

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

There is a great deal of research on the problems hindering the learning of English in Malaysia as the Malaysian educational authorities often highlight the low proficiency of rural students. This chapter will discuss issues that are related to this study and provide some literature pertaining to the factors affecting the acquisition of a second language. This chapter will be organized under the following headings: 1) Factors or variables identified as causing problems to the learning of English 2) Models of second language acquisition and 3) Conclusion.

2.1 Factors or variables which affect the learning of the second language

Language learning involves a complex interplay of personal and social variables (see 2.2). Two such variables are attitude and motivation. Factors found to be associated with the low proficiency of English among students include negative attitudes towards the learning of English, lack of motivation, limited exposure to the target language and peer pressure. Therefore, some relevant literature pertaining to the above factors will be discussed in this chapter.

2.1.1 Attitudes

Attitudes towards the target language and attitudes towards the people and culture will be discussed.

2.1.1.1 Attitudes towards the Language

There are numerous studies on how attitudes towards a language can affect the learning of a second language. Gardner and Lambert (1959) show how success in language learning is related to attitudinal variables like the attitudes towards the language being learnt and towards the speakers of that language and culture. A study on Grade 8 and 9 Jewish students carried out by Ainsfield and Lambert (1961) shows that the achievement level of Hebrew is related to the scores of attitude tests. These tests actually measure the students' reasons for learning Hebrew and their attitude towards the Jewish culture and society. The scores show that there is a relationship between their attitude and proficiency in Hebrew. Spolsky (1969) also studies the relationship between proficiency of second language and attitude of the students towards the language learnt of 315 foreign students from different backgrounds studying in America. He also discovers a profound relationship between attitudes of the students towards English and their grades in English. This again proves the importance of attitude as one of the factors responsible for the proficiency achievement of a student learning a second language.

In Malaysia, Subramaniam (1976) studies 120 Form 5 Malay-medium students from rural and urban schools in Selangor. He discovers that students with a positive attitude towards the study of English perform better. Students in urban areas have a more positive attitude towards the learning of English compared to students in rural areas. Hence it is interesting to note that the findings, both in rural and urban areas in Malaysia, validate the foreign findings.

However, a number of foreign studies also show a low correlation between attitudes and achievement. Oller et al (1977) studies the relationship between attitudes and proficiency level among Japanese students of English. He discovers that there is a low correlation between attitude and proficiency in learning English. He also studied 182 foreign students learning English at the Center of English in the University of South Illinois in Carbondale, Illinois. The result shows a low correlation between attitudes towards English language and second language proficiency. In Hong Kong, Pierson et.al (1980) analyzes the relationship between English proficiency and attitudes towards English among Chinese secondary students and indicates that low English proficiency is not due to attitudinal measures.

In Malaysia too, some local studies support the low correlation between attitudes and language attainment. Jayatilaka (1982) who studies 132-second year students in Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) finds that a negative attitude held by some of the students towards the learning of English does not adversely affect successful second language learning. Similarly, Chandrasegaran (1979) studies the upper Secondary Malay-medium students and shows that there is a low correlation between proficiency and attitudes towards the English Language. His subjects consist of both urban and rural students and a weak correlation between attitudes and proficiency towards English is indicated in both cases. Similiarly studies by Anie Attan (1982) at Universiti Technology Malaysia (UTM) and Subrayan (1986) from Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM) also show a weak relationship between English attainment and the attitudes of the

students towards English. Overall, one can conclude that all these studies show a weak relationship between the attitudes of learners and their proficiency level in English.

There is also no correlation between foreign language performance and the learners' interest and liking for these languages. Carroll (1965:5) said, "Whether or not a person likes foreign language study is not related significantly to achievement". Similarly Teitelbaum et al (1975) finds no significant correlation between the measures of attitudes and attainment after conducting a study of 116 Spanish students at the University of Mexico. The outcome of this research shows data in attitudes are unsuccessful in predicting second language proficiency.

2.1.1.2 Attitudes towards English speaking groups and their culture

Several researchers like Mueller & Miller (1970 cited in Gardner, 1985) and Mueller (1971 cited in Gardner 1985) assert that attitudes towards French speaking people correlate with grades in French. Students with positive attitudes towards the French have higher proficiency levels in French. This is supported by a study by Jacobsen and Imhoof (1974) who find that the positive attitude of 600 Protestant missionaries towards the Japanese community, living in Japan contributed to their success in mastering Japanese. Other studies include Oller & etc (1977) whose subjects are 44 native speakers of Chinese in America, 30 from the University of Mexico and 14 from the University of Texas. They discover that a positive attitude towards the target group positively correlates with second language proficiency.

However, other studies, for example, Teitelbaum et al (1975)'s study of the students in New Mexico asserts that a positive attitude towards the local Chicana community does not affect their successful acquisition of Spanish. Chichana & Oller (1978) also find a weak correlation between factors from attitude measures and EFL proficiency when they try to assess attitudes of Japanese students towards themselves as Japanese who speak English. This has also been confirmed by local research by Anie (1982) and Chandrasegan (1979). The latter studies Form Five students in Johore and shows that there is no relationship between English language proficiency of the students and their attitude towards English speaking groups and their cultures. Subrayan (1986) studies first year undergraduates at the Islamic Faculty of UKM and finds students have a negative attitude towards English speaking group and that there is a weak correlation between attitude and language achievement. In addition, Sathiadevi (1996) who carries out a survey on the proficiency of ESL among 20 Form Four Indian students from rural and urban schools finds no relationship between English proficiency level and attitude towards the English speaking group and their culture. Hamida (1996) who conducted a survey on Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM) matriculation students and also asserts that there is no correlation between attitude toward English speaking people, culture and language proficiency affirms this.

2.1.2 Motivation

Motivation can be considered as a good predictor of success in second language learning as shown by both local and overseas studies. Gardner & Lambert (1979) were pioneers who equated integrative motivation as necessary for the mastery of language proficiency.

Theivanathampillai & Baba's (1984) extensive study on 295 fifth formers or Grade 2 students taken from 7 schools in Fiji shows the role of motivation in the learning of English. There is a significant correlation between the intensity of motivation and proficiency level. Students with greater motivational intensity perform better compared to students with low intensity.

In Malaysia, Subramaniam (1976) finds that urban and rural students differ greatly in motivational intensity, as the language environment is different. The rural students with lower motivational intensity fare very poorly in performance. However, Chandrasegan (1979)'s study in Johore shows no difference between urban and rural students as far as intensity of motivation is concerned in the learning of a second language.

2.1.2.1 Instrumental motivation and performance

Researchers show that instrumental motivation is important in successful second language learning. Gardner and Lambert (1972) discover this in Philippines where English is rarely spoken at home but is used as a language of education and commerce. They find that students are instrumentally motivated to learn English and they are successful in developing proficiency in English. Fatimy & Biltori (1992) also conduct a study of TEFL (Teaching English as foreign language) undergraduate students. These students in the Sultanate of Oman are positive towards the use of English and obtained better grades as they see the need to do so, as to help their country forge forward in development. This is supported by Lukmani's (1972) survey on Marathi speaking high school students in India .She finds that the proficiency score in English correlates

significantly with instrumental motivation. Chihana and Oller (1978) who examine Japanese adult speakers of English also find that instrumental motivation is an important predictor of proficiency in English. Shaw (1982) discovers the final year students from Singapore, Bangladesh and Hyderabad students' performance in English is related to instrumental motivation. Genesee (1978) as cited in Subrayan (1986) studies Grade 6 – 11 Anglophones in Quebec learning French. It is reported that students instrumentally motivated to learn French are more successful than those integratively motivated. In addition, Lyczak, Fu and Ho (1976) in their studies of the Chinese students in Hong Kong also find that students associate English with prestige and competence and hence are instrumentally motivated. Overall instrumental motivation does affect the learning of a language positively.

In Malaysia Subramanian (1976) and Jayatilaka (1982) also conclude that instrumental motivation is important in the study of English, as interest is generated in the studying of English if one can make use of the language. In fact, Subramanian examines 240 Form Five pupils while Jayatilaka studies 132 second year students in USM and both reveal that instrumentally motivated students score higher in English proficiency tests.

However, a local study by Sathiadevi (1996) who carried out a survey of 120 Form four Indian students from rural and urban schools concludes that though a majority of students are instrumentally motivated to learn English, motivation does not correlate with English proficiency.

2.1.2.2 Integrative motivation and performance

There are many studies by Gardner and Lambert (1979) showing the importance of integrative motivation. The first study (1959) was carried out on the Montreal Canadian English speaking high school students who were studying French. The students were assessed for their language learning aptitude and intelligence as well as attitude toward the French community and intensity of motivation to learn French. Both Gardner and Lambert (1979) assert that language proficiency depends on aptitude and intelligence as well as sympathetic orientation towards the French community. In Montreal, students integratively motivated are more successful than those instrumentally motivated. Gardner (1960) follows up this study using a larger sample of English Canadians. He reconfirms that better learners of French are those integratively motivated. Gardner (1960) also conducts studies outside Canada. In America, 142 high school students studying French in Hartford, Connecticut are his subjects. Here, again it appears that integrative motivation led to successful attainment of French.

2.1.2.3 Instrumental and integrative motivation and proficiency

Many foreign studies show that both instrumental and integrative motivations are important for the success in learning English. Mueller (1971) investigates students at the University of Kentucky and shows that both types of motivation are equally important. In addition, Segeram (1983) evaluates the attitudes on proficiency of English (as second Language) of 113 upper secondary English medium native Malay speakers in a Singaporean school and asserts that integrative motivation is important to Singaporean Malay learners of ESL irrespective of their scores. English is instrumentally important for

economic and academic reasons and it is integratively important for its pleasant sound and aesthetic values. Svanes (1987) investigates motivation and culture distances in second language acquisition of Norwegians where 176 foreign students from the University of Bergen, Norway are the subjects. The three groups namely, European and Americans, Asians and Middle East Africans are motivated differently. They may not possess equally either integrative or instrumental motivations yet successfully can acquire the target language.

Similarly, there are some local studies showing that both types of motivation are important for success in the learning of a second language. A study by Vijchulata & Gan (1995) who examine a thousand undergraduates from all faculties in UPM shows that the students are integratively and instrumentally motivated and this greatly affects their proficiency.

However, all the above studies show that motivation, regardless of whether it is integrative or instrument in nature, does help in the learning of a language. A learner need not possess both types of motivation to succeed in the attainment of language proficiency.

Six current studies might be helpful in a better understanding of motivation as an element in learning a second language. Clement and Kruuidenur (1985) add three socio cultural factors in motivation for second language acquisition for example, knowledge, friendship and travel to instrumental motivation. Crookes & Schwidst (1991) outline motivational

features focussing more on classroom materials, syllabus and activities outside class. Dornyei (1994) uses three additional constructs i.e. language level, teacher and learning situation in his study. All these constructs correspond to different aspects of language for example, social dimension, personal and education. Oxford & Shearin (1994) add four aspects of psychology to motivation that is, general, industrial, education and cognitive development in the study of high school Japanese students. Clement, Dornyei and Noels (1994) identify a tripartite second language motivation including integrative motivation, self-confidence, and appraisal of the teaching environment in their study of Grade 2 students in Budapest. Another recent study carried out by Gardner and Trembalay (1994) investigates students enrolled in a Francophone secondary school in Ontario. The study investigates the relationship of new measures of motivation including persistence, goal specificity and intention. All these studies show that motivation is complex and dynamic and together with attitudes plays an important role in successful language learning.

2.1.3 Exposure and proficiency achievement

Language acquisition takes place when the students have exposure to the target language in formal (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993) as well as informal contexts. Students can receive varying degrees of language input for practice. Research shows that the positive influence of exposure helps in the attainment of English language proficiency. Studies by Hale and Budar (1970) on the immigrant non- native speakers in Honolulu show that language exposure is related to language proficiency .Of the two groups of students, one is able to attain a high degree of proficiency in the use of English due to the immersion in English culture and mixing with English speakers. They are also isolated from the native tongue.

In contrast, the other group that has limited exposure to the target language and speaks the target language only in social situations has a lower English proficiency. It is interesting to note that a study conducted by Seliger (1977) on adult ESL students in an intensive program also produces a similar result. Learners active in using the target language and interacting more with target language speakers are more proficient. Fillmore (1991) who has a model of language learning where a social context or setting for interaction is outlined replicates such a study. In this case the immigrant families in United States are examples of people residing in a setting that provides exposure to language use; hence they can speak the target language.

On the other hand, findings from several studies reveal that low exposure to target language leads to low level of proficiency (Gray 1986, Khoo 1996, Yu & Atkinson 1988). An evaluation of a New Brunswick elementary school French immersion program shows native speakers of English do not achieve the same proficiency in French language skills as they do in English. It can be concluded that limited exposure outside the classroom leads to low proficiency in French. Similarly, Khoo (1996) finds the majority of the Technical stream pupils in Singapore have limited exposure to English at home and this has a negative effect on proficiency. This is supported by a study carried out by Yu & Atkinson (1988) who claim that lack of exposure contributes to the ineffectiveness of English medium education in 118 Hong Kong secondary schools.

It therefore cannot be denied that exposure to the target language can help in the acquisition of the language. Chihara & Oller (1978) show the advantage of classroom

exposure for Japanese adults learning English in Japan. The time spent in formal EFL (English as a foreign language) study correlates positively with language proficiency. In addition, Bierre (1971) also asserts the same result for children learning Spanish as a second language in Mexico. Wilhelm (1995) examines the variables in learning progress in Indiana University on the pre university intensive ESL program and concludes that exposure to English when used as a language of instruction is related to learning success. This is supported by Fathman (1976) who examines English oral production among American public schools students and discovers that students made progress in speaking during school years and where the use of English is encouraged. Further studies include Carroll's (1965) which confirms that students speaking the target language at home perform better. Ong (1986) in her study of Secondary Three students in Singapore reiterates the need for informal exposure to a target language in order to excel in the target language. Home background as a form of informal exposure therefore, can affect language achievement.

It is clear then, that exposure is one of the variables affecting the acquisition of a language. Connors (1983) includes individual, instructional and socio-cultural factors as variables related to exposure to the target language. They are considered as reliable factors in exposure studies. In addition, Gradman and Hanania (1991) collect information on the language background of 101 students in the intensive English Program at Indiana University and identify factors that influence proficiency i.e. active exposure through the extra curriculum has a correlation with TOEFL (Teaching English as a foreign language) scores. Hamayan et al (1977) also investigate factors related to

exposure, associated with learning French as a second language among three groups of students, namely early French immersion group, late French immersion group and English control group wherein students received instructions in other subjects in English and learn French as a subject. They assert that students using less French are less proficient in oral and written French.

Other studies include Subramanian (1976) who in a survey among Malay medium pupils in selected schools in Selangor observes that pupils who are not competent in English are those having a non- English speaking environment .His finding therefore strengthens the assumption that Malay medium learners of ESL are insufficiently exposed to English and this explains their poor performance (Balaetham, 1982). The reason for the lack of exposure is that English is not the medium of instruction as explained by Rosli (1995).

Exposure to the target language can be obtained in many ways and does not only come from mixing with the target language's speech community. In fact a local study by Hamida (1996) confirms the importance of exposure to language acquisition in UUM where the students are moderately exposed to English in general. However, these students have a high exposure to English through reading materials and it is found that the students can speak English well. The more the learner listens to the target language (from radio, TV, Astro etc) and the more he reads and speaks, the more competent he is. Therefore one sees that exposure in class as well as exposure outside class are factors which can influence success in language learning.

Lack of exposure can be another factor affecting the learning of a language. A study by Chandrasegaran (1980) on the Malay-medium learners of ESL (English as a second language) in Johore shows that urban students tended to be better in English than rural students. She rules out factors like SES (socio-economic status) and techniques of instruction as the causes but explains the importance of living in an environment where the opportunity for speaking and using English provide wider exposure and contact helps in the acquisition of the language. Thus from the findings above, exposure apparently enhances language learning.

2.1.4 Other related factors which affect the learning of language

SES (socio-economic status) can also affect the learning of a language. Berstein (1964) and Mohana (1984) also examine how SES influences language performance and achievement. Rural Malaysian children have different ways of life compared to their counterpart in the average or upper socio-economic status, and this influences their language performance. Khana (1994) too evaluates the importance of social variables like socioeconomic status, educational knowledge and exposure in language learning.

Another factor that can affect the learning of a language is the role of the parental attitude. Parental attitude can be manifested in the form of encouragement and interest. Khoo (1996) finds that children whose parents show concern regarding their children's English and sent them for tuition class in Singapore can excel in English language learning. In addition, a local study by Thayalan (1998) acknowledges the home environment as a factor affecting the learning of English in Malaysia. His subjects consist

of 15 Malay students and 10 Malay teachers and he tries to find out the pupils' problems when learning a second language .The focus here is on variables like socioeconomic status and parents' educational and home background. In the rural home environment, there is the fear of losing one's identity if support is given to a colonial language. A grudge against the colonial language is instilled, hence there is a refusal by the students to learn English (see 4 .1.8).

Peers are capable of influencing each other because they share almost the same interest and attitude. Musgraves (1972) and Murdock (1965) investigate the patterns of people when they are in-groups and how members can influence the attitudes of one another. Beliefs and attitudes can be passed down to the younger generation and if the attitude of peers or society towards English learning is negative, all the members of the society will be affected and this will then affect the performance of students learning English. The social network theory by Milroy (1987) explains this behavior. Milroy stresses the existence of two networks, one closed and the other open, in language maintenance and shift. The closed network functions as the norm that enables the speakers to maintain their language despite the intense pressure from others, whereas the open network presents a more favorable avenue for linguistic change. According to Milroy, an open network is more flexible due to informal social relationships and since such a network lacks a linguistic norm on its own, it can lead to language acceptance and change easily. These networks are characteristically found among the middle class and subsequently filter down to the working class or move upwards along the social scale. The rural schools represent the closed network so speakers maintain their language. Furthermore,

the perception among the peers and members of the society on the ability to survive without English (Chandrasegaran, 1979 and Attan, 1982) in Malaysia encourages the widespread use of Malay.

The role of the teachers in influencing and motivating the students to learn a language is yet another variable to consider. Jamali (1992) in his study on Malaysian students discovers those teachers having a low opinion and expectation of their students and who are also unaware of their negative attitudes towards their students contribute to their students' inability to excel in the learning process. Newly trained teachers serving rural schools are usually the teachers who live in these areas. Also outsiders find it difficult to adjust to the rural environment. Long-serving and experienced teachers also prefer to serve schools in towns, hence the remote rural schools will be staffed with new and inexperienced teachers. The latter are either local teachers willing to be posted back to their hometown or outsiders who are unfamiliar with the rural life and who are groping in their strange new environment (Jamali, 1992), then end up frustrated in the teaching profession. In fact, Terengganu Education Director, Mohd Omar stated that there is a lack of 600 qualified English teachers in the state (The Star, 21.1. 2001). Therefore it is important to have a pool of qualified and interested English teachers in rural schools to help the students learn the target language.

Another factor that can affect the learning of a language is the shyness factor. Bahiyah (1992) studied "*malu*" or 'shy' behavior in the English classroom. Most of the students are inactive or silent and she describes the Malay learner as shy or "*malu*". Words like

'*takut*' (afraid) "nervous" "*segan*" (shy), "*ejek*" (tease) are often heard as reasons for not speaking English in this study. Ong (1986) surveys teachers from both rural and urban schools in Malaysia and finds that 46% of the urban schoolteachers feel their students are shy to use English whereas 69% of the rural teachers feel the same of their students. Fear of embarrassment, low confidence, and shyness cause the students to keep a low profile in the English class. Such behavior will only hinder the learning of English. Malaysian students prefer "to keep quiet for fear of making mistakes and being embarrassed and hence lose the opportunity to develop their speaking skills" (The Star, 21.1. 2000).

This trait is not found only among Malaysia students. According to Zimbardo (1977), shyness is 'widespread, universal, negative and a social epidemic'. Shyness is the opposite of confidence, self-assuredness and assertiveness. However, Kitiyama (1991) from the University of Oregon asserts that "people with different cultures have different premises about what defines a person, with different consequences for how they think, feel and act" (cited in The New Sunday Times, 20 .1.1991). This means that shyness is natural and not a trait belonging only to the rural students. Therefore to say that only rural students are shy is incorrect, as there are urban students who may be shy. In fact in the Malaysian society, shyness is a positive trait as it can be interpreted as being introspective, respectful, non-threatening and non-aggressive. Unfortunately, not many concrete studies have been carried out to correlate this shyness factor to the proficiency of English.

2.2 Models of second language acquisition

The model of language acquisition is indeed a complex structure and the literature notes that both the learner and environmental factors cause the differences in developmental processes and products. Teachers and the learning methodology also affect the acquisition of a language. The research conducted tends to focus more on the relationship between factors or variables related to the learners and the measures of language achievement (Clement 1980, Gardner 1985, Krasher 1981, MacIntyre 1992, Spolky 1989). For the purpose of this study three models are introduced to explain the relationship of numerous variables or factors in the acquisition of a language.

2.2.1 Model of linear-casual relationship

Gardner and Lambert (1959) based this model on the hypothesis that a positive attitude in a learner towards the target language would help the learner to be proficient in the target language. This can be shown as

Positive attitude = Attainment of language proficiency

2.2.2 Socio-educational model

Gardner (1979) revised the earlier model of linear casual relationship. The socio-educational mode is founded on the hypothesis that the social context determines a learner's attitude. This in turn affects motivation and is directly related to successful learning. Figure 1 shows how language acquisition involves the combination of four variables at work namely social milieu, individual differences, second language acquisition context and "outcomes".

Unlike the learning of other subjects, language acquisition involves the learning of skills and behaviors of another community. Besides, the success in learning the target language also depends on the attitude towards the other community and a learner is also influenced by perceptions of the community as well.

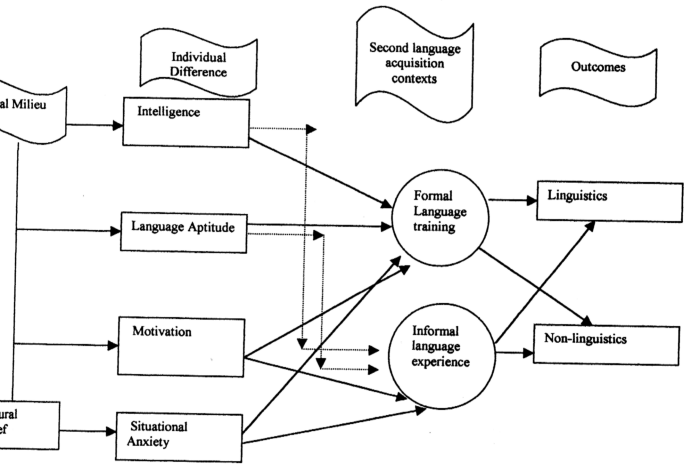
Unlike the 1959 model, this particular model also argues that the particular cultural context and beliefs of the learners can influence success in the learning of a second language. If the community thinks it is difficult to learn the language concerned, then the general performance will be low. Success in learning also depends on other factors like individual difference, motivation, aptitude and intelligence. Gardner argues that if the community has a positive and encouraging attitude towards the target language, their performance level in learning English will be higher and vice versa.

In this model too, intelligence determines how well and how quickly one can understand the nature of any learning task. The model also discusses language aptitude. This is referred to as the verbal and cognitive abilities of a learner that would help support the learning of a new language. Motivation on the other hand refers to the effort, want and effect which determine the acquisition of the new language. Lastly, the factor of situational anxiety also has an effect on the individual's performance, hence affecting successful learning.

Figure 1 also incorporates two types of learning situations, namely the formal and the informal. In the formal context, the primary aim is instruction as in the classroom

whereas in the informal situation, the learning of English outside the classroom takes place for example, by listening to the radio and watching television. Language learning in this context is therefore indirect and less formal.

Schematic Representation of Gardner's 1979 Social Education Model
Figure 1



2.2.3 Revised socio-educational model by Gardner and Macintyre 1993

This is a modified model where the socio-cultural milieu is regarded as the crucial factor in the second language acquisition process. The social context is essential and important in the learning of a language. Figure 2 shows the four main components of the social context namely, antecedent factors, individual difference variables, language acquisition context and “outcomes”. Antecedent factors are age, sex, gender and prior language training while intelligence, language aptitude and language learning strategies are classified as cognitive individual differences. Language attitude and anxiety are affective variables. Motivation can be influenced by attitude. Then, motivation in turn needs an affective basis to be maintained for instance, attitude. This is summarized below:

$$\text{Motivation} = \text{Language attitude} + \text{Language anxiety}.$$

Language attitude helps in motivation, which in turn has a ‘casual’ influence as well as is casually influenced by language anxiety. A high level of motivation depresses language anxiety and vice versa.

In the formal language learning environment all these variables, except language attitude, have a direct effect on learning a language. In the informal context only motivation has a direct role. Due to the voluntary nature of the informal context, individuals who are not motivated will not take part in the learning of a language while those who are motivated, will. As in the 1979 model, both the formal and informal language acquisition contexts have direct effects on linguistic and non- linguistic outcomes. The model also recognizes the importance of what takes place in both contexts to language learning acquisition. (See Figure 2)

Schematic representation of Gardner & MacIntyre 's Social education Model 1993

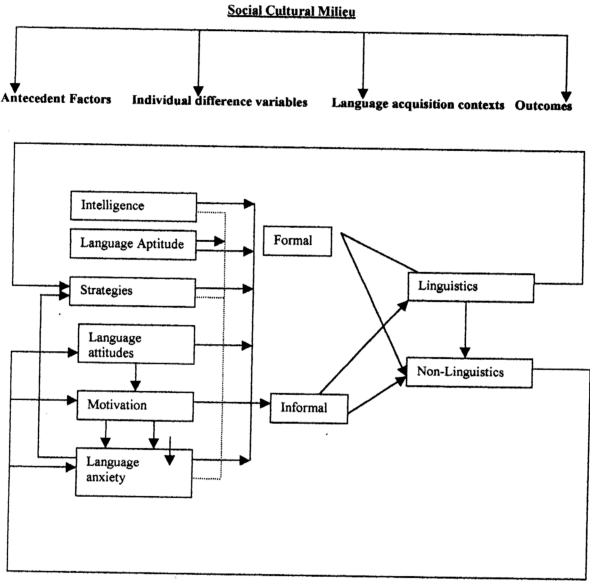


Figure 2

2.3 Conclusion

It can be seen that learning a language is a highly complex issue. There is a complicated interplay of many factors and variables, which have to be considered when discussing the success of language learning. These variables are neither exclusively or inclusively found in any one area as the problems rural students may encounter in the learning of English in this study may be closely related to many of the issues in this chapter. The rural cultural setting adversely affect all these variables for instance rural students face many problems such as having a negative attitude towards the learning of the target language as well as towards English-speaking groups and culture; they lack integrative and instrumental motivation, and they have limited formal and informal exposure to the target language. In addition, boring teaching methodologies, peer pressure and influence and low socio-economic status of the family background of the rural students can hinder the acquisition of a different code (see Chapter 3).