PGEG S2 02

KRISHNA KANTA HANDIQUI STATE OPEN UNIVERSITY

SEMESTER 2

ENGLISH

BLOCK 3: BRANCHES OF LINGUSITICS

KRISHNA KANTA HANDIQUI STATE OPEN UNIVERSITY

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SEMESTER 2
MA IN ENGLISH
COURSE 2: LANGUAGE, LINGUSITICS AND GRAMMAR
BLOCK 3: BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS

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BLOCK 3: INTRODUCTION

This Block comprises five units that deal with the Branches of Linguistics such as Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics and English Language Teaching.

Units 11 and 12 shall help you to discuss the field of sociolinguistics, which is a branch of linguistics as a study of all aspects of the relationship between language and society. You will learner that the scope of sociolinguistics includes various issues in relation to language in society notably studies on speech communities, investigations on the concepts of dialects and idiolects, studies on dialects, registers, code-switching and code mixing. We shall examine a few definitions of speech community and draw conclusions on the factors that constitute the formation of speech communities. Other areas of our concern taken up for discussion include a discussion on regional and social dialects, register and style besides code switching and code mixing. We have, in Unit 12, also discussed the concept of pidgin and Creole.

Unit 13 is concerned with a number of language learning theories that belong to the field of study known as Psycholinguistics. You will learn that Psycholinguistics is a branch of linguistics that is concerned with the study of the mental processes that are involved in producing and understanding language. Then, we discussed the nature and scope of this field by bringing out the interrelation between linguistics and psychology by stating that most areas of psychological inquiry notably thinking, learning, memory, attitude formation, language-learning behaviour etc. are the concern of linguistics as well.

Unit 14 & 15 deal with *English Language Teaching*, a term that has come to be known as ELT in the literature of language teaching. We begin by providing a historical overview of ELT. In this unit, we traced the history of teaching English in India from the point of the arrival of the East India Company to India. Next, we have tried to examine the concept of communicative competence in terms of two concepts propounded by Chomsky namely competence and performance. We have also taken up the issues on the sources and causes of L2 learners' errors beginning with a critical observation on contrastive analysis by stating that L1 transfer is not the only source of errors; there are other sources, a few of which we referred to. In Unit 15, we have discussed the three hierarchically related concepts of approach, method and technique of English Language Teaching.

While going through a unit, you may also notice some text boxes, which have been included to help you know some of the difficult terms and concepts. You will also read about some relevant ideas and concepts in "LET US KNOW" along with the text. We have kept "CHECK YOUR PROGRESS" questions in each unit. These have been designed to self-check your progress of study. The hints for the answers to these questions are given at the end of the unit. We strongly advise that you answer the questions immediately after you finish reading the section in which these questions occur. We have also included a few books in the "FURTHER READING" which will be helpful for your further consultation. The books referred to in the preparation of the units have been added at the end of the block. As you know the world of literature and criticism is too big, we strongly advise you not to take a unit to be an end in itself. Despite our attempts to make a unit self-contained, we advise that you read the original texts of the authors prescribed as well as other additional materials for a thorough understanding of the contents of a particular unit.

UNIT 11: SOCIOLINGUISTICS I

UNIT STRUCTURE

11.1 Learning Objectives

11.2 Introduction

11.3 Scope and Areas of Investigation

11.4 Language and Society

11.5 Speech Community

11.6 Dialects and Idiolects

11.7 Regional Dialects and Isoglosses

11.8 Social Dialect

11.9 Register and Style

11.10 Code Switching and Code Mixing

11.11 Let us Sum up

11.12 Further Reading

11.13 Answers to Check Your Progress (Hints Only)

11.14 Possible Questions

11.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to

- understand the scope and areas of sociolinguistics
- appreciate the significant relationship of language and society
- distinguish regional and social dialect and register
- appreciate code switching and code mixing.

11.2 INTRODUCTION

This is the first unit of Block 3 of the Course on Language, Linguistics and Grammar. In this unit, we propose to introduce you the field of sociolinguistics, which is a branch of linguistics as a study of all aspects of the relationship between language and society. We began this unit with the scope and areas of sociolinguistics. We noted that the scope of sociolinguistics includes various issues in relation to language in society notably studies on speech communities, investigations on the concepts of

dialects and idiolects, studies on dialects, registers, code-switching and code mixing. We next shall move into the areas of language and society exploring areas of the use of language in society in terms of the ideational function of language. It means organizing the speaker's or writer's experience of the real or imaginary world. Then we took up the interpersonal function of language, that is, indicating, establishing or maintaining social relationships between people, and then the textual functions like creating written or spoken texts. Besides, we discussed the emotive use of language, language used for social interaction, language as instrument of identity and language as instrument of thought. Next, we shall examine a few definitions of speech community and drew conclusions on the factors that constitute the formation of speech communities. Other areas of our concern taken up for discussion include a discussion on regional and social dialects, register and style besides code switching and code mixing.

11.3 SCOPE AND AREAS OF INVESTIGATION

We define sociolinguistics as a branch of linguistics that is concerned with the study of language in relation to society. The word *society* is indeed very wide. It encompasses a range of social factors that include social class, educational level and type of education, and a host of other things. It is important to state that though the growth of the subject took place in the 1960s, the field of studies that it represents is much older. There exists a long tradition in the study of dialects and the general study of the relation between language and culture. What sociolinguistics has done is to throw much light both on the nature of language and on the nature of society.

It is also important to state that sociolinguistics is partly empirical and partly theoretical. On the one hand, it is a matter of going out and amassing bodies of facts of language in society and to analyse them scientifically. It allows the beginning of an analytical framework to be worked out. On the other hand, there is the factor of the investigators' personal experiences on language in relation to society. However, simply reliance of personal experiences on language may not provide accurate ideas on a language. Field studies often form the basis of investigation in sociolinguistics. It is the analytical and empirical approach to the data that has been the mainstay of the subject.

The scope of sociolinguistics includes various issues in relation to language in society. Some of these issues include:

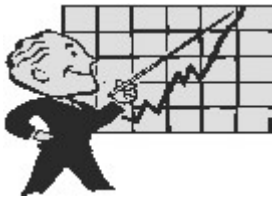
- Studies on speech communities in terms of language continuum.
- Investigations on the concepts of dialects and idiolects
- Studies on the standardization of languages in the world.
- Study of regional dialects and social dialects
- Studies of registers showing how situations also govern the use of language besides region and class.
- Studies featuring of code switching and code mixing in bilingual communities.
- Studies on bilingualism and multilingualism.
- Studies on language planning.
- Studies on verbal and non-verbal behaviour of speech communities.
- Studies in relation to culture and thought.

The above list is indicative of the range of sociolinguistics. As a branch of Linguistics, we note that there are other branches that also relate to society, especially to the area of culture. Two such branches are Ethno-linguistics and Anthropological Linguistics. It needs to be clarified whether these branches overlap or they are distinctive areas for the study of language.

Ethno-linguistics is the study of language in relation to the life and culture of a society or ethnic group especially by personal observation. The concept implies that language is not studied in isolation but within a social and/or cultural setting. One of the parameters of ethno-linguistics is the study of the ethnography of communication: how people actually use language in various cultures.

On the other hand, Anthropological Linguistics studies the relationship between language and culture in a community, notably, its traditions, beliefs and family structures within a language community. Anthropological Linguistics studies the ways in which relationships within the family are expressed in different cultures. With a focus on kinship terminology and they have studied how people communicate with one another at certain social and cultural events. At times, these concepts nearly overlap with ethnolinguistics and sociolinguistics.

Another field of study is Sociology of Language, which is the study of language varieties and their users within a social framework. The study of language choice in bilingual or multilingual situations, language planning, language maintenance and language shift are areas of concern of Sociology of Language. Sociology of Language can well be considered a part of sociolinguistics if not an extension of the subject.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Briefly answer the following questions

(a) Write a short note on ethno-linguistics.

(b) Define anthropological linguistics.

(c) Briefly relate the concerns of 'sociology of language'.

11.4 LANGUAGE AND SOCIETY

Sociolinguistics concerns itself with studies on all aspects of the relationship between language and society. One of the major aspects of the relationship between language and society is the function of language in society. The British linguist M. A. K. Halliday (1978) considers language as having three main functions: ideational, interpersonal and textual.

(a) The ideational function of language refers to organizing the speaker's or writer's experience of the real or imaginary world, i.e. language refers to real or imagined persons, things, actions events, states, etc.

(b) The interpersonal function of language refers to indicating, establishing or maintaining social relationships between people. It includes forms of address, speech functions like identifying, describing and reporting things, providing information, expressing opinions and decisions, getting people to do things, making offers, acceptance and refusal, expressing feelings and expressing our rights and wrongs.

(c) The textual functions refer to creating written or spoken texts which cohere within themselves and which fit in the particular situation in which they are used.

In addition, here we can refer to other uses of language. A few of them have been discussed here.

11.4.1 Emotive use of Language

One of the major functions of language is emotional expression. Let us take a situation: a person trying to kick start his bike. He tries several times to do so and fails. He curses himself: "Oh Hell!" Here he is using language not exactly to communicate his feelings to someone else but to get rid of the annoyance that is building up in his mind with each try. We can call it the expressive and emotive function of language. The most common linguistic expressions of emotion consists of conventional words like My God!, Oh!, Wow!, Ow!, Ouch! and so on. These expressions may be language and culture specific. But there are many emotive utterances of a positive kind, such as our involuntary verbal reactions to beautiful art or scenery, our expression of fear and affection, and the emotional outpourings of certain kinds of poetry. All these exemplify our emotive use of language.

11.4.2 Language used for Social Interaction

When two persons meet, it is customary to greet one another with a "Hello!" they exchange pleasantries. Thereby, they are seen to be performing a social function of language. It is a function, which arises out of the basic human need to signal friendship–or at least, lack of enmity. For someone to withhold these utterances when they are expected, by remaining silent, it is a sign of distance and alienation.

This language function for social interaction applies to English as well as to quite a number of Indian languages. In fact, if one does not use these pleasantries, there is the likelihood of considering the person to be proud or even uncivilized. However, there are evidences that these social communications, also called phatic communications are far from being universal; some cultures say little and prefer silence.

11.4.3 Language as Instrument of Identity

An important social function of language is the expression of identity. Many social situations display language, which unites rather

than informs – the chanting of a crowd at a football match, the shouting of names or slogans at public meetings, the shouts of affirmations at some meetings are all examples of the use of language as expression of identity. Our use of language can tell our listener or reader a great deal about ourselves – in particular about our religious origins, social background, geographical area we come from, the level of our education, our occupation and personality. In other words, they signal our identity.

11.4.4 Language as Instrument of thought

It seems evident that there is a close relation between language and thought. Everyday experiences suggest that much of our thinking is facilitated by language. The thinking, which seems to involve language, is of a different kind. This is the reasoned thinking, which takes place as we work our problems, tell stories, plan strategies and so on it has been called rational, directed, logical or propositional thinking. Language seems to be very important for this kind of thinking.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2: Answer the following questions.

(a) Define 'ideational function of language'.

(b) Give an example of an interpersonal function of language.

(c) Briefly explain 'textual function of language'.

(d) Give two examples of 'emotive use of language'.

11.5 SPEECH COMMUNITY

The term 'speech community' is used to refer to the members of a social group who claim a variety of a language as their own. John Lyons defines speech community as "all the people who use a given language (or dialect)". According to this definition, members of speech communities maintain the distinctiveness of that variety from varieties spoken by their neighbours.

Charles Hockett defines speech community by stating that each language defines its speech community, the whole set of people who communicate with each other either directly or indirectly, via the common language. The definition refers to any regionally or socially definable group of speakers of a common language system or dialect as a speech community.

Any population, whether of a city, village or whole state, may be expected to contain a very large number of speakers of a language with overlapping language and overlapping language systems and other social characteristics. It should be noted that the groups or communities are those that the individual speaker perceives to exist. Each individual creates the group for his/her verbal behaviour so that they shall resemble those of the group or groups with which he/she may like to be identified.

R.A. Hudson, in his observation on speech community, rightly observes that to be a language community we need more than a common language. It is hard to imagine that having nothing but the commonest language or dialect to set them off from their people – nothing in their culture, nothing to do with their history can make a speech community. As soon as the factor of interaction comes in, there will be other shared characteristics like our culture, our social behaviour etc. in addition to the interaction. These parameters need to be taken into account in the formation of a speech community.

11.6 DIALECTS AND IDIOLECTS

The term 'dialect' can be better explained by referring to its relationship with the term language. The term dialect has generally been used to refer to a subordinate variety of a language. For example, we are used to saying that the English language has many dialects. We know that English, Dutch, French, Hindi etc. are all different languages characterized by a distinct phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. It follows from this description that as a general case there is hardly any mutual intelligibility between languages unless one actually learns the language.

On the other hand, a dialect is a regionally or socially distinct variety of a language. Being dialects of the same language, it is possible that the

speakers of one dialect of English will be fairly intelligible to the speakers of a different dialect of the language. These dialects have grown out of the same language and may therefore have some shared characteristic features that contribute to mutual intelligibility.

However, it is not always a general case that two different language speakers are mutually unintelligible. On the contrary, speakers of two distinct languages sharing a common political border may tend to be mutually intelligible. The eminent sociolinguist Peter Trudgill observes from one of his studies that Dutch and German are known to be two distinct languages. However, at some places at the Dutch - German frontier, there is a high degree of mutual intelligibility among the different speakers.

In a discussion on dialect, the concept of idiolect needs to be considered. It is a term used in sociolinguistics to refer to the linguistic system of an individual speaker. No two speakers have the same language, because no two speakers have the same experience of language. The difference between speakers may vary from very slight and trivial to total difference within whatever limits are set by universal characteristics of language. An individual speaker is moulded by his exposure to experience to use language. Since such exposure to experience may vary in individuals, it is obvious that every individual will develop some distinctive features that are exclusive to individuals. These distinctive feature termed as idiolect constitutes individual speech habits as displayed in a particular variety of a language at a given time.

It is a fact that sociolinguistics is about language in relation to society. Society consists of individuals; sociolinguistics agrees that it is essential to keep individuals firmly in the centre of interests. The individual speaker is important in order to arrive at the notions of a dialect used in a particular speech community that would ultimately lead them to chart dialect maps or atlases.

Indeed, the idiolect is the primary focus of the sociolinguist. His work is based on observations of individuals using language and analyses of those observations. Unlike for example, philosophical claims, sociolinguistic claims do not result entirely from mental speculation. On the contrary, they result from the observation of the individual speaker's idiolect. To ensure that their observation is reliable, sociolinguists follow certain field techniques

for collecting data that they and others could then use to arrive at conclusions about languages and dialects. The data is invariably the different perspectives of an individual's idiolect.

Such researchers are more specifically known as dialectologists. One of the tasks of the dialectologists is to study the idiolects of different individuals in order to identify a linguistic system operating in the idiolects of these individuals. These studies are carried out in different ways. For example, the core field technique in descriptive linguistics is "elicitation". Researchers collect and transcribe short utterances that illustrate linguistic features relevant to an analysis of some part of the linguistic system. They apply analytical methods, which in structural linguistics are often called "discovery procedures". Thus, through various techniques the idiolects are studied and analysed for arriving at various answers to linguistic questions of a given speech community.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3: Answer the following questions

(a) Briefly distinguish between dialect and language.

(b) Define 'idiolect'.

(c) Explain the function of dialectologists.

(d) Briefly explain the term 'discovery procedure'

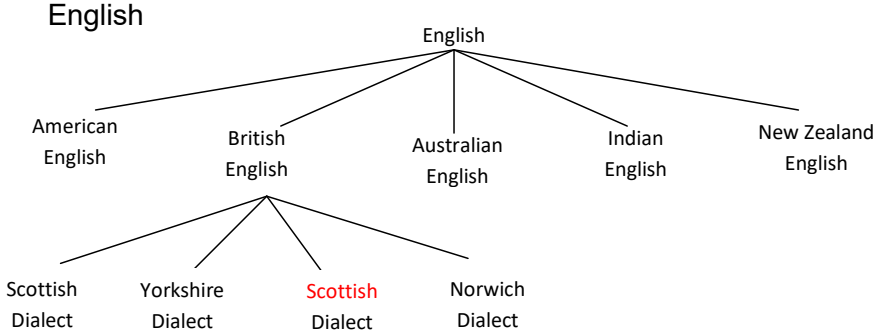
11.7 REGIONAL DIALECTS AND ISOGLOSS

When the speakers of a language, for example, English, are spread out over a large geographical area, in due course these speakers may make use of certain distinctive linguistic features at the levels of phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics that distinguish their language variety from another variety of the same language. At the same time, their language varieties do not make one group of language speakers incomprehensible to other language groups. These language varieties are dialects of the language. They are called regional dialects of English or regional varieties of English.

American English, British English, Australian English, New Zealand English are all regional varieties of English or regional dialects. Again, even

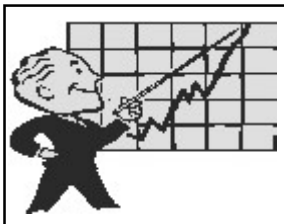
within British English there exists a number of regionally distinct dialects notably Scottish dialect, Yorkshire dialect, Norwich dialect and so on. The above account shows that there is no basic difference between a language and its regional varieties except for the fact that the regional varieties have undergone some modifications in their own ways in course of time to fit their new surroundings. A mutual comprehensibility of their dialects exists among different speakers. This information can be represented diagrammatically as follows:

English



It is possible to continue such a tree downwards, revealing smaller and smaller varieties, until one comes to the level of the individual speaker – the idiolect. That is hardly necessary. What seems obvious is to identify what are called regional dialects within the larger variety of its language.

One of the primary areas of concern of dialectologists is to study the distinctive features of a particular regional dialect. Dialectologists study the linguistic features of dialects with a view to demarcating the geographical area where a dialect is used. They plot dialect maps and not unlike our geographical maps that show state or district or sub-division boundaries, dialectologists make boundaries as to where Dialect A ends and where Dialect B begins. This dialect boundary is called *isogloss* that the dialectologist draws on a dialect map.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 4: Answer the following questions

(a) Explain the term 'regional dialect'.

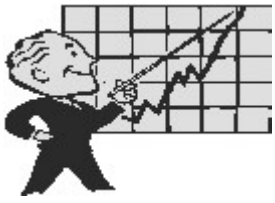
(b) Give four examples of regional dialects of English.

(c) Name the term used to refer to a dialect boundary in a dialect map.

11.8 SOCIAL DIALECT

The term 'social dialect' is used to refer to the dialectical variations that take place in a speech community. Dialect differences are not only regional as has been shown so far. Region or geography is one of the relevant factors, the other being social class. Dialectologists therefore speak of social dialects or sociolects to refer to non regional dialects. One of the characteristics of a hierarchical social structure of a country like Britain is that social class takes precedence over geography as a determinant of speech. As a result, there are far more dialectical variations among people in the lower social classes than among those belonging to the upper classes of the society. Speakers of the upper class because of their public school upbringing among others have been able to free themselves from the linguistic variations that are not distinctly marked among working class speakers of English.

Hudson (p 42) observes that pronunciation seems to be a distinguishing factor between regional and social dialects. This allows us to distinguish between the standard dialect and the non-standard dialect, while making statements about pronunciation in terms of accents. As a general case, it is accepted that the dialect that is used by the upper class, has become the prestige variety of dialect. Even the pronunciation has been labelled as RP, though it needs to be classified that RP is a variety of pronunciation that is free from the regional variations



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 5: Answer the following questions.

(a) Explain the term 'sociolect'.

(b) Explain the concept of RP.

11.9 REGISTER AND STYLE

The term 'register' is widely used in sociolinguistics to refer to the varieties of language determined according to use. This feature distinguishes registers from dialects. While dialects are variations governed by regional or social differences, registers are variations governed by uses and involves consideration of the following parameters:

(a) the subject-matter or topic, which we refer to as the field of discourse

(b) the purpose, the mode used for the exchange, such as the spoken medium or the written medium, which we refer to as the mode of discourse.

(c) the formality of the message governed by the relationship of the participants of the exchange, which we refer to as the style of discourse.

11.9.1 Field of Discourse

The term 'field of discourse' refers to the variation of register that is determined by the subject matter and distinctiveness in the style. For example,

(a) Two lawyers working on a legal matter use the language of legal briefs while drafting a legal document. Their variety of language in terms of its vocabulary and syntax reflects a register distinctive to their profession and the topic under discussion. This variety goes by the term 'register of law'.

(b) A newspaper reporter drafts a news story while reporting an event by using a distinct variety of language: "Two CRPF jawans and a civilian driver were killed when suspected militants triggered an explosion of an improvised explosive device at Bhalukjuli at Goalpara district at 10.30 am today. The jawans have been identified as..." The reporter uses the register of journalism.

(c) If we hear words such as "Our Father who art in Heaven, hallowed be thy Name, thy Kingdom come, thy will be done on Earth as it is in Heaven..." we find ourselves in yet another distinct language use. This variety of language use goes by the term: register of religion.

(d) Similarly, when we read something such as: "I was born in the city of Bombay...once upon a time. No, that won't do, there's no getting away from the date. I was born in Doctor Narlikar's Nursing Home on August 15th, 1947. And the time? The time matters too", we recognize the register of literature.

(e) Now, we shall read the following extract from another book: "Let us cool the liquid still further and watch it solidify, still at the same

magnification as before. As we abstract more heat the molecules, moving ever more slowly, are pulled closer together, and the liquid contracts...” Here we have yet another variety of language use. This is the register of science and technology.

Similarly, we can refer to the register of business communication, the register of sports commentaries and many other diverse fields of discourse. The value of such specific varieties of the language use is that now it has been increasingly realized that language at the higher levels of education has to be taught for a clearly specific or utilitarian purpose. The purpose is usually defined with reference to some occupational requirement by analysing the features of the language in terms of distinct fields. Specialised language learners require English as a means of furthering their specialist education, or as a means of performing a social or working role as a scientist, a journalist, a fiction writer and so on, efficiently.

11.9.2 Mode of Discourse

The word “mode” refers to either the spoken or the written mode. Depending upon the mode, there would be a striking variation in the use of language. From the point of production, it is obvious that spoken and written modes of presentation of language make somewhat different demands on language producers. The syntax of spoken discourse is typically much less structured than that of written language. The text of written discourse is characterised by cohesion or unity and coherence or logical development produced by the use of covert and overt connectives.

11.9.3 The Style of Discourse

The style of discourse refers to variations in the language that are determined by the relationship between the participants of the discourse – either spoken or written. The style used can be distinguished in terms of the levels of formality namely, formal, semi-formal and informal. The choices for their use are determined from the situation and the relationship between the participants of the spoken/written discourse.

At one extreme of language use is formal speech, the kind of speech one hears when a speaker inaugurates a conference or a national or international literary seminar. One can even hear one of the organizers guiding the participants to the conference hall in very formal directive language: "Participants are requested to enter by way of the door marked A."

At the other extreme is casual speech, which is the kind of speech we use to our family and friends in everyday interactions. In between these two extremes, there is the semi-formal use of language which happens to be the most natural variety of language used in work places, markets and so on.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 6: Answer the following questions.

(a) Explain one of the distinctive fields of discourse.

(b) Give an example of a piece of discourse that comes under formal style.

11.10 CODE SWITCHING AND CODE MIXING

The word 'code' is used in linguistics to refer to a system of communication involving language. The terms 'code switching' and 'code mixing' are used in linguistics to refer to the linguistic behaviour of people in bilingual and multilingual speech communities. Members of a speech community speaking more than one language chooses between them according to circumstances as in case of educated speakers of India who are bilinguals and multilinguals. Depending upon circumstances, speakers may choose to switch from one language to another or mix languages in between the speech art. The terms 'code switching' and 'code mixing' are used in this context to mean the mutual intelligibility of a particular language between individuals or linguistic groups in a bilingual or multilingual setting.

11.10.1 Code Switching

Code switching is the inevitable consequence of bilingualism or more generally multilingualism. Bi/multilingual communities use different languages for different situations. For example, one language

is reserved exclusively for use at home and another for use in the wider communities. More precisely, this type of code switching is called situational code switching because the switches between languages always coincides with changes from one external situation to another. The choice of language is controlled by rules, which members of the speech community learn from their experiences. These rules are part of their total linguistic knowledge.

Code switching is largely determined by the situation that prompts speakers to make a choice of language from the number of languages used by the members of speech community. A child has his/her mother tongue in the home situation but in formal situations like a school (if it is an English medium school); he/she may switch on to English. Again, when he is in the playground in the company of a mixed group of pupils, he makes a choice between his mother tongue and school language or the mother tongue of his friends, which may be different from his own.

There could be a number of factors to lead speakers to switch codes. A few of them have been briefly taken up here:

a) *The social factor*: This factor aims at expressing solidarity with a social group. When a speaker of a dominant language switches on to the less dominant language of the listener, the reason underlying this switch is to express solidarity with the less dominant language used.

b) *Attitudinal factor*: In social interactions, code switching is a very helpful means to study the speaker's attitude towards the listener. When a speaker switches codes, it is obvious that the person is transmitting a signal to the listener as to whether his or her attitude towards the listener is friendly, irritating, distant, ironical, jocular and so on.

c) *Linguistic factor:* When speakers cannot express themselves adequately in one language, they switch to another language to make good the deficiency. Often a speaker, for the sake of expressing solidarity to a linguistic group may like to use the language of the linguistic group over which his command may not be adequate. In that case, after a while the speaker switches codes.

d) *Classroom interaction strategies*: In English L2 classrooms, it is natural for the teacher to switch codes especially in bilingual/ multilingual situations. The teacher switches codes entirely for his/her purpose to obtain feedback on his/her classroom performance among other things. Bilingualism can be a very useful classroom strategy for remedial teaching and in handling underachieving classrooms.

11.10.2 Code-mixing

Code mixing is different from code switching which may take on several factors.

a) A long narrative may switch from one language to another somewhere in the middle of a narration. This case often happens when the speaker becomes aware of the mood of the listeners.

b) Sentences may alternate; a sentence may begin in one language and finish in another as typically seen in the use of language by TV anchors and talk shows. Code mixing in this case occurs to create a climate of informality.

c) Phrases from both languages may succeed each other in apparently random order though in fact, grammatical constraints are frequently involved.

Such linguistic behaviour, which is common in bilingual/ multilingual speakers, is covered by the term code mixing.

Switching among mono-linguals

Code switching is an area, which is inaccessible to monolingual speakers, in order to express attitudes like friendliness, irritation, distance, irony, jocularity, etc. the monolingual speaker takes recourse to register switching.



11.11 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we introduced you the field of sociolinguistics, a branch of linguistics that is a study of all aspects of the relationship between language and society. These are the concepts that we had taken up for discussion in this unit. First, we discussed the scope and areas of sociolinguistics, which includes studies on speech communities,

investigations on the concepts of dialects and idiolects, studies on dialects, registers, code switching and code mixing. We next went on to explore the use of language in society in terms of the ideational function of language i.e. organizing the speaker's or writer's experience of the real or imaginary world; the interpersonal function of language i.e. indicating, establishing or maintaining social relationships between people; the textual functions i.e. creating written or spoken texts which cohere within themselves and which fit in the particular situation in which they are used. We also discussed the emotive use of language, language used for social interaction, language as instrument of identity and language as instrument of thought. Next, we examined a few definitions of speech community and drew conclusions on the factors that constitute the formation of speech communities. Other areas of our concern taken up for discussion include a discussion on dialects which include both regional and social dialects, register and style and a discussion on code-switching and code-mixing with which we concluded the discussion on the unit.



11.12 FURTHER READING

Crystal, David. (1987). *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of Language.* Cambridge.

Hudson, R.A. (1999). *Sociolinguistics*. Cambridge.

Lyons, John. (2002). *Language and Linguistics.* Cambridge.

Trudgill, Peter. (1984). *Sociolinguistics*. Penguin.



11.13 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS (HINTS ONLY)

Ans to Q 1: (a), (b) and (c): see 11.3.

Ans to Q 2: (a) see 11.4

(b) Making requests: Could you show me the way to Women's College?

(c) see 11.4

(d) (i) Oh my God!, (ii) Good Lord!

Ans to Q 3: (a), (b) and (c): see 11.6

(d) The term "discovery procedure' refers to a set of techniques which can be automatically or mechanically applied to a sample of language and which will produce a correct grammatical analysis.

Ans to Q 4: (a), (b), and (c): see 11.7.

(d) isogloss

Ans to Q 5: (a) Sociolect is a synonym of social dialect. (For social dialect see 11.8.

(b) The term RP refers to "Received Pronunciation", a term used to mean the type of British Standard English pronunciation which has been regarded as the prestige variety and which shows no regional variations. The word 'received' in this label imply social acceptance.

Ans to Q 6: (a) The field of journalism is an example of a field of discourse. A news story written for the purpose of reporting an event makes use of the style of discourse that belongs to the register of journalistic writing.

(b) A letter written to a higher authority makes use of a formal style.



11.14 POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

Q 1: Give brief answers to the following questions:

(a) Define the term 'ethno-linguistics'.

(b) How is sociolinguistics related to sociology of language?

(c) Give an example of an emotive use of language.

(d) Briefly explain isogloss.

Q 2: Write short notes on:

(a) Speech community

(b) Idiolect

(c) Social dialect

(d) Style of discourse

Q 3: Answer the following questions:

(a) Discuss the scope of sociolinguistics.

(b) Write a note on regional dialect.

(c) Discuss the register variations in relation to the subject-matter or topic of discourse.

(d) Discuss the phenomenon of code-switching and code-mixing in multi-lingual communities.

* * *

UNIT 12: SOCIOLINGUISTICS II

UNIT STRUCTURE

12.1 Learning Objectives

12.2 Introduction

12.3 Pidgin

12.4 Creole

12.5 Standard Language

12.6 Bilingualism and Multilingualism

12.7 Language Planning

12.8 Let us Sum up

12.9 Further Reading

12.10 Answers to Check Your Progress (Hints Only)

12.11 Possible Questions

12.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through his unit, you will be able to

- appreciate the development of standard language from pidgin
- explain the concepts of bilingualism and multilingualism
- appreciate the language issue in multilingual situations
- formulate ideas on language planning

12.2 INTRODUCTION

This is the second unit on sociolinguistics wherein we have taken up a number of issues on language in society beginning with the concept of pidgin. We discussed pidgin as a system of communication that has grown up among people who do not share a common language but who want to talk to each other for trading and other specific reasons. We drew examples of pidgins have been used in Ghana and in some other parts of the world. Then, we discussed the concept of creole in relation to a pidgin. We differentiated between the two by stating that a creole becomes the mother tongue of a community but not a pidgin and hold the view that pidgins and creoles are two stages in a single process of linguistic development. At the

first stage, increasing number of people begin to use pidgin as a principal means of communication. Next, as their children hear it more than many other languages, the pidgin gradually becomes creolized and takes on the status of a mother tongue for them. We discussed how creole has become the mother tongue of many countries.

Next, we discussed the concept of 'Standard Language' or 'Standard dialect' in the context of the other regional dialects that are being used by the members of a speech community by stating that while theoretically all the dialects of language have the status of being the language of the members of a speech community, it is only one of the dialects that attain the status of a standard and acceptability in a speech community. We next moved on to bilingualism to discuss the use of two languages either by an individual who is a bilingual, or by a group of speakers, such as the inhabitants of a particular region or a nation. In everyday use, the word bilingual usually means a person who speaks, reads, or understands two languages equally well. We discussed the Canada bilingual situation and different bilingual educational programmes. Then we discussed a number of issues on *multilingualism* by referring to a language situation in a country in which three or more languages are used by a speech community whose individual speakers are referred to as multilinguals we discussed the multilingual situation of India, the three language formula and the observations of NCF 205 on the multilingual character of India.

With a multiplicity of languages spoken within the country, we have shown in the last section how it becomes necessary to choose a single language as a norm for official, educational or other purposes. Decisions are to be made regarding the status of a language over others, which language should be the school language and so on. It is in this context, we referred to the three-language formula, which we see as a major step towards language planning.

12.3 PIDGIN

A pidgin is a system of communication that has grown up among people who do not share a common language but who want to talk to each other for trading and other specific reasons. In other words, pidgins develop as a contact language when groups of people who speak different languages,

come into contact and communicate with one another. Hence, pidgins have been variously called makeshift languages, marginal languages or mixed languages. However, compared to the languages, which have given rise to them, pidgins are characterised by the following features:

- They have a reduced grammatical structure,
- a limited set of vocabulary items, and
- a much narrower range of communicative functions.

Pidgins are generally the native language of no one, but they are nonetheless a major medium of communication among people speaking different languages. The process by which a pidgin develops when two distinct language communities come together is known as the pidginization process.

Pidgins are demonstratively creative adaptations of natural languages with a structure and a set of rules of their own. Along with creoles, they are evidence of a fundamental process of linguistic change, as languages come into contact with each other, producing new varieties whose structures and uses contract and expand. They provide the clearest evidence of language being created and shaped by society for its own ends, as people adapt to new social environments.

To illustrate how pidgins make use of a reduced grammatical structure, the following samples of the pidgin used in Ghana are given:

a) The lady don't come to land.
b) The food is not chaw.

The above two sentences are examples of pidginized forms of the language. The meaning of the first sentence is that the lady has not arrived and the meaning of the second one is that the food is not sufficient. Few people outside South Africa would understand such sentences belonging to the pidgin used in Ghana. As the two examples show it a mixture of English and carried words with a loose grammatical structure.

However, there are other pidgins based on other European languages besides English spoken in different parts of the world. A few examples are given below:

1. *Hawaiian Pidgin*: English based with influence of Chinese, Japanese, Hawaiian, Portuguese and Philippine languages about 500,000 speakers.

2. *Pidgin Spanish:* Spanish based trading language used mainly by two Indian tribes in Venezuela.
3. *Nikari Karu Pidgin:* A Portuguese based pidgin used near Guyana near Brazil.
4. *Franco-Spanish Pidgin*: A contact language with limited use in Buenos Aires.

Pidgin has become widespread in use in African countries like Ghana. The educated people have expressed serious concern over the fact that Pidgin in Ghana has adulterated the Queen's English in the former British Colony. What is more, they believe that it is threatening to turn pidgin into the country's national language besides adulterating Standard English, as many young people of Ghana cannot express themselves properly when they are not speaking pidgin.

In West African countries, the speaking of pidgin has gone deep even into their preparatory schools. It was reported that a majority of the students are reluctant to learn Standard English. The educated people, however, are not in favour of pidgin. On the contrary, they are bitter-critics and view pidgin to be responsible for the poor English that is spoken and written there.

Pidgin is a convenient way for British colonial administrators and the educated to communicate with office workers and servants. Although many of the educated people in pidgin speaking states understand pidgin, they hardly speak it unlike the younger people who prefer to speak pidgin. It has also been reported that female students of the University of Ghana view that Pidgin is consciously spoken more by men than by women. The use of pidgin has become so widespread that many of the advertisements over the radio and TV in Ghana are in pidgin.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Answer the following questions.

(a) State briefly how pidgins develop.

(b) Give three distinctive features of pidgin languages.

(c) Give the term that is used to refer to the process by which a pidgin develops.

(d) What is Queen's English?

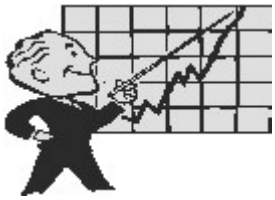
12.4 CREOLE

A creole is a pidgin language, which has become the native-language of a community. This definition shows that pidgins and creoles are two stages in a single process of linguistic development. At the first stage, within a community increasing number of people begin to use pidgin as a principal means of communication. Therefore, their children hear it more than many other languages and gradually the pidgin takes on a status of a mother tongue for them. A generation or so later, the pidgin becomes consolidated and widespread. The result is a creole or a creolized language. The process whereby a creole turns into a creole is called creolization.

The switch from pidgin to creole involves a major expansion in the vocabulary range, sentence structure and style, which now have to cope with the everyday demands made upon the mother tongue by its speakers. There is also a highly significant shift in the overall patterns of language use found in the community. Pidgins are by their nature auxiliary languages, learnt alongside vernacular languages, which are much more developed in structure and use. The term auxiliary language is used here to mean a makeshift language used exclusively for a specific communicative purpose with makers of a language community who do not have competence in the standard variety of the language. Thus, pidgin is used side by side with a standard language of the two speech communities. On the other hand, creoles by contrast are vernacular in their own right. When a creole develops, it is usually at the expense of the other languages spoken in the area.

The main source of conflict is likely to be with the standard form of the language from which it derives, and with which it usually co-exists. The standard language has the status, which comes with social prestige, education and wealth. A creole has no such status, its roots lying in a history of dominance and slavery. Inevitably, creole speakers find themselves in great pressure to change their speech in the direction of their standard. The process by which a creole attains the features of the standard language from which most of its vocabulary and structures come, is known as decreolization. The creole that was developed in Jamaica and Guyana are English based creoles. Through the process of decreolization, these creoles have become close to Standard English.

Creole speakers may like to consider their languages to be their first language, even their national language. They tend to develop a resistance towards Standard English and consider their creole a standard language for them. Under such a situation, a creole attains the status of a dialect or a language of a speech community.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2: Answer the following questions:

(a) Define a creole.

(b) Briefly explain the term creolization.

(c) Explain the term 'auxiliary language'.

(d) Explain the term 'decreolization'.

12.5 STANDARD LANGUAGE

The term 'Standard Language' or 'Standard dialect' has to be seen in the context of the other regional dialects that one being used by the members of a speech community. While theoretically all the dialects of language have the status of being the language of the members of a speech community, it is only one of the dialects that attain the status of a standard and acceptability in a speech community. Here we shall discuss some of the factors that lead to the standardization of a dialect from amongst one or many others.

Suzanne Romaine defines standard language as a highly codified variety of a language, which has been developed and elaborated for use across a broad range of functions. The definition implies that several variations of the language exist. These variations refer to variations of region or class distinctions among members of a speech community. It is an interesting fact of languages that from among a number of dialectical variations, there emerges a dialect, which attains the status of a standard. This dialect is known as standard dialect or standard language.

The standardization of a particular dialect in relation to one or more dialects is not necessarily the result of deliberate policy. On the contrary, there are a number of processes that are involved in the emergence of a standard language from amongst the several dialects existing in the language. R.A. Hudson, in his book *Sociolinguistics* (1999) discusses four

of the processes that are involved in the emergence of a situational language. These have been briefly discussed below:

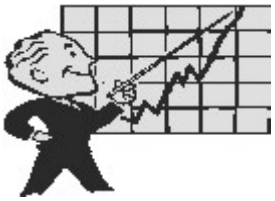
1. *Selection*: Selection in the context of standardization of a language refers to the choice of one of the existing dialects by members of a speech community from amongst the several varieties of dialects in the language. A standard language does not arise through a natural course of linguistic education, nor does a standard language spring into existence. The selection of a dialect as a standard depends upon factors like the following :
   - Royal patronage as was seen in the case of the dialect of Wessex in the Old English Period, which had become a standard overriding other dialects.
   - Production of literary works having an appeal on header as in the case of the East Midland dialect, which became a standard during the Middle English Period.

   Other factors like patronizing a dialect by commercial enterprises, can also lead to the selection of a dialect as standard.
2. *Codification:* Codification implies the fixing of or codifying the grammatical rules, the norms of pronunciation, spelling and other writing conventions through dictionaries, grammar books and prominent writings. More than anything else school grammar books and dictionaries are major steps towards the codifying of the language. Using a dialect in the present media also contribute towards the codification of a dialect. The publication of grammar books by John Lyly (1554-1666), Ben Jonson (1572-1637) among a few others, Dr Johnson's (1709-84) *A Dictionary of the English Language* contributed towards codifying English by standardizing spelling. It is the codified form of the language that contributes towards standardizing the language.
3. *Elaboration of Functions:* The variety of functions that a language is required to perform in society provides the claim for that language to be the standard more than any other varieties of the language. The standard variety usually becomes the language of government transaction, the language of the media, the language of the law court

and bureaucracy, the language of scientific discourse besides the language of literary expression. In order to perform such varied linguistic roles, the language requires extra linguistic items to be added to the variety especially scientific and technical vocabulary. However, it is also necessary to develop new conventions for making existing forms. Thus, different varieties of register make their appearance in the standard form only.

4. *Acceptance:* To be a standard language, the variety has to be accepted by the speech community. At one level, acceptance of a dialect as a standard amount to compromising on one's regional dialect for the sake of wider acceptability and comprehensibility. At another level, the standard language serves as a strong unifying force for the state, and at the same time, shares a common bond with people of the countries.

We have discussed four of the processes that are involved in the standardization of a language. English is a striking example how the language has been standardized at different periods of its growth since the Old English Period, Middle English period down to our time and how writers like Shakespeare, Milton, Dr. Johnson, Matthew Arnold and T. S. Eliot among others, had contributed towards evolving a standard language.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3: Answer the following questions.

(a) Define 'standard language'.

(b) Which dialect became standard in the Old English period and why?

(c) Briefly state the contribution of Dr. Johnson's Dictionary towards the standardization of English.

(d) Explain some of the functions of a standard language.

12.6 BILINGUALISM

The term 'bilingualism' is used to refer to the use of two languages either by an individual who is a bilingual, or by a group of speakers, such as the inhabitants of a particular region or a nation. In everyday use, the word

bilingual usually means a person who speaks, reads, or understands two languages equally well. However, a bilingual person usually has a better knowledge of one language than of the other. For example, he/she may

(a) be able to read and write in only one language
(b) use each language indifferent types of situations e.g. one language at home and the other at work
(c) use each language for different communicative purposes e.g. one language for talking about school-life and the other for talking about personal feelings.

Some countries are officially bilingual in the sense that they have two official, national or regional languages. A well-known example of an officially bilingual country is Canada. Structurally, Canada is a federation made up of ten provinces and two territories, each of which has its own capital and government. The federal government has exclusive authority in certain areas like defence, currency etc. whereas education comes under the jurisdiction of the provincial government. In most of the provinces, officially both English and French have been accepted for implementation, thus making it a bilingual country. For two rival languages to exist side by side in a place, it is imperative that there should be a climate of agreement between the speakers of the two languages on a number of language issues and during the 1960s initiatives were taken for language planning especially for school education.

One of the areas of concern in bilingual situations in the area of language teaching is that bilingual education programmes may be of different types and include the use of a single school language, which is not the child's home language. This is technically called immersion programme. Thus, we can say that immersion programme is a form of bilingual education in which children who speak only one language enter a school where a second language is the medium of instruction for all pupils. For example, there are schools in Canada or English speaking children, where French is the language of instruction and vice versa. If these children are taught in French for the whole day, it is called a total immersion programme. However, if they are taught in French for only part of the day it is called a partial immersion programme.

Secondly, another area of language teaching in bilingual situations is the use of the child's home language where the child enters school but later a gradual change to the use of the school language for teaching some subjects and the home language for teaching others. This strategy of exposure to two languages in the school environment is called maintenance bilingual education.

Moreover, there is yet another strategy of language teaching in bilingual situations it is the partial or total use of the child's home language when the child enters school and at a later stage change to the use of the school language only. This strategy of exposure to two languages is called transitional bilingual education.

There is yet another strategy of language teaching in bilingual situations. According to this strategy, or more appropriately, programme, the child is exposed to a classroom where the language of instruction is not the first language of some of the learners, but is the first language of the other learners. This happens in many countries including Canada where immigrant children enter school and are taught in the language of that country.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 4: Answer the following questions.

(a) Explain the term 'bilingualism'.

(b) State how Canada is a bilingual country.

(c) Define the term 'immersion programme.

(d) Define the term 'submersion programme'.

12.7 MULTILINGUALISM

The term *multilingualism* is used in sociolinguistics to refer to a language situation in a country in which three or more languages are used by a speech community. An individual who belongs to such a language situation is referred to as a multilingual. Thus, multilingualism is essentially plurality of languages. Thereby it also includes bilingualism but these two concepts are often contrasted in sociolinguistics and applied linguistics. There are two divergent views on the concept of multilingualism. One view

may be referred to as the western view or the concept, which is remarkably different from that professed by multilingual countries like India. The western view is obviously the view of the monolingual situations. In his book *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*, H.S. Sterne while discussing the concept of multilingualism in society and in education, observes that multilingualism is often regarded as "an irritation, a residue of the past , often as a retrograde form of regionalism or as politically dangerous irredentism or separatism"(p 230). He observes that sometimes the struggle amongst different language groups to achieve pre-eminence or recognition cause riots and civil strife. Such a view towards multilingualism is undoubtedly that of a monolingual society. The view is that bilingualism or multilingualism is regarded as a problem and detrimental to society or to the individual rather than as a normal state of affairs and an asset.

It is obvious that the western point of view fails to account for the fact that in a multilingual situation like India, multilingualism is an all-pervading element, affecting every aspect of the country's life. In the Indian context, it is a very ancient concept going back to the times of the Vedas. The *Atharva Veda* is a very ancient book, which affirms that even in the ancient past there were many religions and many people in India staying together. Hence, from a distant past, multilingualism has remained the cornerstone of India's culture and sensibility.

The point has been realised when it became necessary to draw the political map of India soon after independence on the basis of linguistic states. There was of course a growing apprehension that because of linguistic states, the inter-linguistic and inter-regional movement would become impossible and the political boundaries would virtually send off the language – cultural boundaries between various regions in the country. However, the apprehension was proved to be wrong. Far from being a factor of disunity, multilingualism has become a unifying factor. Obviously, languages by themselves are not a destructive factor. On the contrary, multiplicity of languages can be seen as an expression of Indian culture. The development of state languages was not aimed at any disunity but a "unity in diversity". To predict that as the state languages gain in power the

centre-state conflict will become intense indicates a wrong notion of multilingualism in India.

While discussing the concept of multilingualism in India the question that remains is that the language policy in the country like the 8th Schedule doesn't even take cognizance of the 1,652 spoken languages. On the contrary, it tends to highlight certain languages and minimize the importance of some others. The three-language formula of the Government also fails to account for the minority languages. In every state, there are 30-40% of the population speaking minority languages, which can be divided into 3 categories.

a) Tribal dialects
b) Minor languages like Bundelkhandi, Bhojpuri, Magahi etc. within the states.
c) Major languages in India which happen to be minority languages in a particular state like Marathi or Tamil in Karnataka, or Urdu in Uttar Pradesh.

Most state governments appear to be reluctant to introduce multiple mediums of instruction to meet the needs of various linguistic groups amongst students. It is often feared that recognising the existence of dialects and many small languages may lead to disintegration. However, experience has shown that it is not recognition but non-recognition of languages that has led to diverse movements. In a multilingual country like India, linkage is the age- old tradition and must be emphasized. The varieties of languages can be linked in various ways and one of the most effective ways is translation.

Translation is accepted as one of the ways of reconciling the interests of various groups. In fact, the programme of action of the National Policy of Education of 1986 has for the first time included translation in its programme. It emphasises that serious effort at translation of books from one language to the other be made. The 1992 Perspective Paper on Education also reiterates this view.

It is true that in the name of multilingualism and equality, the country cannot develop a system where all the 1652 mother tongues are recognised and supported by the state and used for all functions. At the same time, it

should not lend us to favour one language because such an attitude goes against the character of multilingualism in India. The present impediments on India can be reduced by not replacing a language of power like English by another language of power and developing just one national language but through an elaborate pattern of inter-regional inter-ethnic communication.

The multilingual situation in India has considered translation an important component of educational policy. *The National Policy on Education* (1986) so far as language policy is concerned, which reiterates the *National Policy on Education* (1968), rightly recognizes translation as one of the important activities for the development of languages. The *Programme of Action* (1992) has also emphasised on translation of books from one language to another.

Moreover, it is only through translation that we can achieve the development of what is known as Indian Literature. Encouragement of translation work in minority languages can lead to the understanding of the basic unity and the wonderful diversities of Indian literature. Indeed in view of the Indian tradition of multi-culturalism and multilingualism, translation becomes a very important instrument for negotiating social tensions, language conflicts, and for identifying a plurality of linguistic expressions and cultural experience.

Further, the issue on the use of English in a multilingual situation like India needs to be considered in clear perspectives. English has served as a great unifying force in India's struggle for independence. It is through this language that the leaders from different parts of the country could communicate and chalk out their common plans of action. Even now, English is playing the important role as a national link language for the purpose of inter-state correspondence. Besides, it has become the language of trade and commerce between different parts of the country and even outside the country.

The National Curriculum Framework (2005) has addressed the issue of the multilingual character of India from a very positive standpoint by suggesting the promotion of multilingualism in the framework of the three-language formula. The NCF 225 suggests that language teaching needs to be multilingual not only in terms of the languages offered to children but

also in terms of evolving strategies that would use the multilingual classroom as resource. The classroom teacher needs to see the positive advantages of multilingualism in a language-teaching programme.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 5: Answer the following questions.

(a) Define the term 'multilingualism'.

(b) Discuss the importance of translation in multilingual societies.

(c) Explain the view of NCF 2005 on translation.

(d) Briefly discuss the use of English in multilingual situations.

12.8 LANGUAGE PLANNING

Language has always been a very sensitive issue in multilingual situations. In the Indian situation, this fact becomes obvious in view of the fact that India has always been multilingual and multicultural. Language policy was never discussed during the British period except for the brief debate between the Orientalists and Occidentals during the time of Raja Rammohun Roy who had taken a prominent part in the great educational controversy between the Orientalists and the Occidentals wherein he sided with the latter. However, for his opposition, the clamour of the former for the exclusive pursuit of Oriental studies would most probably have prevailed. His letter on English Education to the Viceroy Lord Amherst in 1832 is a remarkable significant work in support of English studied in India. The letter locates the contradiction between the modern scientific spirit of European civilization and its education policy in India. He had expressed his shock at the proposal of the government for the establishment of a Sanskrit college in Calcutta. In his letter he pointed out that, it did not conform to the liberal image of the British. This view projected in his letter contains his urge for language planning for education.

After the Independence of India, the question as to whether Hindi or English should be the National Official Language was debated upon in the Indian Parliament raising a strong awareness for the need for language planning which involves the creation and implementation of an official policy

about how the languages and linguistic varieties of a country are to be used. With a multiplicity of languages spoken within the country, it becomes necessary to choose a single language as a norm for official, educational or other purposes. Decisions are to be made regarding the status of a language over others, which language should be the school language and so on. It is in this context we have to refer to the three-language formula, which can be seen as a major step towards language planning.

The three-language formula is a consensus reached among leaders of different interest group. The National Education Policy of 1964, popularly called the Kothari Commission after its illustrious Chairman Professor D. S. Kothari, proposed a Three Language Formula (TLF), which was later modified by the government. The TLF thrashed out in 1968 by the government was approved by the conference of the State Chief Ministers and accepted by the Parliament. The TLF is thus the government's major step towards language planning in the country.

The operation of the plan included the implementation of the Formula by all State Boards of School Education across the country by way of designing the language structure as to what will be the L1, what will be the L2 and what will be the L3 in the school curriculum. In the process of implementation, further modifications by the states were affected to correlate with the needs and aspirations of languages by different states. For example, in Tamil Nadu Hindi was given up, thus reducing the scheme virtually to a two-language formula. CBSE went further ahead with its modification by prescribing either Hindi or English as L1. Yet, interestingly, the proliferation of English medium schools across the country violated the constitutional provision of primary education through the mother tongue.

The problems arising in implementation of a uniform language policy across the country is understandable. The government in the early stages of the independence of the country implemented its commitment for the formation of linguistic states, which had ruled out the function of Hindi as the unitary symbol of the Indian nation but had given the status of an Official Language. The National Curriculum Framework (NCF 2005) does not see the multiplicity of languages as a problem but a "range of opportunities" (p36) which needs to be exploited by proper planning.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 6: Answer the following questions:

(a) Briefly state the importance of the letter of Raja Rammohun Roy to Lord Amherst.

(b) Discuss the debate between the Orientalists and the Occidentalists in British India.

(c) What is the three-language formula?

(d) Discuss the three-language formula in the context of the primary school curriculum.



12.9 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we discussed some important areas of sociolinguistics. We discussed pidgin as a system of communication that has grown up among people who do not share a common language but who want to talk to each other for trading and other specific reasons. We drew examples of pidgins have been used in Ghana and in some other parts of the world. We discussed the concept of creole in relation to a pidgin. We observed that a creole becomes the mother tongue of a community but not a pidgin; they are two stages in a single process of linguistic development. We discussed the process of creolization that takes place when increasing number of people begins to use pidgin as a principal means of communication. Next, we discussed the concept of 'Standard Language' or 'Standard dialect' in the context of the other regional dialects that are used by the members of a speech community by stating that while theoretically all the dialects of language have the status of being the language of the members of a speech community, it is only one of the dialects that attain the status of a standard and acceptability in a speech community. We next discussed the concept of bilingualism and examined the features of a bilingual individual following it up with a discussion on the bilingual situation in Canada. Then we discussed a number of issues on *multilingualism* by referring to the multilingual situation of India, the three-language formula and the observations of NCF 205 on the multilingual character of India. Finally, we

took up the issue on language planning and its needs. We discussed how it becomes necessary to choose a single language as a norm for official, educational or other purposes and how decisions are to be made regarding the status of a language over others, which language should be the school language and so on.



12.10 FURTHER READING

Crystal, David. (1987). *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of Language.* Cambridge.

Hudson, R.A. (1999). *Sociolinguistics.* Cambridge.

Ramakrishna, S. (ed.) (1997). *Translation & Multilingualism.* Pencraft: New Delhi.

Romanine, Suzanne. (2009). *Language in Society.* Oxford.

Jack Richards et. al. (1985). *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics.* Longman.

Stern, H.H. (1983). *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching.* Oxford.



12.11 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS (HINTS ONLY)

Ans to Q 1: (a), (b) and (c) see 12.3.

(d) Queen's English is a term used to refer to Standard British English.

Ans to Q 2:(a), (b) and (c) see 12.4.

(d) Decreolization is the process by which a creole becomes more like the standard language from which most of its vocabulary comes. For example, an English based creole may become more like Standard English.

Ans to Q 3: (a) and (b) see 12.5.

(c) One of the greatest contributions of Dr Samuel Johnson's (1709 – 1784) *Dictionary* towards the standardization of English in the eighteenth century is that he had fixed the system of English spelling. It played a great part in shaping the writing of the educated class.

(d) see 12.5.

Ans to Q 4: (a) to (d) see 12.7

Ans to Q 5: (a)



12.12 POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

Q 1: Give brief answers to the following questions:

(a) Define the term 'auxiliary language'.

(b) Name the pidgin used in Venezuela.

(c) Define "creolization'.

(d) Explain the term "bilingualism'.

Q 2: Answer the following questions in about 100-159 words:

(a) Discuss the features of a pidgin language.

(b) Draw a distinction between pidgins and creoles.

(c) Discuss the process of decreolization.

(d) Define the term "standard language'.

Q 3: Give answers to the following questions in about 400 words.

(a) Discuss the process of standardization of languages with illustrative examples.

(b) Discuss some of the language teaching approaches adopted in bilingual countries like Canada.

(c) Discuss the multilingual situation of India with reference to classroom pedagogy.

(d) Define language planning and state how the issue has been addressed in post-independent India.

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UNIT 13: PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

UNIT STRUCTURE

13.1 Learning Objectives

13.2 Introduction

13.3 Nature and Scope of Psycholinguistics

13.4 Major Schools of Psychology of Learning: The Behaviourist School

13.5 The Cognitive School

13.6 Constructivism

13.7 Theory of Innate Language Structure

13.8 Acquisition - Learning Hypothesis

13.9 Let us Sum Up

13.10 Further Reading

13.11 Answers to Check Your Progress (Hints Only)

13.12 Possible Questions

13.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through unit, you will be able to

- explain the nature and scope of psycholinguistics
- distinguish between the behaviourist approach and the cognitive approach
- understand the concept of constructivism
- appreciate the theory of innate language structure
- appreciate the acquisition - learning hypothesis

13.2 INTRODUCTION

This unit is concerned with a number of language learning theories that belong to the field of study known as psycholinguistics. We began with a definition of psycholinguistics as a branch of linguistics that is concerned with the study of the mental processes that are involved in producing and understanding language. Then we discussed the nature and scope of this field by bringing out the interrelation between linguistics and psychology by

stating that most areas of psychological inquiry notably thinking, learning, memory, attitude formation, language learning behaviour etc. are the concern of linguistics as well.

We defined the term 'behaviour' in the context of the language learning behaviour of individual learners and their learning processes as an action which can be seen, observed and measured in an objective way. Behaviour, which is a concern of educational psychology has relevance in psycholinguistics. Indeed, a psychological inquiry on language learning behaviour is essentially a concern of psycholinguistics. We noted that psychological inquiry on language learning not only leads to three schools of language learning namely the behaviourist, the cognitive and the constructivist theories of language learning, but also affective variables like interest and motivation.

In our discussion on the behaviourist school of psychology we subscribed to the view that language is a form of behaviour. We noted that behaviourism has based its theories on empirical evidence obtained from experiments with living organisms and laboratory animals. We discussed one of the experiments of B.F.Skinner, a leading figure of the behaviourist school and an experimental psychologist.

Another issue in the area of psycholinguistics that we have discussed here concerns the theoretical issues on how the first language is acquired and how the second language is learnt. Psycholinguistics addresses issues on language acquisition of mother tongue speakers examining how L1 acquisition has long been thought of as a process of imitation of the sounds that they hear. Psycholinguistics redefines the general conception of L1 acquisition by throwing light on how they acquire a grammatical ability.

In our discussion on the behaviourist psychology, we also aimed at addressing the language learning behaviour of second language (L2) learners in classroom situations. We noted that in the behaviourist paradigm, classroom approaches for the teaching of the second language (L2) are developed around the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. In order to develop these skills, the learner has to be provided with a knowledge of vocabulary and also an ability to manipulate structures in the language.

These ideas are developed into a pedagogical framework in an L2 classroom situation

In our discussion on cognitive view of language learning, we briefly surveyed the field of research into L2 learning that had initiated a paradigm shift from behaviourism to cognitive approach to L2 learning. We referred to Chomsky who had rejected the idea that language is governed by stimulus-response which is essentially a behaviourist paradigm. We noted Chomsky's argument that language is an innate property of human beings, and external agencies have little role in it. Referring to a paradigm shift, we noted that the cognitive function is the faculty that permits the learner to process the language input received and produce new utterances. The utterances that the learner produces are not copies of what he or she had heard. On the contrary, what the learner had received as input is processed in the language acquisition device of the learners to enable her to produce new utterances.

Next, we moved on to the concept of constructivism, a concept based on a different set of assumptions among which most importantly the assumption that knowledge is subjective, contextual and inherently partial and that learners construct knowledge in the social and cultural environment in which they are placed.

Falling in line with constructivism, we explored the theory of innate language structure which we stated, has developed out of an awareness of the limitations of an imitation/reinforcement view of language acquisition propounded by behaviourist psychology. We conclude the unit with a discussion on the monitor model theory propounded by Krashen.

13.3 NATURE AND SCOPE OF PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

Psycholinguistics is a branch of linguistics that is concerned with the study of the mental processes that are involved in producing and understanding language. The term 'mental processes' used in the above line, is the concern of psychology which is often defined as the science of mind and of behaviour.

The range of psychology is indeed very wide; it includes every kind of human thought and every kind of action by human beings and other animals thereby giving us terminology and fields of studies like human psychology, animal psychology, educational psychology, experimental psychology, and especially psycholinguistics. The term psycholinguistics which is the concern of this unit is thus, a field of study that has established an interrelationship between psychology and linguistics. Most areas of psychological inquiry – thinking, learning, memory, attitude formation, language learning behaviour etc. are the concern of linguistics as well.

13.3.1 Language learning behaviour

The language learning behaviour involves the individual learners and their learning processes that take place in the minds of the learners. The term behaviour in this context *refers to an action which can be seen, observed and measured in an objective way*. This behaviour which is a concern of psychology has relevance in psycholinguistics. Indeed, a psychological inquiry on language learning behaviour is essentially a concern of psycholinguistics.

A major scope psycholinguistics includes the following issues:

(a) The major theories of language learning notably the behaviourist, cognitive and constructivist views of language learning,

(b) The language behaviour of first language and the second language learners and their developmental characteristics,

(c) The learning processes, motivation of learning, factors affecting learning, diagnosis of learning problems,

(d) Evaluation of learning performances.

13.3.2 Behaviourist and Cognitive Psychology

The first language (L1) learners are the mother tongue users of the language. Psycholinguistics addresses theoretical issues on the behaviourist view of language learning in terms of stimulus and

response. It states how the behaviourist paradigm addresses issues on L1 and L2 learning that are manifest through language teaching approaches like the structural approach. According to behaviourism language acquisition has been thought of as a process of imitation and reinforcement. It is a fact that children learn to speak by imitating the sounds that they are exposed to and having their responses strengthened by the repetitions, corrections and other reactions that adult provide. In recent years it has become clear that this conception of language acquisition will not explain all the facts of language development. Children do imitate a great deal, especially in learning sounds and vocabulary, but little of their grammatical ability can be explained in that way. It is left to psycholinguistics to address this issue.

The cognitive view of language learning is also another area of psycholinguistics. The cognitive theory underlying psycholinguistics is that L1 and L2 learners demonstrate a learning behaviour that is different from the behaviour demonstrated in the case of the behaviourist paradigm. A child learns the L1 subconsciously whereas he/she learns the L2 consciously.

13.3.3 Affective Variables: Attitude and Motivation

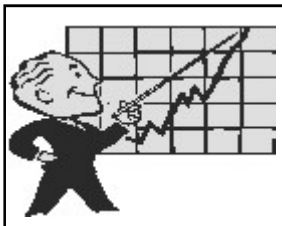
Psycholinguistics takes into account various learning factors including the affective factors like the learners' attitude and motivation among others that contribute to L2 learning. The cognitive theory tells us that learners will learn when they are interested in what they are learning. This interest grows out of the affective factors of attitude and motivation. The learners' attitudes influence language learning in a number of ways Gardiner and Lambert (1972) two researchers had investigated a number of different attitudes which they consider relevant to L2 learning. These fall into three categories:

1. attitudes towards the community and people who speak theL2,
2. attitude towards learning the language concerned,
3. attitude towards languages and language learning in general.

Attitudes also include motivational factors. Motivation in language learning can be defined in terms of the learners' overall goal or orientation. Gardiner and Lambert have distinguished two kinds of motivation: instrumental and integrative.

Instrumental motivation is the result of an external need. Learning a second language is perceived to be an instrument for achieving or fulfilling some other need. This perception motivates the learner to the study of the L2 with greater interest. The interest in achieving an upward social mobility is seen as an instrumental motivation of the language learner.

Integrative motivation is another type of motivation that can inspire or interest a learner to take more interest in learning the L2. Integrative motivation arises out of a desire of the learner to become a part of the speech community using the language. Motivation of this kind is rooted in an internal emotional need rather than a goal that can be externally fulfilled. Research on motivation has found that both types of motivation are to be found in any learner in varying degrees. They also influence learners to take a greater interest in learning.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Answer the following questions.

(a) Define the areas of psycholinguistics.

(b) Describe the concept of language behaviour.

(c) Explain the term instrumental motivation.

(d) Explain the term integrative motivation.

13.4 THE BEHAVIOURIST SCHOOL

The major schools of the psychology of learning include the behaviourist and the cognitive schools of learning. Here we shall discuss the behaviourist school of psychology. The basic concern of this school of psychology is that language is a form of behaviour. The theories of the

behaviourist school or behaviourism are based on empirical evidence obtained from experiments with living organisms and laboratory animals.

13.4.1 The Experiment of B.F. Skinner

One of the leading figures of the behaviourist school is B.F. Skinner, the experimental psychologist. He had shown in an elaborate experiment with rats how living organisms act in response to the stimuli presented by the external environment. Skinner put a rat in a cage fitted with a button which when pressed would ring a bell. The rat was kept starving, until such a time when scampering in hunger, it accidentally pressed the button and the bell rang. Food was given to it as soon as the bell rang. But again it was kept starving until such a time when by accident it again rang the bell.

Eventually, the rat was conditioned to press the button whenever in need for food. Skinner argued that the feeling of hunger acts as a stimulus resulting in the rat's behavioural response to the pressing of the bell. We say now that the rat has been conditioned to ring the bell, that is , it has now developed a new pattern of behaviour which it did not originally possess and which is not natural to it. This change from one pattern of behaviour to another is called conditioned learning.

13.4.2 Behaviourist Language Learning

Through this experiment, Skinner made the observation that human beings also learnt language in the same way. He referred to a crying child that is taught how to ask for milk by introducing her to a few basic sounds or words. She stores these sounds or words in her memory to use it when hungry. In due course, the child will be exposed to more language inputs that help her to use the structures or sentence patterns as responses to appropriate stimuli. Skinner stated that this is just another form of behavioural response to some stimulus. He calls it verbal behaviour. Through such process, the child's attention is drawn to various objects, events or experiences

around her. At the same time she is given lexical items to name the objects and events together with short structures that she can handle. In this way she recognizes persons as daddy, mummy etc. and also words correlating with animals, birds, food items and other things around her little world. Parents spend a great deal of tie in introducing these new lexical items which she stores for her use.

When the child confuses a word with the object, for example calling a cat as dog, the parent corrects her and she is asked to produce the correct form again. Production of correct form often brings reward which may be a kiss or a hug. This system of reward and punishment works like what behavioural psychologists call "operant conditioning". *The term operant conditioning refers to a way of conditioning an operation so that the correct forms bring reward and incorrect ones bring punishments.* This realization that certain kinds of forms go with certain kinds of contexts is an important part of the strategy of L2 learning through the behaviourist principles.

At the initial stages of language acquisition when the child is exposed to objects and lexical and simple structural items, very often parents use words which are restricted to the small ambit of the child. For example, an Asssamese mother would introduce a word like *mum* to refer to food and exaggerate the utterance *amaar jaane mum khabo* stimulating her to open her mouth so that she can pop in the food in the child's mouth. Such use of language is called *caretaker speech* or *motherese*. Caretaker speech usually has shorter and simpler utterances besides clearer pronunciation sometimes with exaggeration. This strategy of introducing a child to a language is restricted to L1 and definitely not to exposure to children to an L2.

From the above discussion, it is seen that the behaviourist view of language learning can be explained as follows:

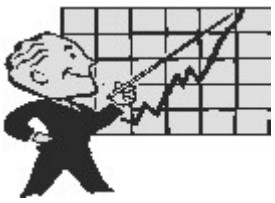
1. Language behaviour is a process of stimulus-response.

2. Language is learnt only through use and practice. The more the learner is exposed to the use of language, the better is the chance of language acquisition.
3. Language learning takes place through a process of habit formation. It implies that repetition and practice help better learning.
4. The production of language depends on the situation which makes its use necessary language cannot be taught outside a context or a situation.
5. Producing the correct response to a stimulus is desirable. Wrong responses are discouraged and immediate remediation is proposed.
6. Every new item learnt must be reinforced by further practice before further learning begins.

13.4.3 Language Learning as Skill Development

When we closely examine the language learning process of the child, we discover that language is essentially a skill. In learning the mother tongue the first skills that the child develops are the skills of listening to the sounds and structures and developing responses to what she had heard. In other words, the child learns to speak. Language is essentially speech, the skills of reading and writing come later. In the behaviourist paradigm, classroom approaches for the teaching of the second language (L2) are developed around the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. In order to develop these skills, the learner has to be provided with a knowledge of vocabulary and also an ability to manipulate structures in the language. These ideas are developed into a pedagogical framework in an L2 classroom situation

The behaviourist theory of language learning has received a great deal of attention in the area of L2 learning. A popular method of L2 learning that is based on the behaviourist principles is the Structural Approach which is being discussed in a separate unit at 15.5.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2: Answer the following questions.

(a) Briefly outline Skinner's experiment with rats.

(b) Define 'operant conditioning'.

(c) Define 'caretaker speech'.

(d) Briefly outline the behaviourist view of language learning.

13.5 THE COGNITIVE SCHOOL

Another major school of psychology of learning is the cognitive view of language learning. Researches carried out in the 70s of the last century into second language learning processes had brought a large number of findings that had challenged the whole concept of the behaviourist paradigm. Pit Corder (1967) in an essay titled "The Significance of Learners' Errors" and Larry Selinker's essay titled "Interlanguage", are two of the most outstanding voices that challenged behaviourism and heralded cognitive approaches to L2 learning. Both the essays are included in Richards' *Error Analysis* (1990). Corder's essay rejected a behaviourist account of L2 learning and suggested that learners made use of intrinsic internal linguistic processes. Selinker's essay argued that L2 learners possess their own individual linguistic systems that are independent from both the learner's L1 and L2.

Researches carried out in the 70s into the areas of learners' errors in the transitional stages of L2 learning and the morpheme studies investigating the order in which learners acquire language features, have been strengthened by the researches in the 80s with the theories of Stephen Krashen which had confirmed a paradigm shift from the behaviourist view of L2 learning. (We shall discuss Krashen a little later). The 90s saw a host of new theories introduced to the field, such as Michael Long's interaction hypothesis and Richard Schmidt's noticing hypothesis. However the most dominating voices of the cognitive field of L2 learning is that of the American linguist Noam Chomsky who had addressed some of the weaknesses of the behaviourist view of language learning. His views are discussed here.

13.5.1 Chomsky's Criticism of the Behaviourist View

Chomsky (1959) rejects the idea that language is governed by stimulus-response which is essentially a behaviourist paradigm which is illustrated below:

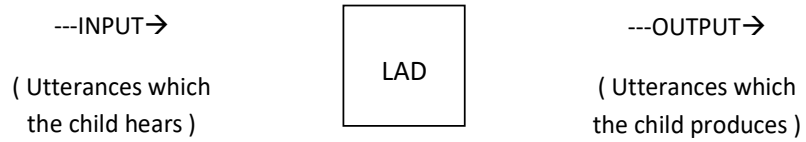
S ——————— R

In the above figure, S stands for stimulus and R for response. This model of stimulus – response paradigm implies that learners produce what they hear. In other words there is a correlation between input and output.

Chomsky's critique of Skinner is based on observations that it is not always the case that human beings produce only what they have heard in varying degrees. All human beings can produce more than what they have heard or have heard of. There is something that mediates between the stimulus and the response, or, more appropriately, between the input and the output. The something that mediates between the stimulus and response or input and output is the cognitive function or language acquisition device (LAD) which is diagrammatically represented as follows:

13.5.2 Language Acquisition Device

The cognitive function is the faculty that permits the learner to process the language input received and produce new utterances. The utterances that the learner produces are not copies of what he or she had heard. On the contrary, what the learner had heard is the input that is processed in the learner's LAD. When a learner has insufficient input, there is a likelihood of the learner to produce errors.



These are developmental errors that the learner produces. In Unit 14, in our discussion on errors, we shall elaborate the point on developmental errors. What we would like to state here is that the

language items produced are not the items that the learner had heard but ate the result of language processing through the LAD. This argument highlights a major paradigm shift from behaviourist psychology to cognitive psychology.

Secondly, Chomsky does not subscribe to the behaviourist view that language learning is essentially habit formation through repetition and practice. On the contrary, he argues that language is an innate property of human beings, and external agencies have only a limited role in it. He observes that it is incorrect to assume that language is another form of overt verbal behaviour like the rat pressing the button of the bell in a cage or a dog barking at the sight of a piece of bread. There is no way in the rat to communicate its reaction to the quality of the food.

These findings of researches into L1 learning had a tremendous bearing on classroom pedagogy. The communicative approach to language teaching discussed in 15.6 and the modern approaches discussed in 15.7 are undoubtedly the approaches that clearly bring out a paradigm shift from the behaviourist principles introduced in classroom pedagogy through the structural approach.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3: Answer the following questions

(a) Explain 'developmental errors'.

(b) State how Chomsky rejects the concept of language as being essentially habit formation.

(c) Name two researchers of the 70s whose researches had contributed to learners; behaviour in L2 learning.

(d) What is LAD?

13.6 CONSTRUCTIVISM

The concept of constructivism can be explained by contrasting the traditionalist view of learning with the constructivist view. The traditionalist

view is based on what is known as the objectivist view of knowledge. The issues of this view of learning are as follows:

1. Knowledge is objective, universal and complete.
2. It can be transmitted by those who have it to those who do not have it.
3. The teacher transmits authoritative knowledge to learners who are by and large passive.
4. According to this paradigm, learners are considered to be passive receivers of knowledge.
5. The teacher is the source of all knowledge which he transmits to the learner.

13.6.1 Paradigm Shift in Constructivism

In contrast, one can observe a paradigm shift in the constructive view of learning. This view is based on a different set of assumptions which can be summarised as follows:

1. Knowledge is subjective, contextual and inherently partial.
2. Learners construct knowledge in the social and cultural environment in which they are placed.
3. The teacher assumes the role of a facilitator and guide.
4. The teacher plays the role of the manager and not the controller of the class.
5. Learners take the responsibility of their own learning.
6. They question, state problems, design experiments and discuss the results with others.
7. Learners do not receive knowledge as passive learners.

13.6.2 Constructivist View of Learning

The constructivist view of learning is associated with great names like Jean Piaget (1933,1977) who in *The Origin of Intelligence in the Child* express the view that learning is strongly influenced by the learners' developmental strategies. Learners move through

identifiable stages of physical, intellectual, emotional and social growth that determine what can be learned and with what depth of understanding. Learners learn best when they are at their proximal stage of development. The nature of the learning task is crucial for learning to take place.

Contemporary constructivists R.J Osborne and P Freyberg (1985) in *Learning How to Learn*, hold the view that learning is an adaptive process in which learners' conceptual schemes are progressively reconstructed so that they are in keeping with a wide range of experiences and ideas. It is also seen as an active process of sense-making over which the learner has some control. Posner et al (1982) formulated the theory of conceptual change and indicated the conditions required for it to occur. For conceptual change, the learners must feel dissatisfied with their own conceptions which are not sufficiently explicative. The new knowledge should be intelligible, fruitful and plausible.

From the thinking of the eminent scholars in the field, it becomes obvious that constructivism is a major rethinking about the teaching and learning process that will have a lasting impact in both curriculum and instruction. Constructivism provides a new theory of learning and also a new theory of teaching. The traditional methods of teaching consider teaching as transmission of facts to learners who are considered to be playing a passive role in the learning process.

13.6.3 Role of the Learner

The constructivist approach considers the learners as active learners; they should participate in experiences that accommodate experiences of learning that include inquiry activities, discovery, problem solving and discussions with peers and teachers, collecting and interpreting information from different sources, expressing their understanding in diverse ways. The teacher must provide authentic learning situations, complex learning environments and facilitate learning.

13.6.4 The Role of the Teacher

In the constructivist classroom, the teachers act as guide in the learning process with the aim of making the classroom activities learner centred. In view of the fact that most of our classrooms are crowded, with as many as 50 students in a class or more, it is all the more necessary to make the class learner-centred. The only way to give all the students time to speak or interact is to make them work together by organizing group-work. Their activities may be such that help the learners in clarifying ideas, providing rational explanations, challenging misconceptions, guiding experimentation, predicting results and drawing inferences. Teachers should ask questions that test students' ideas and provide feedback to them. They should be encouraged to debate ideas and also comment on answers and explanations provided by other students. At the same time teachers should keep track of which group they listen to so no one gets left out.

Thus, we see that the theory of constructivism is based on the idea that better learning takes place when the learner actively constructs knowledge and by reconciling on information with previous knowledge.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 4: Answer the questions.

(a) Discuss the role of the teacher in the constructivist classroom.

(b) State the character of a constructivist classroom?

13.7 THEORY OF INNATE LANGUAGE STRUCTURE

In our discussion on the cognitive theory of language learning, our whole approach has been to drive home the argument that the child does not merely imitate speech to develop language habits. On the contrary, the child is equipped with a language acquisition device that helps him to

process linguistic data. We would like to follow up this argument by referring to another significant theory of second language acquisition, termed as the theory of innate language structure.

The theory of innate language structure has developed out of an awareness of the limitations of an imitation/reinforcement view of language acquisition propounded by behaviourist psychology. 'Innate', in the present context, is an application of the philosophical use of the term in psycholinguistics to refer to the view that a child is born with a biological predisposition to learn language. This statement can be illustrated by observing the language behaviour of children. Language acquisition seems to be an inevitable process in a human child. This faculty of acquisition of language is unrelated to general intelligence. It appears that even the duller child cannot help learning at last one language.

The innateness in the child's language learning faculty can also be justified by observing children talking to themselves. Very often we find children talking to themselves. It is all private exercise. The communicative social aspect of language is not present in this talk. In this egocentric talk, the child asks himself and answers his own questions, repeats other's talk, enjoys listening to his own speaking and amuses himself. This speaking is nothing but a play and language exercise.

Such behaviour of the child points to the fact that children must be born with an innate capacity for language development. The human brain is ready for language. Child psychologists argue that the child understands more than what he hears than he can say himself. When children are exposed to speech, certain general principles for discovering or structuring language automatically begin to operate. These principles constitute a child's language acquisition device (LAD).

The child uses its LAD to make sense of the utterances heard around it, deriving from the primary linguistic data hypothesis about the grammar of the language – what the sentences are, and how they are constructed. This knowledge is then used to produce sentences that after a series of trial and error actions, correspond to those in adult speech. The theory of

innate language structure argues that these rapid and complex developments of children's grammatical competence cannot be ascribed to imitation of adult speech which is too complex for their comprehension. On the contrary, they can be explained only by using the hypothesis that they are born with an innate knowledge of at least some of the universal structural principles of human language.

Another issue that the psycholinguist tries to explain is that of the critical age of language learning. Child psychologists are in agreement that up to the age of 12, a child seems to be in a better position to learn or speak at least two or more languages effortlessly. Potentially, the child is a much better learner of language than an adult. However, the adult L2 learner may use another gift in the learning of a language which the child does not possess, the power of mature reasoning which helps the adult to discover and understand rules more easily than the child. In some case the adult may prove to be a better language learner.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 5: Answer the following questions.

(a) Define the theory of innate language structure.

(b) How can adult L2 learners be better language learners?

13.8 ACQUISITION – LEARNING HYPOTHESIS

Studies on second language learning originated with investigations into first language acquisition. Insights gathered from first language acquisition facilitated the study of second language learning. It was noted that there are fundamentally a number of differences between the two processes because the conditions governing the processes are not the same. In order to draw up the distinctions, it would be convenient to begin with a discussion on first language acquisition.

13.8.1 First Language Acquisition

Noam Chomsky (1965) introduced the mentalist theory of

language learning which emphasised the learner's innate mental capacity for acquiring a language and minimised the contribution of the linguistic environment. Thus, the situation shifted from the learner-external to the learner-internal factors, in other words, from language learning to language acquisition. The term acquisition is used to refer to the sub-conscious nature of the learning process. It is the unconscious picking up of a language through exposure in a natural setting. It differs from learning largely from the point of view that it is not a conscious and formal study of a second language in a classroom-like setting, but an unconscious process by which a child develops competence in his/her first language.

The view of first language acquisition as proposed by Chomsky is formalized in the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) hypothesis. The LAD does not refer to any particular part of the brain or even to any physical entity, but to a special type of mental organization particular in human beings, which acquires them to learn language, all that is required to set the device into operation is exposure to the language. The device then abstracts from the instances of language fed into the rules or regularities of the language in question. Gradually, in successive stages, the collection of rules of the concerned language constitutes the child's linguistic competence.

13.8.2 Second Language Learning

Second language acquisition or second language learning is the process by which people learn a second language. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has now been used as a sub-discipline of psycholinguistics that is concerned with studying that process. Second language refers to any language that is learnt in addition to a learner's first language although the concept in our context refers to the learning of English as second language. The word 'learning' implies the making of a deliberate effort to teach the language. Learning implies teaching. The distinction between acquisition and

learning is the core of the acquisition-learning hypothesis propounded by Stephen Krashen. According to this theory, acquisition occurs subconsciously as a result of participating in a natural

A number of ELT specialists had addressed a number of hypotheses and theories relating to L2 learning. One of the most comprehensive theories of second language learning has been proposed by Stephen Krashen (1981). His theory is called Monitor Model and it takes into account the following parallel hypotheses which will help us in formulating a fair conception of SLA in our situation.

(a) **The acquisition-learning hypothesis:** Krashen's main argument here is that acquisition is an unconscious process of language learning whereas learning is a conscious process. Learning occurs as a result of conscious study of the formal properties of the language. the acquired knowledge is available for automatic processing. The learnt knowledge is available for controlled processing. During performance, acquired knowledge serves as the major source for initiating the comprehension and the production of utterances in a conversational exchange. Learnt knowledge is available as a monitor to the utterances produced by the acquired system.

(b) **The natural order hypothesis:** Krashen argues that learners acquire knowledge of L2 in a fixed order as a result of a predisposition to process language in highly specific ways. The development of language acquisition is continuous and incremental and passes through a series of stages. The incremental nature of L1 acquisition is evident from the way the length of the utterances that gradually increases and through the stages where the knowledge of the grammar is built up in steps. The complex grammatical forms are learnt slowly.

(c) The monitor hypothesis: It has been mentioned in the discussion on the acquisition-learning hypothesis that the monitor

is the device that learners use of control the utterances. In other words, the monitor is the device that edits their language performance. It utilizes learnt knowledge by acting upon and modifying utterances generated from acquired knowledge. Thus according to this theory, spontaneous oral performance depends upon the acquired system. Conscious formal knowledge only acts as a monitor.

(d) The input hypothesis: Krashen observes that SLA is dependent upon the availability of comprehensive input before the learner's internal processing mechanism can work. Input constitutes the language to which the learner is exposed. It can be written or spoken. Input serves as the corpus that the learner can use to determine the rules of the target language. He argues that for SLA to take place, the input should be slightly above the level of language data that the learner had already processed. This will supply the extra data which will become a part of the learner's corpus of language.

(e) The affective filter hypothesis: Krashen holds the view that affective factors relate to SLA and is seen as a part of the process of becoming adapted to a new culture through the L2. (see the point on affective variables discussed above) It is seen as an important aspect of SLA because language is one of the most observable expressions of culture. The affective filter controls how much input the learner comes into contact with and how much input is converted into intake. It is affective because the factors which determine its strength have to do with the learners' motivation, self-confidence and anxiety state.



13.9 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we discussed the following language learning theories underlying psycholinguistics. We began with a definition of psycholinguistics as a branch of linguistics that is concerned with the study of the mental

processes that are involved in producing and understanding language. We discussed the nature and scope of this field by bringing out the interrelation between linguistics and psychology by stating that most areas of psychological inquiry notably thinking, learning, memory, attitude formation, language learning behaviour etc are the concern of linguistics as well. We defined the term 'behaviour' as an action which can be seen, observed and measured in an objective way by stating that a psychological inquiry on language learning behaviour is essentially a concern of psycholinguistics. We noted that psychological inquiry on language learning not only leads to three schools of language learning namely the behaviourist, the cognitive and the constructivist theories of language learning, but also affective variables like interest and motivation. In our discussion on the behaviourist school of psychology we discussed one of the experiments of B.F. Skinner, a leading figure of the behaviourist school and an experimental psychologist. We discussed the theoretical issues on how the first language is acquired and how the second language is learnt. We also discussed the classroom approaches for L2 teaching developed around the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. In order to develop these skills, the learner has to be provided with knowledge of vocabulary and also an ability to manipulate structures in the language. We briefly surveyed the field of research into L2 learning that had initiated a paradigm shift from behaviourism to cognitive approach to L2 learning. We noted Chomsky's argument that language is an innate property of human beings, and external agencies have little role in it. Next, we moved on to the concept of constructivism, a concept based on a different set of assumptions among which most importantly the assumption that knowledge is subjective, contextual and inherently partial and that learners construct knowledge in the social and cultural environment in which they are placed. Next, we explored the theory of innate language structure which we stated, has developed out of an awareness of the limitations of an imitation/reinforcement view of language acquisition propounded by behaviourist psychology. We concluded the unit with a discussion on the monitor model theory of Krashen.



13.10 FURTHER READING

Howatt, A.P.R. (1984) *A History of English Language Teaching,* Oxford

Kudchedkar, S. (Ed 2002) *English Language Teaching in India,* Orient Longman

Nagaraj, Geetha (2006) *English Language Teaching,* Orient Longman

Richards, Jack C. (1990) *Error Analysis,* Longman

Sharma, Santosh (2006) *Constructivist Approaches to Teaching and Learning,* NCERT



13.11 ANWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS (HINTS ONLY)

Ans to Q 1:

(a) see 13.3

(b) see 13.3.1

(c) see 13.3.3

(d) see 13.3.3.

Ans to Q 2:

(a) see 13.4.1

(b) see 13.4.2

(c) see 13.4.2

(d) see 13.4.2

Ans to Q 3:

(a) Developmental errors are errors that L2 learners produce which can be seen as errors that inevitably occur due to the process of learning the language. a wrong verb form can be seen as such type of error, eg eated instead of ate.

(b) see 13.5.1

(c) see 13.5.

(d) see 13.5.2

Ans to Q 4:

(a) see 13.6.4

(b) Try yourself by referring to the learner-centred classroom where group-work, pair-work etc are used

Ans to Q 5:

(a) see 13.7

(b) see last para of 13.7



13.12 Possible QUESTIONS

Q 1: Give brief answers to the following questions.

(a) Explain the relationship between psychology and psycholinguistics.

(b) Define language skills.

(c) Explain

(d) According to the child psychologists, up to what age can a child learn two or more languages easily?

Q 2: Answer the following questions in about 100 words.

(a) Explain the major scope of psycholinguistics.

(b) Discuss Chomsky's critique on Skinner's views on behaviourism.

(c) Discuss briefly the value of the theory of innate language structure.

(d) Discuss the monitor theory of L2 learning.

Q 3: Answer the following questions in about 300 words.

(a) Discuss the behaviourist view of language learning.

(b) Discuss the cognitive view of language learning.

(c) Present a critique on the constructivist approach to classroom methodology.

(d) Discuss the acquisition-learning view on second language learning.

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UNIT 14: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING I

UNIT STRUCTURE

14.1 Learning Objectives

14.2 Introduction

14.3 ELT: A Historical Overview

14.4 Communicative Competence

14.5 Contrastive Analysis

14.6 Error Analysis

14.7 Interlanguage

14.8 Let us Sum up

14.9 Further Reading

14.10 Answers to Check Your Progress (Hints Only)

14.11 Possible Questions

14.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through his unit, you will be able to

- appreciate the history of English language teaching
- understand the concept of communicative competence
- analyse the various sources and causes of errors in L2 learning
- appreciate the concept of interlanguage.

14.2 INTRODUCTION

This is the first of the two units on *English Language Teaching*, a term that has come to be known as ELT in the literature of language teaching. We begin this unit by providing a historical overview of ELT. By taking note of the status of English as a world language, we broadly divided the areas globally where English has been used and then focussed our attention on the Indian context. In this unit, we traced the history of teaching English in India from the point of the arrival of the East India Company to India though we have found that the formal teaching of English began with the famous *Minute on Indian Education* of T.B. Macaulay though we have noted that

even in the pre-Macaulay times the Bengal renaissance had created a climate for the craze for learning the language. Raja Rammohun Roy belongs to this period. His letter to Lord Amherst in 1832 is a striking example of the awakening of the intelligentsia towards English education. We moved on to the stage subsequent to the Sepoy Rising to survey the development of English education during this stage. We noted the impact of the Wood's Despatch on education in the country. That was the period of the introduction of the railway and, the introduction of the telegraph. With the distance being abridged, there has been a growing need for a common language that would be able to reach out to all sections of the vast sub-continent. We noted that the desire for English education was on the increase among the new generation of Indians. There appeared a group of Indian poets and prose writers who had the command of the English language and produced great works in English. In the third stage, the post-independence stage, we discussed the status of English in India by referring to the University Education Commission, the Secondary Education Commission known as the Mudaliar Commission, the Report of the Official Language Commission in 1956 and a few other issues relating to the development of English in independent India.

Next, we went on to examine the concept of communicative competence in terms of two concepts propounded by Chomsky namely competence and performance. We noted that competence is the grammatical knowledge of a language user that is commonly not conscious or available for spontaneous report while linguistic performance is most explicitly understood as concerned with the processes often termed encoding and decoding.

We then took up the issues on the sources and causes of L2 learners' errors beginning with a critical observation on contrastive analysis by stating that L1 transfer is not the only source of errors; there are other sources, a few of which we referred to. Then we moved on to examining a few techniques of error analysis finally, we ended the unit with a discussion on the concept of interlanguage.

14.3 ELT: A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

English is one of the most widely spoken languages in the world today. The English-speaking world can broadly be divided into the following areas:

- North America covering the regions of the United States and Canada.
- The British Isles, the home of the English language covering the regions of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland.
- Australia and New Zealand
- South Asia covering the regions of India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal and Sri Lanka.
- Far East covering the regions of Singapore, Malaysia, Hong Kong.
- The Caribbean region
- South Africa, West and East Africa.

Each region has its own distinct history of the use of English and the teaching of English. Our concern here would be limited to a historical overview of English teaching in India, which is linked to the arrival of the East India Company in 1600.

14.3.1 The Exposure of the Country to English

The period from 1600, the year of establishment of the East India Company (EIC) till 1800, may be taken as the period of exposure of the country to the English language. The EIC established settlements in Madras, Calcutta and Bombay. By the end of the eighteenth century, the Company controlled virtually a sizeable portion of the subcontinent. The administration of the country rested in the hands of a band of British administrators, army officers, educators and missionaries with the association of a small number of Indians who acted as the link between the British administrators and the common persons.

However, there was no formal teaching in India during the pre-Macaulay period and whatever English teaching was there was restricted to the children of the East India Company officials, a few Indians not only learnt the language but also started contributing literary works. Henry Derozio (1809—1831), Kaliprosad Ghose (1809 –1873) and Michael Madhusudhan Dutt (1827 – 1873) were three of the well-known poets who wrote prior to Macaulay's *Minute.*

However, in Calcutta there was a great movement for English education. A reform movement was taking shape in Bengal spearheaded by Raja Rammohun Roy (1772 -1833) who had acquired English education and entered the service of the East India Company as Dewan or Sheristadar. By1815 he had formed a circle of followers and impressed upon them the idea that the first and foremost need of his fellow countrymen was a more modern system of education, adapted to the needs of modern conditions. It is well known that he himself founded and helped others in founding schools. He took a prominent part in the educational controversy between the "Orientalists" and the "Anglicists" and sided with the latter. His letter on English Education to the Governor General of British India, Lord Amherst in 1832 for an enlightened system of education was written twelve years before Macaulay wrote his famous *Minute*.

14.3.2 The First Stage of English Teaching

The name of Charles Grant, an official of EIC is associated as a pioneer in the teaching of English in India. In 1792, he suggested the need for "planting" the English language in those "territories of the country' for the dissemination of European literature and sciences through the medium of English. Grant's suggestion was accepted later by the Government of William Bentinck as a result of which a formal programme of English studies was introduced in India in the first half of the nineteenth century. The year 1835 can be taken as the official date of introduction of the teaching of English in India, the date when the teaching of English was officially sanctioned by the British Government:

"The great object of the British government ought to be the promotion of European literature and sciences among the natives of India and that all the funds appropriated for the purpose of education would be best employed in English education alone."

It was in 1835 that Thomas Babington Macaulay, Chairman of the Governor General's Council and President of the Committee of Public Instructions had presented to the Government his famous *Minute on Indian Education (1835)*.

Macaulay's educational *Minute* made it abundantly clear that he saw the teaching of English, far from replacing the vernaculars, as a channel for the transmission of European knowledge into the vernaculars and through them down to the wide mass of the Indian population. However, the vernaculars must grow organically out of the new learning, rather than by government paying a few authors to produce books in those languages. "Twenty years hence, there will be hundreds, nay thousands of natives familiar with the best models of composition and well acquainted with western science," he predicted. "Among them some persons will be found who will have the inclination and the ability to exhibit European knowledge in the vernacular dialects."

Thus, Macaulay provides the assurance that the new educational policy for India will not only increase the efficiency of the colonial government by creating a class of people who would be well versed in the art of speaking and writing English. It would be a class of people who could be employed in the lower rungs of British administration. As he had predicted, by 1838, when he sailed back to Britain, his Committee had established forty English medium schools which were open to all regardless of caste, in itself a revolutionary step in a society where the lower castes had been strictly forbidden to study.

The year 1854 is significant for English education in India. It was in this year that the Colonial Government announced its famous

Wood's Despatch, which was the first educational policy of EIC. Three years later, in 1857, three universities were established in Bombay, Calcutta and Madras where English studies were introduced for the first time in the sense that Oxford introduced English Literature as a subject only in 1894 and Cambridge in 1911. The year 1857 was also the year of the Sepoy Rising that brought the curtains down on the East India Company and in 1858 the Indian sub-continent came directly under the British Crown.

14.3.3 The Second Stage of English Teaching

The second stage of English teaching began subsequent to the Sepoy Rising of 1857 when a year later in 1858, India came directly under the Crown of England. The Despatch of Charles Wood of 1854 was confirmed in 1859 and the grants-in-aid system was introduced and the Education Department was established as a separate administrative unit. Charles Wood advocated for a system of education in India where the mother tongue would be the base, but English would dominate at the higher levels of education.

Earlier in 1853, the first railway was opened in India and in 1854; the first telegraph line and a modern postal system were inaugurated. Distance was being abridged and a common medium of communication was being established at the higher levels. These factors brought in a growing need for a language that would be able to reach out to all sections of the vast sub-continent. With the rise of a nationalist fervour after the Rising, it was felt that the language of the Nationalist Movement has to be an Indian language. At the same time, the desire for English education was on the increase among the new generation of Indians and a "long dormant intellectual and critical impulse was quickened into sudden life, a new efflorescence was visible everywhere and the reawakened Indian spirit went forth to meet the violent challenge of values of modern science and civilization of the west" (K.R.S. Iyengar).

It was around the same period there appeared a group of Indian poets and prose writers who had the command of the English language and produced great works in English. Bankim Chandra Chatterjee, for example produced his major work *Rajmohan's Wife* in English. But, he was fluent in Bengali also. This stage was a very productive stage not only for Indian writings but also for Indian writings in English. Sri Aurobindo, Mulk Raj Anand, Raja Rao and R.K Narayan were the earliest bestselling writers writing in English during the latter part of the nineteenth century.

14.3.4 The Third Stage of English in India

The third stage is the post-independence stage, a crucial stage for the English language in the multilingual climate of independent India. The status of English in India was debated upon at a national level and in 1948 soon after independence, the University Education Commission with Dr. S. Radhakrishnan as Chairman recommended Hindi as medium of instruction with the continuation of English.

In 1950 the Constitution of India granted English the status of Associate Official Language and was to be used in that capacity till 1965. In 1952-53, the Secondary Education Commission known as the Mudaliar Commission recommended that English and Hindi be introduced at the middle school level and the medium of instruction be the regional language/mother tongue till secondary school level. However, the Report of the Official Language Commission in 1956, presented a dismal scenario of literacy in contemporary India. It was reported that literacy in English constituted 6.41% of total literacy and only 1.06% of the total population recognizes the value of English as 'pipeline' within the country and 'window' to the rest of the world.

In 1961 the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) was formed wherein in a conference of Chief Ministers recommended the three-language formula at school. In 1963, the Official Language Act was passed and it was recommended for the continuance of English as an Associate Official

Language even after 1965, without any time limit. In 1964-1966, the Indian Education Commission, known as the Kothari Commission, confirmed the three-language formula – use of English as library language and as the medium of instruction at university level. The continuance of English as alternative language and medium of instruction at higher levels was reiterated by the National Education Policy of 1968. The recommendations regarding the teaching of English of the 1968 policy has been reiterated by the 1986 policy. It however recommended for the setting up of schools and colleges and universities in rural areas with the objective of identifying and promoting excellence.

Today there has been a lot of opportunities for the teaching and learning of English from the school level up to the higher levels of education. Central and State Universities, Autonomous Colleges, Open Universities and Open Schools, national and state level Boards and Councils of school education, NCERT at a national level and SCERTs at state levels are some of the state and national agencies that have been contributing to the teaching and learning of English in India. Globalization in the field of education has opened the doors for international agencies to contribute to the development of ELT both through the print and electronic media including Google.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Answer the following questions.

(a) Briefly discuss Raja Rammohun Roy's contribution to the introduction of English education in India.

(b) Briefly state the objectives of the British colonial government underlying the spread of English in India.

(c) Briefly discuss the role of Macaulay's *Minute* with reference to the spread of English in India.

(d) What is the three language formula?

14.4 COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

In *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965) Noam Chomsky observes that "linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker or listener in a completely homogeneous speech community that knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interests and errors in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance." The statement draws our attention to the following phrases:

1. that knows its language, and
2. applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance.

The first phrase refers to *linguistic competence*, a knowledge of the language system. The second phrase refers to the use of the language, the *linguistic performance.* Linguistic competence is understood as concerned with the tacit knowledge of language structure. It is the grammatical knowledge that is commonly not conscious or available for spontaneous report, but necessarily implicit in what the ideal speaker-listener can say. On the other hand, *linguistic performance* is most explicitly understood as concerned with the processes often termed encoding and decoding of meaning in an exchange that takes place between speakers.

Such a theory of competence is seen as independent of the socio-cultural features that are required for suitable speech in the environment of the child to develop. Socio-cultural features refer to those features in a social context that prompts a speaker with the notions of what to say, when to say and how to say something that is appropriate and feasible for a given situation. The theory of performance is the one sector that might have a specific socio-cultural content.

In order to appreciate the concepts of competence and performance, we may refer to the concepts of *langue* and *parole* propounded by Saussure. (Refer to 3.4.2 in this course) Saussure refers to langue as the abstract knowledge of the language system that is possessed by and used by all members of a speech community and parole as the concrete manifestation

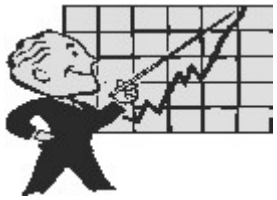
of the language through either speech or writing. However, Chomsky's view of competence and performance goes beyond Saussure's conception of the two terms. The concept of competence in the larger context of communication or communicative competence has to be seen as an overall underlying linguistic knowledge and ability and thus it includes concepts of appropriateness and acceptability – socio-cultural notions which are associated with performance. The study of communicative competence thus entails consideration of such variables as attitude, motivation and a number of socio-cultural factors.

There are several sectors of communicative competence, of which grammaticality and appropriateness are two major areas of language use. In this context, we refer to a noted sociolinguist Dell Hymes who examines the concept of communicative competence by listing four sectors, which are as follows:

- The first sector of communicative competence is whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible. This is roughly equivalent to Chomsky's notion of grammaticality. It is concerned with whether a language permits a structure as grammatical (possible). We can say for example that 'the mouse that the cat chased and killed and ate had a white tail'. It is a grammatical sentence.
- The second sector of communicative competence is whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available. The notion of feasibility entails that a sentence like' the mouse, the cat, the dog, the man, the woman married, beat, chased ate had a white tail' is grammatically possible but lacks feasibility.
- The third sector of communicative competence covers appropriateness — whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated. The speaker-listener's underlying competence includes rules of appropriateness; a sentence can be grammatically possible and feasible but inappropriate to a context or situation.

- The fourth sector relates to the area, which we commonly refer to as accepted usage. It concerns whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doings entails. A sentence may be possible, feasible, appropriate and not occur.

The concept of communicative competence provides us with an explanation on how a child acquires language. A normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and also what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner. In short, a child becomes able to accomplish a stock of speech acts, to take part in speech events and to evaluate their accomplishment by others. This competence, moreover, is integral with attitudes, values, and motivations concerning language, its features and uses. These are rules of language use without which the rules of grammar would appear useless. The internalization of attitudes towards the use of a language is particularly important. They contribute to the communicative competence of the child using the language in a natural situation.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2: Write short notes on the following terms:

(a) linguistic competence

(b) linguistic performance

(c) acceptability

(d) langue and parole

14.5 CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

Contrastive analysis is a field of study related to second language acquisition theories. These theories traditionally have been the offspring of general linguistic theory, sometimes supplemented by insights from psycholinguistics. One of the major areas of L2 acquisition is the notion that L2 learners are often influenced by the features of their first language

in the process of learning a second language. The term language transfer is used to refer to this notion of influence of the learners' first language in L learning. The errors that L2 learners often make, has been taken as base for such a study. A contrastive analysis (CA) of the errors of these learners is a field of study that has been guided by the theoretical assumptions of the structural approach and the behaviourist theory of language learning developed and practised in the 1950s and 1960s

14.5.1 Language Transfer

The term language transfer presupposes the notion that sentences in the target language may exhibit interference from the mother tongue. This of course was considered to be the major source of errors of L2 users of the language. Contrastive analysis refers to a comparison of the linguistic systems of two languages, for example the sound system or the grammatical system followed by an analysis of the distinctive features of the learners' L1 and L2. The history and theoretical origins of CA in behaviourist psychology are reviewed by researchers like Dulay and Burt (1977) who have found that one third of deviant sentences of L2 learners could be attributed to language transfer. Thus, CA works by predicting errors by comparing the linguistic systems of the mother tongue and the L2.

The major assumption of CA is that while learning a new language a substantial number of the errors made by the learner can be due to the interference coming from the learners' first language (L1). This phenomenon referred to as *the pull of the mother tongue* implies that when learners acquire their L1 /mother tongue they begin as it were, with a clean slate. In course of time, the phonological, syntactic and semantic features of the language get impressed in their minds. When they begin to learn a second language (L2), they carry over the phonological, syntactic and semantic features of their L1 into their target language (L2) performance resulting in language transfer. Thus, it has been

hypothesized by CA that the errors of L2 learners are chiefly due to the differences between the structural patterns or the sound pattern of their L1 and L2. The greater these differences are, the more acute the learning difficulties will be. Learners' deviation in the use of language from the norm of the L2 occurs because of their bilingual or multilingual habits accounting for their familiarity with more than one language. This assumption had led to the argument that a contrastive analysis of the structural framework of the two languages is needed to predict and to make explicit the difficulties and errors of L2 learners.

14.5.2 Intralingual Interference

Research findings have provided the evidence that language transfer is not the only source of errors made by L2 learners thereby pointing at the shortcomings of the CA hypothesis. Studies have shown that some errors produced by the learner reflect not the structures of the learners' first language but generalizations based on partial exposure to the L2. In an analysis of English errors produced by speakers of a multitude of unrelated languages representing several language families, Jack C Richards noted subcategories of error types, which seem to be common to speakers of diverse languages as they develop hypothesis about the structure of English. The errors point to the fact that like the first language learner, the L2 learner tries to derive the rules behind the data to which he has been exposed, and may develop hypothesis that may correspond neither to the mother tongue nor the target language.

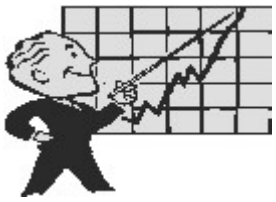
14.5.3 Other Sources of Errors

Besides intralingual interference, the sociolinguistic situation may result in different degrees and types of language learning and consequently errors that has to be traced back to other sources. Included here are thus the effects of the learner's particular motivations for learning the L2 as well as the socio-linguistic setting.

In certain socio-linguistic settings, the learner will be more motivated to learn the language than in other settings.

Similarly, the modality of exposure to the L2 and the modality of production may affect L2 learning and consequently the sources of errors made by L2 learners. Production and perception may involve the acquisition of two partially overlapping systems. Very often mixing of syntactic forms and sounds of the learners' mother tongue is observed in the production of their L2.

However, there still remains the value of CA. Though the automatic transfer of L1 structure due to habit onto the structure of the L2 is virtually non-existent, studies of L2 acquisition have tended to imply that CA may be most predictive at the level of speech production. It is logical that bilingual speakers tend to be influenced by the sound system of their L1 when they use L2 in oral communication.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3: Answer the following questions.

(a) What is contrasted in contrastive analysis?

(b) Explain the term pull of the mother tongue.

(c) Apart from L1 interference, name some other sources of L2 learners' errors.

(d) Where do we see the value of Contrastive Analysis more than in others?

14.6 ERROR ANALYSIS

In our discussion on L2, learners' errors in 14.5 above we focussed our attention on errors studied from the point of view of contrast. The claims made by contrastive analysis (CA) to predict and explain some major types of errors, have led to a serious interest in learners' errors. These interests have grown up primarily because errors have provided a meaningful feedback

to the teaching-learning activities taking place in the L2 classrooms. They not only provided the basis for remedial teaching but more than that, they are seen as evidences of the levels of learning that takes place in the learner. Hence there has grown the need for undertaking serious studies on learners' errors of performance and errors of performance – two terms used by Pit Corder, in his paper titled "The Significance of Learners' Errors"(1967).

14.6.1 Types of Errors

It is a fact that no one expects a child learning his mother-tongue to produce from the beginning nothing but grammatically correct and appropriate sentences – sentences which an adult user of the language would possibly use. We interpret his 'incorrect' utterances as evidences that he is in the process of acquiring language. We take appositive view of the child's errors of performance, which include slips, lapses and mistakes.

Slips are made by a learner when writing or speaking and which result from a lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness or some other aspect of performance. We often refer to slip of the pen or slip of the tongue. We would not make these slips if we were a bit careful. Similarly, lapses and mistakes are also errors of performance that may often result from memory lapses, fatigue or emotional strain or even a failure to match the language to the situation resulting in inappropriate utterance. Errors of performance will characteristically be unsystematic and it is meaningless to formulate rules to overcome them.

Compared to errors of performance, the errors of competence of the learner will be systematic. Primarily, the significance of these errors is threefold.

(a) We obtain from them evidence of the system of the language that the learner is using or has learnt at a particular point in the course of learning.

(b) Secondly, they provide to the researcher evidence on how language is learnt or acquired, what strategies or procedure the learners are employing in the learning of the language.

(c) Thirdly, they are important to the learners themselves because they provide developmental evidence of language learning. This is the type of errors that belong to the scope of error analysis (EA).

14.6.2 Error Analysis as a Pedagogical Tool

The term error analysis has been considered a pedagogic tool as it has to do with the investigation of the language of L2 learners. Rather than making, an attempt to compare the linguistic features of the learners' L1 and L2, in EA it has been thought to be more relevant to study the learners' performance data so as to infer from it the nature of their competence and the process by which the language elements are acquired.

From the insights gained from such investigation, it has been possible to adopt the teaching materials, which facilitate the process of acquisition. The learners have been seen as constructing for themselves a grammar of the target language on the basis of linguistic data to which they are exposed and the exposure they receive from classroom teaching. With the newer insights gained from cognitive language learning theory and transformational generative grammar L2 learning has now been seen as a creative process of constructing a system in which learners are trying out hypotheses about the target language from a number of possible sources, limited knowledge of the target language, knowledge of communicative functions, knowledge of the L1 and so on.

14.6.3 Methodology of Error Analysis

It is now time to look in detail at examples of errors, which L2 learners produce. Careful analysis relating to the cause of learners' errors can provide guidance on various pedagogical issues. It is important to note that error analysis works by following a systematic methodology at these stages:

1. the identification or recognition of errors.
2. the description of the errors
3. explanation of the errors in terms of their source, cause and significance.

Each of these points has been taken up here.

1. *The identification or recognition of errors:* For this purpose, we shall take the following samples of language users' speech or composition. We can recognize the following sentences as erroneous:

(a) *Rina is ill since four days.

(b) *What you doing now?

(c) *He did not found.

(d) *We can took him out.

(e) *He born in Delhi.

(f) *The sky is cover with clouds.

2. *The description of the errors:* For this purpose, we shall take up the first two sentences only.

(a) **Rina is ill since four days* is not acceptable. The acceptable form is: Rina has been ill for four days. It is basically an error of syntax; more specifically, an error in the use of the present perfect tense form of the verb. The use of the adverbs since/ for is another error detected. The error can be classified as over-generalization

(b) **What you doing now?* is not acceptable. The acceptable form is: What are you doing now? It is basically an error in the use of the verb form in interrogative constructions. The error can be classified as incomplete application to rules.

3. *Explanation of the errors in terms of their source, cause and significance:* In his description and explanation of the types of errors given above, Jack C Richards (1971) in his paper

titled "A Non-contrastive Approach to Error Analysis" observes that an examination of these errors suggests that they reflect the general characteristics of learning the rules of grammar. These include over-generalization, ignorance of rule restriction, incomplete application of rules, false concepts hypothesized among others. Developmental errors illustrate the learners' attempting to build up hypotheses about features of the English language from their limited experience of it in the classroom or through textbooks.

(a) Overgeneralization: The term covers instances where the learner makes errors on the basis of their experience of other structures in the L2. For example *We are walk to school every day is basically an error in the use of the verb form. The error is the result of a tendency to over-generalize the rules of grammar. Over-generalization generally involves the creation of one unacceptable sentence due to the false generalization of the grammatical input that the learner had acquired.

(b) *Ignorance of rule restriction:* The term covers instances where the learner fails to observe the restrictions of application of rules of grammar to contexts where they do not apply. For example:

- From *We talked about it*, in the analogy he produces *We discussed about it.
- From *He said to me,* he produces *He told to me.
- From *Ask him to do it*, he produces *Make him to do it.

(c) *Incomplete application to rules*: under this category, we may note the occurrence of structures, which show that the learner is in the process of acquiring acceptable forms. For example, earner has acquired the statement from which he uses wrongly in the question form by producing sentences like

- *When you are coming?
- *Why you are late?

(d) *False concepts hypothesised:* Under this category, we include errors that are produced from faulty comprehension of distinction in the L2. Examples include

- *He was helped me.
- *She is comes to school regularly.

The relevance of a study of L2 learners' errors for language teaching is considerable. So far all incorrect forms produced by the learner we have termed 'errors'. We need to analyse them and identify the sources and causes of the errors and to use this knowledge for pedagogic purposes.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 4: Comment on the following errors:

(a) Neither Mohan nor his brother were present.

(b) I knew him for a year.

(c) Sanskrit is not easy to be learnt.

(d) I found a handbag crossing the road.

(e) What you are doing here?

14.7 INTERLANGUAGE

The term *interlanguage* is used to refer to the type of language produced by L2 learners who are in the process of learning a language. In sections 14.5, we discussed a number of sources and causes of errors made by L2 users of English. For example, we had noted that in L2 learning, the learner inevitably makes errors whose sources and causes can be ascribed to the following factors:

- Language transfer
- Interlingual interference
- Sociolinguistic situation
- Modality in language learning.

In the present context, we are concerned with the interlingual interference as the source and cause of errors. Interlingual errors reflect various stages of language development of the learner. It claims that the learner processes new language data in his mind and produces rules for its production, based on the evidence. Where the data are inadequate or the evidence only partial, such rules may produce utterances such as the following:

(a) Rina is ill since four days.

(b) What you doing now?

(c) She told she was on holiday.

(d) She in my chair sitting.

(e) Dilip is knowing the answer.

In the above performance data of the L2 users, what appears relevant to us are:

(1) the linguistically near equivalent utterances in the learner's mother tongue (L1) produced by the learner,

(2) the utterances made by the L2 learner which appears rather deviant from a grammatical standpoint (interlanguage or IL),

(3) the same utterances considered to be grammatically acceptable in the target language (TL).

These three sets of utterances or behavioural events are then the relevant data of second language learning. A theoretical prediction in a relevant psychology of L2 learning will be the basis which establish the knowledge of IL behaviour. At this point, we have to revisit the different sources and causes of the errors made which had formed the theme of our discussion in 14.5 and 14.6 above.



14.8 LET US SUM UP

We began this unit with a historical overview of ELT. We took note of the status of English as a world language by broadly dividing the areas

globally where English has been used and then focussed our attention on the Indian context. We traced the history of the arrival of the British East India Company to India as the stage of exposure to English. We took note of the fact that the formal teaching of English began with the famous *Minute on Indian Education* of T.B. Macaulay. We noted that even in the pre-Macaulay times the Bengal renaissance had created a climate for the craze for learning the language. We referred to Raja Rammohun Roy whose letter to Lord Amherst in 1832 illustrates the awakening of the intelligentsia towards English education. We took up the stage subsequent to the Sepoy Rising to survey the development of English education during this stage, which includes the impact of the Wood's Despatch on education in the country. We noted that the desire for English education was on the increase among the new generation of Indians. There appeared a group of Indian poets and prose writers who had the command of the English language and produced great works in English. In the third stage, the post-independence stage, we discussed the status of English in India by referring to the University Education Commission, the Secondary Education Commission known as the Mudaliar Commission, the Report of the Official Language Commission in 1956 and a few other issues relating to the development of English in independent India. Next, we went on to examine the concept of communicative competence in terms of two concepts propounded by Chomsky namely competence and performance. We then took up the issues on the sources and causes of L2 learners' errors beginning with a critical observation on contrastive analysis by stating that L1 transfer is not the only source of errors; there are other sources, a few of which we referred to. Then we moved on to examining a few techniques of error analysis in terms of the identification or recognition of errors, the description of the errors and explanation of the errors in terms of their source, cause and significance. Finally, we brought the unit to a close with a discussion on the concept of interlanguage.



14.9 FURTHER READING

Baker, J et al. (2008). *The English Teacher's Handbook.* Continuum, London & NY.

Hubbard, P. et al. (1983). *A Training Course for TEFL.* ELBS.

Krishnaswami, N. et al. (2003). *Teaching English.* Macmillan.

Masani, Zareer. (2012). *Macaulay.* Random House.

Nagaraj, Geetha. (2006). *English Language Teaching.* Orient Longman.

Richards, J.C. (1974). *Error Analysis.* Longman.

_____ et al. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in language Teaching.* Cambridge.



14.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS (HINTS ONLY)

Ans to Q 1:

(a) see 14.3.1

(b) see 14.3.2

(c) see 14.3.2.

(d) The Three language Formula is as follows:

1. The first language (L1) to be studied must be the mother tongue(MT) or the regional language (RL)
2. The second language (L2)

(d) In Hindi speaking states the L1 will be some other modern Indian language or English

(e) In non-Hindi speaking states, the L2 will be Hindi or English

3. The third language (L3)

(a) In Hindi speaking states, the L3 will be English or an MIL not studies as L1

(b) In non-Hindi speaking states L3 will be English or an MIL not studies as L2.

Ans to Q 2:

(a) See 14.4.

(b) See 14.4.

(c) See 14..4.

(d) See Unit 3 at 3.4.2.

Ans to Q 3:

(a) See 14.5.1

(b) See 14.5.1

(c) See 14.5.3

(d) See the last paragraph of sub section 14.5.3.

Ans to Q 4:

(a) to (e) Try yourself with inputs from 14.6.3.



14.11 POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

Q 1: Answer the following questions briefly.

(a) State the contribution of Charles Grant to English Education in India.

(b) Briefly state the recommendations of the Mudaliar Commission on English Education.

(c) Define intralingual interference

(d) Distinguish the two terms: competence and performance.

Q 2: Answer the following questions in about 100-150 words.

(a) Briefly state the objectives of the British colonial government underlying the spread of English education in India.

(b) Discuss the issues leading to the introduction of the Three Language Formula.

(c) Discuss the L1 interference hypothesis.

(d) Draw a distinction in the meanings of slips, mistakes and errors.

Q 3: Answer the questions in about 400 words.

(a) Give a brief history of English Education in India till the independence of India.

(b) Discuss the methodology underlying error analysis.

(c) Discuss the concept of communicative competence.

(d) Discuss the concept of interlanguage.

* * *

UNIT 15: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING II

UNIT STRUCTURE

15.1 Learning Objectives

15.2 Introduction

15.3 Approaches, Methods and Techniques of Teaching English

15.4 Grammar Translation Approach

15.5 The Structural Approach

15.6 The Communicative Approach

15.7 Modern Approaches

15.8 Let us Sum up

15.9 Further Reading

15.9 Answers to Check Your Progress (Hints Only)

15.10 Possible Questions

15.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through his unit, you will be able to

- appreciate the different approaches to the teaching of English
- explain the concepts of approach, method and technique
- evaluate the merits of different approaches of English Teaching
- form ideas about the modern approaches to language teaching.

15.2 INTRODUCTION

This is the second unit on English Language Teaching and also the last unit of the Course on Language, Linguistics and Grammar. We began this unit by discussing the three hierarchically related concepts of approach, method and technique. We discussed *approach* as the theoretical basis of language and language teaching that can be seen in terms of three different theoretical views of language and the nature of language namely, the structural view, the functional view and the interactional view. We then

discussed method as an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon a definite approach. Next, we discussed technique as that which actually takes place in a classroom, as a particular strategy used to accomplish an immediate objective. We argued that techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well and that the technique that a method advocates often serves to distinguish methods. Then, we took up the grammar translation approach by referring to its German origin while in India it was the first of the approaches to be introduced in vernacular medium schools of the country that continued till the implementation of the National Education Policy of 1968 when a total restructuring of the school curriculum was recommended. We discussed the various features of this approach after which we took up the structural approach that came into being as an alternative to the direct method of teaching English as a second language.

We discussed the genesis of this approach in the English Language Institute of Michigan University in the United States with the objective of training teachers of English to teach English as a foreign language or as a second language. We discussed the implementation of this approach in India that had required a striking departure of various aspects of pedagogy from the grammar translation approach in the goals of teaching the language, areas of classroom technique, textbooks and other allied aspects.

We next moved on to the communicative approach to the teaching of English, which is essentially seen as a departure from the behaviourist paradigm of the structural approach by involving both a cognitive and behaviourist paradigm in its theory and practice. We discussed issues like communicative syllabus design, communicative methodology and the role of the teacher in the communicative classroom. We had seen the communicative approach as a departure from the structural approach from a form-based approach to a meaning-based approach, from a structural syllabus to a notional-functional syllabus and a learner-centred approach in classroom teaching through a variety of communicative activities.

We concluded the unit by making brief references to two of the recent approaches of ELT namely the Natural Approach and the approach known as content-based instruction, the first one propounded by Krashen and Terrel who had viewed language as a vehicle for communicating meanings and messages and observed that acquisition can take place only when people can understand messages in the target language. The other approach, Content Based Instruction (CBI) refers to an approach to L2 teaching in which teaching is organized around the contents or information that the learners will acquire, rather than around a language item. There are other recent approaches like task-based language teaching and a few others, but they have not been included in this unit for discussion.

15.3 APPROACHES, METHODS AND TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING ENGLISH

It is customary to discuss language teaching in terms of three related aspects. They are *approach, method* and *technique*. The terms are hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method, which is consistent with an approach. Here we shall attempt to elaborate these three concepts beginning with the term approach.

15.3.1 Approach

The term 'approach' is used to refer to a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is the theoretical basis of language teaching. The term can be defined as a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the language and the nature of the subject matter to be taught. An approach forms the basis of any method to be formulated. Having said that an approach is the theoretical basis of language and language teaching, we need to elaborate on it. We can identify three theoretical bases of approach.

The first and the most traditional view is the *structural view,* the view that language is a system of structurally related elements

for the coding of meaning. The goal of language learning is the mastery of elements of this system, which are generally defined in terms of the following components:

(a) phonological units: phonemes

(b) grammatical units : words, phrases, clauses and sentences

(c) grammatical operations: synthesis, transformation, passivization etc. of sentences

(d) lexical items: function words, content word etc.

The structural approach embodies this particular view of language. This approach is characterised by a systematic formulation of principles that can guide language teaching. It contains assumptions and beliefs about the language and language learning in specific terms.

The second view of language is the functional view, the view that language is a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning. The communicative movement in language teaching subscribes to this view of language. This theory emphasises the semantic and communicative dimension rather than merely the grammatical characteristics of language and leads to a specification and organization of language teaching content by categories of meaning and function rather than by elements of structure and grammar.

The third view can be called the interactional view. It sees language as the vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individuals. Language is seen as a means for the creation and maintenance of social relations. Interactional approaches to language teaching include conversational analysis and discourse analysis. Interactional theories focus on patterns of moves and speech acts used in conversational exchange. Other areas of language teaching covered under this view include the Natural Approach and Task Based Teaching Approach mention of which will be made in 15.7 below.

15.3.2 Method

Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon the selected approach. In other words, method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented. Different theories of language and language learning influence the focus of a method. They determine what a method sets out to achieve. Some methods focus primarily on oral skills, say that reading and writing are secondary, and derive from transfer of oral skills. Then some methods set out to teach general communication skills and give greater priority to the ability to express oneself meaningfully and to make oneself understood than to grammatical accuracy or perfect pronunciation. However, the fact remains that all methods of language teaching involve the use of the target language.

W. F. Mackey in a paper titled “The Meaning of Method” had outlined a model of language teaching analyses that concentrates on the dimensions of (a) selection, (b) gradation and (c) presentation. All methods, therefore must consciously or unconsciously, select, grade and present their material. These three dimensions are justified below:

- First, he states that any method needs a selection because it is impossible to teach a whole of a field of knowledge – we are forced to teach the part of it we wish to teach.
- Secondly, we need to undertake grading because it is impossible to teach all of which we selected at once – we are forced put something before or after something else.
- Thirdly, he states that we need to focus upon presentation because it is impossible to teach without communicating something to somebody.

When Mackey developed this model in the 50s of the last century, obviously he had the Structural or audio-lingual approach in mind. Those were the times for these approaches and Mackey's views on method throw light on the nature of the approach.

However, the model does not throw any light on the actual classroom behaviours of teachers and learners, which is of significance in communicative methodology. In such methodology, the role of teachers and learners need to be addressed. In the case of a student-centred classroom, it becomes necessary to create situations for natural communication to take place. This is a goal of the communicative approach. In such a method, the teacher's roles and the students' roles are very well defined. The underlying theory is that students cannot be taught. They can only be helped to learn. The method employed in a student-centred classroom is that the teacher's role is to help and encourage students to develop their skills, but without the teacher relinquishing the more traditional role as a source of information, advice and knowledge. In a student-centred classroom, the students and the teacher are a team working together. Together their role is to make sure everyone benefits from the lesson, supporting one another.

15.3.3 Technique

A technique relates to what actually takes place in a classroom. It can be defined as a particular strategy used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and is therefore in harmony with an approach as well. The objectives of a method have to be realized through the techniques employed. Techniques that focus on grammatical accuracy as goal may be quite different from techniques that focus upon communication skills. The technique that a method advocates often serves to distinguish methods. The structural approach uses presentation and practise of dialogues and pattern-practise drills as classroom techniques.

A communicative methodology would employ different classroom techniques altogether. For example, two of the techniques of a communicative methodology have been mentioned here:

(a) The information transfer principle – a technique of transferring information provided in one form to another form.

(b) The information gap principle–the technique of supplying information in authentic situations by creating conditions of unexpectedness.

The notion of classroom techniques as a central activity in classroom interaction has been the core of lesson planning designed by the teacher. The instructional objectives for a given level of instruction can be designed into classroom techniques to achieve the desired instructional goal.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Answer the following questions.

(a) Define the term 'approach' and illustrate it with an example.

(b) Define the term 'method' and illustrate it with an example.

(c) Define the term 'technique' and illustrate it with an example.

(d) Explain the term 'information gap principle'.

15.4 GRAMMAR TRANSLATION APPROACH

The *grammar translation approach* had its origin in Germany and was popular from the 1840s to the 1940s. However, in India the approach was the first of the approaches to be introduced in vernacular medium schools of the country and continued till the implementation of the *National Education Policy* of 1968 when a total restructuring of the school curriculum was recommended.

15.4.1 Classroom Methodology

As the name suggests, the approach attempts to organize a strategy of L2 teaching in which classroom activities involve the extensive use of the grammar of the target language (the language that is learnt) in the learning process and that after the grammar is internalized, the learner then has to translate sentences and passages from the learners' L1 to L2 and vice versa. However, what is of immediate interest is that while designing the approach for the teaching of an L2, a number of salient features have been identified, a few of which have been discussed below.

The most noticeable aspect of the approach is the classroom methodology adopted for teaching English as L2. The English classes are invariably taught in the learners' mother tongue. The teacher is the active participant who provides all the required information to the learners who remain passive receivers of information. Learners are provided with little opportunities for the active use of the target language.

15.4.2 Types of Reading Texts

On the other hand, the textbooks contain *ungraded reading passages*, which are used for reading and translating them into the mother tongue or L1 of the learner. The word 'ungraded' means that the reading passages used for the textbooks usually contain long extracts from great writers. For example, in the schools of Assam till the 1970s when the approach was in vogue, students of class IX - X were required to read unabridged texts of Charles and Mary Lamb, Washington Irving and even Leo Tolstoy among others. The activities included the learners' engagement with the text in English, which was the target language and translating the lines into the learners' L1 or mother tongue. A related activity in handling the textbook was the teaching of vocabulary, which formed an important

activity in this approach. The prescribed reading passages were used for an elaborate vocabulary learning activity. Much vocabulary was taught in the form of lists of words and their bilingual meanings in isolation.

15.4.3 The Teaching of Grammar

A major area of concern in L2 teaching through the grammar-translation approach is the prescriptive teaching of formal grammar. Long elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given. Grammar provides the rules for putting words together in the structure of sentences. Classroom instruction often focuses on

- memorizing the parts of speech including their definitions,
- preparation of elaborate conjugation tables of verbs in the affirmative, negative, interrogative and negative-interrogative forms;
- parsing of words in different types of sentences,
- learning the rules for passive forms,
- narration of sentences
- analysis of clauses
- synthesis of sentences and
- Translation of sentences or short passages from the mother-tongue into English.

15.4.4 Writing Composition Tasks

Apart from explaining the lessons or the grammatical terms in the mother tongue and to ensuring that learners are also able to do the same thing, the teacher also had the task to develop some writing or composition tasks. These include essay writing, story writing, writing personal letters or applications to the head master, and so on. Besides the classroom, work includes drills and exercises in translating disconnected sentences from target language into mother tongue. Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 2: Answer the following questions

(a) State the type of reading texts used for teaching through the grammar translation approach.

(b) Explain the term 'conjugation of verbs' with an example.

(c) Describe the nature of the classroom methodology through this approach.

(d) Explain 'prescriptive teaching of grammar'.

15.5 THE STRUCTURAL APPROACH

The structural approach came into being as an alternative to the direct method of teaching English as a second language. The approach had its genesis in the English Language Institute of Michigan University in the United States with the objective of training teachers of English to teach English as a foreign language or as a second language. Charles Fries, the director of the institute and his colleagues felt that grammar or the structure ought to be the starting point for the teaching of a language. The structure of the language was identified with its basic sentence patterns and grammatical structures. The language was taught by intensive oral drilling of the basic sentence patterns. Systematic attention was paid to pronunciation. Teaching techniques concentrated on repetition of a pattern a number of times so that the learner became perfect in the use of the pattern. It became a popular approach in many parts of the world including India.

15.5.1 Language Skills

However, in most states of India, the structural approach was introduced in schools only after the implementation of the NEP (1968) in the later part of the 70s thereby replacing the grammar-translation approach. The most significant departure of the structural approach from the grammar-translation approach is that for the first

time, language learning has been recognized as the development of skills. These skills include the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Thus, with the focus on the development of skills syllabuses have been developed so as to ensure that at a given period of instruction, the learner is able to:

- understand English when spoken at a normal, conversational speed,
- speak the language,
- read different kinds of texts, and
- write different kinds of compositions.

15.5.2 Selection and Gradation

Secondly, the textbook materials used for the structural approach shows a striking departure from those used in the grammar-translation approach. A significant aspect of the structural approach is the selection and gradation of vocabulary and structures. It has been recommended that the number of vocabulary items would be around 2,700 out of which about 1,200 will constitute the active vocabulary and the remaining the passive vocabulary of the learner. Similarly, around 300 structural patterns have been identified which would be graded so as to decide upon the amount of language material to be given at a definite stage of instruction in a five or six year school course. Such an approach would limit the language material to a manageable number of structures and words.

15.5.3 Situational Teaching

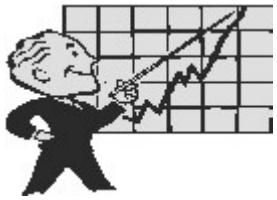
Thirdly, the structural approach considers language to be primarily speech. Hence, the classroom techniques require that the selected structures and vocabulary are to be presented and practised orally. It is important that sufficient opportunities are to be given to learners to practice the structures in meaningful situations and to make them use them in situations, which may be real or contrived.

Real situations are those, which the learner experiences directly at the time of learning, for example the classroom situation. In a real situation, the teacher can demonstrate some action or show visuals and relate the actions or visuals to certain structures that they are required to learn. (e.g. *She is reading a book.*) Real situations can also be developed by recalling some experiences at home or elsewhere and enabling learners to practise a given structure e.g. *How did you come to school today?*

Contrived situations are those situations that cannot be linked with the learners' direct experience. These situations can be created by the use of teaching aids like flash cards, phonic cards, charts and even the blackboard, which a resourceful teacher can meaningfully use by making sketches or in the lower classes showing learners the proper strokes of the letters of the alphabet among others. In oral practice, great attention is given to the pronunciation of the learner and a lot of remediation of phonemes, stress and intonation has to go with the activity.

15.5.4 Drills

Fourthly, in instruction through the structural approach, there is little or no grammatical explanation; grammar is taught by inductive analogy rather than by deductive explanation. Structures are drilled in chorus or through tasks like pattern-practice drills, substitution table drills and other kinds of drills where learners get the opportunity to practice a given structure. Pattern practice drills can be organized by providing inputs requiring learners to carry out *imitation drills, substitution drills, addition drills, transformation drills question-answer drills* among others. *Substitution table drills* are designed by placing words of different classes (nouns, verbs etc.) in different columns of a table requiring learners to produce a large number of sentences from the table.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 4: Answer the following questions.

(a) Explain the language skills.

(b) State the importance of selection of vocabulary.

(c) State the importance of gradation of structures.

(d) Define pattern-practice drill.

15.6 THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

The Communicative Approach to language teaching called Communicative Language teaching is essentially a departure from the behaviourist paradigm of the structural approach by involving both a cognitive and behaviourist paradigm in its theory and practice. The cognitive aspect involves the internalization of plans for creating appropriate language behaviour. There is emphasis on communication, or *communicative competence*. The term; communicative competence' refers to the ability, not only to apply the grammatical rules of a language in order to form grammatically correct sentences, but also to know the time and situation — when and where to use these sentences appropriately.

15.6.1 Communicative Syllabus Design

The first point of departure from the structural approach is that the communicative approach is a development of language learning from a form-based approach to a meaning-based approach. To develop a pedagogic programme based on the communicative approach, the issue that appears to be uppermost is the syllabus inventory. D. A. Wilkins (1976), a former professor of the University of Reading had proposed a syllabus, which would reflect the aims of the communicative approach. He calls it a *notional-functional syllabus* in which he specified two categories of language items — notions (frequency, location, time etc.) and communicative functions

(suggesting, instructing, complaining etc.). The difference between this syllabus and a structural syllabus is that while the structural syllabus contained a list of structures which the textbook writer developed into lessons for teaching through the structural approach, in the communicative approach specified lists of notions and functions and also indicated suitable structures which would express these notions and functions. An example of such a syllabus is given below.

Notional-Functional Syllabus

Notions/Functions	**Exponents**
1. Requesting	Could you...?
	I wonder if you could...
2. Suggesting	You should... You might....
3. Advising	You must....
	You'll have to...
4. Frequency	How often....?
	always, sometimes
5. Location	in, under, at, on, upon,

A radical change in communicative syllabus design came from South India under the guidance of N.S. Prabhu. In 1979, he developed a learner-centred approach to language teaching at the Regional Institute of English in Bangalore. His approach is based on the approach that learning of forms is best carried out when attention is given to meaning. He therefore designed a *task-based syllabus*. The course was organized round a series of communicative tasks, which were graded in order of conceptual difficulty, beginning with very simple tasks like labelling and then moving to many more complex ones like map-making. The focus of the lesson was on completion of the tasks rather than learning the language. The general theory was that while the learners were completing the tasks, at a subconscious level of the mind, they could

be developing a language system. As their internal grammar matures, their capacity to generate language strengthens and early errors and ungrammatical expressions are replaced by standard forms.

15.6.2 Communicative Methodology

In the communicative approach, several types of communicative activities have been proposed by way of methodology among which the information gap task is one. In this type of task, a situation is provided in which information is known by only some of the participants (A) in the task while it is denied to the others (B) in the group. The task involves B receiving the required information from A to complete the gap. Such activities can be organized through

- language games,
- role play,
- group work and
- pair work activities.

These activities show that in communicative methodology, language acquisition is seen as rule formation and not habit formation through tasks engaging learners to repeat language items for practice.

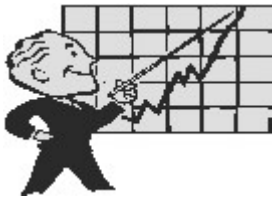
15.6.3 The Teacher

The primary role of the teacher in a communicative classroom is to make the classroom learner-centred. The term learner-centred classroom implies that the teacher is seen as a facilitator rather than a figure of absolute authority. The teacher's role is that of a facilitator of learning to take place. He/She creates learning situations through activities in which the following parameters are addressed:

- The importance of comprehension - especially listening comprehension - is emphasized.

- Errors are seen as an inevitable by-product of language learning; systematic study, interpretation and where possible – remediation are of concern.
- The written language skills (reading and writing) and the spoken language skills (listening and speaking) are viewed as being of equal importance rather than the former secondary and the latter primary.
- Repetition in and of itself is discouraged, silence is recognized as useful and often necessary.
- There is contextualization of all teaching points through the use of audiovisual aids, stories, or other appropriate means.
- The use of mother tongue and translation are permitted.

There is increased interest in the affective domain; the attitude of the teacher and student are seen as important, human sensitivity crucial of interaction a significant variable. Bilingual – bicultural proficiency is seen as an ideal goal.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 4: Answer the following questions

(a) Explain the concept "notional-functional syllabus".

(b) Briefly discuss the concept of task-based syllabus.

(c) Explain 'role play'.

(d) Discuss a learner-centred classroom.

15.7 MODERN APPROACHES

Since the last quarter of the twentieth century, a lot of research has been going on in the field of ELT as a result of which a number of modern approaches, methods and techniques of ELT have made their appearances. A survey of a few of these approaches is presented here.

15.7.1 The Natural Approach

In 1977, Tracy Terell, a teacher of Spanish in California associated with Stephen Krashen, an applied linguist in the University of Southern California in elaborating a theoretical rationale for the new approach to ELT, which has been named the Natural Approach, drawing on Krashen's influential theory of L2 acquisition. Their combined statement on the principle and practices of the Natural Approach appeared in a book titled *The Natural Approach* in 1983. They reject earlier methods of language teaching, such as the Audio-lingual Approach, which viewed grammar as the central component of language. According to Krashen and Terrel, the major problem with these methods was that they were built not around actual theories of language acquisition, but theories of something else, for example, the structure of language. The importance of the vocabulary is stressed suggesting the view that a language is essentially its lexicon and only inconsequently the grammar that explains how the lexicon is exploited to produce meaning.

Krashen and Terrel viewed language as a vehicle for communicating meanings and messages. They observe that acquisition can take place only when people can understand messages in the target language. To achieve such a goal, their approach focuses upon both oral and written basic personal communication skills, and oral and written academic learning skills to form the cornerstone of the learning experience supported by a rich mix of classroom activities, involving a variety of topics and situations.

15.7.2 Content-Based Instruction

Content Based Instruction (CBI) refers to an approach to L2 teaching in which teaching is organized around the contents or information that the learners will acquire, rather than around a language item. The approach is defined as the teaching of content

or information in the language being learnt with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught.

Although content is used with a variety of different meanings in language teaching, it most frequently refers to the substance or subject matter that we learn or communicate through language, rather than the language used to convey it. The National Curriculum Framework, 2005, had recommended CBI as a strategy for L2 development as follows:

"The relative success of English medium schools show that language is learnt when it is not taught as language, through exposure to meaningful context. Thus English must be seen in relation to other subjects; a language across curriculum is of particular relevance to primary education, and all teaching in a sense language teaching." (p 39)

The proposal of NCF 2005 is essentially a proposal for CBT, which is grounded on the following two central principles:

1. People learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a means of acquiring information rather that as an end in itself. The principle reflects one of the motivations for CBI that it leads to more effective language learning.

2. CBI better reflects learners' needs for learning a second language. This principle reflects the fact that many content-based programmes serve to prepare L2 learners for better language learning.

CBI anticipates a change in the role of the L2 teachers. They must be more than good language teachers. They must have a fair knowledge of the subject matter and able to elicit that knowledge from their students. On the other hand, the CBI learning materials are the materials that are used typically for teaching the content subjects like social science, environmental science and even general science.



15.8 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, which is the second unit on English Language Teaching, we discussed the following topics and issues of ELT. We began this unit by discussing the three hierarchically related concepts of approach, method and technique. We discussed *approach* as the theoretical basis of language and language teaching. We then discussed method as an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon a definite approach. Next, we discussed technique as that which actually takes place in a classroom, as a particular strategy used to accomplish an immediate objective. We argued that techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well and that the technique that a method advocates often serves to distinguish methods. Next, we took up the grammar translation approach as the first of the approaches to be introduced in vernacular medium schools of India that continued till the implementation of the National Education Policy of 1968 when a total restructuring of the school curriculum was recommended. We discussed the various features of this approach after which we took up the structural approach that came into being as an alternative to the direct method of teaching English as a second language. We discussed the implementation of this approach in India as a striking departure of various aspects of pedagogy from the grammar translation approach in the goals of teaching the language, areas of classroom technique, textbooks and other allied aspects. We next moved on to the communicative approach to the teaching of English, which is essentially seen as a departure from the behaviourist paradigm of the structural approach by involving both a cognitive and behaviourist paradigm in its theory and practice. We discussed issues like communicative syllabus design, communicative methodology and the role of the teacher in the communicative classroom. We had seen the communicative approach as a departure from the structural approach from a form-based approach to a meaning-based approach, from a structural syllabus to a notional-functional

syllabus and a learner-centred approach in classroom teaching through a variety of communicative activities. We concluded the unit by making brief references to two of the recent approaches of ELT namely the Natural Approach and the approach known as content-based instruction.



15.9 FURTHER READING

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15.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS (HINTS ONLY)

Ans to Q 1:

(a) see 15.3.1

(b) see 15.3.1

(c) see 15.3.3.

(d) Information gap is a technique in communicative language teaching in which certain classroom tasks are organized for pair work or group work activities. The principle underlying this technique is that the required information is known to only one of the participants in a pair work task or some in the group work task, which requires the other in the pair or others in the group to supply information to meet the gap.

Ans to Q 2:

(a) see 15.4.2.

(b) Conjugation is a way of presenting the different forms of both regular and irregular verb forms which follow the same pattern for changes in tense (past, present, future) person (1st,2nd and 3rd) or number (singular or plural) eg *I am taking. We are taking/ You are taking. You are taking/ He is taking, They are taking.*

(c) see 15.4.1

(d) Teaching rule-based grammar against functional grammar.

Ans to Q 3:

(a) see 15.5.1

(b) see 15.5.2

(c) The term 'gradation' refers to the arrangement of the content of a language course or a textbook in such a way that the simpler ones come first and through a gradual process the difficulty level of the contents are increased.

(d) see 15.5.4.

Ans to Q 4:

(a) see 5.6.1

(b) see 5.6.1

(c) Role-play refers to drama-like classroom activities in which students take the roles of different participants in a situation and act out what might typically happen in that situation. For example, to practise how to express complaints and apologies in English, learners might role-play a situation in which a customer in a shop returns a faulty article to the shop-person.

(d) Try yourself.



15.11 POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

Q 1: Give brief answers to the following questions

(a) Define the term 'approach'.

(b) State the three dimensions of method.

(c) Define the term 'target language'.

(d) Define 'language skills'.

Q 2: Answer the following questions:

(a) Explain the functional view of language.

(b) Briefly elaborate the inter-personal view of language.

(c) Briefly discuss the natural approach to language teaching.

(d) Explain the term 'content-based instruction'.

Q 3: Answer the following questions.

(a) Discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the grammar-translation approach.

(b) Critically evaluate the structural approach.

(c) Discuss critically the features of the notional-functional syllabus.

(d) Discuss a learner-centred classroom showing how tasks are organized.

* * *

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