

PREFACE

In the curricular structure introduced by this University, apart from the two year Postgraduate Degree programmes, a number of Advanced Diploma Courses of shorter duration (one year) have been introduced for learners for whom time is a constraint. Equally relevant and useful as the Postgraduate courses, are the Advanced Diploma Courses, which are designed for advancing the latent abilities of the learners. Since the University does not believe in artificial differences of learning abilities, opting for various courses is viewed from the perspective of need and orientation of the learners rather than from their ability and aptitude. Therefore, in the course of the learning process, the learners' receptivity of the course component remains the primary concern.

Keeping this in view, study materials of the Advanced Diploma level in different subjects are being prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analyses.

The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholars is indispensable for a work of this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing and devising of proper lay-out of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an involvement in invisible teaching. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other.

The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials the easier it will be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms with them through the counselling sessions regularly available at the network of study centres set up by the University.

Needless to add, a great part of these efforts is still experimental—in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these too admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned.

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**Advance : Diploma in English Language Teaching
[ADELT]**

Paper – 4

Modules – 1 - 2

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PAPER – IV

Module : Introduction to Applied Linguistics

1

Unit 1	□ Introduction to Applied Linguistics	7-20
Unit 2	□ Theories of Applied Linguistics	21-29
Unit 3	□ Psycholinguistics	30-43
Unit 4	□ Sociolinguistics	44-63

Module : Language Acquisition and learning

2

Unit 1	□ Second Language Acquisition	64-74
Unit 2	□ Implications of SLA for ELT	75-81
Unit 3	□ Components of Language Pedagogy	82-100

Unit 1 □ Introduction to Applied Linguistics

Structure

- 1.0 Objectives**
- 1.1 Introduction**
- 1.2 Applied Linguistics : Definition and Scope**
- 1.3 Evolution of the concept of Applied Linguistics**
- 1.4 Contribution of various disciplines to Applied Linguistics**
- 1.5 Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis**
- 1.6 Let's sum up**
- 1.7 Review Questions**
- 1.8 Glossary**
- 1.9 Reference**

1.0 □ Objectives

The purpose of this unit is to give you an idea of what Applied Linguistics means, how it began, how it developed into a discipline, the sources which fed into it and in particular, its implications for English Language Teaching or ELT.

Having worked through this unit. You should be able to:

- define applied linguistics
- become aware of its scope
- understand the way it is linked to language pedagogy.

This unit will also serve as a general background to the other units of this module.

1.1 □ Introduction

English language teaching is a classroom activity involving interaction among the learner and the teacher. The aim is to bring about a change in the learner. This is effected through a three-directional interaction; the teacher mediating between the learner and

the learning material, in the process interacting with the learner as well as the learning materials. During the process, the teacher and the learner participate in various activities, which may or may not contribute to the final outcome, and during which some things may go wrong and break down, while other things may operate smoothly, without any hitch.

As an every day practitioner, a language teacher has to keep in sight the ultimate outcome and at the same time be alert to what is taking place in the classroom and has to handle it instantaneously. This may be for controlling the classroom, rewarding or praising the learner, rebuking or punishing him, transacting techniques, facilitating the teaching objective, or repairing the damage that has taken place within the process or activity. These involve not only verbal interaction but also "doing" things within the classroom.

The ability to control, guide and repair the teaching activity requires a knowledge and insights far beyond the obvious activities within the classroom. What is the nature of the knowledge and insight? Is this systematic? Is it based to certain principles? If so, where do these principles derive from?

It is believed that Applied Linguistics is the interdisciplinary area which provides systematic and informed answers to the questions raised in the previous paragraph, In the following sections you will gather some idea of how this discipline came to exist and what it is expected to contribute to language pedagogy in particular and to the total field of language teaching in general.

1.2 □ Applied Linguistics : Definition and Scope

The Longman's Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics defines Applied Linguistics as —

'The study of language and linguistics in relation to practical problems, such as lexicography, translation, speech pathology, etc. Applied linguistics uses information from sociology, psychology, anthropology and information theory as well as from linguistics in order to develop its own theoretical models of language and language use, and then uses this information and theory in practical areas such as syllabus design, speech therapy, language planning, stylistics, etc.

Initially, the term Applied Linguistics referred to rather direct application of linguistic principles to either the analysis of language or to language pedagogy. The earliest illustration of such an application are three books of Harold E. Palmer of England, namely—*The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages* (1917) *The Oral Method of Teaching Languages* (1921) and *The Principles of Language Study* (1922), all making an attempt to base language pedagogy on the theoretical disciplines of linguistics and psychology.

In this sense structural linguistics in America from the very beginning was concerned with the application of linguistic principles for the analysis and description of the fast disappearing Amerindian languages.

During World War II, guided by the belief that linguistic scholars could provide solutions to the language teaching problems faced in the learning of exotic languages, the Army called in linguists for their wartime language programmes.

During World War II faced by the challenging task of teaching short-term courses in exotic languages like Japanese (Known as the Army Specialised Training Programme or ASTP), American Linguists broke away from the traditions of conventional language teaching and developed certain approaches and sets of techniques derived from linguistic principles. The approaches can be expressed as the five tenets given below.

- Language is primarily speech, not writing
- A language is what native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say (as opposed to the hatemate fallacy)
- Languages are different (hatemate fallacy).
- A language is a set of habits (How languages are learnt)
- Teach the language, not about the language (Language is a skill, not knowledge).

The set of techniques that were developed for the programme, included mimicking the spoken model, memorization of the structures through repetition and intensive practice or language drills.

Apart from providing a specific framework, the five principles mentioned earlier influenced the content and design of teaching materials, classroom techniques and specially teacher training till the sixties. For instance, a structural analysis of the language to be learnt became the basis for the graded teaching materials used. Oral skills were emphasized and practised intensively. For the use of such materials and techniques teachers needed to be trained.

Hence, it is seen that the application of the concepts and methods used in the scientific study of language (i.e. theoretical linguistics) to other areas like language teaching and testing, translation and the language of literature was called Applied linguistics. Emerging disciplines in the late 1960s and 1970s like sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics were regarded as related disciplines.

1.3 □ Evolution of the concept of Applied Linguistics

What has been described so far may be referred to as the first or earliest phase

of the development of applied linguistics where linguistics is seen to apply directly to second language teaching, mainly in providing its content.

The second phase of development is the one exemplified mainly by S. Pit Corder, associated with the centre for Applied linguistics at the University of Edinburgh. He diverges from the first phase in two ways. First, he acknowledges that the relationship between linguistics and classroom activities is an indirect one; and that the application can take place at various levels. He demonstrates this by distinguishing between three orders of application of linguistics, contributing in three different ways to language pedagogy, (see Fig. 1.1 below.)

Application	Theory	Process	Data
First order	linguistic and socio-linguistic	description \Rightarrow	language utterance
Second order	linguistic and socio-linguistic	comparison and selection \Rightarrow	description of languages
Third order	linguistic socio-linguistic and psycho-linguistic	organization and presentation \Rightarrow	content of syllabus
			teaching materials.

Fig. 1.1 Corder's view of the application of linguistics

However, he accepts the basic view that applied linguistics involves an application of linguistics. He looks upon it as an activity and asserts categorically that it is not a theoretical study, but something which makes use of the findings of theoretical studies.

The second point of divergence from the earlier phase lies in the fact that Corder envisages disciplines other than linguistics contributing to applied linguistics. You can see this clearly from Fig. 1.1. At the first level of application the concepts of second language. On this basis the second order of application determines the selection of items. Such selection is helped by contrastive analysis and error analysis and will yield an inventory or list of items from which the linguistic content of the syllabus as well as the teaching materials can be determined at the third level of application.

Corder in effect maintains a paradoxical position. By denying any theoretical status to applied linguistics, he assigns a narrow definition to it. At the same time he is unable to maintain the stance that linguistics contributes significantly to the principle

of designing a teaching programme. Consequently he attempts to broaden the base of applied linguistics by conceding that other disciplines also feed into it.

The third phase in the development of applied linguistics is characterized by an attempt to establish it as —

"a field in its own right, a discipline with an independent body of knowledge, one with an evolving methodology of its own— a theory independent of other disciplines to the extent that any theoretical formulation can be independent of the total body of human knowledge."

Peter Stevrens provides a fundamental definition of applied linguistics as a discipline in its own right. According to him, applied linguistics has a basis in theory and principle, and is not simply a body of techniques, procedures and practicalities. The practitioners of applied linguistics seek the underlying principles, rationales, generalizations, hypotheses and theories which account for and help to explain the vast diversity of practical activities with which they are concerned. Secondly, and more importantly, these bases are multiple. Applied linguistics seeks and accepts illumination from any and every source and is essentially multi-disciplinary in nature. At various times and in relation to various tasks it looks to disciplines such as linguistics, psychology, neurophysiology, information theory, social theory, education, philosophy, logic and scientific method, involving the relevant areas of the appropriate disciplines. Stevrens claims that it is this multiple basis of interlocking disciplines which makes applied linguistics the only discipline capable of responding in a principled way to **any** language related problem. Third, applied linguistics is not restricted to an interest in the teaching and learning as languages, though this has usually been its longest single area of concern.

According to Peter Stevrens, because of its multidisciplinary nature, applied linguistics redefines itself afresh for each task. The precise aims of a particular task will determine which of the theoretical bases are likely to be the most relevant and in what proportions, and this in turn will affect the methodology and approach of the applied linguist. Stevrens illustrates this point in relation to the learning and teaching of languages, which has the following three components : (1) the underlying disciplines like linguistics, education, psychology and pedagogy etc., (2) teaching techniques and (3) aids and equipment.

As a result of its nature then, applied linguistics is dynamic and not static. This has two principal advantages. First, it permits a maximum adaptability to the precise needs of each different task. Second, it ensures that applied linguistics remains dynamic, changing by the addition of new sources of illumination or by incorporating new developments within existing components. Hence, Stevrens claims for it the unique distinction of fulfilling a multibased, interdisciplinary language related function. Robert

Kaplan (1980) takes a similar position. Applied linguistics thus envisaged as a discipline which derives principles from various bases, seeks to find a principled way for decision-making at various levels and serves as an appropriate interface between theory and practice.

1.4 □ Contribution of Various Disciplines to Applied Linguistics

As applied linguistics operates today, we find in it contributions and applications from disciplines other than linguistics for arriving at principled decisions for language pedagogy. Charles C. Fries mentions two organizing principle of language content from outside linguistics, those of 'relevance' and 'pedagogy.' One of the uses of contrastive linguistics was the determinaion of learners' "dificulty" — a concept related to psychology and learning. So you can see that even at the earliest stage, principles other than those of linguistics were not kept out for the solution of pratical tasks. In the following sections you will get some idea of how linguistics, along with other disciplines or areas of study, have fed into applied linguistics.

Input from linguistics

As we have already seen in the earlier sections, linguistic descriptions have contributed primarily to the determination of the content of language teaching : sounds, vocabulary, structures and the like, which were organised following the various principles of selection, graduation, frequency, availability, teachability and the like. Above all, descriptive linguistics has brought about a change in the way one looks at language and language teaching, and hence in the way language learning is conceived of. Learning a language now essentially means learning how to communicate through that language, both in the spoken and the written mode. The recognition of the existence of language varieties has helped determining the issue "which variety shall we teach or learn?" Awareness of the existence of functional varieties and choices within one language: style, register, domain and formality for example, have helped focus on relevant aspects of a language course. English for specific purposes (English for science and technology, Business English, English for law, English for Academic purposes etc.) for instance, is a partial application of the principle of recognizing the importance of variation within a language.

Certain basic concepts of linguistics now underlie language teaching programmes. One of these is the interrelationship of units within the language system, e.g., opposition or contrast and various combinational possibilities. These relate to the selection of content and their organization.

Inputs from Psycholinguistics

Principles of psychology relate to how something (a language, for example) is learned, which factors contribute to learning (e.g. motivation, attention etc.) negotiation of meaning through language, retention or memory, the process of learning itself, what makes learning interesting or boring and so on. These then have implications mainly for the teaching process, — how something is presented, practised, consolidated and explored. These relate primarily to methodology and perhaps the organization of the content of a language course. The question of whether the learner's mother tongue helps or hinders second language learning has bearing on second language methodology as to whether to include or exclude the use of the first language for second language learning.

Inputs from education

Developments in education have drawn attention to the factors like the following in language teaching: philosophy of education, goals of education, domains of education, curriculum design and so on. Research in analysing teacher task has provided insights into how discourse is organised in the classroom through language for (1) classroom management, (2) instructions, and (3) transaction of the educational goals. These have implications for organizing the syllabus, presentation and use of materials in the classroom and organizing interactional and other activities, that is, for methodology. Language pedagogy then, via the interface of applied linguistics, utilises the principles drawn from education for drawing up and implementing a language course.

Inputs from sociology

Language is invariably used in social contexts and fulfils social goals. This location of speech in society has focussed attention to the concept of communicative competence of an individual and the conventions in use within a speech community. The issues of an individual's role and status in society, his networking and the concrete problems of face-to-face interaction, relate directly to language pedagogy as they touch upon such features as relevance, appropriateness, focus of the message, target audience, formality, politeness, social functions of the language and the like.

It is in this context that the communicative approach to language teaching and the notional functional syllabus proposed by D. A. Wilkins for the threshold level language teaching for the Council of Europe were developed in the early seventies. The first of these is the product of the change in the concept of what language is, while the second is an attempt to implement the approach through an innovative content.

As is well known, the communicative approach to language teaching emanated from the concept of "communicative competence". Communicative competence includes, over and above grammatical competence, the intuitive grasp of social and cultural rules and meanings that are carried by an utterance. The aim of second language learning, according to this approach, is the development of the communicative competence of the learner. This view thus has implications for both the content and methodology of second language courses.

David Wilkins took a more semantic, more social and more communicative view of language than that provided by linguistics in the early seventies. He then proposed a semantic or notional framework for syllabus making or organizing the content of language courses. His outline of the syllabus consisted of three components: (1) semantico-grammatical categories (e.g. notions like space, time, location, measurement etc. which have linguistic manifestations in a language. For instance, time in English is expressed through tense, aspect and time adverbials. (2) Categories of modal meaning (notions of probability, ability uncertainty etc. expressed through modal verbs and other means); and (3) categories of communicative functions (e.g. suggestion, situation etc.)

Within categories of functions of speech, other classifications have also been made. These include, for example, the (1) expressive function, (2) interactional function, (3) phatic function, (4) referential function, (5) instrument function, and (6) metalingual function. Other concepts derived from the inter-relationship between society and language use are those of the speech event, speech act, illocutionary force, turn-taking, adjacency pairs, exchanges and conditions for successful exchanges and so on. These have influenced the specification of the goals of language learning as well as the content of such courses.

Inputs from communication

Since the main function of language is communication, any language – related task has to take into account the fluency, the negotiation of meaning and the like in language transactions.

From information theory comes the concept of language as a code transmitting messages through a channel, requiring encoding and decoding. Fig. 1.2 below is a diagrammatic representation of this process. The model suggests, in simple terms, that both the sender (source) and the receiver (destination) must already be familiar with the code if the message to be sent is to be encoded at the source and decoded and understood by the receiver.

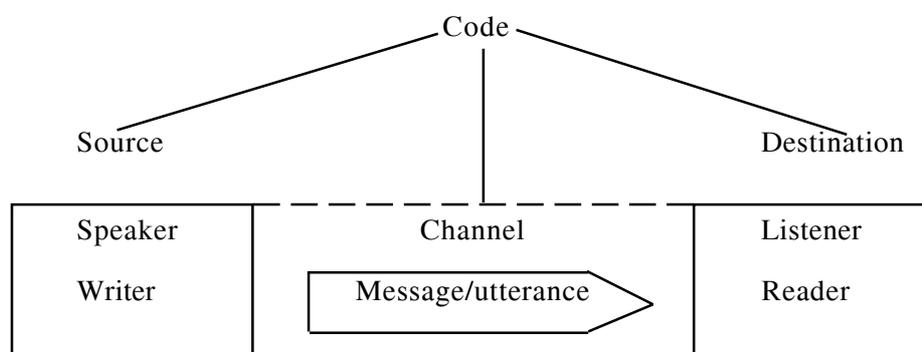


Fig. 1.2 A model of communication

Communication engineering further provide concepts like noise, and redundancy in the operation of languages. For language pedagogy such notions influence the methodology of language teaching. Such concepts have been utilised also in the use of language in computers.

1.5 □ Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis

An important development within applied linguistics has been the emergence of the concepts like Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis. Along with contrastive linguistics, error analysis at one time was an area of prolific research and was an important aspect of applied linguistics. It began as an area of pragmatic research where errors were taken to be an indication of learners' difficulties, or of teaching lapses. The findings were used for remedial measures, either in the area of content or in the field of methodology or both. From this simplistic interpretation, errors gradually came to assume greater significance, For example, in Pit Corder's scheme, the second order application determined the selection of items. This selection, helped by contrastive linguistics and error analysis provides an inventory of items which forms the linguistic content of the language syllabus.

Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) : Robert Lado (1957) in 'Linguistics Across Cultures' claimed that those elements of the second language which are similar to the learner's native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult. He suggested a systematic set of technical procedures for the contrastive study of languages. These involve describing the languages, using structuralist linguistics, comparing them and predicting learning difficulties.

Contrastive Analysis (CA) is a synchronic linguistic study which contrasts two languages and brings out in detail the similarities and differences between them. The implication of such a study, therefore, is two fold — theoretical and practical. The

theoretical implication is to study how and where languages are alike and in which ways they differ. This comparative study may be taken at any or all levels phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, cultural, etc. The basic assumptions underlying CA are the following :

- Language is a set of habits.
- An old habit affects the formation of a new habit.
- L_1 interferes with the learning of L_2 .
- The differences between L_1 and L_2 will be the areas of difficulty for the learners.
- CA can make these differences explicit, and
- Language teachers and material writers should base their teaching on the findings of CA.

However, a few limitations and shortcomings have been recognised in CA hypotheses, like—

- CA focuses mainly on differences between L_1 and L_2 ,
- Not all difficulties and errors can be traced back to the influence of L_1 .
- Some of the difficulties predicted by CA do not pose any problem, etc.

Error Analysis : S. Pit Corder (1967) at University of Edinburgh made use of Chomsky's 'competence vs performance' distinction by associating errors with failures in competence and mistakes with failures in performance. In his view, a mistake occurs as the result of processing limitations, rather than lack of competence. That is, it signifies the second language learner's failure of utilising their knowledge of a target language rule. The analysis of sources of errors has been regarded as a central aspect in the study of learner errors. Corder suggested that a systematic investigation of learners' errors would lead to the discovery of a "built-in-syllabus" of the language learner and would provide a better understanding of the language learning process. In fact, around this time researchers were trying to discover the natural sequences of learning a second language.

Related to the assumption that there is a natural sequence in the learning of a second language, there was the concept of "interlanguage", postulated by Larry Selinker in the early seventies. It proposes that a learner's language, at every stage, is systematic; that is, it differs from both the learner's mother tongue and the language being learnt in systematic ways, [Interlanguage has also been referred to as "approximative systems".] This means that the forms of utterances produced by the learner, the so-called, 'errors', are not random but form a system which is deviant in terms of both the L_1 and L_2 . Looked at in this way, errors are inevitable for the process of learning. Showing the ways learners explore the learning area and make sense out of it.

Selinker related errors to various processes of learning and teaching languages and other cognitive processes like generalisation and fossilization, From this perspective, errors provide an insight into the ways in which learners learn second languages.

Error Analysis usually proceeds through the following stages .

- a. Recognition of errors.
 - b. Description of errors in linguistic terms.
 - c. Explanation of errors in terms of their sources.
 - d. Evaluation of errors.
- a. **Recognition** : Most errors are noticed in the expressive activities of the learners e.g. their speech, compositions, etc. Receptive errors can only be observed indirectly. In order to identify an error, we must try to find out what the learners want to communicate. Then we should try to locate the error from the body of data obtained from learners' expressive activities.
 - b. **Description** : Description of errors can begin only when recognition has taken place. Description of errors in linguistics terms involves their classification. For example, errors in the area of phonology, morphology, or syntax and then sub-classification for example in syntax, errors of tense usage, of article usage, of word order and so on.
e.g. Learner's utterance : Does Mohan can sing?
Error : Use of mutually exclusive auxiliaries *do* and *can*.
 - c. **Explanation** : The explanation of error is an investigation into the reasons why the learner has broken, disregarded or ignored the rules of the target language. The sources of errors may be interlingual (i.e. the interference of the learner's mother tongue) and/or intralingual (i.e. the interference of the rules of the target language in the process and strategies of second language learning). For example when a Hindi speaker produces an utterance like-'I am reading, since morning', the errors can be explained in terms of interference from the Hindi grammatical system which does not make a distinction between present progressive and present perfect progressive tense. Intralingual sources of errors may be the following:
 - i) **Overgeneralisation** : Overgeneralisation covers instances where second language learners make errors on the basis of their experience of other structures in the target language. For example on the analogy of play-played-played the learner may produce go-goed-goed or again on the analogy of play-player the learner produces cheat-cheater.
 - ii) Ignorance of rule restrictions : Sometimes the learner produces errors because he fails to observe the restrictions on existing structures, i.e. he applies the rules to contexts where they do not apply as in the following-

Correct forms

He said to me

We talked about it

Analogical erroneous forms

He asked to me

we discussed about it

- iii) **Incomplete application of rules** : One may note the occurrence of structures which show that the learner is in the process of acquiring acceptable forms. For example, the learner has acquired the statement form but not the question form and uses the statement form instead of the question form, For example—

What you are doing?

When you came?

- iv) **False concepts hypothesized** : Some intralingual errors may derive from faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language. For example, if the learners have acquired 'is' and 'was' and associate these forms with the present and the past tense, then the learner will tend to use these forms to indicate

Present or Past e.g.

He was helped me (instead of He helped me)

He is goes to school everyday (instead of He goes to school everyday).

- d. **Evaluation of errors** : In a pedagogical study of errors there is need to evaluate the gravity of errors to determine priorities for remedial measures. A simple evaluation technique is to assess the error gravity in terms of the number and nature of violated target language rules. Burt and Kiparsky (1975) suggest that a hierarchical distinction between 'global' and 'local' errors is useful for evaluation of errors.

A global error is an error in the use of a major element of sentence structure, which makes a sentence or utterance difficult or impossible to understand. For example, 'I like take taxi but my friend said so not that we should be late for school?' This may be contrasted with a local error which is an error in the use of an element of sentence structure, but which does not cause problems of comprehension. For example, 'If I heard from him I will let you know?'

1.6 □ Let's sum up

In this unit we have dealt with the scope and definition of applied linguistics, the evolution of applied linguistics as an independent discipline, the nature of contribution of various disciplines to applied linguistics. We have also discussed different approaches to the problem of difficulty in second language learning: the contrastive analysis and the error analysis approach. The two approaches are complementary to each other. A language teacher can benefit from both.

1.7 □ Review Questions

1. What is the basic assumption behind applied linguistics?
2. Identify two areas of practice activity where the principles of linguistics were put to use during the forties.
3. In which areas of language pedagogy did Charles Fries think linguistics could contribute?
4. What is meant by contrastive linguistics?
5. In what ways does contrastive linguistics contribute to language pedagogy?
6. Name two issues which were debated during the evolution and development of applied linguistics as a discipline.
7. Discuss in detail the methodology of error analysis with examples.

1.8 □ Glossary

Contrastive linguistics : a systematic comparison of the similarities and differences of two languages in their sound system, vocabulary and grammatical systems, following the principles of linguistics.

Content : refers to the terms, topics etc. listed for teaching in a course or syllabus.

Error Analysis : a systematic study of the errors by a language learner. It involves identifying, classifying, describing and explaining the source of errors.

First language : the mother tongue of a speaker.

Graded/grading : refers to the principle of organization of content in a syllabus. The principle may be 'difficulty' where items are arranged from the less difficult to the most difficult. The principle may be of complexity where earlier items are simpler and they get more complex later in the syllabus. Other principles like teachability, availability etc. may also be used.

Inter-language : proposed by L. Selinker in the early seventies, the concept refers to the internal language system a language learner possesses at any one particular time. For production, such a system manifests deviant forms of language or errors. A learner passes through progressively non-deviant stages of inter-language till he arrives at the system of the language being learnt. Children learning their mother tongues as well as children and adults learning a second language show evidence of the existence of inter-language. Inter-language is also referred to as an approximative system.

Mother tongue : the language used in the family in which a child grows up, and which he learns as a part of the growing process.

Notional-function syllabus : proposed by David Wilkins in the early seventies, it is a proposal for semantic organisation of the *content* of a language syllabus.

Pedagogy : the practice of teaching, but more specifically, in a technical sense, the *study* of teaching.

Second language : a language that a person learns over and above his mother tongue.

Selection : a principle in syllabus design, by which items of a language are chosen for inclusion in the content of a language syllabus. One such principle is frequency, of vocabulary and grammatical structures.

Semantics : the systematic study of meaning in language.

Source language : the language a language learner already possesses. Usually this is his mother tongue or the first language.

Target language : the language being taught to a learner over and above his existing language or languages.

1.9 □ Reference

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Unit 2 □ Theories of Applied Linguistics

Structure

2.0 Objectives

2.1 Introduction

2.2 Theories of applied linguistics

2.2.1 The meaning of 'theory'

2.2.2 Evolution of the theories of applied linguistics

2.3 Let's sum up

2.4 Review questions

2.5 Glossary

2.6 Reference

2.0 □ Objectives

The purpose of this is to make you aware of the implications of applied linguistics for ELT and the various theories and models that have been proposed by various experts in their attempt to link applied linguistics and language teaching processes.

Having worked through this unit you would be able to:

- Define theory, and
- Understand the way applied linguistics is linked to language pedagogy.

2.1 □ Introduction

It should now be obvious to you that a large number of disciplines, both established and newly emerging ones, have the potential to influence and determine various aspects of language pedagogy. However, if there are conflicting principles and/or too many inputs, there is the problem of organising and balancing these in order to focus on the task at hand. There thus seems to be an urgent need for a framework for systematization so that the diverse factors may be integrated in a coherent manner.

In other words, there should be available, at every point of decision making, a set of guidelines to provide the basis for making a decision.

2.2 □ Theories of Applied Linguistics

We have already studied that applied linguistics provides a principled procedure for making decisions at various levels of a language related task (e.g. teaching a language like English). Such principled procedures require a conceptual frame work for their systematic operation, which can only be provided by theories and models. In this sense, theory building is an essential part of "doing" applied linguistics, just like in any other discipline.

2.2.1 The meaning of 'theory'

What is a 'theory'? In this subsection we will consider the meaning of the term as well as several models of language teaching and learning. It is possible to distinguish three meanings of the term "theory" related to their generality. According to H. H. Stern, theory at level 1 or (T₁) is the widest or most comprehensive in its scope. In this sense, it refers to "the systematic study of the thought related to a topic or activity". It thus offers a system of thought, a method of analysis and synthesis, a framework in which to place different observations, phenomena and activities, It is in this sense that educational philosophers often use the term. A theory considers a topic or certain practical activities as something coherent and unified but divisible in parts, In this widest sense one can also conceive of theories of second language teaching. In this sense theory is a synonym for systematic thinking or a set of coherent thoughts. Applied linguistics theory thus contains all thinking about language teaching, teaching methods, and psychological, sociological and philosophical questions underlying these.

The second meaning of "theory" is less comprehensive than this. Within the general frame work of T₁, it is possible to "subsume different schools of thought of 'theories' (T₂s) each with their own assumptions, postulates, principles, models and concepts." Language teaching, "methods", approaches, schools of thought like the grammar-translation method, the direct method, the communicative approach, cognitive approach or theory, are all examples of T₂ or theories in the second sense. Theories of language teaching and learning, based on different linguistic and psychological assumptions, emphasising different objectives and utilising different procedures are theories at this second level of generality. They function within the general framework of applied linguistics but are more specifically theories of second or English language teaching.

In the natural and human sciences, the concept of theory is implied in a more rigorous third sense (T₃) as "a hypothesis or set of hypotheses that have been verified

by observation or experiment." or as "a logically connected set of hypotheses whose main function is to explain their subject matter." Theories of linguistics, psychology and psycholinguistics or sociolinguistics and T3s in this sense have played a role in the development of language teaching approaches (T2s), thus contributing to language teaching theory or theories of applied linguistics in the widest sense.

In the light of all these, we can view a good applied linguistic theory as one which strives to provide a conceptual framework devised for identifying all the factors relevant in the teaching of languages and the relationships between these and for giving effective direction to the practice of language teaching, supported by the necessary research and theory. The theories of applied linguistics we are going to consider in this section are all instances of T1.

2.2.2 Evolution of the theories of applied linguistics

Theories of applied linguistics, like the discipline itself, has undergone changes and development. For instance Fig. 2.1. below is an early example of a fairly simple framework showing the direct application of theoretical bases. In this view, R.N. Campbell, an American applied linguist, considers applied linguistics as a mediator between theory and practice.

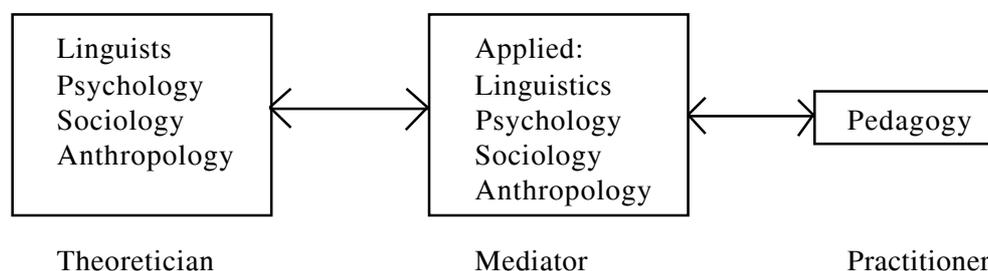


Fig. 2.1. Relationship between theory and practice

This model is too undifferentiated and does not specify the ways in which applications can operate.

To remedy this, B. Spolsky presented a more elaborate model and tried to show that not only is linguistics alone an inadequate basis for language teaching but even a combination of linguistics and psychology is insufficient. Fig. 2.2. below represents a more adequate conceptual framework relating to such relationships.

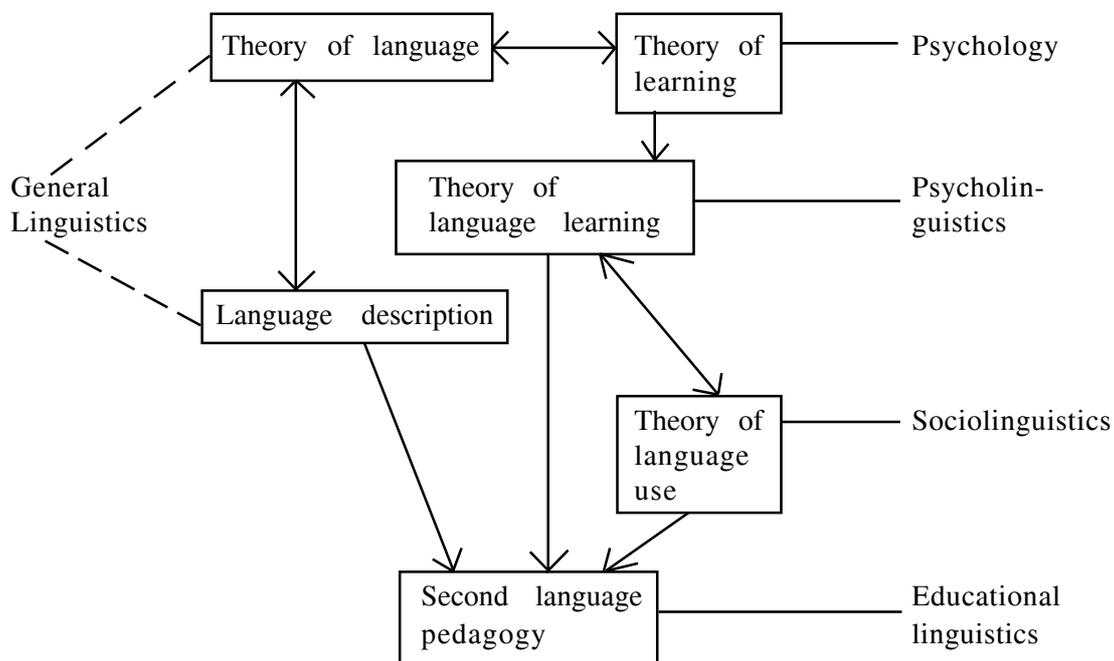


Fig. 2.2. The way in which disciplines contribute to language pedagogy.

It should be noted what Spolsky calls educational linguistics has been called applied linguistics by others. Spolsky's model leaves out the practicalities of a teaching situation and hence cannot be regarded as a complete representation of the teaching-learning process.

D.E. Ingram's model, as represented in Fig. 2.3. illustrates some of these missing features.

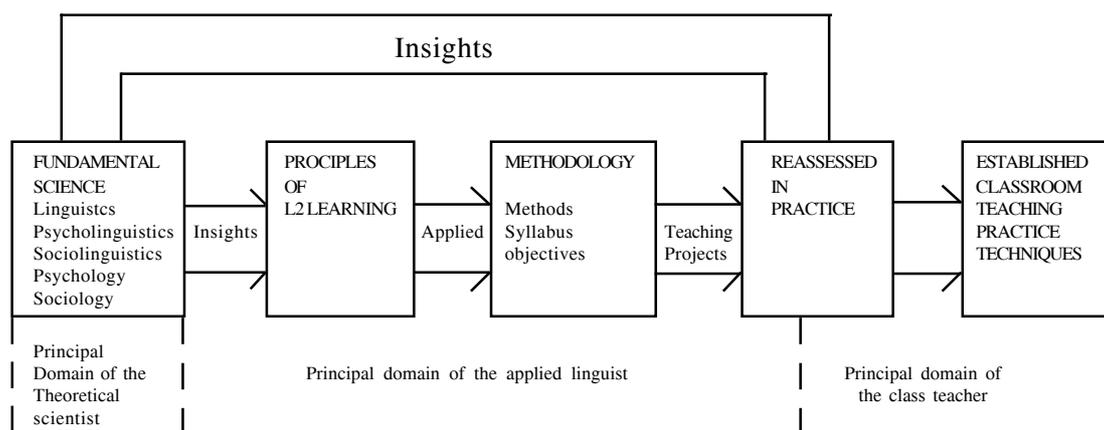


Fig. 2.3. Showing functions of the applied linguist and distribution of tasks.

W. F. Mackey provided an interactional model, as set out in Fig. 2.4. below. He places language learning in its socio-political context and assumes the importance of underlying disciplines in relation to the various factors represented in the model.

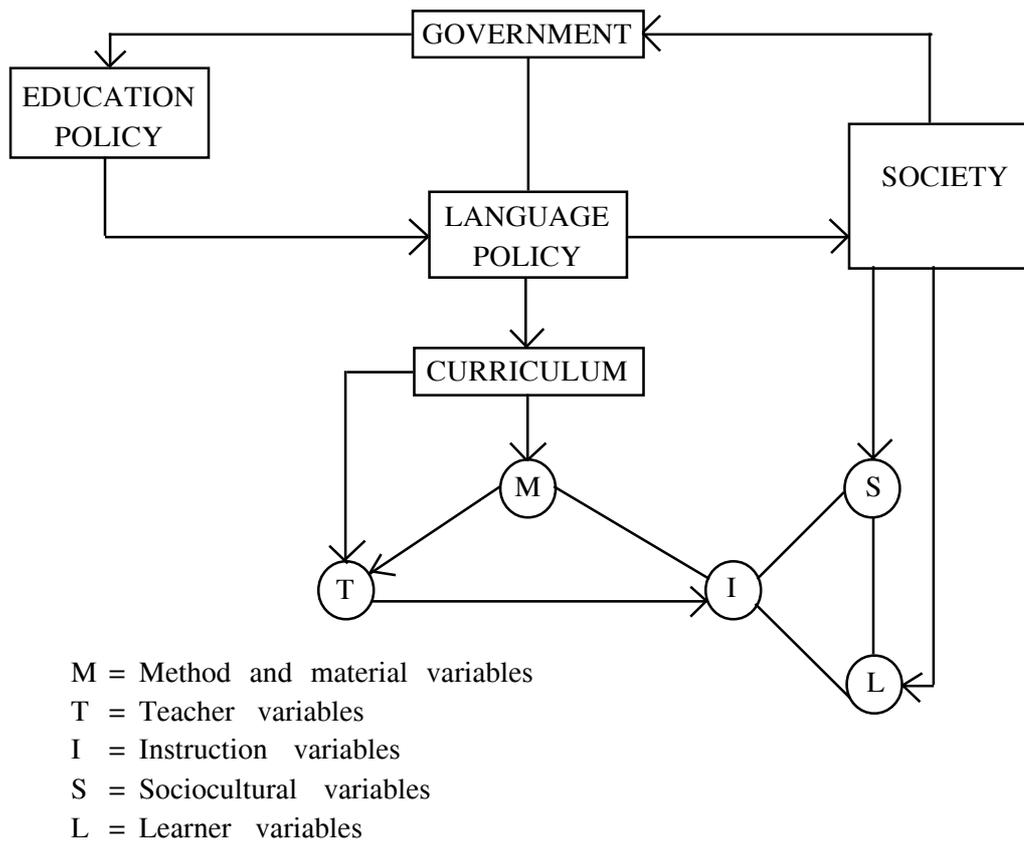


Fig. 2.4. Mackey's interaction model of Language learning, teaching and policy.

The model presented by Peter Stevrens, a British applied linguist, combines in a single design, all the essential, features that make up language teaching. The contribution of underlying disciplines are not shown, but it can be assumed that they have a role to play in the elements 4 to 12.

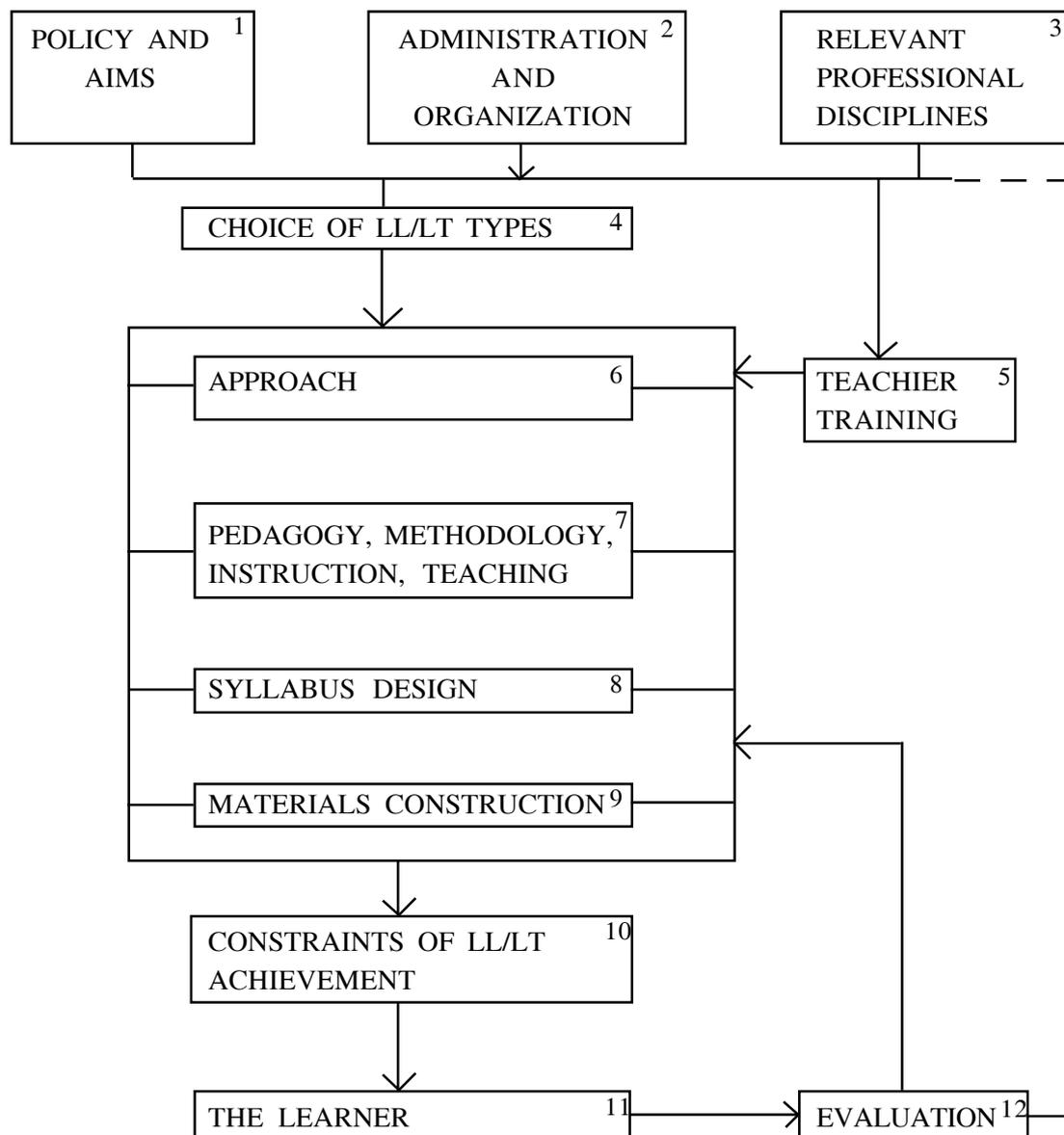


Fig. 2.5. Peter Stevrens ' model of language teaching

Rejecting all of the models presented so far H. H. Stern strove to propose a general conceptual framework for teaching. It aims to offer a basis for an unbiased consideration of all the relevant factors of language pedagogy, Fig. 2.6. below shows Stern's model.

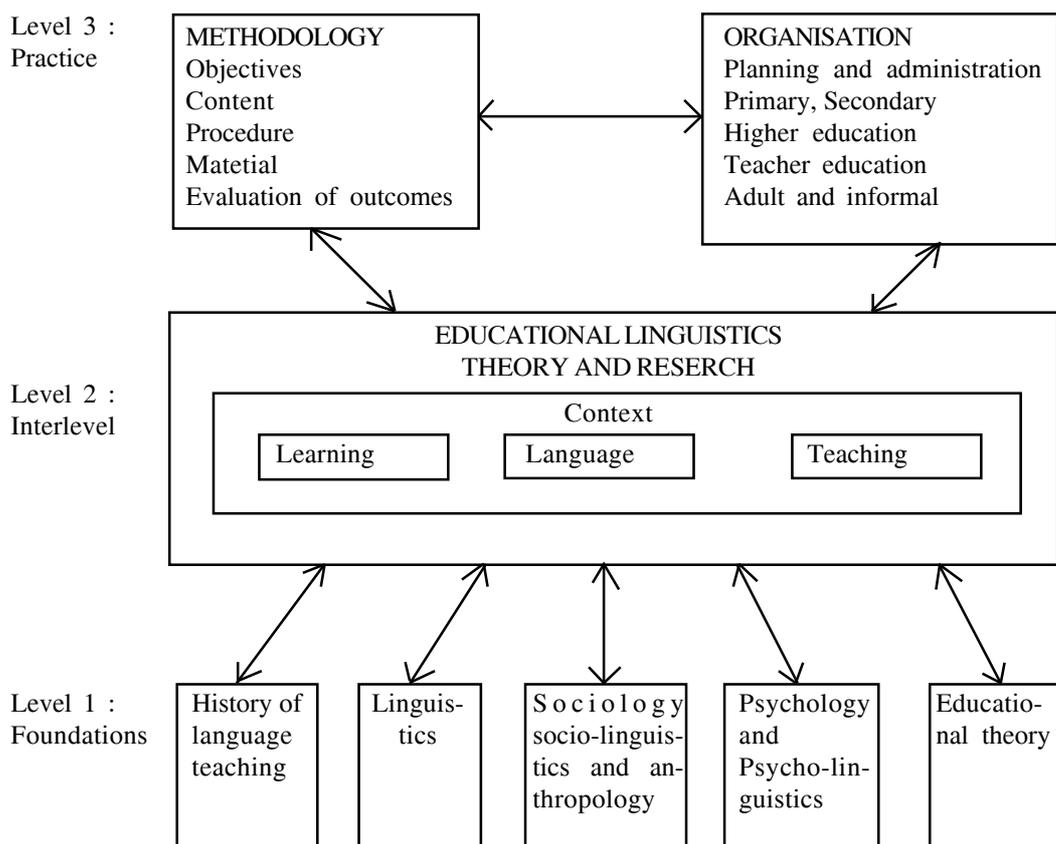


Fig 2.6. A general model for secondary teaching.

This model does not provide or advocate any particular method of teaching or a particular point of view. But it provides a basis for arriving at some criteria which will lead to the making of more informed judgements, better policy decisions and guiding practice more effectively.

2.1 □ Let's Sum Up

This section has dealt with the three distinct ways in which the term "theory" is used. Theories of applied linguistics are the most comprehensive in nature and exemplify the methods and approaches of language teaching are instances of T2, T3 is the

narrowest and most stringent in nature. These are exemplified by theories of natural sciences, of linguistics, psycholinguistics and so on.

The evolution of applied linguistic theories has also been shown and various models have been presented.

2.4 □ Review Questions

1. What do you understand by the term theory?
2. Discuss in detail the various models proposed by experts in order to provide a framework for applied linguistics and language teaching.

2.5 □ Glossary

Anthropology : The study of race especially of its origins, development, customs and beliefs.

Anthropological linguistics : A branch of linguistics which studies the relationship between language and culture in a community, e.g. its traditions, beliefs and family structure.

Approach : In language teaching, the theory, philosophy and principles underlying a particular set of teaching practices.

Curriculum : An overall plan for a course or programme including the purpose, content of the course, teaching, and testing procedures.

Materials : In language teaching, anything which can be used by teachers or learners to facilitate the learning of a language. Materials may be linguistic visuals, auditory, or kinesthetic, and they may be presented in print, audio or video form, or CD –Roms, etc.

Methodology : In language teaching it is the study of the practices and procedures used in teaching and the principles and beliefs that underline them.

Objective : The general aims of a course of instruction on a language course.

Pedagogy : It refers to the theories, of teaching, curriculum and instruction as well as the ways in which journal teaching, and learning in institutional settings such as schools is planned and delivered.

Psycholinguistics : The study of the mental process, that a person uses in producing and understanding language and how humans learn a language.

Sociolinguistics : The study of language in relation to social factors, that is social class, educational level and type of education, age, sex, ethnic origin, etc.

Syllabus : A description of the contents of a course of instruction and the order in which they are to be taught.

Variable : A linguistic item which has various forms. The different forms of the variable may be related to differences in style or to differences in the socio economic background, education, age, or sex of the speakers.

2.6 □ Reference

1. Stern, H.H. 1983, Fundamental concepts of languages Teaching, London, : Oxford University Press.
2. Krishnaswamy, N., Verma, S. K., Nagarajan, M. 1992, Modern Applied Linguistics, Chennai : Macmillan India Ltd.
3. Spolsky, B. 1989. Conditions for Language Learning. London : Oxford University Press.

Unit 3 □ Psycholinguistics

Structure

- 3.0 Objectives**
- 3.1 Introduction**
- 3.2 Definition and scope of Psycholinguistics**
- 3.3 The main concerns of Psycholinguistics**
- 3.4 History and development of Psycholinguistics**
 - 3.4.1 First phase : Language as code**
 - 3.4.2 Second phase : Language as Grammar**
 - 3.4.3 Third phase : Present trends**
- 3.5 Biological basis for language**
 - 3.5.1 Language and the brain**
 - 3.5.2 Lateralisation of the brain**
- 3.6 Language processing**
 - 3.6.1 Language processing : Comprehension**
 - 3.6.2 Language processing : Production**
- 3.7 Let's sum up**
- 3.8 Review questions**
- 3.9 Glossary**
- 3.10 Reference**

3.0 □ Objectives

After going through this unit, you will become familiar with

- the scope and nature of psycholinguistics
- the main concerns of psycholinguistics
- some of the views and controversies in the discipline

- the way people understand and produce language

3.1 □ Introduction

The study and practice of psycholinguistics is the concern of both linguists and psycholinguists. Both come under the category of social scientists. As such they operate by forming and testing hypotheses about various aspects of language knowledge and language use. They do so on the basis and evidence of linguistics data which they collect. But there is an important difference between the two groups. Psychologists test their hypotheses through carefully controlled experiments while linguists check their hypotheses against spontaneous utterances.

There is another fundamental difference as well. This is one of approach and is related to the relationship between language and cognition. Many linguists, including Chomsky, believe that linguistic ability in man is distinct from other cognitive systems. This belief is guided by two assumptions : (1) The structure of language can be studied independently from how the structure is used for communication, and (2) sentence-level syntactic structure forms the core of the linguistic system. So it is believed that principles that control the system will also be the basis for models of language processing and language acquisition (as we shall see later, this claim is not tenable).

Psychologists on the other hand are reluctant to assign such a central role to the linguistic system or grammar. They believe that language processing and language acquisition can be understood within the same frame work as other cognitive processes.

3.2 □ Definition and Scope of Psycholinguistics

David Crystal in " A Dictionary of linguistics and phonetics" defines psycholinguistics as — a branch of linguistics which studies the correlation between linguistic behaviour and the psychological process thought to underlie that behaviour. There are two possible directions of study. One may use language as a means of elucidating psychological theories and processes (e.g. the role of language as it affects memory perception, attention, learning, etc.) and for this the term psychological linguistics is sometimes used. Alternatively, one may investigate the effects of psychological constraints on the use of language (e.g. how memory limitations affects speech production and comprehension). It is the latter which has provided the main focus of interest in linguistics, where the subject is basically seen as the study of the mental processes underlying the planning, production, perception, and comprehension of speech. The best developed branch of the subject is the study of language acquisition in children ...".

Psycholinguistics is thus concerned with three broad questions:

- 1) By what mental processes do people comprehend and remember what they hear (Language comprehension)?
- 2) By what mental processes do people come to say what they say (language production)?
- 3) What processes do children go through learning to comprehend and produce their first language (language development)?

Other related questions that are explored are :

- 4) How do people store and retrieve information relating to words and meanings.
- 5) What path do second language learners follow to comprehend and produce the second language?
- 6) Is second language learning like the first language acquisition?
- 7) How does the 'process' of reading take place?
- 8) How do bilinguals function with their two languages?
- 9) How are thought and language related?
- 10) What is the structure of the mind?
- 11) Why does language have the structure it does?

Obviously, such questions have generated a lot of research and this in turn has led to attempts to formulate problems in researchable terms.

3.4 □ History and Development of Psycholinguistics

Psycholinguistics as a discipline is of a fairly recent origin, but it has shown a rapid growth and quite a vast body of research. Two summer seminars held in the U.S.A in 1951 and 1953, brought together psychologists, structural linguists and proponents of information theory. The aim was to define a common field of research. As a consequence, the new discipline of psycholinguistics was named and defined.

3.4.1 The First Stage : Language as Code

As this point of time, psychology was primarily represented by theories of learning. Learning was seen as the study of stimulus-response (S-R) relationships;

language learning was seen as verbal behaviour, a habit formation brought about by mimicry and memorization (refer to Audiolingual method in Module 3). Structural linguistics was characterized by the distributionalist method of Bloomfield and Harris. But it was information theory which not only provided a large number of new concepts, but also provided a theoretical framework for the fusion of the two disciplines. Psycholinguistics was defined as dealing "directly with the processes of encoding and decoding as they relate states of messages to states of communication."

In this approach, language is seen as a "code"; a set of possible signals and a particular sequence of signals constitute a "message". Messages, coded in this way are transmitted via a "channel". As you have seen in the unit on information theory, information can be quantified and measured. (There is a mathematical formula for this, but we will not burden you with it.) Messages usually contain "redundancy", that is, they provide more information than is strictly necessary. An example will make this clear. Take the English sentence "Three books are on the table". In this sentence the concept of plurality occurs in three places: (1) use of the word "three" (more than one), (2) plural marker '-s' in books, (3) the verb 'are'. Redundancy reduces the likelihood of error in the reception of messages in case there is some loss of information during the transmission through a channel. Redundancy is related to the probability of the appearance of a signal.

Another important concept is the notion of *channel capacity*: how much information can be transmitted in a given unit of time.

In this early phase of psycholinguistics, research studies focussed on two main themes: (1) whether the units identified by linguists had psychological reality (specially in perception), and (2) the effects of the probabilistic structure of the linguistic code (frequency of units, redundancy, sequential dependence etc.) on the performance of subjects in the tasks of identification, recall and anticipation.

3.4.2 The Second Phase : Language as Grammar

In the earlier section the first phase in the development of psycholinguistics has been described. Within a few years researchers encountered difficulties resulting from the position taken. First of all, though a language exhibits statistical properties (e.g. unequal frequency of units, differing probability of occurrence of units etc.), it is quite likely that these properties result from regularities of a different kind. Chomsky demonstrated that there are more satisfactory theoretical models.

Secondly, Shanon's information theory is a theory of *transmission* of information. But by the mid-fifties, machines were developed which could *process* information.

From these two developments began the second phase of psycholinguistics. Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures* (1957) and J. A. Miller's work became so influential that during the 1960s generative and transformational grammar became the almost exclusive basis of work in psycholinguistics.

Psycholinguistic research initially tried to prove the psychological validity of Chomsky's descriptions. The formal rules for the generation of utterances were interpreted as psychological operations and researches were undertaken to confirm this.

Chomsky's work influenced the study of language acquisition by children. Quite a lot of work was done to establish "grammars" of children's language, where various stages were identified and shown to progressively come to resemble adult grammar.

Other experimental work focussed on the psychological reality of transformations, specially in the form of derivational theory of complexity. This holds that ease or difficulty of processing a sentence is related to its transformational complexity.

3.4.3 The Third Phase: Present Day Trends

From 1970 onwards, psycholinguistics started to react against the domination of generative linguistics. This reaction took two forms. First, some psycholinguists still accepted Chomsky's description of the structure of language as the most satisfactory one, but focussed on the study of psychological procedures for the discovery and implementation of this structure. Secondly, other researchers refused to consider linguistic theory as the basis of their enquiry and tried to establish a psychological model of the language user.

3.5 □ Biological Basis for Language

E. H. Lenneberg, in his book *Biological Foundations of Language* (1967) pointed out that the slightly unusual features shown by the human brain and the vocal tract can be viewed as a *partial* adaptation of the body to the production of language. Human teeth, lips, mouth, tongue and the larynx differ from the corresponding organs of other primates and seem to be geared to speech. The lungs of human beings and its breathing mechanism appear to be "biologically organized" for speech.

3.5.1 Language and the brain

Fig. 3.2 below explains language processing by a speaker and a listener. This is the 'speech chain' proposed by Denes and Pinsons (1963).

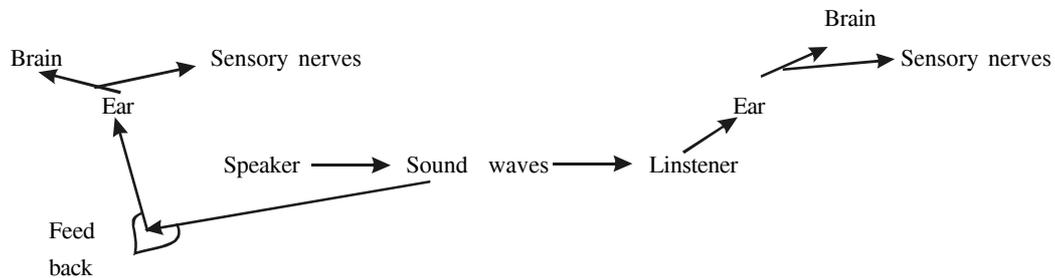


Fig 3.2. Showing the speech chain.

Two human beings, one 'the speaker' and the other 'the listener', are involved in this act. The 'speaker' delivers sound waves and the 'listener' receives it. In this act three stages are involved —

1. Linguistic level :- The formation of the message. The listener receives the message through the ear and sends it through sensory nerves to the brain. Then the message is encoded in the brain. This process recurs in the speaker's brain from the feedback of his/her own speech for maintaining good control of articulatory targets.
2. Physiological level :- The brain monitors the vocal muscles to produce speech sounds through the motor nerves in the speaker. The message is sent to the brain for encoding via sensory nerves.
3. Acoustic level :- The sound waves are the main linkage between the speaker and the listener.

The human brain is divided into a lower section, the *brain stem* and a higher section, the *cerebrum*. The brain stem keeps the body alive by controlling breathing and other vital functions. The cerebrum, the higher section, is not essential for life; its purpose seems to be to integrate the human being with its environment. This is the part of the brain where language is likely to be organized.

The cerebrum is divided into two halves, the *cerebral hemispheres*. the left and the right, which are linked to one another. The left hemisphere controls the right side of the body and the right hemisphere the left side. Various methods for testing which hemisphere controls speech, have shown that the majority of normal human beings, perhaps about 90 percent, have speech located primarily in the left hemisphere. A further interesting discovery is that the location of speech centres in the left hemisphere seems to be linked to right handedness.

This localization or lateralization of language in one half of the brain seems to be a definite biological characteristic of the human race. The brain asymmetry develops

gradually. From about the age of 2 onwards, one hemisphere becomes progressively dominant. Lenneberg has suggested that the process may continue till adolescence, though other people like Krashen maintain that the process stabilizes much earlier. This issue is important because lateralization may be linked to what has been called a "critical period" for language acquisition. This is the time when children seem to be optimally equipped for acquiring language. If this is true, it has important implications for teaching languages in school.

3.5.2 Lateralization of the brain

In this subsection you will be told about some of the functions of the left and the right hemispheres of the brain. The left hemisphere is known as "analytic" while the right hemisphere is "creative". The list below will tell you how the two hemispheres share different functions.

Left Hemisphere	Right Hemisphere
1. Analytical tasks	1. Perception
2. Categorization	2. Matching of global patterns
3. Calculations	3. Special orientation
4. Logical organization	4. Creative sensibility
5. Information sequencing	5. Musical patterns
6. Complex motor function	6. Emotional expressions
7. Language	7. Face recognition

This separation of the two hemispheres according to functions is known as "lateralization".

Two points need to be noted. In young children if the left hemisphere is damaged, the right hemisphere can take over the language function of the left hemisphere. Secondly, though syntactic and semantic correlations are processed in the left hemisphere, single lexical items seem to be processed in the right. Further, interpretation of metaphors, understanding of discourse, telling a story, understanding of ambiguous sentences and production of intonation patterns in sentences—all seem to be controlled by the right hemisphere.

3.6 □ Language Processing

Language processing refers to the way people understand and produce language for use. Psycholinguists are interested in finding out exactly what people do when they

understand, produce and use language in real life. This means building up a model of the processes and units through which the processes operate. So far, the attempts have been tentative and exploratory. General indications are available, but details of the processes have not been as yet definitely established. In the following sections an overall view of such findings will be provided.

3.6.1 Language processing : Comprehension

In earlier sections you have seen that syntactic and transformational rules do not represent psychological reality and hence cannot be used for a model of language processing. As a consequence, psycholinguists turned to pragmatics for a characterization of what language is. The advantage is that within this approach language can be seen to be linked to the context and situation of its use and hence language utilization can also be accounted for.

Language as pragmatics

From the pragmatic point of view, language is seen to consist of *speech acts* or functions, *propositional content* and *thematic structure*. These are all units of meaning, and are expressed through syntactic structures of one kind or another..

Speech acts refer to the function of sentences in use. Examples of speech functions are promising, apologising, thanking, asserting, commanding etc. To understand what somebody says, the listener should be able to recognize these functions. Propositional content refers to the ideas around which a speech act is built. A sentence is a combination of the various propositions, it expresses. A proposition typically consists of a verbal unit plus one or more nouns. For example the sentence *John is a bachelor* can be represented as the proposition Bachelor (x). Fig. 3.7 below shows some basic types of propositions.

SIMPLE SENTENCES	SENTENCES WITH VARIABLES	PROPOSITIONAL FUNCTIONS
1. John walks	x walks	Walk (x)
2. John is handsome	x is handsome	Handsome (x)
3. John is a bachelor	x is bachellor	Bachelor (x)
4. John hit Bill	x hit y	Hit (x, y)
5. John is in Paris	x is in y	In (x, y)
6. John gave money to Fido	x gave y to z	Give (x, y, z)

Fig. 3.7. Showing six simple sentences and their corresponding propositional functions.

Of the six propositional functions, Walk (x), Handsome (x) and Bachelor (x) are all one place functions. Hit (x, y) and In (x, y) are both two place functions and Give (x, y, z) is a three place function. In English some functions are expressed as verbs some as adjectives, some as prepositions and some as nouns.

Thematic structure of messages refer to what the listener does and does not know, so that the speaker can supply what the listener does not know. And this is the reason why listeners listen. In English, thematic structure has three main functions: (1) to convey given (= known) and new information, (2) provide subject and predicate, and (3) supply a frame and insert. Some examples will make this clear. Take the sentence.

It was the rain that destroyed the crops.

Here it is *known* that crops have been destroyed. But *what* destroyed the crops? The new information is *the rain*. Sentences signal the new information by the use of stress, with the greatest emphasis and the highest pitch.

When people talk, they have something they want to talk about and something they want to say about it. These functions are conveyed by the subject and the predicate.

Take the sentences

- a) The police caught the thief.
- b) The thief was caught by the police.

When speakers use a), they are talking about the police and what they did. When they use b), they are talking about the thief and what happened to him. Subject and predicate are thus important for carrying out the purposes of a conversation. They allow the participants to keep track of what each other is talking about at all times. These have another purpose too. It is quite conceivable that listeners would store the fact in one way given sentence a) and another way given b). In most sentences, the subject is the given information while the predicate provides the new.

When speakers place a particular phrase at the beginning of a sentence, they are deliberately trying to orient their listeners toward a particular area of knowledge. Speakers then use the rest of the sentence to narrow down what they are trying to say. For this reason the first phrase is called a *frame* and the rest of the sentence and insert for that frame, *e.g.*

On the film set, Mrs Fields was delightful.

Hardly ever did Mr, Fields crack a smile

In the simplest sentences the frame coincides with the subject and is part of the given information.

So far we have talked about sentences. However day to day use of language continues after one sentence. People engage in conversations, stories, gossip and jokes which consist of a succession of sentences in a highly organized social activity. Stories, jokes and essays have structure, so does even the most trivial conversation. In fact, speech acts and thematic structure make sense only within the larger framework of *discourse*. It is the nature of discourse which determines which speech acts are appropriate, and what information should be given.

● Processes of Comprehension

If this is the nature of language use, how does one make sense of it ? Clark and Clark (1977) propose the use of two processes for comprehension: (1) the constructive process, and (2) other utilization process. In general terms, with the help of the construction process listeners construct a hierarchical arrangement of proposition and interpret the message, perhaps utilizing clues from the syntactic approach.

The utilization process refers to the listener's mental processes in utilizing a sentence as the speaker intended. Inference and problem solving are central to the utilization process. Behind this lies the *Co-operative principle*, the fact that speakers and listeners co-operate with each other. For a start, listeners have to infer what speech act is being performed. Is the speaker asserting something, making a promise or what? The answer can often be inferred directly but some times have to be inferred indirectly. There are then other problems to be solved: What does the given information refer to? What are the presuppositions? Do I know the answer the questioner wants? How should I express the answer? How can I accomplish the goal being requested?

● Some Problems

Doing all these bring in several problems. The first one is of memory. Since there is a limit to the capacity of the memory, too much information (e.g. a very long or a complicated sentence) makes language processing difficult. The content and accuracy of what we remember is influenced by the type of language used, the way we listened to it and the way we are trying to produce it e.g. verbatim or not.

3.6.2 Language Processing : Production

Speaking is fundamentally an instrumental act. Speakers talk in order to have some effect on their listeners. They assert things to change their state of knowledge. They ask questions to get them to provide information. They request things to get them to do things for them. They promise, bet, warn, exclaim, joke in order to affect them in other ways. Speakers begin with the intention of affecting their listeners in a particular way and select the appropriate speech act to bring about the desired effect or outcome.

Language production or speaking thus appears to involve two types of activity: planning and execution. Speakers first plan what they want to say based on what they want their listeners to do. Then they put their plan into action. How do they plan? Briefly speaking, the process seems to be a top-to-bottom one, beginning with the most general aspect and then proliferating down to the most specific one. The process may look like this:

(1) Discourse plans: Speakers have to decide what kind of discourse they are participating in: a conversation, telling a story, giving instructions, making a promise. As each kind of discourse has a different structure, utterances have to fit in order to contribute to the discourse.

(2) Sentence plans : Selecting the discourse along with the intention to send the right message, speakers must decide on the speech act, organize the message and decide on the given and new information.

(3) Constituent plans : Once the global characteristics of a sentence has been decided upon, speakers can begin to plan the constituents. For this the right words, phrases or idioms have to be selected and put in the right order.

(4) Articulatory programme : As specific words are chosen, they must be integrated into a programme which will assign the appropriate stress and intonation patterns.

(5) Articulation : This is done through step no 4, resulting in audible sounds, the speech the speaker intended to produce, while doing all these, the speakers also need to select the level of familiarity and formality based on judgements of social factors.

In this section you have seen how language is processed both for comprehension and production. One question arises here: Are comprehension and production totally different? It would appear that the two processes are partially the same and partially different.

Language Development : An important area of psycholinguistics is the study of language development, specifically the acquisition of first language by children and also the acquisition of second language by children, adolescents and adults. We will study these in detail in Module 2.

3.7 □ Let's Sum Up

In this unit we have studied the scope and definition of psycholinguistics, its concerns, various issues of psycholinguistics, its concerns, various issues within the discipline, the relationship between language and the brain, the different parts of the brain involved in language processing, the actual processes of language comprehension and production.

3.8 □ Review Questions

1. What does psycholinguistics deal with?
2. How will you define psycholinguistics?
3. What is the relationship between the brain and language use?
4. Which areas of the brain are responsible for language? In what way?
5. Briefly describe the various phases in the development of psycholinguistics as a discipline.
6. What do you understand by "language processing"?
7. How is language comprehended?
8. How is language produced?
9. What is pragmatics?
10. What are speech acts?
11. What is thematic organization?
12. What do you understand by "propositional content"?
13. What part does memory play in language comprehension?
14. What characteristics do the two and three word phases of child language have?
15. What processes do children use for learning the first language?

3.9 □ Glossary

Aphasia : Loss of the ability to use and understand language, usually caused by damage to the brain. The loss may be total or partial and may affect spoken and/or written language ability.

Dyslexia : A general term used to describe any continuing problem in learning to read, such as difficulty in distinguishing letter shapes and words.

Neurolinguistics : The study of the function the brain performs in language learning and language use.

Speech act : An utterance as a functional unit in communication. In speech act theory, utterances, have two kinds of meaning.

- a) Propositional meaning (also known as locutionary meaning). This is the basic literal meaning of the utterance which is conveyed by the particular words and structures which the utterance contains.
- b) Illocutionary meaning (also known as illocutionary force). This is the effect the utterance of written text has on the reader or listener.

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Unit 4 □ Sociolinguistics

Structure

- 4.0 Objectives
- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Sociolinguistics : Basic concepts
 - 4.2.1 Language and Society
 - 4.2.2 Language and Social Class
 - 4.2.3 Language and Geography
 - 4.2.4 Language and Culture
 - 4.2.4.1 The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis
 - 4.2.4.2 Ethnography of Communication
- 4.3 Concept Competence : Linguistic vs. Communicative
- 4.4 Bilingualism
 - 4.4.1 Bilingualism in the Indian context
 - 4.4.2 Various kinds of bilingualism
- 4.5 Let's sum up
- 4.6 Review questions
- 4.7 Glossary
- 4.8 References

4.0 □ Objectives

In this unit, we introduce you to the basic concepts in sociolinguistics, as they apply to language-teaching. We would provide examples and situations to illustrate the purposes of language in a society, and from these examples we would help you to derive the underlying principles.

By the end of this Unit, you will be able to–

- explain the relationship between language and society.

- apply the basic concepts in sociolinguistics in the analysis and evaluation of language.
- define the concept linguistic and cultural relativity, and explain why it is relevant in sociolinguistics.
- explain what is meant by "ethnography of communication". and carry out a small survey.

4.1 □ Introduction

Let us consider the following facts :—

- The Eskimo language has several words for snow, but we have few.
- Female speakers of Mongolian may have different vowels from men.
- A German living near the Dutch Frontier may understand a visitor from Amsterdam more readily than one from Munich.
- 'Posh' Englishmen drop the "r" in "car" and "cart", but posh New Yorkers pronounce it.
- An American visiting India, is startled by the way Bengalis greet each other or open conversations with "Where are you going"? (Kothay Jachhen?)

- **Can you explain these differences?**

Well, such items are the raw materials of Sociolinguistics, the branch of Linguistics which studies the links between language and society.

We can make a broad but fair generalization in stating that much of linguistics in the past completely ignored the relationship between language and society. In most cases this has been for very good reasons. Concentration on the "idiolect" the speech of one person at one time in one style—was a necessary implication that led to several theoretical advances. However, language is very much a social phenomenon.

A study of language totally without reference to its social context inevitably leads to the omission of some of the more complex and interesting aspects of language and to the loss of opportunities for further theoretical progress.

One of the main factors that has led to the growth of sociolinguistic research been the recognition of the importance of the fact that language is a very changeable phenomenon, and that this variability may have as much to do with society as with language.

4.2 □ Sociolinguistics : Basic Concepts

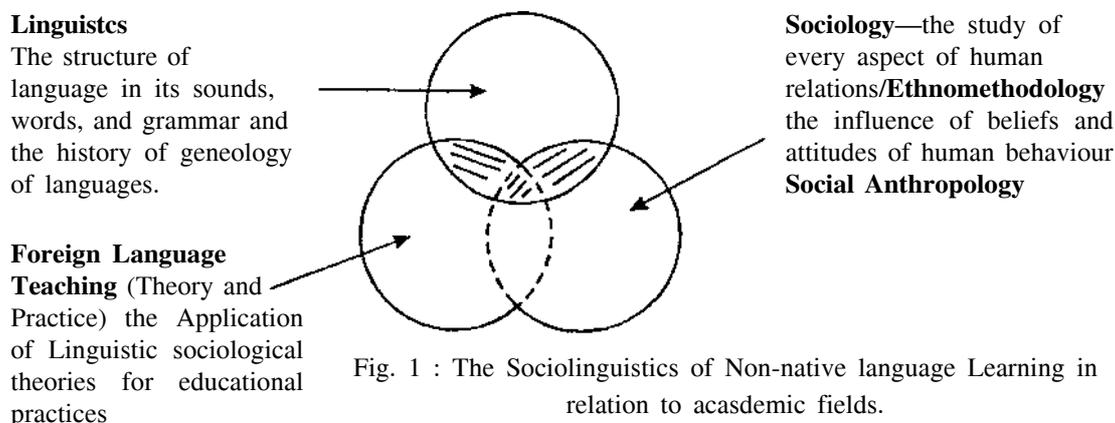
In an introductory survey Peter Trudgill (1983), has shown how class, race, sex, religion, environment and region are among the factors which further differences in and between languages, and how language may sometimes condition "thought" and so, indirectly, "society". He has defined sociolinguistics in the following words :

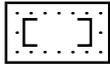
Sociolinguistics is that part of linguistics which is concerned with language as a social and cultural phenomenon. It investigates the field of language and society and has close connections with the social sciences, especially social psychology, anthropology, human geography and sociology.

The study of attitudes to forms of language, that of 'posh' Englishmen dropping the 'r' in 'car', and 'posh' New Yorkers pronouncing it, is an example of the sort of work carried out under the heading of the **social psychology of language**. The study of Njamal Kinship terms and comparing them to those of Bengali, for instance, is a good example of **Anthropological linguistics** while the study of the way in which dialects vary from one region to another, as from the Netherlands to Germany, comes under **geolinguistics**.

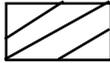
Sociolinguistics also has a close connection with the **sociology of language**, which deals with the study of who speaks which language to whom, and how far these findings could be applied to social, political and educational problems. The unit introduces the study of language in its social context—language as spoken by ordinary people in their everyday lives which are mainly concerned with answering questions of interest to linguistics, such as how and why language changes and how we can improve our theories about the nature of language or language learning.

If any abstract diagram can be drawn in order to illustrate where the sociolinguistics of non-native language learning and using lies within the web of academic interests, it might look something like Fig. 1:





The dotted area marks our field of focus—**Sociolinguistics**. It establishes the relationship between language and social structure, language and culture, the organisation of linguistic interaction, language—planning, bi — and multilingualism.



The shaded area, which emerges the circles of the disciplines language, sociology, ethnomethodology, social anthropology, and foreign language teaching converge, marks our emphasis in this course—"the sociolinguistics of non-native language learning in relation to academic fields."

4.2.1 Language and Society

All societies, every where in the world, have rules about the way in which language should be used in social interaction.

Railway compartment conversations are good examples of the sort of **social function** that is often fulfilled by language. Language is not simply a means of communicating information—about the weather or any other subject. It is also a very important means of **establishing and maintaining relationships** with other people. Probably the most important thing about the conversation between ourselves is not the words we are using, but the fact we are talking at all.

Language also plays an important role in conveying **information about the speaker**. Whenever we speak, we cannot avoid giving our listeners **clues** about our origins and the sort of persons we are. Our **accent** and our **speech** generally reflect our attitude, our background, and what part of the country we come from.

In India when we meet others from different states we can make out if he's from the south, or north, or east, by his accent. In U.K. as soon as we speak, even by telephone, our listeners would mark our English as "Indian English". If a speaker says "lift", he is using British-English, if he says "elevator", he is using American English. The British can distinguish themselves from other LI variations of English—e.g. Canadian English. Australian English or American English, by certain clues.

According to Peter Trudgill "These two aspects of language behaviour are very important from a social point of view; first, the function of language in establishing social relationship; and second, the role played by language in conveying information about the speaker. Both these aspects of linguistic behaviour are reflections of the fact that there is a close inter-relationship between language and society" (Trudgill 1983).

We shall concentrate for the moment on the second — the "clue bearing" role. In seeking clues about our co-passengers, we make use of the way in which people from different social and geographical backgrounds use different kinds of language.

If the second passenger comes from Chittagong, let us say, he would probably use the kind of language spoken by the people of that part of Bangladesh. If he is a middle-class businessman (business in Bengal Handloom) from Dhatrigram, he will use the kind of language associated with men of that type.

4.2.2 Language and Social Class

Let us think of this question for a moment—"What is the difference between a **dialect** and an **accent**?"

Peter Trudgill has explained the distinction in the following manner —

"The term **dialect** refers, strictly speaking, to difference between kinds of language which are differences of vocabulary and grammar as well as pronunciation. The term **accent**, on the other hand, refers solely to differences of pronunciation, and it is often important to distinguish clearly between the two" (Trudgill, 1983).

This is particularly true in the context of English, in the case of a dialect known as **Standard English**. In many important respects this dialect is different from other English dialects, and some people may find it surprising to see it referred to as a dialect at all. However, in so far as it differs grammatically and lexically from other varieties of English, it is legitimate to consider it as a dialect.

Social-class dialects :

If you are an English-speaker you will be able to estimate the relative social status of the following speakers solely on the basis of the linguistic evidence given here :

Speaker A

I done it yesterday.

He ain't got it.

It was here what said it.

Speaker B

I did it yesterday.

He hasn't got it.

It was here that said it.

If you heard these speakers say these things you would guess that B was of a higher social status than A, and you would almost certainly be right. How is it that we are able to do this sort of thing?

The answer lies in the existence of varieties of language which have come to be called **social class dialects**. There are grammatical differences between the speech of these two speakers which give us clues about their social backgrounds. It is also probable that these differences will be accompanied by phonetic differences—that is to say, there are different **social class accents**.

4.2.3 Language and Geography

As far as English is concerned, linguists have known for a long time that difference in dialects and accents are related to differences of social-class back-grounds. In Britain, we can describe the situation today in the following, some what simplified way. Dialects change gradually as one moves across the country side. There exists a whole series of different dialects which gradually merge into one another. This series is referred to as a **geographical dialect continuum** — a large number of different but not usually distinct non-standard dialects connected by a chain of similarity, but with the dialects at the either end of the chain being very dissimilar. The figure below illustrates this situation as it effects the pronunciation of one word, home. There are seven variants in the most localized variety:

Most Localized	Edinburgh	New Castle	Liverpool	Bradford	Dulbey	Norwich	London
	/he:m/	/hlem/	/o:m/	/ɔ:m?	/wʊm/	/ʊm/	/xʊm/

Table 1 : Local Accent pronunciation of 'home' : illustration of a geographical dialect continuum.

Note : How the dialects on the either end of this continuum are very dissimilar.

When a linguistic innovation—a new word, a new pronunciation, a new usage occurs at a particular place, it may subsequently spread to other areas, particularly those nearest to it so long as no serious barriers to communication intervene. If an innovation started in London, we would expect to find that it later began to be used in Cambridge before it found its way into the speech of Carlisle. It might take longer to reach Belfast because of the Irish sea. This is an obvious point, and one that does not apply only to language, or only to one nation. All technological and behavioural innovations are subject to the same processes. When salwar kameezes were becoming fashionable in Kolkata, studies showed that girls were wearing their kameezes shorter in Kolkata than they were in Kalna, where in turn, they were shorter than those worn in Sahebganj.

Our Indian subcontinent is a good example, where one can explore these facts and discover how linguistic innovations spread from one dialect into another adjacent dialect on the geographical dialect continuum. Look at this map of India and imagine you are travelling from West Bengal right across the country towards Gujarat.

As you travel across the country, you will discover the gradual differences in dialects. The dialects in the district of Midnapore in West Bengal, particularly around Dantan(1) merge with the dialects on the border of Orissa near Baripada (2), in the Mayurbhanj District. If you listen to the language of the people on the border of these two districts, you would not be able to distinguish Oriya from Bengali. You would hear

a "mixed variety". Similarly, the area around Dhanbad (3), in Bihar, and the area around Asansol, (4) in West Bengal, merge into each other.

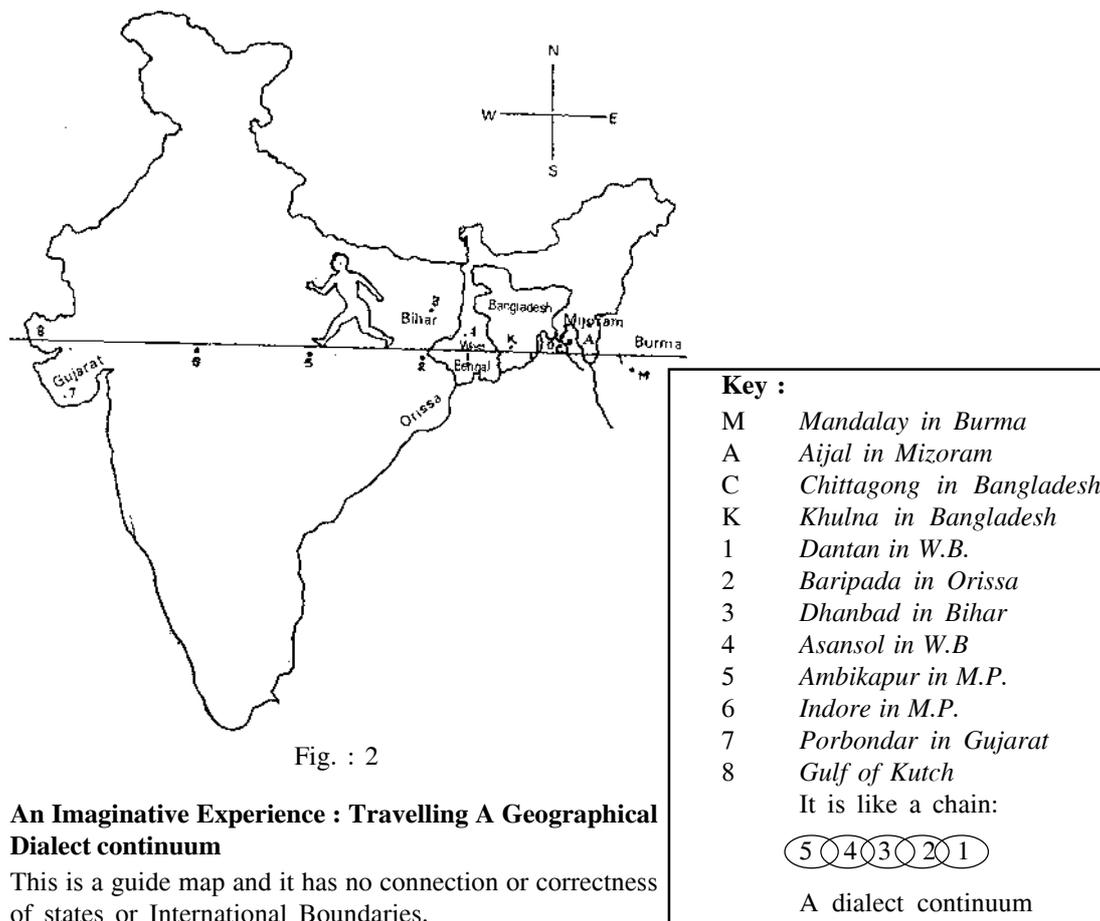


Fig. : 2

An Imaginative Experience : Travelling A Geographical Dialect continuum

This is a guide map and it has no connection or correctness of states or International Boundaries.

But as you travel westwards, you would find difficulty in understanding the dialects. In the State of Madhya Pradesh itself, you will be able to understand people at Ambikapur (5), in the district of Sarguja, better than those in Indore (6). But you will have considerable difficulty in understanding the dialects at Porbandar (7), or any of the dialects around the Gulf of Kutch (8), in Gujarat.

Similarly, if you travel Eastwards, you will be able to understand the people of Khulna (K) in Bangladesh better than those at Chittagong (C). But you will face difficulty in understanding the people at Aijal (A) in Mizoram or those at Mandalay (M), in Mayanmar (Burma).

Therefore this continuum illustrates a chain of interlinked intelligibility, and it is called the "**geographical dialect continuum**".

Another equally important consequence of travelling is the creation of new mixed languages, which are used as lingua franca. A **lingua franca** is a language which is used as a means of communication among people who have no native language in common. In India we have alternative lingua francas — Hindi and English. Hindi is used as a lingua franca in the northern part of the country. It has the advantage of being an indigenous language, but it has the disadvantage of benefiting only the native speakers to the detriment of others, who have to learn it as a second language. English is used mainly by educated speakers. An educated Bengali speaker would communicate in English with an educated Tamil speaker, if neither knew the other's language. But if one knows the other's language, or they have a common indigenous language they try to use that.

Problems of competing lingua francas in Malaysia have led to the creation of a new pidgin language—"Bazaar Malay" which is widely used as a trading lingua franca, and in informal situation, Malaysians, studying at the University of Essex, speak in "Bazaar Malay", which has a mixture of Tamil, for example :

1. Bazar Malay (Yesterday) Semalam (I) → Saya (have) → Ada (also) → Juga (no/not)
 mari (here) → belakang (behind) → dia (he/she) → tada

Meaning : Yesterday I had come, but he was not at home.

2. Bazaar Malay Ada (have) Wang (money) Kalu (if) Semua (all)
 boleh (can) bill (brought)

Meaning : If you have money, you can buy anything.

3. Bazaar Malay : Saya (I) punya (own) anak (person) juga (also)
 ada (have) Santul name of place sana (there) kerja (working)

Meaning : I have a son, who is working at Santul.

We can note the words borrowed from Tamil. The word **juga**, meaning 'also' is incorporated in sentences (1) and (3). The word **belakang**, meaning 'behind', is incorporated in sentence (1). Instead of standard Malay **jika**. Tamilians have introduced **Kalu** in sentence (2) The word **sana**, meaning 'there' is incorporated in sentence (3). **Punya** is borrowed from Sikh or Punjabi speakers in sentence (3).

In other sentences, you can note the borrowings from Chinese. Even the Chinese structure and intonation patterns are borrowed in some sentences.

A "Pidgin" is usually formed out of a "need" to communicate, specially when people from different language backgrounds are thrown together, and have to communicate with each other, in order "to survive". But concomitant with an extension in

functions, for instance if a need is felt to write in that language as well, there would be an obvious complication and expansion of language structure. When this occurs, with an expanded vocabulary a wider range of synthetic possibilities, and an increased stylistic repertoire, **Creolization begins to take place**. For example, Sranan is an English-creole spoken by several ten thousands of native speakers in coastal areas of Surinam (Dutch Guiana) and is also widely used by others in the area as a lingua franca.

4.2.4 Language and Culture

To what extent do languages and culture differ from one another? Are they cut in the same mould reflecting a common underlying 'humanity' or do they differ arbitrarily and unrestrictedly from one another, reflecting the fact that different people live in very different intellectual and physical worlds?

This is the question of **relativity**, which may be considered in relation — either to language, or to non-linguistic aspects of culture or to the area of contact between language and non-language in culture. The last of these relations is considered when there are when connections between differences in meaning and in culture.

The relationship between language and culture has long been an area of study within Anthropology, one of the parent disciplines of sociology. To understand this discipline, we have to tackle with the concept of **Cultural Relativism** which gained currency at the beginning of 20th century in the discipline. According to this concept each culture presented a unique, coherent system that shaped and moulded individuality in its own special way. It proved very influential, and over the years was applied to language, which was seen as playing a central role in cultural life.

4.2.4.1 The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis

This hypothesis is named after the American linguists Edward Sapir (1884-1939) and Benjamin Leo Whorf (one of Sapir's pupils: 1897 -1941). Both Sapir and Whorf worked extensively on American Indian languages and made important contributions to our knowledge of these languages and also to linguistic theory. This theory states that a native speaker's language sets up a series of categories which act as a kind of grid through which he perceives the world, and which constrains the way in which he categorizes and conceptualizes different phenomena.

An example will clarify the situation.

Let us consider the following sentences in English :

1. I see that it is new.
2. I see that it is red.
3. I see that it is new.
4. I see that it is red.

In a Red-Indian Language, Hopi three different words for that are used because three different types of "presentation by consciousness" are involved. In sentence 1, the newness of the question is inferred by the speaker from a number of different visual clues and from his past experience. In sentence 2, the redness of the object is received in the speaker's consciousness as the direct sense of a visual sense stimulus. The processes are different and these differences are reflected in the language.

Can you find similar examples from your own language or any other language that you know of?

Sapir often alluded to the close relationship between the vocabulary or lexicon of a language and the cultural environment in which it evolves and in which it is embedded:

The understanding of a simple poem for instance, involves not merely an understanding of the single words in their average significance, but a full comprehension of the whole life of the community as it is mirrored in the words, or as it is suggested by their overtones. Even comparatively simple acts of perception are very much more at the mercy of the social patterns called words than we might suppose. We see and hear and otherwise experience very largely as we do because the language habits of our community predispose certain choices of interpretation. (Sapir, 1949: 162)

Activity I

With what do you associate these words in your mind? Write words or phrases in the columns given below:-

Fig. 3. Your Responses to Stimulus Words :

Moon	New Year's Day	Marriage

Note : Please don't proceed till you have answered the question. Give your immediate response. Spend only two minutes in thinking.

Activity II

Find out from your friend (specially those from the different states of India) their responses to the same stimulus words. Compare them with yours. You could write to your friends abroad, if any.

If there is difficulty in corresponding with friends from different states or countries immediately, don't worry. Compare your responses to those of Japanese-American Bilinguals from the study of Ervin-Tripp (1968: 203), below (Fig. 4). They are the responses of ten year olds'; you could ask ten year olds in your locality too.

Fig 4 : Japanese English Bi-linguals' Response to stimulus words.

Moon		New Year's Day	
Japanese	English	Japanese	English
1. Moon viewing	1. Sky	1. Pine decoration	1. New clothes
2. zebra grass	2. rocket	2. rice cake	2. party
3. full moon	3. cloud	3. feast	3. holiday
4. cloud		4. kimono	
		5. seven spring herbs	
		6. shuttle cock	
		7. foot-warmer	
		8. friends	

L2 learners have to imbibe, as the L1 speakers above have done, the individual tang of the words from the customary situations in which they occur. They have to assimilate possibly varying cultural connotations of linguistic items. It is interesting to note how different age-groups have different connotations. When a similar question as Activity I above was put to a twelve year old girl and a sixty nine year old lady (both Bengalees) the following responses emerged.

Fig. 5 : Comparative Study of Two Indians' Responses to Stimulus words

"Moon": 12 year old	"Moon": 69 year old	"New year's Day" 12 yr. old	"New year's day": 69 year old
Tin – Tin'	-Lullaby song ⁴	-New clothes	-Hal-khata ⁸
Load shedding ²	-Tagore's song ⁵	-Picnic	-Puja ⁹
Terrace ³	-Purnima ⁶	-Card	-Greetings
Moon-lit dinner	-Jyotsna ⁷		-Payesh ¹⁰
			-Tagore's birth day ¹¹
			-New year's Resolutions ¹²
			-Blessings

Foot Notes :

- (1) The Adventures of Tin-Tin often have references to the moon, that has appealed to this child.
- (2) This refers to the frequent power-cuts in Kolkata, when one goes for a moon-lit walk, sits in the varandah or goes up on the terrace.
- (3) A view of the full-moon from the terrace.
- (4) In Bengali lullaby songs, there are references to the moon.
- (5) This lady is fond of a particular Tagore's song, that glorifies the full moon "Chander hasi bandh bhengeche".
- (6) Full Moon's Day is observed by this lady. She performs some rituals, has a special course of vegetarian meal etc.
- (7) This is the Bengali word for the glow and radiance in Nature all around created by a Full-moon.
- (8) New Accounts are opened in various shops on the New Year's Day.
- (9) Special prayers are arranged in temples, shops and houses.
- (10) Special sweet dish is prepared with rice, milk, sugar or jaggery.
- (11) Tagore's Birthday also is celebrated in the same month "Baisakh" often the celebration being on the 1st of Baisakh (usually 14th of April).
- (12) As in English New Year's day, on Bengali New Year's Day too "Resolutions" are made.

As far as the word "Marriage" is concerned an American lady gave the following responses. You could compare them with yours and with of another Indian lady.

Marriage	
American Lady	(Indian, Bengali)
1. Bride in a special dress	1. Bride in a special dress (Baranasi)
2. Bride's Maid	2. Groom in a special dress (Dhoti)
3. Best Man with groom	3. 'Ful-Sajja' (a bed made of flowers)
4. Wedding-cake	4. "Sat-Pake Bandha"
5. Church	5. "Bashor Ghar"
6. Bride entering the church	6. Exchange of garlands
7. father	7. Shuvo-Distri

Fig. 6 : Comparative Study of Responses to stimulus word-"MARRIAGE"

The Indian view of marriage is very different from that of the American lady's. It will not be possible to explain all the rituals in our wedding ceremonies, in English, even if full explanation and circumlocutions are allowed. Do you feel in the same way? For instance, the scene that emerges from just one word "sampradan" would not be evoked if we say "The ritual, when the father hands over his daughter to the bridegroom". It is very moving scene, and the guests who watch this ritual cannot resist their tears either!

It would be rather incredible to imagine that speakers are unable to perceive phenomena that have not been formalized in their language. But what should have emerged from the above discussion is how language and culture are interdependent and how language can express and reflect a particular "reality".

4.2.4.2 Ethnography by communication

What is **ethnography**?

It is the study of the life and the culture of a society or ethnic group, especially by personal observations. The related field of **ethnology** studies the comparison of the culture of different societies of ethnic groups.

In studies of language learning or in descriptions of how a language is used, the term **ethnographic research** is sometimes used to refer to the observation, and description of naturally occurring language (*e.g.* between mother and child, between teacher and student, etc.).

Therefore in **ethnography of communication** language is not studied in isolation but within a social or cultural meeting. It is the study of the **place of language in culture and society**. "Ethnography of communication" studies, for example, how people in a particular group of community communicate with each other and how the social relationships between these people affect the type of language they use.

The concept of an ethnography of communication was advocated by the American social anthropologist and linguist Dell Hymes and this approach is important in sociolinguistics and Applied Linguistics. Dell Hymes (1962) has argued that language and speech have a special patterning that is socially determined and just like other social organizations, politics, religion and economics, cannot be taken for granted as somehow "given" or everywhere the same. The scientific focus on the factors involved in speech behaviour such as the circumstances, the participants, their intentions, the planning of their acts and how they deliver them, norms of interaction and the linguistic varieties employed will lead to a richer understanding of the cultural dimensions of language.

4.3 □ Concept of Competence : Linguistic vs. Communicative Competence

Competence, according to Chomsky, is the native speaker's knowledge of his language, the system of rules he has mastered, his ability to produce and understand a vast number of new sentences. It is the study of the implicit system of rules that constitutes a person's knowledge of a language. This includes a person's ability to create and understand sentences, including sentences they have never heard before, knowledge of what are and what are not sentences of a particular language and the ability to recognise ambiguous and deviant sentences. For example a speaker of English would recognise, 'I want to go home' as an English sentence but would not accept a sentence such as 'I want going home' even though all the words, in it are English words. A distinction is made between competence and performance, which is the actual use of the language by individuals in speech and writing. It is how a person uses his/her competence in producing and understanding sentences (performance).

Linguistic competence refers to the competence in terms of the linguistic elements such as phonology, lexis, syntax which are objects of linguistic description. But they are only a part of the element(s) in the code used for communication. The meaning (s) of an utterance (a sentence, a clause, a phrase, a word, etc.) do(es) not depend entirely on its form; a lot depends on who says what to whom, when, where in what manner, and with what effect. Grammatical knowledge alone is not enough to help one participate effectively in communicative situations. In addition, to knowing the forms of a language, one must know the following in order to communicate appropriately:

- a) The socio-cultural situation: the attitudes, values, conventions, prejudices and preferences of the people who use the language.
- b) The nature of the participants: The relationship between the speaker/speakers and the hearer/hearers, their occupation, interests, socio-economic status, etc.
- c) The role of the participants: the relationship in the social network, like father-son, teacher-student, boss-subordinate, doctor-patient, etc.
- d) The nature and function of the speech event: Whether it is a face-to-face talk for persuasion, confrontation, etc. or a casual conversation, or a request in a formal situation, or a telephonic conversation, etc.
- e) The mode (= medium) of communication: spoken or written or reading from a script (= scripted speech) or unprepared speech, etc.

Communicative competence, as advocated by Dell Hymes, includes the whole of linguistic competence plus the whole of the amorphous range of facts, included under

sociolinguistic pragmatic competence (the rules and conventions, for using language items in contexts) and various other psycho-social factors. From this point of view linguistics can be regarded essentially as sociolinguistics since the study of linguistics competence will form a part of the study of communicative competence.

4.4 □ Bilingualism

Bilingualism can be defined as the use of at least two languages either by an individual or by a group of speakers, such as the inhabitants of a particular region or a nation. Uriel Weinreich provides one of the simplest and shortest definitions in his book *Languages in Contact*— 'the practice of alternately using two languages will be called bilingualism, and the person involved, bilingual. Different bilinguals have distinct uses, as well as various levels of competence, for each language, Bloomfield's definition (1933) of bilingualism as 'near-native control of two or more languages' was later considered to be a perfectionist or 'maximalist' view, since a bilingual who has equal proficiency in both languages (or 'balanced bilingual' as described by some linguists) is a possibility but a rarity, an exception rather than a rule.

The reasons why a bilingual speaker uses two languages are both personal (psycholinguistic) and social (sociolinguistic). In fact, the speaker will employ, and alternate between, different languages to unit his communicative needs, depending on, once again, what the context and his purpose is.

Code switching and code mixing : Bilinguals have two modes of using language. The first is they speak either one language or the other; the second is they free-wheel from one language to the other during the course of the speech and often within the same utterance. The second, generally known as code-switching in linguistics, is a kind of second nature in bilinguals. Indeed, code-switching has been described as the most creative aspect of bilingual speech.

Code-switching may be of various kinds. It may involve single lexical items, phrases or whole sentences. Not all linguists, however, would have all of them grouped under the single umbrella of code-switching.

McLaughlin (1984) for example, describes code-switching as language change occurring across phrase or sentence boundaries. Changes which take place within sentences are, in his view, examples of code – switching which actually involved single lexical items. McArthur (1996) also defines code switching as plain movement from one language to another and code-mixing as something more complex, like hybridisation. Most writers seem to agree that mixing is a one word affair and that words are usually morphologically adapted to a new language. Code-switching occurs naturally in any multilingual environment. An example is given below:

Code-switching: across phrase boundaries (Hindi to English)–'Us ne saaf bata diya ke/there is nothing he can do'.

Code-mixing: single lexical items readapted (Bengali to English)–'O akta schoolay mastery kore'. Both 'schoolay' and 'mastery' are hybrid words with English roots and Bengali inflections.

Code-switching implies a certain skill in switching from one code to another and making use of items or linguistic features from one language when using another. The skill enhances the speaker's communicative range.

4.5 □ Let Us Sum Up

In this unit we have described the elementary concepts in sociolinguistics, here are the main points:

- i) In social interaction, one of the main goals of talking is to present a picture of oneself to others, Secondly, our intention is to establish and maintain relationships.
- ii) The variety and diversity of language related to the social framework constitute a central domain in sociolinguistics.
- (ii) Each culture presents a unique, coherent system that shapes and moulds individuality in its own special way. Linguistic Relativity is a belief which was held by some schools that the way people view the world is determined wholly or partly by the structure of their native language. As this hypothesis was strongly put forward by Sapir and Whorf, it is called "Sapir-Whorf hypothesis".
- iv) A new school of research has developed, led by Hymes, known as "the ethnography of communication", whose aim is the formulation of descriptive theories of speaking as a cultural system. We have illustrated with the help of "greetings" taken from various languages.

In this unit we have also considered the definitions of bilingualism, attempted to characterise it, and have discussed the various types of bilingualism.

4.6 □ Review Questions

1. Define "Sociolinguistics" in your own words. How is it related to Sociology and Anthropology?
2. Which two aspects of language behaviour are very important from a social point of view? Give examples from real life situations.

3. What is the difference between dialect and accent ? Illustrate.
4. Give an account of social class dialects.
5. Explain Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. Do you agree that L2 learners have to assimilate possibly varying cultural connotations of linguistic items?
6. "The ethnography of speaking" is interested in the different ways communities structure and organize their verbal activities. Illustrate your answer.
7. Define the term "Bilingualism"? What are the general features of bilingualism?
8. What are the different kinds of bilingualism.

4.7 □ Glossary

Accent—a particular way of speaking which tells the listener something about the speaker's background e.g. an American accent.

Adjacency pair—a sequence of two related utterances by two different speakers e.g. offer-decline.

Anthropology—science of man, especially of the beginnings, development, customs and beliefs of mankind.

Anthropological linguistics—a branch of linguistics which studies the relationship between language and culture in a community e.g. its traditions, values, family structure.

Bilingual—a person who knows and uses two languages.

Communicative competence—the ability not only to apply the grammatical rules of a language in order to form grammatically correct sentences but also to know when and where to use these sentences and to whom.

Creole—a **Pidgin** language which has been expanded in vocabulary and structure, and has acquired native speakers.

Creolization—the process by which a Pidgin becomes a Creole. Creolization involves the expansion of the vocabulary and the grammatical system.

Cultural relativism—the theory that a culture can only be understood on its own terms. This means that standards, attitudes and beliefs from one culture should not be used in the study or description of another culture. According to this theory there are no universal cultural beliefs or values, or these are not regarded as important.

Culture—the total set of beliefs, attitudes, customs, behaviour, social habits, etc, of the members of a particular society.

Dialect—a variety of a language, spoken in one part of a country (regional dialect), or by people belonging to a particular social class (social dialect) which is different in some words, grammar, or pronunciation from other forms of the same language.

Dialectologist—person who studies dialectology.

Dialectology—the study of the regional variations of a language.

Discipline—branch of knowledge, subject of instruction.

Ethnography—the study of the life and culture of a society or ethnic group especially by personal observation.

Ethnography of communication—the study of the place of language in culture and society. Language is not studied in isolation but within a social and cultural setting.

Ethnomethodology—a branch of sociology which studies how people organize and understand activities of ordinary life. Ethnomethodologists have studied such things as relationships between children and adults, interviews, telephone conversation, and turn-taking in conversation.

Foreign language teaching—teaching of a language which is not the native language in a country, which is not used as a medium of instruction, not as a language of communication within the country.

Geographical dialect continuum—a chain of adjacent varieties which are mutually intelligible but pairs taken from the opposite ends of the chain are not.

Lexical word—word which refers to a thing, quality, state or action and which has meaning when the words are used alone.

Lexis—the vocabulary of a language in contrast to its grammar.

Lingua franca—a language that is used for communication between different groups of people, each speaking a different language. The lingua franca could be an internationally used language of communication, (e.g. English), it could be a native language of one of the groups (e.g. Bengali, in India) or it could be a mixture of two or more languages (a pidgin).

Linguistic relativity—a belief that the way people view the world is determined wholly or partly by the structure of their native language.

Linguistics—the study of language as a system of human communication.

Non-native varieties of English—term used for varieties of English used in countries where English is a **second language** such as Indian English, Singapore English.

Non-verbal communication—communication without the use of words, this could be done through gestures or signs.

Norm—that which is considered as appropriate in speech or writing for a particular situation or purpose within a particular group or community.

Pidgin—a language which is linguistically simplified, mixed and restricted, used in limited contact situations between people who have no common language.

Retroflex consonants—consonants formed by curling the tip of the tongue back and bringing it into contact with the back of the alveolar ridge (e.g., Hindi/ ga:dI)

Received pronunciation—British Standard English pronunciation which has been traditionally considered the prestige variety and which shows little or no regional variation. It has often been popularly referred to as 'BBC English' because it was until recently the standard pronunciation used by most BBC newsreaders. Like all other varieties of language it has been subject to change over time.

Second language—it is a language which is not a native language in a country, but it is widely used as a medium of instruction, in education and in communication, in Government. It is widely used by the people alongside another language or languages.

Sequencing—relationship between one utterance and another.

Sociolinguistics—the study of language in relation to social factors, that is, social class, educational level, type of education, age, sex, ethnic origin, etc. **Micro-sociolinguistics** deals with inter-personal communication such as speech acts, speech events, sequencing of utterances, and also investigations regarding varieties of language. **Macro-sociolinguistics** deals with the study of language choice in bilingual or multi-lingual communities, language planning, language attitudes etc.

Sociology—science of the nature and growth of society.

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Module -2 — Unit 1 □ Second Language Acquisition

Structure

- 1.0 Objectives**
- 1.1 Introduction**
- 1.2 General Factors Related to SLA**
 - 1.2.1 Age and SLA**
 - 1.2.2 Types of Motivation**
 - 1.2.3 Role of Personality in SLA**
 - 1.2.4 Intelligence and its Effects in SLA**
- 1.3 Defining a Good Second Language Learner**
- 1.4 Let Us Sum Up**
- 1.5 Review questions**
- 1.6 Glossery**
- 1.7 Reference**

1.0 □ Objectives

In this unit, we shall continue from what was discussed in the last unit. In unit 1, we looked at the role of first language and the interlanguage stage that the learner goes through to become a proficient second language user. We also looked at the personal factors which influence SLA. In this unit, we shall consider the general factors related to Second Language Acquisition.

At the end of the Unit, you should be able to discuss the following:

- The overall effects of the general factors which contribute to second language acquisition.
- Age as a crucial factor of SLA.
- The role of attitude and aptitude of the individual learners to acquire a second language.

- The different cognitive styles of learning which the learners utilize for acquiring a second language.
- The reasons for motivation to learn/acquire a 'new' language.
- The effects of the personality of the individual learners on second language acquisition.
- The role of intelligence when learners acquire a language.
- The scope of learner strategies and its stages of application in SLA.
- The general characteristics of a good second language learner.

1.1 □ Introduction

In this Unit, we will identify and understand how the general factors influence Second Language Acquisition. Before we do that maybe you will like to refresh your memory on what is commonly understood as '*Second Language Acquisition*'. According to Rod Ellis (1985: 6), Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers to 'the subconscious processes by which a language other than the mother tongue is learnt in a natural or a tutored setting'. In other words, SLA is the process by which a child or an adult acquires a new language after or along with the first language (which is often the mother tongue). Though acquisition and learning are treated as the same, there are some fundamental differences between the two which can be summarised as follows :

Language Acquisition	Language Learning
1. Implicit and subconscious.	1. Explicit and conscious.
2. Meaningful interaction with the target situation—informal situation.	2. Controlled interaction with the target language—formal situations.
3. Focus on the meaning conveyed.	3. Focus on form and meaning.
4. Error correction and explicit teaching of rules are not followed.	4. Importance for error correction and presentation of explicit rules.
5. Encourages modification of utterances, of linguistic generalisations.	5. Encourages correct mental representation.
6. Uses intuitive understanding of grammar.	6. Uses grammatical rules.
7. Depends on attitude.	7. Depends on aptitude.
8. Stable order of acquisition.	8. Simple to complex order of languages.

1.2 □ General Factors Related to SLA

Research studies have shown that difference in the general factors like age, learning style, aptitude, motivation, personality and intelligence affect both the proficiency level

of the learners and the ability to respond to an individual task. There is, however, more empirical evidence needed to understand about how the difference in general factors influences the route of SLA development in both children and adults. The general factors like aptitude, attitude or motivation have complex sets of features which occur in overlapping behavioural traits which makes it difficult to quantify them. As mentioned earlier, in this unit we will focus on the general factors which influence SLA.

Let's look at each factor more closely.

1.2.1 Age and SLA

The effects of age on the route of SLA could vary from the effects of age on the rate or success of SLA. Over the years there has been emphasis on both these approaches to understand the effect of age on SLA.

Age does not seem to alter the route of acquisition. Investigations of Bailey et al. (1974), Fathman (1975), Gazden et. al. (1975) showed that adults acquire the same set of grammatical morphemes in the same order as children. It is seen that learners seem to process linguistic data in the same way irrespective of how old they are.

The rate and success of SLA however seem to be strongly influenced by the age of the learner. If learners of different ages are matched according to the amount of time they have been exposed to L2, it is seen that the older learners reach higher levels of proficiency. Research however (Snow and Hoefnagel-Holilee, 1978) shows that although adults outperform children, adolescents learn faster. It appears that although age improves the language learning capacity of an individual, the performance may be the highest during adolescence after the performance declines. It is relevant for the acquisition of morphology and syntax of a language; the difference is not so noticeable for pronunciation. However it is also seen that though longer exposure to L2 may lead to greater success this is restricted to the overall improvement in communicative ability rather than grammatical and phonological accuracy (Hatch, 1983).

There are some factors we need to look in detail to understand the child — adult difference in L2 acquisition.

1. Critical Period Hypothesis : The Critical Period Hypothesis states that there is a period in every individual when language acquisition takes place naturally and effortlessly. According to Penfield and Roberts (1959) the first ten years of life is the optimum age for language acquisition. During this period, the brain retains plasticity, but this gradually fades away with the onset of puberty. This is due to the lateralisation of the language function. i.e. the neurological capacity for understanding and producing language which involves both hemispheres of the brain, gradually gets concentrated only in the left hemisphere in most people. This causes difficulty to learn a language for older learners.

2. Another factor which can influence learning is Cerebral dominance. Lenneberg (1967) found that injuries to the right hemisphere cause more language problems in children than in adults. He found that adults who underwent surgery in the left hemisphere had total language loss which was not evident for children. It was also seen that loss of plasticity affected only pronunciation and not any other levels of language. This was then explained as multiple critical periods (Selinker, 1978) that an individual goes through in life. The process of lateralisation and concentration of language function to specific areas is perhaps a gradual one. Different aspects of language are learnt better at different stages in the process. More empirical research findings are needed to establish the link between cerebral dominance and age differences in learners.

3. Cognitive factors :

One difference for the child-adult distinction is Piaget's theory of 'formal operations'. According to Piaget, around puberty, many adolescents pass through a development stage called 'formal operations' during which he/she reflects on the rules that he/she possesses and on his/her thoughts. He is able to develop general solutions to problems and has the ability to comprehend language as a formal system. An adolescent is able to 'pick up' language like a child as well as supplement this process by conscious study. In other words, older children develop the meta awareness about the language by consciously studying the linguistic rules. They apply these rules when they use the language. There is therefore a different orientation to language of children and older learners.

4. Affective factors :

Differences in the affective states of young and older learners could also influence how the learner relates and responds easily to the foreign language culture. Young children are seen to adapt more easily in a new socio-cultural context because they are less culture-bound than adults (Burn, 1980). However, let us understand that this does not necessarily mean children are more rapid learners. Research shows (Neufeld, 1978) that all learners have an innate ability to acquire functional vocabulary and a basic mastery over pronunciation and grammatical rules. Children however are more motivated to handle complex grammatical structures and different language styles.

Let's look at the finding related to age and SLA again in a nutshell.

a. The starting age does not affect the route of SLA. Though there could be differences in the acquisition order, these are not due to age.

b. The starting age affects the rate of SLA. Adolescent learners are faster learners than children and adults especially for grammar and vocabulary, if given the same exposure to the language. However, there is not noticeable difference where pronunciation is concerned.

c. Both the number of years of exposure and the starting age affect the level of success. More exposure to the language improves the overall communicative fluency

of the learners but the starting age determines the level of accuracy achieved, particularly in pronunciation. It is also seen that although young children only learn at the same rate or are slower than the older learners, they are more likely to go further.

d. Adults acquire primary levels (except pronunciation) more rapidly than children because of their greater cognitive abilities. Adults achieve greater overall communication ability both due to exposure to language and due to proficiency developed through peer-group-interaction.

e. Affective factors and difference in language environment of children and adults may result in the different rates in success attained by children and adults.

1.2.2 Types of Motivation

What do we mean by 'motivation'? You, for instance, are motivated to join the DELT though distance mode in spite of many personal inconveniences you may have to face. That's a high level of motivation.

It is commonly understood that a person's behaviour is governed by certain needs and interests which influence how the individual actually performs. Motivation and attitude are therefore crucial factors which influence second language acquisition. What is then motivation in ELT? Think about it and write your response in the space given, below.

<p>Motivation in ELT is _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>
--

In simple terms, motivation can be defined as the incentive, the need or the desire that the learner feels to learn a second language. Different research scholars (Brown, 1981, Gardner and Lambert, 1972) have tried to classify motivation based on their empirical study findings. Here, we shall look at a summary of these classifications.

Motivation can be divided into five types based on the findings of research studies. These are :

- a. **Instrumental motivation** : The motivation derived from the desire to achieve proficiency in a new language for utilitarian purposes. (Getting a job, joining a course etc.)
- b. **Integrative motivation** : The motivation formed by the desire to achieve proficiency in a new language in order to participate in the life of the

community that speaks the language (e.g. When a Bengali woman marries a Telugu man and tries to learn Telugu.)

- c. **Global motivation** : Motivation of a general kind to the goal of learning a second language i.e. picking up a language for its own sake.
- d. **Situational motivation** : The motivation which varies according to the situation (formal or informal) in which learning takes place e.g. in the classroom or at a restaurant.
- e. **Task motivation** : The motivation for performing a particular learning task, e.g. to fill up an application form.

Studies have shown that most successful learners are those who have both talent and high level of motivation for learning. It is also seen that the level and type of motivation is strongly influenced by the social context in which learning takes place. We do not know clearly whether it is motivation that produces successful learning or it is successful learning that enhances motivation. Some studies (McNamara, 1973) shows that it is the need to get meaning across and the pleasure experienced when this is achieved that motivates SLA.

Let's do a task now

Q. Spend some time and think about how you will help learners to improve their motivation to learn a second language. Write down any three steps you will take to make them feel motivated.

Class :

No. of students :

Medium of instruction :

Steps that will be taken to improve motivation for SLA in students :

1.

2.

3.

1.2.3 Role of Personality in SLA

In general psychology, personality has been explored in terms of personal traits. The aggregate of these traits constitutes personality. It is very difficult to categorise personality types. Generally, personalities are seen as opposites such as shy–venturesome; not assertive—dominant; extrovert—introvert, neurotic—stable, etc. In SLA studies, these labels have been devised in order to allow researchers to investigate those traits which they intuitively feel are important. There seems to be reasons to suspect that different personality types promote different skills. An extrovert and socially outgoing personality correlates with oral fluency. The extrovert classroom learner finds it easier to make contact with other users of L2 and in this way receives input. Other studies have indicated that certain social skills like "talkativeness" and "responsiveness" also develop communication. It is not only the quantity of input, but the quality of interaction that contributes to acquisition. Traits such as "quickness" in grasping concepts and "perfectionist tendencies" promote linguistic abilities. Other traits such as "preparedness to be experimental" may be important in both.

1.2.4 Intelligence and its effects in SLA

Intelligence is the term used to refer to one's ability to master and use a whole range of academic skills. It is more the capacity rather than the contents of the mind (McDonough, 1981: 126). It is this underlying ability to learn rather than the actual knowledge that is measured by intelligence tests. Intelligence is, however, not an essential factor in either L1 or L2 acquisition, when a language is acquired naturally.

Intelligence may influence the acquisition of some skills associated with SLA (for example, those utilized when second language is learnt in a formal setting) but it is not likely to influence the acquisition of say, oral fluency skills. This is because in a natural second language acquisition situation, the L2 knowledge is developed through learning how to communicate in the target language. Research has also shown that the effects of intelligence are limited to the rate and success of SLA, but there is no evidence that intelligence affects the route of acquisition as is evident in spontaneous language use.

1.3 □ Defining the Good Second Language Learner

Now that you have read about all the factors which influence second language learning, what according to you are the qualities of a good second language learner?

Spend some time thinking about it and write any three qualities you think a good second language learner should possess.

Three qualities a good language learner should possess are:

1.
2.
3.

There have been several attempts to specify the qualities of a good language learner (Rubin, 1975; Naiman et al. 1978). Based on these Rod Ellis (1985) has drawn up a comprehensive list on the characteristics of good language learning which are given below. You could also check to see how many of these qualities you or your students possess.

According to Rod Ellis, the good language learner will:

1. Be able to respond to the group dynamics of the learning situation so as not to develop negative anxiety and inhibition.
2. Seeks out all opportunities to use the target language.
3. Makes maximum use of the opportunities to practice listening to and responding to speech in L2 addressed to him and others.
4. Supplement learning that derives from direct contact with the speakers of L2.
5. Be an adolescent or adult rather than a child to acquire the early stages of grammatical development.
6. Possess sufficient analytical skills to perceive categories and store linguistic features of L2 and to monitor errors.
7. Possess a strong reason for learning the L2 and also to develop a strong motivation to do communicative tasks.
8. Be prepared to experiment by taking risks even if it makes the learner appear foolish.
9. Be capable to adapt to different learning conditions.

These are qualities which the language learner may aspire for whether in formal or informal settings. If all the above-mentioned is true, it predicts that above all the "good language learner" is an *acquirer*, who first of all is able to obtain sufficient intake in the second language, and second, has a low affective filter to enable him to utilize this input for language acquisition. The good language learner may or may not be a conscious learner. If he is, he is an "optimal Monitor user". We would therefore not be surprised to see above average or superior language aptitude in such a performer.

Data from Naimon et al. (1978) support these generalizations. They surveyed thirty-four "good language learners", and found that *immersion and motivation* were the most frequent responses to the question of what factors influenced successful second language acquisition.

1.4 □ Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, a distinction was drawn between acquisition and learning. The unit then looked at the overall effects of the general factors of second language acquisition. It was noted that age does not seem to alter the route of acquisition. The rate and success of SLA, however, seem to be influenced by the age of the learner. Longer exposure to L2 seem to enhance the communication ability but not grammatical and phonological accuracy. In order to understand the child and adult differences in SLA, the concepts of critical period hypothesis, cerebral dominance, cognitive and affective factors were discussed. Research seems to show that adults acquire primary levels of acquisition faster than children due to their cognitive ability. Motivation is also an important factor which influences SLA — whether it is instrumental, integrative, global, situationl or task based. Role of personality, empathy and intelligence was also discussed in relation to SLA. It is seen that people with an outgoing personality contributes more to acquisition. The effects of intelligence are limited to the rate and success of SLA and there is no clear evidence that it affects the route of acquisition. Understanding the different factors which influence SLA helps in understanding the characteristics of a good language learner which was discussed in some detail in the unit.

1.5 □ Review Questions

1. Distinguish between acquisition and learning of a language.
2. Discuss the role of age in SLA. Give examples to illustrate the child/adult differences.
3. What is critical period hypothesis?
4. How does cerebral dominance influence learning?
5. What is the role of Piaget's 'formal operations' in SLA?
6. How do the affective factors influence SLA?
7. Distinguish between aptitude and attitude.
8. How does aptitude and attitude of learners effect SLA?
9. Write short notes on:
 - a. Cognitive style and SLA

- b. Motivation in SLA
 - c. Role of personality in SLA.
10. How does the intelligence of the learner effect SLA?
 11. What is the difference between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge?
 12. Explain with the help of a diagram (table) the different types of cognitive strategies that can be used in SLA.
 13. What are the qualities of a good language learner according to Rod Ellis (1985)?

1.6 □ Glossary

Acquisition: the internalisation of rules and formulas to be used to communicate in the L2.

Acquisition device: a nativist notion; a device containing the possible grammatical forms of a language—a device which directs the acquisition process.

Aptitude: (distinguished from 'intelligence') the specific ability that a learner has for learning a second language.

Attitudes: a set of beliefs possessed by the learners, about the target language culture, their own culture, about the teacher and the learning conditions.

Competence: constituted of internalised rules of the target language which are organized into a system.

Comprehensible input: the type and extent of language that the learners are exposed to and can understand.

Feedback: acts such as correction, acknowledgement, request for clarification of paraphrase done in response to the learner's effort to communicate.

Filter: a barrier between the actual extent of language that a learner is exposed to and the extent (s) he attends to.

Fossilization: a point where an L2 learner may stop learning any more despite the fact that his/her set of internalized rules is different from the actual set of rules in the target language.

Input: spoken or written form of language that the learner is exposed to in order to determine the rules of target language.

Interlanguage: systematic knowledge of a second language which is independent of both the learner's L1 and L2.

Learning: Internalization of rules and formulas which are used to communicate in a second language.

Motivation: the learner's overall goal or orientation to learn a second language.

Route of development: a number of transitional states en route to acquiring the target language rules.

Transfer: the process of using knowledge of the first language in learning a second language.

Universal Grammar: the properties inherent in the human mind, consisting of universal principles of language structure and rule formation.

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Module -2 — Unit 2 □ Implications of SLA Studies for ELT

Structure

- 2.0 Objectives**
- 2.1 Introduction**
- 2.2 Teaching Implications of SLA hypothesis**
- 2.3 Using students' Native Language to increase comprehensibility**
- 2.4 Examples of Instructional Strategies linked to appropriate Language Acquisition stages**
- 2.5 Ten things the mainstream teacher can do today to improve instruction for ELL students**
- 2.6 Let's sum up**
- 2.7 Review questions**
- 2.8 Glossary**
- 2.9 Reference**

2.0 □ Objectives

In this unit we will discuss the teaching implications of the theories of second language acquisition and learning. At the end of this unit you will be able to clearly deduce the implied concepts and procedures of the SLA theories to be adopted in order to teach a second language effectively.

2.1 □ Introduction

The process of learning and teaching a language is interrelated. To teach a language, it is always useful to know the importance of a language to the learner and the purpose for learning it. In learning languages, a distinction is usually made between mother tongues, second languages, and foreign languages.

In the Indian context, English has the unique distinction of being a second language for majority of the students whose mother tongue is one of the several Indian languages (Bengali, Hindi, Marathi, Tamil, Malayalam and so on). English functions primarily as the link and library language for the majority of the Indian students. Depending on the exposure to the English language in their environment, the language can even be a foreign language for students in India (as with first generation learners in the rural parts of the country). It is often seen that students also often bring with them the working knowledge of more than one regional language to the classroom. As you can see, the same language can have different roles in the language teaching and learning process and this could have important implications for English Language Teaching.

Many theories about the learning and teaching of languages have been proposed. These theories, normally influenced by developments in the fields of linguistics, sociology and psychology, have inspired many approaches to the teaching of second and foreign languages. Keeping these in mind, let us now understand the implications of these theories.

2.2 □ Teaching Implications of SLA Hypothesis

SLA has many implications for teaching. Classroom practice is ultimately based on the application of theories on teaching techniques. These theories may not be explicit and, in many cases, the teacher may not act with conscious awareness. However, most teachers *act in* accordance with a set of beliefs and principles. Suppose that the first English lesson for beginners start with teaching the Present Continuous tense. Several assumptions are apparent here. Firstly, it is assumed that grammar should take precedence over other aspects of language such as pronunciation or vocabulary in the early stages. Secondly, insofar as grammar is concerned, learning should begin with the verb and not the noun or other parts of speech. Thirdly, of all the verbal patterns, the learner needs to begin with the Present Continuous tense. Similarly, in the old grammar-translation days, there was a belief that translation exercises would promote language learning and use. In fact, language teaching cannot take place without a theory of language learning. But this may exist only as a set of covert beliefs.

Several methodological principles may be derived from SLA studies. These are briefly described below.

1. Input hypothesis and the importance of receptive skills: According to input hypothesis comprehension plays a predominant part in the whole process of language learning. As Prabhu (1987) has pointed out, exposure to different samples of language and the effort to work out the meaning content is a condition which leads to subconscious abstraction of language structures. It may take several instance of extensive exposure to different samples of language before any abstraction is made. This structures

fomed at first may be faint or incomplete or inaccurate and become better defined with further exposure. Thus a large proportion of language teaching should be devoted to the development of receptive skills.

2. Learning-acquisition hypothesis: The interface position regarding learning and acquisition strongly suggests that classroom practice should include both form-focused activities and meaning-focused activities.

In form-focused practice the teacher isolates specific elements of knowledge and skills which compose communicative ability and provides the learners with opportunities to practise them separately. The learners are required to repeat or manipulate language forms or construct new language forms on the model of those presented to them by the teacher. Such activity facilitates the subconscious assimilation of the structural regularities inherent in those forms and promotes automaticity in language use.

Littlewood (1981) suggests that form-focused practice need not be just a mechanical drilling of language forms. If the forms are introduced within a limited context, then the communicative meaning of the forms become clear. This enables the learner to take account of structural facts as well as communicative facts about language. Littlewood calls such activities "quasi communicative" because they act as a bridge between knowledge of structures and their independent production to communicate meaning.

Meaning-focused or communicative activities enable the learners to deploy the structures practised in the form-focused stage. These activities closely resemble real-life interaction and involve both understanding and production of utterances. The effort to comprehend or convey meaning involves the deployment of abstract structures. Every instance of deployment constitutes a step in the further development of these structures. For the autonomous production of structures, the learner has to activate and integrate his pre-communicative knowledge and skills in order to use them for the communication of meaning. In these activities, the production of linguistic forms become subordinate to higher level decisions related to the communication of meanings. The learner has to begin with conceptualizing his intended meaning, then select suitable language forms from his total linguistic repertoire and finally produce them fluently. The criterion for success is whether meaning is conveyed effectively.

This dual nature of language practice is the result of SLA insights and is advocated in language classes. Brumfit (1979) uses the terms "accuracy practice" and "fluency practice"; Rivers and Temperley (1978) make a distinction between "skill getting" and "skill using" activities and Harmer (1983) refers to "practice" activities and "communicative" activities just as Littlewood mentions "quasi-communicative" and "communicative" activities. Thus according to the interface position, classroom activities must include both form-focused and meaning — focused practice.

3. Learner Variability : In the traditional class the teacher used to aim for a homogeneity of the learning environment. It was believed that the class should be kept together and that the teacher should aim for the 'middle' in order to cover a wide spectrum of learners. This approach however, left dissatisfied learners at both ends of the ability scale.

The studies on learner variability has made us aware of the increasing importance of individualization in learning. It means the creation of a learning and teaching environment in which individual needs, abilities and interests of each learner are fully taken into account with respect to objective, pace of learning, methods, and materials. Further, it is fundamental to the philosophy of individualization that learning rather than teaching is the essential activity of the classroom. The teacher is perceived as a facilitator or manager of learning rather than as purveyor of knowledge. This does not actually relieve the teacher of any responsibility. If any, it increases it since it is far more difficult to manage many individual learning programmes than to orchestrate a class around a common syllabus.

However, this is a very difficult achievement particularly in our country where large classes predominate. But it is not an impossible task. Firstly, it is the teacher's attitude which can foster individualization. The teacher must recognise the need for individual learning and develop a flexible and sympathetic attitude to different kinds of learners and their special needs. Further, pair and group activity in the classroom allow independent participation and go a long way in encouraging personal learning techniques.

2.3 □ Using Students' Native Language to increase Comprehensibility

Drawing from several different theories, including Krashen's, this principle also draws on a wealth of current research that has shown the advantage of incorporating a student's native language into their instruction (Berman, Minicucci, McLaughlin, Nelson & Woodworth, 1995; Lucas and Katz, 1994; Pease-Alvarez, Garcia & Espinosa, 1991; Thomas & Collier, 1978). Thomas and Collier, for example, in their study of school effectiveness for language minority students, note that first-language support "explains the most variance in student achievement and is the most powerful influence on (ELL) students' long term academic success". Using a student's native language as a support can be seen as both a general method or as any of a number of specific strategies. Many of the strategies we list below include, implicitly or explicitly, the use of a student's native language to increase his or her understanding.

2.4 □ Examples of Instructional Strategies linked to appropriate Language Acquisition Stages

The chart below is adapted from the Oregon Department of Education publication *The English Language Learners' Program Guide* (n. d). Each of the five stages of second language acquisition is linked to appropriate and specific instructional strategies.

Silent /Receptive Stage I	Early Production Stage II	Speech Emergence Stage III	Intermediate/Advanced Proficiency Stages IV & V
Use of visual aids and gestures	Engage students in charades and linguistic guessing games	Conduct group discussions	Sponsor student panel discussions on the thematic topics*
Slow speech emphasizing key words	Do role-playing activities	Use skits for dramatic interaction	Have students identify a social issue and defend their position*
Do not force oral production	Present open-ended sentences	Have student fill out forms and applications*	Promote critical analysis and evaluation of pertinent issues
Write key words on the board with students copying them as they are presented	Promote open dialogues	Assign writing compositions	Assign writing tasks that involve writing, rewriting, editing, critiquing, written examples*.
Use pictures and manipulatives to help illustrate concepts.	Conduct student interviews with the guidelines written out	Have students write descriptions of visuals and props.	Encourage critical interpretation of stories, legends and poetry *
Use multimedia language role models	Use charts, tables, graphs, and other conceptual visuals.	Use music, TV, and radio with class activities.	Have students design questions, directions, and activities for others to follow
Use interactive dialogue journals	Use newspaper ads and other mainstream materials to encourage language interaction	Show filmstrips and videos with cooperative groups scripting the visuals.	Encourage appropriate story telling
Encourage choral readings.	Encourage partner and trio readings.	Encourage solo readings with interactive comprehension checks*	
Use Total Physical Response (TPR) techniques			

* It is important to structure activities that are both age and linguistically appropriate.

2.5 □ Ten Things the Mainstream Teacher can do today to improve Instruction for ELL Students

1. Enunciate clearly, but do not raise your voice. Add gestures, point directly to objects or draw pictures when appropriate.
2. Write clearly, legibly, and in print — many ELL students have difficulty reading cursive.
3. Develop and maintain routines. Use clear and consistent signals for classroom instructions.
4. Repeat information and review frequently. If a student does not understand, try rephrasing or paraphrasing in shorter sentences and simpler syntax. Check often for understanding, but do not ask "Do you understand?" Instead, have students demonstrate their learning in order to show comprehension.
5. Try to avoid idioms and slang words.
6. Present new information in the context of known information.
7. Announce the lesson's objectives and activities, and list instructions step-by-step.
8. Present information in a variety of ways.
9. Provide frequent summations of the salient points of a lesson, and always emphasize key vocabulary words.
10. Recognize student success overtly and frequently. But, also be aware that in some cultures overt, individual praise is considered inappropriate and can therefore be embarrassing or confusing to the student.

2.6 □ Let's sum up

In this unit we have looked at the various applications of SLA research. There is an account of Krashen's Theory and its relevance in SLA. There is also a note on the general principles on teaching ELL students. Finally there are some important guidelines for instructional strategies to appropriate language acquisition stages and also ten things the mainstream teacher can do today to improve instruction for ELL students.

2.7 □ Review Questions

1. What methodological principles can you derive from SLA theories?
2. What is the role of students' native language in second language acquisition?

3. What are some of the things you can do as a teacher to improve instruction of ELL students?

2.8 □ Glossary

Filter : Learners do not necessarily attend to all the input they are exposed to. Rather they attend to some feature, but filter the others out. Duley et al. (1982) suggests that the use of the filter depends upon effective factors.

Input : What the language learner hears or reads from which he can learn. This is contrasted with output.

Interface position : It is a term used in theories of second language acquisition. The theories emphasize the distinction between 'acquired' knowledge and 'learnt' knowledge. The latter is considered as interface position.

Output : What the language learner produces by way of speaking or writing.

2.9 □ Reference

1. R. Ellis. 1985. Understanding Second Language Acquisition, Oxford: OUP
2. Krashen, S. D. 1981. Second Language Acquisition and Second Language learning, Oxford: OUP
3. Littlewood, William T, 1984. Foreign and second language learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Module -2 — Unit 3 □ Components of Language Pedagogy

Structure

- 3.0 Objectives**
- 3.1 Components of Language Teaching**
 - 3.1.1 Objectives**
 - 3.1.2 Content**
 - 3.1.2.1 Syllabus : Definition, features and types**
 - 3.1.2.2 Materials**
- 3.2 Methodology**
- 3.3 Evaluation**
- 3.4 Teacher variables in Language Teaching**
- 3.5 Let's sum up**
- 3.6 Review questions**
- 3.7 Glossary**
- 3.8 Reference**

3.0 □ Objectives

In this unit we will try to identify the different components which go into language teaching and study them in details. We will also see how applied linguistics has influenced these components.

3.1 □ Components of Language Pedagogy

Language teaching does not operate in isolation from other aspects of life and society. If we view second language teaching in its totality, we find that it is a very complex task indeed. In order to understand the nature of this complex task, it is necessary to approach it in a systematic manner. It is necessary to organize the various components, map out their relationships and analyse the way in which they operate.

Fig. 2.1 below is an attempt to link the main components of language and their interaction.

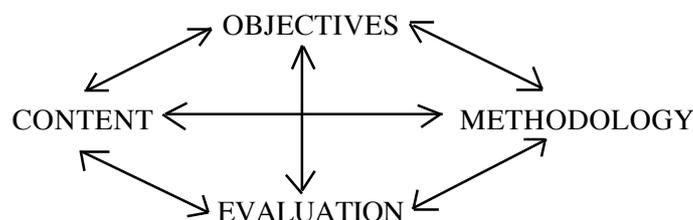


Fig. 1.1 Showing various components of language pedagogy.

The starting point of a language course is its purpose or 'objectives'. The purpose is the reason why a language course comes into existence, later parts of the unit will tell you how various factors like social, economic, political, educational and pragmatic needs etc. determine the objectives.

Objectives in their turn determine the content of the course. Content refers to both the syllabus (the list of topics, concepts, items etc.) and the materials (text books, supplementary and audio-visual teaching materials). Together, objectives and content shape the 'methodology' to be adopted for the course. Objectives, content and methodology constitute the why, what and how of a course. In order to measure whether the objectives have been achieved or not, evaluation of the learners has to be carried out.

3.1.1 Objectives :

Determining the objectives is crucial to any language course. It is the goal of a course of instruction. Two different types of objectives may be distinguished. General objectives, or aims, are the underlying reasons for or purposes of a course of instruction. For example, the aims of the teaching of a language in a particular country might be: to teach students to read and write a foreign language, to improve students' knowledge of a foreign culture, to teach conversation in a foreign language, etc. Aims are long-term goals described in very general terms.

Specific objectives are descriptions of what is to be achieved in a course. They are more detailed descriptions of exactly what a learner is expected to be able to do at the end of a period of instruction. This might be a single lesson, a chapter of a book, a term's work, etc. For instance, specific objectives of a classroom lesson might be: Use of the linking words 'and', 'but', 'however', 'although'. These specific objectives contribute to the general objective of paragraph writing.

It is to be noted that prior to the advent of structural linguistics, objectives were determined either in an intuitive way, or under the pressure of some exigency and not

in a systematic way. There are examples galore. For instance, in Mediaeval Europe, the knowledge of Latin was necessary for academic and religious purposes. So the aim was to develop the abilities of reading and writing Latin. Speaking was not considered necessary. In India, the ability to read, recite and write Sanskrit were the objectives of learning Sanskrit.

After the advent of structural linguistics, the aim of language learners was seen to be the attainment of the spoken skill, specially everyday conversation. Hence the inculcation of a "good" pronunciation in the target language became an indispensable element of the language courses.

When the threshold level courses for the Council of Europe were being developed during the 1970s, the objective was seen to be the ability of a person to operate effectively in a job situation as well as within the social context, in a country not his own. As a result, separate language courses for waiters, shop assistants, air traffic controllers etc. were drawn up. The reasons were pragmatic as well as economic. In addition, language needed for social interaction (e.g. dating) was also focussed upon, the aim was to make the foreigner feel at ease in becoming a part of the social environment.

Such a situation gave rise to the concept of language (often English) for specific purposes (LSP or ESP), where the mastery of the total range ability and language use was not the target. Social, pragmatic and economic factors combined to evolve the aim of learning and teaching a language for specific use. The recent trend of teaching 'Communicative English', 'Business English', 'Entrepreneur's English' etc. are all consequences of the realization that language use for specific purposes and in specific contexts has characteristic features which need to be learnt for effective communication.

Finally in the current communicative approach to language teaching the basic objective is to develop the communicative competence of the learners through meaningful interaction in the target language. Focus here is given on the students' ability to convey the meaning and accomplishing the purpose of communication.

3.1.2 Content

The contents of a language course refer to *what* is to be taught. These may be concepts, topics, grammatical rules, language items of various kinds, functions, literary pieces and so on. These can be arrived at either in an intuitive way or as a result of systematic enquiry. The second option emanates from a theoretical position. The other important aspect of content is its organization or syllabus design. So the two related questions that can be posed with reference to content are: (1) What will be taught, and (2) What kind or type of syllabus will be followed.

Objectives of language teaching are achieved through content. Prior to the influence of linguistics, as in the Grammar-Translation way of teaching, study of literary pieces, study of grammar and grammatical rules formed the content.

With the emergence of structural linguistics, a complete change in the concept of content occurred. The categories of descriptive analysis — sounds, morphemes, lexis or vocabulary, structures or sentence pattern — became the content.

A further change occurred with the emergence of the communicative language teaching approach. Semantic categories rather than grammatical categories became the content. Functional-notional categories, elements derived from discourse analysis, speech acts and communicative events were used as items of content.

3.1.2.1 Syllabus: Definition, feature and types

A syllabus may be defined as a description of the contents of a course of instruction and the order in which they are to be taught. Language teaching syllabuses may be based on different criteria such as (a) grammatical items and vocabulary e.g. structural syllabus, (b) the language needed for different types of situations e.g. situational syllabus, (c) the meanings and communicative functions which the learners need to express in the target language e.g. notional functional syllabus, (d) the skills underlying different language behaviour and (e) the text types learners need to master.

It is to be noted that a syllabus may consist of an independent publication — a book or booklet — if it is intended to cover all the courses in a particular context regardless of the actual materials used: a country's notional syllabus for schools, for example, or the syllabus of a group of language colleges. However, a textbook that is designed to cover an entire course should also provide its own syllabus through the introduction and contents page or index.

Common characteristics of a syllabus

A syllabus is a document which consists, essentially, of a list. This list specifies all the things that are to be taught in the course(s) for which the syllabus was designed: (a) beginner's course, for example, or (b) a six-year secondary-school programme; it is therefore comprehensive. The actual components of the list may be either content items (words, structures, topics) or process ones (tasks, methods).

The items are ordered, usually having components that are considered easier or more essential earlier, and more difficult and less important ones later. This ordering may be fairly detailed and rigid, or general and flexible.

The syllabus generally has explicit objectives, usually declared at the beginning of the document, on the basis of which the components of the list are selected and ordered.

Another characteristic of the syllabus is that it is a public document. It is available for scrutiny not only by the teachers who are expected to implement it, but also by the consumers (the learners or their parents or employers), by representatives of the relevant authorities (inspectors, school boards), by other interested members of the public (researchers, teacher trainers or textbook writers). Underlying this characteristic is the principle of accountability; the composers of the syllabus are answerable to their target audience for the quality of their document.

There are other, optional features, displayed by some syllabuses and not others. A time schedule is one; some syllab delimit the time framework of their components, prescribing, for example, that these items should be dealt within the first month, those in the second; the class should have completed this much by the end of the year. A particular preferred approach or methodology to be used may also be defined, even in a syllabus that is essentially content-based. It may list recommended materials—coursebooks, visual materials or supplementary materials— either in general, or where relevant to certain items or sections.

Syllabus and curriculum

The words 'syllabus' and 'curriculum' are very often used interchangeably. Generally, curriculum denotes the course of study as a whole and syllabus, the content and arrangement of a subject of study.

Curriculum in the general sense has been defined clearly in the *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* (1978):

Curriculum : an educational programme which states:

- a. the educational purpose of the programme (ends)
- b. the content, teaching procedures and learning experiences which will be necessary to achieve this purpose (the means), and
- c. some means of assessing whether or not the educational ends have been achieved (evaluation).

A curriculum is the statement of the educational programme in its totality. Curriculum design would mean considering not only all aspects of the educational programme, but also all the subjects that would go into it, their place in the school programme, allotment of time to each area of study and the materials to be included. In other words curriculum design would have to consider the development of the goals, content, the implementation and evaluation of a whole educational system.

By syllabus, we mean the interpretation of the curriculum in terms of what should happen in a given situation. For example, at the primary/secondary level, a national body like the NCERT prepares a curriculum where general statements about subjects/topics, time to be allotted, evaluation etc., are made. A syllabus based on the curriculum would **select, grade and order** the materials to be used in the school programme.

Whatever be the term used, what is important to remember is that curriculum/ syllabus designs have been influenced by the concepts of language teaching and language learning. If we consider the development of concepts/theories of language teaching and language learning, we can see that up to a decade or two ago, they were atomistic in nature; that is, it was believed that language was made up of separate parts. Therefore, the approach to language teaching/learning was that of an analyst in a laboratory who breaks down a salt, for example, into its constituent elements, describes it part by part, and explains how it is put together. The syllabus designers have reflected this point of view. But with the ideas generated by the 'communicative' school of thought, language learning has been viewed holistically. Accordingly, syllabus design has adopted a more integrated approach.

These two approaches to syllabus design are called the narrow (atomistic) view and the broad (holistic) view.

If a syllabus designer held the narrow view, she or he might concentrate on selecting and grading materials before presenting them. She/he would not accept that aspects of methodology or evaluation form a part of the syllabus. A person holding the broad view, in contrast, would say that everything was a part of syllabus design, as language teaching cannot be viewed as consisting of only one aspect or the other.

Different types of language syllabus

A number of different kinds of syllabuses are used in foreign language teaching. A list of these is provided below; it is not, of course, exhaustive, but includes the main types that you may come across in practice or in your reading.

1. **Situational Syllabus:** The situational syllabus is basically a structural syllabus with a word list. A structural syllabus is a list of the basic structures and sentence patterns of English, arranged according to their order of presentation. In situational Language Teaching, structures are always taught within sentences, and vocabulary is chosen according to how well it permits teaching of sentence patterns. The first lesson of a typical structural syllabus will have the sentence patterns 'This is ...' and 'That is ...' with the vocabulary 'book', 'pencil', 'ruler', 'desk' etc.
2. **Notional syllabus:** The notional syllabus takes semantic knowledge as primary. It attempts to answer the question 'what do users of the language need to express though the form is also altogether neglected in a notional syllabus, the meaning of the word, phrase or even sentence is of utmost importance. A lesson concerned with expressing time in a notional syllabus might have the following items: 'it's morning', 'it's late in the morning', 'it will take place about seven in the morning', 'it's nine now', 'it's nine o'clock', 'it's almost nine' and so on. There will be similar lessons on place, duration, frequency etc.

3. **Notional-Functional/Communicative syllabus:** Some have argued that the Notional-functional or communicative method is centered around the learner, and that only the learners are fully aware of their own needs and decide learning pace and path. Therefore they feel that the concept of syllabus should be abolished altogether. Since this is impossible on practical considerations, a variety of syllabus models have been proposed. One kind specifies the semantic-grammatical categories such as frequency location, motion. A more broad-based syllabus would include description of the objectives of learning that a language may be used for such specific tasks like organising tours, creating business contacts etc. the topics they might need to talk about may include personal identification and education and functions such as describing something requesting information etc.
4. **Grammatical Syllabus:** The grammatical syllabus is a response to the question 'how do users of the target language express themselves?' Such a syllabus assumes that the learners' need items which can cope with a grammatical demand. Such a syllabus deals with the relationship between form and formed, rather than form and meaning. A typical grammatical syllabus would begin with a subject-verb-object structure. The learner, would then be expected to learn subject-verb agreement. In the third lesson he may be taught to form the present, past and future of verbs, and in the fourth the affirmative and negative forms. One weakness of this syllabus is that the unit is the isolated sentence without a context. The mastering of linguistic form becomes more important than mastering the social meaning.
5. **Lexical Syllabus:** The focus of a lexical syllabus is lexis and therefore such a syllabus consists of a list of words and their associated collections, The words are selected and graded according to certain basic principles. The first principle is to choose words, that occur most frequently, such as 'boy', 'girl', 'man', 'woman', 'walk', 'run' etc. The second is to choose words which are intuitively felt to be necessary. If the name of a particular day is learnt, the learner would also desire to know the names of the others. The third is to choose words with a greater 'range' i.e. the number of topics in which the word occurs. The fourth is to choose words to with cover a large conceptual or semantic range. The word 'house' for example, can cover such meanings, as 'hut', 'cottage', 'building' etc. The fifth is consideration of classroom and environmental needs. A word like 'chimney' may not be necessary in a rural environment, but essential in an industrial one.
6. **Topic based:** A topic based syllabus resembles a situational syllabus, except that topics are more general such as 'dressing', 'having breakfast', 'going to school' and so on. A typical lesson on 'dressing' in a topic based syllabus may contain the following items: 'Radha is combing her hair' 'Ram is taking off his pyjamas' 'Mother is putting on the baby's vest', 'Rohit is thinking about what to wear'. It usually also contains a word list comprising some of the following items: 'slippers', 'shoes', 'shorts', 'frock', 'skirt', 'trousers', 'stool', 'mirror', 'comb', 'put on', 'take off', and so

on. Thus, the topic based syllabus caters both to grammatical structure and to lexical patterns.

7. **Grammatical-lexical syllabus :** A fusion of the grammatical syllabus and the lexical syllabus, it caters to diverse needs, and is therefore by far the most common kind of syllabus. Usually, the structures and lexis are specified together, though they may also form separate units. A typical lesson, may consist of such, structures, as 'This is ...', 'These are ...', 'Those are ...' and the vocabulary items may be ones like 'a book', 'a light', 'a fan', 'trains', 'buses' and so on. The learners may even be asked to choose the appropriate vocabulary item for a particular grammatical structure. The only weakness of such a syllabus is that they are non-contextualized and therefore may prove uninteresting to the learner.
- 8 **Mixed or multistrand syllabus :** The concourse of modern syllabi have led some linguists to opt for a fertile union of all the different kinds, which have come to be known as 'mixed' or 'multi-strand'. It would consist of topic-based learning, but notions as those of time and place would also be presented. Further, functions, such greeting a stranger or getting a work done would also be served. As in task-based syllabus, interactive tasks may have to be performed by the learner on the basis of the items learnt. Such items would be so arranged as to cater to grammatical and vocabulary needs. Thus both the form and the meaning are given adequate attention.
9. **Procedural syllabus :** The 'Bangalore Communicative Teaching Project" in India was the program in which the procedural syllabus originated. Prabhu (1987) and his collaborators made the change from a traditional grammar — based program to a task - based one. In a radical deviation from strongly consolidated grammar-based syllabi at the time, the procedural syllabus did not take linguistic units as a reference. Instead, it used a series of opinion-gap, information gap, and reasoning -gap tasks which were radically meaning-focused. Opinion gaps involved expressing a personal preference, attitude of feeling when faced with a situation. Information gap was operationalized as information sharing between or among learners. Reasoning-gap implied inferring and deducing from, and practical reasoning about a given piece of information.
10. **Process syllabus:** Advocates of process syllabi present a social and problem-solving model for syllabus design, in which the learner plays the main role and where negotiation is the key concept. This model draws upon general philosophical and educational principles rather than on second language acquisition principles, and its origins can be found in the work of Breen and Candlin (1984, 1987), Breen (1984, 1987), and Breen and Littlejohn (2000).

As opposed to traditional structural or notional-functional syllabi, a process syllabus tries to integrate content (subject-matter) and learning experience, by bridging the gap between what should be taught and what is actually taught. As Breen (1984. p.56) suggests, a process syllabus is about "who does what with whom, or what

subject matter, with what resources, when, how, and for what learning purpose(s)". Hence the focus is not so much on the outcome, but on the process. The process syllabus is primarily oriented towards the people who interpret it instead of towards those who usually specify it. A process syllabus is personal, intrinsic and is one of 'reality' in process. Teachers and learners jointly decide on the objectives and routes to follow, making it a 'dynamic' and 'negotiated' syllabus rather than a 'static' and 'imposed' one. The idea is to have strategic planning at the curriculum level, by setting some general, open-ended guidelines for purposes, content and experience, and evaluation. This would be accompanied by a bank of items and accounts of procedures that can be drawn upon, and also a wide variety of learning formats and experience. So, from all these possibilities, teachers and learners jointly construct a working program by negotiating the what, how, and why.

- 11. Task-based syllabus:** Like advocates of process syllabi, proponents of task-based syllabi such as Long (1985, 2000b; Long & Crookes, 1992) and Skehan (1998) reject synthetic syllabi. As with process syllabi, in task-based syllabi, meaning is primary, and the learner is in control of his or her own learning. Language tasks are seen as meaningful activities and not as vehicles to implement a grammatical or lexical syllabus. Tasks alone are the units of syllabus design. The main difference between process and task-based syllabi is the negotiation process. In the task-based approach, especially in the case of Long, tasks are determined by a needs analysis, they are selected and sequenced in a principled way in accordance with findings in psycholinguistics and SLA, and they are implemented according to task-based learning methodological principles. In a process syllabus, there is no actual 'needs' analysis but a 'wants' analysis, and negotiation permeates all aspects of curriculum design, even the principles on which it is based.

3.1.2.2 Materials

Objectives and lists of content or syllabus cannot be used directly in the classroom. These need to be translated into teaching materials before they can be meaningfully utilised by the teacher and the learner.

When literature and grammar formed the content of language courses, teaching materials were straightforward enough: grammar books and specimen of literary work comprised text books or the teaching material. When linguistic categories became the content, teaching materials had to be specially written.

In the following pages you will be shown some samples of materials developed along with the structural approach to language teaching. As you already know, the audiolingual method is an example of such an approach. Here the major part of the materials focused on structures of language. Pattern practice was the main activity adopted in the classroom. A sample of such drilling can be seen in the substitution table given below:

Where	can	I	buy	a	leather bag? Kashmiri shawl?
	might				
	will	he	find		
	does	she	get		
	do	I	sell		
	did	we			

Such tables were very commonly a part of all textbook materials used for the structural approach.

Another sample highlighting the Present Continuous Tense at the elementary level would look something like this:

What are the boys doing?

They are eating mangoes.

What are you doing?

I am playing football.

What is your mother doing?

She is cooking.

What is the teacher doing?

He is writing on the blackboard.

The following example shows a standard grammar box presentation of yes/no questions with *be*:

Verb	Subject	Rest of sentence	Answer
Are	you	single?	Yes, I am.
Are	you	married?	No, I'm not.
Is	Devi	from Punjab?	Yes, she is.
Is	Manas	your best friend?	No, he isn't.
Are	you and Julie	friends?	Yes, we are.
Are	you and Julie	in the same class?	No, we aren't.
Are	Jaya and Mona	teachers?	Yes, they are.
Are	Mr. and Mrs. Gupta	Bengalees?	No, they aren't.

This would then typically be followed by one or more language manipulation exercises such as a fill-in-the blanks exercise.

The **pedagogic principles** underlying these materials are :

-Language is primarily speech.

-A language is a set of habits. Therefore practice of language items is necessary.

However, the underlying assumption is that *mastery of language forms is central to language acquisition and conscious learning of forms is imperative.*

Since the advent of **Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)** and the belief that language is best learned when it is being used to communicate messages the *communicative task* has assumed prominence as a unit of organization in both syllabus and materials design. The task syllabus (Long, 1988) has a richer potential for promoting successful second language learning than do other syllabus types (e.g. structural, notional/functional, situational topical).

Let's now try and define a *task*. The rise of *Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)* has led to a variety of different interpretations of what exactly is a "*task*" and to different proposals for task-based syllabi (e.g. Breen, 1984; Prabhu, 1984). What all these proposals have in common, however, is that they recognize **tasks** as being the *central component in a language programme*, endorse the concept of organizing a syllabus around communicative tasks that learners need to engage in *outside* the classroom, and accept the view that curricula should be learner-centred, rather than language centered. So, materials for CLT are usually authentic and task based. By authentic materials it is meant the materials that were not originally developed for pedagogical purposes such as the use of magazines, newspapers, advertisements, news reports or songs. Such materials are often thought to contain more realistic and natural examples of language use than those found in text books and other specially developed teaching materials.

The use of 'realia' in language teaching has also been advocated by the proponents of communicative approach. In language teaching actual objects and items which are brought into a classroom as examples or as aids to be talked or written about and used in teaching are called realia. Realia may include, such things as photographs, articles of clothing, kitchen objects, etc. Realia is an important part of language teaching and is used —

- i) to present vocabulary
- ii) to present new structures
- iii) for dramas/role play, and
- iv) for language games.

The tasks, or what students are supposed to do with the given material, is what often makes all the difference. These tasks should relate to the students' own life as much as possible, as proposed by theories of CLT.

3.2 □ Methodology

Methodology in language teaching has been explained in a variety of ways. A more or less classic formulation suggests that methodology is that which links theory and practice. Theory statements would include theories of what language is and how language is learned or, more specifically, theories of second language acquisition (SLA). Such theories are linked to a whole design of language instruction. These design features might include stated objectives, syllabus specifications, types of activities, roles of teachers, learners, materials, and so forth.

Design features in turn are linked to actual teaching and learning practices. This whole complex of elements defines language teaching methodology.

The diagram below gives a comprehensive view of the role of theories in teaching and learning.

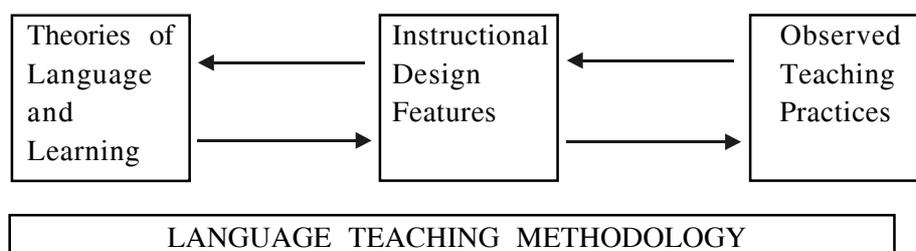


Fig. 2.3. Language Teaching Methodology.

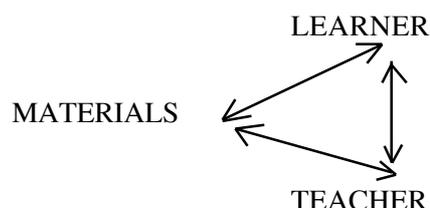
In order to understand this diagram it is necessary to refer to C.J.Brumfit (1984) who has outlined **three possible approaches** to language teaching.

1. Concentrate on the classroom and deal with techniques without attempting to justify why something is being done. This approach concentrates on '*doing*'.
2. Concentrate on the principles rather than on the techniques in the classroom. There is a danger of the techniques being far removed from what is actually needed. This concentrates on '*knowing*'.
3. Integrate the two approaches as suggested in the diagram above. The diagram suggests that the teacher has not only to master all the fundamental skills of teaching but also he should be able to see the strengths and weaknesses of all the techniques. This will help him to justify what he is doing at any moment of the lesson. This approach concentrates on the *relationship between 'knowing' and 'doing'*.

How does methodology operate

It must be noted that objectives, syllabi and teaching materials on their own do

not result in learning a language. Methodology is the means by which these are utilised for bringing about the learning outcome. The teacher interacts with the learner through the materials. The learners in their turn interact with the teacher and the materials. This can be shown in the following diagram



Showing interaction of teacher, learner and materials

How these interactions take place can be directed in a number of ways. It is here that the principles of language teaching contribute in a significant way.

Understanding Approach, Technique and Method

We had been discussing about methodology in the earlier section. It is important to know the distinctions of some related terms clearly before you read further.

Within methodology a distinction is often made between *method, approach and technique*. Let us look at these terms in closer detail.

Approach represents a language teaching philosophy that can be interpreted and applied in a variety of different ways in the classroom. It shows a general way in which language teaching should ideally be conducted based on a number of decisions taken prior to the commencement of teaching. These decisions could include the syllabus to be followed, the texts to be used, the topics to be covered and the classroom activities to be engaged in (Brumfit & Roberts, 1983). This is in addition to influence of factors like personality, age, culture influence, experience and proficiency of the learners. The teacher is also influenced by the manner of presentation, sequencing of the presentation and practice, the teaching pace to be adopted and the organisation of the classroom (ibid: 1983). The teacher sometimes makes these decisions autonomously or they are made by centralised authorities in the Government or/and the educational institution.

Let's take an example. Suppose spoken language is regarded as the most effective channel for communication. This will be reflected in the decisions which the institution and the teacher take regarding topic allocation, time table allotment and practical sessions. There could be another school of thought which regards reading as the effective tool for language learning. The conflicts that come out of these different hypotheses will need to be resolved in the classroom teaching and confirmed towards an accepted approach which the institution and the teacher agree upon. In a particular approach, learning through imitation may be the best way to learn, or memorisation of rules of grammar and role learning may be encouraged. The teacher would need

to decide on these details based on the general assumptions and one's personal beliefs on language teaching.

The decision to follow a certain approach to language teaching may have several practical outcomes. The teacher would then need to identify appropriate techniques suitable for the approach. *Techniques* may be defined as teaching procedures that are followed to suit a particular approach. For example, the use of dialogue for the presentation of language in a particular situation through role play is a technique. The techniques applicable to a particular approach may vary with those used for another approach. Techniques used for an oral approach to language teaching may allow for no use of mother tongue or explanation of rules, but may encourage repetition and drills. These are again decisions taken by the teacher. The *materials* used also need to go hand in hand with the techniques used. Materials can fulfil the teaching objective completely (as in distance mode materials) or would need involvement of the teacher to enable language teaching to take place.

Methods on the other hand, may be called as fixed teaching systems with prescribed techniques and practices. In other words, a method is a sum of teaching techniques utilised by the language teacher in a particular situation. This is based on the type of syllabus and the kind of teaching materials used. There is a saying that there are as many methods as there are teachers, since the techniques teachers use will depend to a large extent on the relationship between the teacher and the learners and the combined effect of the factors which we discussed earlier. There are however some clearly defined methods that are prevalent in language teaching.

The method adopted can have a direct influence on the teacher and learner roles. Please see the table 1 below. We will not get into a detailed description of the different methods (see Unit 2 and 3) nor the varied possibilities of the roles that could be played by the teacher and learners here. So take a closer look at the table again and draw your own conclusions on how the roles can differ according to the changes in the methods for teaching.

Table 1. Teaching Methods and Teacher and Learner Roles

Method	Teacher Roles	Learner Roles
Situational Language Teaching	Context Setter Error Corrector	Imitator Memorizer
Audio-lingualism	Language Modeler Drill Leader	Pattern Practicer Accuracy Enthusiast

Communicative Language Teaching	Needs Analyst Task Designer	Improviser Negotiator
Total Physical Response	Commander Action Monitor	Order Taker Performer
Community Language Learning	Counsellor Paraphraser	Collaborator Whole Person
The Natural Approach	Actor Props User	Guesser Immerser
Suggestopedia	Auto-hypnotist Authority Figure	Relaxer True-Believer

As suggested in the table, some schools of methodology see the teacher as ideal language model and commander of classroom activity (e.g. Audio-Lingual Method, Natural Approach, Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response) whereas others see the teacher as background facilitator and classroom colleague to learners (e.g. Communicative Language Teaching, Cooperative Language Learning).

There are other global issues to which spokespersons for the various methods and approaches respond in alternative ways. For example, should second language learning by adults be modeled on first language learning by children? One set of schools (e.g., Total Physical Response, Natural Approach) notes that first language acquisition is the only universally successful model of language learning we have, and thus that second language pedagogy must necessarily model itself on first language acquisition. An opposed view (e.g. Silent Way, Suggestopedia) observes that adults that have different brains, interests, timing constraints, and learning environments than do children, and that adult classroom learning therefore has to be fashioned in a way quite dissimilar to the way in which nature fashions how first languages are learned by children.

Another key distinction is on the role of perception versus production in the early stages of language learning. One school of thought proposes that learners should begin to communicate, to use a new language actively, on first contact (e.g. Audio-Lingual Method, Silent Way, Community Language Learning) while the other school of thought states that an initial and prolonged period of reception (listening, reading) should precede any attempts at production (e.g. Natural Approach).

One may therefore notice different views to the same issues of language teaching. It will therefore be useful for one to be familiar with the different theories related to

language teaching and understand what will be appropriate for a given teaching situation.

The period from the 1950s to the 1980s has often been referred to as "The Age of Methods," during which a number of quite detailed prescriptions, for language teaching were proposed: *Situational Language Teaching* evolved in the United Kingdom while a parallel method, *Audio-Lingualism*, emerged in the United States. In the middle methods period, a variety of methods were proclaimed as successors to the then prevailing Situational Language Teaching and Audio-Lingual methods. These alternatives were promoted under such titles as *Silent Way*, *Suggestopedia*, *Community Language Learning*, and *Total Physical Response*. In the 1980s, these methods in turn came to be overshadowed by more *interactive views* of language teaching, which collectively came to be known as *Communicative Language Teaching* (CLT). We will study all of them in detail in Paper V.

3.3 □ Evaluation

Evaluation forms an integral part of the language teaching process. However, you will study all the details regarding evaluation and testing in Paper 6. Here it is enough to point out that as a result of applied linguistic researches, significant changes in the area of evaluation also have taken place. From translation exercises and essay type questions, testing has moved to psychometric testing (objective type, valid, discrete — point tests and then to testing of communicative ability.

3.4 □ Teacher Variables in Language Teaching

We have seen how the concept of the role of the teacher has changed through time. In the present context, we may speak of three crucial roles for the teacher. Firstly, the teacher is the primary source of input that is understandable to the learner. It is the teacher who attempts to maintain a constant flow of comprehensible input. Secondly, the teacher creates a friendly classroom atmosphere which facilitates learning. Thirdly, the teacher chooses the most effective materials and employs a rich mix of classroom activities.

Teacher attitudes towards theory are likely to be determined by three things: their own educational experiences as learners, the type of training they received, and the general state of the profession. That teachers think and teach as they themselves have been taught is hardly new or surprising. As students, we saw only what our teachers did. We did not know *why* they did, what they did. Given such a background, it is not surprising that both students and teachers are unfamiliar with the role of theory, and generally have negative attitudes towards discussions of theory.

But if we ask the question why a teacher uses a particular technique or what are his beliefs about language teaching, the answers would need systematization of concepts. This is 'theory' in its broadest sense. Theory is helpful because it unifies and explains common experience and allows teachers to go beyond common experience.

Some teachers are unreceptive to discussions on theory because they do not see the necessity of the discussion. Other teachers are receptive to discussion of theory because they have been exposed to research literature which sometimes explicitly discusses theory. Nonetheless, we need theory in order to evolve as teachers, and as a profession. We must change our attitudes towards theory, and see it as something that we do as a matter of course (Prabhu, 1992). We must begin to bring our observations to bear on our theories and the theories suggested by others.

Theory is only a tool. But we need theory, or we will be forever wandering from goal to goal with all our questions unanswered.

3.5 □ Let's Sum Up

In the unit we have tried to understand how all the aspects of language pedagogy — objectives, content, methodology and evaluation form the basis of the language teaching process. We have also studied the different types of language syllabi along with their purposes. We have also considered the variable, in the language teaching process that might influence the process and procedures of language teaching.

3.6 □ Review Questions

1. What do you understand by the objectives of a language course?
2. What is a syllabus? What are the different types of language syllabus?
3. Are textbooks teaching materials?
4. Name three factors which determine the objectives of language teaching.
5. What are materials? What kind of materials are used for the grammar-translation method?
6. Distinguish between the terms 'approaches' and 'methods' in the context of language teaching.

3.7 □ Glossary

Cognitive approaches: Approaches to language teaching which involve the learners thinking about the language and working out rules from examples or instances.

Communicative effect: Whenever we use language we do so to achieve a purpose. The communicative effect of an utterance is a measure of the extent to which the purpose of the utterance is achieved e.g.

A. Why don't you use sand?

B. That's a good idea. I think I will.

A has achieved his purpose in getting a suggestion accepted.

Context : That which occurs before and/or after a word, phrase or even a longer utterance or a text. The context often helps in understanding the particular meaning of the word, phrase etc. For example the word 'loud' in 'loud music' is usually understood as meaning 'noisy'.

EAP (English for Academic Purposes): EAP courses are designed for students taking or about to take academic courses using English as the medium of instruction.

EOP (English for occupational purposes) : EOP courses are designed for people who need to learn English in order to help them carry out their job.

ESP (English for specific purposes): ESP courses are designed for people who are learning English so that they will be able to use it in particular situations such as on a holiday trip, in their job, etc.

Functional approach: An approach to language teaching which stresses the purposes for which expressions are used.

Function: An analysis of the function of an utterance would be concerned with its meanings and with the purposes it is being used to achieve. e.g.

" — Don't worry? I go there Tuesday afternoon."

In this example the simple present tense (go) is used with the function of definite future arrangement and the main function of the utterance is probably to reassure somebody that a visit they are suggesting has already been included in an itinerary.

3.8 □ Reference

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