



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

COURSE CODE: ENG 351

**COURSE TITLE: INTRODUCTION TO APPLIED
LINGUISTICS**

**COURSE
GUIDE**

**ENG 351
INTRODUCTION TO APPLIED LINGUISTICS**

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INTRODUCTION

ENG351 is a one semester course of three credit units. It is designed for English language students and others in other related departments involved with studies on language and communication. The course has 21 study units which cover the history and development of applied linguistics; interdisciplinary nature of the discipline; language teaching and applied linguistics; first and second language teaching; language uses and applied linguistics theories; language testing, standardisation, planning and development and some other issues related to the course. The materials and examples used for this course are those suitable for Nigerian students.

You have been taken through different courses in this programme and I am sure you have learnt a lot from all of them. For example, in ENG223 and ENG224, you learnt the basic principles of writing and different types of write ups. You learnt that you need to know the basics of good writing and develop the culture of good writing. Once again, I want to remind you that what is worth doing at all is worth doing well; and that the heights that great men achieved today were not by sudden flight. It starts with a step at a time. Nevertheless, not an ordinary step, it is a consistent, coordinated, deliberate and 'sweaty' step. 'Sweaty' in the sense that, they worked rigorously for it.

This course takes you a step higher in that you will be opportuned to dig deep into a very interesting area. It is therefore necessary that you take time to go through every unit, carefully, so that you can be well grounded in all the theories and principles of applied linguistics that will be discussed in this course. You may have gone through some aspects of this course in some other courses, but I am almost sure that there will still be some things that you do not know yet, and there may be some things that you have forgotten that you need to be reminded of.

This course guide is designed to give you a brief description of what the course is all about, the course materials you need, the work you need to do, the set textbooks and the tutor marked assignments. This course guide also gives suggestions on the amount of time you need on each unit and the number of tutor marked assignments you need to do.

You are expected to go through this course guide carefully to find out what the course is all about. Please attend your tutorial classes for practical discussion of some of the various aspects of this course. This course is expected to prepare and equip you for an indispensable topic in English language.

COURSE AIMS

This course is designed to take you through the major principles of applied linguistics as they apply in the African context. It is meant to:

- give you an overview of the history and development of applied linguistics
- acquaint you with the interdisciplinary nature of the discipline
- encourage you (through tutor-marked assignments) to demonstrate your knowledge of the principles taught
- introduce you to the levels and scope of applied description
- introduce you to language teaching, testing and standardization etc.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

Objectives are the things you are expected to be able to do at the end of the study. These objectives will guide you when going through the study and they will also help you in self assessment and where you need to improve on your learning and study habits. At the end of the course, you should be able to:

- give a summary of the history of applied linguistics
- discuss some of the theories and principles of applied linguistics
- describe contrastive analysis, error analysis and other analytical procedures in applied linguistics
- apply any of the general principles of language planning testing and standardisation in any of your write-ups and projects.

WORKING THROUGH THE COURSE

In this course, you have 21 study units to go through. In each of the study units, you are expected to study the contents very well before attempting the questions. You should pay attention to the objectives of each study unit so that you can be properly guided through the unit. You should be prepared to do a lot of thinking and writing in this course because it is designed to make you do so. The assessment will be through tutor marked assignments which you are expected to do and turn in at the appropriate time. You are also expected to write a final examination at the end of the course. The time for the examination will be communicated to you.

COURSE MATERIALS

The major components of the course are:

1. Course guide
2. Study units
3. Textbooks
4. Assignment files
5. Presentation schedule

STUDY UNITS

Each study unit is a week's work and this is heralded by the objectives which you are expected to study before going through the unit. In each study unit you also have the reading materials and the self assessment exercises. The tutor- marked assignments, the study units, the tutorials- all put together, will help you to achieve the stated objectives for this course. There are 21 units in this course and they are as follows:

Module 1

- | | |
|--------|---|
| Unit 1 | What is Applied Linguistics? |
| Unit 2 | Language Learning Theories |
| Unit 3 | The Native Speaker and Applied Linguistics |
| Unit 4 | First and Second Language Acquisition |
| Unit 5 | Social Influences in Language learning |
| Unit 6 | Individual Differences in Language Learning |
| Unit 7 | Psycholinguistics and Applied Linguistics |

Module 2

- | | |
|--------|----------------------------------|
| Unit 1 | Performance in Language Learning |
| Unit 2 | Error Analysis I |
| Unit 3 | Error Analysis II |
| Unit 4 | Contrastive Analysis |
| Unit 5 | Discourse Analysis |
| Unit 6 | Corpora Linguistics |
| Unit 7 | Forensic Linguistics |

Module 3

- | | |
|--------|---|
| Unit 1 | Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching |
| Unit 2 | Computer Assisted Language Teaching |
| Unit 3 | Language Testing, Evaluation and Validation |
| Unit 4 | Language Planning I |
| Unit 5 | Language Planning II |

Unit 6	Critical Applied Linguistics
Unit 7	Dictionary Compilation

TEXTBOOKS AND REFERENCES

Each unit has a list of recommended textbooks and materials. Go through the recommended textbooks and materials for necessary assistance while going through the unit and before attempting the exercises. Where you think you cannot find the necessary references that have been quoted in any of the units, just go on-line and type in the name of the author on Google, it will bring out all the available works of that author and I'm sure you will find the ones you are looking for.

ASSESSMENT

You will be assessed in two ways in this course – the tutor-marked assignment and a written examination. You are expected to do the assignments and submit them to your tutorial facilitator for formal assessment in accordance with the stated deadlines in the presentation schedule and the assignment file. Your tutor-marked assignments will account for 30% of the total course mark.

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

ENG 351 is a course that involves a lot of reading and study hours. There are tutor-marked assignments at the end of every unit, which you are expected to do. You are expected to go through the study units very carefully so that you can attempt the self assessment exercises. You will be assessed on the different aspects of the course but only three of them will be selected for continuous assessment. Send the completed assignments (when due) together with the tutor-marked assignment form to your tutorial facilitator. Make sure you send in your assignment before the stated deadline.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

The final examination for ENG351 will be a two-hour paper during which you are expected to answer three questions. Examination is rated on 70 marks. The TMA of four usually have the best three chosen to give you 30 marks (on continuous assessment). The 30 marks and 70 marks are combined to form the total obtainable mark of hundred for the course (i.e. $30+70=100$). The pattern of the questions will not be too different from those you have responded to in the tutor-marked exercises. However, as the University has commenced online TMA, you may have to adjust to whatever format you are confronted with at any point in time. Nonetheless, you will be examined strictly on the content

of the course no matter the form the examination takes. Revise the different kinds of sections of the course properly before the examination date.

COURSE OVERVIEW AND PRESENTATION SCHEDULE

S/N	Title of Work	Week's Activities	Assessment
1.	Course Guide		
Module1 General Introduction			
2.	Definition and History of Applied Linguistics	1	
3.	Language Learning – Theories	2	
4.	The Native Speaker and Applied Linguistics	3	
5.	First and Second Language Acquisition	4	
6.	Social influences in Language learning	5	TMA1
7.	Individual differences in language learning	6	
8.	Psycholinguistics and Applied Linguistics	7	
Module 2 Applied Linguistics and Analytical Techniques			
9.	Performance in language learning	8	
10.	Error Analysis I	9	
11.	Error Analysis II	10	TMA2
12.	Contrastive Analysis	11	
13.	Discourse Analysis	12	
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16.	Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching	15	
17.	Computer Assisted Language Teaching	16	TMA3
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HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM THIS COURSE

The study units in this course have been written in such a way that you can easily go through them without the lecturer being physically around and this is what happens in distance learning. Each study unit is for one week. The study units will introduce you to the topic for that week; give you the objectives for the unit and what you are expected to be able to do at the end of the unit. Follow these religiously and do the exercises that follow.

In addition to the above, unlike other courses where you just read and jot notes, ENG351 has a lot of basic principles and theories to learn. You, therefore, need a lot of concentration while going through the course. For you to be equipped adequately with how, where and when applied linguistics can be applied to both practical uses and to non-linguistic fields, you need to pay close attention to all that you will be exposed to in this course.

FACILITATORS/TUTORS AND TUTORIALS

There are 10 tutorial hours for this course. The dates, times and location of these tutorials will be communicated to you as well as the name and phone number of your tutorial facilitator. You will also be notified of your tutorial group.

As you relate with your tutorial facilitator, he/she will mark and correct your assignments and also keep a close watch on your performance in the tutor- marked assignments and attendance at tutorials. Feel free to contact your tutorial facilitator by phone or e-mail if you have any problem with the contents of any of the study units. This is why the contact details of the course team is given on the credit page.

SUMMARY

ENG351 is designed to introduce you to the history, development, theories and principles of applied linguistics as they apply in the African context. You will also be exposed to major areas of current research, use of linguistics in language teaching, language testing, language standardisation, planning and development, creation of orthographies and compilation of dictionaries, etc.

I wish you the best as you go through this course.

**MAIN
COURSE**

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MODULE 1

Unit 1	What is Applied Linguistics?
Unit 2	Language Learning Theories
Unit 3	The Native Speaker and Applied Linguistics
Unit 4	First and Second Language Acquisition
Unit 5	Social Influences in Language learning
Unit 6	Individual Differences in Language Learning
Unit 7	Psycholinguistics and Applied Linguistics

UNIT 1 WHAT IS APPLIED LINGUISTICS?**CONTENTS**

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	What is Applied Linguistics (AL)?
3.2	History of Applied Linguistics
3.3	Some Subfields of Applied Linguistics
3.4	On the Interdisciplinary Nature of Applied Linguistics (AL) and Relevance to Language Teaching
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is designed to take you through a brief history of applied linguistics, its development over the years and the work of a few people who have contributed a lot to the development of applied linguistics (AL). Many people have defined or described applied linguistics and some of their definitions will also be presented. These definitions will give you an idea of what applied linguistics entails and the various areas of language endeavour it covers.

This course is a very interesting one that cuts across various disciplines and different areas of human endeavour. As a language student, you need to know all these areas so that you can be exposed to how language can be applied to these areas. Remember that the title of the course is Introduction to Applied Linguistics. It means that every part of this course is introductory and for you to do an in depth study, you need to go through the references at the end of every unit and some other related materials.

Scholars who have worked in applied linguistics have noted that it often deals with solving or at least ameliorating social problems involving language. Applied Linguistics (AL) answers questions such as; how can we teach language better? What type of individual differences do we have in language learning? What are the social influences that affect language learning? How can we write a valid language examination? How can we best advise Ministry of Education officials, curriculum planners and other stake holders in the Education Ministry on the content of a language curriculum for various groups of people and communities? In short, applied linguistics is interested mainly in language problems. All the areas mentioned above and some other relevant issues will be discussed in this course. As a result of these, you need to go through all the units in this course to be able to gain maximally from this course. However this first unit- as mentioned above, deals essentially with the history of applied linguistics and scholars' views of what it is. Below are some of the objectives of this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- give various definitions of applied linguistics
- describe how applied linguistics became a discipline.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is Applied Linguistics (AL)?

You have probably taken some courses in psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, multilingualism and some others where the word 'linguistics' or 'applied' have has mentioned. In this course, you will get to know how some of these courses are related to language. Some of the questions that people ask are:

- What kind of language should be the language of instruction in schools?
- What are the procedures for the choice of a language where there are many languages?
- How can we have valid language tests?

These and many more are questions that arise frequently and have to be answered by language specialists. Our knowledge of applied linguistics will help us to answer some of these questions. Many people have tried to define or describe what applied linguistic is, below are some of them.

Brumfit (1977:93) opines that:

- AL is the theoretical and empirical investigation of real world problems in which language is a central issue.

Grabe (2000:9) proposes that:

- The focus of AL is on trying to resolve language based problems that people encounter in the real world, whether they be learners, teachers, supervisors, academics, lawyers, service providers, those who need social services, test makers, policy developers, dictionary makers, translators, or a whole range of clients.

Grabe notes that distinguishing between what linguistics and AL are concerned with is to distinguish between theory and practice.

According to Schmitt and Celce-Murcia (2002:1):

- AL uses what we know about (a) language (b) how it is learned and (c) how it is used in order to achieve some purpose or solve some problems in the real world.
- Schmitt and Celce-Murcia note that traditionally, the primary concerns of AL have been second language acquisition theory, second language pedagogy and the interface between the two.

Davis and Elder (2006:11) note the following about AL:

- AL is, in our view, a coherent activity which theorises through speculative and empirical investigations real world problems in which language is a central issue.

3.2 History of Applied Linguistics

The term applied linguistics which refers to the application of linguistics to the study and improvement of language teaching, language learning, language planning, management of language defects, communication between groups, lexicography, translation etc. owes its origin to US language-teaching programmes during and after the second world war. According to Grabe (2002), (please see complete on-line reference at the end of the unit) it was largely based on Leonard Bloomfield's outline guide for the practical study of Foreign Languages (1942), which was said to be influenced by the early European advocates of the direct method, in particular, Henry Sweet.

The history of applied linguistics can be discussed in different countries as noted by Grabe (2002) in the next paragraph.

In America, in 1948, a conference was organised by Charles C. Fries, supported, among others, by Kenneth L. Pike and W. Freeman Twaddell at the University of Michigan to disseminate information about work at Fries English Language Institute (founded 1941). At that conference, a quarterly journal of applied linguistics (titled- *Language Learning*) was started.

In Britain as well, a school of Applied Linguistics was established by J.C. Cartford at the University of Edinburgh in 1956 and the centre for AL was set up in Washington, DC, under Charles Ferguson in 1959. It has been noted that similar institutes have been set up in various parts of the world. Grabe noted that national associations of applied linguists came together in 1964 to form the Association Internationale de la Linguistique Appliquée (AILA) This association holds a four yearly international congress with published proceedings.

Davies and Elder (2006:6) commented on the symposium held at the American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL) in St Louis in the year 2001 where the history of applied linguistics was considered in four different countries. Angelis (2001) discussing the USA proposed a four-fold division of the history since the 1920s. The history was summarised thus:

1. AL in North America does have identifiable roots in linguistics
2. While North American AL has evolved over time in its orientation and scope, so has North American linguistics
3. A significant amount of work directed to real world issues involving language can be attributed to leading North American linguists
4. Much of what can now be seen as ground breaking applied linguistics type activity was carried out prior to the formal appearance of applied linguistics.

There was a gradual move away from the central focus on linguistics. Angelis notes that until the 1990s, there were a lot of language activities without much reference to linguistics. It was much later that scholars saw to need to link all these language activities to linguistics in terms of their applications.

McNamara (2001) points to a different tradition for Australian applied linguistics in contrast to the ones for UK and US. To McNamara, Australian applied linguistics made AL of modern languages its target of

immigrants rather than English. The application of linguistics to the development of teaching materials and writing systems for aboriginal languages was also focused on.

The Australia tradition of AL shows a strong influence of continental Europe and of USA rather than of Britain. English came in the context of mother tongue teaching and teaching of English to immigrants-English as a Second Language (ESL). The English as a Foreign Language (EFL) British tradition got to Australia in the 1980's. Scholars have noted that the important thing about AL in Australia is its concern for language in education, both with regard to new migrant languages and literacy in English.

The British Association of Applied Linguistics (BAAL) was formally established in 1967 with the aim of advancing education, fostering and promoting by any lawful charitable means, the study of language use, language acquisition and language teaching and the fostering of interdisciplinary collaboration in this study (BAAL, 1994). Davies (2001) notes that the British tradition represented a deliberate attempt to establish a distinctive applied linguistics.

Davies (2001) notes that, it was taken for granted in the 1960s and 70s that AL was about language teaching. Over the last 30 years, it became clear that those studying English language teaching had already studied aspects of linguistics. Lewis (2001:19) notes that AL is trying to resolve language-based problems that people encounter in the real world; to Davis and Elder (2006:9), AL has grown quickly and it is flourishing with academic positions, academic departments, international journals and an international association.

Davis and Elder (2006:9) commented on Widdowson's distinction between Linguistics Applied (LA) and Applied Linguistics (AL) thus:

The differences between these modes of intervention is that in the case of **linguistics applied**, the assumption is that the problem can be reformulated by the direct and unilateral application of concepts and terms deriving from linguistic enquiry itself. That is to say, language problems are amenable to linguistic solutions. In the case of **applied linguistics**, intervention is crucially a matter of mediation...applied linguistics...has to relate and reconcile different representations of reality, including that of linguistics without excluding others. (Widdowson, 2000, p.5)

Davis and Elder (2006:9) note that the 'linguistic applied' view derives from the coming together of two traditions; one, the European tradition which was exported to the USA through scholars such as Roman

Jacobson and the North American tradition of linguistic anthropological field work which required the intensive use of non-literate informants and the linguistic description of indigenous languages for cultural analysis.

Scholars such as Bloomfield (1933) and Robins thought that if a teacher understands the use of linguistics as a scientific method in language presentation, his/her work will be easy. Davis and Elder (2006) believe that AL looks outwards beyond language in an attempt to explain and solve social problems while linguistics applied looks inward not to solve language problems in the real world, but to explicate and test theories about language itself. To them, this means that LA uses language data to develop our linguistic knowledge about language while AL studies a language problem with the intention of correcting them (2006:09).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What is applied linguistics?
- ii. A quarterly journal of Applied linguistics was started in the year - ----- .The title is----- . It was started by ----- at ----- .

3.3 Some Subfields of Applied Linguistics

Below are the commonly regarded subfields of applied linguistics as noted Grabe (2002).

- **Second Language Acquisition**

Second language Acquisition theory deals with the range of variables- in particular, age of immersion, quantity of input etc which may interactively determine the level of ultimate attainment.

- **Language Assessment and Testing**

Language Assessment plays a gate-keeping role in terms of the functions they serve for institutions and the corresponding preparedness of institutions to invest in their development and validation. It has always involved the development and implementation of frameworks for describing student's progress in language learning over time.

- **Language Policy and Planning**

The practical nature of language planning deals with the analysis of policy making in contexts where language is a part. Language problems always arise, which could involve rival interest reflecting relations among ethnic, political, social, and bureaucratic and class groupings.

Language policy and planning research then draws on knowledge far beyond linguistics to solve such problems where necessary.

- **Lexicography**

Lexicography is important and an integral part of applied linguistics in second/foreign language learning and teaching at all ages and levels of education. It is concerned with the writing and study of dictionaries for first/second/foreign language education. It also involves mono- bi- and multilingual works and general children's school, college, and specialised technical dictionaries.

- **Multilingualism**

This is the use of more than two languages within a speech community. Applied linguistics deals with the sociological, psychological, attending problems etc and the implications of these languages on the speech community.

- **Corpus Linguistics**

This is aimed at improving language description and theory and Stubbs (2006) notes that the task of applied linguistics is to assess the relevance of the language description to practical applications. Corpus data are essentially for accuracy in the description of language use and have shown how lexis, grammar and semantics interact.

Some of the supporting disciplines which you must have been introduced to are:

- Psycholinguistics
- Education
- Sociolinguistics
- English studies
- Discourse studies

Some other newly introduced ones are in the area of forensic linguistics (language and the law) and Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). You do not have to be scared about all these disciplines. It only shows that AL is a growing discipline and has a lot of other supporting disciplines. We will go through some of these while some other courses will take care of some of the other disciplines. In going through them, we will explain how each of the ones discussed relate to applied linguistics.

3.4 On the Interdisciplinary Nature of AL and Relevance to Language Teaching

A scholar on the site written below made some comments about AL <http://www.translationbureau.gc.ca/index.php?cont=700&> language.

He/she noted that AL is a branch of linguistics which is concerned with practical applications of language studies with particular emphasis on the communicative function of the language, and including such professional practices as lexicography, terminology, general or technical translation, language teaching (general, specialised language, mother tongue or second language), writing, interpretation, and computer processing of language. This shows the interdisciplinary nature of AL and the fact that it can be applied to any area of language study. Douglas L. Ride out in his comment on the book *Applied Linguistics* by Cook (2003), notes that:

at its inception in the late 1950s, AL was principally concerned with language teaching especially second/foreign language teaching which became almost synonymous but over time the field grew and expanded to include other fields unrelated to second /foreign language teaching such as language policy and planning, forensic linguistics, clinical linguistics, critical discourse analysis, translation and interpretation and lexicography.

Douglas noted that despite all these latest inclusion, the close association with second/foreign language still stands and that is why most introductory books about AL still devote a large amount of space to second/foreign language teaching. This shows that many other new disciplines may still be added as time goes on. AL is rich and therefore needs to be given a lot of attention.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Highlight the differences between the Australian tradition of AL and the British tradition
- ii. LA believes that language problems are amenable to linguistic solutions: True or False?
- iii. AL believes that intervention is important and that different representations of reality are important in language description: True or False?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we have been able to discuss what applied linguistics is in this unit and have also given a brief history on how it came to be. We noted that the focus of AL is on resolving language based problems that people encounter in the real world. We also dwelt a bit on the differences between AL and LA.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- The focus of AL is on trying to resolve language based problems that people encounter in the real world
- The term Applied linguistics refers to the application of linguistics to the study and improvement of language teaching, language learning, language planning, management of language handicap etc
- In 1948, *Language Learning*- a quarterly journal of Applied linguistics was started at the University of Michigan by Charles C. Fries, supported among others by Kenneth L. Pike and W. Freeman Twaddell, to disseminate information about work at Fries English Language Institute (founded 1941).
- In Britain, a school of Applied Linguistics was established by J. C. Cartford at the University of Edinburgh in 1956 and the centre for AL was set up in Washington, DC, under Charles Ferguson in 1959, etc.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Give two descriptions of applied linguistics.
2. Which was the first academic journal to have applied linguistics in its title?
3. Which is the international association of applied linguistics which gathers most national associations? When was it born and how often does it meet?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 LANGUAGE LEARNING THEORIES

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 - 3.3.3 Monitor Theory
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 - 3.3.3.3 The Monitor Hypothesis
 - 3.3.3.4 The Input Hypothesis
 - 3.3.3.5 The Affective Filter Hypothesis
 - 3.3.4 Socio-cultural Theory of Language Learning
 - 3.3.5 The Acculturation Model
 - 3.3.6 The Intergroup Model
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is designed to take you through some of the views about language, language and the individual and some theories of language learning. Knowing about language in general is very important in this course. We all use language and there are different kinds of languages but there are a few general things about language which we all need to know as human beings and as language specialists. This is important for our academic work and for research purposes. Learning about language is interesting and rewarding.

Go through this unit carefully, so that you can be exposed to all that you need to know about this unit and other units as well. Let me inform you that many people have worked on applied linguistics and that as we go through the units, you will be exposed to different scholars' views about different topics in the course and this means many more references and ideas and concepts to learn. All you need to do is to go

through patiently and you will understand all that you need to know as we go along.

In the just concluded Unit 1, you were introduced to Applied Linguistics. You were told that AL tries to resolve language based problems that people encounter in the real world. You also learnt that AL, as a discipline, was introduced in America, in 1948, during a conference that was organised by Charles C. Fries. In this unit, we shall be discussing language learning. We all speak one language or the other and we have probably watched children at their earlier years of language learning or acquisition.

In talking about what language is, Corder (1973:20) notes that every individual has an idea about what language is, depending on who we are. Language is a complex phenomenon and cannot be fully comprehended or described within or through using one theory. Some people talk about using language, which means they see language as a tool which can be used and discarded. Some talk about possessing a language –that is, something at your disposal. Children are said to acquire language, which means it can be lost. If language is seen as a form of behaviour then it cannot be compared with walking. Before we continue with Corder's report about what people think language is, let us look at some of the objectives of this course.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss general views about language
- describe the different theories of language learning.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is Language and how does it Work?

As mentioned above, our views about language depends on who we are and how we perceive language. Corder (1973:20) notes that in describing language, some people talked about how it works. They see it as an instrument that works, as if it is an alarm clock whose functioning could be understood. People also talk about the birth of a language or its growth or decline as if it is a human being or an empire. Languages have periods of blossoming and flowering. Languages are also described as if they have physical qualities i.e. beautiful, ugly, vulgar, debased or decadent. Some people also talk about language as an event. Someone can say: a discussion 'takes place'; words 'crop up'. Someone can ask another person if he knows French. This makes language something 'we

know' (Corder, 1973:20). He further notes that we write, read, speak well or badly shows that we are treating language as skilled behaviour which improves with practice. Our description of language reveals a variety of different ways of regarding it. The question, however, as Corder notes are not which views are right but which one is useful for language learning.

3.2 Language and the Individual

The individual is not born with a language. People acquire language skills when they are born. Not everybody develops language skills to the same degree but people speak, listen, read and write as they have opportunity. The study of language involves describing and explaining what is and what is not observable and therefore there are some internal mechanisms involved in language production that have to be explained. Linguists try to explain what goes on when we speak and also how we are able to perform any language task (Corder 1973:23).

Corder notes that the descriptive framework and methods of studying of language in the individual must have some compatibility with the study of other aspects of human behaviour and cognitive capacities. There are theories of social structure, social behaviour and human culture that linguists use in analysing language and we are going to discuss some of them in the next section.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Languages can be described as if they have physical qualities i.e beautiful, ugly, vulgar, debased or decadent. True/False
- ii. Language can be described as an event. True/False
- iii. Language can be described as something we know True/False

3.3 Language Learning Theories

Have you ever wondered how you learnt the language(s) you are speaking? Do you know that some people have taken time to find out the kind of processes involved in language learning? In this section, we shall be discussing some of the views of some scholars about language. Below are some of them.

3.3.1 Behaviourist Theory

The first coherent theory of language learning was the behaviourist theory based on the work of Pavlov and Skinner (Hutchinson & Waters, 1986). Using the behavioural patterns of some animals in their experiment, the theory states that 'language is a mechanical process of

habit formation which proceeds by means of frequent reinforcement of a stimulus-response sequence'. It was based on the view that all learning-including language learning-occurs through a process of imitation, practice, reinforcement, habit formation and generalisation (Spada and Light bown, 2002). Simply put, language is learnt, like other psychomotor skills such as walking, jumping, dancing, etc.; "the motto of behaviourism is that language is a verbal behaviour, learn-by-doing activity in learning a language" (Demizeren, 1989:157).

To the behaviourists, the social environment is crucial, not as the source of linguistic stimuli that learners need to form associations between the words they hear and the objects and events they represent, but it provides feedback on learners' performance (Spada and Lightbown, 2002). Skinner (1957) claimed that when learners correctly produce language that approximates what they are exposed to in the input, and these efforts receive positive reinforcement, habits are formed.

Spada and Lightbown (2002) note that one of the ideas associated with behaviourism was the notion that L1 habits which learners had already established would interfere with the formation of new habits in the L2, hence, Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) which was proposed to account for the role of the L1 in the L2 learning. However, (CAH) failed to predict errors that L2 learners were observed to make and those it predicted did not occur at all. It was then realised by researchers that learners from different backgrounds made the same errors.

Some of the behaviourist precepts are:

1. The social environment is very crucial in language learning
2. The teacher or facilitator has a role to play in the language learning activity
3. Errors must be corrected immediately; they are not permitted in learning
4. Frequent repetition is essential to effective learning.

3.3.2 Innatist or Mentalist Theory

This theory was developed in America by Noam Chomsky. As a result of the weaknesses in the behaviourist theory, the 'innatist or mentalist theory' was introduced. The major principle or tenet of mentalist theory is that everybody learns a language, "not because they are subject to a similar conditioning process, but because they possess an inborn capacity which permits them to acquire a language as a normal maturational process" (Wilkins, 1972:168 cited in Demizeren, 1989).

To Chomsky (1968), the child learner has innate properties of language because he/she masters his/her native language in a very short time in spite of the highly abstract nature of rules. He insisted that every human being is born into a society with a language acquisition device (LAD) which embodies the nature and structure of human language. Language acquisition device (LAD) is the language innate faculty which is responsible for language acquisition without any need for the social environment.

This was later referred to as Universal Grammar (UG), which was described as “a specialised module of the brain, pre-programmed to process language” (Spada and Lightbown, 2002:116). Universal Grammar (UG) permits the child to acquire language during a particular developmental period, called “critical period” for language acquisition. At each learning level, the child subconsciously form hypotheses, and lists them in his/her linguistic formations and thus he/she induces rules from his/her data.

However, it has been argued that language learning cannot be separated from the social environment. The presence of people such as father and mother around the child learner establishes a natural social environment. Therefore, language is not totally of inborn nature nor is it just a matter of biological make-up. Also, language learning involves a learn-by-doing activity to an extent. When the child realises that his/her hypothesis falls short, he/she makes necessary corrections or modifications (Demizeren, 1989). Mentalist tenets are:

1. The language teacher is not needed.
2. Errors are permitted because they serve as reflections of learners' language learning or acquisition process.
3. The role of social environment is undermined.
4. Language is innate.

3.3.3 Monitor Theory

This theory was propounded by Krashen (1982). Spada and Lightbown (2002), note that this theory shares a number of assumptions with the Chomskyan Universal Grammar (UG), but its scope is specifically second language acquisition. One of these assumptions is that human beings acquire language without instruction or feedback on error. Krashen developed this theory in terms of five “hypotheses” – the acquisition-learning hypothesis; the monitor hypothesis; the input hypothesis; the natural order hypothesis; and the affective filter hypothesis (See Krashen, 1982; 2003).

The fundamental hypothesis of Monitor Theory is that there is a difference between “acquisition” and “learning”. The monitor hypothesis suggests that in the case of spontaneous or impromptu speeches, which originate in the system, what has been learned may be used to edit or self-correct speech of the L2 learner (Spada and Lightbown, 2002). In order to state that L2 learners undergo a series of stages like L1 learners, Krashen (2003) presents the following five hypotheses as the core of his language acquisition theory. They are as follows:

3.3.3.1 The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

This hypothesis claims that we have two independent ways of developing language ability: acquisition and learning. Language acquisition is a subconscious process. Nobody is aware when it is happening. Language learning is done in school. It is a subconscious process. Error correction helps learning. “When we make a mistake and someone corrects us, we are supposed to change our conscious version of the rule” (Krashen 2003:1).

3.3.3.2 The Natural Order Hypothesis

This hypothesis claims that the parts of language are acquired in predictable order. That is, you can predict which aspect of the language the learner will learn first. This theory seems to relegate the language environment to the background. It is said that the order of first and second languages are similar. This also depends on the individual and his/her exposure to the language. In a situation where a learner has some natural deficiencies such as deafness, a natural order hypothesis may not work.

3.3.3.3 The Monitor Hypothesis

This monitor hypothesis is an attempt to explain how acquisition and learning are used. Language is normally produced using our acquired linguistic competence. Conscious learning functions as a “monitor” or “editor”. Our conscious monitor corrects, inspects and scans internally human subconsciously acquired competence. For instance, before a sentence is uttered, our monitor or edit must scan the sentence for any error. This is referred to as “self-correction.” Three conditions are stated by Krashen that, to successfully use the monitor, the acquirer must know the rule. The acquirer must be thinking about correctness, or focus on form. The acquirer must have the time.

3.3.3.4 The Input Hypothesis

The input hypothesis attempts to explain how language acquisition occurs. It reflects the view that L2 learning occurs like L1 learning as a result of exposure to meaningful and varied linguistic input which helps the learner's developing competence (Spada and Lightbown 2002).

3.3.3.5 The Affective Filter Hypothesis

This suggests that a condition for successful acquisition is that the learner is motivated to learn the L2 and, thus receptive to the comprehensive input (Spada and Lightbown 2002). This motivation could be intrinsic or extrinsic. If intrinsic, it means the learner is naturally motivated to learn the language and if extrinsic, it means the learner is motivated by social factors such as jobs or social climbing.

As reported by Spada and Lightbown (2002), Krashen (1982) has been criticised on the ground that his "hypotheses" are vague and difficult to investigate empirically. Nevertheless, the monitor theory has had a significant impact on the field of L2 learning and teaching. His attempt to distinguish between "acquisition" and "learning" is laudable.

3.3.4 Socio-Cultural Theory of Language Learning

This theory was proposed by Vygostky (1987). Spada and Lightbown (2002) state that the theorists working within a socio-cultural perspective of L2 learning operate from the assumption that there is a dialectical relationship between culture and mind, and that all learning is first social, then individual. Their argument is that through dialogue or communication, learners construct knowledge and this knowledge is later internalised. In this theory, emphasis is laid on the integration of the social, cultural, and biological elements.

3.3.5 The Acculturation Model

The acculturation model sees the learner adapting to a new culture. It was used to explain the acquisition of an additional language by immigrants in naturalistic majority language contexts. Barkhuizen (2006:561) notes that the theory emerged from a now famous case study of a 33-year-old Costa-Rican named Alberto who failed to acculturate to the target language community and thus developed only a pidginised form of English. Schumann (1978:34), who was the proponent of the study, explains his findings as follows:

Second language acquisition is just one aspect of acculturation and the degree to which a learner acculturates to the target language group will control the degree to which he acquires the second language.

Acculturation is said to be expressed in terms of social distance (becoming a member of a target group) and psychological distance (how comfortable learners are with the learning task). Welsh (2001) used the acculturation model in investigating English learners' perception of their language learning within a home stay as an accommodation which includes full board and lodging for students studying in a foreign country through which they may be exposed to the culture, language and social structures of that country. Welsh noted that, for many of the students, their expectations were not met. The study provided useful insights into the connection between acculturation of international students and their experiences of language learning. Some of the limitations that the model had are summarised below.

- It does not explain the internal mechanisms of how an L2 is acquired
- It is a psychological model rather than a cognitive processing model
- The model does not consider the language learner as having a complex
- It does not consider social identity that must be understood with reference to larger and frequently inequitable social structures which are reproduced in day to day social interaction (Norton Pierce 1993:13) as reported in Barkhuizen (2006:562).
It focuses on group differences between the language learners group and the group associated with the target language (Barkhuizen, 2006:562).

3.3.6 The Intergroup Model

This emphasises ethnicity and the issues of social inequality as a social factor in L2 learning. According to Giles and Brye (1982), language learners tend to define themselves in ethnic terms and identify with their own group. They tend to make insecure social comparison with the out-group. Giles and Brye (1982) note the following as criticisms against the inter-group theory:

- It is a theory which also takes into account the relationship between the learner's group (in-group) and the target language group (the out-group)
- Unlike the acculturation model which sees the relationship between the groups as static or changing very slowly, inter-group theory emphasises the dynamic nature of the interaction between

the groups, specifically groups with different ethno-linguistic identities.

Barkhuizen notes that the theory did not get off the ground probably because of lack of any research evidence to support its claims. For more on the theories of language learning see Barkhuizen (2006:575).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Describe the acculturation and the inter-group models of language learning.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have talked about the fact that different people have different ideas about language, depending on who they are and why they are writing. No individual is born with any language. We all acquire the language of the environment in which we find ourselves when we are born. It was also discussed that there are different theories about language learning.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- every individual has an idea about what language is, depending on who we are
- we all use language and there are different kinds of languages
- some people talked about how language works
- people also talk about the birth of a language or its growth or decline as if it is a human being or an empire.
- languages are also described as if they have physical qualities i.e. beautiful, ugly, vulgar debased or decadent
- some people also talk about language as an event
- the acculturation model sees the learner adapting to a new culture
- Barkhuizen (2006:561) notes that the theory emerged from a now famous case study of a 33year-old Costa-Rican, named Alberto, who failed to acculturate to the target language community and thus developed only a pidginised form of English
- the intergroup model emphasises ethnicity and the issues of social inequality as a social factor in L2 learning
- unlike the acculturation model which sees the relationship between the groups as static or changing very slowly, intergroup theory emphasises the dynamic nature of the interaction between the groups

- the first coherent theory of language learning was the behaviourist theory based on the work of Pavlov and Skinner (Hutchinson and Waters, 1986).

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Write short notes on the innatist or mentalist theory, monitor theory and the socio-cultural theory of learning.
2. The motto of behaviourism is that language is a verbal behaviour. How will you explain the language behaviour of a child whose parents are Yoruba but born in India and has the problem of interference?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 THE NATIVE SPEAKER IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS

CONTENTS

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 1, you were introduced to applied linguistics; and in Unit 2, we reviewed some theories on language learning. This unit centres on a topic that is a little bit controversial in language; but we shall try as much as possible to see how the various contributions of the different scholars can be presented for proper understanding of the topic. The references within and at the end of the unit and other units are important. So, try to go through them so that you can have all the necessary fine details of the topics. You need to know that whatever is presented in any of the units is just a summary of the essential points in the topics and that going through the references in form of books and journals will help you a lot. Where it is difficult to get a summary out without distorting the facts presented, an attempt has been made to quote directly from the texts and reference books and such were constantly acknowledged and this happens through the entire course book. The question is-who is a native speaker? Let us try and find out as you go through the unit.

The concept of the ‘native speaker’ in AL is a curious one as Davies (2006:431) puts it. There are so many controversies about the concept of the native speaker and some linguists have asked the question about its usefulness to AL. Some even see the idea as pointless. Below are some

arguments from notable linguists along that line. Ferguson (1983:07) in Davies (2006:431) has the following comments:

‘Linguists.... have long given a special place to the native speaker as the only true and reliable source of language data’.

He notes further that:

‘Much of the world’s verbal communication takes place by means of languages which are not user’s mother tongue, but their second, third or nth language, acquired one way or another and used when appropriate. This kind of language use merits the attention of linguists as much as do the more traditional objects of their research’.

This means that, to Ferguson, the idea of a native speaker is not limited to a particular language or set of speakers. As much as Davies (2006) also believes in the myth-like properties of the native speaker idea, he also thinks about its possibility of being real. David refers to Chomsky, a protagonist of the universality of languages, as equating language development with other human development. Chomsky quoted in Paikeday (1985), notes that the question of what are the languages or dialects attained and what are the differences between native and non-native is pointless.

He concludes that everyone is a native speaker of the particular language and that; the person has grown in his/her mind/brain. Chomsky, a theoretical linguist, is not interested in languages, he studies language. Davies comments that Chomsky does, in fact, acknowledges the real individual, living as he says in the real world, whose repertoire (stock of information on language use) is multiple and that applied linguistics has its role in the real world of the native speaker.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe who a native speaker is
- describe the extent to which a second language learner can acquire native-like competence.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Concept of Universal Grammar (UG)

The concept of Universal Grammar (UG) is that different languages are the same language but with different settings. This means that languages differ essentially in terms of vocabulary (Davies 2006:433). He notes that a child may be a native speaker of more than one language as long as the acquisition process starts early and necessarily pre-puberty. Felix (1987), notes that after puberty, it becomes difficult [and Birdsong (1992) added 'very difficult'] to become a native speaker. Native/non-native speaker differences are not innate, but learnt. This concept of the native speaker, Davies says, has the reality of membership that it always gives.

The native speaker is believed to know how things are done because she/he knows the tradition and also the repository of the language. He/she is expected to exhibit normal control, especially in fluent speech, writing, and general communication. He/she is said to have a natural intuition for shared cultural knowledge at different levels. McCawley (1986) notes that the native speaker combines his/her role as learner with that of authority, and this differentiates him/her from the non-native speaker. Davies (2006), notes that remaining a learner helps the native speaker gain access to the standard language.

3.2 Definitions of 'Native Speaker'

Below is a summary of what Davies and some other scholars agree on about the native speaker (all native speakers). The native speaker may be defined in the following six ways Davies (1991, 2003) in Davies (2006:435).

- The native speaker acquires the L1 of which she/he is a native speaker at childhood.
- The native speaker has intuitions (in terms of acceptability and productiveness) about his/her dialectal grammar.
- The native speaker has intuitions about those features of the standard language grammar which are distinct from his/her idiolectal grammar.
- The native speaker has a unique capacity to produce fluent spontaneous discourse, which exhibits pauses mainly at clause boundaries (the 'one clause at a time facility) and which is facilitated by a huge memory stock of complete lexical items (Pawley and Syder 1983). In both production and comprehension,

the native speaker exhibits a wide range of communicative competence.

- The native speaker has a unique capacity to write creatively (and this includes, of course, literature at all levels, from jokes to epics, metaphor to novels).
- The native speaker has a unique capacity to interpret and translate into the L1 which she/he is a native speaker. Disagreements about the deployment of an individual's capacity are likely to stem from a dispute about the standard or (standard) language.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

(Answer True or False)

- i. The native speaker cannot acquire the L1 of which she/he is a native speaker at childhood.
- ii. The native speaker has a unique capacity to produce fluent spontaneous discourse.
- iii. The native speaker does not have intuitions about those features of the standard language grammar which are distinct from his/her idiolectal grammar.

3.3 Native Speaker or Native-Like

There have been questions about the extent to which the L2 learner becomes a target language native speaker. Davies answers these questions based on the six points listed earlier on the definitions of the native speaker. Davies (2006: 436) responds as summarised below.

3.3.1 Childhood Acquisition

The second language learner does not acquire the target language in early childhood. If he/she does, then the learner becomes a bilingual native speaker- that is, a native speaker of L1 and L2.

3.3.2 Intuitions about Idiolectal Grammar

It is possible for the L2 learner to have intuitions about idiolectal grammar of the target language. This can be done through sufficient contact and practice. For the second language learner to gain access to intuitions about his own idiolectal grammar he/she must have been able to have some childhood acquisition.

3.3.3 Intuitions about the Standard Language Grammar

With sufficient contact, and practice, the L2 learner can gain access to the standard grammar of the target language. It is reported that in many formal learning situations, it is through exposure to target language standard grammar that the target language idiolectal grammar would be learnt.

3.3.4 Discourse and Pragmatic Control

In practice, it is very difficult for a non-native speaker to gain the discourse and pragmatic control of a native speaker, although, it is not an impossible task. For example, if a Nigerian stays for a long time in a country like Britain, he/she can have discourse control of the English language, and in fact many do.

3.3.5 Creative Performance

It should be possible for a second language learner to become an accepted creative artist in the target language. Davies (2006: 436) reports on writers such as Conrad, Becket, Senghor, Narayan who did well in creative performance. He however mentions the attitudinal issue of non acceptability of the L2 creative writer by the L2 community. Another attitudinal issue is the acceptability of a standard variety of a language to readers of other standard varieties.

3.3.6 Interpreting and Translating

Davies (2006) notes that this must be possible even though international organisations generally require that interpreters should interpret into their L1

Even though it is difficult, he goes ahead to say that the adult non-native speaker can acquire the communicative competence of the native speaker and also acquire the necessary confidence for membership, with a lot of exposure or contact to the target language . He also notes that if a non native speaker wishes to become a native speaker or be seen as a native speaker and it is accepted, it then becomes irregular if he/she shows differences on more refined tests of grammaticality. Davies also notes that, since this is purely psycholinguistic, it is unimportant.

Davies notes further that the positions of psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics on the differences between native and non-native speakers are irreconcilable. To him, no test is ever sufficient for the psycholinguist to demonstrate the distinction between the native and non- native speaker. Whereas the sociolinguist would always find another exceptional learner who will demonstrate that exceptional non native speaker can be equated to native speakers on ultimate attainment.

That is probably why Cook (1999) submitted that the distinction between native/non native speakers should be one above all of biography. There are all kinds of reactions to this. Finally, on the issues of the native speaker's identity, Davies refers to Hyltenstam and Abrahamson (2000) on the different views of what being a native speaker means. These include:

- native speaker by birth (by early childhood exposure)
- native speaker by virtue of being a native user
- native speaker for native speaker-like (by being an exceptional learner)
- native speaker through education in the target language medium
- native speaker through long residence in the adopted country.

3.4 Losing a Native Speaker Identity

This section talks about the global expansion of English in the twentieth century which has been widely discussed. Some discuss the expansion in a favourable light, while some others in a non-favourable light. Davies (2006: 438) mentions Fishman, Cooper and Conrad (1975); MacArthur (1999) as some of the scholars who discuss the expansion favourably and they commented on the empowering role of English, the access it provides, both to knowledge and to markets, the empowerment it provides by having most of the world's technological development in English.

Those who discussed the expansion unfavourably saw it as a domineering language through globalisation; Phillipson (1992) notes that English squeezes other languages into less and less central roles until they are marginalised and eventually displaced or replaced by English in the communities. Davies cites the examples of Singapore where English is now the only language of instruction in the school. The same thing Davies notes happened in Guyana where the local languages were marginalised.

In Nigeria, English is the nation's official language in that it is the language of government, education, law, commerce and inter-ethnic communication. The national policy of education recommends the use of some of the indigenous languages, along with English, at the lower primary school education and in conducting proceedings at the various assemblies in governance. The general picture in Nigeria now is that, English is surviving side by side with the indigenous languages. It does not seem presently that it will displace the indigenous languages totally as it has done in some other countries; but the threat it poses to the indigenous languages is the prestigious status it occupies as the language of the elite, which open doors to good jobs and opportunities and this

makes everyone to desire at least basic literacy in it. Apart from this, Nigeria, being a multilingual nation has a lot of indigenous languages which have not been committed to writing and since some of the main speakers are dying, the languages run the risk of extinction.

There are countries where becoming proficient in English, while at the same time not losing their first language have been regarded as successful. In all cases of the intrusion of English as a second or foreign language, there is the issue of self and identity, which Davies notes is closely associated with language and, in particular, one's first language. This image of self or identity can be threatened by seeing one's language as inadequate or not good and, yet, unable to attain the necessary perfection in the L2. This is what has happened to some Nigerian speakers of English. Details about losing a native speaker identity can be found in Davies (2006: 438-442).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What do you think is the future of English Language in Nigeria?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have been able to define who a native speaker is and the criteria for doing so. You have also learnt about the possibility of losing a 'native speaker' identity.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- There are so many controversies about the concept of the native speaker and some linguists have asked the question about its usefulness to AL
- Much of the world's verbal communication takes place by means of languages which are not user's mother tongue
- Native/non-native speaker differences are not innate but learnt
- The native speaker acquires the L1 of which she/he is a native speaker in childhood
- It should be possible for a second language learner to become an accepted creative artist in the target language
- Phillipson (1992) notes that English squeezes other languages into less and less central roles until they are marginalised and eventually displaced or replaced by English in the communities.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. A friend of yours relocated to the US at age 10. He /she has spent about 10 years there now. Do you think your friend can achieve native-like competence in English? If no, why? And if yes, how?
2. According to Davies (2006), to what extent can the L2 learner become a target language native speaker?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4 FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

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- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Factors Responsible for the Rapidity and Accuracy of the Acquisition of a Language
 - 3.2 Characteristics of L1 and L2
 - 3.2.1 Age
 - 3.3 Similarities and Differences between L1 and L2
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit takes you deeper into some of what has been mentioned in units 1-3 about the language learner. In this unit, you will learn about first and second language acquisition. You know we all just discover that we speak one language or the other and some of us speak up to two or three languages, depending on our flair for languages and the need for them. There are a lot of things that we are able to do with our bodies that we just take for granted; and this includes the ability to speak and reason out things without being told, at times. First language acquisition is one of such mysteries and we need to know what linguists who have researched into this area of study have to say.

In Unit 3, you were introduced to different language learning theories. In this unit, you will be introduced to first and second language acquisition. How many languages can you speak? How did you learn your second language? This unit discusses the learning variables in first and second language acquisition. Tucker (2003) notes that no matter the number of languages that are learnt later in life, 'the rapidity and accuracy of the first acquisition can simply not be repeated'. These were the thoughts of Tucker as a student as at the time she made these comments. The claim seems to be true as many other scholars also imply this in their studies. To her, this seems to be why first language acquisition and subsequent second language acquisition is such a highly researched topic. In both cases, the learner learns the sounds, the words, phrases, sentences until the learner is able to make very complex sentences that will show some level of competence in the language.

Tucker also notes that the outcomes of both types of acquisitions are different and, according to Tucker, the differences are dramatic in that the child's ability to communicate in the target language far surpasses that of the adult. She went ahead to mention some of the things that make for the differences and these will be discussed along with the views of other scholars in section three. Before we continue, let us look at some of our objectives for this unit. This will guide you as you read because they will remind you of your expectations.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe the factors responsible for the rapidity/accuracy of the acquisition of a language
- describe the differences between LI and L2.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Factors Responsible for the Rapidity and Accuracy of the Acquisition of a Language

Let us consider the following.

a. Input

Tucker (2003) notes that the quality and quantity of the 'input' makes the first difference. The quantity of the exposure to the target language that a child has is greater than that of the adult. The 'input' is the learning situation in form of exposure to the language in various ways that a learner is opportuned to have. A child hears the language all day long at home, at play, in the classroom, when rebuked, etc but an adult may be restricted to the classroom or home instructors as a result of lack of time to study or listen to the language being spoken or read. It could even be due to the pressure of work or inability to grasp some structures which may discourage the adult learner from moving very fast. A classroom situation where an instructor may be speaking to 20 to 25 learners at the same time may not give enough room for individualised attention that could aid learning. Relevance of the language to the lives of the adult may be another determining factor in the acquisition of the language.

b. Age

Scholars have noted the issue of a 'critical period' after which successful learning may be difficult to accomplish. Tucker notes that

this period is usually tied to puberty because it has been noticed that people go through significant changes physically, emotionally and in terms of cognition during puberty. Three main changes noted in terms of language acquisition are considered below.

i. The presence of muscular plasticity

A child's plasticity is said to go away at about the age of five. Some psychologists note that it is difficult for a learner to fully master pronunciation of a second language. The question that readily comes to mind here is what then happens when young people and children above five years old travel outside their countries to other countries and within one or two years they have mastered the art of speaking the host language? This only shows that this claim may not be true for all cases and this is why motivation is important in language learning. There have been cases of children and young people from Nigeria who have settled in Europe or America after they were five and have mastered to an appreciable extent the host language. It was actually taken over as their first language as most lose their original language.

ii. Memorisation capabilities

It has been noted that as a person grows older, their ability to retain large amount of information reaches its peak and then begins to decrease (Tucker (2003).

iii. Neurobiological changes

Tucker notes what she referred to as lateralisation hypothesis. This is related to neurology. Medical science reports that as a person matures, the left hemisphere, which controls the analytical and intellectual functions becomes more dominant than the right side, which controls the emotional functions. This also affects language learning. Adults have the advantage of getting the essentials of grammar and structure than children because of their cognitive development. The disadvantage of this ability is that adults tend to still hold on to the structures of their first language.

c. Motivation

Motivation has a lot to do with emotional changes. Children are easily motivated more than adults. Tucker notes two ways by which adults can be motivated and these are, 1) integrative motivation (encourages a learner to acquire the new language so as to be able to identify with speakers of the target language); 2) instrumental motivation (encourages

a learner to acquire proficiency for practical purposes such as becoming a translator, doing research in different areas.

d. Egocentricity

It has been reported that adults may get annoyed when corrected when learning another language but children do not. Adults may even feel frustrated or threatened when learning a new language, especially if it has to do with status enhancement. The adult sees mistakes most often as failures rather than an avenue for correction (Tucker 2003).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Mention and discuss three of the factors affecting the acquisition of a language as discussed by Tucker (2003).

3.2 Characteristics of L1 and L2

A person's first language is usually seen as the first language learnt and still spoken. In some cases, the first language may be lost, leaving the individual with the second and other languages learnt later. This is referred to as language attrition. This can happen when young children move to a new environment and the earlier learnt language is no longer spoken frequently. A person's first language may not even be the dominant language.

A second language is any language learned after the first language or the mother tongue. Ervin-Tripp (1974) notes that it has been observed that the development of comprehension of syntax and of morphological features follows the order in the mother tongue studies. She noted that children of older ages learned much faster than younger children for the sample in the range of four through nine.

3.2.1 Age

Some researchers have claimed that one of the important things to note about a first and a second language is the age the person learned the language. It is believed that a second language is consciously learned and used after puberty while a first language is unconsciously acquired. In most cases, people never achieve the same level of fluency and comprehension in their second languages as in their first.

3.3 Similarities and Differences between L1 and L2

Below are some of the similarities and differences that some scholars have noted between L1 and L2.

a. Speed

It is believed that the speed at which a first language is learnt is faster than that of a second language. The acquisition of a second language can be a lifelong process for many people and that most people never have native-like competence in the second language no matter the number of years they spend learning it.

b. Stages

A lot of research has shown that basic sounds, vocabulary, using grammatical structures are developed while learning a second language. The rate at which they are learnt however depends on the individual for second language learning

c. Competence

L1 speakers always try to achieve target language competence while L2 learners may be content with less than target language competence or more concerned with fluency than accuracy (Ellis 1994). Ellis (1994) also notes that children normally achieve perfect L1 mastery but adult L2 learners are unlikely to achieve perfect L2 mastery. Children are also noted to develop clear intuitions about correctness while L2 learners are often unable to form clear grammaticality judgments. In terms of overall success, Ellis notes that children normally achieve perfect L1 mastery while adult L2 learners are unlikely to achieve perfect L2 mastery.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Why do you think complete success is rare in L2 acquisitions for a Nigerian learner of English?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we talked about the acquisition of the first and second languages as noted by some scholars. Tucker (2003) notes some factors affecting the accuracy of the acquisition of the first and second languages. Some of these are age, motivation and egocentricity. We also noted the findings of Ellis 1994 on the differences between the first and second languages.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- the quantity of the exposure to the target language that a child has is greater than that of the adult
- the ‘input’ is the learning situations in form of exposure to the language in various ways that a learner has
- relevance of the language to the lives of the adult may be another determining factor in the acquisition of the language
- the child’s language is a system in its own right rather than being a small fragment of the adult system
- wherever there is a relationship between cognition and language development, language depends on cognition
- the learning of a first language has many sides and is not simply a matter of learning syntax and vocabulary
- there are particular stages of development through which all children progress, even if the rate of progression varies.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What are the major characteristics of L1 and L2 acquisition? Can you try to account for why there would be major differences in L1 and L2 acquisitions of a Nigerian learner of English?
2. What are the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 acquisition? Can you remember any notable similarity between your L1 and L2 when you learnt them? Write about your experience.

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UNIT 5 SOCIAL INFLUENCES ON LANGUAGE LEARNING

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- 3.0 Main Content
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 - 3.2 Second Language Learning
 - 3.2.1 The Learner
 - 3.2.2 Input and Output
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 - 3.4.2 Age
 - 3.4.3 Audience
 - 3.4.4 Identity
 - 3.4.5 Social Network Relations
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is designed to take you through some of the things that influence language learning around us. It is important to note that we all live in a society among people with all kinds of environments, and whether we believe it or not, it affects all that we do, including learning a language. In this course, you will notice in almost all the units, that there are a lot of references to earlier scholars. You should not feel bored by all these, it only shows that a lot of people have worked in this area of study and we need to make references to them. In fact, you will do yourself a lot of good if you can check up on some of these references and learn more about what has been reported about them.

One of the questions that AL answers is- what are the social influences that affect language learning? In short, applied linguistics is interested mainly in language problems. Ellis (1994) worked a lot on second language acquisition and especially on social factors affecting language learning. In this unit, you will be taken through some of the findings of some of these scholars so that you can be adequately informed about their findings on the topic above so that you can be versed in this area of study. Below are some of the objectives of this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the types of learners that we have
- mention the social factors that can affect a learner's understanding of a language.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Act of Language Learning

The act of learning a second language is a difficult one. The grammatical system has to be learnt and the learner has to battle with how to use it appropriately in real life situations. One of the assignments of the applied linguist is trying to examine or determine what goes on in the mind of the learner in relation to the environment. Obviously, a lot of things go on at the same time in the mind of the learner which the linguist cannot see physically. This means that, in matters of language learning, a number of variables come into play. Widdowson (2000:3) notes that applied linguistics is a mediating activity, which seeks to accommodate a linguistic account to other partial perspectives on language so as to arrive at a relevant reformulation of real world problems.

The word 'social', according to Barkhuizen, has different definitions and scholars have reacted to it in different ways. Ellis (1994) differentiates between social context and social factors. To Ellis, social context refers to different settings in which L2 can take place. To Ellis, each setting can be seen as a context in which a number of social factors influence learning outcomes. His examples of social factors are age, sex, social class and ethnic identity. To him, settings could be natural settings where informal learning occurs or educational settings where formal learning takes place. Ellis also refers to what he calls social 'aspects' Ellis (1997:37) social determinants (Ellis and Roberts 1987:26) situation domains and situational contexts (Ellis & Roberts 1987: 7), situational variables Ellis (1992), learning environments Ellis (1990) and external constraints Ellis (1999:461).

For Brown and Fraser (1979), they use the term situation but divided it into two, i.e. scene and participants. They later divided scene into setting and purpose. Long (1998:93) uses social settings and environments interchangeably. Other scholars who have worked on the social settings and environments are Stern (1983) and Spolsky (1989). All these studies point to the fact that language learning takes place in a social context, which consist of a number of influential social factors. Language

learning as described by Krashen (1981) is consciously studying the language and acquisition is subconsciously internalising it. Some scholars, however, use the term interchangeably. Evidence of what is learnt is revealed through the interlanguage.

Researchers who look at the development and use of interlanguage and output mention both the product of the learning (the form of the actual language used by the learner) and the process of learning (the psychological processes that occur during learning and the social context factors that interfere with the learning process (Barkhuizen, 2006:554). Barkhuizen distinguishes between product, process and language education by saying that language education refers to practices, procedures and provision of language learning. He notes that there is obviously a connection between social context and language learning. To him, learning cannot take place in a social vacuum.

3.2 Second Language Learning

Barkhuizen (2006:556) notes that learning a second language involves at least five elements. Below is a diagram of the relationship between the elements.

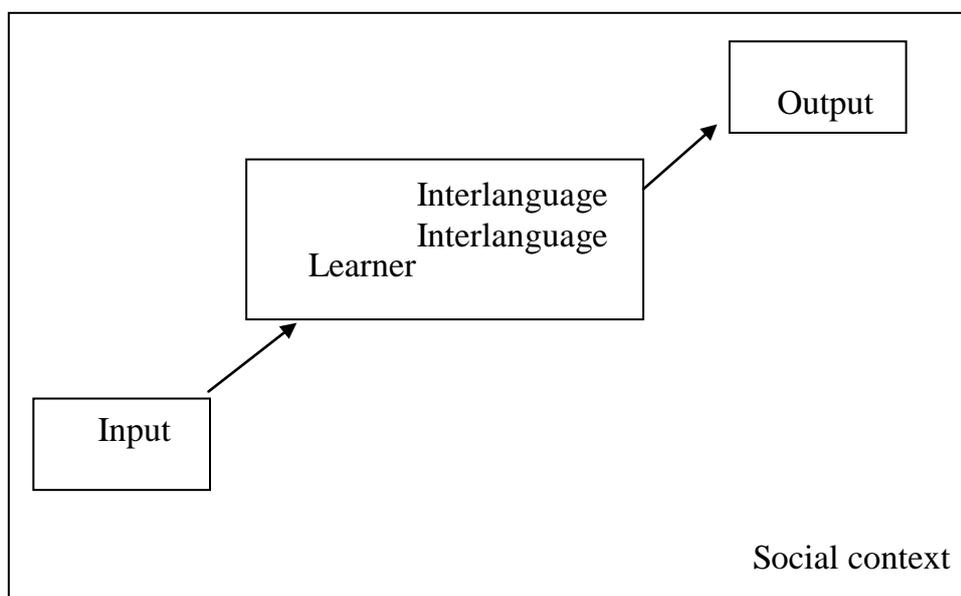


Fig. 5.1: Necessary Elements for Learning an Additional Language
[Source-Barkhuizen (2006:556)]

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What are some of the things you need to take into consideration before writing?

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Mention and discuss some essay writing strategies that have been mentioned in this unit.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Mention some of the variables that affect language learning.

3.2.1 The Learner

There are a number of social factors that can be mediated through learner attitudes which affect language learning. Ellis mentioned four factors- age, sex, social class and ethnic identity. He/she notes that it is not those factors that determine L2 proficiency but the social conditions associated with these variables. Ellis (1994) concludes that younger learners are generally more successful at learning languages than older learners. Ellis also notes that sociolinguistic research has shown that men use a higher frequency of non-standard forms than women. Ellis added that women might be better at L2 learning than men because they are likely to be open to new linguistic forms in L2 input, and are more likely to rid themselves of interlanguage forms that deviate from target language norms (1994:202). Ellis summarises the findings of the few available studies which have investigated social class and L2 learning as follows;

The results to date suggest that middleclass children achieve higher levels of L2 proficiency and more positive attitudes than working class children when the programme emphasises formal learning. This may be because they are better able to deal with decontextualised language. However, when the programme emphasises communicative language skills, the social class of learners have no effect.

There are different social classes in every community. For example, in Nigeria, being a member of the high class automatically qualifies you for a life of affluence, which includes education in one of the very good schools in the country while members of the lower class may have to make do with whatever they get from the government schools. It is, however, interesting to note that some of the children from the lower class who attend government schools also come out with distinctions

while some of those from the high class have low grades in some subjects. The reasons for this may be partly attitudinal.

Wood (2000), in Barkhuizen (2006:557), reports that in the US, the social stratification of school children begins in the first grade. He notes that children from highest achieving reading groups are monitored into college-bound course in the secondary school while those from lower level reading groups are tracked into the industrial and technical classes. The children from the highest achieving reading groups are those from the middle class homes where storytelling and educational-type toys abound, while the other set are working class children from different ethnic, linguistic and cultural homes. He notes further that once children are placed in their respective reading groups they experience varying quality of instruction coupled with different sets of expectations.

What happens is that some drop out of school while some proceed to college. L2 students may be classified as intellectually deficient because of low English proficiency and could be tracked into inappropriate courses (Barkhuizen 2006:557). You will notice that there is complexity in this issue of social factor in terms of age, gender, social class and ethnicity. These are all interconnected in one way or the other. Ellis (1994) also states that, there is a general agreement that ethnicity play an important role in language learning.

3.2.2 Input and Output

Barkhuizen notes that input is a type of language ‘resource’ received by learners when listening or reading in a target language. This may be in a language classroom, a natural setting or Second Language Acquisition (SLA) laboratory. Input is seen as part of the social context. Ellis and He (1999), in their research, hypothesised that input and output work together in interlanguage. Swain’s (1985) work on output claims that acquisition may occur when learners have to make efforts to ensure that their output is comprehensible.

Norton (1989) notes that output is not perceived to be merely the appropriate use of linguistic forms; it is rather a source of resistance, a political tool. He/she notes further that written and spoken input are external to the learner and that access to them is gained through interaction, in modified negotiated or scaffolded forms. Spada (1997) notes that it is not very clear what the effect of input is on language learning.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. The diagram above shows the relationship between some variables in language learning. Explain it to a friend.

3.3 The Language Learner

Barkhuizen (2006:559) notes that one of the goals of language learning is to construct a mental system of L2 knowledge, what is referred to in different ways as an interlanguage (IL). One other goal is to utilise this IL for effective communication. A learner's interlanguage system is "neither the system of the native language nor the system of target language, but instead falls between the two" (Brown, 1994, p. 204). It is said to be an independent and thoroughly legitimate system that the learner constructs while actively endeavouring to make sense of (and make sense in) the new language.

William Pellowe (1986) notes that 'errors' and 'strange language' exist, not as bad habits, but as hypotheses within this active process of language exploration and formation. There is an interaction between the language forms in a learner's system: when a learner starts to learn a new form, formerly "mastered" forms will become destabilised. Likewise, seeing a "rule" in a new context temporarily destabilises the learner's understanding of that rule (Nunan, 1995b).

William Pellowe in his article on 'A Dialog-Based Approach Toward Interlanguage Development' in *The Language Teacher* notes that it has been hypothesised that one way a learner's interlanguage system develops is when the learner recognises differences between what she produces and what native speakers produce. It means that the learner will have a different orientation towards the target language when he/she finds out that she/he does not speak the way native speakers speak. By extension, Schmidt and Frota (1986) then claim that when students notice the gap between their own language and that of native speakers, improvements occur (Schmidt and Frota (1986) cited in Nunan, (1995a). Pellowe (1996) reports that Ellis (1995) calls this process cognitive comparison; and argues that one way to foster this is to "draw learners' attention to the kinds of errors that learners typically make" (p. 94).

Pellowe (1996) developed 'Transcribed Dialogue Technique' to help learners develop their interlanguage. He noted that students could be given a task sheet consisting of a dialogue with the parts missing. The students draw on contextual clues to understand the functions of the missing utterances, and write down how they think those functions are expressed.

3.4 Social Context

Llamas and Stockwell (2002) note that there is a social and contextual dimension to every naturally occurring use of language and that these social factors determine the choice and form of what is written, said or understood. Sociolinguistics helps us to see the influences of ethnicity, gender, ideology and social rank on language events. Below are a few of the factors that can influence language behaviour.

3.4.1 Gender and power

Llamas and Stockwell (2002:159) note that the notion of gender has been reported to account for some of the apparently systematic differences in the way men and women use language. The differences could be in terms of the way people plan their narratives, discourse organisation, different accents that men and women use from one region to the other- and so on (Cameron 1995).

3.4.2 Age

It has been noted that older and younger people use language differently. Features can reveal evidence of changes in language use over time. For example, in Nigeria, older people use proverbs more than the younger ones. The young have all sorts of slang language and modern day usage that are not familiar to the older ones.

3.4.3 Audience

Conversations usually have a recipient design. Speakers produce utterances with the listeners in mind. It makes speakers to adjust their tone, accent, style, posture and even their walk at times. Llamas and Stockwell (2002: 159) refer to this as accommodation and note that this can be an important cause of language change over time.

3.4.4 Identity

People are usually aware of their personal, ethnic, political and family identities and this is often a factor in their language use. People pay allegiance to their family or membership of a particular social group or organisation. This can show forth in their language patterns and use.

3.4.5 Social network relations

Milroy (1987), Milroy and Milroy (1999) note that the relative strength of the relations between individuals within a social group is also important in understanding how linguistic features are maintained,

reinforced and spread. Language use may depend on whether individuals have strong or weak ties with their group. This kind of ties can wield a lot of socio-linguistic influence.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In summary, we have been able to go through the act of learning, second language learning, interlanguage and social factors that affect language learning.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- one of the questions that AL answers is- what are the social influences that affect language learning?
- the word, social, according to Barkhuizen, has different definitions and scholars have reacted to it in different ways
- to Ellis, social context refers to different settings in which L2 can take place
- language learning takes place in a social context which consist of a number of influential social factors
- input is a type of language input received by learners when listening or reading in a target language
- There are a number of social factors that can be mediated through learner attitudes which affect language learning
- a learner's interlanguage system is "neither the system of the native language nor the system of target language, but instead falls between the two" (Brown, 1994, p. 204).

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss some practical ways in which you think the social context of a nine year old Nigerian girl can affect her language behaviour in modern day Nigeria. The girl could be from any of the geopolitical zones in Nigeria.

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UNIT 6 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

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 - 3.2 Methods Used to Investigate Individual Differences
 - 3.3 Factors Responsible for Individual Differences
 - 3.4 Propensities for Language Learning
 - 3.4.1 Learning Style
 - 3.5 Motivation
 - 3.6 Anxiety
 - 3.7 Personality
 - 3.8 Willingness to Communicate
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 5, you learnt about social influences in language learning. You also learnt that one of the assignments of the applied linguist is trying to examine or determine what goes on in the mind of the learner in relation to the environment. In this unit, you will learn a few things about how people learn languages and the kinds of things that can be responsible for success or failure in language learning.

It has been observed that learners pass through a lot of developmental processes and stages, especially while learning a second language. Some of these processes are said to be based on things that are internal to the learners. That is why some scholars have raised the questions about the role of instruction in second language learning. Even though scholars agree about the need for instructions in language learning, they also note that individual differences matter a lot while learning a language because it determines what the learner does with the input.

In this unit, we shall discuss the factors responsible for different levels of attainment or success in language learning. These are methods used to investigate language learning, factors responsible for individual differences, propensities for language learning, motivation, anxiety, personality and willingness to communicate.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe the factors responsible for individual differences
- discuss briefly what is meant by propensities in language learning.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Level of Success

The level of success that an individual attains in language learning differs in both first and second languages. Scholars have noted that even children vary in their rate of acquisition but, in most cases, they achieve full competence in their mother tongue. With adult learners of L2, only a few achieve a native-like competence. Ellis (2006) notes the following as being responsible for the different levels of attainment – social, cognitive and affective. Many scholars or researchers in language studies have worked on individual differences in language teaching and learning. Some of these are Horwitz, Carroll and Sapon, etc.

In her research on learner's differences in second language learning between 1920s and 1970s, Horwitz (2000) in Ellis (2006:525) notes that there are changes in labels used to refer to individual differences. She notes that before, terms like good and bad, intelligent and dull, motivated and unmotivated were used but have now given way to terms such as integrative, instrumentally motivated, anxious and comfortable, field independent and, field sensitive, auditory and visual. All these terms are said to reflect a radical shift in the way learners are viewed.

Horwitz notes that, in the past, the primary concern of individual differences in applied linguistics was to determine which learner should be selected for foreign language instruction. This is another way of predicting which learners would succeed if there were language aptitude tests. Ellis (2006) notes the growing interest in individual differences since 1970s and concludes that the task facing researchers is not just to identify the psycholinguistic processes involved in L2 acquisition or what motivates the individual learner selectivity but how selectivity and processes interact in the performance of different tasks.

3.2 Methods Used to Investigate Individual Differences

Ellis (2000:526) notes that a number of quantitative methods have been used to investigate individual differences and states that the favoured one is a survey questionnaire consisting of scaled items (items arranged in a questionnaire that learners are expected to respond to) that will enable learners to report on some aspects of their language learning e.g. the Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) which is an established test from the field of psychology. The data obtained from the questionnaires and tests are then submitted to correlational analysis (Ellis, 2006:527). Ellis notes the purpose of such tests as “identification of relationships among individual difference variables or relationship between a specific factor such as motivation and a measure of L2 achievement or proficiency.” He notes that much depends on the validity/reliability of such questionnaires. The questions that linguists ask are: do they measure what they purport to measure? And do they do so consistently?

He notes that considerable efforts have gone into the development of questionnaires. Ellis (2006: 529) also reported on the findings of Spolsky (2000) and on Wallace Lambert who originated the use of motivation questionnaires in 1950. Wallace Lambert is reputed to have said that “the best way to learn about someone’s integrative motivation was probably to sit quietly and chat with him over a bottle of wine for an evening.” Ellis notes that the limitations of quantitative approaches have led to the argument in favour of qualitative methods. Spolsky suggests the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods such as interviews and learner’s autobiographical narratives; an example of such is Schumann (1997), but Ellis (2006:529) argues that it is time consuming.

3.3 Factors Responsible for Individual Differences

In the language aptitude review of the factors responsible for language learning, it is noted that age is not included. Ellis (2006) argues that it is probably because ‘age’ does not belong to any of the categories listed for differences by the researchers but it is seen to potentially affect learner’s abilities, propensities, cognitions and actions as do other factors such as previous learning experiences and learning situations. Age is also seen to affect the actual psychological processes involved in learning, making younger learners able to access a language acquisition device while older learners rely on general cognitive learning strategies. Ellis notes that the role played by age in L2 acquisition demands an entirely separate treatment, which should be handled on its own. You will find discussions on age in some other units in the course.

Three basic things have been highlighted by earlier scholars under cognitive abilities for language learning. These are intelligence, language aptitude and memory. Skehan (1990) administered language aptitude tests on children in the Bristol language project and found that language aptitude was strongly related to measures of foreign language ability. Skehan explained that the aptitude tests measured an underlying language learning capacity. Sasaki's (1996) study also suggests that language aptitude- i.e. ability to analyse linguistic structure and intelligence are related. The work of Sparks, Ganschow and Patton (1995) also suggests that language aptitude was one of the best predictions of the grades achieved by school foreign language learners. Carroll (1995) identified four aspects of language aptitude as follows:

- Phonemic coding ability (i.e. the ability to code foreign sounds in a way that can be remembered later)
- Grammatical sensitivity (i.e. the ability to recognise the grammatical functions of words in sentences)
- Inductive learning ability (i.e. the ability to identify patterns of correspondence and relationships involving form and meaning)
- Rote learning ability (i.e. the ability to form and remember associations between stimuli).

Some other scholars such as Skehan (1998), Grigorenko, Stenber and Ehrman (2000) have called for the modifications to Carroll's four part model. Stenberg (2002) however suggests that theory of successful intelligence which though developed through general research on native speaking students could also be applicable to L2 learning. In his theory, he distinguished between three types of aptitude: analytical intelligence, creative intelligence and practical intelligence.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What are the factors responsible for individual differences in language learning?

3.4 Propensities for Language Learning

Ellis notes that the major difference between abilities and propensities is that ability is a matter of innate endowment, which is relatively fixed, but propensity involves personal preference. Ellis notes that propensity is more fluid.

3.4.1 Learning Style

Willing (1989) notes that learning style is both cognitive and affective domain and this refers to the individual's preferred way of processing

information and of dealing with other people. He notes that, in the field independent people see things ‘holistically’ and so have difficulty in identifying the parts that make up a whole. They find social interaction easy and pleasurable. On the other hand, field independent people see things analytically by distinguishing the parts that make up a whole (Ellis 2006:565). The hypothesis advanced for these two types of L2 learning are that the field independent learners will do better in informal language learning because of greater interpersonal skills while the other will do better in formal learning because of their enhanced analytic skills. Some other scholars have made use of other models of learning styles, which involve more than a single dimension of style.

Red (1987) has devised models similar to the dependent and independent learning styles. Skehan (1998) noted that the various styles identified by different researchers can be grouped into three stages of acquisition – input, central processing and output/retrieval) and also as to whether the focus is information processing or knowledge representation.

3.5 Motivation

Ellis (2006) notes that motivation is more of an affective domain than a cognitive factor; teachers recognise the independence of motivation. Garder (1985) differentiates between orientation and motivation. Orientation, he notes refers to the long-range goals that learners have for learning. There are two broad types of orientation—‘integrative orientation’ and ‘instrumental orientation’. Integrative orientation involves a wish to develop and understand the target language and culture. Instrumental orientation involves a felt need to learn the target language for some functional purpose (e.g. obtaining a job).

Motivation, Ellis notes, was defined in terms of motivational intensity, that is, efforts learners are prepared to make to learn a language and their persistence on learning. This strategy notes that teachers might show some orientations but be weakly and strongly motivated to achieve their goals.

3.6 Anxiety

There is this tendency to feel anxious when learning a new or another language. Ellis sees the foreign language classroom as constituting a particular kind of anxiety, which he terms situational anxiety. He distinguishes this from the classroom anxiety in general because of the kind of pressure that the learner of a language experiences, especially when proficiency is limited. This he says constitutes threat to learner’s

‘language ego’. Learner’s diary studies were examined while carrying out research on learner’s anxiety.

The research showed that the classroom learners experience anxiety, especially when it seems they are competing with others in the classroom. Studies have shown that anxiety is related to L2 achievement. There has also been the argument on whether anxiety is the cause of poor achievement.

Sparks *et al.* (2000) found that students’ anxiety about learning L2 is a consequence of their learning difficulties. Other scholars who worked on anxiety are Gardner, (1994), Horwitz (2000) etc. Ellis (2006) concludes that ‘anxiety’, like motivation is a learner factor that is amenable to pedagogic influence. Spielman and Radnofsky (2001) however, researched into the possible positive side of anxiety.

3.7 Personality

Ellis notes that personality is a key factor for explaining individual differences in L2 learning. Scholars have examined a lot of personality variables such as – risk taking, tolerance of ambiguity, empathy, self esteem, but Ellis (1994) notes that the aspect of personality that has received the greatest attention is ‘extraversion’. He notes that ‘extraversion’ is viewed as a factor having a positive effect on the development of L2 basic interpersonal skills. He notes that extraverted learners are likely to interact more and more easily with other speakers of the L2. He notes that introspective learners may find it easier to study L2 and thereby develop his/her cognitive academic language proficiency.

Ellis reports on Dewaele and Furnham’s (1999) review of 30 students on personality and concluded that ‘extraverts’ were found to be generally more fluent than introverts in both L1 and L2. They also claim that extraverts are less easily distracted when operating from short term memory, and are better equipped physiologically to resist stress, and so have lower level of anxiety. This helps them to pay more attention to learning tasks.

3.8 Willingness to Communicate

This has to do with intention to initiate communication, given a choice (MacIntyre *et al.*, 2001:369). Communicative language teaching places willingness on learning through communicating. MacIntyre *et al.*, (2001) note that learners with a strong Willingness To Communicate (WTC) are likely to benefit more from CLT (Communicative Language

Teaching), while those who are not willing to communicate may learn better from traditional, instructional approaches.

Dornyei and Kormos (2000) also worked on WTC on Hungarian children and found that Hungarian students' WTC in the classroom was influenced by their attitudes to the task. Ellis concludes by saying that teachers can enhance their students' WTC by ensuring they hold positive attitudes to the tasks they are asked to perform (Ellis, 2006:542).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Describe the characteristics of extraverted and introspective learners and how their learning of language can be facilitated.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have been able to describe what is meant by individual differences in this unit. We have also talked about the methods used to investigate individual differences, factors responsible for individual differences, propensities for language learning, learning style, anxiety, motivation etc.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- the level of success that individuals attain in language learning differ in both first and second languages
- with adult learners of L2, only a few achieve native-like competence
- a number of quantitative methods have been used to investigate individual differences
- Ellis 2006 notes that the favoured method is a survey questionnaire consisting of Likert-scaled items that will enable learners report on their language learning
- Ellis notes that the major differences between abilities and propensities is that abilities is a matter of innate endowment which is relatively fixed but propensities involve personal preference and are more fluid
- learning style is both in the cognitive and affective domains
- personality is a key factor in explaining individual differences.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What are the major propensities for language learning and how can you help a younger sister of yours who is not motivated to learn a second language that is very important for her to do a particular course in a foreign country?

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UNIT 7 PSYCHOLINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Language Acquisition
 - 3.1.1 Language Acquisition and Language Learning
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 - 3.3 The Critical Period
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignments
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is designed to take you through one of the sub-themes of applied linguistics. This topic is not only important for Applied Linguistics (AL) but also for other areas of language work. As a language student, you need to know this area of language study so that you can be exposed to the psychological processes that take place when people learn a language. Remember that whatever you learn in this course is not only meant to be retained for this course alone but for use later on in life.

You may come across people who have problems learning a language as you go through life, you will then remember that you did a course related to that and that your knowledge of the course can now come in handy at such a time to help the individual or group. So therefore, I will advise you to go through this unit carefully so that you can benefit maximally from the contents. Please note that most of the information in this unit is from Corder, P.S (1973) and some other books and materials on the internet. For more details, you can consult the materials. Details of the references are at the end of the unit.

Furthermore, in unit one, you were told that applied linguistics often deals with solving or at least ameliorating social problems involving language. In short, applied linguistics is interested mainly in language problems. Corder (1973:106) opines that the principal concern of psychology of language is to give an account of the psychological processes that go on when people produce or understand utterances- that is the investigation of language performance.

One way of investigating this is to try and understand how people acquire such ability. This in essence has to do with language acquisition. You will remember that in Module 1 unit 4, the unit was mainly on factors responsible for the rapidity and accuracy of acquisition of a language. You also learnt about the differences between first and second language acquisition. In this unit, you will be instructed on what seems to be going on in the mind of a learner learning a language.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe language acquisition
- differentiate between language acquisition and learning.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Language Acquisition

Acquiring a language has to do with the ability of the learner to develop the knowledge of the basic sound, vocabulary, phrases, questions, syntax etc., of a language. Corder (1973), notes that a child acquires a language along with other skills and other things about the world around him. The acquisition of a second language, usually, takes place at a later stage when language performance has already become established and when many other physical and mental processes of maturation are complete or almost complete.

To Corder, language performance and language acquisition are two principal concerns of the psychology of language or psycholinguistics. Corder further notes that psycholinguistics helps us to understand language acquisition. We need to know the relationship between teaching procedures and learning processes and we also need to know the necessary procedures for learning processes to take place. Psychology of language deals with the description and explanation of language in terms of human behaviour. It also explains the relationship between thought and language.

3.1.1 Language Acquisition and Language Learning

Scholars have noted that there are so many differences in the conditions under which learning and acquisition take place. Language acquisition, mental development and physical maturity take place simultaneously in an infant. Scholars therefore concluded that there must be a relationship between language learning and maturation. Lenneberg (1967:178) notes

the following as some of the interactions and connections between maturation and language acquisition:

We assume that the child's capacity to learn language is a consequence of maturation because (1) the milestones of language acquisition are normally interlocked with other milestones that are clearly attributable to physical maturation, particularly stance, gait, and motor coordination; (2) this synchrony is frequently preserved even if the whole maturational schedule is dramatically slowed down, as in several forms of mental retardation; (3) there is an evidence that intensive training procedures can produce higher stages of language development

The second thing that scholars noted was that the motivation for learning in acquisition and learning cannot be equated. They have not been able to establish whether motivation can adequately be used in language acquisition. Corder mentions the fact that if congenitally deaf children develop a means of non-verbal communication in their earlier stages of life, a conclusion can then be drawn that language acquisition is natural and not because of any practical use to the speaker.

The third thing noted about acquisition is that, the infant acquires language from data different from the adult. He/she acquires it naturally. People do not usually address the infant directly or specifically. He/she is exposed to the language in an unorganised manner. He/she does not stay in a classroom. He/she does not understand most of what he/she hears and just imitates speakers around him/her. Snow (1972) notes that the utterances he/she is exposed to may be modified or simplified by him/her and he/she learns most things through his/her normal cognitive development.

The fourth thing that Corder noted is visitation to another country. Some people get exposed to the language informally, i.e., no formal organisation of the language data by any teacher. Some others attend school or receive formal instructions for second language learning. Some other people also pick up a foreign language when they decide to visit another country or live there.

Corder notes that in language acquisition, the extent to which the child is exposed to 'teaching', e.g. from the parents and other siblings cannot be ascertained. Corder goes further to say that parents will try to repeat the correct version of what they feel a child is trying to say. Below is an example:

Child: Table hit head

Parent: No, the head hit the table (Corder 1973:111)

An adult can correct a child by saying the right thing. This is a form of correction. An adult can correct a child in this way by saying the right thing in form of saying the right sentence(s). In this way, the child learns the right thing or the right way to say what he/she wants to say. The adult can even ask questions to make the child repeat what he/she has said so that he/she can be corrected. Below is another example from Corder (1973:111).

Mother: Did Billy have his egg cut up for him at breakfast?

Child: Yes I showed him

Mother: You what?

Child: I showed him

Mother: You showed him?

Child: I seed him

Mother: Ah, you saw him

Child: Yes I saw him

In language learning, practice and imitation are very important. At infancy, the child tries to imitate but his/her imitation is not a perfect imitation. Scholars in language acquisition have debated on whether imitation and practice are part of the processes of language acquisition. Corder notes that the process of learning verbal responses which was incorporated as a specific language learning theory sees 'imitation as acquisition of a response and the function of practice is to strengthen it'.

In their study of infants' imitation of adult utterances, Ervin (1964) and Slobin (1966) note that the child does not acquire new language forms by imitation and that, where imitation occurs, it fulfils some other function than learning.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. When does language learning and language acquisition take place and how does this happen?

3.2 Arguments for and against Language Acquisition Learning

Corder (1973:113) observes that the main argument against language acquisition and second language learning having anything in common is that language learning normally takes place after language acquisition is largely complete. The language learner has already developed considerable communicative competence in his/her mother tongue and

already knows what he/she can or cannot do with it. This means that the circumstances – i.e. the learner, teacher, and linguistic data in which learning takes place are different. Corder (1973:113) avers further:

The main argument in favour of assuming that language learning and language acquisition are different purposes is that the language learner is a different sort of person from the infant; that there has been some qualitative change in his/her physiology and psychology at some point in his/her maturation process; and that these changes in some way inhibit him/her from using the same learning strategies that S/he used as an infant or make available to him some whole new range of strategies which he did not possess before. These notions are all included within what has been called the critical period for language acquisition

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. According to Corder (1973), what are the four things to note in language acquisition and language learning?

3.3 The Critical Period

In his explanation of the ‘critical period’, Lenneberg (1967:158) notes the fact that language cannot begin to develop until a certain level of physical maturation and growth has been attained. In Lenneberg’s view, ‘language emerges as an interaction of maturation and self programmed learning between the ages of two and three while the possibility for primary language acquisition continues for good between the ages of three and the early teens’. The individual is said to be most sensitive to stimuli at this time. Commenting on how the brain functions, Lenneberg notes further that between the ages of three and early teens, the individual has the ability to also- preserve some innate flexibility for the organisation of brain functions to carry out the complex integration of sub-processes necessary for the smooth elaboration of speech and language.

After puberty, the ability for self organisation and adjustment to the psychological demands of verbal behaviour quickly declines.

The brain behaves as if it had become set in its ways and primary, basic language skills not acquired by that time, except for articulation, usually remain deficient for life. Lenneberg (1967:158)

This means that we acquire language when our brains are in a particular stage of their development. If language is not acquired then, it becomes a little difficult at a later age.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has exposed you to some of the psychological processes that take place when people learn a language. It is noted that there are many differences in the conditions under which learning and acquisition takes place. There is a critical period when language can be best learnt and that a certain level of maturation and growth is required for language development.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- language acquisition takes place in the infant simultaneously at the time that he is acquiring other skills and other things about the world around him
- when an individual wants a second language, it usually takes place at a later stage when language performance has already become established and when many other physical and mental processes of maturation are complete or almost complete
- there are so many differences in the conditions under which learning and acquisition take place
- language acquisition is natural and not because of any practical use to the speaker
- there must be a relationship between language learning and maturation
- the main argument against language acquisition and second language learning having anything in common is that language learning normally takes place after language acquisition is largely complete
- the language learner is a different sort of person from the infant; that there has been some qualitative change in his/her physiology and psychology at some point in his/her maturation process.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What are some of the main arguments for and against language acquisition and language learning? How many languages do you speak? Did you experience the same things expressed in this unit while learning your second language? Discuss.

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MODULE 2

Unit 1	Performance in Language Learning
Unit 2	Error Analysis I
Unit 3	Error Analysis II
Unit 4	Contrastive Analysis
Unit 5	Discourse Analysis
Unit 6	Corpora Linguistics
Unit 7	Forensic Linguistics

UNIT 1 PERFORMANCE IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

CONTENTS

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3.3	Theories of Language Learning
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is a continuation of what you learnt in module 1, unit 7 where you were introduced to psycholinguistics and language learning. You were told that psycholinguistics is one of the subfields of applied linguistics and that it is not only important for Applied Linguistics (AL) but also for other areas of language work. You also learnt that the principal concern of psychology of language is to give an account of the psychological processes that go on when people produce or understand utterances- that is, the investigation of language performance. You were also taught the differences and similarities between language acquisition and language learning and that the issue of performance in language learning will be discussed in this unit. I think you now remember some of the things we talked about in the last unit.

This unit, as mentioned above, is a continuation of module 1, unit 7, which is on psycholinguistics. Corder (1973:115) states two problems that psycholinguistics concerns itself with. These are language acquisition and language performance. Language performance has to do with the psychological processes that go on when people use sentences. The language skills that scholars commonly refer to are listening, speaking reading and writing. As labelled categories, they do not take care of what goes on in the head. We still have to rely on psycholinguists to tell us what goes on when people actually use language. Corder notes that there are two types of performance-productive (the ones we say or do) and receptive performance (the ones we listen to or are exposed to). Before we go on, let us look at what you are expected to be able to do after you have completed reading through this unit. Below are some of the objectives of this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe productive and receptive types of performance
- discuss briefly what is meant by language learning and language teaching strategies.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Productive and Receptive Performance

Production and performance are two basic activities that human beings engage in during language learning. The language teacher should not approach his/her work based on the teaching of speaking, hearing, writing and reading alone because the pupils are already familiar with these in their mother tongue. Learning to read and write presupposes the ability to speak and hear- that is the possession of some verbal behaviour. The language teacher does not start from the scratch because the learner already has a base on which the teacher can build the new language activities. He/she only needs to extend this skill in the pupils relatively to a particular level (Corder (1973). For example, one can read and make meaning of writing in a language that has some Roman alphabets because one knows the alphabets.

Reading involves different levels of activity or different kinds of skills. When you read to yourself, you are processing the written material in a number of highly complex ways. You recognise the sentences and understand the message. You internalise the message. You can be said to be doing some form of receptive performance. Listening implies giving attention and it involves one's awareness of the language activity

going on around one. One should be able to detect the differences in pitch and duration. One must be able to detect differences in the quality of sound. It is a receptive performance.

In speaking, we need the skill to make use of our organs in such a way that we are able to control all the sounds that we produce. We should be able to monitor our own production. This is a productive performance and the ability to monitor our own production is what Corder refers to as auditory feedback. He notes that deaf speakers often take on certain peculiarities of sound because of the lack of the monitoring process.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Explain what you understand by productive and receptive performance in language learning.

3.2 Process of Language Learning

Language learning is in stages. It is like a child learning to walk. He/she starts by crawling. The child then tries to stand, takes one step, then two, three until he/she is able to have a balanced movement. Language learning starts with recognition of different features of the language and this leads to identification and use of grammatically and semantically well-formed sentences in the language.

3.2.1 Recognition

Recognition is important in the psychology of perception. It is an active process which extends beyond the level of sounds, intonation patterns and rhythms of language to groups of sounds or lexical words. Corder (1973:118-122) claims that the process is also called sentence identification-analysis by synthesis. He notes that the criticism of this procedure is that it suggests that in order to identify a sentence, we must first analyse it completely and see if the structure of the sentence can be generated by the rules of the grammar we have internalised. Sutherland (1966) suggests that we do not have to go through that cumbersome process but sample or predict the structure of the utterance and act accordingly. That is, we should go into the next phase of the performance. This accounts for why we often have to go over what we have read before or listened to when we make mistakes in our receptive processing of utterances.

3.2.2 Identification

Corder notes that identification is the process of recognising utterances as grammatically and semantically well formed. He further notes that it

is not enough to identify utterances as grammatical but linguistic terms, we have to internalise not only the grammatical but also the lexical rules. These are rules that have to do with the semantic structure of the language with its internal sense relations. Corder (1973) reports on Laver (1970) who identifies five chief functions in speech production, which can be described as neuro-linguistic. These are **ideational** (initiates the appropriate semantic content of any verbal message, **planning** process (constructs an appropriate linguistic programme for the expression of the idea. The remaining processes are the **permanent storage** of linguistic information, the **execution** of the programme which is the actual set of articulatory actions; and the **monitoring** function which is simultaneous with the execution.

3.3 Theories of Language Learning

Some theories of language learning were discussed in module 1, unit 2. You will get to know a few more in this section as they relate to performance in language learning. Researchers ask questions on how the child and the learner acquire language skills. The answers to their questions border on the theories of language acquisition and learning. Below are some of them.

3.3.1 Language Learning

Language learning is a process whereby certain combinations of words and intonation of voice are strengthened and are gradually made to occur in appropriate situations by the process of discrimination learning (Corder, 1973). A speaker of any language can produce new sentences and utterances all the time, which shows that the learner interacts with his/her environment. This interaction helps him/her to have new language experiences that make demands on him/her to either describe them or relate with other people concerning them. In learning a new language, a learner also makes new utterances depending on the situation. The learner, however, builds on the repertoire of his/her previous knowledge of the first language. The learning of language must be related to the learning and knowledge of the world. Language learning can be seen from two perspectives- inductive learning and deductive learning.

3.3.2 Inductive Learning

Inductive learning is 'the creation and storage of abstract internal representations (linguistic information) through a process of generalisation, classification and association'. (Corder, 1973:128) The inductive theory of language learning is based on the assumption that verbal behaviour is not different in kind from other behaviour and is

acquired in fundamentally the same way (Skinner, 1957). Corder (1973:129) notes that by processes of conditioning, imitation, practice, generalisation and reinforcement, the learner is able to process information and learn.

3.3.3 Deductive Learning

According to Corder (1973:128), deductive learning is the discovery of the linguistic information to be stored by a process of applying to the data some inborn theory about language. Corder refers to some set of readymade inherited categories or concepts common to all human language (linguistic universals). He refers to this latter theory as the nativist hypothesis which is based on three considerations; first, all human language in spite of their obvious superficial differences, show remarkable superficial similarities; second, the process of constructing a theory from the data, i.e. the inductive theory would take too long, third, that the data on which it works is too distorted and partial for the purpose.

The deductive theory assumes that language is peculiar to human beings-that they are born with a specific programme for acquiring it. To Skinner (1957), it is learned by some sort of data-processing by heuristic (aiding or guiding) processes of hypothesis formation and testing; that language is a matter of rule-governed behaviour, not responses but rules for making responses.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Explain what you understand by the process of language learning.

3.4 Language Learning and Language Teaching

Many scholars have researched on language learning but according to Corder the development of language teaching methods have been a little bit controversial. Scholars have noted that most teachers in classrooms try to adopt some methods of teaching, which were not consistent with the language learning theories that have earlier on been discussed. Corder noted that teachers have continued to use teaching procedures such as imitation, drill, formal practice and over-learning of sentence patterns. He further notes that this method has been accompanied by what is considered the traditional techniques of exemplification, rule giving, description and translation, which are more appropriate to a deductive than an inductive theory of learning.

Teachers have probably noticed some deficiencies in the theories and have therefore decided to stick to the techniques which seem to be

working for them and their students. To the teachers, the techniques they use are as good as the newer techniques which emphasise audiovisual. In short, teachers seem to be using an eclectic approach to get the best from their pupils. Recently, however, with the advent of computer facilities, there has been a lot of research on how to use the computer to aid learning. This is fast gaining grounds in many advanced countries and this has led to a shift in emphasis from the traditional method to some other modern methods of teaching. You will be introduced to this in one of the units latter on in this course.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have talked about performance in language learning and that performance has to do with the psychological processes that go on when people use sentences. The process of language learning involves recognition and identification and that the speech production functions involved in identification are ideational, planning, execution, monitoring and storage. Inductive and deductive learning are some of the learning theories that we have. You have learnt about some other learning theories in module 1, unit 2.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- two problems that psycholinguistics concerns itself with are language acquisition and language performance
- there are two types of performance-productive (the ones we say or do) and receptive performance (the ones we listen to or are exposed to).
- In speaking, we need the skill to make use of our organs in such a way that we are able to control all the sounds that we produce
- language learning is a process whereby certain combinations of words and intonation of voice are strengthened and are gradually made to occur in appropriate situations by the process of discrimination learning
- recognition is important in the psychology of perception; it is an active process which extends beyond the level of sounds, intonation patterns and rhythms of language to groups of sounds or lexical words
- identification is the process of recognising utterances as grammatically and semantically well formed
- scholars have noted that most teachers in classrooms try to adopt some methods of teaching which were not consistent with the language learning theories that have earlier on been discussed

- recently, however, with the advent of computer facilities, there has been a lot of research on how to use the computer to aid learning

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. You happened to be invited as a student who has studied applied linguistics to give instructions on how to use inductive method of learning to teach a class of primary two pupils the prepositions – ‘in’ and ‘on’. What will you do and how will you do it?
2. Describe how you will use the deductive type of teaching to teach your younger sister who is in primary five a topic on common nouns.

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UNIT 2 ERROR ANALYSIS 1

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Lapses, Mistakes and Errors
 - 3.2 Expressive and Receptive Errors
 - 3.3 The Errors of Groups and Individuals
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 4.0 Summary
- 5.0 Tutor-Marked Assignments
- 6.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the last two units, you were introduced to psycholinguistics and performance in language learning. You were told that language performance and language acquisition are two principal concerns of psychology of language or psycholinguistics. In this unit, you will be introduced to 'error analysis'. Many people think that when you talk about language learning, all you do is analyse learners' errors. There is more to it than that. P.S Corder (1973) and a few others will be discussed in this unit because of the relevance of errors in Applied Linguistics (AL).

In this unit, as mentioned above, we shall look at- error analysis, its place in second language learning and teaching in a second language environment; and we shall look at types of errors as well. This is a topic that has almost been over flogged in AL but which still has to be looked into. A lot of earlier scholars have worked on error analysis and have made a lot of contributions to teaching and learning procedures in many countries. We shall briefly go through this unit and the next on error analysis.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain and distinguish between lapses, mistakes and errors
- discuss the importance of error analysis in second language teaching.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Lapses, Mistakes and Errors

Corder notes that one of the ways of comparing languages is interlingual comparison which is commonly called contrastive comparison. This will be fully discussed in unit four. Another type of comparison is error analysis which will be discussed in this unit and the next. Corder sees the term 'Error Analysis' as a misleading one because to him, 'errors' made by the learner may be an important part of the data on which this sort of comparison is made - what is being compared is the language of the learner at some particular point in his/her course with the target language. To Corder, a learner's errors are 'systematic' and it is precisely this regularity which shows that the learner is following a set of rules which are not those of the target language but a transitional form of language which is also similar to his mother tongue. The description of the transitional language is based on the errors made.

Selinker (1969) notes that, through the study of learner's utterances, we attempt to describe this transitional language or 'interlanguage'. This description can then be compared with the description of the target language. The differences then become the residual learning tasks of the learner. Contrastive comparison discovers the differences between the first and second languages and predicts that there will be learning problems. Error analysis 'studies the nature of those errors and confirms or refutes the predictions of contrastive analyses.

It is important to note that all learners make mistakes. We all make mistakes when we speak but the ability to correct ourselves is another thing. A learner may recognise his/her mistakes and when his/her attention is drawn to them, he/she may not be able to correct himself/herself or may even commit another error in trying to do so. Corder notes that majority of learner's errors are linguistically different from those made by a native speaker. Foreign and second language learners make mistakes and this differentiates them from native speakers. A foreigner tries to restrict himself to only those linguistic items that he knows so that he will not make too many mistakes. A native speaker may take this for competence in the language behaviour of the foreigner. A speaker cannot be judged on the basis of fluency because it is a quality which varies both in foreigners and native speakers within the speech situation and the topic of conversation.

Corder notes that the quality of mistakes a learner makes cannot be used to measure his/her knowledge of the language. It is the most important source of information about the nature of his/her knowledge. The errors reveal his/her areas of need as they give a full picture of the problem

areas in his/her language learning. The mistakes made by native speakers and learners of a language are different. A native speaker can have several omissions within a sentence. Below is an example:

It's a bit ... it hasn't...I mean, I wouldn't really come to have one like that (Corder, 1973:257).

Slips of the tongue or slips of pen are common in the speech of native speakers. These kinds of mistakes could involve substitution, transposition or omission of some segment of an utterance, such as speech sound, a morpheme, a word or a phrase, e.g. *It didn't bother me in the least-slightes.*

Corder (1973: 258) refers to Boomer and Laver (1968) who says that by studying slips, linguists are able to infer the relevant properties of an observable system on the basis of its output characteristics. Native speakers frequently make slips or false starts or confusion of structure which can be called lapses. Real errors that involve breaking codes are not always committed by native speakers.

In summary of the arguments of Corder (1973) on lapses, mistakes and errors, the following can be deduced:

1. Ordinarily, speech and writing is liable to breakdown or failure.
2. That the breakdowns are not just random but systematic and that they arise from psychological and physiological causes or from imperfect knowledge of the linguistic norms of some group.
3. The great majority of learners' errors are of different kinds.
4. These result in unacceptable utterances and appear as breaches of the code.
5. Errors are a sign of an imperfect knowledge of the code, meaning that learners have not yet internalised the formation rules of the second language.
6. Native speakers are able to correct their own errors but learners may not be able to do so. Corder, therefore, avers that it is not proper to refer to learners' errors as breaches of the code, adding that you cannot break a rule you do not know.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Distinguish between lapses, mistakes and errors.

3.2 Expressive and Receptive Errors

Every speaker needs to be guided by the rules that guide the formation of sentences. It is easy to detect expressive errors because when the

learner speaks, it will be glaring. Corder (1973: 261) notes that it is much easier to detect imperfect knowledge or errors in the case of expressive behaviour. The errors are observable and can be recorded and analysed. Receptive behaviour does not show easily. At times, the hearer does not have to respond. At times, their smiles, grunts or other paralinguistic behaviour, responding to orders or following instructions do not reveal their inadequacies when utterances are misinterpreted, it may show in their responses. It may be the response that will show that the utterance has been misinterpreted.

There are errors in comprehension, even in the classroom, and these may show in their written work. That is why teachers in examinations and tests, give sections that will test the pupils understanding of concepts, passage, text in item of lexis. It may however be difficult to identify the linguistic causes of such errors. Many people believe that a person's receptive abilities supersede his expressive abilities. Many studies conducted in error analysis have been on the productive abilities of participants i.e. written tests, speech etc. Corder(1973) avers that more attention is paid to the replies of the learner than his language.

3.3 The Errors of Groups and Individuals

Pupils come to school and attend classes as individuals and not as groups. The mistakes they make are therefore as individuals and not as groups. When tests are given, the analysis is based on the work of the group. Occasionally, teachers (in SL situations) themselves make grammatical mistakes and pronunciation or spelling errors and learners repeat the teacher's mistakes. These mistakes will still be taken to be from the learners.

Even though pupils are different, programmes are designed based on what is common to the group. Corder notes that the information that is got from the study of errors is in part used for constructing appropriate syllabuses and teaching materials. The applied linguist takes care of those errors that are common to the group and uses this for the planning of the language curriculum. The factors responsible for the errors are examined so that they can be taken care of in planning the syllabus in order that the applied linguist can know the source of the problem. The errors may show a variety of different deviations, which could be noted for planning purposes.

A point to note in the study of errors is that it is possible to find out that it is actually a part of the language that is difficult for learners to understand and use well. Difficulty can arise as a result of the interaction between the languages and not because of anything inherent in the language. For example, the native speakers of a language may

find it difficult because of a lot of structural elements which may be difficult for him to comprehend. It may however be a different stage for a child learning two languages together as mother tongue. Corder (1973: 264) reports certain normal processes of language learning such as generalisations which are independent errors when applied to the data of a language. The use of some teaching materials may cause learners to have some errors or a particular set of errors.

Syllabuses are usually designed to cater for the number of homogenous groups with the assumption that their background knowledge of the formation of rules of that language is the same. This, I think, is not so because some of them may actually come from different geopolitical zones. Their maturity is also taken for granted because of their age, intelligence, etc and this also may not be so but there is hardly anything that language planners can do about this. This may also happen where there is especially a minimum age when pupils are supposed to start formal education.

However, with a multilingual nation like Nigeria, where people of different languages attend the same classes in some areas, the linguistic divergence may be much and pupils may be producing different kinds of errors based on their mother tongues. Nevertheless, it will still be difficult to create different syllabi for the different pupils from different languages, cultural and socio-economic backgrounds based on the knowledge of their errors.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Differentiate between the two types of errors that Corder (1973) identified.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have been able to go through lapses mistakes and errors in this unit. You were also taught the types of errors and how to respond to them.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- one of the ways of comparing languages is interlingua comparison, which is commonly called contrastive comparison
- another type of comparison is error analysis
- Corder sees the term ‘error analysis’ as a misleading one because to him, ‘errors’ made by the learner may be an important part of the data on which this sort of comparison is made

- a learner's errors are 'systematic' and it is precisely this regularity which shows that the learner is following a set of rules which are not those of the target language
- a learner may recognise his mistakes and when his attention is drawn to them, he may not be able to correct himself or may even commit another error in trying to do so
- it is easy to detect expressive errors because when the learner speaks, it will be glaring
- pupils come to school and attend classes as individuals and not as groups; the mistakes they make are therefore as individuals and not as groups.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Your aunty teaches a multilingual class and she complains about the inability of the students to pronounce some words correctly and also about their grammatical mistakes. Based on your knowledge of errors, how will you help to solve the problem?

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UNIT 3 ERROR ANALYSIS II

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Data for Analysis
 - 3.2 Preliminaries to the Description of Errors
 - 3.3 The Linguistic Description of Errors
 - 3.4 Miscue Analysis
 - 3.4.1 Grapho/Phonic System
 - 3.4.2 Semantic System
 - 3.4.3 Syntactic System
 - 3.5 The Practical Uses/Relevance of Errors
 - 3.6 The Theoretical Uses of Error Analysis
 - 3.7 Mistakes of Performance
 - 3.8 The Correction of Errors
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the last unit, you were introduced to ‘error analysis’. You were told that many scholars have worked on error analysis and that Corder (1973) is one of the earliest scholars who worked on error analysis. You were also told that, Corder sees the term ‘error analysis’ as a misleading one because to him, ‘errors’ made by the learner may be an important part of the data on which a comparison is made. What is being compared is the language of the learner at some particular point in his course with the target language. In this unit, we shall still be talking about error analysis but we shall be looking at some other ways by which some other scholars have perceived learners’ errors.

In this unit, you will be introduced to linguistic description of errors, miscue analysis and its application to learners’ use of language, practical uses of errors etc. There is a way that learners’ errors can be used to assist learners instead of perceiving them in a negative light. Errors can be very useful in taking decisions for language teaching and learning. We shall, however, start with the data for analysis and the description of errors.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the various levels of descriptions of errors and how to analyse them
- explain the practical uses of errors in language teaching and learning.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Data for Analysis

It has been highlighted early on that the purpose of error analysis is to describe the nature of the learner's interlanguage and to compare it with the target language and this explains why error analysis is a branch of comparative linguistic study. This was buttressed by Brown (1994) cited in Darus and Subramanian (2009) that error analysis emphasizes "the significance of errors in learners' interlanguage. It is the systematic knowledge of an L2 as independent of both the learners' L2 and L1.

Corder notes that the pressure on the learner to use the target language would have made data collection easy in that, the learner would have been asked to express himself in his mother tongue and his utterances can then be translated into the target language. But since this is not always possible, there has to be a lot of inferences on what he intends to say in a particular context and whatever we know about him and the knowledge around him. Corder refers to this kind of re-construction as plausible reconstruction. Coherence is important in utterances as incoherence may result from inadequate knowledge of the orthographic system in a native speaker who is learning to write. Where the data collected is incoherent, it has to be discarded.

3.2 Preliminaries to the Description of Errors

Error analysis is performed on learners' spontaneous language e.g. essays, compositions, speech, stories, etc. Scholars have noted that the key to error analysis is the systematic nature of language and, consequently, of errors are of two types: those that can be predicted and those that cannot be predicted. A learner is in different stages of learning and errors can occur at these stages of learning which can be analysed. In a learner's pre-systematic stage, the learner cannot correct his/her errors or explain what is wrong. At the systematic stage, the correction of the learner may be an attempt to find out, or be able to explain what is happening. At this stage, he/she must have been familiar with the internal structure of the language. Corder notes that at the pre-systematic

stage, he/she can correct his/her errors and explain why he/she committed the error.

3.3 The Linguistic Description of Errors

In error analysis, we compare similar sentences in the learner's dialect and the target language. It is like expressing the same thing in two languages. One of the objectives of error analysis is the linguistic part of the descriptive process. Below is an example of a sentence with the omission of an article from Corder (1973: 277).

I was told: there is bus stop/ I was told: there is a bus stop.

In the sentence, there is an error in terms of the omission but the explanation is not full. A full description will explain the error in terms of the linguistic process or rules which are being followed by the speaker.

Another is:

*I have a great difficulty in...
I have great difficulty in....*

The difference in the sentences above can be classified into two: one, omission of a required element and addition of an unnecessary or incorrect element. Other differences in other utterances could be selection of an incorrect element and mis-ordering of elements depending on the kind of errors found. We can also determine the different linguistic, orthographic/phonological, syntactic and lexico-semantic features in learners' contributions. By doing this, we are applying some theoretical framework to our analysis. Some sentences may be ambiguous in the following:

*If you don't know the meaning, ask a dictionary
The intended meaning might be
If you don't know the meaning, ask for a dictionary.
Or If you don't know the meaning, consult a dictionary.*

It is difficult to know whether the error is an incorrect lexical selection. (i.e. ask for, consult or an incorrect categorisation of ask (i.e. that 'ask' is a member of the class of verbs which require a prepositional complement) Corder (1973: 279).

Apart from this error of omission of article cited in Corder (1973), in a recent study in Malaysia by Darus and Subramaniam (2009), various

learners' errors were identified. These errors are categorised as follows: mistake with number (singular and plural), mistake with verb tense (e.g. inappropriate verb construction), word choice, preposition, subject-verb agreement (wrong combination of subject and verb), word order (e.g. disordering/inversion of subject and verb).

- The food to cater to the students during recess are not enough (inappropriate preposition)
- We need to be careful because it dealing with health
- Not washing and sweeping the flour everyday makes the floor dirty (wrong word choice)
- So many dirty plates and glasses are serves (inappropriate verb tense)
- We don't know why we are facing the problems. (Wrong word order)

It should be noted that this situation is not far-fetched in Nigeria, looking at the result of various researchers on error analysis such as, Tomori (1963; 1967)Afolayan (1968), Banjo (1969), Olagoke (1975) etc., it was noted that Yoruba learners of English had a number of technical weaknesses such as; wrong use of concord, prepositions, definite articles and tenses. You will notice that these results are not so different from the results of some other scholars on the same issue around the globe. In the next section, we shall look at how some other scholars perceive errors, and this takes us to miscue analysis.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What do you understand by the linguistic description of errors?

3.4 Miscue Analysis

The term 'miscue analysis' was coined by Goodman (1969);this approach is based on three cueing systems he believed underlay the reading process: Grapho/phonic (the relationship of letters to sound system), syntactic (the syntax/grammar system) and semantic (the meaning system). Miscue analysis refers to a process of diagnosing a child's reading. It is based on the premise of analysing the errors a reader makes during oral reading. It is a tool for closely looking at the types of reading strategies a reader uses. When a reader reads orally, the teacher learns a great deal about whether the reader is making sense of what is being read. This also gives the listener clues about how familiar or unfamiliar the reader finds the subject matter. Using the miscue analysis method, a teacher/parent will be much more capable of assisting those children/learners who experience difficulty.

3.4.1 Grapho/phonic system

Each of the errors made by a learner is coded for all three cueing systems, Goodman (1969). For example, miscue with effective grapho/phonic similarity is:

<i>waist</i>	<i>wrist</i>
<i>straightened</i>	<i>strengthened</i>
<i>owing</i>	<i>owning</i>
<i>detriment</i>	<i>determent</i>

Examples of miscues with partial grapho/phonic similarity

<i>present</i>	<i>patient</i>
<i>fortitude</i>	<i>fortunate</i>
<i>sedately</i>	<i>sadly</i>
<i>acclimatisation</i>	<i>accumulation</i>

Examples of miscues with little or no similarities:

<i>present</i>	<i>perched</i>
<i>almost</i>	<i>awfully</i>
<i>usual</i>	<i>surface</i>

A teacher should take note of the kinds of words that can easily be mistaken for other words and specifically teach them so that right from the beginning, the students will know the difference between the words at the grapho/phonic level.

3.4.2 Semantic System

The acceptability of meaning of the text is considered here. Semantic strength of the text is high when the original meaning of sentence is relatively unchanged. Most miscues may modify the meaning to some extent when they are close to the author's meaning. There is partial miscue when the miscue is appropriate within a single sentence or part of sentence but not within the overall context. The meanings of words should be specifically taught so that learners will make very few mistakes. Words that have similar pronunciation, but with different meanings should be given special attention.

Some miscues with high semantic acceptability:

<i>violent</i>	<i>volcanic</i>
<i>disruptive</i>	<i>destructive</i>
<i>afford</i>	<i>offer</i>

Examples of partial semantic acceptability:

<i>pigeons</i>	<i>penguins</i>
<i>rewarded</i>	<i>regarded</i>
<i>species</i>	<i>special</i>

Example of poor semantic acceptability:

<i>pigeons</i>	<i>pigments</i>
<i>owner</i>	<i>over</i>
<i>present</i>	<i>parent</i>

3.4.3 Syntactic System

The grammatical appropriateness of miscue in the context of the sentence is considered here. It is either appropriate or not.

Examples of miscues that is syntactically appropriate:

(send him as a) present or patient
(he had huge) arms or hands
fully (mature) finally

Examples of miscues that are not syntactically appropriate:

(was quite) devoid (of hair)
(both) sides (of his face) besides
(a) giggle (of ironic laughter) greater (All examples from)

3.5 The Practical Uses/Relevance of Errors

The teacher benefits from the knowledge of the pupils' errors in that he/she is able to structure his/her teaching to meet those needs. Errors provide feedback to learning instructions. The effectiveness of the teacher's teaching technique, instructional materials are seen through the errors. The errors reveal parts of the learning tasks that have not been fully comprehended by the pupils. This information on errors will help him/her to direct the areas that need to be re-taught before going onto the next topic. It also helps in designing syllabuses for remedial work on the areas not understood.

There have been several other comments on the relevance and practical uses of errors in second language learning or acquisition. For example, Ancker (2000) cited in Darus(2009), submits that committing mistakes are a neutral process of learning and must be considered as part of cognition. Weiressh (1991) considers learners' errors important

because the making of errors is a device the learners use in order to learn. Thus, error analysis is a valuable tool to identify and explain difficulties learners face. It can also be used as a guide or reliable feedback to design a remedial teaching method.

3.6 The Theoretical Uses of Error Analysis

For the applied linguist, the provision of a scientific approach to the practical problem provides a feedback to the theory. The psychologist will predict that the problem of errors could be the nature of the mother tongue of the learner as a second language. The applied linguist makes a comparative study of both languages and identifies certain features of the second language which are different from the first. Corder specifically notes that the study of errors is part of an experiment to confirm or disprove the psycholinguistic theory of transfer.

Corder (1973: 267) notes that the following important point in his write-up on the study of errors:

The study of errors is part of the methodology of the study of language learning. In this respect, it resembles very closely the study of the acquisition of the mother tongue. As we have seen, it is by collecting and analysing the utterance of the infant that the psycholinguist infers something of the acquisition process. He does this by logging the changes in the utterances of a single child over a period of time.

The psychologist may start off with the initial hypothesis that there must be something in common in the development of all children acquiring the same mother tongue and something common to all children and infants learning human languages. This will lead to the discovery of universals in child language. This, Corder notes is the same in studying or the learning of a second language. Corder (1973:267) puts this succinctly in the extract below.

The study of errors then is part of the psycholinguistic search for the universal process of second language learning... It is hypothesized, and some evidence is now available, that children do follow a similar course in the acquisition of their mother tongue. There are of course various factors involved- intelligence, social background, differential exposure to language data, etc which may complicate the picture but the assumption has solid foundation.

The pertinent question that Corder asks is whether speakers of the mother tongue learning a second language all follow the same course of development. To Corder, the inferring factors are motivation,

intelligence, social background, knowledge of the world, and an externally imposed syllabus for teaching language skills.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Discuss the practical and theoretical uses of errors?

3.7 Mistakes of Performance

The learner can also make mistakes by breaking speaking rules, i.e. using inappropriate language. Corder notes that this can be referential or stylistic. To him, reference is that relation that holds between linguistic forms and objects or events (or classes of these) in the world outside. For example, when a learner makes inappropriate choice- e.g., using 'hills' for 'mountains', this is referential. Stylistic mistakes are also made by native speakers. These have to do with familiarity with the language. Learning the appropriate use of features of the mother tongue has to be in relation to social, technical and emotional differences in situations. The use of some stylistic features of language at times shows one's membership of some group, family, profession, caste class, etc. For details and more explanations on errors, see Corder(1973).

3.8 The Correction of Errors

Corder's position on language learning is that it is a process of discovering the underlying rules, categories and system of choice in the language through some sort of processing by the learner. The technique of correction of errors requires that the teacher understands the source of the errors so that he/she can provide appropriate data and other information which will help resolve the learner's problems. Corder concludes this section by saying – 'skill in correction of errors lies in the direction of exploiting the incorrect forms produced by the learner in a controlled fashion (Corder1973:267).

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, you have been able to go through the second unit on error analysis which focuses on the linguistic description of errors, miscue analysis, mistakes and correction of errors.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt that:

- in error analysis, we compare similar sentences in the learner's language and the target language
- one of the objectives of error analysis is the linguistic part of the descriptive process
- semantic strength of the text is high when the original meaning of sentence is relatively unchanged
- the term miscue analysis was coined by Goodman (1969).
- miscue analysis refers to a process of diagnosing a child's reading
- it is based on the premise of analysing the errors a reader makes during oral reading
- for the applied linguist, the provision of a scientific approach to the practical problem provides a feedback to the theory
- the technique of correction of errors requires that the teacher understands the source of the errors so that he/she can provide appropriate data and other information which will help resolve the learner's problems.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain the linguistic description of errors and miscue analysis.

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UNIT 4 CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
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 - 3.2 Some Major Issues on Contrastive Analysis
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the last two units, you were introduced to error analysis and some assumptions about pupils' errors. This unit is a very important unit because it talks about what happens when languages come in contact with each other. You will also learn a few things about the L2 environment, what happens in adult studies and some other areas of language learning. In Module 2, Unit 2, you were introduced to Corder (1973) who notes that one of the ways of comparing languages is Interlingua comparison which is commonly called contrastive comparison. It is a process of comparing two languages. The references at the end of the unit are important, but you need to still source for more materials on the internet to augment what you have, as this is the mark of a good student.

Dulay *et al.* (1982:96) note that the first language has always been seen as the learner's major problem in learning a new language but that in recent years, the emphasis on the L1 being the problem has shifted to its being an enrichment of the learner's communicative repertoire. There have also been a lot discussions and controversies over the role of the first language in second language acquisition and recently research shows that the major impact the first language has on second language

acquisition may have to do with accent and not only with grammar or syntax.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe the contrastive analysis approach
- discuss the conditions that account for the premature use of L2.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

Contrastive analysis is the study of two languages with the aim of pointing out their structural differences and similarities for academic use or societal benefit etc. It was formulated in Lado's (1957) *Linguistics across Cultures* in which he noted that structures that are similar to the learner's first language structures will be easy to learn while those that are different will be difficult to learn. The Contrastive analysis hypothesis, which was a major topic in AL for about two decades, has finally given way to more current and more positive views on first language and second language acquisition. Even though it has given way to some other theories, it is good to know what it entails as some of the recent theories still have it as part of their underlying language teaching methodologies (Dulay *et al.*, 1982).

Contrastive Analysis (CA) states that 'where structures in the L1 differed from those in L2, errors that reflected the structures of L1, would be produced'. Dulay *et al.* (1982), note that such errors were said to be due to the influence of the learners L1 linguistic habits on L2 production. For example, a Yoruba speaker would say '*omo pupa*' - a fair complexioned person. An inadequate transfer of the structures, 'person fair' (light complexioned person) since the adjective comes after the noun. In Yoruba language, there is need for learners of Yoruba to know that in that construction, the reverse is the case in English. Even the lexical item '*pupa*' which means 'red' in Yoruba is not translated 'red' when it relates to complexion. There are even some direct transfers of structural forms the L1 to L2 that are still common among young people these days e.g.:

Is your mummy at home?
'Won sinile' (No, they are not at home).

'Won' (Yoruba) – 'they' in English is a plural pronoun which has been used for a singular person. This example is not just an instance of

transfer of accent but that of structure. That is why it is important to learn the structure of L2 so that there will be minimal interference from the L1.

This is probably why linguists claim that a comparison of a learner's L1 and L2 contrastive analysis- should reveal areas of difficulty for L2 students. This, they (researchers) noted, would help teachers and developers of L2 materials to provide specific guidelines for lesson planning. For many years, Dulay *et al.* affirm, that this theory appealed to researchers and teachers so much that all other body of data and research challenging it was ignored. Dulay *et al.* (1982), however, observe the following on examination of the available empirical data that addresses CA hypothesis:

- In neither child nor adult L2 performance do the majority of the grammatical errors reflect the learners L1.
- L2 learners make many errors in areas of grammar that are comparable in both L1 and L2 errors that should not be made if 'positive transfer' were operating.
- L2 learners' judgements of the grammatical correctness of L2 sentences are more related to L2 sentence types than to their own L1 structure.
- phonological errors exhibit more L1 influence than do grammatical errors, although a substantial number of the L2 phonological errors children make are similar to those made by monolingual first language learners, and only a small proportion of phonological errors in reading are traceable to the learners L1 (Dulay *et al.* 1982:97-98).

Dulay *et al.* claim that at the level of (product) findings show that at the level of performance, the CA hypothesis has emerged as a weak theory on learner performance data. At the level of process, they noted that the issue of negative and positive transfer should be questioned. Dulay *et al.* (1982) also note that the work of Charles Fries (1945) created enthusiasm for CA in foreign materials (p.9). These scholars also note that part of the rationale for the hypothesis was drawn from principles of behaviourist (stimulus- response) psychology which were the accepted learning principles at that time but which have since been shown inadequate to explain language learning [Chomsky (1959), R. Brown (1973), Fodor, Beverly, and Garrett, (1974) etc.]. The data used, which was linguistic borrowing and switching, have also been found to be inappropriate for L1 interference and L2 acquisition. So many other theories on language learning have evolved, some of which will be discussed in some other units in this course.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Contrastive analysis is a systematic study of two languages. Yes/No.
- ii. Contrastive analysis is only interested in the differences between two languages. Yes/No.
- iii. The term contrastive analysis came to being as a result of the work of Fodor (1953) Yes/No.
- iv. Charles Fries (1945), Dulay *et al.* (1982) are some of the scholars who have worked in the area of contrastive analysis. Yes/No.

3.2 Some Major Issues on Contrastive Analysis (CA)

3.2.1 Interference and Transfer

Interference refers to two very distinct linguistic phenomena; psychological and sociolinguistic. Dulay *et al.* (1982) aver that the psychological use of the term interference refers to the influence of old habits when new ones are being learned while the sociolinguistic use, i.e. interference, refers to language interactions, such as linguistic borrowing and language switching that occur when two language communities are in contact. There was however confusion in the definitions of interference by Weinreich (1953) and Haugen (1953).

The CA hypothesis states that ‘interference is due to unfamiliarity with L2, that is, the learner not having learned the patterns of the target language very well’.

Weinreich and Haugen’s discussion on when and why interference occurs is different from that of CA; to Weinreich, when speakers are bilinguals, interference in the bilingual’s speech is uninhibited. He notes further that when the other interlocutor is also bilingual, the requirements of intelligibility and status assertion are drastically reduced and this removes any hindrances to interference (Dulay *et al.* (1982:100). Haugen (1953) also observes that ‘linguistic borrowing...is a thing that has happened whenever there have been bilinguals’.

3.2.2 Child Studies

Dulay and Burt (1974) worked on the natural speech of children and analysed over 500 grammatical errors made by 175 children learning English in US schools. The results showed that less than five percent (5%) of the errors observed reflected the children’s first language-Spanish. Some other empirical studies have shown that children place limited reliance on the structure of the mother tongue when learning second language in a host environment (Dulay *et al.*, 1982:102). Some

other researchers who have worked on child studies are Ervin-Tripp 1974, Boyd (1975) Wode (1976) etc. All the researchers mentioned above commented on low incidence of inter-lingual errors. To them, most of the errors appeared to be developmental. They are the type of errors that could be made by children learning those languages as their first language.

In Nigeria, several scholars have carried out research on the structure of the Yoruba language and the English language. Among the earliest writers is Banjo (1969) who carried out a contrastive study of some of the syntactic and lexical rules of English and Yoruba within the framework of transformational generative grammar, particularly as proposed by Chomsky. His aim was to show the likely areas of difficulty for Yoruba learners of English. He found that in the phrase structure rules of English and Yoruba, the differences are the presence of the element tense and other affixes in English and the absence of these in Yoruba and thus showed that the use of inflections for marking various word forms and syntactic relations in the language may be problematic for its Yoruba learners. Some others who have worked on the problems of teaching and learning English in Nigeria are Tomori (1963, 1967); Afolayan (1968); Banjo (1969), etc.

3.2.3 Adult Studies

Dulay *et al.* (1982:103) assert that studies conducted on the speech and writings of adults, learning English as a second language, revealed that the majority of non-phonological errors observed for adults do not reflect the first language; but that the proportion of errors found in similar situations for children is somewhat less than that of adults. They noted that, approximately eight percent (8%) to 23% of the adults' errors which may be classified as interlingual studies, were conducted on the speech of adults learning English in the US and the compositions of native English speaking adults enrolled in Spanish and German foreign language university classes in the US (White, 1977), Lococo, 1975, 1976). Many other researchers, along this line, have also commented on the relatively small numbers of Interlingua errors in their observations. Most of the studies conducted were done in both host and foreign language environments.

Olagoke (1975) carried out an error analysis of the written English of Lagos University students in order to describe their approximations to well-formedness and find linguistic explanations for them. 200 essays of students from various faculties at the University of Lagos were analysed under major headings- syntactic, lexical, morphological and graph logical. He found that many of the students transfer the patterns and the features of their mother tongue to English with this leading to

phonological, syntactic and lexical deviations from Standard English. Some other scholars who worked in this area are Kerr and Ekundayo (1969), Horgan (1969) and Cowley (1972).

3.2.4 Sources of Interlingua Errors

Dulay *et al.* (1982:108), claim that interlingual errors of syntax and morphology occur in relatively small numbers in verbal performance of L2 learners and that a comprehensive account of L2 acquisition should be able to accommodate them. It is clear from the observation of Dulay *et al.* that their observations are not conclusive. They however made the following guesses that:

There are indications that interlingual errors are occasioned by at least two environmental factors: 1) conditions that result in premature use of the L2 and 2) certain elicitation tasks.

3.3 Conditions that Result in the Premature Use of the L2

Premature use of L2 is a situation where a learner uses the structures of L2 or uses the language when he/she has not been adequately exposed to the language. There are many situations that can lead to the premature use of L2 and some of these situations can be unavoidable ones. Below are some of them.

3.3.1 Pressure to Perform

The need to communicate in the target language before one has been exposed enough to it may pressurise a speaker of an L2 to use some of the structures in the L1. Living in the country of the target language also makes demands on the learner to quickly get exposed to the target language because a lot of the major language communication for jobs and social activities will require sophisticated verbal interaction in the new language. There could also be pressures from peers or colleagues in the target language environment that can make the learner speed up his/her attempts at learning the target language. For example an 8 year old Nigerian child who finds himself/herself in a British school will definitely be under pressure to use the language because his/her peers may be making jest of his/her Nigerian accent even if his/her use of the target language's grammatical structures are correct.

Dulay *et al.* (1982: 108) note that adults produce the new language long before they have been exposed to a sufficient amount of it to internalise the rudiments of its basic structure. They observe that children who have been observed to make fewer Interlingua errors than adults are usually not subjected to such pressures to perform in a second language.

Children in target language situations have been observed to go through a silent period of two or three months during which they go through a few routines. It is believed that children build some competence during the silent period through listening. Pressure on the learner to communicate quickly in the target language may force them to use the L1 along with L2 in communication. Newmark (1966) notes that learners fall back on the first language when they have not acquired enough of the second language.

3.3.2 Limited L2 Environments

Environmental factors that limit the scope and quality of second language learning include: 1) the absence of peers who speak the language natively and; 2) severely limited and often artificial conditions under which the language may be learned (Dulay *et al.*, 1982:109). For example, finding a few hours weekly to memorise vocabulary or dialogues and doing audio-lingual drills. These activities do not help much. Researchers have noted that they cannot be helped.

There are all kinds of foreign language immersion programmes meant to rectify some of the shortcomings of the foreign language context, as noted by Dulay *et al.*, which are meant to offer students real and extended communicative experiences in the second language by presenting the subject matter in a new language. For example, if an L2 speaker of English does not have enough exposure to the L2 and he/she wants to speak the language at all cost, may lead to premature use of the L2 because he/she would not have been exposed enough to the language.

3.3.3 The Elicitation Task

Dulay *et al.* (1982) claim that elicitation task refers to the manner in which spoken or written performance is elicited from the second language learner. The learner could be asked to translate a sentence or paragraph in his or her native language, or describe a scene or picture, or attempt a fill-in the blanks test. Dulay *et al.* notes that the proportion of interlingual errors changes with the elicitation task, especially translation, and they note that translation tasks tend to increase the L2 learner's reliance on first language structures. It also has the tendency of masking the processes that the learner uses for natural communication. A learner may engage in premature use of the L2 if he/she is given language tasks he/she has not learnt well.

3.3.4 Borrowing

Cultural and linguistic contacts in societal bilingualism give rise to two major phenomena and these are borrowing and code-switching. Borrowing, to Dulay *et al.* (1982), is the incorporation of linguistic material from one language to another. Borrowing is a normal consequence of languages in contact in multilingual societies (Weinrich 1953, Hangen(1953). Individual lexical items can be borrowed. English borrowed thousands of French words and other Latin based words were also borrowed. They are incorporated into the grammatical structure of the borrowing language. They are regarded as new words in the language. Dulay *et al.* refer to the words ‘maize’ and ‘tomato’ which were borrowed from the American languages. When borrowed words get learned by speakers within the community, it is referred to as integrated borrowings. An L2 learner may borrow prematurely and miss some concepts or spellings of words in the target language. For example, an L2 learner has been heard to say ‘come and listen to me. I want to tell you a useless thing’. The learner obviously wanted to say ‘a useful thing’.

3.3.5 Code Switching

This is an active process of incorporating material from both bilingual languages into communicative acts. It involves a speaker shifting from one language to the other. Indiscriminate mixing gives the impression that the speaker lacks control of the structure of both languages. However, Dulay *et al.*(1982:115) have a contrary opinion, claiming that code switching is most engaged in by those bilingual speakers who are the most proficient in both languages they speak. They note some specific sociolinguistic functions such as symbolising ethnic identification. In the absence of the right words to use, L2 learners sometimes code switch from their L2 to L1 to express themselves when it seems they are taking too much time. For example, a speaker can say:

*‘I ’ll stop by kin ba le find out ibite base de. Soo understand?
I’ll stop by to find out how far you have gone with the work. Do you understand?’*

The items in italics are from the Yoruba language. This is definitely a Yoruba speaker of English code switching from English to Yoruba in between sentences.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What are some of the major features/outcomes of child and adult studies in CA?

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have been able to discuss the contrastive analysis hypothesis, child and adult studies, conditions that result in premature use of L2 and the environmental factors that limit the scope and quality of second language learning.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- the Contrastive Analysis(CA) hypothesis which was a major topic in AL for about two decades has finally given way to more current and more positive views on first language and second language acquisition
- contrastive analysis states that ‘where structures in the L1 differed from those in L2, errors that reflected the structures of L1 would be produced’
- in neither child nor adult L2 performance do the majority of the grammatical errors reflect the learners L1
- phonological errors exhibit more L1influence than do grammatical errors, although a substantial number of the L2 phonological errors children make are similar to those made by monolingual first language learners, and only a small proportion of phonological errors in reading are traceable to the learners L1
- the CA hypothesis states that ‘interference is due to unfamiliarity with L2, that is, the learner not having learned the patterns of the target language very well’
- environmental factors that limit the scope and quality of second language learning include-the absence of peers who speak the language natively; and, severely limited and often artificial conditions under which the language may be learned

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What are some of the conditions that result in the premature use of the L2?
2. Imagine that you want to learn French as a second language and you are thirty-five years old ; what are some of the factors unique

to adult language learning that you have to take into consideration as you make your plans?

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UNIT 5 DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND APPLIED LINGUISTICS

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 - 3.4.1 Ethnography
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- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the last unit, you were taken through contrastive analysis which is a process of comparing two languages. In this unit, you will be taken through discourse analysis. Discourse analysts try to take note of patterning in language use and the circumstances surrounding such patterns (in terms of participants, situations, purposes, outcomes) of events associated with the language use. The discourse analyst does a deliberate and systematic study of language use by describing, interpreting and explaining what has been observed (Trappes-Lomax 2006:133). The principal concern of Applied Linguistics (AL) is the study of language in use as a goal of education, a means of education and an instrument of social change. It then becomes clear why discourse analysis is one of the topics to be studied in AL.

Life is all of discourse- from greetings, news items, television, newspapers, magazines, internet, CNN, classroom talk, casual conversations, lectures, markets, even football and other games. There is a whole range of contexts in which people engage in communication

every day. In fact, life will be very boring if nobody talks and we all go about our daily business without talking much to one another. As a result of this, discourse is studied in a number of disciplines and in different ways. McCarthy *et al.* (2002:55) notes that in AL, the most relevant body of work is that which has come to be known as discourse analysis (or text linguistics). They claim that the discourse analyst studies texts- whether written or spoken, long or short- and relate this to the context and situations that produce them. Discourse analysts examine real texts –naturally occurring conversations or text materials. Below are some of the objectives of this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss who does discourse analysis and why Discourse Analysis in AL
- describe the ways and means of doing discourse analysis.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is Discourse Analysis?

Discourse analysis is part of AL. It is a multidisciplinary field and has diversity of interests. Many scholars have worked in this area of study and as we move ahead, you will get to know some of them in this unit. Jaworski and Coupland (1999:3) assert that, for many linguists, ‘the interest in discourse is beyond language in use. It extends to language use relative to social, political and cultural formations, language reflecting and shaping social order and also shaping individual’s interaction with society’. A lot of books have been written in discourse analysis. Jaworski and Coupland (1999:6) note that the knowledge of the way we build language has become very important and there is a growth of linguistic interest in analysis of conversation, stories and written texts. They aver that we live in a changed political, social and technological environment in which we have post-modern world of service industry, advertising and communications media. In this kind of situation, discourse becomes work and the analysis of discourse becomes correspondingly more important.

Trappes-lomax (2006:134) sees discourse as the study of language viewed communicatively and /or of communication viewed linguistically. He notes the following definitions of discourse. Discourse analysis is:

1. The linguistic, cognitive and social processes whereby meanings are expressed and intentions interpreted in human interaction
2. The historically and culturally embedded sets of conventions which constitute and regulate such processes
3. A particular event in which such processes are instantiated
4. The product of such an event especially in the form of visible text, whether originally spoken and subsequently transcribed or originally written Trappes-lomax (2006:136)

These are views of different linguists on the description of discourse. Each of them described discourse based on their own particular fashion on theories and techniques of a number of disciplines for the study in language use-e.g. linguistics, psychology, pragmatics, sociolinguistics, sociology and anthropology.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What is discourse analysis?

3.2 Approaches to Discourse Analysis

McCarthy *et al.* (2002:59) note that discourse analysts come from a number of different academic disciplines and the field is a wide one. Below are the approaches that are directly related to applied linguistics and language education.

1. Sociology--- -----Conversational analysis
2. Sociolinguistics--- Ethnography
Interactional sociolinguistics
Variation theory
3. Philosophy -----Speech act theory
Pragmatics
4. Linguistics--- Structural/ functional---Birmingham school
--- Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

----Social semiotics ----SFL
---- Critical discourse analysis
5. Artificial intelligence

Some of these will be discussed below. The approaches discussed are the ones currently playing a major role in the various contexts of AL and language education.

3.3 Sociology-Conversational Analysis (CA)

This is concerned with the detailed organisation of everyday interaction. It focuses on class, gender, age, groups, culture, etc. It deals mainly with informal discourse. CA was started by Garfinkel's (1967) ethnomethodology and Goffman's (1974, 1981) frame analysis which grew into a significant field of enquiry by Sacks, Schegloff, Jefferson etc. Conversation analysis deals with turn taking, openings, and closings in conversations, progression in conversations.

3.3.1 Turn Taking

This is the basic unit of speech in an individual's contribution. A 'turn' is each occasion someone speaks and ends when another person takes over. The rules that people follow in turn-taking is important because this determines when another person starts speaking. It is important that speakers avoid overlap so that speakers can hear and understand one another. Scholars in conversation analysis also note what is called 'speaker selection' in that speakers are permitted to take their turns or they are chosen or nominated. There can be what is called 'self-selection'. This is where a speaker cuts in and starts speaking when he has not been nominated to speak. Context always determines ways by which speakers can get the next turn. You can have sentences such as 'by the way---', 'if I may come in---' 'Can I speak--' etc. Back channel communications are also important because it is a way of telling the listener that you are listening; examples are - 'huh', 'ehh' etc. There are also ways of predicting completion in conversations. All these features help to facilitate communication

3.3.2 Adjacency Pairs

These are pairs of turns that are dependent on one another-

*E.g. A: Good morning Bola
B: Good morning Tinu
A: How are you?
B: I'm fine. Thank you.*

The A parts are the first pair-parts while the B parts are the second pair-parts. These parts are governed by cultural or socio-cultural contexts e.g. a greeting gets a greeting back. If something else happens negatively, then communication breaks down and just as McCarthy *et al.* observe, it can be referred to as 'dis-preferred sequence' e.g.:

- A: Good morning
 B: Drop dead

They also mention solitary routines such as:

- A: I have a terrible headache
 B: Oh I'm so sorry can I do anything?

And converging pairs such as:

- A: I just love that green sweater
 B: Oh! So do I. Isn't it great? Pomerantz (1984)

Topic management is also important to discourse analysts. The strength of this approach is that it is always based on actual recorded data i.e. naturally occurring interactions that are well transcribed. This approach has always rejected experimental methods of collecting conversational data such as simulating dialogues or setting up artificial interactive contexts (McCarthy *et al.* 2002:62). It has always challenged discourse analysts to access the data offered by everyday life. The implication of this for language teachers is that language teachers should be given access to authentic spoken extracts (McCarthy *et al.*) because most examples in textbooks do not resemble real conversation at all; but they could get actual data, for example from the classroom.

3.4 Sociolinguistic Approaches: Ethnography and Variation Theory

McCarthy *et al.* assert that anthropological linguistics and sociolinguistics are concerned with studying not the isolated sentences but how language creates effective communication in the context of everyday life.

3.4.1 Ethnography

This approach was led by Hymes (1972), Saville-Troike (1989) and they are concerned with situation and uses of patterns and functions of speaking as an activity in its own right [(Hymes 1974:3) in McCarthy *et al.* (2002:63)]. Speech events include interactions such as a conversation at a party or ordering a meal. Hymes (1972) developed a speaking 'grid' which comprise several components. Below is Hymes (1972) speaking grid:

- S Setting temporal and physical /circumstances
 P Participant speaker/sender/addressor
 hearer/receiver/audience/addressee

E	Endspurposes and goals Outcomes
A	Act sequence message form and content
K	Key tone /manner
I	Instrumentalities channel (verbal and nonverbal; physical forms of speech drawn from community repertoires
N	Norms of interaction and interpretation specific properties attached to speakinginterpretation of norms within cultural belief system
G	Genretextual categories

This framework helped in the recognition of the close relationship between speech events and their social or cultural contexts. McCarthy et al. also aver that it broadens the notions of communicative competence.

3.4.2 Variation Theory

This theory was developed by Labov (1972) and has contributed, a lot, to discourse analysis. He describes the structure of spoken narratives which has been very influential in language teaching. Labov and Waletsky (1967) state the following as the overall structure of a fully formed narrative of personal experience.

- Abstract (summary of story with its points)
- Orientation (place /time and situation)
- Compilation (temporal sequence of events, culminating in a crisis)
- Evaluation (narrator's attitude towards narrative)
- Resolution (protagonist's approach to crisis)
- Coda (point about narrative as a whole)

Labov and Waletsky (1967:363) in McCarthy *et al.* 2002:64

3.5 Linguistic Approaches

Let us consider the following.

a. The Birmingham School

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) worked on the tape recordings of mother tongue, traditional, teacher fronted classes in the early 1970s. In this type of class, knowledge was typically transmitted by pupils answering the teacher's questions. The analysis of the data led to the building of a

typical classroom exchange structure known as IRF- Initiation - Response- Feedback. e.g.:

I T: Good morning pupils

What is the colour of the black board?

R P: Black

F T: Very good

- a) Teacher begins with 'good morning pupils' (discourse marker indicating a boundary).
- b) The teacher nominates who speaks.
- c) The teacher can reinforce an answer by repeating it.
- d) The teacher gives a feedback or follow-up.

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) also proposed the organisation of a lesson in levels- A rank scale.

Transaction

Exchanges

Moves

Acts

Their approach provided a boost towards communicative language teaching. Many researchers have used it in analysing language outside the classroom.

b. Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

SFL and CDA are essentially concerned with describing the relationship between language, text and social life. The functional descriptions of language try to explain the nature and organisation of language according to what it has to do (McCarthy 2002:66). For example, (Excuse me, do you know the way to---?). This serves the function of asking for direction. The central concern of SFL is on the analysis of texts considered in relationship to the social context in which they occur, especially spoken discourse. The orientation is similar to that of conversation analysis in that they both describe the relationship between language and its social context. SFL believes that language is organised to enable conversations to work.

3.6 Critical Discourse Analysis

This is concerned with the relationship between language, ideology and power (Fairclough (1992). This approach is influenced by Halliday's

Systemic Linguistics. McCarthy notes that genres in critical discourse analysis are seen as social actions occurring within particular social and historical context. Age class, gender, ethnic bias are important in CDA along with the social practices they reflect.

3.7 Discourse and First Language Education

Discourse analysis features in ALin areas related to language and education. That is – language as a means of education and language as a goal of education in both first and second language education. Scholars note that one of the goals of education is to acculturate children to new registers and genres- both spoken and written. This will help them to develop their grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competences as they grow. Verhoeven (1997) claims that children bring to school experiences of standard and non-standard dialects; the school, on the other hand, brings to the children’s learning experience an organised process of classroom talk which may promote personal involvement, interaction and shared meaning (Verhoeven, 1997).

3.8 Discourse and Second Language Education

Nowadays, people are aware of the significance of discourse in language teaching, reading and writing, intonation and spoken language and for evaluation of students’ communicative competence. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) for specific purposes, second language teaching and learning has been understood in terms of discourse. Trappes-lomax (2006:152) avers that defining the goals of language teaching in terms of communicative competence leads naturally to an integrative view wherein the perspective of language as discourse will affect part of the syllabus. He notes further that within this perspective, learner needs, syllabus aims and content and task goals and procedures will all be specified primarily in discourse terms. He also observes that materials will be selected and presented to meet criteria of communicative authenticity. The language will be constructed to reflect language use in real communication.

Tsui (1998) and Platt and Brookes (2002) claim that learners experience communication breakdown while interacting with their peers or teachers. This prompts negotiation of meaning which can be accomplished through clarification, requests, confirmation checks, and requests for repetition. This means that opportunity for interactional involvement is important for success in the language class. The important thing at this stage is how, and who controls turn taking (Platt & Brookes, 2002) and how feedback is achieved- based on learner output. These are discourse issues that cannot be pushed aside.

Trappes-lomax (2006:153) also claim that preparation for language teaching in terms of teacher training courses, methodology, textbooks is commonly organised around the main language areas- phonology, grammar, and lexis and the four skills (i.e. speaking, listening, reading, and writing). He notes that this approach is effective in meeting the needs and expectations of learners; but he also observes the following as potential disadvantages :(p.154).

- Grammar and lexis are presented as more separate than they are and this obstructs their interconnectedness in lexico-grammar.
- The four skills are presented as more separate than they really are whereas all are necessary in actual speech
- Spoken and written media are conceptualised as discrete types rather than points on a continuum
- Failure to attend to general features of interpretation and production
- Text making features are divided arbitrarily between the spoken and the written modes (for example, it is so sometimes implied that cohesion is mainly a property of written text, which makes readers to pay less attention to text making features that are common to discourse of all kinds.

Trappes-lomax notes further that a discourse based pedagogical description of phonology will focus on prosodic aspects including rhythm (i.e differences between L1 and L2). Hughes and McCarthy (1998) note that discourse grammar will treat grammar functionally. A discourse description of lexis will cover the ways in which lexis contribute to textual cohesion through relationships of synonymy, hyponymy, collocation etc., [for details on the aforementioned see Carter and McCarthy (1988)]. Interaction is central to skills teaching and in teaching written language skills. Recognition of the interactional and socially situated nature of the task is important.

3.9 Importance of Discourse in AL

Discourse analysis enables the applied linguist to analyse and understand real language data i.e. texts written by first /second language learners or recordings of language produced by L1 and L2 speakers, interaction between the teachers and learners or among learners themselves McCarthy *et al.* (2002:56). Language learners are exposed to all kinds of language outside the classroom- these include, language of service encounters at the post office, market, shops, banks, restaurants, church, newspapers etc. The analyses of such interactions can help language teachers and material writers to evaluate language course books in terms of how close they are to authentic language. The analyses can also reveal what needs to be modified. McCarthy *et al.* also

note that language testing can gain much from discourse analysis that looks at language use as a source of criteria for the evaluation of test performances.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Enumerate and describe what you observe as weaknesses in language programmes organised around the main language areas.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, you have been introduced to discourse analysis as a multidisciplinary field that has many interests. We have also discussed ways of doing discourse analysis and its position in first and second language learning.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- discourse analysts try to take note of patterning in language use and the circumstances surrounding such patterns (in terms of participants, situations, purposes, outcomes) of events associated with the language use
- discourse analysis is a multidisciplinary field and has diversity of interests
- McCarthy *et al.* (2002:59) note that discourse analysts come from a number of different academic disciplines and the field is a wide one
- conversation analysis is concerned with the detailed organisation of everyday interaction
- McCarthy *et al.* assert that anthropological linguistics and sociolinguistics are concerned with studying not the isolated sentences, but how language creates effective communication in the context of everyday life
- nowadays, people are aware of the significance of discourse in language teaching, reading and writing, intonation and spoken language and for evaluation of students' communicative competence
- the analyses of interactions can help language teachers and material writers to evaluate language course books in terms of how close they are to authentic language.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the major things to be considered in discourse analysis and second language education

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UNIT 6 CORPORA LINGUISTICS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is on corpus linguistics. It is an interesting area in language study. It is very useful in applied linguistics and a good knowledge of it will enrich your work as a language specialist. The Collins English Dictionary defines corpora as ‘a collection of writings especially by a single author’. This is a very simple definition of corpora. In this unit, however, we shall be talking about collections of words, phrases and writings of different kinds, as the case may be not necessarily by the same author. Hunston (2002) gives you a better description under the introduction.

Widdowson (1979; 2000) in Hunston (2002) notes that the difference between linguistics and applied linguistics is not just that linguistics deals with theory while AL deals with applications but that AL tries to develop language themes of its own which are more relevant to the questions AL seeks to answer than those developed by theoretical linguistics. Corpora add to the development of those applied views of language.

Corpus Linguistics is the study of language as expressed in simple or real world. Corpora analysis was originally done by hand but is now largely derived by an automated process. Hunston(2002:1) asserts that the improved accessibility of computers has changed corpus study from

a subject for specialists only to something that is open to all. She notes further that:

Corpora allow researchers not only to count categories in traditional approaches to language but also to observe categoric and phenomena that have not been noticed before.

Corpora study introduces students of AL to how language can be applied in certain real life contexts. Hunston (2002:02) sees corpus as a collection of 'naturally occurring examples of language consisting of anything from a few sentences to a set of written texts or tape recordings which have been collected for linguistic study'. Corpus is also seen as a collection of texts (or parts of texts) that are stored and accessed electronically.

Hunston asserts that the field of applied linguistics itself has undergone something of a revolution over the last few decades. She claims that it was once synonymous to language teaching but now it covers any application of language that offers solution to real life problems.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss the usefulness of corpora in AL
- illustrate how corpora can be used in language learning.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Types of Corpora

- 1) Specialised Corpora- this is a corpus of texts of different types e.g. newspaper editorials, history books, academic articles on a particular subject, conversations, essay writing etc. A corpus may have time frame- depending on the purpose, a social setting. It is often used to investigate a particular type of language.
- 2) General corpus- a corpus of texts of many types. This may include both spoken or written texts, it includes texts produced in one country or many but it may not be an adequate representative of any particular 'whole'. This type of corpus is always larger than a specialised one. Hunston notes that it could be useful for producing reference material for language learning or translation and often used as a baseline in comparison with more specialised corpora. It is, thus, sometimes called a reference corpus. An example is the British National Corpus.

- 3) **Comparable corpora**-This has to do with two or more corpora in different languages, which have been designed along the same lines. The same proportions of the different corpora will be presented- e.g. same proportion of newspaper texts, novels, casual conversations etc. Comparisons of the various corpora can be done, and this can be useful for translators and learners to identify the differences and equivalences in each language, e.g. ICE corpora (International Corpus of English).
- 4) **Parallel corpora**-This involves two or more corpora in different languages containing texts that have been translated from one language into the other.
- 5) **Learner corpus**
This is a collection of texts or essays produced by learners of a language. This is always used to identify, the difference between learners and the language of native speakers. One of the best learner corpora in the world is International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE).
- 6) **Pedagogic corpus** (used by D. Willis, 1993)
Hunston notes that this kind of corpus consist of all the languages a learner has been exposed to. This type of corpus can be used to collect words or phrases that they have come across in different contexts for naturally occurring language.
- 7) **Historical or diachronic**
This is corpus texts from different periods of time and used to trace the development of aspects of a language over time. An example is the Helsinki corpus which is said to consist of texts from 700-1700 and has about 1.5 million words.
- 8) **Monitor corpus**
This is meant to track current changes in language. This always experience annual, monthly or daily increment. It increases rapidly in size. The proportion of text types is kept constant so that the monthly daily or yearly comparisons of the texts can be done (Hunston, 2002).

3.2 Uses of Corpora

Corpora are useful in many ways and below is a summary of some of the uses (Hunston, 2002:13).

- 1) Corpora are used in language teaching, forgiving information about how a language works. This kind of information may not

be accessible to native speaker intuition. An example is the detailed phraseology mentioned above; the relative frequency of the different features of the language can then be calculated. Huston refers to Mindt (2000), who claims that nearly all the future time reference in conversational English is indicated by 'will' or other modals. She cites example of the phrase 'be going to', which accounts for about 10 percent of future time reference.

- 2) Classroom teacher can encourage students to explore corpora and observe the various types of collocations and phraseologies which will be used in the descriptions of languages or make comparisons between languages.
- 3) Corpora is equally useful for translators in that they can use it to compare the use of apparent translation equivalents in two languages to see how words and phrases have been translated in the past.
- 4) General corpora can be used to establish norms of frequency and usage against which individual texts can be measured. (Hunston notes that this is particularly useful in stylistics and forensic linguistics).
- 5) Hunston refers to Stubbs (1996), Teubert(2000) who worked on how corpora can be used to investigate cultural attitudes expressed through language. It can also be used as a resource for critical discourse studies (Krishnamurt, 1996; Caldas-Coulthard & Moon, 1999; Fairclough, 2000).

3.3 Processing of Data from a Corpus

Corpus is a store of used language. It cannot do anything by itself but can be arranged in such a way that observations of various kinds can be made. There are software packages now that can process data from corpus in three ways: showing frequency, phrases and collocation (Huston, 2002).

3.3.1 Frequency

The words in a corpus can be arranged according to their frequency in the list. Frequency lists from corpora can be useful for identifying possible differences between the corpus of different subjects or area of study. It is possible to look at the frequency of given words compared across corpora. A frequency table can show for example, the number of occurrences of 'must', 'have to', 'incredibly' and 'surprisingly' in books corpus, the times corpus and spoken corpus from where the words are taken. This table can also be used to compare, for example, 'must' with 'have to' and 'incredibly' with 'surprisingly'. The table may show that

the books corpus and the times corpus use ‘must’ in preference to ‘have to’. The spoken corpus may show the reverse trend, suggesting that ‘have to’ is less formal than ‘must’.

The word ‘surprisingly’ has some of this same behaviour: good, little, large, few, well. ‘Surprisingly’ can be seen to mean ‘contrary to expectation’ whereas ‘incredibly’ can be used as a strong version of ‘very’. The frequency of ‘incredibly’ in spoken English than in written can be explained thus. According to Hunston, the adverb ‘surprisingly’ has a use which ‘incredibly’ does not have apart from its being followed by an adjective or adverb. It is also often followed by an adjective or beginning of a clause e.g. he, she, or it and it is also often preceded by ‘not’, ‘perhaps’ or ‘hardly’ and this shows that surprisingly is used to modify a clause as well as to modify an adjective or adverb.

For more details on frequency see Hunston (2002:6) who offers more explanation on the three corpora; Hunston notes that even though the use of an adverb to modify a clause does occur in some registers of spoken English, it is not a feature associated with colloquial speech. Some other scholars who have worked on frequencies between registers are Biber (1988), Biber *et al.* (1998), (1999), Mindt (2000), and Leech *et al.* (2001). These scholars use software which counts words and categories of linguistic items. Some of these scholars calculated the distribution of present and past tenses across four registers- ‘conversation’ fiction, ‘news’ and ‘academic’ and note that in conversation and academic corpora, present tense occurs more frequently than past tense. Hunston (2002:08) asserts that, in the fiction corpus, the past tense was preferred to the present tense, whereas in the news corpus, they are roughly equal

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Describe language use models that give rise to frequency in the use of words or categories of linguistic items.

3.3.2 Phraseology

What is referred to as concordance lines bring together many instances of the use of a word or phrase. This allows the user to observe regularities in use that tend to remain unobserved in normal user. It is through concordances that phraseology is observed. These phenomena can be very useful in explaining confusing meanings of words or uses of words. (Hunston 2002) notes that learners often confuse adjectives such as interested and interesting and find that explanations of different meanings do not readily give a clear picture of the usage of both of them. Hunston (2002:09) noticed that ‘interested’ is used in phrase or the pattern ‘interested in’ and this is revealed in either someone being

‘interested in something’ whereas, ‘interesting’ is commonly used before a noun as in ‘an interesting thing’. There are only a few exceptions such as ‘what is interesting is.....’ and ‘it is interesting to see....’ (Hunston 2002:10).

3.3.3 Collocation

There can be the calculation of collocation in corpora. Hunston (2002:12) says collocation is the statistical tendency of words to co-occur. A lot of collocates can equally give information on data. Statistical operations of the computer in doing the calculations will however be better and more accurate than when done manually. Hunston (2002:10) gives the example of the collocate of the word ‘shed’ to be: light, pearls, garden, jobs, blood, cents, image, pounds, staff, skin and clothes. In all these cases, shed is a verb, except when it collocates with garden is it a noun. In all the cases, the meaning is close to ‘lose’ or ‘give’ but the precise meaning depends on what it collocates with. The following are examples:

Shed light (on) means illuminate (metaphorical)

Shed tears (means) ‘cry’ or ‘be sorrowful’

Shed blood means ‘suffer’ or kill (literal or metaphorical)

Shed jobs and shed staff means get rid of people

Shed pounds (lose weight)

Shed cents (‘shares’ or a currency become reduced in value)

Shed image (means a deliberate changing of how one is perceived. (Hunston 2002:12)

Apart from lexical collocates, there are also grammatical collocates. For example, possessives such as his, her, my, and your, collocate with some other words to mean specific things.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Describe the varieties of language use that constitute corpora.

3.4 Characteristics of Corpus-Based Analysis of Language

- 1) It is empirical, analysing the actual patterns of use in natural texts.
- 2) It utilises a large and principled collection of use in natural text.
- 3) It utilises a large and principles collection of natural texts known as corpus, as the basis for analysis, using both automatic and interactive techniques.

- 4) It depends on both quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques. Biber, Conrad and Reppen (1998:4) in Reppen and Simpson (2002:93).

3.5 Corpora and Language Teaching

- 1) Corpus findings and the availability of tools for exploring corpora will be of benefit to the language classroom.
- 2) Corpus based studies of particular language features and comprehensive works such as *The Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* will help language teachers by providing a basis for deciding which language features and structures are important and also how various features and structures are used.
- 3) Teachers and materials writers can have a basis for selecting language materials for their students based on the needed linguistic features.
- 4) Pedagogical decisions may no longer be based on intuitions or sequences that have appeared in textbooks over the years but on actual patterns of language use in various situations (spoken, written, conversations, and formal etc.).
- 5) The current challenge is how to translate frequency information and knowledge about patterns of language use into classroom materials (Schmitt, 2002:106).

For example, a teacher can run concordance lines for the learners and then draw out questions on the texts for the pupils to answer. Look at the following citations.

-----*They proposed that Harvard create such a super-track tuned to him*---- *will somebody propose that this paper be rejected irrespective of its co*—*An HSE document proposes that GMAG be turned into ACGM*---*The said*----- *we recommend that the dose of benoxapofen*----
The Committee also recommended that the government clarify the rules-
 - -----*breaks down. It recommends that France take a second look at*--
 - ---*coordinating committee suggests that the appeal panel ask why this*
 --*of the university of Bristol suggests that a group of babies be trained*--

Can you think of the most interesting completions for the sentences below?

1. *If I were the Dean of my faculty I would recommend that all examinations* -----

2. *When Kunle told me that he had had an argument with his girlfriend, I suggested that he*-----

3. *As a postgraduate student at Oba Awon University, I propose that-----*

This type of exercises can be given occasionally to pupils to teach them clause and phrase patterns in English.

3.6 Teachers and the Use of Corpora

- 1) Teachers can shape instructions based on corpus-based information
- 2) They can consult corpus studies to gain information about the features they are teaching.
- 3) Learners can also interact with corpora. With availability of computers, learners can be actively involved in exploring corpora.
- 4) If computers are not available, teachers can bring in print-outs or results from corpus searches for use in the classroom.
- 5) Even though some scholars argue against the use of corpora in the classroom saying that it is difficult to guide students appropriately and efficiently in the analysis of vast number of linguistic samples (Cook 1998),there is need for classroom based-research and experimentation on the effectiveness of exposing language students to corpora and concordance tools (Schmitt, 2002:107).

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have been able to discuss what corpora are, the types of corpora, uses of corpora, and processing of data from a corpus in this unit. Please, try to go through the references at the end of this unit and other units for more details on each of the units because the contents of these units have been taken from them.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- corpus linguistics is the study of language as expressed in sample or real world
- corpus was originally done by hand but is now largely derived by an automated process
- Hunston(2002:1)notes that the improved accessibility of computers has changed corpus study from a subject for specialists only to something that is open to all

- corpora study introduces students of AL to know how language can be applied in certain real life contexts
- corpus is also reserved for collections of texts (or parts of texts) that are stored and accessed electronically
- there are different kinds of corpora-general, specialised comparable, parallel, learner, pedagogic, historical, monitor
- corpora are used in language teaching for giving information about how a language works
- there are software packages now that can process data from corpus in three ways: showing frequency, phrases and collocation.(Huston 2002).

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. How can you apply what you have been taught in corpora to a language text?
What are the uses of corpora in language teaching?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 7 FORENSIC LINGUISTICS

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- 3.0 Main Content
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is on ‘language and the law’ known as forensic linguistics. Have you ever wondered why the legal register is so difficult to understand? Have you been to the law courts before? And have you listened to lawyers speak while defending a case and you wonder why they speak the way they do? These are questions that have also burdened the minds of linguists in the past which they have been trying to find answers to. So, it will not be out of place to think the way you do about the law register. The interesting thing about ‘the law’ and ‘language’ is that they are inseparable. This unit is a very interesting unit but a little bit dense, so, you have to concentrate and go through carefully so that you can understand what the unit is out to teach.

Gibbons (2006:285) says the legal institution is very important because it is such an influential institution, which is packed with language problems. Almost everything we do is carried out within a legal frame- i.e. ownership of piece of land, building contracts, employment, marriage etc. Farinde (2008) notes that the laws of the land are coded in language, legal processes, police interrogations, prosecutions are all done through language. In the western world such as Britain, United States, Canada, Australia, etc., linguists are being called upon to offer expert opinions and advice on difficult language problems in legal settings.

Due to improvements in electronic communication and the passage of new laws related to electronic surveillance, since the 1970s, there has

been increase in the use of taped evidence in matters of the law. Incidentally, this same period witnessed the expansion of linguistics beyond the sentence and areas such as discourse analysis, pragmatics, speech acts, intentionality and inference expanded in scope. Discourse analysis was first used to analyse the tape recorded evidences against suspects by the law enforcement agencies.

Discourse analysis was also used in the stylistic identification of authors of written documents, in the patterned language use of voice identification, identification of crucial passages in civil cases such as disputes over contracts, product naming labels and other forms of identification (Farinde, 2008:02). Now, forensic linguistics has become a developed genre and forensic linguists are frequently called upon to analyse and testify in court to cases that involve interpretation of language in terms of written evidences or voice identification, as the case may be. Before we proceed, let us look at some of the objectives for this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe what forensic linguistics is and how it started
- describe focus of AL in forensic linguistics.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 History of Forensic Linguistics

Every discipline has its own register. The study of the language of the law is Forensic linguistics. Farinde (2008:02) asserts that in the editorial introduction of the birth of the journal titled Forensic linguistics, French and Coulthard (1994) report that many linguists and phoneticians became involved in undertaking forensic work and this has resulted in the formation of two professional organisations.

The International Association of forensic linguistics (IAFL) was founded at a seminar held in the school of English at the University of Birmingham in 1992. It was created to provide a forum for the interchange of ideas and information about forensic applications of linguistic analysis generally. Among its functions are organising annual conferences, printing of newsletters, compilation of international register of qualified linguists who are prepared to act as witnesses.

Another organisation which is the International Association of Forensic Phonetics (IAFP) was founded in 1991 at the third International

conference on Forensic Applications of Phonetics at St John's College IAFP. In addition to these organisations, Farinde notes that, conferences and seminars are constantly being organised and that through its professional conduct committee, IAFP has formulated a code of practice which is binding on the activities of its members. There have also been a lot of publications and articles on forensic linguistics; for example, *Forensic Linguistics- The International Journal of Speech, Language and the Law*.

3.2 Language and the Law

It was noted above that the law intrudes into every aspect of our lives as human beings and the vehicle it uses is language. Bhatia's (1994) work on the discussion of structuring of legislative provisions focused the syntactic properties of legislative provisions which he/she claims includes long/nominal sentences and expression, complex prepositional phrases, initial case description, qualification and syntactic discontinuities. The law language is full of constructions like these and they can be very difficult to understand.

Bhatia notes two crucial aspects of the law which are- case description (which is the specification of circumstances to which the main clause applies and the main provisionary clause which contains the legal subject and the legal action. Gibbons (2003) in Farinde (2008) asserts that linguistic evidence can be found in domains such as phonology, lexis, grammar discourse register genre/style and sociolinguistics. To Gibbon, expertise, validity and reliability are important issues in linguistic evidence. She/he notes further that a linguist can offer evidence in two major areas, and these are communication issues (miscommunication found in graphology), transcription, lexis, grammar, discourse and sociolinguistics and authorship in areas such as speech sound, identification, ear witness and machine analysis).

Gibbon also reports that the language of lawyers is full of technical jargons, archaic, deictic, common law, complex functional expressions, abbreviated technical terms, ordinary words used with specialist meanings. Gibbons (2003) also reports that the police and lawyers also use similar jargons and that slang is used within the police to refer to police life and culture. The language in the prison is said to include- 1) use of official specialist terms; 2) short forms and acronyms ; and 3) Slang (Farinde, 2008). The law is a specialised discipline and has its own specialised language in terms of grammar, lexicon, speech acts and discourse, all in an attempt to pursue precision of the Legal register.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Why is forensic linguistics important in human affairs?
- ii. What are some of the essential characteristics of the legal language?

3.3 The Nature of Legal Language and Linguistic Evidence

Cotterill (2000), in her work on the language of ‘caution’, notes that in both the delivery and the presentation of the ‘caution’, police officers find the task of measuring linguistic and comprehension level problematic; that is, police officers can confuse the intended meaning of ‘advice’ with ‘warning’ and that there is a conflict between ‘rights’ and ‘responsibilities’ in describing the ‘caution’. For a solution to the problem, Cotterill suggests that linguists, psycholinguists and other professionals must collaborate with the legal profession to maintain the delicate balance between comprehensibility and jeopardising the legal status of the text. Below is an example of the ‘caution’:

You do not have to say anything. But it may harm your defence if you do not mention when questioned something which you later rely on in court. Anything you do or say may be given in evidence-.
(Farinde, 2008:06)

Dale *et al.* (1997) worked on discourse strategies used by offenders in cases of rape. Farinde notes that the analytical focus of Dale is on the discourse patterns of the offender with the ultimate goal of providing a profile of the offender’s character and to reconstruct the offence itself. For example, Dale *et al.* investigated the types of rape and discussed the theoretical and practical issues in developing an analytical framework of rapists speech. For example, below is Dale *et al.* (1997) classification of different types of rape.

- a) **primarily sexual:** Here, the offender is seeking sexual gratification and force is used to achieve the goal
- b) **anger rape:** the motivation for rape here is anger and hatred displayed for another person;
- c) **primarily sadistic:** here, although the motivation is sexual, gratification is achieved by inflicting pain and fear on the victim;
- d) **impulsive or opportunity rape:** here the offence is traceable to the offender’s history of anti-social behaviour;

- e) **rape to compensate for feelings of inadequacy;** here, the offender is aware of his inadequacy and rape by force is used to compensate for this.

The study identified the different stages of rape as ‘the approach’, ‘maintenance’, and ‘disclosure’. The above is the linguistic description of the discourse strategies used by rapists. Below is a sensitive area in forensic linguistics and it has been discussed in this unit as it applies to AL.

3.3.1 Child Witness in AL

This area is a growing and sensitive one in forensic linguistics. Linguists believe that the questioning format in child witness can lead to either the success or failure of the interview process. A child’s answers have important consequences. For example, Walker (1973) worked on questions addressed to child witnesses and criticised their forms and structures. Walker insists that if questions are asked the wrong way, it may affect the jury’s opinion. Walker frowns at leading questions and wants them abandoned and also wants tag questions to be avoided and that *wh*-questions should be used with care. Brennan (1995) also worked on children cross examination and notes that children between 6-15 years do not really understand the questions they are asked. Some other scholars who have worked on the language of attorney when questioning children in court are Perry (1995), Petterson *et al.* (1999) and they worked (on questioning preschoolers), some others worked on authorship and statements, robbery suspects, the deaf etc. The art of questioning is very important and has a lot of implications for applied linguistics.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What are some of the questioning strategies that linguists disagreed with on prosecution and why?

3.4 Applied linguistics and Forensic Linguistics

For AL purposes, we need to understand the nature of the legal language and possible sources of communication problem or difficulty and find ways of overcoming them. Gibbons (2006) note the following areas that AL can focus on:

- 1) the genre issue (that is, the legal register has highly specialised text structures and procedures. It is sometimes a ritualised discourse, which follows regular patterns and organised sequences of elements (p.286)

- 2) the extreme writtenness of many legal documents (some are almost impossible to read aloud in a meaningful way)
- 3) the technicality of much legal discourse (the law and its practicalness have developed a range of unique legal concepts and these can only be expressed by using legal jargons)
- 4) the interpersonal (this is where power disparity and hyper-formality are produced by the essential controlling nature of the legal system).

Language intersects the law, and Bowe and Storey (1995:188-9) point out the following about the expertise of forensic linguists:

When many people are quite capable of identifying and eliminating unknown speakers in an eyewitness line up, they are generally unable to say why ... Linguistically trained analysts on the other hand are in a position to give a detailed description of differences and similarities noted in two voice samples, together with an explanation of how these differences or similarities occur.

Can you now see one of the ways by which applied linguistics can come to the aid of difficult legal register? Evidence may range across many linguistic levels including phonology, grammar, discourse and conversational phenomena and sociolinguistics variation. Linguistic evidence falls into two main areas— communication and identification and these will be discussed below.

3.4.1 Communication

A linguist may be called upon to uncover what someone said. Gibbons reported the case of a linguist who was asked to decode pig Latin that was used by an accused person, which the linguist was able to do by studying the handwriting and noting the arrangement of the vowels used. Linguist may also be called upon to say whether an accent or a poor quality recording causes intelligibility problems. He/she may be able to say what is meant by a particular word or whether particular complex lexical and/or grammatical forms make a text difficult to understand. Solan (1995) says linguists could be involved in decisions concerning the meaning and application of legislation in particular cases (legal interpretation) on the basis of grammatical and lexical analysis.

There could be communication problems in indigenous societies, depending on what is allowed as knowledge economy. This is the case of the Australian Aborigines and the law as reported by Eades (1994, 1995; Walsh 1994) where direct questioning is regarded as rude and intrusive. In that community, answering is not obligatory. The questioner can raise a topic and allow the interlocutor (person

answering) to contribute whatever knowledge he/she is willing to share. Clash with police questioning and courtroom examination were frequently reported and linguists testified a number of times concerning the resulting lack of communication.

3.4.2 Identification

Identification may involve comparing two or more language samples to know whether they were produced by the same speaker or not. It may mean getting information about the person who produced the language, using indicators such as –age, class, occupation, gender, mother tongue, etc. (Gibbons, 2006:298).

Speech sounds are important in identification and the most controversial in this area is whether machine analysis is superior to the expert ear. Special use of certain vowels may be an indicator or a strong indication for voice identification, provided the recording is of adequate quality. A combination of two techniques is reported to be better or more effective in that it will strengthen the identification process. Courts seem to prefer the machine based analysis since it is more scientific.

The untrained ear is seen as unreliable in voice identification and ear witness is even less reliable than eyewitness identification. Gibbons note that the identificatory elements of written language can also be done in that handwritings can be distinguished and the peculiarities of spelling and the punctuation can be strong identifiers.

In the areas of trade names, a linguist can be asked about the likely confusion of two trade names i.e. whether two drugs e.g. Archlan and Alkeran might be confused in Australian English particularly if Alkeran was produced beginning with a long ‘a’ (Gibbons 2006:298). The linguist involved was said to have submitted based on the evidence of process of exchanges of /r/ and /l/ that it was unlikely but possible. Gibbons notes that in areas of vocabulary and grammar, there are two main approaches used in identification and profiling- the first is probabilistic analysis (performed by computer programs); the belief is that there are certain grammar features and vocabulary choices used by one person rather than the other. Gibbons notes that supporters of this method caution against excessive use of it.

The second type of analysis that was reported by Gibbons is the peculiarities in grammatical structure or vocabulary as in non-standard usages, which may be as a result of limited proficiency in the language or register of a person. For example, when a police fabricate evidence, they themselves sometimes slip into police jargons and hyper elaboration and this can be detected by the linguists. Eagleson (1994)

shows how a range of linguistic features- including spelling, syntax, morphology and punctuation provided evidence, concerning the authorship of a suicide note.

Eagleson compared the samples of the man's and the woman's handwriting and was able to show that the writing was the man's - considering the wrong spellings, intrusive apostrophe, omission of past tense, long and poorly structured stretch of language with no punctuation . The man changed his plea to guilty when confronted with these. Coulthard (1994) gave important evidence of cohesion phenomena in a case involving 6 in Birmingham. The accused were discharged on the basis of the hyper elaboration, which is typical of legal language and, in that instance, which showed that it was a fabrication by the police. Gibbons avers that in identificatory elements of the written language, handwriting can be distinctive and peculiarities of spelling and punctuation can be strong identifiers.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have been able to go through the history of forensic linguistics, the language and the law and the relationship between the legal language and forensic linguistics

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- forensic linguistics has become a developed genre and forensic linguists are frequently called upon to analyse and testify in court to cases that involve interpretation of language
- almost everything we do is carried out within a legal frame
- linguists are being called upon to offer expert opinions and advice on knotty language problems in legal settings
- identification may involve comparing two or more language samples to know whether they were produced by the same speaker or not
- courts seem to prefer the machine based analysis since it is more scientific
- Gibbons noted that in areas of vocabulary and grammar, there are two main approaches used in identification and profiling-the first is probabilistic analysis
- the second type of analysis that was noted by Gibbons is the peculiarities in grammatical structure or vocabulary as in non-standard usages which may be as a result of limited proficiency in the language or register of a person.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Imagine that the police presented a written statement of an accused person; describe the FL characteristics a forensic linguist would be looking for in the written statement.

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MODULE 3**UNIT 1 APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE TEACHING****CONTENTS**

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- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Objectives of Language Teaching and the Motives of Language Learners
 - 3.2 Methodology in Language Teaching
 - 3.3 Origins of Language Teaching Methods
 - 3.4 Language Teaching Methods
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 - 3.4.2 Gouin's Method-Series
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 - 3.4.4 Audio-Lingual Method
 - 3.4.5 Silent Way
 - 3.4.6 Suggestopedia
 - 3.4.7 Communicative Approach or Communicative Language Teaching
 - 3.5 Methodology and Curriculum in Language Teaching
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In modules 1 and 2, you were taken through basic concepts and different types of analytical procedures. Module 3 has a lot to teach you on language teaching planning, testing, evaluation etc. In this unit, we examine the notion of applied linguistics as the application of linguistics in relation to language teaching methods. One of the products of applied linguistics has been to crystallise the theoretical view of language, education, and language education into prescribed teaching materials and strategies, or methods. The field of methodology evolved as a result of the abundance of methods from different theoretical perspectives. The place and centrality of applied linguistics in language teaching, has heightened and intensified awareness in the literature of the significant context in which language education occurs; and this has also affected methodology in general.

Language teaching is a complex undertaking. It is an exercise that is shaped by the views of the nature of language, of teaching and learning a language specifically, and of teaching and learning in general; and by the socio-cultural settings in which the enterprise takes place (Adamson, 2004:604). The contribution of applied linguistics to research, and practice, is based on ideas that have helped to shape these views, and promoted the understanding of diversity of and commonalities of the settings.

Corder (1973) opines that ‘asking the right questions means having the right language to ask them in. The applied linguist is, therefore, not merely a consultant when language problems arise, he/she is actually the man/woman who has to ask questions in the first place, and identify the problems and their nature. He/she is an integral member of the planning committee for a total language teaching operation.

3.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the roles of the applied linguist in language learning and teaching programme
- explain second language learning theories and their practical application in a second language learning environment like Nigeria where the English language is a second language.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Objectives of Language Teaching and the Motives of Language Learners

The main objectives of language teaching are to turn out people who possess sufficient skill in the target language for their needs, that is the most relevant and useful repertoire of language. We must be able to specify, in sociological terms, what domains the learners will require of the language, in what domains the language is needed and for what purposes they need the language, in what social groups or languages they are going to operate, what their roles in the community are. The teaching strategies to use also depend on all these variables that surround the learners. Scholars have, over the years, introduced different methods or strategies for getting the best out of the learner.

Some of them will be discussed in this unit. For example, a teacher needs to know what the learner needs the language for so that the curriculum can be tailored towards the need. A community once indicated, during a literacy workshop, that all they wanted was the

ability to sign their signature, write their names, and be able to communicate well in English to be able to understand when their accusers speak against them in court. From these expectations and some other things they said, one can deduce that the community wants functional literacy and not basic literacy.

3.2 Methodology in Language Teaching

According to Adamson (2006), methodology is employed loosely in language teaching. It is commonly used interchangeably with 'methods' and 'pedagogy'. Methodology is then defined as 'the study of the system or range of methods that are used in teaching, while a method is a single set of practices and procedures that are derived from theory or theorization which impinges on the design of a curriculum plan, resources, and teaching and learning activities'. It encompasses such methods as the direct method, audio lingual and so on. It includes all other methods the teacher might devise in the process of teaching the learners.

Methodology and pedagogy are essentially different from each other. The essential difference is that methodology has a narrow focus and tends to be more dogmatic in its application. However, pedagogy has broader educational goals and it is influenced by a wide range of theories and curricular influence and tensions. It is more rooted in and responsive to the practical realities of a particular classroom. Certainly, method linking theory and practice represent a key contribution of applied linguistics to language education. They do not arise from *a priori* theorising: they could be derived from successful practice. Some methods offer an all-embracing package that promises comprehensive language learning; others offer some strategies for achieving particular objectives. Richards and Rodgers (1986:21) cited in Adamson (2006:605), describe methods in terms of three levels: approach, design, and procedure.

The approach refers to the underpinning theory of language and of language learning; the design covers the specification of linguistic content and the roles of the teacher, learner and instructional materials; while procedure means the techniques and activities that are used in the classroom. This, according to Adamson (2006), suggests that methods can be analysed as scientific constructs, curricular resolution and socio-cultural artefacts.

These perspectives prompted Adamson (2006) to address a number of questions concerning language teaching methodology such as: where do methods originate? What are the salient features of methods that have

been widely promoted? How do they gain acceptance? Does methodology have any relevance in postmodernist contexts?

For example, young L2 learners may require teaching aids which are pictorial to be able to facilitate learning and promote the association between the concepts and the word itself. For example, the picture of ‘a bowl’ and the word ‘bowl’ itself will go a long way in helping the learner to understand what the word ‘bowl’ stands for and also remember the spelling.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What do you understand by methodology in language teaching?

3.3 Origins of Language Teaching Methods

Language teaching methods are derived from a range of perspectives or standpoints. It includes views of language, of language learning in general, and of second or foreign language learning in particular (Adamson, 2006). It is good to note that the variety of origins has produced a plethora of methods. For example, Honey (1997) perceives language as a codified linguistic structure supported or underpinned by established rules. Halliday (1973) describes language as a social semiotic. Skinner (1957) described language in terms of behaviourist habit formation. Chomsky (1965) described language as innate and that every child has language acquisition device (LAD) to produce meaningful utterances.

3.4 Language Teaching Methods

Based on the variety of perspectives on language, there is a set of methods on language teaching and learning which has evolved. They are as follows:

3.4.1 Grammar-Translation Method

Adamson (2006) reports that until the middle of the 20th century the grammar-translation method was the predominant method for language teaching in most educational contexts. This method was said to emerge from the learning of Latin and Greek, which were the classical languages taught in Europe. The major objective of the method was to instil intellectual rigour and to transmit the cultural values embodied in the literary canons to a new generation. During this period, language was viewed as an academic discipline rather than a means of conducting everyday social interactions. Priority was given to the written language. However, this method of language teaching has limited practicability for

communicating everyday situations or experiences. Consequently, there was dissatisfaction with it toward the end of the nineteenth century among language teachers.

For example, the learner can be asked to translate the following sentence in Yoruba language to English and vice versa:

Ma a lo sekolola I'll go to Lagos tomorrow.
Did you hear what I said? *Se o gbonkantimo so?*

The first one looks simple but the second one is not in that it is difficult to reflect the past 'did' in Yoruba in the translation of the text. Other forms of focused exercises are memorisation of lexical items, dictation, reading aloud and rote learning. However, towards the end of the nineteenth century, language teachers in Europe became dissatisfied with this method.

3.4.2 Gouin's Method-Series

Gouin's method called *Series* came into existence as a result of dissatisfaction with grammar-translation method. It was based on interactions from daily life. The teacher had to model a series of statements, describing steps of the interaction in sequence; the learners imitate (Roberts, 1999 cited in Adamson, 2006). This method concentrated its interest on everyday language and on children's acquisition of mother tongue, which was believed came about initially through listening and speaking (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

There was emphasis on the four skills- listening, speaking, reading and writing. There was a focus on meaning and communication skills of learners. For example, learners were encouraged to learn and concentrate on the meaning of words, the meanings of words and the ability to speak well. Later, there were calls for a more scientific approach to language learning. The call gave rise to the direct method as expounded by Jespersen (1904).

3.4.3 Direct Method

This method of language teaching emerged as a result of several calls for a more scientific approach to language learning; most notably from the Reform Movement that was founded in the 1880s (Knight, 2001 cited in Adamson, 2006). This method was the product of the movement. This method is premised upon the belief that total immersion in the target language is conducive to rapid progress in communicating as with first language. Rivers (1981) states that the role of the teacher is

to provide contextual support for the learners, without recourse or reference to the learners' mother tongue as fast as possible.

For example, a Yoruba learner of English language should be totally immersed in the L2 without any recourse to the mother tongue so that the L2 learner can learn fast. This was probably what led to the 'No Vernacular' slogan of the early 50s and 60s in Nigeria where school children were forbidden to speak any of the indigenous languages in schools. I could remember that whenever anybody was caught in those days speaking Yoruba in the secondary schools, the person was made to write imposition of 'I WILL NEVER SPEAK VERACULAR AGAIN' a hundred times. To the proponents of the method, it is believed that total immersion is the solution to quick language learning.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Explain the direct teaching method and the translation method to a friend.

3.4.4 Audio-Lingual Method

This method came about as a result of experimentation by Skinner who worked with animals and his behaviourist principles of learning (Adamson, 2006). Learning, in this method, is brought about by positive reinforcement of current behaviour or utterances with correctness being instilled by repetition or drilling. It focuses primarily on oral skills, with the teacher modelling utterances. Learners are drilled to produce correct responses as errors are not tolerated and special attention is on habit formation. This method consists of mechanical learning, which led to the popularity of language laboratories.

For example the teacher can say;

Repeat after me; T: cow
 P: cow
 T: once again, cow
 P: cow
 T: say it five times and spell it
 P: cow, cow, cow, cow, cow
 T: say this sentence; I saw a cow yesterday
 Say it three times

3.4.5 Silent Way

This method of language teaching was propounded by Caleb Gattegno. According to Adamson (2006), this method relies on problem-solving

by the learners. The paramount goal of this theory is to get learners produce the target language with little or no assistance from the teacher. This means that the learners are made responsible for their own learning and to make them become independent of the teacher. This method, as a matter of fact, is based on induction. The teacher uses charts and coloured blocks to establish the meaning of model utterance, but the learners have to apply inductive and self-monitoring techniques to build their own structural knowledge of the target language. This method gets its name from the fact that it is a teacher dominant approach. (Freeman & Freeman, 1992).

For example, the teacher can place a lot of materials on the table in front of the pupils and he/she expects the pupils to use their own self-monitoring techniques to put sentences together in the target language using the materials before them.

3.4.6 Suggestopedia

It is a method of teaching a second language which attempts to incorporate different modes and modalities. This method was developed by Bulgarian psychiatric-educator Lozanov (1982). His ambition was to eliminate psychological barriers that people have of learning (Freeman and Freeman, 1992). Stevick (1976) summarises Lozanov's view of learning into three principles: (1) People are able to learn at rates many times greater than what is commonly assumed; (2) learning is a 'global' event and involves the entire person; and (3) learners respond to many influences, many of them non-rational and unconscious. Freeman and Freeman (1992) write that suggestopedia uses drama, art, physical exercise, and de-suggestive-suggestive communicative psychotherapy as well as the traditional modes of listening, speaking, reading, and writing to teach a second language.

For example, the teacher can remove any form of anxiety about learning by providing a very comfortable, relaxed environment with background music. This will reduce learner's stress. The teacher can also do some psychological counselling if need be.

3.4.7 Communicative Approach or Communicative Language Teaching

This is an alternative method of language teaching in which language is viewed essentially as social practice, and the goal of language teaching as engendering the learner's competence to communicate in the target language. Communication is then viewed as social interaction influenced by cultural context rather than being a fixed linguistic system. Adamson affirms that these approaches-'Communicative

Approach or Communicative Language Teaching' are more of an umbrella term for a range of curriculum design principles and teaching methods, all sharing the same underlying philosophy, than a single or specific method. Bygate, Shekan & Swain (2001:02 cited in Adamson, 2006) argue that Communicative Approach "was explicitly a post-method approach to language teaching...in which the principles underlying the use of different classroom procedures were of paramount importance, along with a package of teaching materials."

These views are united by common principles, which include language as principally an expression of meaning at the discourse level. The teacher is seen as the facilitator and motivator as well as source of knowledge. Adamson (2006) notes that the acceptance of the communicative approach principles were spurred by the functional-notional approach, which organises the syllabus according to language functions, that is, everyday use of language which involves interactions such as buying food, giving direction, offering advice and so on and notions (concepts such as time, quantity, and location).

For example, the teacher can create a buying and selling corner where pupils will be able to interact with the materials, other pupils and their teacher so that they can develop communicative competence in the target language.

Adamson further states that the strong form of the communicative approach is task-based learning, which was derived from other subject areas in the curriculum. Drawing on the constructivist views of learning, particularly those of Vygotsky and Bruner, task-based learning advocates a learner-centred curriculum and teaching methods that have a strong element of group work and autonomous activities. It emphasises competences-communicative competence, strategic, cultural, and so on. Adamson cites Hong Kong as example of where task-based learning has aided the achievement of cross-cultural goals which transcends language learning.

3.5 Methodology and Curriculum in Language Teaching

Adamson admits that defining curriculum is problematic. Thus, he presents the working definition adopted by Marsh and Willis (1995:10): "an interrelated set of plans and experience that a student undertakes under the guidance of school." Marsh and Willis (1995) also distinguish between "planned" or "intended" curriculum which is the product of design and development by various agencies.

At the intended level, the methodological approach to language teaching promoted in a curriculum initiative is informative as it reflects the

orientation of the curriculum toward particular goals. It is recorded by Clark (1987) that specific language teaching methods can be linked to value systems that incorporate socio-political and philosophical texts. To Adamson, for example, the grammar-translation method is associated with classical Humanist orientation which is described by Clark as...elitist. It is concerned with the generalisable intellectual capacities and with the transmission of knowledge, culture, and standard from one generation to another.

However, it is very pertinent to know that language teaching methodology is subject to philosophical and political controversies. Adamson states a number of dualities that are evident: the individual versus society; past versus future; intellect versus whole person; permanence versus change and so on. Methods may be promoted for political or philosophical reasons rather than their inherent educative value.

At the planned curriculum level are published resources-textbooks and other educational media. Adamson states that publishers promote a particular method for a number of reasons. The publishers follow the method that is explicitly promoted in official curriculum documents. Another reason for the motivation is the market forces when end-users desire to buy a book which might be or not in harmony with officially promoted curriculum. Technology can as well determine the selection of method. For example, a lack of alternative resources to the book helps to encourage the primacy of reading skills and those methods, such as grammar-translation method that are reading oriented.

Adamson (2006) citing Marsh and Wills (1995) then concludes that there is often slippage between the planned, enacted, and experienced curriculum. He notes that curriculum enactment often involves a process of adaptation as teachers take account of the 'chalk face' realities that they face. Morris (1995) identifies several factors that are powerful influences on teachers' pedagogical choices. These influences include physical and logistical constraints, the desire to maintain a control of a class; the demands of public examinations; the prevailing culture of the society; the ethos of the school and so on.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have learnt about the methods of language teaching and the methodology and curriculum in language teaching.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you learnt that:

- one of the products of applied linguistics has been to crystallise the theoretical view of language, education, and language education into prescribed teaching materials and strategies, or methods
- language teaching is a complex undertaking
- language teaching is an exercise that is shaped by the views of the nature of language, of teaching and learning a language specifically, and of teaching and learning in general
- methodology is employed loosely in language teaching. It is commonly used interchangeably with ‘methods’ and ‘pedagogy’
- different sets of methods on language teaching and learning have evolved
- curriculum is “an interrelated set of plans and experience that a student undertakes under the guidance of school.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain what you understand by communicative language teaching and curriculum in language teaching.
2. Describe how you will teach English grammar using any of the methods described in this unit.

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UNIT 2 COMPUTER- ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 A Brief History of Computer- Assisted Language Learning (Call)
 - 3.2 Roles of Computers
 - 3.3 Roles of the Learner
 - 3.4 Roles of the Instructor
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is unique, in the sense that, it is a radical departure from the traditional methods of language learning. It is about Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). This NOUN programme that you are undergoing is computer assisted learning. You can now stay wherever you are and access the internet for your lectures and study materials. Not only has the computer been useful in undergoing courses in different subject areas, it is also useful in language learning and teaching. In this unit, you will learn about the history of CALL, the role of computers, the learner and the instructors in CALL. You can, in addition to what you learn here, go on-line to learn more on how to benefit more from this type of programme.

Levy (1997:1) defines Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) as ‘the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning’. It is useful in many disciplines-psychology, computational linguistics, instructional technology, human computer interaction and artificial intelligence (Levy, 1997 in Gruba, 2006: 624).

Levy draws on these five cross disciplinary fields in an attempt to give the discipline a knowledge base. He/she notes for example that studies in psychology contribute insights about programmed instruction and cognition while research in computational linguistics tells us a lot about machine translation, natural language processing and concordance. Another scholar who has worked extensively on CALL is Chapelle (2001). Let us briefly look at the objectives for this unit before we proceed.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe the evolution of CALL
- describe the role of computers, instructors, and learners in CALL.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 A Brief History of Computer- Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

Ahmad et al (1985) Chapelle (2001) and Levy (1997) provide extensive accounts of developments in CALL. Ahmad et al(1985) reports the work done in the United States and Britain in the years 1965-85. One of the early projects carried out at Stanford University was reported where instructors created self-instructional materials for language learning and delivered them via a mainframe computer. There was also a research at the University of Illinois where a system named Programmed Logic for Automated Teaching Operations (PLATO) was developed in which teachers were able to write Russian–English translation course.

It was noted that the computer was able to provide drills and marking for students and some other useful components for teachers. This system was later expanded to include a number of foreign languages and offered then in increasingly, technically sophisticated ways but was expensive to use (Gruba, 2006: 625). These mainframe computer applications were made to have interactive features to help students read specialist scientific texts in the 1960s and 1970s. In the late 1990s, personal computers were introduced by course developers and instructors.

To Gruba, the growing interest in CALL led to increased demand for computers. Teachers use computers for specific language learning situations which made more and more students to be exposed to computers at home and at school. The National Open University of Nigeria runs its courses, partly through Computer Assisted Programme, and its examinations are now conducted on-line. Gruba (2006: 625) refers to Levy (1997) who highlights the time shared, interactive, computer controlled information television (TICCIT) project initiated at BrighamYoungUniversity in 1971 as one of the first examples of multimedia-based instruction. The computers had the capacity to integrate text audio and video which could be controlled by the learner. Gruba (2006) notes that the (TICCIT) which was based on an explicit theory of instructional design that allowed instructors to add content but not to decide how to teach with the new programmed materials. Some

other projects include the Almena language learning project based on the Massachusetts institute of technology etc.

Gruba noted that from the beginning of the 1990s, teachers began to make greater use of networked computers; CALL educators started adopting socio-collaborative modes of learning. Internet usage promoted more access to resources and also provided motivation for developers to create sophisticated materials that could attract larger audience (Gruba 2006: 626).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What is CALL?
- ii. Write briefly on its development.

3.2 Roles of Computers

The computer is said to be a tutor who delivers repetitive drills. It can engage the individual learner in individualised, self-paced instructions through efficient materials delivery (Gruba 2006: 630). The widespread use of computers in the 1980s brought about criticisms about its effectiveness. Some people claimed that computers help raise test scores and speed language acquisition Dunkel (1991) in Gruba (2006: 630). Some also noted that computers promote cognitive augmentation through carefully designed materials (Clark & Sugrue (1991) in Gruba (2006). Despite the claim by Cuban (2001) that computers in education are oversold and underused, many educators still see their use now as an expected and necessary part of learning.

Meskill (1999) in Gruba (2006) acknowledged the integrated use of computers in classroom management, materials presentation and learner interactions. Lewis and Atzert (2000) observe that despite the general enthusiasm for computers, students' resistance to their use can potentially reduce motivation through activities which promote isolation, dull creativity and otherwise contribute to learner frustration (Gruba 2006: 631).

3.3 Roles of the Learner

The roles of students changes with shifts in learning theory, capabilities of computers and instructional processes. Gruba (2006:634) notes that communicative CALL practices seeks to place learners in independent relationships with the computer as students get engaged in interactive work with applications. Students are expected to work collaboratively and use the computer as a tool box. Gruba (2006: 634) also notes that increasing student familiarity with computers now challenge CALL

educators to direct their use for the specific purposes of language learning (Chapelle 2001). Applied linguists hold a strong interest in learner strategies and Hegelheimer and Chapelle (2000) and Liou (2000) claim that the interest has been directed to looking at students' behaviours regarding online reading, listening, speaking and writing.

Chun and Plass (1997) discuss the key issues of multimedia comprehension based on studies of on-line reading and visual presentation and this laid the foundation for a model for learners' listening and viewing skills in multimedia environments. Ehansi and Knodt (1998) and Goodwin-Jones (2000) note that speech technologies for language learning are rapidly developing and with an emphasis on pronunciation. Aist (1999) worked on the current developments in speech recognition software in three ways:-

- 1) visual feedback showing students' intonation and loudness patterns compared with native speakers,
- 2) the scoring system was automatic and it is referred to as a template based approach,
- 3) presentation of a model of mispronunciation through comparison to native speaker utterances or predicted common errors.

Students are instructed on how to get feedback on errors and a guide on how to correct them. Computer assisted writing has been encouraged for students' use of word processing and email applications. Pennington (1999) has noted that students produce longer compositions and are more positive about writing when they use computers.

Hoven (1999) notes that the learner is in control of his or her own learning; in her principles for implementing a learner-centred CALL syllabus, she suggested that awareness raising activities that can encourage good management of online resources should be introduced. To her, there must be sophisticated on-line help facilities coupled with effective navigation elements which can foster learner control. Shetzer and Warschauer (2000) note that the learner must be able to interact with the computer in various ways. They need to master hypertext authoring in order to blend written text, graphics, audio, and video together in coherent narratives. They must be able to respond to intended and Web-based unintended audiences. Students conducting research should be critical enough to be able to evaluate the validity and appropriateness of source materials. In short, students must become autonomous.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What are the roles of the learner in CALL?

3.4 Roles of the Instructor

The introduction of CALL to the classrooms has given instructors and teachers a great challenge to be familiar with new technologies and redefine their views on teaching. Kramsch (1993:201) in Gruba (2006:636) note the following:

The enormous educational potential of the computer is confronting teachers with their pedagogic responsibilities as never before. Never before have teachers so urgently needed to know what knowledge they want to transmit and for what purpose, to decide what are the more and the less important aspects of that knowledge, and to commit themselves to an educational vision they believe in.

Computers have shifted instructional practices and have changed the way materials are designed, assessment conducted and how programmes are evaluated. CALL techniques are fast becoming an integral part of professional development. In structural and communicative CALL, the teacher serves as a mediator between computer and students throughout the learning process. Teachers need to be sure that students understand instructions and can supply the necessary responses. Teachers should take on a less intrusive role but they should stay around to give the necessary support. You will notice that at NOUN, you also have tutorial instructors that you can ask questions from. Lewis and Atzert (2000) found that an extensive use of computers foster anxiety in some students and thus detracted from language learning goals. This was almost so with the e-exams until the students found that after due integration and mastery, they started enjoying the use of computers for their exams.

Corbel (1999) and Tapcott, (1999) suggested that even in today's internet- focussed settings, teachers can still act as re-intermediary in order to mediate between learners and the resources available outside. They should situate computer technologies in a historical and cultural context in such a way that students can form a critical perspective of their use. Teachers should constantly do a self-evaluation of technological literacy and be aware of the kind of technological skills required for proficient CALL instructors.

The instructors should deepen the understanding of the students on the relationship between text and context when teaching language as communicative practice so as not to portray multimedia in simplistic ways. It is important to do this because technological environments can be seductive making the learner to believe that what appears real on the screen is real in life. It is important for instructors to promote independent lifelong learning strategies. The instructors should also be concerned with authenticity and re-creation of real life situation. They

should see computers as a way of encouraging social interaction so that the computers can act as active partners rather than passive assistants (Gruba, 2006).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Describe the roles of the instructor in CALL.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we have been able to go through computer assisted language learning as one of the latest developments in applied linguistics, the role of the learner, computers and instructors.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- Computer -Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is useful in many disciplines-psychology, computational linguistics, instructional technology, human computer interaction and artificial intelligence
- to Gruba, the growing interest in CALL led to increased demand for computers
- CALL practices seeks to place learners in independent relationships with the computer as students get engaged in interactive work with applications
- students are expected to work collaboratively and use the computer as a tool box
- computer- assisted writing has been encouraged for students' use of word processing and email applications
- Pennington (1999) has noted that students produce longer compositions and are more positive about writing when they use computers
- the instructors should deepen the understanding of the students on the relationship between text and context when teaching language as communicative practice so as not to portray multimedia in simplistic ways.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Imagine that you have been asked to handle a language class using CALL; name and describe the factors you would take into consideration as the instructor.
2. Discuss the roles of the learner in CALL.

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UNIT 3 LANGUAGE TESTING, EVALUATION AND VALIDATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Need for Evaluation, Validation and Tests
 - 3.2 Tests as Measuring Instruments
 - 3.3 Evaluation as a Form of Experiment
 - 3.4 Qualities of a Good Test
 - 3.4.1 Validity
 - 3.4.1.1 Content Validity
 - 3.4.1.2 Predictive Validity
 - 3.4.1.3 Concurrent Validity
 - 3.4.1.4 Construct Validity
 - 3.5 Testing Grammatical Competence
 - 3.6 Test of Performance
 - 3.7 Reliability
 - 3.8 The Making of a Test
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is about language testing, evaluation and validation. Most of the content in this unit are from Corder (1973) and a few other scholars. Corder happens to be one of the earliest scholars in AL and we find some of the views still applicable to modern language testing procedures. You can check the references at the end of the unit for more details.

Testing is an important part of language education. We cannot do without testing what has been taught. Even though a lot of people have written about different forms of testing and examinations, the fact still remains that learners have to be tested and stake-holders in the educational sector are constantly researching into ways and means of having qualitative test materials and procedures. Corder's contributions on tests, validation etc have been used over the years but with current communicative language practices, some have been modified and a few other test procedures introduced.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- state and discuss the qualities of a good test
- mention types of test and their varying functions in assessing and testing learners' proficiency in a language.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Need for Evaluation, Validation and Tests

Corder (1973:349) asserts that the application of linguistics to language teaching is not just a descriptive activity but a prescriptive one. Applied linguistics seeks to make the teaching and learning of languages as efficient as possible, which means, it controls and directs the process. Efficiency means organising things so that the learner can learn what he/she is expected to learn within the period stated. Now, the quality of teachers needed (whether trained or untrained), materials (cost and quality and appropriateness) quantity of knowledge or learning are very important are variables that may not be easy to measure, but an attempt has been made in this section(relying on Corder) to deal with the problems of measuring the knowledge and reasons for doing so. If learners learn and it is not measured, it will be difficult to find out how much has been learned and the impact of the knowledge on them.

As a result of the increase in the number of students in schools and the influx of people of different ages and races wanting to learn one language or the other, especially the English Language, there is the need to improve on current methods of testing. It is also necessary to devise new strategies, methods and approaches that can cope with the challenges of the learning process. Language teaching and language learning procedures keep changing every day, especially with the introduction of modern day technological equipment and devices. It is important to measure the impact of our teaching and one of the means of testing has been criticised by many that it is not enough to test pupils' understanding of concepts taught.

If testing is conducted with all the full control of all the relevant factors and the results evaluated by the appropriate statistical technique, it is scientific. The applied linguist makes predictions about the effects on learning that the syllabuses and teaching materials have on learning procedures Corder (1973: 351). The teacher's contribution (in terms of the quality and nature of the classroom teaching) use of material resources, intelligence, motivation, and aptitude are important. These three factors- the teacher, learner and materials are involved in language

learning. Other factors such as environment or family background, etc. are also important but are not under the control of the applied linguist.

3.2 Tests as Measuring Instruments

There is no scientific experimentation that does not involve measurement. Questions such as the following can occur:-

Did teaching take place or not?

How often do the learning tasks occur?

How many of the predicted events occurred and with what degree of intensity?

Were teaching aids available and used for learners?

What is the quality of teaching and the teacher?

All these questions are important in measuring whether learning tasks were accomplished. If it is a communicative strategy, questions can be asked as to whether pupils had the opportunity to interact with one another, the learning materials or the computer. Was there any form of feedback (natural or automated?). Were there immediate learner responses?

Corder notes that all measurement involves comparison with some other variables such as time, money, weight, size, materials or available facilities etc. as the situation dictates. Language tests are measuring instruments applied to learners only. They measure the learners' knowledge of a language at a particular point in time based on a set of syllabus or tasks. The results of tests give indications of areas of learner's needs, which can help educators and curriculum planners. In measurement, it is important to know how learning has taken place, what materials and methods have been used to teach, their mother tongue, the strategies the teacher used and the learning situation. Measuring the learners' knowledge does not only amount to evaluating the learners, but also the teacher and teaching materials.

3.3 Evaluation as a Form of Experiment

Corder sees evaluation as a form of experiment. He notes that, it is the process of testing a hypothesis. In applied linguistics, this principally means the relationship between the teaching materials and their exploitation and language learning. In a language teaching situation, it is believed that teacher, learner and materials are important in language learning.

The two problems that Corder notes with evaluation procedures are (1) the inability of the applied linguist to treat the teacher, pupils and

materials as single variables. Pupils vary in terms of age, sex, motivation, intelligence, or aptitude. Age and sex may be less important for the teacher but intelligence and motivation are important.

Corder asserts that there is no direct way of measuring teaching skill or assessing the difficulty of sets of teaching materials. This can be done by comparing reading texts with the expectations of the syllabus, if it is not above the level of the students. Tests are usually conducted on learners and this is only part of the evaluation procedure. It gives us a measurement of one aspect of the learner but we need measurements of all the variables – i.e. teacher, learner and materials. The knowledge of the learners can be measured at the beginning and end of the course to find out how much has been learned. The pupils' notes can also be checked to find out what has been taught. The syllabus can also be checked to find out if the stated learning tasks have been accomplished. Below are some questions that can be asked to find out more about the quality of the tests that has been given.

Questions:

What is testing?

What is actually being tested by the test we are using?

What is the "best" test to use?

What relevant information does the test provide?

How is testing affecting teaching and learning behaviour?

Is language testing "fair"?

What is evaluation?

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

i. What is language evaluation?

3.4 Qualities of a Good Test

3.4.1 Validity

We cannot teach learners all the kinds of things they need to do with language because learners do all kinds of things with language. The truth is that, teachers can only teach systematically what they can describe. Corder affirms that this is the true about testing. It is difficult to test systematically what we cannot describe. Corder (1973:356) further notes that following about tests;

This is why testing is a branch of applied linguistics and why, ultimately, our ability to do a good job of measuring the learner's knowledge of the language depends upon the adequacy of our theory

about the language, our understanding of what is meant by knowledge of a language. If our test is to do its job properly, it must not inadvertently or accidentally measure anything else; for example, the learner's intelligence, and his knowledge of the world or his system of beliefs. In other word, the test must be valid.

Corder (1973: 356) quotes Pilliner 1968 as saying:

The validity of any examination or test procedure may be broadly defined as the extent to which it does what it is intended.

3.4.1.1 Content Validity

A test has content validity if what the questions in it or activities it requires the learners to perform are those which the learners have been taught to answer or perform in the cause of his/her study. In other words, a valid test must not test what has not been taught.

3.4.1.2 Predictive Validity

With predictive validity, it should be possible to use the results of the tests to predict the success of the test subjects in the performance of some other task which depends upon the knowledge of the language, e.g. passing a traditional examination or being selected to study a language course at a university (Corder, 1973: 357).

3.4.1.3 Concurrent Validity

Corder notes that if the results of a test are confirmed by some different test whose object is to measure the same thing and whose validity has already been established. This is called concurrent validity.

3.4.1.4 Construct Validity

The knowledge of the nature of the language is important in construct validity. Such results should also correlate well with results of other tests, examinations and measurement.

3.5 Testing Grammatical Competence

The formation rules and speaking rules of a language are very important in language learning. Communicative competence is important in language learning and teaching. Constructing tests in which we can make judgements about its acceptability or correctness of the learner's responses will bring objectivity to the tests. Most tests are constructed to

measure the learner's knowledge of the function of rules- that is grammatical competence rather than his global communicative ability. Corder notes that native speakers at times do not agree on what is right especially when translation or essay writing is used as basis of tests. To Corder, appropriateness cannot be reduced to rules and so, judgements about it are subjective. Tests based on essay writing and translations are therefore called subjective tests. Corder thinks it is difficult to know what quality or qualities have been measured in a supposedly good essay.

The West African Examinations Council has, however, been able to get round this problem as objectively as possible by dividing the testing of an essay writing piece into four different areas – the content, organisation, expression and mechanical accuracy. These four sub-headings are allotted different marks and the overall total is used to determine whether the writer has performed well or not. Markers are then taught yearly in a coordination exercise on how to apportion these marks. This judgment of two different markers cannot be the same but there is the allowance of a mark range which markers should not exceed. I think this is, a smart way of overcoming subjectivity in tests that involve précis/essay writing.

3.6 Test of Performance

Corder notes that most objective tests are concerned with measuring the learner's knowledge of the formation rules of the language. It is difficult to predict what the response of a native speaker would be in performance tests because the situation determines responses. He also notes that measuring the knowledge of a pupil in chemistry in another language other than his mother tongue may be difficult in that it may be difficult to decide whether his relative failure was due to his lack of knowledge of concepts of chemistry or of the language. Decisions about appropriateness must provide information about the situation in which utterances are made.

3.7 Reliability

In language testing, reliability is achieved through what is called objectivity. That is, casting the response in such a way that there is only one acceptable response possible. Although, unreliability may be unconsciously or suitably introduced in the sense that, our performance of any task varies from time to time. There is no doubt that, alcohol, drugs and sickness, have serious effects on people's performance. Some other sources of interference on performance are tiredness, emotional state, lack of attention or concentration, all of which are variable that are difficult to control. The only way out is to create an enabling

environment and favourable conditions for doing the test. Corder notes that administering the test in pleasant, healthy, light, quiet surroundings, with no distracting influences, is important for the reliability of a test.

In applied linguistics, we are either measuring the learner's communicative competence or grammatical competence. It may not be possible to examine his total knowledge all at once, so we sample his knowledge hoping that the sample is a fair one. Corder (1973: 366) refers to Lado (1961) who suggests one useful approach at selecting test materials. He notes that a language learner must be tested alone on certain features of the target language which he finds difficult. If Lado's suggestion is followed, there will be no way of finding out if the learner's assumption of his knowledge of less difficult part is true. It is important to state, however, that while we are testing the learner's grammatical competence, we can only get at it through his/her use of the language – 'communicative competence'.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Describe the various ways you can judge the reliability of a test.

3.8 The Making of a Test

In an attempt to write a test, we must have knowledge of the structure of the language and this helps us with the content of the test. There are acceptable grammatical and semantic forms of sentences which the writer has to take into consideration. There are two types of tests- attainment and proficiency tests.

A proficiency test aims to measure a person's knowledge of the language. An attainment test measures how much a learner has learned of what he/she has been taught. This means that the content of an attainment test is not a sample of the whole language but of the content of a syllabus. The uses of the two types are different. Attainment tests need a feedback while a proficiency test does not. It could be in deciding the learner's future, placement or selection for a course or programme or promotion.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this unit has introduced you to language testing, evaluation and validation. You also learnt a few things about the qualities of a good test.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- testing is an important part of language education. We cannot do without testing what has been taught
- as a result of the increase in the number of students in schools and the influx of people of different ages and races wanting to learn one language or the other- especially the English Language, there is the need to improve on current methods of testing
- the validity of any examination or test procedure may be broadly defined as the extent to which it does what it is intended
- a test has content validity if what the questions in it or activities it requires the learners to perform are those which the learners have been taught to answer or perform in the course of his study
- in language testing, reliability is achieved through what is called objectivity
- in applied linguistics we are either measuring the learner's communicative competence or grammatical competence
- it may not be possible to examine their total knowledge all at once so we sample their knowledge hoping that the sample is a fair one.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Your younger sister in J.S.S 2 came home and performed woefully in a language test. What are some of the qualities of a good test that you would take into consideration in accounting for her performance?
2. Discuss the need for evaluation, validation and tests in language testing

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UNIT 4 LANGUAGE PLANNING I

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Module 3, Unit 3, you learnt about language testing, evaluation, and validation. In this unit, you will learn about language planning and ideology, language goals and objectives, the process and types of language planning. This unit is a very important unit in applied linguistics because if languages are not planned the way they should be, there will be confusion. In a multilingual nation, there has to be pronouncements about the use of languages for ease of governance,

mutual understanding and interethnic communication. While it is true that some sections of the society may not agree totally with language planners, especially if it does not favour them, nevertheless, some sort of planning still has to be done. Even in a monolingual nation, planning and standardization still takes place, which edges out a few dialects of the main language.

The term 'language planning' was introduced by the American linguist Einar Haugen, in the late 1950s. According to him, language planning refers to all conscious efforts that aim at changing the linguistic behaviour of a speech community. The activity of language planning may involve anything 'from proposing a new word to a new language' (Haugen, 1987: 627 cited in Mesthrie *et al.*, 2003).

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe language planning and language ideology
- discuss different types of language planning procedures.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is Language Planning?

Language planning, to Akindele and Adegbite (1999:74), 'is a deliberate activity systematically designed to select from, organize and develop the language resources of a community in order to enhance the utilisation of such resources for development'. They identify various activities that make take place while planning language, such as corpus and status planning.

Language planning is a deliberate effort to influence the function, structure or acquisition of a language within a speech community. It is noted that language planning is associated with government planning that can also be used by non-governmental organisations or even individuals.

It is noted that the goals of language planning differ from nation to nation. It is designed to make changes for the benefit of communication. It may be that planning or improving effective communication can also lead to other social changes such as language shift or assimilation, which provides another motivation to plan the structure, function and acquisition of language.

It is very important to state that language policy is used as a synonym of language planning. However, language policy is the underlying general linguistic, political and social goals of the actual language planning process. This policy is very crucial to language planning. A typical example is Nigerian National Policy on Education (NPE) which addresses language use in education, government, politics, etc. (see Mesthrie *et al.*, 2003).

3.2 Language Planning and Language Ideology

The following language ideologies motivate decision making in language planning: (1) linguistic assimilation (2) linguistic pluralism (3) vernacularisation (4) internationalisation.

3.2.1 Language Assimilation

It is believed that every member of a society, irrespective of their native language should learn and use the dominant language of the society in which they live- e.g. French in France, English in the United States of America and Russian in the former Soviet Union (Adegbite and Akindele, 1999).

3.2.2 Linguistic Pluralism

This has to do with recognition and support of multiple languages within one society. For example, the co-existence of French, German, Italian and Romanish in Switzerland; the shared status of English, Malay, Tamil and Chinese in Singapore, and the shared nature of English, French, Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba languages in Nigeria.

3.2.3 Vernacularisation

This is the restoration and development of an indigenous language along with its adoption by the state, as an official language -e.g. Hebrew in the state of Israel.

3.2.4 Internationalisation

This is the adoption of a non-indigenous language of a wider communication as an official language or a particular domain, e.g. the use of Singapore in India, the Philippines and Papua New Guinea.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Among other things, language planning is meant to develop the language resources of a community in order to enhance the utilisation of such resources for development. True/False?
- ii. Linguistic assimilation, linguistic pluralism, vernacularisation internationalisation are used for decision making in language planning. True/False?
- iii. Vernacularisation is the restoration of an indigenous language in the world. True /False?

3.3 Language Planning Goals and Objectives of Language

The core of language planning activity is national development. This development is perceived in terms of political, socio-economic, educational, technological, and literary as well as language development. It is the realisation that language planning can contribute or promote greatly the development of various spheres of life in a nation that embarks on it. For example, in a multilingual nation like Nigeria, there is need to coordinate the linguistic resources of the nation to avert many problems like educational underdevelopment, ethno-linguistic agitation, breakdown of information and communication gap between government and the people (Adegbite and Akindele, 1999). Besides the reasons stated above, about eleven planning goals are recognised by linguists.

3.3.1 Language Purification

This has to do with the purification of the usage of a language in order to preserve the linguistic purity of the language so as to protect it from foreign influences and guard against language deviation from within.

3.3.2 Language Revival

This is the attempt to turn a language with few or no surviving native speakers back into a normal means of communication. For languages that are dying, they need to be revived. For example, some minority languages are fast fading out in Nigeria because they have not been committed to writing and the original speakers are dying out.

3.3.3 Language Reform

This is a deliberate change in specific aspects of language i.e. orthography, spelling or grammar in order to facilitate use.

3.3.4 Language Standardisation

This is an attempt to give a particular language prestige as a regional language or dialect, transferring it into one that is accepted as the major language or standard language of a region.

3.3.5 Language Spread

This is the attempt to increase the number of speakers of a language at the expense of another.

3.3.6 Lexical Modernisation

This has to do with word creation or adaptation. Many words come into a language through this way and some of them eventually find their way into the dictionary.

3.3.7 Terminology Unification

This refers to the development of terminologies especially in technical domains.

3.3.8 Stylistic Simplification

This is the simplification of language usage in lexicon, grammar and style. The dictionary helps a lot when they are incorporated.

3.3.9 Interlingua Communication

This has to do with the facilitation of linguistic communication.

3.3.10 Language Maintenance

This has to do with preservation of the use of a group's native language as a first or second language where pressures threaten or cause a decline in the status of the language.

3.3.11 Auxiliary Code Standardisation

It is the standardisation of marginal auxiliary aspects of language such as signs for the deaf.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Mention and describe five language planning goals.

3.4 The Process of Language Planning

Haugen (1966, 1987 cited in Mesthrie *et al.*, 2003) developed a framework for the description of the process of language planning. To him, language planning typically consists of four stages which can either be sequential or not:

1. Selection
2. Codification
3. Implementation
4. Elaboration

3.4.1 Selection

Selection is the term used to refer to the choice of a language variety to fulfil certain functions in a given society. For example, a language or its variety may be chosen to serve as medium of instruction, official language, and religious language, and so on. In Nigeria, the English language serves as the medium of instruction in schools and the nation's official language. The indigenous languages have certain roles, particularly in the states of the nation.

3.4.2 Codification

Codification in language planning refers to the creation of a linguistic standard or norm for a selected linguistic code or variety of a language. This process is commonly divided into- graphisation, (the development of writing system), grammatication (deciding on the rules/norms of grammar), and lexicalisation (identifying the vocabulary).

3.4.3 Implementation

At the implementation stage, the socio-political realisation of the decision made in the stages of selection and codification is realised. This includes the production of books, pamphlets, newspapers and textbooks in the newly codified language as well as its introduction into new domains such education, mass media and so on. While language experts are responsible for the selection and codification processes, implementation is done by the state or government in power. Mesthrie *et al.* (2003) citing Haugen (1983) and Cooper (1989:75-6) states that the implementation of a new standard language or variety can involve marketing techniques to promote its use.

3.4.4 Elaboration

This involves terminological and stylistic development of a codified or standardised language to meet the continuing communicative demands of modern life and technology. There is always a dissemination of new terms and different strategies of lexical enrichment. For example, three strategies are used for lexical modernisation or elaboration in the Hausa language in Nigeria. These are borrowing, extension of the meaning of a native term, and creation of new terms (neologisms).

3.5 Types of Language Planning

Language planning activity can be divided into two: status and corpus planning. Heinz Kloss (1967, 1969) distinguished the two basic types of language planning on the basis of the distinction between language as an autonomous linguistic system and as a social institution (Mesthrie *et al.*, 2003). In this unit, we shall discuss status planning and leave corpus planning till we get to the next unit.

3.5.1 Status Planning

This is the allocation or re-allocation of a language or variety to functional domain within a society, which affects the status or standing of a language. Language status is the position of a language vis-à-vis other languages. Simply put, status planning refers to all efforts to change the use and function (either to narrow or broaden the function and use) of a language or its variety within a given community.

Two different authors-Heinz Kloss and William Stewart have stipulated four qualities of a language that determine its status.

- A. Language origin-this has to do whether a given language is indigenous or imported to the speech community.
- B. Degree of Standardisation-the extent of development of a formal set of norms that define correct usage
- C. Juridical status
 - i. Sole official language (e.g., French in France; English in the United Kingdom and Nigeria)
 - ii. Joint official language (e.g. English and Afrikaans in South Africa; French, German , Italian and Romanish in Switzerland)
 - iii. Regional language (e.g. Igbo in Nigeria; Marathi in Maharashtra, India)
 - iv. Promoted language – lacks official status on a national or regional level but is promoted and sometimes used by

- public authorities for specific functions e.g. Spanish in New Mexico; West African Pidgin in Cameroon; Pidgin English in the Niger Delta area in Nigeria.
- v. Tolerated language – neither promoted nor proscribed: acknowledged but ignored (e.g. Native American languages) in the United States.
 - vi. Proscribed language – discouraged officially or by restriction
- D. Vitality-this has to do with the ratio or percentage of users of a language to another variable-e.g. total population.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, you have been able to go through language planning and ideology, language planning goals and objectives, process of language planning and status planning. It is obvious that planning is an essential part of language usage in any community for success in education.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- language planning refers to all conscious efforts that aim at changing the linguistic behaviour of a speech community
- language planning, to Akindele and Adegbite (1999:74), is a deliberate activity systematically designed to organise and develop the language resources of a community in order to enhance the utilisation of such resources for development
- the goals of language planning differ from nation to nation
- language policy is the underlying general linguistic, political and social goals of the actual language planning process; this policy is very crucial to language planning
- the core of language planning activity is national development
- Haugen (1966, 1987 cited in Mesthrie *et al.*, 2003) developed a framework for the description of the process of language planning
- to Haugen (1966, 1987 cited in Mesthrie *et al.*, 2003), language planning typically consists of four stages which can either be sequential or not - selection, codification, implementation and elaboration

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. The ministry of education in your state is having problems with the status planning of the language in a particular district; advise

them on what to take into consideration while trying to choose one of the languages.

2. Imagine that the government of Nigeria has agreed to choose only one of all the indigenous languages in Nigeria as the official language of the nation; mention and describe some of steps to take as regards implementation.

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UNIT 5 LANGUAGE PLANNING II

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 - 3.3 Functional Domains of Language in Society
 - 3.3.1 Official
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 - 3.3.8 School subject:
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 - 3.5 Problems Associated with Acquisition Planning
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the last unit, you were introduced to some aspects of language planning such as language planning and ideology, language goals and objectives and functional domains of language in a society. In this unit, we will be discuss inlanguage planning. You will learn some things about corpus planning which encompasses graphisation, standardisation and modernisation, acquisition planning, the role of the Ministry of Education and problems associated with acquisition planning.

Wikipedia (free online encyclopaedia) defines corpus planning as prescriptive intervention in the forms of a language where planning decisions are made to engineer changes in the structure of the language.

In the last unit, you were told that language planning activity can be divided into two: corpus and status planning. Status planning was discussed in the last unit. We shall go through corpus planning and acquisition planning in this unit. Heinz Kloss (1967, 1969) distinguished the two basic types of language planning on the basis of the distinction between language as an autonomous linguistic system and as a social institution (Mesthrie *et al.*, 2003). Let us look briefly at the objectives of this unit before we continue.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe language planning in relation to corpus planning
- discuss acquisition planning and the problems related to acquisition planning.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Corpus Planning

Corpus planning takes planners into greater linguistic expertise unlike status planning that is undertaken by politicians and administrators. Corpus planning involves three important processes or dimensions: graphisation, standardisation and modernisation.

3.1.1 Graphisation

This refers to development, selection and modification of scripts and orthographic conventions of a language. It is noted that the use of writing in a speech community can have lasting socio-cultural effects, which include easier transmission of material through generations, communication with larger number of people and a standard against which varieties of spoken language are often compared. Ferguson (1959) observed that the use of writing adds another variety of the language to the community's repertoire.

Below are some of the assumptions some people have about written language:

1. that written language is often viewed as secondary to spoken language
2. the use of writing often leads to a folk belief that the written language is real language and speech is a corruption of it
3. written language is viewed as more conservative, while the spoken language is more susceptible to language change.

In establishing the writing system of a language, corpus planners have the option of using an existing system or inventing a new one.

3.1.2 Standardisation

This is the process by which one variety of a language takes precedence over other social and regional dialects of a language. This variety then becomes the supra-dialectal and the best form from of the language. For example, standard Yoruba seems to be the recognised one above all other dialectal varieties. The choice of any language that takes precedence over the others confers on the speakers certain privileges as a group whose dialect has been chosen or comes closer to the standard one. For example, the Oyo/Yoruba dialect is closer to the standard written Yoruba, more than other dialects. The standard form is always imposed upon the less privileged as the language to emulate. It is taught in the schools and accepted examination and written assessment in that language.

The choice of such a dialect often reinforces the dominance of the powerful social group and makes the standard form necessary for socio-economic mobility and that in practice; standardisation generally entails increasing the uniformity of the norm as well as the codification of norms. The standardisation of the English language started when William Caxton introduced the printing press in England in 1476 with the adoption of the Southeast midlands variety of English spoken in London as print language. The dialect became the standard one used for administrative and literary purposes.

3.1.3 Modernisation

Modernisation is said to be a form of language planning that occurs when a language needs to expand its resources to meet certain functions. Modernisation occurs when a language undergoes a shift in status; for example when country has to change its language education policy. For instance, Nigeria states in its national policy that apart from the English language, three other major indigenous languages will be used along with English in conducting most of the affairs of the nation (Yoruba, Hausa and Igbo). This automatically confers on these languages a social status that edges out other minority languages.

Modernisation leads to the expansion of the lexicon. Language planners create new list to describe new technical terms. Rapid lexical expansion is aided by the use of new terms in textbooks and professional publications and frequent use of these terms among specialists. Linguistic purism often helps lexical expansion, whether the words are coinages or word formation from the language or they are borrowed.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What is graphisation in corpus planning?

3.2 Acquisition Planning

This is a type of planning in which a national, state or local government system aims to influence aspects of language such as language status, distribution and literacy through education. This kind of planning can also be used by non-governmental organisations or those commonly associated with government planning. This language planning process can involve the evaluation of the national, state or local government levels from the primary to the university level. This process of change can entail a variety of modifications, which affect student textbooks formatting, a change in methods of teaching an official language or the development of a bilingual language programme.

The government of a nation can establish a law that will require teachers to use a particular language if it wants to change the status of that language or change its level of prestige. It could even enact a law that all textbooks should be written in that language alone. This will lead to the evaluation of the language status or increase its prestige. In this way, acquisition planning is used to promote language revitalisation, which can change a language's status or reverse language shift or promote linguistic purism.

3.3 Functional Domains of Language in Society

As enumerated in Mesthrie *et al.* (2003), Stewart (1968), in Adegbite and Akindele (1999), identified various functional domains of language. Language can perform the following functions:

3.3.1 Official

This is the use of language 'as legally appropriate language for all politically and culturally representative purposes on a nationwide basis. In many cases, the official function of a language is specified constitutionally' (Stewart 1968): For example in Ireland, both Irish and English have official status. In Nigeria, English also has official status.

3.3.2 Provincial

This is the use of language 'as a provincial or regional official language. In this case, the official function of the language is not nation-wide, but is limited to a smaller geographic area'. For example, in Quebec,

Canada, French is the only official language; while both English and French have official status in the other provinces of Canada.

3.3.3 Wider Communication

This is the use of language as a medium of communication across language boundaries within a nation e.g. Swahili in Kenya and Tanzania, Hindi and English in India.

3.3.4 International

This is the use of language as a major medium of communication which is international in scope- e.g. for diplomatic relations, foreign trade, tourism, the internet, etc. For example, in the world today, English is a major medium of international communication.

3.3.5 Capital

It is the use of a language as major medium of communication in the vicinity of the nation's capital, that is, in and around a national capital. It is noted that this function is especially important in countries where political, social prestige and economic activity is centred in the capital- e.g. the provinces of Belgium have either Dutch or French as a provincial official language. The capital Brussels, however, is bilingual.

3.3.6 Group

This is the use of a language primarily as the normal medium for communication among the members of a single group, such as a tribe, settled group of foreign immigrants, etc., for example, Arabs among Jews, Igbo's in Lagos and abroad, West Indians in Britain.

3.3.7 Educational

An educational language functions as a medium of primary or secondary education, either regionally or nationally.

3.3.8 School subject

A school language is commonly taught as a subject in the secondary school or higher educational level, for example, Latin and Ancient Greek in English schools. In Nigeria, English is taught as a school subject despite the fact that it is also an official language.

3.3.9 Literary

It is the use of a language for literary or scholarly purposes. For example, Latin was used as the main language of literary and particularly scientific writing in Europe until the eighteenth century. English is now the major tool for literary endeavour in Nigeria.

3.3.10 Religious

A religious language functions as a language for the purposes of a particular religion e.g. Latin for Roman Catholic, English for Pentecostals and Evangelicals in Nigeria but the indigenous languages in many of the orthodox churches.

3.3.11 Mass Media

The use of a language in the print media and on radio and television in a functional domain is also possible. For example in Israel, the government determines how many hours should be broadcast in Hebrew, Arabic and foreign languages. In Nigeria, all the programmes on the national television (NTA) are in English.

3.3.12 Workplace

This concerns the use of language as a medium of communication in the workplace. For example, although German is the main language used in German factories, Turkish, Greek, Italian and other immigrant languages dominate certain areas of production-line work. It should be noted that mass media and workplace functions of language are based on Cooper's (1989:99-119) stance on language functions. In Nigeria, official communication is done through English. However, regional varieties tend to dominate in informal communication within the same work plan.

3.4 The Role of the Ministry of Education

The Ministry of Education is responsible for taking decisions on national language acquisition based on reports from the local and state governments. Wikipedia refers to Kaplan and Baldauf on the principal goals of the education sector as follows:

1. to decide what languages should be taught within the curriculum
2. to determine the amount and quality of teacher training
3. to involve local communities
4. to determine what materials will be used and how they will be incorporated into the syllabi

5. to establish a local and state assessment system to monitor progress
6. to establish financial cost.

It has, however, been noticed that the role of the ministry of education vary from country to country- but the above are the general principal goals of the sector. In multilingual state, determining the choice of language can be a little bit problematic and political. This requires a lot of planning. For example, in Nigeria, the official language, which is English, has been chosen for instruction in schools but it is also specified in the national policy on education that the indigenous language could be used as medium of instruction at the lower primary level. This is probably for two reasons: one, it is so that the children can understand concepts better at that level. Educationists believe that a child needs to be taught at that level through the mother tongue. Another reason being that, if care is not taken, the up-coming generation can become disinterested in their mother tongue thereby abandoning it for the official language that has a lot of prestige and advantages with its acquisition.

3.5 Problems Associated with Acquisition Planning

It is noted by scholars that despite the usefulness of acquisition planning, there could still be several problems. Some of the proposed changes could be too drastic or sudden without proper planning or organisation. It can be financially draining. This calls for adequate planning and provision of essential resources to carry out the changes. Apart from the education sector, some non-governmental organisations own dictionaries and grammar books, for example, the Academic Franca is of France or the Real Academia Espanola of Spain. The activities of these non-governmental organisations affect government planning decisions on items such as educational materials.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What is the role of the Ministry of Education in language planning and how can this be related to what is happening in Nigeria?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, you have been introduced to corpus planning and you have also learnt a few things about acquisition planning, the role of the Ministry of Education and problems associated with acquisition planning.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the following:

- Corpus planning involves three important processes; graphisation, standardisation and modernisation.
- Graphisation refers to development, selection and modification of scripts and orthographic conventions of a language.
- Standardisation is the process by which one variety of a language takes precedence over other social and regional dialects of a language.
- Modernisation is a form of language planning that occurs when a language needs to expand its resources to meet certain functions.
- Acquisition planning is a type of planning in which a national, state or local government system aims to influence aspects of language such as language status, distribution and literacy through education.
- The Ministry of Education is responsible for taking decisions on national language acquisition, based on reports from the local and state governments.
- Acquisition planning can be financially draining.
- Mesthrie *et al.* (2003), Stewart (1968) in Adegbite and Akindele (1999), have identified various functional domains of language.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Mention and describe some of the functional domains of language in a society with special reference to Nigeria as a nation.
2. Mention some of the problems associated with acquisition planning in any society.
3. Describe the roles that the Ministry of Education should play as regards language acquisition in Nigeria.

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UNIT 6 CRITICAL APPLIED LINGUISTICS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
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 - 3.1.1 Critical Literacy
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is on critical perspectives in language. You will be taken through a scholarly review of some of the various sections you have gone through and how they are related to AL. Pennycook (2006) notes the emergence of critical perspectives in language which dates back to the mid-1980s. Scholars have worked in critical discourse analysis, critical literacy, critical pedagogy and Pennycook (2006:784) presents some other areas in language study such as gender studies, postcolonial studies or anti-racist theory which also fall under these critical studies. He, additionally however, discussed significant themes in critical applied linguistics covering developing approaches to issues in language policy and planning, translation and interpreting language education, discourse analysis, literacy, language in the work place, and some other areas of applied linguistics in his work on Critical Applied Linguistics (CAL).

To Pennycook (2006), Critical Applied Linguistics (CAL) is more than just a critique of applied linguistics or a sum of related critical approaches to language domains such as Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), Critical Literacy and Critical Pedagogy. He adds that CAL is more than just the addition of a political/ critical approach to applied linguistics but that CAL raises questions such as identity, sexuality, power and performativity. This means that it suggests a broad conception of AL, but also draws on a range of theoretical and empirical domains. Davis 1999 defines CAL as a judgmental approach by some

applied linguists to normal AL on the grounds that it is not concerned with the transformation of society. You will notice that it is clear from this introduction that you will be instructed on the views of some earlier scholars on some of the areas we have worked on before. Just go through the unit carefully and patiently and you will understand all you are expected to know. Let us examine some of the objectives of this unit

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- give adequate descriptions of the critical approaches to applied analysis and some other language areas
- describe and apply some of these approaches in your writings.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Domains of Critical Applied Linguistics

Pennycook (2006) says that it is more profitable to see CAL, not merely as a collection of different parts, but rather, in more dynamic and productive terms. It could also be seen as a critical position towards other areas of work, including other critical domains. Pennycook (p.786) specifically notes that CAL may borrow and use work from these other areas but should only do so critically.

3.1.1 Critical Literacy

The overlaps between CAL, CDA, and Critical Literacy were highlighted by Pennycook in his work on CAL and cognitive processes. He notes that critical literacy has often been overlooked in AL because of the narrowness of scope that has limited AL to questions on second language education and this has left little space for an understanding of critical theories on critical literacy. Luke (1977) says CL is characterised by a commitment to reshape literacy education in the interest of marginalised groups of learners who have been excluded from access to the discourses and the text dominant cultures around them because of gender, culture and socio-economic principles. Critical literacy involves the cooperation of educational interests involved in technologies of writing for social change, cultural diversity, economic equity, and political enfranchisement (Pennycook, 2006:784). Literacy is understood as social practice related to broader political contexts.

3.1.2 Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

Van Dijk (2001:352) avers that CDA is a type of discourse analytical research ‘that primarily studies the way social power, abuse, dominance and inequality are enacted, reproduced and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context’. It attempts to understand, expose and ultimately resist social inequality. Van Dijk (2001) notes that a central notion in most critical work o discourse is that of power – social power of groups; and he has the following to say on power as control:

3.1.2.1 Power as Control

According to Wodak (1996:17-20), the general principles of CDA may be summarised as follows:

- CDA is concerned with social problems. It is concerned with the linguistic character of social and cultural processes and structures.
- Power relations have to do with discourse. CDA studies both power in discourse and power over discourse (Foucault1990, Bourdieu 1987).
- Society and culture are related in discourse. Both are shaped by discourse and also constitute discourse. Every single instance of language use reproduces or transforms society and culture, including power relations.
- Language use may be ideological: to determine this, it is necessary to analyse texts, to investigate their interpretation, reception and social effects.
- Discourses are historical and can only be understood in relation to their context.
- The connection between text and society is not direct.

Kress (1990) explains that CDA has the political aim of putting the forms of texts, the processes of production of texts and the process of reading together with the structures of power that have given rise to them.

Van Dijk (1993) explains that CDA has wider social and cultural focus on the role of discourse in the (re)production and challenge of dominance (p. 249). Van Dijk notes that CDA will ask questions about the way specific discourse structures are deployed in the reproduction of social dominance. He notes further that the kind of vocabulary typical of many scholars on CDA are ones that feature notions such as power, dominance, ideology, class, gender, race, discrimination, interests, institution, social structure and social order

Fairclough (1995) note in Pennycook (2006) that CDA aims to systematically explore relationships of causality and determination between a) discursive practices, events, and texts and b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes. CDA also investigates how such practices events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power (1995: 132). For example, writing on the language of the ‘freedom fighters’ or (militants) as they are sometimes referred to in the Niger Delta region in Nigeria, would be a CDA work. This is because it has to do with dominance, resources to struggle for, political and physical demonstration of power, struggle over ownership and control of resources etc. The language of struggle and power will be revealed in the spoken discourse and written materials from the area and about the area in all forms. These approaches are concerned with the questions of power, change, dominance struggle etc.

3.1.2.2 Doing CDA

Titscher *et al.*, (2000:150-151) reports Fairclough’s (1995) analytical approach at doing CDA below. Fairclough talks about interdiscursivity (the combination of genres and discourses in a text) and hegemony (the predominance in and dominance of political, ideological and cultural domains of a society). To Fairclough, there are three dimensions to every discursive event - the text, the discursive event and the social practice. At the textual level, content and form. are analysed but instead of using the terms text and form, Fairclough speaks of textual organisation and texture which relates with Halliday and Hassan (1976). To Fairclough, content and form are inseparable. By linguistic analysis, therefore, he means-phonology, grammar, vocabulary and semantics, in addition to cohesion and turn taking.

At the level of discursive practice, Fairclough insists that the analysis does not only include the precise explanation of how the participants in an interaction produce texts but also the relationships of the discursive events and orders. The analysis of the social practice relates to the different levels of social organisation- the situation, institutional context, wider group or social context. Questions of power are of interest here.

Van Dijk (1993) mentions discourse studies dealing with aspects of domination and social inequality which can be conducted under CDA and these are- gender inequality, media discourse, political discourse, racism, and from group domination to political power.

3.1.3 Critical Approaches to Translation

Pennycook describes another domain of textual analysis related to CAL. He compares this with the politics of translation- that is the way in which translating and interpreting are related to issues such as class, gender, difference, ideology and social context. Translation can reveal a lot of ideological meanings not visible to the ordinary eye. Venuti (1997) in Pennycook (2006: 788), argues that looking at translation as a political activity shows the tendencies of translators to domesticate foreign cultures. He also comments on the insistence on the possibility of value-free translation, the challenges to the notion of authorship posed by translation from English into other languages rather than in the other direction. He notes that translation should be written, read and evaluated with greater respect for linguistic and cultural differences (p.6). You can now see that translating a book or document from one language to the other can have all kinds of cultural and socio-political implications. If, for example, in a translation, the translator is predisposed towards foregrounding a particular culture, this may cause some relational problems for readers or writers of such texts.

3.1.4 Critical Approaches to Language Education

Language teaching is seen as a principal concern of AL. Pennycook (1999) outlines three main features of the Critical approach to language education. Questions such as the following may arise in these areas of interest- to what extent do particular domains define a critical approach? To what extent does the work constantly question common assumptions and how does the particular approach to education hope to change things? These are questions that can arise as one looks at a critical approach to language education. Answers to these questions may lead to some form of revolution or change in policy or teaching methods at different levels. Contextual matters such as class, race, and gender are important in a critical approach to the language of education. Pennycook also made an attempt to relate aspects of language education to a broader critical analysis of social relations. Lin (1999) finds in her study, that the particular ways of teaching English in Hong-Kong or elsewhere may lead either to the reproduction or the transformation of class-based inequality.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. A friend told you about the problem she has interacting in a language classroom. Which approach will you use to analyse her problem and how will you go about it?

3.2 Critical Language Testing

Pennycook (2006:791) observes that the main response to challenges about the fairness of language assessment has been to turn to questions of test validity rather than outward, to social, cultural, and political context of assessment. Spolsky (1995:01) in giving the history of the development of TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) suggests that:

From its beginnings, testing has been explained also as a method of control and power- as a way to select, to motivate, to punish. The so called objective test, by virtue of its claim of scientific backing for its impartiality and, especially when it operates under academic aegis and with the efficiency of big business, is even more brutally effective in exercising this authority.

Kunnan (2000) considers not only the question of validity but also issues of access- that is, financial, geographical, personal and educational access to tests and justice. Shogamy (2000), on the other hand suggests that language testers should take responsibility for their tests and the uses they are put. Shogamy (2001) later developed a notion of critical language testing, which she claims implies the need to develop critical strategies to examine the uses and the consequences of tests, to monitor their power, minimise their detrimental force, reveal the misuses and empower the test takers (p.131). Critical language testing maintains that the act of language testing is not neutral. To Shogamy, it is a product and agent of cultural, social, political, educational and ideological agenda that shape the lives of individual participants, teachers and learners. (Pennycook, 2006:792). To Shogamy (2001), test takers are seen as political subjects in a political context and are encouraged to develop a critical view of tests.

Tests are seen to be deeply embedded in cultural, educational and political arenas where different ideological and social forms are in struggle. CLT may ask questions such as- whose agenda are implemented through tests? This demands that language testers ask what vision of society tests presuppose; whose knowledge is the test based on? Is this knowledge negotiable? CLT challenges the uses of tests as the only instrument to access knowledge. Pennycook reports that Shogamy's proposal for CLT matches many of the principles that define other areas of critical applied linguistics and that she bases her argument on the fact that language testing is always political and that we need to become aware of the effects and uses of tests.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What are some of the things to take into consideration in critical language testing and what happens if consideration is not given to such issues?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit we have been able to go through some of the domains of critical applied linguistics and these are- critical discourse analysis, critical language testing, critical literacy, critical approaches to language education, and critical approaches to translation.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the following:

- Critical Applied Linguistics (CAL) is more than just the addition of a political/critical approach to applied linguistics but that CAL raises questions such as identity, sexuality, power and performativity.
- AL draws on a range of theoretical and empirical domains.
- Kress (1990) explains that CDA has the political aim of putting the forms of texts, the processes of production of texts and the process of reading together with the structures of power that have given rise to them into crisis
- Van Dijk (1993) explains that CDA has its focus on the role of discourse in the (re)production and challenge of dominance,
- CDA also investigates how practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power.
- The main response to challenges about the fairness of language assessment has been to turn to questions of test validity, rather than outwardly to social, cultural and political context of assessment.
- Kunnan(2000) considers not only the question of validity but also, issues of access- that is, financial, geographical, personal and educational access to tests and justice.
- Tests are seen to be deeply embedded in cultural educational and political arenas where different ideological and social forms are in struggle.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss critical discourse analysis and one of the other domains of critical applied linguistics.
2. Your former English language teacher has asked someone to translate a book written by him/her into another language; Mention some of the problems that can occur.

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UNIT 7 **COMPILATION OF DICTIONARIES**

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 What is Lexicography?
 - 3.2 The Electronic Age and the Compilation of Dictionary
 - 3.3 What is a Dictionary?
 - 3.4 Types of Dictionaries
 - 3.4.1 Bilingual Dictionaries
 - 3.4.2 Monolingual Dictionaries
 - 3.5 The Component Parts of a Dictionary
 - 3.5.1 The Front Matter
 - 3.5.2 The Macro Structure
 - 3.5.3 Micro Structure
 - 3.6 Compiling a Dictionary
 - 3.7 Dictionaries in Applied Linguistics
 - 3.8 Dictionaries in Second/Foreign Language Teaching
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the last unit, you were introduced to Critical Applied Linguistics (CAL). You learnt that, CAL raises questions such as identity, sexuality and power. You were also told that there are domains of critical applied linguistics such as- critical literacy, discourse analysis, translation, education and language testing. In this unit, you will learn about the dictionary and how the items are put together. We all use dictionaries but some of us are not aware of the amount of work that goes into the making of a dictionary. In this unit, you will be introduced to it. Just as it has been mentioned earlier, what you have in each unit is not all that the topic entails. You still have to go through the references and get more facts on your own. If you find it difficult locating any of the references, just type in the author's name and Google on the net will bring out all the available works of that author.

In his write-up on lexicography, Alan Kirkness (2006) highlights the incomparable importance of the dictionary as a reference book in various ways. He notes that 'world-wide, no book on a language or languages has been and is more widely used in education systems in communities at large than the dictionary'. (Kirkness (2006:55). This

means that the dictionary is of a great value to all and sundry. Whether as a pocket sized edition, big volume or electronic version, the dictionary is a very important document or material.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe what lexicography and dictionaries are
- discuss briefly the types of dictionaries, their uses in AL and foreign language teaching.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is Lexicography?

Kirkness (2006:55) defines lexicography as ‘the art and craft of writing a dictionary’ and a lexicographer is essentially someone who unites or contributes to a dictionary or dictionaries be it an individual or a member of a team, as a freelancer or an in-house employee, as a full-time professional or part-time alongside other activities such as university lecturing’. Lexicographer also refers to writers of the reference works, including encyclopaedias. Kirkness also sees lexicography as central to Applied Linguistics that must be seen as a complex activity with its own principles, practices, problems and traditions. Landau (2001) in Kirkness (2006:55) notes some questions that can be raised (as a result of this definition of lexicography) and these are:

Why dictionary? Why not thesaurus, lexicon or, encyclopaedia or other reference works? Why write, why not plan, edit, publish, or make, produce, compile, review or use? Why art and craft and why not activity, process, technique, science, job, profession or practice, history or theory?

Kirkness opines that these questions can be answered based on the knowledge that the dictionary is seen as a lexical reference that involves writing, rewriting, semantic, pragmatic or etymological descriptions, planning, data collection and publishing (Kirkness, 2006:56). He notes that good lexicography is more than just compilation.

Defining lexicography in the narrow sense of art and craft, Kirkness says, is an attempt to locate it explicitly at the centre of the applied linguistic endeavour and to emphasise the high degree of human knowledge insight, judgement and skill required to produce the text of a

successful reference work designed to be of practical use and benefit in real life situations.

Lexicography is said to involve extracting meanings and uses from authentic texts and explaining them. It is thus an art. The selection of the appropriate illustrations is an art while writing, with dictionary users in mind and with the mind of meeting their needs, is seen as a practical and useful activity and these five qualify it to be a craft.

To Kirkness (2006:54), the dictionary has long been and still is an essential source, if not the principal source of information on language, for all members of the literate societies. Members of a society might have, according to him, questions on any aspect or form, meaning and/or use of a word or words in their own or in another language. He goes ahead to describe lexicographers as descriptive linguists who:

- analyse and describes language with a traditional emphasis on individual items of vocabulary.
- draw on other non-linguistic disciplines including information technology, publishing, history, natural and social sciences in their compilation of items of the dictionary.
- do not make the description of language an end in itself.
- make knowledge about a language available to various sectors of the wider public.
- mediate between different kinds of language knowledge and different kinds of user needs.
- mediate between the community of linguists and the community at large, depending on the language and purpose of a particular dictionary project(Kirkness, 2006:54).

Kirkness (2006) opines that, lexicography has changed over the years as a result of the impact of the computer. Electronic storage facilities of vast lexical materials in corpora have brought a lot of development into lexicographical work. Another thing Kirkness reported that has brought a lot of changes to lexicographical work is meta-lexicography or dictionary research as an academic endeavour. The account of the work on dictionary presented in this unit is from the Western European perspective, which means that most of the discussion is based on and related to the British and other English Language lexicographies.

3.2 The Electronic Age and the Compilation of Dictionary

Kirkness (2006) notes that ‘the introduction of electronic corpora, and media, computers has made the work of lexicographers better, not necessarily easier because they now have to cope with a vast quantity of unimaginable textual data’. The difference between the manually

operated corpora and electronically operated ones now is both in quantity and quality. There is the provision of vastly superior data, frequency counts, determination of which usages should be included, which should be peripheral, which are obsolete/archaic, which should be combined, used as run-on-heads, homographs, etc. (p. 56-57). The computer may be able to do huge savings in storage space, processing time but it is human beings who will describe the relationships between the words and select appropriate illustrations, examples or establish usage restrictions (Kirkness, 2006:56-57) in line with socio-cultural conventions.

There are on-line e-dictionaries and e-encyclopaedias available free or by subscription on the internet and CD-ROM to users. Academic researchers working on dictionaries can now search from their desks, information required, into some on-line dictionaries. With the availability of word banks and word nets such as British National Corpus and Bank of English etc., users can effectively become their own lexicographers. Hartman(2001), Nesi (2000), Tono (2001) Atkins (1998) have worked on the user perspective, empirical studies of what dictionary users do in real look-up situations and these are important in applied linguistics.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What is lexicography and what do lexicographers do?

3.3 What is a Dictionary?

Kirkness (2006) avers that a dictionary is generally regarded as the prototypical work of lexical reference. It classifies and stores information in print or in an electronic form and has an access system or systems designed to allow users to retrieve the information in full 'or in part as readily as possible'. Simply put, a dictionary is a book or bank about words. Kirkness also adds that a reference work that stores and classifies such factual information areas is generally known as an encyclopaedia.

In an encyclopaedic entry, there may be function words such as prepositions, determiners or conjunctions and discourse making chunks such as 'you know', 'I mean', proper names of people, places, biographical data and descriptions of historical events, political, social and cultural institutions, geographical and geopolitical entities, works of art, literature and music, myths and mythologies, figures, beliefs, religion, academic disciplines in entries of encyclopaedias. He states that simply put, an encyclopaedia is a book or bank about facts (Kirkness, 2006:59).

3.4 Types of Dictionaries

Kirkness (2006:60) asserts that what constitutes the prototypical dictionary vary from society to society because different societies have different lexicographical traditions. As a result of the highly competitive markets, the time intervals between varying editions of dictionaries become shorter and shorter. Language teachers, librarians, dictionary scholars are all faced with the task of constant updating of their resources.

3.4.1 Bilingual Dictionaries

Bilingual dictionaries have entries that cover two national standard languages. In a bilingual dictionary, each word is defined by giving the equivalent word in another language. Hausman *et al.* in Kirkness (2006) distinguished between monolingual and multilingual dictionaries. They note that the vast majority of dictionaries are bilingual and this is the commonly used reference book in second/foreign language learning at all levels. He goes further to mention some specialised bilingual dictionaries as subject-specific technical dictionaries, and pictorial dictionaries in two languages.

The bilingual dictionary, Hausmann *et al.*, state is the general translation dictionary. They also mentioned passive or receptive dictionaries which help in decoding or translating from the target/foreign language to the source/native language, active or productive dictionaries help in encoding or translating from the source to the target language. Kirkness gives examples of, German-French (for foreign users), French-German users and French-German for German users (passive), German-French for German users and French-German for French users (active). He states that most bilingual dictionaries are bidirectional. Remember that in Nigeria we also have Yoruba-English dictionary.

Look at this example from Collins Gem Dicionario Ingles-Portugues; Portugues-Ingles (that is English- Portugues; Portugues-English)

apt [æpt] adj (suitable) adequado; (appropriate) apropriado; (likely) to do sujeito a fazer

ala[ala] f wing; (fileira) row; (passagem) aisle

3.4.2 Monolingual Dictionaries

Monolingual dictionaries have entries in one language. Explanations are given in the language used. They are divided into general and specialised works. It is confirmed that there are more than seventy types

of specialised dictionaries, which derive from different types of lexicographic information. These are dictionaries devoted to different types of Lemmas (or running heads) e.g. syntagmatic information are the major entries of syntactic patterns, valency, collocations, fixed phrases and idioms, proverbs or quotations. There are dictionaries which classify and list synonyms, dictionaries that deal with specific text types, and concordances, children's dictionaries, learners' dictionaries, pronouncing dictionaries, syllabic dictionaries, etc.

Kirkness (2006:63) states that there three major parts of a dictionary: (1) outside or additional matter, macro-structure and micro-structure. The sizes of these sections can vary according to the type of dictionary.

Look at the following entry from 'The *New International Webster's Comprehensive Dictionary*'

gun (gun) n.1 A metal tube for firing projectiles by the force of an explosive, by compressed air, or a spring, together with its stock and other attachments. 2 A piece of ordnance with a flat trajectory. 3 A/ any portable firearm except a pistol or a revolver, as a rifle, musket, carbine, etc.

3.5 The Component Parts of a Dictionary

3.5.1 The Front Matter

This is user's guide or key to the dictionary (key-explains style, structure, and content of the dictionary, meta-language, symbols and code used, punctuation and complex typography, layout of the entries). It may stand alone or accompany an introduction to the dictionary, outlining the educational principles underlying the work.

The middle matter consists of small, half or full page devoted to grammar and /or usage notes, frequency charts, word formation items and patterns, lexical sets or pragmatic conventions, etc. The outside matter might also contain both linguistic and encyclopaedic information of all kinds ranging from style guides, prefixes and suffixes and different alphabets to weights and measures (Kirkness, 2006:65).

3.5.2 The Macro Structure

This refers to the list and organisation of the lexical items entered in the dictionary, Lemmas or headwords. The Lemma list depends on the projected size and scope of the dictionary. It may be comprehensive (large unabridged) or highly selective as in small pocket dictionaries. The organisation of the Lemmas is now always alphabetical. Kirkness

notes that the micro structural criterion must be user-friendly that is, the user must be able to find the item looked for as quickly and easily as possible.

3.5.3 Micro Structure

This is said to refer to the lexicographic information on the Lemma contained in the dictionary article. It is noted that the dictionaries have different policies on the information they regard as lexically relevant in their own peculiar order. Some of the formal information provided by the micro structure is on spelling and pronunciation, variants in accepted standard varieties, base and inflected forms, syntactic categories, parts of speech, synonyms, antonyms (paradigmatic information on lexical fields); syntagmatic information on lexical collocation, grammatical associations, etc. are also included in this section.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. What is a dictionary? What are the component parts of a dictionary?
How can second or foreign language teachers enhance their teaching through the appropriate use of dictionaries?

3.6 Compiling a Dictionary

A dictionary is a book or bank of words. It classifies and stores information in print or electronic form (Kirkness, 2006:59). Dictionaries are compiled with the specifications of a particular dictionary project. That is, it depends on the target audience. Kirkness also notes that compilation has to do with extracting meanings and uses from authentic texts and explaining them clearly and fully in minimum words. The words are from both spoken and written data. Compilation is an act or a process of compiling or gathering words together from various sources. The information is linguistic but may include material on form, meaning, use, origin or history.

Many of the words we use or read about in the dictionary have history in terms of the person that first used the word, when it was first used and under what circumstances. The following should be taken into consideration when compiling words for a dictionary:

- selection of words from both spoken and written data
- Spelling /pronunciation of the word
- stress placement
- selection of appropriate illustrative examples
- write with dictionary users in mind

- central usages/peripheral usages should be determined
- determine which new items should be included
- determine which items should be excluded from the list
- determine which items warrant status as Lemmas or headwords
- describe polysemous words
- include synonyms, antonyms and hyponyms where possible
- establish usage and usage restriction etc

For example, look at the following word

walk /wôk /present v.t, *walked*, pt(past tense) *walking* (cont.)¹ to advance on foot in such a way that one part of a foot is always on the ground- i.e. *walk to the station*² to move or go on foot for exercise or amusement.

The first information on the word is the spelling. Next is the pronunciation of the word. After this comes the class of the word and it shows that it is a verb. The usage follows. If you check a big dictionary, you will find so many entries of walk there. As a language specialist, you should be able to make entries for words like the example above. Think about some of the words that are used by people around you. Think about their meanings. Try to make entries for them, taking into consideration some of the points highlighted above. You then appreciate what lexicographers do and also discover that you can do the same.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Make a dictionary entry for the word 'igba'- time in Yoruba or any word in your own indigenous language.

3.7 Dictionaries in Applied Linguistics

Dictionaries are important in educational settings, especially where languages are taught and learned. This makes lexicography an essential part of applied linguistics. Professional translators need dictionaries of different types, depending on the nature of the translation they want to do. Lexicographers and translators can work together with the latter giving expert information on the corpora. Kirkness (p.65) notes that technical translators must have the combination of linguistic and encyclopaedic or content knowledge of both written and spoken expressions. Literacy translators should also have the ability to extract meaning from texts in one language and get the appropriate equivalent in the other.

Researchers on language for special purposes in the area of communication also need dictionaries that are specialised and subject specific. These can be used as editors or consultant experts in relevant subject areas by lexicographers.

In language planning, corpus planning and status planning, the role of lexicography is central in that it is said to be instrumental to the establishment of standard varieties of the different vernaculars, especially in written usage.

3.8 Dictionaries in Second/Foreign Language Teaching

Dictionaries are very important in education planning and policy in language education at all levels. Kirkness (2006) observes that it is concerned with the writing and study of dictionary use especially by language teachers and learners. He also states that the involvement of dictionaries in second language and foreign language teaching involves mono, bi, and multilingual works as well as general children's school, college and specialised technical dictionaries. He notes that the current international importance of teaching and learning English as an additional language worldwide calls for the need for all kinds of specialised dictionaries.

People now talk about Englishes and Kirkness opines, with British English and American English taking the lead as varieties. Kirkness (2006:68) traces the development of the main-stream of modern British pedagogical lexicography for advanced learners. He notes that it dates back to 1948 when Oxford University Press published *A Learner's Dictionary of Current English* edited by A.S. Hornby with E.V. Gatenby and Wakefield and renamed *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* in 1952.

The choice of Lemmas or running heads were based on the classroom experience of practising language teachers and their knowledge and perception of learner's needs, especially those of advanced learners (Kirkness, 2006:68). He notes that Received Pronunciation (RP) (pronunciation conventions) of Lemmas was given in the transcriptions of the International Phonetic Association (IPA). General American Pronunciation (GAP) is also now recorded in addition to RP in CD version. Kirkness reports the publication of a second edition of Hornby's dictionary in 1963, third in 1974 with the title *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (OALD)* and has been revised with all kinds of improved language.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have been able to go through the types of dictionaries, how they are compiled, and the electronic age with respect to the production of dictionaries, the component parts of a dictionary, dictionaries in AL and dictionaries in second and foreign language teaching.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- the dictionary has long been and still is an essential source, if not the principal source of information, on language for all members of the literate society
- lexicography is the art and craft of writing a dictionary
- a lexicographer is essentially someone who writes or contributes to dictionaries
- lexicographers analyse and describe language, with traditional emphasis on individual items of vocabulary
- a dictionary is generally regarded as the prototypical work of lexical choice
- monolingual dictionaries are said to be divided into general and specialised works
- dictionaries are important in educational settings, especially where languages are taught and learned.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Which definition of 'casual' fits which sentence?
Casual / kəzjʊl/. **Casuals**. 1 something that is **casual** 1.1 happens or is done by chance or without planning. ° (Adj. class, accidental), e.g. her casual remark caused a political storm... a casual meeting. **Casually**, e.g. ... a casually acquired object. (Adv. with vb) 1.2 is rather careless and done without much interest, (Adj. superficial), e.g. I had a casual glance at the papers.. a casual friendship. **Casually**. (Adv. with vb)
2. If you are **casual**, you are or you pretend to be calm (Adj. nonchalant, unconcerned) and not very interested in what is happening or what you are doing, e.g. he tried to appear casual as he asked her to dance... a casual wave. **Casually** e.g. I walked casually into his room. Casualness, e.g. with studied **casualness** he mentioned it to Hilary.

3. **Casual** clothes are clothes that are suitable for when you are at home or doing things other than working.(Adj, informal) but are not suitable for work or formal occasions, e.g. a casual shirt. – used as a plural noun, e.g. smart casuals. **Casually**, e.g. He was dressed casually.
 4. **Casual** work is done for only a short time and not on a permanent or regular basis.(Adj temporary), e.g. They employ casual workers to pick the fruits... a casual job
1. It was quite a casual outfit, just right for such an informal occasion (definition no. -----)
 2. I only said it casually, but it shocked her (definition no.---)
 3. I don't get a salary; I'm just a casual. (definition no.---)
 4. It was just a casual encounter, but it changed my life. (definition no. ---)
- (2) Think about the word *informal*.
1. What is its root, its prefix and its suffix?
 2. What is its opposite or antonym?
 3. Has it got any synonyms?
 4. What words are included in its word family?
 5. Use it in (a) a phrase (b) sentence.
- (3) Plan a dictionary for your language with entries of at least 5 lexical words and two grammatical words and describe the process involved. Make sure you identify the intended users.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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