Personality Features and EFL Learning Process within the Dominican Society Context

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Abstract

Through this work we are focusing on discussing the relationship between the Traits of Personality and the performance of Students in EFL Learning (introversion/extroversion and other determining factors of the educational Process) within the Dominican’s Society context as largely perceived by Teachers of English as a Foreign Language.

There have been a great number of international studies already published which had tried to explain the effects of such features of the student's personality, mostly introversion/extroversion on the student’s performance in foreign language learning, something which from the teacher’s perception have always been presumed as an unquestionable fact.

Although the results of many of the studies have often been labeled as contradictory, some of them show, however a clear or positive correlation between language competency achievement and/or proficiency vs. Personality features, some others do not. Among the reasons for subtracting validity to the referred studies various relevant variables might be cited, such as the validity of the assessment of the tools administered, the internal/external factors that affect their academic environment, and furthermore; the socio-economic, cultural, and gender factors of our students within the Dominican society context.

Keywords: Personality Theories, Personality Features, EFL/ESL Learning Process, Dominican Society Context.
*Introduction*

Chapter I of this study is entirely dedicated to examine the most relevant and classical definitions of personality as well as personality traits, on the lights of classical and modern psychology since this is a concerning situation shared among many EFL/ESL teachers.

Chapter II deals with a complete literature review, where a thorough account of the most relevant facts and psychological factors affecting the learning process occurs.

Chapter III bring us the factors affecting our Aptitude to learn a foreign language.

Chapter IV focuses on Second Language Acquisition Theories, as related to some psychological aspects.

Chapter V offers a complete account on the importance of the English language in today´s Dominican society.

Chapter VI: Is solely dedicated to explain a discussion and our conclusions.
Chapter I: Definitions of Personality and Personality Traits

The Classical Theories of Freud and Jung:

According to Freud (1923), human personality arises from the conflict between our instinctive impulses towards aggression and the search for pleasure, on the one hand, and the social limits imposed on them by another. The personality is constructed as an attempt to reconcile these two instances seeking the satisfaction of our instincts without being victims of feelings of guilt or punishment. To explain this conflict Freud constructed some theoretical concepts that interacted with each other: the id, the ego and the super-ego. These concepts do not have to be considered as having an objective truth but rather as useful tools for understanding the dynamics of our psyche.

The Id (Id):

Freud, from the anthropological paradigm of Darwinism, assumed that the basic motivations of man could not be different from those of any other animal: self-preservation, aggressiveness and reproduction; nevertheless, these motivations did not appear as such in our social life, as they do appear in the rest of animals, but they are hidden, for cultural convenience, at an unconscious level. The id is that unconscious repository of our primary psychic energy that seeks the satisfaction of those primitive biological impulses. Obviously the id is moved by the pleasure principle: it seeks the satisfaction of our desires. Think of a child who picks up a bag of potatoes at a supermarket, opens it and begins to eat it to the embarrassment of his mother; is acting moved by the pleasure principle, seeks the mere satisfaction of the biological need to feed.

The impulses of the id are innumerable however we can group them in two great primary instincts: Eros and Thanatos. The impulse of Eros tends to the reunion of dispersed elements in a larger unit, for this reason it is also called the impulse of life since the construction of new realities is its main goal. On the other hand, the impulse of Thanatos seeks the dissolution of a unit in a set of smaller elements, it is also called the death impulse. For Freud these impulses are present even in some inorganic processes of nature (attraction-repulsion, crystallization-dissolution, etc.). The desire to form a family, to
belong to a social group, to build something can exemplify the momentum of Eros; by impulse of death.

It is important to underline that Freud does not make an ethical consideration of these two impulses, since this type of consideration is not pertinent when these impulses belong to an amoral reality such as the id. Eros is not good as Thanatos is not bad either, these considerations lack value and foundation. Is the desire of a forty-year-old man to remain under the guardianship of his mother a good thing? Is the desire for independence in a young person bad? We see that these considerations are meaningless in themselves and moral evaluations are situated at a very different level than psychological evaluations. In addition Freud stresses that both impulses are fed back and depend on each other. For example, a lion wants to hunt a prey, for it needs to kill and digest it (Thanatos) but the purpose of this action is not the destruction itself but perhaps it is the maintenance of the own organism or even feed the young (Eros).

The ego (ego):

As the child grows he also learns that his desires collide with the real world; This forces the child to readjust his desires to that real world through the reality principle. This is how the conscious self is constructed in the first year of the subject's life, the self that we believe we are. This self is the visible part of our personality but the deep roots of our identity remain on the unconscious side of our psyche. All conscious motivations are nothing more than unconscious motivations transformed by the super-ego so that the self can keep its self-concept intact. A typical example is sexual love; In spite of poetry, the art that praises it, or the noble feelings it feeds, from the psychoanalytic perspective love has an unconscious origin in the impulse of self-perpetuation that appears in all living beings; the symbolic creation associated with love (tenderness, affection, fidelity) are nothing more than veils with which to cover their primary, biological and even physiological motivation. The self is pleased to consider that its feelings are based on noble principles and not on a mere impulse of instinctive satisfaction.

The unconscious elements are harmful to the concept of self of the self, for that reason these unconscious elements are repressed and do not arise to the conscience more than on
occasion as dreams and failed acts. The processes of free association or interpretation of the patient's dreams are therapeutic methodologies characteristic of psychoanalysis.

The super-ego (super-ego):

Later in the development process, at four or five years, the individual begins to develop ideals of behaviors that tell us not only how to act to satisfy the impulses of the id (principle of reality of self) but how we should behave. Thus, the subject internalizes and creates a moral conscience that goes beyond the practical adaptation of his behavior to reality. The super-ego generates an "ideal of the self" that tries to impose effective self.

The superego is born of the cultural demands that weigh on the subject from its earliest childhood. The society as a whole, but above all the parents of the child are those who build within it this psychic instance. Feelings like those of guilt or moral satisfaction are generated in the superego when it is satisfied in its demands.

The demands of the id (pleasure principle) and the superego (moral ideal of self) are in frank conflict the resolution of this conflict is the task of the self that must mediate between the biological demands embodied by the id and the social demands represented by the super-ego. In this cruel conflict, the position of the ego is always compromised and unstable: on the one hand, it harasses the ego with peremptory demands that require immediate satisfaction, on the other hand, the super-ego represses those impulses and even the hidden motivations behind the "nobles" "Actions of the self. Mental health is that unstable balance between these two powers.

Neurosis and psychosis:

When the inevitable conflict between the id and the superego occurs, the self can resolve this conflict in a sensible and socially admitted way or it may not. When this conflict is not resolved in an appropriate way a mental pathology arises; the ego, in this case, can identify unilaterally with the demands of the super-ego or, on the contrary, with the demands of the id. In one case the neurosis occurs and in another the psychosis.

By neurosis Freud understood a variegated number of mental pathologies that have as a common link that a pathological behavior affected by states of deep guilt, fear or anxiety.
Repeated hand washing can be an example of this neurotic behavior that aims to "purify" in a symbolic way the aspects of the id that the ego strives to hide to satisfy the super-ego. The fear of open spaces may have the same origin: the desire to protect the ideal self from a clash with the real world that would cause anxiety and anxiety. Other disorders such as depressives can fall under this broad label of "neurosis" since in these disorders the subject develops a continuous low self-esteem and a continuous feeling of guilt: the superego dominates the psychic life of the patient showing him continuously his withdrawal of what "should be" according to the strict criteria of the ideal self of the super-ego.

By psychosis, Freud understood those disorders in which the subject exiled himself from reality and constructed a different one from the socially admitted reality. The psychotic has hallucinations and does not see reality as we see it but distorted by the demands of the id that ultimately lead the patient to a state of total disconnection with social reality and a deep sense of loneliness. According to psychoanalysis, psychosis occurs when the patient has had to face dramatic and frustrating events that have pushed him to sever his ties with reality, that is to abandon the reality principle of the self for the pleasure principle. The suffering of the psychotic patient comes when he perceives the social and affective exclusion that his rupture with ordinary reality entails in such a way that an unreal construction of the world that should fully satisfy the disconnected reality with reality becomes a nightmare.

Young children have episodic neurotic behaviors (phobias, anguish, etc.) and psychotic behavior (invisible friends, hallucinations, etc.) but these imbalances are normal in any psychic development. The balance between the demands of the id and the superego is difficult and to achieve it is a complex process with many intermediate pitfalls. Mechanisms of defense (extracted entirely from the Myers Psychology manual):

Anxiety, said Freud, is the price we pay for civilization. As members of social groups we must control our sexual and aggressive impulses and avoid showing them. But sometimes the ego fears the loss of control in its internal struggle between the demands of the id and the super-ego, and the result is a dark nebula of excessive anxiety, which leaves us feeling uneasy without knowing what the cause is. In those moments, according to Freud, the self
protects itself with defense mechanisms. These tactics reduce or reorient anxiety in various ways, but always distorting reality. Let's see six examples.

Repression removes from consciousness the thoughts and feelings that arouse anxiety. According to Freud, repression underlies all other defense mechanisms, each of which hides threatening impulses and keeps them away from consciousness. For him, repression explains why we do not remember the desire we felt for our progenitor of the other sex in childhood. However, he also believed that repression is usually incomplete, that repressed impulses emerge in dream symbols and verbal lapses.

Following Freud's theory, we also fight against anxiety through regression, that is, with the return to an earlier stage of child development. Therefore, it is possible that when a child feels anxious about the first days of school he will regress to the oral stage and begin to suck his thumb. Young monkeys, when anxious, return to their mother's lap or substitute. Also, first-year college students may miss the safety and comfort of their home.

In the third defense mechanism, the reactive formation, the ego unconsciously masks the unacceptable impulses and appear as their opposites. On the way to consciousness, the unacceptable phrase "I hate it" becomes "I want it", shyness becomes daring and feelings of inferiority are transformed into braggadocio.

The projection conceals the threatening impulses attributing them to others. Therefore, "do not trust me" can be a projection of a real feeling "I do not trust him" or "I do not trust myself". [...] The known mechanism of rationalization happens when we unconsciously generate a justification to hide from ourselves the real motives of our actions. This is how the habitual drinkers can say that they drink with their friends "to be sociable". [...] The displacement, following Freud, diverts the aggressive or sexual impulses towards an object or a person that is psychologically more acceptable than the one that awakens the feelings. Children who fear expressing anger at parents may displace this feeling by kicking their pet. Students annoyed by an exam can download their discomfort against a classmate. All these defense mechanisms work indirectly and unconsciously and reduce anxiety by hiding threatening impulses. Myers (N/D)
Jung (1948) disagreed with Freud regarding the role of sexuality. He believed the libido was not just sexual energy, but instead generalized psychic energy.

For Jung the purpose of psychic energy was to motivate the individual in a number of important ways, including spiritually, intellectually, and creatively. It was also an individual's motivational source for seeking pleasure and reducing conflict.

Theory of the Unconscious

Like Freud (and Erikson) Jung regarded the psyche as made up of a number of separate but interacting systems. The three main ones were the ego, the personal unconscious, and the collective unconscious.

According to Jung, the ego represents the conscious mind as it comprises the thoughts, memories, and emotions a person is aware of. The ego is largely responsible for feelings of identity and continuity.

Like Freud, Jung (1921, 1933) emphasized the importance of the unconscious in relation to personality. However, he proposed that the unconscious consists of two layers.

The first layer called the personal unconscious is essentially the same as Freud’s version of the unconscious. The personal unconscious contains temporality forgotten information and well as repressed memories. Jung (1933) outlined an important feature of the personal unconscious called complexes. A complex is a collection of thoughts, feelings, attitudes, and memories that focus on a single concept.

The more elements attached to the complex, the greater its influence on the individual. Jung also believed that the personal unconscious was much nearer the surface than Freud suggested and Jungian therapy is less concerned with repressed childhood experiences. It is the present and the future, which in his view was the key to both the analysis of neurosis and its treatment.

However, by far the most important difference between Jung and Freud is Jung’s notion of the collective (or transpersonal) unconscious. This is his most original and
controversial contribution to personality theory. This is a level of unconscious shared with other members of the human species comprising latent memories from our ancestral and evolutionary past. ‘The form of the world into which [a person] is born is already inborn in him, as a virtual image’ (Jung, 1953, p. 188).

According to Jung, the human mind has innate characteristics “imprinted” on it as a result of evolution. These universal predispositions stem from our ancestral past. Fear of the dark, or of snakes and spiders might be examples, and it is interesting that this idea has recently been revived in the theory of prepared conditioning. However more important than isolated tendencies are those aspects of the collective unconscious that have developed into separate sub-systems of the personality. Jung called these ancestral memories and images archetypes.

Differences between Jung and Freud:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assumption</th>
<th>Jung</th>
<th>Freud</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nature and purpose of the libido.</td>
<td>A generalize source of psychic energy motivating a range of behaviors.</td>
<td>A source of psychic energy specific to sexual gratification.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of the unconscious.</td>
<td>A storehouse of repressed memories specific to the individual and our ancestral past.</td>
<td>A storehouse for unacceptable repressed desires specific to the individual.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause of behavior.</td>
<td>Past experiences in addition to future aspiration.</td>
<td>Past experiences, particularly in childhood.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter II: Review of Literature

Review of literature

As it has been observed before, by many EFL Teachers, abroad and here in our country, by previous studies conducted, Tavarez (2012). One aspect of the personality that has had a great influence upon our students in the language classroom has been that of Introversion and Extroversion, so let us now engage first, in clearly defining both introversion and extroversion, since, for any other or further discussion, this task will be a first priority. Eysenck (1965, p.59) as quoted by Kiany, G.R.(1996, p. 2)characterizes a typical extravert as: …sociable, likes parties, has many friends,… does not like reading or studying by himself. He craves excitement, takes chances… and is generally an impulsive individual. He is fond of practical jokes, always has a ready answer… Likes change… and loses his temper quickly. On the other hand., he defines a typical introvert as: …quiet, retiring sort of person, introspective, fond of books rather than people; he is reserved and distant except to intimate friends. He tends to plan ahead, “looks before he leaps”, and mistrust the impulse of the moment. He does not like excitement, takes matter of everyday life with proper seriousness… does not lose his temper quickly. Kiany,(p.2) in his work also cited Eysenck’s theory “on the bases of the biological phenomena of “cortical arousal” and “reactive inhibition”.

Extraverts in comparison to introverts have less cortical arousal and more mental reactive inhibition. The cortical under-arousal of extraverts and over-arousal of introverts have to be balanced with different kinds of behavior. To this effect, extraverts would tend to seek more “excitation” which is mainly manifested through “impulsive” and “outgoing” behavior. While introverts would tend to show more “reflective” and “less exciting” behavior. As to reactive inhibition, according to Eysenck (1957) extraversion is partly identified with “fast accumulation” and “slow dissipation” of reactive inhibition. In other words, extraverts are mentally more easily inhibited which implies that they are more susceptible to mental distraction, hence do not have as much mental concentration as introverts do.” Keswer, P.(1987, p. 46)highlighted a number of cases as follows: A number
of studies have shown a positive correlation between extroversion and second language learning. Pritchard (1952) used thirty-three British schoolboys studying French as subjects to test his hypothesis that there is a positive correlation between sociability and successful acquisition of a foreign language. He observed his subject in the playground of the school and rated them on the three measures of sociability: engagement in friendly horseplay, spontaneous entry into a game with another boy, and a conversational approaches to other children. A positive correlation was found between sociability and scores on a French fluency test. Chastain (1975) tested college students in beginning level of classes of French, German and Spanish to investigate the relationship between reserved/outgoing personality and success in foreign language acquisition. The criterion used to determine this success was the final course grade. Overall among the language students, the correlation between an outgoing personality and success in the course was positive. In his 1976 doctoral dissertation, Rossier tested fifty Spanish-speaking high school 5 students of English as a Second Language, appraising only their oral English skills. He found that extroversion was a significant variable in the development of his subject’s language proficiency.

Tucker, Hamayan and Genese(1976)found that The more outgoing adventurous students in a one-year late (grade 7) French immersion program performed better on tests of listening comprehension and oral production than did the quieter students. As well, they found that an outgoing personality seemed to be more important for students in a late immersion program than for those who had been exposed to a French immersion curriculum since kindergarten. The subjects in the study by Cathcart, Strong and Wong-Fillmore(1979) were twelve kindergartners and eight first and second grade pupils, all of whom were learning English as a second language. Assessment of the subjects’ language proficiency included not only standard tasks, but also observation of the natural unelicited classroom language of the subjects. Outgoingness was found to correlate with language proficiency for the first and second graders. Strong(1983) studied thirteen Spanish-speaking kindergartners over a period of one year. He found a correlation between the three personality traits of talkativeness, responsiveness and gregariousness, and success in learning a second language.
In contrast to the above, a sizeable group of studies have reported that no significant relationship was discovered between an outgoing personality and success in learning a second language. In Chastains’ 1975 study, the results showed that among the students of French there was no significant link between a reserved/outgoing personality and success in language learning. However, in the German and Spanish classes the correlation was substantial. Ahmadian (2011, p.10-11) offered us the results of the Michigan test of proficiency as compared with the two groups (introverts/extroverts) of students as follows:

### 3.2.2. The Michigan Test of Proficiency (1982)

As mentioned before, the Michigan test was used to make use of their homogeneity of the participants’ proficiency at the upper intermediate level. As table 1 shows, a t-test revealed no significant difference between both groups as far as their proficiency level is concerned.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EXT</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>67.04</td>
<td>58.04</td>
<td>7.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INT</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>66.96</td>
<td>86.58</td>
<td>9.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variances</th>
<th>T-Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.(2-tailed)</th>
<th>Assumed level of sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>.926</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.2.3 Communicative Tasks

In order to explore the effects of EXT/INT on the use of SC in oral referential communication, tasks of elicitation should be so designed that they can create appropriate communication problems so for the participants (directors) in communicating with their partners (matchers). In fact, since SC is task based and so is referential communication (Ahmadian, 2001; Ellis, 2003), thus tasks of elicitation are needed to impose communication problems and to activate subject’s SC. Referential communication is also a task-based process in which we can elicit the individual’s SC to solve communication problems by means of appropriate strategies (Poulisse, 1979). Therefore, three types of communicative tasks were used in this study to elicit the performance of participants’ SC. The tasks were adapted from Poulisse (1990) and Ahmadian (1995) who used them for similar purposes (see appendix).

Research questions & Percentile answers:

Much research has been conducted in an attempt to establish which cognitive, cognitive-oriented and affective factors (including the effect of personality types) can be predictors of success in foreign language learning. Before delving into what research says about how personality traits inhibit or favour language learning, it will be useful to gain a more
complete overall picture to have at least a basic understanding of the other factors at play in determining language aptitude.
Chapter III: Factors Affecting our Aptitude to Learn Foreign Languages

Research in Language aptitude (the capability of learning a foreign language) goes back to the late 50s when the US ministry of defense wanted to find out if a test could be devised in order to identify individuals who had more potential than others to learn languages more effectively and rapidly. Such test was created by Carroll and Sapon (1959) and it is called MLAT (Modern Language Aptitude Test). This test is based on a construct, made up of four components:

- Phonemic coding ability (the ability to analyze incoming foreign sounds in a way that can be recalled later)
- Grammatical sensitivity (the ability to recognize the grammatical functions of words in sentences)
- Inductive language learning (the ability to identify patterns of correspondence and relationships involving form and meaning)
- Rote learning ability (the ability to store verbal information in memory and recall it later)

Although this construct is still widely used, later research findings have added three more factors which predict success in L2 language learning: Motivation, Language learning strategies and Working Memory (different from ‘rote memory’ as defined earlier).

The effect of motivation on learning is self-evident. The effective deployment of Learning Strategies (defined as the steps or actions taken by the learners to improve the development of their language skills), too, seems to correlate with success in L2 language learning especially in instructed settings. Working Memory is the latest addition to Language Aptitude models and a mounting body of research seems to indicate that it plays an essential role in foreign language acquisition. Working Memory underlies human ability to process any linguistic input and to store it in our brain (i.e. in Long-term memory) for later retrieval when it is needed. It is hypothesized that the more effective an individual’s Working Memory, the greater his/her ability to acquire advanced language skills.
It is obvious that the language learning context in which one acquires a language, whether
natural or instructed settings, input-poor or input-rich, with a teacher we like or not, will
also highly impact on how successful we will be at learning a foreign language.

*How personality traits affect Language Aptitude*

All of the above factors interact with one another and, of course, with the personality traits
of the learner. The reader should note that the evidence on how different personality types
affect learning is not totally conclusive. Firstly, because the personality types classifications
used in research vary across the board. Secondly, because not enough studies have been
carried out to-date. There are interesting findings, however, that are worth being aware of,
some of which are counter-intuitive and may have important implications for our teaching

The personality types I will refer to in my discussion are borrowed from Costa and
McCrae’s (1992) *Five-factor model* which include:

- **Agreeableness** – This personality trait refers to modesty, compassion, altruism, tender-
mindedness and honesty. Agreeable individuals are friendly and helpful and usually tend to see
the best in people. They appreciate good relationships with others.

- **Conscientiousness** – This trait denotes thoroughness, punctuality, thoughtfulness and
reliability at work. People with this trait prefer planned and structured behavior to spontaneity and creativity.

- **Extraversion** – Highly extraverted people enjoy engaging with the external world, are
friendly and warm-hearted, full of energy, enjoy playing and seek stimulation

- **Neuroticism** – Neurotic people are instable and impulsive individuals who are prone to
negative emotions such as anxiety, anger, hostility, resentment and depression. They do not cope very well with stress and when under stress, they react with fear and irrational behavior. They are often in a bad mood.

- **Openness to experience** – People with high levels of it are intellectually curious, independent in their judgment, appreciate beauty and the arts, are in touch with their feelings, love adventure and unusual ideas. Those with low levels of this trait are
traditional, conservative and have traditional interests. **Openness is believed to have a strong genetic component,** stronger than the other four traits (Nosal, 1999).

An empathetic and observant teacher will not need a PhD in psychology to be able to ascribe most of their students to the above categories and I suspect, that after reading the above, an experienced practitioner may be able to predict which of the above factors correlates more strongly with success in language learning.

The answer is: **Openness to Experience.** Why is it the main determinant of Language Aptitude? Firstly, because it is the factor most strongly linked to intellectual curiosity and flexibility. It correlates with creativity and divergent thinking, which are typical of gifted learners in general. Also someone who is highly ‘open to experience’ is more likely to be less critical of a foreign culture, and, appreciative as they are of art and beauty, more prone to embrace the language of a country with a strong artistic heritage or concerned with aesthetic beauty (e.g. Italy, Spain or France). The fact that Openness to Experience has a strong genetic component would lead to presume that Language aptitude may be hereditary.

Another factor that may correlate positively with success in foreign language learning is **Conscientiousness,** especially in the areas of memory and grammar and in developing cognitive academic learning ability. This is possibly due to the fact that conscientious people tend to be more dutiful and hard-working and intrinsically driven to do well in whatever they do. But the evidence in support of this positive correlation is not conclusive.

**Agreeableness** seems to be a predictor of success in terms of phonological coding and pronunciation, possibly because highly ‘agreeable’ individuals tend to ‘listen’ more attentively and may subconsciously try to use their voice to harmonize with other fellow humans more effectively.

As for **Extraversion,** its correlation with language aptitude appears controversial. On the one hand, extraverts display lower levels of anxiety and engage in more frequent communication and greater risk-taking, thereby developing more effective interpersonal skills and better oral fluency. On the other hand, research seems to indicate that, on the
whole, extraversion correlates negatively with language aptitude. A very good extravert linguist may find this baffling. However, one must bear in mind (as mentioned above) that there are other factors at play which may offset the ‘advantage’ or ‘disadvantage’ that a given personality trait ‘naturally’ gives you (for instance, in my case, strong learner strategy use and integrative motivation); moreover, often more personality traits often co-exist in the same individual (for instance, in my case, a degree of ‘Opennes to Experience’).

The factor that seems to correlate most negatively with language aptitude is **Neuroticism**, due to the high levels of anxiety a neurotic person would experience which have, evidently, a strong detrimental impact on cognitive processing, on-task focus and memory, as well as motivation.

The above discussion may have some important implications for learning especially vis-à-vis students that may not be identified by course administrators as potentially gifted learners in terms of **General Intelligence** but may score highly in terms of ‘Opennes to Experience’. Moreover, it may be useful, once spotted a child with neurotic behavior, to adopt specific tactics in order to minimize the risk of causing them stressful experiences. Using the Costa and McCrae’s ‘Five model factor’ as a reference framework in the MFL classroom may be advisable as, even if personality traits may not directly influence the outcomes of learning a foreign language, “they certainly shape the way people respond to the learning environment” (Dörnyei, 2005). After all, the relationship between the learner’s and the teacher’s personality can have a huge effect on the process of learning.

In conclusion, personality traits can have a direct and indirect impact on learning and their role as predictors of our students’ learning should not be discounted. However, their impact cannot be considered in isolation, as divorced from motivation and the cognitive and cognitive-oriented factors identified at the outset of my discussion. Teachers are often prompted by course administrators or educational consultants to take into account our students’ learning styles and multiple intelligences; but maybe more effort should go into equipping teachers and school staff in general (a) with a better grasp of how students’
personality type may impact their learning and (b) with effective strategies to best adapt our teaching to learner psychological needs.


For EFL learners, significant differences exist in both use frequency and type of learning strategies, and these differences are related to language learners’ achievements (Ellis, 1994). Why learners display so many differences when developing and using learning strategies has been a major concern of learning strategy research. Studies show that learners’ individual difference in age, intelligence, language aptitude, learning style, learning strategy, attitude, motivation and personality is the main cause of the differences in learning achievement and also the root of the differences in learning strategies (Oxford, 1990). In addition, external factors such as teaching approach and environment also affect the development and use of learning strategies of learners from different aspects.

1. **Age and Language Learning Strategies**

Ellis (1994) holds that age has a very significant impact on the development and use of language learning strategies. The cognitive ability of learners increases with age, and their cognitive style also changes along with age. It is cognitive ability and cognitive style that have a direct impact on the development and use of learning strategies. For middle school students in China.

2. **Personality and Language Learning Strategies.**

In terms of the influence of personality on language acquisition, most studies focus on the influence of extrovert and introvert personalities. Wen (1996) believes that character traits of extroverts are more suitable for language learning, because language as a communication tool plays its role most significantly when interpersonal communication takes place. Studies afterwards found this viewpoint not entirely correct.
Modern people tend to accept the two viewpoints. Firstly, extrovert learners have some advantages in mastering basic interpersonal communication skills. This is mainly because extrovert personality can expose learners to more practice opportunities and more language input, increasing the chance of successful language acquisition. Secondly, introvert learners display more advantages in cognitive academic language ability, because they spend more time in reading and writing (Griffiths, 1991). The two viewpoints above can be more appropriately described as two phenomena, which have been confirmed by many studies. However, scholars have hugely different interpretations of these two phenomena, but there are few disputes over the first phenomenon mainly characterized by language practice opportunities. However, when it comes to the second phenomenon, some believe that introverted learners spend more time in reading and writing while some hold that introverted learners are more adept at taking advantage of the introverted character to make in-depth and minute analysis of limited input (Shu & Zhuang, 1996, p.49). A similar explanation is that introverted learners may delve deeper into grammar, translation, reading comprehension etc.. (Zhu, 1994)

3. Cognitive Styles and Language Learning Strategies

Brown (1994) holds that cognitive style, also known as learning style, refers to the way of cognitive process in which learners identify, handle, store and extract information and the orientation toward which learners seek to solve problems. It is generally believed that cognitive style is innate, enduring and difficult to change. Research on cognitive style is the most common area of psychology whose research results have been widely applied to the study of related disciplines. Foreign language learning researchers hold that difference in cognitive style is also one of the major
factors causing the difference in learning strategies among foreign language learners. Even though it is commonly believed that cognitive style is not easy to take shape, some scholars hold that teachers can help learners cultivate their own preferred cognitive style in foreign language teaching, so that learners can explore the potential of unused cognitive styles and develop effective language learning strategies. Most cognitive style studies focus on the different functions of the right and left hemispheres of the brain. Studies (Brown, 1994) have shown that the right and left hemispheres of the brain have different functions. The left hemisphere excels in logic, language and analytical thinking, and perceives and processes information in a part-to-whole approach. The right hemisphere is adept at language and spatial thinking, more sensitive to visual, tactile and auditory information, and more effective in processing global and emotional information. In real life, not everybody develops his or her right and left brain in a balanced manner. Some people have a better-developed left brain, some a better-developed right brain. The so-called developed right or left brain is indeed distinguished by judging which brain has functioned more. Anderson (1999) has found that learners knowing how to make the best use of both left and right brains are the most successful learners. Therefore, learners with a developed left brain should on the one hand give full play to their advantages in logic thinking and language ability and on the other hand make active efforts in developing other functions of the right brain, such as non-linguistic and spatial thinking ability. On the contrary, learners with a developed right brain should strive actively to develop the logical thinking and language ability of the left brain. In regard to language learning, learners with a dominating left brain like to analyze language phenomena, pay close attention to grammar structure and discourse details, dislike using instinct and comprehensive ability, and are not good at grasping the gist of an article. Learners with a dominating right brain prefer learning strategies using imagine thinking and perception. For instance, when they try to remember a new word, their brain may present an image related to the word; and they prefer to look for the general idea of an article when reading. If a language learner has a clear idea of his own cognitive style, and select and use language learning strategies in line with their own cognitive styles, so as to give full play to their potentials. Surely, learners should also first know clearly what types of learners they are. In addition to the distinction of cognitive style
based on the use frequency of the left and right brains, researches (Shu & Zhuang, 1996) have also made other comparative studies, such as field independence and field dependence, reflective type and impulsive type etc. These classifications divide learners into two different groups. The limitation of these classifications is conspicuous, because classification standards are too categorical and not suitable for all learners. To overcome this drawback, researchers have begun to study cognitive style from other perspective, among which a more mature classification method is to divide learners into auditory, visual, kinesthetic and tactile types (Reid, 1987). a) Auditory learners prefer listening to reading, keep a better memory of listened contents, and focus their attention on teachers’ oral explanation. However, they find it difficult to focus on reading. b) Visual learners can learn only when they see texts or pictures, and prefer reading silently. Their attention is given to the content on the blackboard rather than teachers’ oral explanation. c) Kinesthetic learners love to read and write and sometimes perform the action. They are more interested in hands-on activities. d) Tactile learners prefer to learn via hands-on work, such as building a model etc. We believe that Reid’s four learning styles are indeed a manifestation of different learning strategies, that is, different learners tend to use different sensory organs to perceive the outside world. Language is the outside world when it comes to language learning. In addition, language learners usually do not belong to one learning type, but use two or more learning styles altogether, such as auditory-kinesthetic type, visual-kinesthetic type or comprehensive type. We suggest that language learners should understand their learning styles as much as possible and continue to give full play to their advantages. Meanwhile, they should also try other cognitive styles and use eyes, ears, mouth, hands and brain to explore more learning approaches and increase language input.


4. Teachers’ Influences on Language Learning Strategies

Teachers may have a direct, or indirect, influence on the development and use of learners’ learning strategies. Direct influence refers to the impact caused by teachers who carry out or infiltrate learning strategy training into teaching activities. Indirect
influence on learning strategies refers to the subtle influence of teachers’ teaching experience, teaching methods and teaching approaches on learners’ use and development of learning strategies. For example, some teachers always explain new words before text reading. The specific steps are to lead students to read the list of words in the textbook one by one (if no word list is provided in the textbook, they may list a new word list themselves), write the words on the blackboard, explain these words, and illustrate examples or compare them with synonyms and antonyms. Over time, learners will consider it as an effective word learning method.

Later in the self-study process, especially when reading English articles, learners will prepare the new words to a notebook and look them up in the dictionary. Dictionary lookup and new word notetaking themselves are not bad practice, but it would not be an effective learning approach to look up a large number of new words and take their meanings down on notebook before or while reading. After teaching English for years in a university, the author finds that students attach great importance to English and spend a lot of time in previewing the lessons. However, the author often finds such a phenomenon where many students, heedless of the general idea of the text, only look for unknown words when previewing a text and take these words down in a notebook. Afterwards they would look them up in the dictionary and note down all word meanings without caring which meaning is being used in the text. When the teacher asks about the meaning of a new word in class, students often scramble for a hint in their notebook and offer a list of meanings of the word. This indicates that students fail to grasp the exact meaning of the word in the text. Then, what is point of dictionary lookup and word note taking? We only discuss a lexical teaching approach of teachers above to illustrate how teachers may have an influence on learners’ development and use of learning strategies. Indeed, every aspect of teaching activities, is it educational teaching or skill training, plays an active or negative role in promoting the development and use of learners’ learning strategies.
5. *Other Factors Influencing Language Learning Strategies.*

Attitude and motivation also affect the development and use of learning strategies. Research has shown that highly motivated learners with a positive attitude adopt a wider range of learning strategies and use them more frequently. In addition, type of motivation also influences the choice of learning strategies. For example, learners with instrumental motivation tend to use more communication strategies, because they mainly aim to improve their language ability for a particular purpose (Shu & Zhuang, 1996). In addition, differences in learners’ language level can also affect the choice and use of learning strategies. Studies have shown that advanced learners use more strategies than beginners do, and use them more frequently. On the same level, learners with better academic record use more strategies than those with poor performance. In addition, poorly performed learners also use some strategies that are not very effective. Finally, the learning environment of learners also influences the use of learning strategies (Rubin, 1987). Here, the learning environment includes teaching method, materials, evaluation standards, assessment method, students’ learning autonomy, cultural background and other related aspects.

To that respect, we must highlight, from the perspective of a truly Dominican culture experience in the EFL Classrooms, both in high schools and colleges level, as well, that there are another factors, besides the above-described ones, like political and socio-economical ones, that greatly influence and bias our students in our region (Caribbean, Central and South America) because of the recent history of *political interference* (That’s an euphemism), coming mostly from the retardataries forces within the United States of America.

And I truly believe, from our humble perspective and classroom experience, that we must avoid the unfair position of labeling our students into the two known groups of “successful” and “unsuccessful” ones, instead of recognizing that there is a wide and ample range of variables (dependent/independent ones) to be seriously taken into consideration.
Chapter Four: Psychological Factors affecting the Learning Process in General.

Factor A (Affectivity): evaluates the degree to which the person establishes contact with other individuals. People who obtain high scores (A+) have a greater disposition toward interpersonal relationships, affect, tend to be more expressive, willing to cooperate, affectionate, generous, active, and not afraid of criticism. They enjoy jobs that are based on social interaction such as sales, social work or teaching. Those who score low (A-) tend to be more reserved, formal, cold and distant. They prefer to work alone, they are more rigid and can be quite critical and even rude.

Factor B (Reasoning): it measures the intellectual capacity according to the predominance of abstract thought or concrete thought, taking into account that the abstract is characteristic of a person of greater intelligence and the concrete of a lower intelligence. A person with high scores (B+) captures, analyzes and understands ideas or concepts more easily. Those who obtain low scores (B-) tend to interpret most things in a more literal and concrete way. They show greater difficulty in understanding concepts and for learning in general.

Factor C (Stability): assesses the emotional stability of the person and the way he adapts to the environment around him. High scores (C+) are typical of realistic, mature individuals with a high ego strength and emotionally stable. Those who score low (C-) tend to be people who are easily frustrated, are quickly affected by feelings and when they do not get what they want, they tend to evade reality and their ego strength is low. They may suffer from neuroticism, all kinds of phobias, psychosomatic disorders and sleep problems.

Factor E (Dominance): measures the degree of dominance or submission that an individual presents in their social relationships. High scores (E+) indicate that the person is very dominant. This type of person seeks to be in positions of power to control others. They tend to be competitive, aggressive and very sure of themselves. People who score low (E-) tend to be submissive, passive, humble, conformist and docile. They are easily led by others and avoid conflicts in their interpersonal relationships, striving to please also seek the approval of others.
Factor F (Impulsivity): assesses the level of enthusiasm in social contexts. People with high scores (F +) tend to be highly spontaneous, impulsive, expressive and cheerful. Low scores (F-) are characteristic of prudent, serious, introspective and, in general, pessimistic people.

G Factor (Group Conformity): measures acceptance of moral values. According to Freud's theory, the superego is explored. High scores in this factor (G +) are typical of moralistic, responsible and conscientious people, who tend to always act according to the rules. Those who obtain low scores (G-) are people who do not like to behave according to the norms, nor completely submit to the customs of society or their culture.

Factor H (Daring): evaluates the reactivity of the nervous system according to the dominance of the sympathetic or parasympathetic nervous system. People who score high on this factor (H +) dominate the parasympathetic system. They are able to function under high levels of stress, they love taking risks and they are great adventurers. Low scores on this factor (H-) are characteristics of people under the control of the sympathetic system. They are not attracted by risk or adventure, they look for security, everything predictable and stable.

Factor I (Sensibility): measures the predominance of feelings over rational thinking. Those who score high (I +) are dominated by their feelings. They tend to be very emotional, have a great sensitivity and are sometimes unrealistic. Those who obtain low scores (I-) present a rational thought, are very practical, realistic, responsible and independent. They can be quite cynical and rude.

L Factor (Suspicion): evaluates the level of confidence or distrust that an individual has toward others. Those who score high (L +) tend to distrust others, and may end up presenting, in extreme cases, a paranoid behavior. For this reason, the interpersonal relations of the L + are generally problematic, deteriorating due to the excess of jealousy, suspicion and skepticism of these individuals. People who obtain low scores (L-) are characterized by being very confident. They are people who adapt easily, care about their colleagues, are open, tolerant and very uncompetitive.

M Factor (Imagination): measures the capacity of abstraction of the individual. People with high scores (M +) are characterized by an intense internal life. These people are easily
immersed in their thoughts, and are distracted from what is happening around them. They have a great imagination, they are very creative and unconventional. Those who score low (M-) are very realistic and practical people, they are interested in the concrete and the obvious, but they are not very imaginative. In cases of emergency, they tend to remain calm and are able to resolve the situation.

Factor N (Cunning): assesses the ability to analyze reality exhaustively and describes the degree to which people hide, showing only those features that generate the answers they want to obtain from others. People who obtain high scores (N +) tend to be calculating, cold, refined, diplomatic and very socially conscious. Those who score low (N-) are open, direct, genuine and sincere people who do not strive to impress others.

O Factor (Guilt): assesses a person’s ability to take responsibility for their actions. Explore self-esteem based on tendencies to experience guilt or insecurities. The high scores (O +) are typical of people who suffer, who tend to blame themselves for everything. They have very high personal expectations, they worry too much, they are insecure and they often feel unaccepted. Those who tap low (O-) have a very positive view of their person, are self-confident and are not likely to experience guilt.

Factor Q1 (Rebellion): measures the predisposition towards change and mental openness. High scores in (Q1 +) are more open and willing to change. They tend to be liberal and reject the traditional and conventional. The people who offer low scores in (Q1-) are very conservative and traditional. They accept the established without hardly questioning, they are not interested in analytical thinking and demonstrate a marked resistance to change.

Factor Q2 (Self-sufficiency): measures the degree of dependence or personal independence. Those who obtain high scores in this factor (Q2 +) are eminently self-sufficient individuals, who know how to make decisions without caring about the opinions of others, prefer to be alone most of the time and do their things without asking for help from others. The low scores in (Q2-) are typical of preferring to be in a group and usually make their decisions based on what others think or what society establishes. They need to feel that they belong to a group and that they are accepted and loved.
People who score high (Q3 +) strive to show an ideal and socially accepted image. They tend to control their emotions, they are very self-conscious, compulsive and perfectionist. The (Q3-) do not strive to control themselves to achieve equal social ideals of behavior. These people lead a more relaxed and less stressful life than the Q3 +, but tend to be less successful and recognized.

Factor Q4 (Tension): measures the level of nervous tension or anxiety of the subject. People who tap high (Q4 +) experience extreme levels of nervous tension. They are impatient and are distinguished by their inability to remain inactive due to their high degree of nervousness. They tend to get frustrated easily, because their behavior results from an excess of impulses that are often inadequately expressed. Those that score low in (Q4-), are characterized by the low presence of nervous tension. They usually lead a quiet and relaxed existence, governed by calm, patience, conformity and a high degree of general satisfaction.

Second order factors

The second order factors of the 16PF arise from the combination of several related factors.

The second order factors offer information for a broader understanding of personality, as they are described by a smaller number of general features.

QS1 (Introversion vs. extroversion). This factor arises from the combination of the primary factors A, F, H and Q2. People who score low on this factor are eminently introverted. They tend to be shy, inhibited, but self-sufficient. Those who obtain high scores are extroverted, socially uninhibited and have the ability to establish and maintain numerous interpersonal contacts.

QS2 (Anxiety vs. tranquility). It comes out of the combination of the primary factors O, Q4, C, Q3, L and H, and measures the levels of anxiety of the person. People with low scores have a low level of anxiety and are characterized by being serene, realistic, emotionally stable and confident. High scores are typical of individuals with a high level of anxiety. They tend to be insecure, emotionally unstable, shy, tense and distrustful.

QS3 (Susceptibility vs. tenacity). The third factor of second order is based on the combination of the factors: I, M, A, Q1, F, E, & L. Those who obtain low scores are people with great emotional sensitivity and very influenced by their emotions. They are also
imaginative, distracted, gentle and affectionate towards others. They have artistic and cultural interests, and they are liberal people open to new experiences. The subjects that score low in this factor, are practical, independent, realistic, conservative, dominant, assertive, competitive and reserved. They maintain distances, are distrustful and tend to criticize others.

QS4 (Dependence vs. independence). This fourth factor of second order combines the factors E, H, Q1, L, O, N, G, Q2 and M. Low scores are typical of people submissive, docile, shy, humble, conservative and insecure, and completely dependent of the group to which they belong. High scores are typical of independent people. They are self-sufficient, distrustful, aggressive, uninhibited and radical people who show no need to be accepted socially.

QS5 (High self-control vs low self-control). The fifth and last factor of second order arises from the combination between factors G and Q3 to measure the level of control of the superego of the person. Those who obtain high scores very self-controlled, persistent, conscientious, compulsive and tenacious people. Those who get low scores have a low control of their superego and are easily led by their impulses and needs.
Chapter IV: Theories of Second Language Acquisition

To that respect Krashen (1998) cited by Asian Social Council (2009) explains that: the Affective factors in Second Language Acquisition, are mainly four; which are responsible for the individual variation. But he stated for explaining the complexity of the phenomena five different Hypothesis:

**Krashen’s Five Hypotheses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Natural Order</td>
<td>'we acquire the rules of language in a predictable order'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothesis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Acquisition/</td>
<td>'adults have two distinctive ways of developing competences in second languages .. acquisition, that is by using language for real communication .. &quot;knowing about&quot; language' (Krashen &amp; Terrell 1983)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Hypothesis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Monitor Hypothesis</td>
<td>'conscious learning ... can only be used as a Monitor or an editor' (Krashen &amp; Terrell 1983)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Input Hypothesis</td>
<td>'humans acquire language in only one way - by understanding messages or by receiving &quot;comprehensible input&quot;'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Affective Filter</td>
<td>'a mental block, caused by affective factors ... that prevents input from reaching the language acquisition device' (Krashen, 1985, p.100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothesis</td>
<td></td>
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Krashen’s Affective Filter Hypothesis that explain how having a negative attitude toward a nation or culture (Affective Factors) can affect a Second language learning.

**Motivation**

Most researchers and educators would agree that motivation "is a very important, if not the most important factor in language learning", without which even 'gifted' individuals cannot accomplish long-term goals, whatever the curricula and whoever the teacher. In terms of the definition of motivation, recent educational theory has tended toward the interpretation of Gardner (1985) defining motivation to learn an L2 as "the extent to which the individual
works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity”. So, the motivation of SLA refers to the desire and impetus of the acquirers. Gardner and Krashen point out that there are two motivations, integrative one and instrumental one. With the former motivation, the L2 acquirers are interested in the target language and willing to participate in that social life. But with the latter motivation, the L2 acquirers only want to pass some examination, go overseas to study, travel or be promoted. We can easily see that these two motivations are positive and negative to the SLA respectively.

Attitude Collins Cobuild Student's Dictionary explains that: "Your attitude to something is the way you think and feel about it". Psychological theories on attitudes refer to an evaluative, emotional reaction (i.e. the degree of like or dislike associated with the attitudinal object) comprising three components: affect, cognition, and behavior. How attitude influences the SLA are shown as follows:

The acquirers with positive attitude tend to learn L2 easily and with rapid progress; while those with negative attitude make slowly progress.

Attitude decides the commitment. Those who give up halfway are probably passive with lower commitment whose achievements are lower than those positive and persistent learners.

Attitude influences the class participation. The students with positive learning attitude perform actively and can have high grade.
Anxiety from the SLA perspective, Gardner & MacIntyre (1993) see language anxiety as "the apprehension experienced when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not fully proficient", this apprehension being characterised by "derogatory self-related cognitions ..., feelings of apprehension, and physiological responses such as increased heart rate". There are correlations between anxiety and performance. Foreign language classroom anxiety has three types:

Communication apprehension Communication apprehension (CA) has been defined as an "individual level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons". The question of communication apprehension becomes increasingly important. It is a prevalent impairing and chronic condition, and it has been one of mental health condition that afflicts L2 acquirers’ achievement. General personality traits such as quietness, shyness, and reticence frequently precipitate CA. When the ability and desire to participate in discussion are present, but the process of verbalizing is inhibited, shyness or reticence is occurring. The degree of shyness, or range of situations that it affects, varies greatly from individual to individual. About one of every five persons--20 percent of all college students--is communication apprehensive. Communication apprehensive people may not appear apprehensive unless they are engaging in a particular type of communication.

Test anxiety is a psychological condition in which a person experiences distress before, during, or after an exam or other assessment to such an extent that this anxiety causes poor performance or interferes with normal learning. Test anxiety can develop from a number of
reasons. There may be some prior negative experience with test taking that serves as the activating event. Students who have experienced, or have a fear of, blanking out on tests or the inability to perform in testing situations can develop anticipatory anxiety. Worrying about how anxiety will affect you can be as debilitating as the anxiety itself. This kind of anxiety can build as the testing situation approaches, and can interfere with the student's ability to prepare adequately. Lack of preparation is another factor that can contribute to test anxiety. Poor time management, poor study habits, and lack of organization can lead to a student feeling overwhelmed. Students who are forced to cram at the last minute will feel less confident about the material covered than those who have been able to follow a structured plan for studying. Being able to anticipate what the exam will cover, and knowing all the information has been covered during the study sessions, can help students to enter the testing situation with a more positive attitude. Test anxiety can also develop genetically. Lack of confidence, fear of failure, and other negative thought processes may also contribute to test anxiety. The pressure to perform well on exams is a great motivator unless it is so extreme that it becomes irrational. Perfectionism and feelings of unworthiness provide unreasonable goals to achieve through testing situations. When a student's self-esteem is too closely tied to the outcome of any one academic task, the results can be devastating. In these situations, students may spend more time focusing on the negative consequences of failure, than preparing to succeed.

Fear of negative evaluation the feeling of negative evaluation accompanying anxiety is defined as being overly concerned with others’ opinions, hiding from the negative feelings of their unfavorable impressions, avoiding situations where there is potential evaluation,
and expecting others to have a low opinion of them. Fear of negative evaluation occurs when L2 learners feel that they are not able to make the proper social impression. It is an apprehension about others’ evaluation, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation. Fear of negative evaluation itself was found to be a strong source of language anxiety.

Self-confidence L2 acquirers’ personality factors relate a lot to the learning effect. Among the personality factors, self-confidence is the most important one. Those who have enough self-confidence and positive personal image succeed more. Self-confident people dare to adventure, to communicate in foreign language and can gain more. While those who lack self-confidence will lose the chances to practice their target language, for they are afraid of losing face and making mistakes.

How to make use of Affective filter hypothesis in second language teaching?

Analyze students’ learning motivation, motivate them, and help them possess a positive attitude Some students have very poor performance on the L2, only because they have little or not enough motivation for it and there are mainly five reasons: 1) no interest. 2) No confidence. 3) Teacher’s inappropriate teaching method. 4) Some negative national emotions against the target language. 5) Students think it no use to learn. From the above reasons, we can see that teachers can motivate students’ learning motivation. First teachers should cultivate their interest in L2, as we all know interest is the best teacher. Teachers should introduce more diversified teaching method, use vivid and humorous language to enlighten students, create a harmonious and light atmosphere for
learning, and regularly introduce some culture and background knowledge of the target language. Then more language practice is needed to inspire students’ motivation, such like speaking contest, improvised speech, informal discussion with foreign language teachers, and some parties. If possible, teachers also can help students attend some social activities where they can use their target language, through which students can know their advantages and disadvantages, can know what they can do and what they cannot do, and then can have a clear idea of the future SLA. It is also very important to create more chances for students to practice in the classroom. Students can be encouraged to design and organize classroom activities, which can not only inspire them but also help them better understand and consolidate what they have got and increase their efficiency. When students have both interest and motivation for the L2, they can naturally develop a positive attitude toward L2 which will help their SLA.

Boost up students learning confidence and lower their language anxiety as is talked above, self-confidence plays a very import role in SLA. The cultivation of self-confidence depends on students themselves and teachers’ help as well. Teachers should let students have the feeling that they can learn a L2 well by using more encourage and praise. Classroom atmosphere is very important, which should be delighted, lively, friendly and harmonious that can help students overcome their psychological barrier, and lower their anxiety. Teachers also should tolerate some small mistakes made by students only if those mistakes do not affect the communication process, because it can release pressure and strengthen their self-confidence. In the classroom, teachers should not only encourage students’ active participation but be patient with and allow their keeping quiet. There is little use pushing or
forcing them to say something they are unwilling or not ready to say. On the contrary, it can only bring more mental burden. So, teachers should teach students in accordance of their individual variations. To be more exact, some of the factors that can reduce classroom communication apprehension include: Taking time to allow classmates to get to know each other, particularly at the beginning of the year; Creating a warm, welcoming classroom environment; Promoting group projects and group discussions; Letting shy children work with whom they feel most comfortable; Encouraging social and oral activities as opposed to just pen and paper assignments. (p 163)

Collective Consciousness

It seems to be like there is a collective consciousness that prevent a great portion of our country´s population in accepting to learn certain languages like Haitian Creole, after some traumatic historical experiences (Haiti invaded the Dominican soil for a period of 22 years, where attempts to forbid the Spanish language were made among other atrocities to our culture), and that produced the movement toward our independence in 1844), to that respect some authors like Piepmeyer (2007) warns us as follows:

The term collective consciousness refers to the condition of the subject within the whole of society, and how any given individual comes to view herself as a part of any given group. The term has specifically been used by social theorists/psychoanalysts like Durkheim, Althusser, and Jung to explicate how an autonomous individual comes to identify with a larger group/structure. Definitively, “collective” means “[f]ormed by [a] collection of individual persons or things; constituting a collection; gathered into one; taken as a whole;
aggregate, collected” (OED). Likewise, “consciousness,” (a term which is slightly more complex to define with the entirety of its implications) signifies “Joint or mutual knowledge,” “Internal knowledge or conviction; knowledge as to which one has the testimony within oneself; esp. of one's own innocence, guilt, deficiencies,” and “The state or fact of being mentally conscious or aware of anything” (OED). By combining the two terms, we can surmise that the phrase collective consciousness implies an internal knowing known by all, or a consciousness shared by a plurality of persons. The easiest way to think of the phrase (even with its extremely loaded historical content) is to regard it as being an idea or proclivity that we all share, whoever specifically “we” might entail.

Although history credits Émile Durkheim with the coinage of the phrase, many other theorists have engaged the notion. The term has specifically been used by social theorists like Durkheim, Althusser, and Jung to explicate how an autonomous individual comes to identify with a larger group/structure, and as such, how patterns of commonality among individuals bring legible unity to those structures. Durkheim and Althusser are concerned with the making of the subject as an aggregation of external processes/societal conditions. Also, worth noting (though of a slightly different variety) are the writings of Vladmir Vernadsky, Katherine Hayles, and Slavoj Zizek, (specifically his pieces about cyberspace). In his Rules of Sociological Method, Durkheim’s social conscience arises from his social theory. Desperate to know what causes individuals to act in similar and predictable manners, he observes: “If I do not submit to the conventions of society, if in my dress I do not conform to the customs observed in my country and in my class, the ridicule I provoke, the social isolation in which I am kept, produce, although in an attenuated form, the same
effects as punishment....” (Durkheim 3). He eventually concludes that “A social fact is to be recognized by the power of external coercion which it exercises or is capable of exercising over individuals, and the presence of this power may be recognized in its turn either by the existence of some specific sanction or by the resistance offered against every individual effort that tends to violate it” (Durkheim 8). Thus, humans come to act in certain ways via a kind of reward/punishment system enacted at the level(s) of both The State and the social spheres; subjects are trained in a kind of inward-outward movement; the individual may have certain barbaric proclivities, but the assimilation process into the social sphere corrects those tendencies by the distribution of positive or negative reinforcements. Collective consciousness is the effect of the trained subject—through the process of becoming a subject, an individual learns to be common: to dress, speak, and act like her neighbors. The “socially conscious” subject is the legible subject, one who exists in a degree of visible sameness in relation to the other members of the group/society.

Louis Althusser, an avid Marxist, specifically concerned himself with the "making" of the individual as a process of external coercion. In his formulation, the subject is created via a top-down network of “Ideological State Apparatuses,” or ISAs, which “present themselves to the immediate observer in the form of distinct and specialized institutions” (Althusser 143). At the top of the structure is The State, which aims to control the bottom (the individual subjects) through a series of institutional mediations. ISAs present all forms of communication and information to the public. They are every imaginable institution: Education, The Media, Law, Religion, etc. These ISAs direct power onto the subject at all times, honing her from the outside into the subjective (and subjected) body that will uphold
and reproduce the power of The State. In Althusser’s formulation, the inwardness of an individual member of the public is born from a lifetime bombardment of external coercion—individuals come to fulfill certain common duties, have common aspirations, follow common life-trajectories, etc. The “consciousness” of each individual is not something which originates from a singular interior spirit, but rather is pressured into being by the external devices of the State. Thus, collective consciousness again represents the individual’s relationship to a larger group or structure, but marks the sameness (the same set of ISAs applies to all subjects) among members of that group, which act to make that group a cohesive whole.

The aforementioned prescriptions of collective consciousness express the phrase as the internal representation of external conditions present in any given society. These are exerted upon the subject in a variety of ways, and then assimilated into the subject’s consciousness. The idea is that the collective is a mass of like-minded persons who will (re)emerge to reproduce the production force. Thus, collective consciousness is the affect/effect upon and inside of any given public whose thoughts and actions are constantly mediated by outside pressures.

The notion of collective consciousness also owes a tremendous amount to the emerging popularity of psychoanalysis in the 20th century. Carl Jung coined the term collective unconscious to denote the shared contexts and meanings of individual’s dreams. According to Jung, there exists a pre-experiential set of “mythological motifs, combinations of ideas or images which can be found in the myths of one's own folk or in those of other races” which yield “a collective meaning, a meaning which is the common property of mankind” (Jung
The unconscious is the portion of the self of which the individual is unaware, yet which still exerts control over the behaviors, desires, and drives of that individual. As such, unconsciousness is never entirely divorced from the consciousness within the individual, and one necessarily informs the other. One of the main goals of psychoanalytic speech is to bring the unconscious into consciousness, so that the patient may become aware of why she behaves in certain fashions. The Jungian “collective unconscious” is important when considering its other, “collective consciousness” because it suggests an original set of archetypes common to all members of a group, and out of which they formulate meanings, contexts, and patterns within the group.

The Althusserian and psychoanalytic readings presents a more classic meaning of collective consciousness, yet its discursive qualities ring true for the ways in which we presently think of the term as a foundation of media studies. Marshall McLuhan defines media as an “extension of man,” indicating that humans create the world and their tools in their image, likening technological apparatuses after their senses. Media, in the McLuhan vein, is intimately linked with the word medium, described as “Something which is intermediate between two degrees, amounts, qualities, or classes; a middle state” (OED). The internet is the ultimate medium; it provides a virtual meeting place for persons to gather and perform daily rituals of subjectivity (even at the micro-level of person to person discourse) all channeled through a technological network.

Collective consciousness is a term much needed by media theorists because it postulates one, if not the, effect of media—whose broadest primary function is to carry/transmit/interpret/reify messages/information from one site to another. Having
described the contemporary historical epoch as “posthuman,” media theorists like Katherine Hayles strongly depend upon the notion of collective consciousness. In a McLuhan-schematic maneuver, internet theorists mark “code” (the binary-numerical formulations which create internet-language) as direct replications of the human genome: differences are produced by slight variations on a set of simple, universal entities. In How We Became Posthuman, Hayles remarks that “the post human is ‘post’ not because it is necessarily unfree but because there is no a priori way to identify a self-will that can be clearly distinguished from another-will.” (Hayles 4) A coded human existence is one without the singularity of the liberal subject. Instead of a multiplicity of singular wills or a cacophony of different spirits and personalities, subjects are transcribed into codes operating via variations of ones and zeroes.

Present media theorists sometimes link the notion of collective consciousness to signal the internet as a major intermediary in the creation of a truly global society. In a 1998 interview with online technology review “Telepolis,” Slavoj Zizek described the consciousness of Internet culture as “this neo-Jungian idea that we live in an age of mechanistic, false individualism and that we are now on the threshold of a new mutation...We all share a collective mind.” The “collective mind” that Zizek here discusses refers to Russian geochemist Vladimir Vernadsky’s noosphere. The noosphere is “The part of the biosphere occupied by thinking humanity”—the last of a tripartite evolutionary system in which human cognition is freed from the confines of an organic body. The noosphere is also “characterized by (the emergence or dominance of) consciousness, the mind” (OED).
Chapter V: The Importance of the English Language in Today's Dominican Society

The Four Major Sources of Dominican Economy that are directly related to the English Language Use: External Revenues, Tourism, Duty Free Zone and Major League Baseball.

The Dominican Republic has the ninth largest economy in Latin America, and is the largest in the Caribbean and developing country primarily dependent on agriculture, mining, trade, and services. Although the service sector has recently overtaken agriculture as the leading employer of Dominicans (due principally to growth in tourism and Free Trade Zones), agriculture remains the most important sector in terms of domestic consumption and is in second place (behind mining) in terms of export earnings. Tourism accounts for more than $1 billion in annual earnings. Free trade zone earnings and tourism are the fastest-growing export sectors. According to a 1999 International Monetary Fund report, remittances from Dominican Americans, are estimated to be about $1.5 billion per year. Most of these funds are used to cover basic household needs such as shelter, food, clothing, health care and education. Secondarily, remittances have financed small businesses and other productive activities.

The Dominican Republic’s most important trading partner is the United States (75% of export revenues). Other main markets are the People’s Republic of China, Haiti, Mexico, Colombia, Spain, and Brazil, in that quantitative order.

The country exports free-trade-zone manufactured products (garments, medical devices, and so on), nickel, sugar, coffee, cacao, and tobacco. It imports petroleum, industrial raw materials, capital goods, and foodstuffs. On 5 September 2005, the Congress of the Dominican Republic ratified a free trade agreement with the U.S. and five Central
American countries, the Dominican Republic – Central America Free Trade Agreement (CAFTA-DR). CAFTA-DR entered into force for the Dominican Republic on 1 March 2007. The total stock of U.S. foreign direct investment (FDI) in Dominican Republic as of 2006 was U.S. $3.3 billion, much of it directed to the energy and tourism sectors, to free trade zones, and to the telecommunications sector. Remittances were close to $2.7 billion in 2006.

An important aspect of the Dominican economy is the Free Trade Zone industry (FTZ), which made up U.S. $4.55 billion in Dominican exports for 2006 (70% of total exports). Reports show, however, that the FTZs lost approximately 60,000 between 2005 and 2007 and suffered a 4% decrease in total exports in 2006. The textiles sector experienced an approximate 17% drop in exports due in part to the appreciation of the Dominican peso against the dollar, Asian competition following expiration of the quotas of the Multi-Fiber Arrangement, and a government-mandated increase in salaries, which should have occurred in 2005 but was postponed to January 2006. Lost Dominican business was captured by firms in Central America and Asia. The tobacco, jewelry, medical, and pharmaceutical sectors in the FTZs all reported increases for 2006, which somewhat offset textile and garment losses. Industry experts from the FTZs expected that entry into force of the CAFTA-DR agreement will promote substantial growth in the FTZ sector for 2007.

Dominican Republic According to ECLAC estimates, the Dominican Republic is expected to post economic growth of around 6.0% in 2014 (compared with 4.6% in 2013). Inflation might reach about 3.5% in late December (compared with 3.9% in December 2013),
grazing the floor of the target range, which is 4.5% with a 1-percentage-point margin in either direction. The balance-of-payments current account deficit is expected to remain at around 4% of GDP, similar to the level recorded in late 2013, while the consolidated public-sector deficit is expected to come in at about 3.5% of GDP.

In 2015, economic activity could expand by approximately 5%, driven by sustained growth in consumption and rallying exports, assuming the United States continues to recover. This, together with low oil prices, could bring the balance-of-payments current account deficit down to about 3%.

The tax reform adopted in late 2012 (Act No. 253-12) raised the industrialized goods and services transfer tax (ITBIS) from 16% to 18% and introduced a lower rate of 8% on goods that had previously been exempt. This boosted central government revenue, which was up by 14.9% in nominal terms in September 2014 to 15.6% of GDP, while the total expenditure of the central government rose by 12%. These fiscal consolidation efforts should allow the consolidated deficit to fall to a level equivalent to 3.5% of GDP by year-end, despite the higher central bank operating losses resulting from the decline in recapitalization transfers. The total debt of the non-financial public sector amounted to US$ 23.997 billion (38% of GDP) at the end of October. Of this total, external debt accounted for US$ 15.642 billion.

Tax revenues could represent 15% of GDP by December 2014. Indeed, they showed a nominal increase of 14.9% to September, owing primarily to higher corporation tax revenues on the back of the sale of two companies, Orange and Tricom. Also noteworthy is
the increase in revenues from taxes on foreign trade (11.5% to September) resulting largely from administrative improvements in customs revenue collection procedures.

The uptick in spending is attributable mainly to higher current expenditure, with wages and salaries up by 21.5%, while capital expenditure dropped by 2.9%, largely owing to an 18.5% reduction in fixed investment, and capital transfers rose by 28.6%.

Fiscal contraction was combined with a neutral monetary policy, with the base rate being held steady at 6.5% as of November 2014. This, together with a loss of net reserves of some US$ 363 million, held inflation near the floor of the target range set by the monetary authority earlier in the year (3.5% to 5.5%).

The interest rate on lending to the private sector, as a weighted average, was 13.5% in October 2014, and outstanding credit is expected to have expanded by some 9% in real terms by year-end. The expansion in lending was attributable primarily to increases in nominal credit for real estate services (70.2%), social services (54.9%), consumption (18.6%) and housing (14.7%).

As a result of the country’s robust economic and credit performance, the financial sector reported a return on assets of 2.0% and a return on equity of

Dominican Republic: GDP and Inflation, 2012-2014

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), on the basis of official figures.
some 18.48% as of September 2014, these being similar to the figures recorded up to September 2013.

The external sector has performed well owing to higher exports as a result of increased gold production, exports from free zones and tourism revenues.

Total exports to September came to US$ 7.419 billion (representing year-on-year growth of 4.3%), including record non-monetary gold exports totalling US$ 1.143 billion (a 34.9% increase over September 2013). Tourism revenue increased by over US$ 440 million (11.5% year-on-year) to total US$ 4.285 billion by the end of the third quarter. Family remittances also performed very favourably, growing by 10.8% to September owing to the improving United States economy, the main source of remittances to the Dominican Republic. As a result, remittances should represent about 7.5% of GDP by year-end.

Total imports amounted to US$ 13.038 billion to September 2014 (a year-on-year increase of 5.5%), the great bulk being non-oil imports, while the oil bill fell by US$ 165.8 million (5.0% year-on-year) as one major company suspended imports for re-export and crude oil prices dropped.

Imports of consumer goods, which represent over 50% of the total, expanded by 4.7% to September, while imports of raw materials for industry were up by 6%. Imports of capital goods remained virtually unchanged, edging up by only 0.7%, despite the fact that foreign direct investment grew by 19.8% to US$ 1.807 billion (3.8% of GDP), largely on the back of the communications, commerce and tourism sectors.
Balance-of-payments operations brought net consolidated international reserves down by US$ 75.9 million (2.1%) between year-end 2013 and September 2014. Gross reserves totalled US$ 4.282 billion, equivalent to 2.8 months of imports.

Year-on-year inflation was 2.9% in October, while core inflation, which is directly related to monetary conditions, stood at 3.1%. Food and non-alcoholic beverages, alcoholic beverages and tobacco, education, and restaurants and hotels were the groups contributing most to this outcome, together accounting for 76.4% of cumulative inflation between January and October, which stood at 2.4%. On the basis of that trend to October, inflation could be very close to the floor of the target range set by the central bank at the end of the year. The open unemployment rate fell from 6.9% to 6.0% in October 2014.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Dominican Republic Trade</th>
<th>Last</th>
<th>Previous</th>
<th>Highest</th>
<th>Lowest</th>
<th>Unit</th>
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<tr>
<td>Balance of Trade</td>
<td>-787.00</td>
<td>-776.30</td>
<td>-80.60</td>
<td>-1028.20</td>
<td>USD Million [+]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exports</td>
<td>754.90</td>
<td>839.50</td>
<td>912.00</td>
<td>282.80</td>
<td>USD Million [+]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imports</td>
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<td>1615.80</td>
<td>1687.60</td>
<td>445.10</td>
<td>USD Million [+]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Account</td>
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<td>-452.00</td>
<td>587.00</td>
<td>-1561.10</td>
<td>USD Million [+]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Account to GDP</td>
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<td>-1.90</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>-9.40</td>
<td>percent [+]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remittances</td>
<td>4960.60</td>
<td>4571.30</td>
<td>4960.60</td>
<td>1807.00</td>
<td>USD Million [+]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gold Reserves</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>Tonnes [+]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorism Index</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>[+]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Google webpage
Major League Baseball in the Dominican Republic.

According to Mayer (2007) “Baseball is something special in the Dominican Republic. Just one town in the southeast corner of this island – San Pedro de Macorís -- has produced 78 major league players including Sammy Sosa. (Kurlansky, 2007) Many other major league stars and hundreds of other major league players have come from small towns scattered around this island nation less than a third the size of Illinois. Young Dominican boys have lived and breathed baseball for many decades, with dirt streets as playing fields, sticks as bats, and rolled up socks as baseballs. The love of the game, which is played year round, permeates the culture. Baseball gives young Dominicans hope and something to strive for; for some -- Vladimir Guerrero, Pedro Martinez, David Ortiz, Albert Pujols, Manny Ramirez, Alfonso Soriano, and Miguel Tejada -- it has provided a ticket to a much better life.

Baseball was introduced to the Dominican Republic from Cuba around 1890. Professional Dominican teams were formed in the early 1900s, and amateur baseball teams grew up in the sugarcane fields that at this time dominated the country’s economy. Baseball was
introduced by the sugar refineries to entertain the workers during the slow work season. But before long community spirit ignited intense rivalries between the various refinery communities and the sport began to take off. (Klein, 1991: 25) During the U.S. occupation of the country in 1916-1924, Dominican teams took on U.S. military teams. Some Dominican historians believe that the best baseball in the world was played in the DR in 1937 during the Ciudad Trujillo championship, attracting talented players from Cuba and the Negro Leagues in the United States. (Ruck, 1991: 10-33)

Osvaldo Virgil was the first Dominican to debut in a MLB game in 1956. Since then hundreds have played; the Dominican Republic contributes more foreign-born talent to the MLB rosters than any other country – 94 players in 2007. Venezuela ranked second with 50 players, but it has more than twice the population of the Dominican Republic. Puerto Rico followed with 28 MLB players. (Kurlansky, 2007). Dominicans and other foreign-born players have an even larger presence in the minor leagues. Foreign-born players made up 46.2 percent of minor leaguers at the start of the 2007 season; the percentage in the major leagues was about 26 percent. More than half of foreign-born minor league players are from the Dominican Republic – one quarter of all minor league players. (Moore, 2007; Cary, 2007)

But it’s not just a love of the game that puts Dominican players on MLB teams. The Dominican Republic, although it has been growing rapidly in over the last two decades, is still among the poorest countries in Latin America. Jobs are scarce, wages are low, and unemployment and underemployment are high. MLB has increasingly searched for and
cultivated talent in the Dominican Republic for economic reasons – talented players come cheap there. The New York Mets General Manager in the late 1990s was quoted as saying, “You can develop 30 to 45 players from the Dominican for what it costs to sign a second-round draft pick in the States.” (As cited in Juffer, 2002: 348)

Major league teams began to establish academies in the Dominican Republic in the late 1970s. The Los Angeles Dodgers and the Toronto Blue Jays were among the first teams to do so. Today almost every team has some form of an academy there, where promising players are provided with food, healthcare, and training. Those prospects that are selected to sign contracts get both a salary and a signing bonus.

While the signing bonuses earned by young Dominicans are usually quite low compared to those earned by American prospects, even the average bonus of $5,000 to $8000 is higher than average GDP per capita. (Elliott, 2006) (Seibel, 2006) Some young Dominican ballplayers benefit from a bidding war for their services and are able to command signing bonuses that are significantly higher than the average. Esmailyn Gonzalez was signed in 2006 by the Washington Nationals for $1.4 million when he was 17 years old. This enabled him to buy a Cadillac Escalade and build a new house for his family. (Svrluga, 2006)

It is not only the prospect himself who benefits from the signing bonus. Twenty percent of Gonzalez’ bonus was paid to his buscon, or agent. (Svrluga, 2006) This is a substantially higher percentage than agents receive in the United States, but the role of buscones is commensurately more involved than that of a typical agent, combining the roles of scout, trainer, and agent. A talented Dominican youth is often discovered by a buscon at age 14
or 15. The prospect often lives and trains with the buscon who will arrange tryouts for his client upon his turning 16. Despite the allegations of corruption, the estimated hundreds of buscones provide a service in discovering and developing talented ballplayers. Many Dominican major leaguers remain grateful to their agent. Wilson Betemit, third baseman for the Los Angeles Dodgers, supplies the training facility run by his uncle with the shoes, gloves, and bats that are so rare in the Dominican Republic. (Brown, 2006)

Of course the vast majority of the hopeful young ballplayers do not make it to the major leagues, or are quickly released from the minor leagues if they make it to the States. Some neglect their schooling in pursuit of their baseball dream. And of those who do make it to the United States, an estimated 90 to 95 percent are released from their contracts at the minor league level. (Villegas and Breton, 2002)

On the other hand, the salaries and bonuses paid to the players, and the resources to run the academies, pump real dollars into poor Dominican neighborhoods. The economic benefits can no longer be considered negligible. For example, the San Diego Padres began building a state-of-the-art training facility in San Cristobal in January of 2007. The cost of construction was expected to be about $8 million. The facility is being built on 15 acres overlooking the Caribbean, featuring two and one-half practice fields, airconditioned accommodations for up to 60 players, residences for managers and coaches, administrative offices, a 20,000 sq-ft clubhouse, a dining hall, and classrooms. The Padres estimate that the cost of running the camp will be at least $1 million annually. (Center, 2007)
Not all of the academies in the Dominican Republic are state-of-the-art quality – but they are moving in that direction. Marcano Guevara and Fidler (2002) wrote about the experience of Alexis Quiroz in the Chicago Cubs Dominican Academy in the mid-1990s. The conditions were deplorable – three dozen players were crammed into a small house with only one toilet. When Quiroz first arrived there was no running water. Later, in 1997, Quiroz trained with the Oakland Athletics at their Dominican facility in La Victoria, under conditions that were far superior. The Baltimore Orioles up until now have had a low-budget facility in the DR, but plan to rent a modern facility for an academy to open in April of 2007. The Pittsburgh Pirates also have plans for a new academy in the Dominican Republic. The New York Mets also broke ground in July 2007 on a $7.5 million state-of-the-art facility near Boca Chica.

John Seibel (2006) estimated the cost of operating 28 MLB academies in 2005 to be $14 million annually. They further estimated that signing bonuses paid to new prospects brought an additional $17.5 million into the country. Dominican Summer League would bring in $2.75 million for the 3-month salaries for and the administrative costs of the league. Observation trips by MLB official to the DR was estimated at $360,000. The total annual economic impact in terms of dollars spent in the Dominican Republic (excluding building costs) thus came to about $35 million in 2005. The new academies scheduled to open in the 2008 season will increase that significantly.

As MLB salaries grow, Dominicans earn a larger share
This grassroots level investment by MLB is only the beginning, however; and it is small when compared to the salaries of those select few ballplayers that eventually make it to the top of the major leagues in the United States. Dominican-born players on MLB rosters earned nearly $300 million in 2007. The growth of the academies since the late 1970s has sent increasing numbers of Dominicans to the major leagues during a period of rapidly rising salaries.

In 1988, MLB had 31 Dominican-born players on its rosters on opening day, with salaries totaling $13.9 million. By 2007, that had grown to at least 94 players with salaries totaling $291.9 million. Over the same period, the number of MLB teams increased and the total number of players increased from 660 to 818, but the Dominican Republic has also doubled its share of players. In the late 1980s and early 1990s 5 to 6 percent of MLB players had been born in the Dominican Republic; but in the last few years about 11 percent of the players are Dominican born.

Over the entire 20-year period, the total payroll to Dominican-born players has grown at the astonishing rate of 17.4 percent. Dominican-born players are taking home a larger share of the MLB total payroll, not only because Dominicans make up a larger share of the players, but also because Dominican salaries have increased faster than average. Average MLB salaries increased at the rapid rate of 9.5 percent over the period, but average Dominican salaries increased at a rate of 10.7 percent. Top MLB salaries have grown faster than those for the majority of players and Dominican-born players are increasingly found among the highest-paid players in Major League Baseball.
Baseball’s contribution to a growing, diversified Dominican economy

In real terms (adjusted for inflation) baseball salaries paid to Dominican-born players that make it to the major leagues have been galloping upward at a growth rate of 14.3 percent per year from 1988 to 2007. The Dominican economy has also grown rapidly in recent years; GDP growth in real terms over the decade from 1992 to 2002 was 6.2 percent. (World Bank data). The collapse of a major bank due to poor investments, embezzlement, and fraud provoked an economic crisis in 2003, and growth slowed to around 1 percent in 2003-04, but the economy bounced back to real growth rates of 9.5 percent in 2005, 10.7 percent in 2006, and 8 percent in 2007. (EIU Country Report, August 2007: 12) While the salaries of Dominican MLB players and the costs of running academies and signing promising players have surely made contributions to this positive overall growth, how significant are these effects in the big picture?" (Pages 2-6)
Chapter VI: Discussion/Conclusions

To conclude, personality features or traits might unquestionably have a direct and/or indirect impact on EFL learning, as observed here in our country (The Dominican Republic), as well as, abroad.

Consequently, their role as predictors of success on our students’ learning experiences should not be disregarded. Notwithstanding, their impact cannot be considered, by any means, as an isolated fact, or as divorced fact from motivational situations, and the so-called cognitive and cognitive-oriented factors, which are extremely important for us, teachers and educators of all level as well, at the time of assessing or evaluating them in a rather fair manners or ways.

To that respect, it is very important to note, that on the pressing exercised on EFL teachers, by school administrators, officials or supervisors in order to take into account their language intelligences or learning styles, with a lack of knowledge of the socio-cultural factors and of their economic situation of our students (so important in underdeveloped countries like ours) as well.

We have also examined through this work, the external or motivational factors for learning English in our society (Chapter IV), something that has led for superimposing the modality of English for Specific Purposes, in many academies of the language. Such as baseball, tourism, and the like.

To that respect the following definition of it, is offered by Wits Language School(webpage), we quote “English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses focus on developing English communication skills in a specific discipline, such as finance, marketing, management, human resources, engineering and strategic thinking. Emphasis is given to the language and communication requirements in a particular professional field. This field specific language communication training enables participants to master relevant communication and professional skills and, in so doing, meet the needs of industry locally and internationally.”
So as a final word, we must conclude on highlighting the importance of knowing your students (Psychologically, socio-economically and politically as well), their weaknesses and strengths, their probabilities of future advancements and foreseeable failures. In order to do that, you must know the reality of the society they are living in, and on the pressure, their families are imposing on them, as the main psychological effect to be felt in the classrooms. Sounds like magic. That what teaching is all about!
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