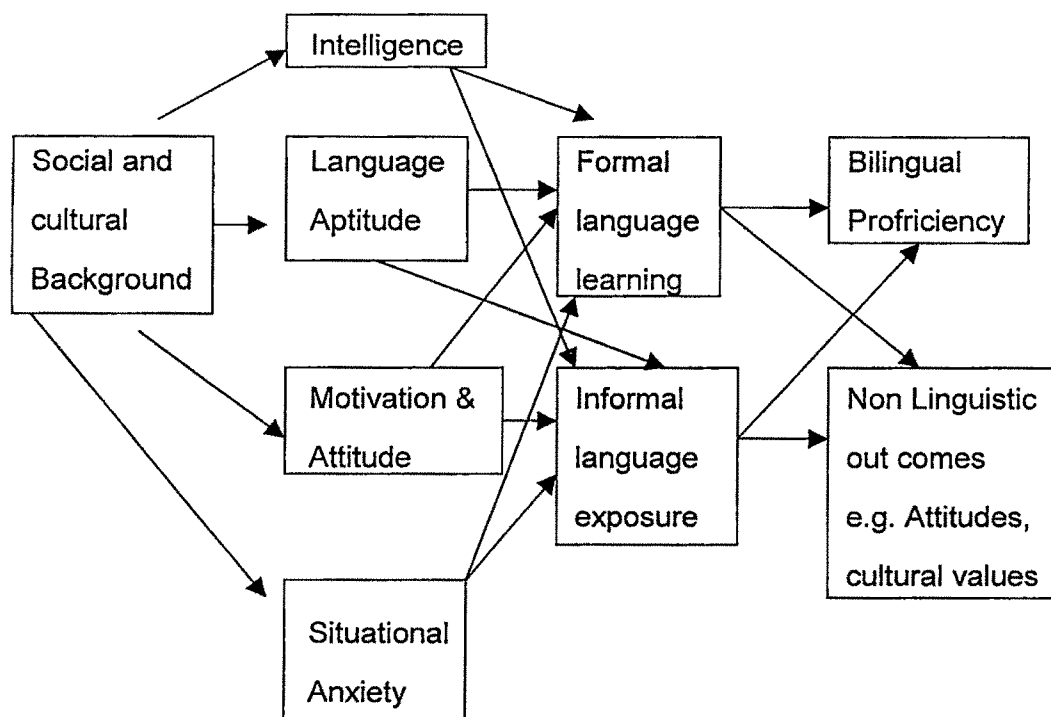## II.ii. <u>GARDNER'S SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL MODEL</u>

Attitudes and motivations are two of the most thoroughly examined learner factors in literature. Early studies by Gardner(1960), and Lambert et al.(1963)show that attitudes and motivation frequently play a decisive role in determining successful language learning, regardless of intelligence and language aptitude (Gardner and Lambert 1972). Other studies confirm the findings that positive attitudes towards language learning and the target language

and high degree of motivation are found to be the best over all predictors of success in learning French as a second language in classroom settings (Naiman, et. al.1977).

The excellent research tradition stemming from Gardner and Lambert (1972), (cf.Gardner 1985), culminate in Gardner's socio-educational model . In this model, attitude is one variable among others in the prediction of bilingual proficiency and non-linguistic outcomes (e.g. self concept, cultural values and beliefs). Gardner's model continues to emphasis and support the idea he has created in distinguishing between language and the other school subjects that language learning does not require only mastering it as a school subject, but it needs as well a degree of involvement in the target language culture, which will to some extent, determine success in language learning.

Attitude in this model is regarded as an input and an outcome as is illustrated in this figure:

Gardner's Socio-educational Model
(Source; Colin Baker (1992: 3))

In his current version of the socio-educational model, Gardner (1985) pointes out repeatedly that motivation for language learning includes not only goal orientation, but also (1) a desire to learn the language (2) attitudes towards language learning situation and the

activity of language learning, and (3) effort expended for achieving such goals. In Gardner's model attitudes are referred to as a non-linguistic outcome along side bilingual proficiency. In the context of the present study, the outcome of attitudes is the application of effective learning strategies. Type and frequency of learning strategies use however, are determined by the type of students' motivation (integrative and/or instrumental).

Gardner's socio-educational model emphasises the understanding that languages, are unlike other school subjects; languages involve learning aspects of behaviour typical of another cultural group; as a consequence attitudes towards the target language community will, at least partially, determine success in language learning. Gardner's model also makes the distinction among the following points (1) Cultural beliefs arising from a social setting, (2) motivation as a source of individual differences in language learning, (3) formal and informal learning situation and (4) Linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes.

According to Baker (1992) there are three reasons why attitude is a central explanatory variable. First, the term appears to be part of the terminology system of many individuals. Second, a survey of attitudes provides an indicator of current community thoughts and beliefs, preferences and desires. Third, the importance of attitude as a concept lies in its continued and proven utility. However

attitude is a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behaviour. Attitudes can not be measured accurately or observed, they are hidden like emotions and feelings "attitudes are latent, inferred from direction and persistence of external behaviour. Attitudes are a convenient and an efficient way of explaining consistent patterns in behaviour, Attitudes often manage to summarise, explain and predict behaviour" (Baker 1992: 11). Attitudes in Gardner's model share the same position with motivation, however, motivation is a source of individual differences in language learning. According to Gardner, motivation can be of two types; integrative and instrumental.

II.iii. <u>INTEGRATIVE AND INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATION</u>

Integrative motivation has long been considered as one of the most supporting variables in language learning. Gardner is one of the pioneers in support of this model in second language learning. The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), (Gardner, 1985) has inspired many empirical studies in this field.

Most researchers, no doubt, agree on the central role of motivation in proficiency and achievement in language learning. Motivation is categorised as either integrative or instrumental. Integrative motivation is when learners wish to acquire a new language in order to identify with or become part of a new social or

cultural group. In other words, it leads to a process of acculturation to integrate oneself with the target culture and its people. This category of motivation enhances learning more deeply since it is a mental need. In contrast, instrumental motivation is characterised by a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantage through knowledge of a foreign or a second language.

McDonough (1981) points out that the traditional integrative concept includes two aspects (1) a general desire for wider social contact, and (2) a desire to belong to a certain community by acquiring the psychological characteristics of the group. Gardner's generalization is based on results of studies conducted in Montreal, London, Canada, Maine, Louisiana, and Connecticut (Gardner and Lambert 1972). In these studies the results indicate that a particular pattern of attitudinal motivational component facilitates second language acquisition. Students who emphasize that learning the second language will permit them to interact with the French speaking community tend to have positive attitudes towards the French, or favourable attitudes towards out groups in general. The students are motivated to learn French therefore they work harder. These students are more successful in learning French, because the major characteristic of this configuration appears to describe an interest in acquiring French for the purpose of integrating with the French speaking community.

In a later study, using the Attitude/Motivation Index (AMI), Gardner et al. (1985) investigate the multitrait multimethod validity of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery. In addition, the researchers make use of the laboratory procedure to examine the role of language aptitude and attitudinal/motivational attributes on the rate of learning French vocabulary. Subjects are 170 volunteers from an introductory psychology course. The results of their study show that attitude, motivation and language aptitude influence the rate at which second language material is learnt. Although both aptitude and attitudinal/motivational characteristics influence the rate of learning, the effect of aptitude seems to rest on the language abilities while those of attitudinal / motivational attributes rest on how well individuals react to the task.

In spite of all the ambiguities concerning the instrumental and integrative motivation, there is still a certain pattern of relationship between orientation and achievement that is established by earlier research (Gardner and Lambert 1972, Gardner 1985, Lukmani 1972, Spolsky 1969). This relationship, according to Clement and Kruidenier (1983), might vary as a result of the context in which learning takes place. According to them there are three aspects of the learning context that might be important in this regard. First, the ethnicity of the student might influence the reasons sustaining the interest in a second language. The learner shares with his ethnic group traditions, values, beliefs, habits, life style, etc. Second,
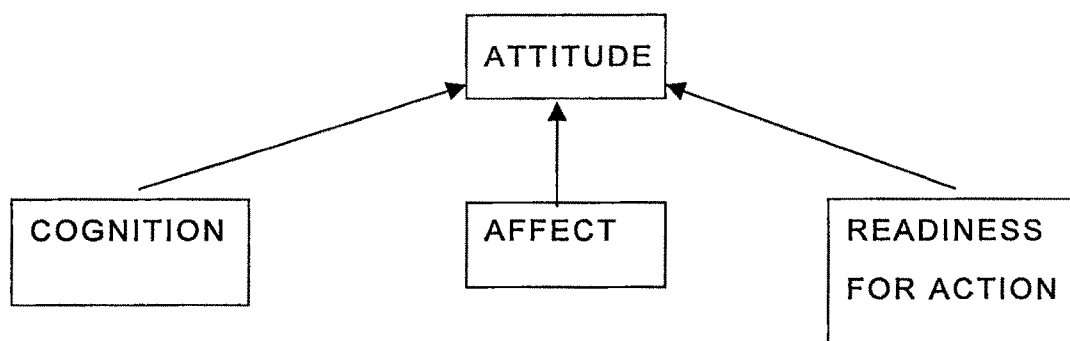
differences in orientation attributable to ethnicity should also vary as a function of the salience of the ethnic group membership. The speech style of a community is a representation of that group, and carries within its folds many features of the culture and customs of that ethnic group. Third, in addition to immediate contact, familiarity with the second language group (the target language group) might also vary as a function of its political-linguistic status. Furthermore they raise the possibility that certain factors related to environments have not yet been analyzed, which might also affect motivation. To support their theory with empirical data, they conducted a large scale survey in Canada investigating a variety of learning reasons in different samples defined as ethnicity, the learning milieu, and the target language. In their result, orientation proves to be common to all groups; (1) students learn a second language to travel, (2) to seek new friendships, (3) to acquire knowledge, (4) for instrumental purposes, and (5) a fifth factor, termed as socio-cultural orientation, emerges among Canadians learning Spanish, and not French or English.

Based on Clement and Kruidenier's (1983) approach, Dornyei (1990) conducted a survey investigating the learning of English in Hungary, a typical EFL environment. The study investigates 134 young adult Hangarian English language learners. The purpose of Dornyei's study is to define in a particular language milieu the relevance and characteristics of integrativeness and instrumentality.

The results of Dornyei's study support the findings of earlier research that learners with high level of instrumental motivation and need for achievement are more likely than others to attain an intermediate level of proficiency in the target language. The results also indicate that instrumental motives significantly contribute to motivation in Foreign Language Learning context in particular.

II.iv. ATTITUDES

Attitude, according to Baker (1992), is a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction of human behaviour. It cannot be measured accurately or observed, it is a hidden state of emotion and feelings. Baker (1992) follows Plato's classical explication of attitudes by distinguishing between the cognitive, affective and readiness for action as parts of attitudes. These distinctions are. First, the cognitive component concerns thoughts and beliefs. Second, the affective component concerns feelings towards the attitude object, those feelings may concern love or hate of the language, or an anxiety about learning a minority language. Third, the action component of attitudes concerns a readiness for action. It is a behavioral intention or plan of action under defined contexts and circumstances.

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                          │   ATTITUDE   │
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            ┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────────┐
            │  COGNITION   │  │  AFFECT  │  │  READINESS   │
            │              │  │          │  │  FOR ACTION  │
            └──────────────┘  └──────────┘  └──────────────┘
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(Source; Ajzen (1988); in Colin Baker 1992:13)

In this figure the foundation is made of the three components, cognition, affect and readiness for action. At a higher level of abstraction these components merge into a single construct of attitude. In the context of the present study cognition is not addressed, however, the other two parts of Baker's model (Affect and Readiness For Action) are addressed. Affect is considered in terms of liking or disliking of the English language, the native speakers of English, and English as a Second Language and its speakers in India. Readiness for action is addressed as the step that follows attitude change and not an integral part of it, characterised by the type of motivation students (integrative and /or instrument) have for language learning. The actions students take are characterised by language learning strategy use. Action in itself is manifested in the use of effective learning strategies which are directed by the type of motivation. Integrative motivation facilitates learning strategies that can help in establishing and maintaining social interaction. Instrumental motivation influences learning

strategies that can help in improving proficiency and competance for academic or professional fulfillment.

The learner's motivation for language learning is enhanced by his attitudes towards the other group in particular and towards foreign people in general. Language learning is also believed to be influenced by the type of motivation students may possess. Type of motivation may be a consequence of the student's attitudes towards learning the language and towards its native   and non-native speakers.

II.iv.i. ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE TARGET LANGUAGE AND ITS SPEAKERS

One of the key factors in language learning is the attitudes of the learner to the language and to its people. Spolsky (1969) in his study is concerned with finding out more about attitudes to the language and its speakers, by developing a tool that would compare a subject's attitudes to speakers of a foreign language in which he already has some degree of proficiency, with how he would like to be. Spolsky introduces in his design the identity scale, each scale requires the respondent to indicate how well a set of thirty adjectives describe (a) himself, (b) how he would like to be, (c) speakers of his native language, and (d) speakers of the target language. According to the results obtained, there is a positive

correlation between language proficiency and differences of the scores on the scales relating to self, native language group, and target language group. If subjects see themselves (or how they would like to be) more like speakers of their native language and less like speakers of the target language, they achieve lower levels of proficiency in English. However, if the way they describe themselves (how they would like to be) is close to the way they describe speakers of the target language, then, they are more proficient in the target language.

Following the steps of Spolsky, Oller, Jr. (1977) constructed four identity scales, each scale consists of adjectives in the form of unipolar semantic differential scales. They first asks subjects to rate themselves on the thirty scales. The second asks subjects to indicate how they would like to be on the same thirty scales. The third asks the subjects to rate Chinese people. The fourth ask them to rate American people. Subjects were Chinese speaking foreign students primarily studying at the graduate level in the U.S.A. It was hypothesized that positive attitudes, especially towards the target language group, would correspond to higher attainment in the target language, and negative attitudes, especially towards the target language group, would correspond to lower attainment in the target language. Oller, Jr. concludes that attitudes towards self and native language group are positively correlated with attained proficiency in ESL (English as a Second Language).

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) are of the opinion that the traditional approaches of motivation in ESL have shared to some extent two limiting factors. First, the major approaches have been social-psychological, and motivation has always been associated with the social aspect of attitudes towards speakers of that target language community and an interest in interacting with those speakers; in addition, to self-identification with the target language community. Second, the earlier research in second language learning tends to deal with attitudes and motivation together, in spite of the distinction made between cognition, motivation, and affect.

Stern (1983) further classifies the categories of attitudes of Gardner and Lambert (1972) in the context of second language learning into three types (1) attitudes towards the community and people who speak the second language (group specific attitudes), (2) attitudes towards learning the language concerned, (3) attitudes towards languages and language learning in general. These attitudes are influenced by the kind of personality of the learner, and by the social setting in which learning takes place; for example, different attitudes may be found in monolingual and bilingual contexts. Brown (1981) also uses the term attitudes to refer to the set of beliefs that the learner holds towards members of the target language group, and also towards his own culture.

II.v. <u>ATTITUDES AND MOTIVATION ARE THEY RELATED?</u>

In spite of the superficial similarities between attitudes and motivation, they are however distinct when their actual influence on language learning is considered. Newcomb (1950) suggests a two fold difference between attitude and motive. First, motives have an existing drive state (drive is what makes us act) attitudes do not, although they may produce drives. Second, attitudes are object specific, they can not be generalised to other objects or situation, motives are goal specific. However, McGuire (1985) has a different opinion in terms of the distinction made between attitudes and motivation. "Distinction deserves to be made only insofar as they make a difference, such that the distinguished variables related differently to third variables of interest" (241).

Even though attitudes are object specific, they are distinct from opinion. Colin Baker (1992) gives his distinctions between attitudes and opinion in three points. First, opinion can be defined as an overt belief without an effective reaction as a result of any particular opinion. On the other side attitudes contain affective reactions toward the object of the attitudes, reaction that can determine the course of action or behaviour. Second, opinions are verbalised, conveyed verbally, while attitudes are conveyed by non-

verbal and verbal processes. Third, opinion surveys and attitude surveys are different. Opinion poll shave wide considerations, hence they play as indicators of the viewpoints of a population, while attitude surveys have an individual focus, seeking to understand human functioning and behaviour; attitude surveys also focus on the relationship of attitudes to a variety of other variables.

Ellis (1985) discusses the use of attitudes and motivation by Schumann (1978), Brown (1978), Gardner and Lambert (1972), and Gardner (1985), and concludes that "there is no general agreement about what precisely "motivation" or "attitudes" consist of, nor of the relationship between the two. This is entirely understandable given the abstractness of these concepts, but it makes it difficult to compare theoretical propositions" (117).

In view of the earlier literature and due to the difference in opinion in regard to differences and similarities between attitudes and motivation, in the present study, the researcher attempts to deal with these two variables as two separate and distinct variables. The researcher also attempts to examine the relationship between attitudes and motivation with the different components they include. The researcher adopts Gardner's (1979) view that attitudes are related to motivation by serving as support of the learners overall disposition towards learning English. Gardner and Lambert (1972) define motivation in terms of the second language learner's overall

goal, and attitude the persistence shown by the learner in striving for a goal. They argue that there is no reason to expect a relationship between the two : the type of motivation is distinct from the attitudes displayed to different learning tasks or situations.

II.vi. LEARNING STRATEGIES

. Research in second language learning strongly suggests that good language learners use a variety of strategies to assist them in gaining command over new language skills. Appropriate learning strategies underlie the performance of good language learners. Similarly, inappropriate learning strategies account for the frequent failure of poor language learners and even the occasional weaknesses of the good learners. Inappropriate strategy use occurs when learners fail to apply strategies appropriate to the task at hand. These learners often lack certain metacognitive strategies or self-regulatory skills. Use of appropriate learning strategies enables students to take responsibility for their own learning by enhancing learner autonomy, independence, and self-direction. These factors are important because learners need to keep on learning even when they are no longer in a formal classroom setting.

Cognitive psychology shows that learning strategies help learners to assimilate new information into their existing mental structure, thus creating increasingly rich and complex structures. As

learners move forward toward language proficiency and competence, language learners develop their own understandings or models of the second language and its surrounding culture. Unlike most other characteristics of the learner, such as aptitude, attitude, motivation, personality and general cognitive styles, learning strategies can be taught.

Learning strategies are operations or steps employed by the learner to help in the acquisition, storage or retrieval of information (Rigney 1978, Dansereau 1978). Learning strategies of good language learners once identified and successfully taught to less competent learners, could have the potential for enhancing the development of second language learning skills. Whereas, inherent developmental and experiential factors are primarily responsible for first language learning. Learning strategies are seen to play a vital role in performance in learning a second language. Bialystock (1971) acknowledges the importance of learning strategies and she includes four categories of learning strategies in her model of second language learning; inferencing, monitoring, formal practicing, and functional practicing. In this model, learning strategies are defined as "Optional means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a second language" (71). Research on learning strategies is based on the assertion that strategies begin as declarative knowledge that can become

proceduralised with practice leading to learner's autonomy in language learning.

II.vi.i. <u>TYPES OF LEARNER'S KNOWLEDGE</u>

The type of strategy used by the learner will depend on the type of knowledge required for a given task. Bialystock (1978) discusses three types of knowledge. First, implicit linguistic knowledge. Second, explicit linguistic knowledge. Third, general knowledge of the world. She hypothesizes that inferencing may be used with implicit linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world, whereas monitoring, formal practicing and functional practicing contribute to both the explicit and implicit linguistic knowledge. Strategies introduced explicitly in a formal setting can contribute to implicit linguistic knowledge and therefore to students' ability to comprehend and produce spontaneous language.

According to Bialystock and Ryan (Bialystock, 1985) the analysis of knowledge into structured categories describes the extent to which the learner is able to represent the structure of knowledge along with its context. They are also of the view that the progress in the mastery of a first or a second language reflects the learners increasing competence with two skill components, which are the ability to analyse knowledge into explicit structured categories, and the ability to select and apply information in the
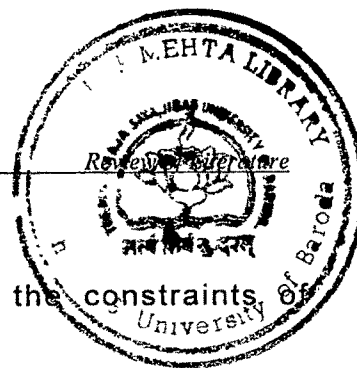
solution to specific problems, especially under the constraints of time or distracting contexts.

Faerch and Kasper (1983) refer to the learners knowledge as of two types; declarative and procedural. First, Declarative knowledge is "knowing that". It consists of internalised second language rules and chunks of information on language. Second, Procedural knowledge is "knowing how", it consists of the strategies and procedures employed by the learner to process second language data for acquisition and for use. The distinction between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge has both theoretical and practical importance in second language learning. Knowing about language as a grammatical system, which involves knowing the rules underlying syntax, semantics, and phonology, is not a sufficient condition for knowing how to use the language functionally. In order to use language for communicative purposes, procedural knowledge is required.

Procedural knowledge can be subdivided into social and cognitive components. The social component comprises the behavioural strategies used by the learner to manage interactional opportunities. The cognitive component of procedural knowledge comprises the various mental processes involved in interacting and automizing new second language knowledge and in using second language knowledge in conjunction with other sources of knowledge

to communicate in the second language. These processes involve both learning and using the second language.

The key to the effectiveness of learning strategies is the special kind of mental activity the strategies promote. Wittrock's generative model of reading comprehension describes this activity and suggests a set of components that largely account for learning through text processing. Listening comprehension, a receptive process like reading, would follow similar rules as in Wittrock's model. Wittrock's first component, generative processing, suggests that learning is most effective when it involves processes that create meaning by building relations between the text and what we know (Wittrock, Marks, and Doctrow, 1975). Meaning is generated by relating parts of a narrative to each other or to information already stored in memory; it is produced by the interaction between the person and the information received. Wittrock notes that effective comprehension also entails motivation or willingness to invest effort in reading or listening, and an ability to attribute success and failure to one's own effort.

II.vi.ii. CLASSIFICATION OF LEARNING STRATEGIES

Research by (Rubin 1975, 1981; Stern 1975; O'Malley et. al. 1985; O'Malley and Chamot 1990; Oxford 1990) shows that learning strategies are steps taken to facilitate acquisition, storage, retrieval

and use of information, which are seen as factors that influence proficiency. Individualised instructions and learning style analyses have become major concerns in education over the past twenty years or so, in response to student's problems of different approaches to learning.

Learning strategies are approaches consciously employed by the learner to relate knowledge sources to language outcomes. Strategies are used to learn the language system, to express meaning and to derive meaning from language input. All these aspects are important and may be said to comprise the goal of language learning. The systematic features of language must be perceived as the means of expressing and retrieving meanings. Learning strategies describe the way in which these goals may be achieved more effectively.

Research on the "good language learner" by Rubin (1975); Stern (1975); O'Malley et.al. (1985); Nayak, Hansen, Krueger and Mclaughlin (1990), confirms that students do apply learning strategies while learning a second language and that these strategies can be described and classified. Rubin proposes a classification scheme that subsumes learning strategies under two broad categories; **strategies that directly affect learning (clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/ inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, and practicing), and**

those which directly contribute to language learning (creating practice opportunities and using production tricks such as communication strategies).

Another important finding from these studies is the formulation of learning strategies in an information processing theoretical model. This model includes an executive or metacognitive function, in addition to an operative or cognitive-processing function. Metacognitive strategies involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring of comprehension or production while it is taking place, and self-evaluation of learning after the language activity is completed. Cognitive strategies are more directly related to individual learning tasks and entail direct manipulation or transformation of the learning material (Brown and Palicar, 1982). In an attempt to refine definition of strategy and to investigate the application of learning strategies, O'Malley et.al. (1983) carried out a two phase study by addressing several questions. Issues raised include: what is the range of learning strategies in second language learning and acquisition?, how can the strategies be classified? and, with what frequency do the respective strategy groupings occur for individual language tasks by beginning and intermediate-level second language learner?. Other issues addressed are: can metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective learning strategies be taught successfully to second language learners in a natural teaching environment with tasks of

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varying complexity?. The two phases of the study correspond to each major question;

(1)   Descriptive phase: involves interviews with high school level ESL students and their teachers in order to identify the range and type of strategies used by students at beginning and intermediate levels of English proficiency.

(2)   Training phase: involves random assignment of a group of high school ESL students to one of two treatment groups instructed on strategies associated with vocabulary, listening, and speaking tasks.

The results of their study reveal that in the first phase both beginning and intermediate level high school ESL students are able to describe their use of a wide range of learning strategies with specific language tasks and that a classification can be made for the strategies using the distinction between metacognitive and cognitive, and socio-affective strategies. Another important result is that the skills in speaking second language can clearly improve through learning strategies training.

Two classes of learning strategies are distinguished by Dansereau (1978). First, strategies used to operate directly on the materials. Second, strategies used to operate on the individual in order to maintain a suitable internal psychological climate. Through primary strategies learners are able to identify the important,

difficult and unfamiliar portions of the material, apply techniques to comprehend and retain this material, and subsequently recall and use the acquired information under appropriate circumstances. These strategies can help the learner in identification, comprehension, retention, retrieval and utilization. Support strategies enable learners to adopt an appropriate learning attitude, and devise methods for coping with loss of concentration due to the presence of distractions, fatigue, frustration, or the like.

Wenden's work (1983) on self-directed learning falls within the category of metacognitive strategies. Wenden interviewed adult language learners to identify self-directed language learning activities in a variety of social settings. Wenden concludes that self-directed activities can be characterised by eight questions learners might pose to themselves. Each question has a corresponding decision in Wenden's framework. These eight questions and decisions can be classified within three of the four designators indentified by Brown (1982) under metacognitive strategies: knowledge about cognition, planning, monitoring, and self-evaluation.

KNOWLEDGE ABOUT COGNITION

- Question : How does this
  language work ?

- Decision : Learners make judgement about the linguistic and socio-linguistic codes.

- Question : What's it like to learn a language ?

- Decision: Learners make judgements about how to learn a language and about what language learning is like.

PLANNING

- Question : What should I learn and how?

- Decision: Learners decide upon linguistic objectives, resources, and use of resources.

- Question : What should I emphasize ?

- Decision: Learners decide to give priority to special linguistic items.

- Question : How should I change ?

- Decision: Learners decide to change their approach to language learning.

SELF EVALUATION

- Question : How am I doing ?

- Decision: Learners determine how well they use the language and diagnose their needs.

- Question : What am I getting out of this?

- Decision: Learners · determine if an activity or strategy is useful.

- Question : How am I responsible for learning ? How is language learning affecting me ?

- Decision: Learners make judgements about how to learn a language and about what language learning is like.

The eight questions characterising self-directed learning presented by Wenden all fit conveniently within the categories identified by Brown for metacognitive strategies. However, Brown's monitoring category has no counterpart in Wenden's scheme, suggesting that the type of spontaneous evaluation and correction of production found in monitoring is not a critical component in the learner's awareness of self-directed language learning. This idea is consistent with Krashen's view (1977) of monitoring as being of limited value in language production. Krashen believes that monitoring occurs when individuals apply specific rules learnt in formal instruction to their oral or written language. Students with more exposure to the second language would be expected to have acquired greater familiarity with spontaneous responses, but may also have learnt formal rules that can be used to correct the responses. The monitoring activities nevertheless occur frequently, ·

especially in speaking, because overuse interferes with communication.

Rubin (1981) identifies learning strategies through a variety of procedures. These procedures include observation and videotapes of classrooms, observations of tutorial situations, student's self-report, strip stories, self-report diaries, and directed diaries. Rubin reports on three disadvantages of this procedure; (a) the observations are not very productive, since teachers focus on getting correct answers and not on the process by which students derive the answers; (b) some students are better able to describe strategies than others; and (c) most students need to be tutored to report on their learning strategies. Most of Rubin's more productive reports are derived from diary accounts of sophisticated second language learners.

Based on her analysis, Rubin (1981) classifies learning strategies in the following manner.

PROCESSES WHICH CONTRIBUTE DIRECTLY TO LANGUAGE LEARNING

Clarification / Verification : The learner asks for examples of how to use a word or expression, asks for the correct form to use, etc.

Monitoring	:	The learner corrects his own or others pronunciation, Vocabulary, grammar, style or usage with respect to appropriateness for the setting.
Memorization	:	The learner attempts to acquire words or other language elements through associations designed to assist storage and retrieval.
Guessing / Inductive Inferencing	:	The learner uses hunches derived from clues to guess meaning or to guess general rules, as in using clues from the surrounding language context or from an item's repeated use in different contexts.
Deductive reasoning	:	The learner looks for and uses general rules, such as looking for rules of co-occurrence or applying grammatical rules.
Practice	:	Leaner experiments with new sounds, uses a mirror for practice, drills self on words in different forms, makes use of new words in speaking.

PROCESSES WHICH CONTRIBUTE INDIRECTLY TO LANGUAGE LEARNING :

Creating opportunities for
Practice   : The Leaner creates situations with native speakers to practice, spends extra time in language lab, etc.

Production tricks   : The learner uses communication strategies, such as circumlocution, a synonym, a cognate, gestures, or speaking more slowly.

Nida (1957) suggests that "One can practice thinking in a foreign language by making up imaginary conversations, constructing speeches, or recalling what one has heard or read in the foreign language. Even though one's vocabulary may be limited, it is very important to experiment in formulating one's thinking by using the words and expressions of the language being acquired" (24). Although it seems that a distinction has been made between good and poor language learner, there is counter evidence for the claim that unsuccessful learners are inactive. Vann and Abraham (1990) carried out a study that combines methods to probe the strategies of two unsuccessful learners. Two Saudi Arabian women enrolled in an academically oriented intensive English programme, when viewed through the task demand model they emerged as

active strategy users, though they sometimes applied strategies inappropriately. **Sometimes the poor language learner does not lack the strategy of a good language learner. However, they may be lacking certain necessary higher order processes which may enable them apply the strategy that is appropriate for the task at hand.**

For the purpose of the present study, the researcher defines learning strategies as steps and techniques devised by the learner for facilitating learning of English, for relating various sources of knowledge, and for manipulating and creating opportunities for language use. These steps may be employed consciously even though the learner may not be aware of the alternatives for a particular strategy, strategies could be adjusted to suit the purpose of achieving a certain goal in the learner's mind.

The source of all the lists of learning strategies in the literature has been, and still is, the learner himself. Learners have been using learning strategies in a less observed manner. Previous research (Rubin 1975; Stern 1975; O'Malley 1985) focus on identifying and classifying language learning strategies in different, yet largely similar categories. In this study an assumption is made that the subjects do use learning strategies for enhancing English language learning in the Indian ESL context. To what extent these strategies correlate with other important variables for language

learning, such as attitudes, motivation and communicative competence is the focus of this investigation.

Many types of strategies are used by "successful" language learners. One important category is the metacognitive for organizing, focusing and evaluating learning and for seeking practice opportunities. Use of these strategies along with the cognitive strategies such as analysing, reasoning, transferring information, taking notes, and summarising might be considered part of any operational definition of truly effective learning. Another type of strategy is affective strategies for managing emotions, attitudes and motivation.

From a social perspective, motivation emerges as a key determinant of frequency and type of strategy use. Besides, a multitude of situational and personal factors have their influence on the learning process, including gender (Oxford, Nyikos and Ehrman 1988), attitudes and motivation (Gardner 1985), and anxiety (MacIntyre and Gardner 1991).

Oxford and Crookall (1989) have viewed the literature on strategy use. The results of the studies show that strategies are used by students at all levels; more proficient students use different strategies from less proficient students ; strategy use is associated with motivation, gender ethnicity, cognitive style and other

personality variables. Variables such as gender and ethnicity are listed by Oxford as determinants of strategy use, but their influence may be clearly understood through the attitudinal, motivational and learning style differences generally associated with gender and ethnicity. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) suggest, however, that motivation emerges as the most important of the learner variables, with highly motivated students using more strategies. Nyikos and Oxford (1993) carried out a study on the strategy use of 1200 under-graduate language students. Results reveal that the strategies closely associated with the development of communicative competence are rarely used. Especially, functional practice strategies, or the active social use of the new language in real communicative situations.
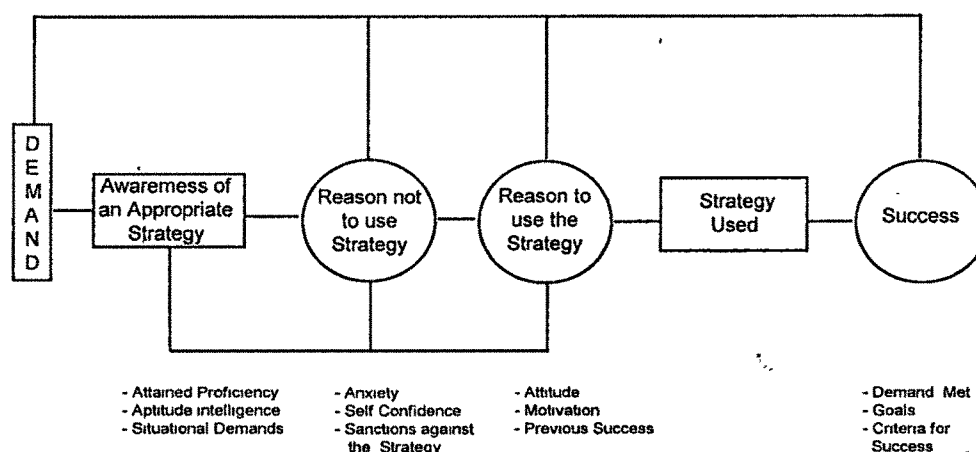
Socio-cultural theory can provide explanatory frame work for understanding and refining the notion of how learners become competent members of a language learning community. Donato and McCormick (1994) argue that emergence of strategies is a process directly connected to the practices of cultural groups through which novices develop into competent members of these communities. They assert that learning about strategies should not be understood only in terms of direct instruction; rather, they are developed in communities of practice where individuals initially inexperienced and unaware, are apprenticed into full participation into the sociocultural practices of the community in which they live. To achieve any

objective, actions are required, and these actions are always goal directed. Language learning strategies are, therefore, action motivated by specific objectives and are instrumental to fulfilling specific goals. **Different strategies may be employed to achieve one goal, such as guessing meaning from context, reading target language newspapers, or using a bilingual dictionary to improve reading comprehension or communicative competence or strengthening vocabulary powers. Conversely, different goals may be achieved by one action. In other words, different language objectives may be achieved by a particular strategy, such as, talking to members of the target language community for improving communicative competence using newly learned vocabulary and establishing rapport with target language community.**

MacIntyre (1994) proposes a model for language learning strategies in which we must consider anxiety, cognitive style, self-esteem, attitudes and motivation in conjunction with the demands of the situation.

In his opinion, at least four conditions must be met before language learning strategies can be employed. First, students must be aware of the appropriate strategy or a range of strategies. Hence, strategy must be intentional and freely chosen. Thus, students must be aware of the strategy before it can be used.

Social Psychological Influences on Strategy Use


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┌─────┐   ┌──────────┐   ╭─────────╮   ╭─────────╮   ┌──────────┐   ╭─────────╮
│ D   │   │Awaremess │   │Reason not│   │Reason to│   │ Strategy │   │ Success │
│ E   │   │of an     │   │to use    │   │use the  │   │ Used     │   │         │
│ M   │───│Appropriate│──│Strategy  │──│Strategy │───│          │───│         │
│ A   │   │Strategy  │   ╰─────────╯   ╰─────────╯   └──────────┘   ╰─────────╯
│ N   │   └──────────┘
│ D   │
└─────┘
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- Attained Proficiency   - Anxiety   - Attitude   - Demand Met
- Aptitude intelligence   - Self Confidence   - Motivation   - Goals
- Situational Demands   - Sanctions against   - Previous Success   - Criteria for
                              the Strategy   Success

Source (Macintyre 1994 : 192)

Second, there must be sufficient motivation to use a strategy. This would include having a positive attitude about it, having an appropriate opportunity to use a particular strategy. Third, students should not have a reason not to use a strategy. Fourth, a strategy used should be reinforced by positive consequences, a strategy is likely to be used frequently if it facilitates learning or communication. Before a strategy is used MacIntyre suggests that, students must have sufficient motivation to use the strategy and not have significant apprehension about its use. These two decisions are represented in his model and may depend on several affective factors, such as attitudes towards the learning situation, desire to learn the language, motivation, language anxiety, attitudes towards the target language group, and other related factors (see Clement 1987; Gardner 1985. Oxford and Nyikos 1989; MacIntyre 1994).

II.vii. **THE NOTION OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE**

The concept of "competence" as expanded by Chomsky (1965) is an idealization, an abstraction of the ideal native speaker - learner in a homogeneous society. Competence may be expressed as a system of rules that relate to semantic interpretation of these signals.   A   predominant   part   of   the   theory   of   competence concentrates on the creative aspect of language use.   Stalker (1989) observes that "communicative competence is that part of our language knowledge which enables us to choose the communicative system we wish to use, and when that selected system is language, to connect the goals and contexts of the situation with the structure which we have available in our linguistic reportoire through functional choices at the pragmatic level.   In making these selections, language users accommodate linguistic features both consciously and unconsciously in order to adjust the social distance between the producer and the receiver"(182). When language users accommodate their language for public use, they will make unconscious adjustments in those linguistic features which are socially diagnostic, acceptable and incorporate regional and social distinctions in order to fulfil the communicative function of establishing an appropriate public social distance.

According to the widely accepted theory of Canale and Swain (1980), communicative competence can be explained in terms of

three competencies: grammatical competence, socio-linguistic competence and strategic competence. Grammatical competence involves knowledge of the language code (grammar rules, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, etc.). Socio-linguistic competence consists of two sets of rules, socio-linguistic rules and rules of discourse. Socio-linguistic rules specify ways of using language appropriately in a given situation: they are concerned with style, register, degree of politeness, and so on. Rules of discourse concern the combining of language structures to produce unified texts in different modes - for example: political speech, an academic paper, etc. Strategic competence is defined by Canale and Swain (1980) as "verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for break downs in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence" (30). In other words, strategic competence refers to the ability to get one's meaning across successfully to communicative partners especially when problems arise in the communicative process.

Being able to recognize and produce grammatically correct sentences in a language, and comprehend the meaning potential, is something a language learner must possess. When a language is being learnt the learner must aim at developing not just grammatical competence but communicative competence as well - language structure and language function, and the capacity to assign social

meaning to the linguistic structure. Acquisition of communicative competence however, involves acquiring the ability to perceive and categorise the situation and its experiences. It is a reflection of implicit knowledge or competence both grammatical and functional within the developmental matrix.

Language learning - second language - begins at a later stage, when language performance has attained a certain level. **Acquiring a second language, after we have already attained verbal behaviours in its native speech manifestation, is a matter of the extension of existing skills rather than relearning a whole new set of skills from the start. It involves extending and expanding the innate linguistic universals.** A culture entails a complex message system, and presupposes that its members share certain common behaviours, linguistic and social - that would enable them to interact effectively.

For achieving communicative competence, learners can benefit greatly from knowledge and application of appropriate and effective learning strategies. All appropriate language learning strategies are oriented towards the goal of communicative competence. Some language learning strategies are useful for communicative competence in general. Oxford, et al. (1989) make an attempt to identify learning strategies that contribute the most to communicative competence. They observe that metacognitive

strategies such as paying attention and self - monitoring enable learners to focus, plan and evaluate their progress as they move towards communicative competence; affective strategies, a requirement for attaining communicative competence to enable the learner to develop self confidence. Social strategies provide increased interaction and understanding, two qualities necessary to attain communicative competence.

Through the proceeding discussion at past research it is evident that attitudes and motivation play a central role in 2L and FL Language learning. It is also evident that language learners use a variety of language learning strategies. However, the relationship between attitudes and motivation on the one and learning strategies on the other hand are not as clear. **Given the fact that attitudes and motivation are important for language learning, they do not in themselves involve actual learning. Actual learning takes place when attitudes and motivation result in real and tangible effort for achieving proficiency and command in the English language. Therefore, the present study refers to attitudes and motivation in terms of the resulting steps students take for learning English. The researcher perceives learning strategies as an advancement of attitudes and motivation to the practical level of actual learning by using self-devised learning strategies.**