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Course Code 6472



Department of Early Childhood Education and
Elementary Teacher Education
ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY ISLAMABAD

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(Content Major)

CODE No: 6472

UNITS: 1–9



**Department of Early Childhood Education and
Elementary Teacher Education
Allama Iqbal Open University
Islamabad**

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Language is a primary source of communication. It is the way through which we share our ideas and thoughts with others. There are thousands of languages in this world. Every country has its own national language besides a variety of local languages in different areas. Pakistan national language is Urdu. English is also taught in Pakistan due to its significance as a language of international communication, the media and internet. English enjoys a pivotal position and standard among the languages of the world. The teaching of English to the non-native speakers is a challenging task. However, there are certain skills that linguists have observed to be applicable in smooth teaching of a foreign language.

The Department of Early Childhood Education and Elementary Teacher Education stresses upon the need of teaching such essential skills to the prospective teachers of English language. In this regard, the book titled English-V contains such updated information and techniques regarding skills that can be utilized by the teachers to teach the students. This book reflects the efforts of many people. The Department of Early Childhood Education and Elementary Teacher Education is thankful to all the members of the course team for writing units and giving comments and feedback to improve the materials.

It is significant in stating that course coordinator, Dr Rahmat Ullah Bhatti, has very competently facilitated the whole process of course development. He engaged and updated the course team according to the demands and objectives of the course. All the communication is carried out effectively and timely. He personally assisted the team in many concerning areas. Mr. Zahid Bajwa has very professionally completed the task of composing the contents of this book in short time.

Special gratitude to our Vice Chancellor Prof. Dr. Zia Ul-Qayyum for his visionary insight, professional support, mentorship and inspirational working environment for all of us to achieve academic excellence at university.

Prof. Dr. Fazal Ur Rehman
Chairman

INTRODUCTION

Linguistics and Language Teaching is for the teachers who are teaching English as a foreign language. It is an introduction of linguistics and to take decision about teaching and learning of English language. The teachers have familiarity with methodology of language teaching but no knowledge of linguistics. It is necessary for prospective teachers to have knowledge of linguistics and applied linguistics.

The present book deals with the vacuum created by the academia, course designers, thinkers and educational policy makers in Pakistan, who had always been oblivious of the fact that linguistics is the most important subject throughout the world. Most English language teachers in our country probably do not consider linguistics as an important subject.

Linguistics is the scientific study of language and its structure, including the study of grammar, syntax, and phonetics. No book could cover the whole of the linguistics. Some aspects of linguistics have been discussed in this book that is related to classroom teaching. It is also to give the prospective teachers some idea of the field of linguistics.

Interestingly, this book can help teachers in their teaching skills and it could take them a long way in their professional and academic lives. The book in hand may be considered a step forward in easing the situation for the class teacher and students.

It has been general belief for over a long period of time that knowledge of linguistics is primary for language teaching. There are good numbers of academicians who agree that linguistics should be taught to aspiring teachers because it helps in gaining command over language as well as provides guidance to language teachers. On the other hand, others are of the opinion that linguistics is a theoretical area and what is needed in language teaching is practical use of language as the new humanistic approaches focus on the communicative aim of language teaching. Regardless of controversies, linguistics is at core of English language teaching departments. For example, in MA TEFL program of AIOU, core subjects belong to domain of linguistics. Hence, aspiring teachers of English language teachers learn about not only the theory of pedagogy in other words how to teach but also the content which means what you know about your field? This approach enables the aspiring teachers not only in gaining proficiency in the subject but also equips them with best way of transferring knowledge to students.

Thus we can say that the curriculum of ELT departments aims at delivering knowledge of linguistics to aspiring teachers of English language. Knowledge of linguistics and its use in classroom is expected to facilitate in teaching learning process.

OBJECTIVES

After completion of the course, you will be able to:

1. Understand qualities of a good language teacher.
2. Differentiate between bilingualism and multilingualism.
3. Know the role of linguistics in study of language.
4. Identify phonological interference of mother tongue.
5. Overcome phonetic interference.
6. Know the structural view of language.
7. Get themselves familiar with connotation and denotation.
8. Participate positively in foreign language teaching/learning.
9. Explain behaviorist views regarding language learning.

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Unit–1

THE ROLE OF LINGUISTICS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Introduction

The aim of this unit is to establish the significance of linguistics in English language teaching. This unit elaborates, that how knowledge of linguistics can prove beneficial to English language teaching in ELT classrooms? Linguistics plays a vital role in general study of language as it is known as science of language and it has special importance for study of English language in ELT setting. Linguistics with the help of other social science has contributed a lot towards development of understanding of language. Since, Linguistics has been defined as a scientific study of language, therefore linguistics and language are closely interconnected. So, discussion of one necessarily involves the other. Linguists (the one who studies language), on the other hand, have long been aware of the fact that people learn how to use languages. Hence, much of the knowledge of linguistics is concerned with teaching of language. This unit focuses specifically on language teaching and discusses the relation between linguistics and English language teaching.

Objectives

After studying these units, the students will be able to:

1. Discuss qualities of a good teacher.
2. Elaborate the role of linguistics in language teaching.
3. Understand concept of competence and performance
4. Analyze contributions of linguistics towards language teaching.

1.1 The Qualities of a Good Foreign Language Teacher

Today when the world has become a global village and internet and social media has connected even the remotest places of world, value of being able to communicate has increased even more. Knowing only your mother tongue is no longer enough and knowledge of international language such as English is need of every individual. As a result of this need, foreign language teaching has been a popular field all over the world. In order to satisfy this need, English is taught at all levels of education. One of the discussions in ELT departments is the content-the courses presented to the aspiring teachers. Linguistics courses forms the major part of subject and subject education. Before moving our discussion to more specific topics such as what language is and what linguistics is, let us have a look at certain qualities that are necessary for good foreign language teacher

If you aspire to be a foreign language teacher there are certain qualities that you need to have in order to be an effective teacher. These qualities are defined differently by different scholars. However, knowledge of subject-matter is the most primary and common feature in these definitions. Let us examine example of Peyton (1997), who lists the qualities of good foreign language teachers as:

- i. A high level of language proficiency in all of the modalities of the target language i.e. speaking, listening, reading, and writing.
- ii. The ability to use the language in real-life contexts, for both social and professional purposes.
- iii. The ability to comprehend contemporary media in the foreign language, both oral and written, and interact successfully with native speakers in the United States and abroad.
- iv. A strong background in the liberal arts and the content areas.
- v. Understanding of the social, political, historical, and economic realities of the regions where the target language (the language they teach) is spoken.
- vi. Pedagogical knowledge and skills, including knowledge about human growth and development, learning theory and second language acquisition theory, and a repertoire of strategies for developing proficiency and cultural understanding in all students.
- vii. Knowledge of the various technologies and how to integrate them into their instruction.

Cross (1995) has identified his own set of four qualities that he thinks a foreign language teacher must possess. These are:

- i. teachers should be well educated
- ii. should have subject competence
- iii. should have professional competence and
- iv. affects his students with his positive attitudes, opinions and manners.

Day and Conklin (1992) claim that the knowledge base of second language teacher education consists of four types of knowledge:

1. Content Knowledge:

It is knowledge of the subject matter (what ESL/EFL teachers teach); e.g., English language (as represented by courses in syntax, semantics, phonology and pragmatics) and literary and cultural aspects of the English language

2. Pedagogic Knowledge:

It is knowledge of generic teaching strategies, beliefs and practices, regardless of the focus of the subject matter (how we teach); e.g., classroom management, motivation, decision making

3. Pedagogic Content Knowledge:

The specialized knowledge of how to represent content knowledge in diverse ways that students can understand; the knowledge of how students come to understand the subject matter, what difficulties they are likely to encounter when learning it, what misconceptions interfere with learning, and how to overcome these problems (how we teach ESL in general; or how we teach ESL reading or writing in particular, for example); e.g., teaching ESL skills (reading, writing), teaching English grammar, TESOL materials evaluation and development, EFL/ESL testing, TESOL program and curriculum evaluation and development, and TESOL methods

4. Support Knowledge:

Support knowledge is the knowledge of the various disciplines that form our approach to the teaching and learning of English; e.g., psycholinguistics, linguistics, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, research methods.

Now that we have discussed qualities of a foreign language teacher, let us turn to a basic question what a language is.

1.2 Language

Everybody has a notion about what language is, just like we know ourselves. All of us have acquired and learned the use of language early in our lives. As human beings, we spend a lot of time and energy in order to understand language, and language is something that makes us human beings. Language can be defined as the bond that links people together and binds them to their culture. The study of language has always been critical to man's history and development. As human beings, we try to know how the sounds and letters are related to the meanings that they communicate. A language theorist Noam Chomsky believes that all human beings have been endowed with an innate capacity to acquire language. Such a capacity is biologically determined, that is, it belongs to what is usually termed "human nature" and it is passed from parents to children as part of the offspring's biological inheritance. The innate capacity endows speakers with the general shape of human language, but it is not detailed enough to dictate the precise tongue each child will

speak which accounts for why different languages are spoken in the world. Chomsky (1972) argues that when we study human language, we are approaching what some might call 'the human essence,' the distinctive qualities of mind that are, as far as we know, unique to man. All human beings have known and used a language since childhood. Therefore, man makes use of his language automatically without any conscious effort in his life. Speakers can produce particular sentence in native language that they have heard from their parents, thus they are able to generate and comprehend countless number of sentences naturally in native language.

The word "language" is often used to refer to several kinds of human activity, such as the language of music, language of circus and so on. However, primary meanings of the term are associated with spoken and written channels that are used to communicate in human society. It specifically refers to human language and thus we tend to distinguish between language and other forms of communication. As per general definition of language, it is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which members of a society interact with one another. However, Language varies; it varies over the centuries, it varies based upon geographical location, and it also varies according to the situation in which it is being used. We do not speak the same manner in all the situations and settings, for example, in the court of law, a bar, at church, on the phone, at work place, at a cricket match, to our beloved or to our friends, doctors, husbands, wives, bosses and children. A language cannot be accounted for by a uniform set of rules, which are always valid and always applied in the same way (Woolfolk, 2001).

The system of each language occasion varies according to the nature of the activity, whether the medium is speech or writing, the roles of the participants, their relationships, their functions and intentions and so on. This implies that every speaker is capable of using language in different styles, which they can modify keeping in view the situation they are in. To apply the same set of rules to all situations is suggestive of an inability to grasp just how much we vary in our linguistic behavior from one situation to another and how much this variation is responsible for the flexibility of language, which enables us to use it for computer programs, advertisements, poetry, and business deals and so on. Pinker (1994) argues that "language is a complex, specialized skill, which develops in the child spontaneous, without conscious effort or formal instruction, is developed without awareness of its underlying logic, is qualitatively the same in every individual, and is distinct from more general abilities to process information or behave intelligently" (p.18). One of the linguists, Scollon (2004) mentions that language is not something that comes in nicely packaged units and that it certainly is a multiple, complex, and complicated phenomenon. Brown (2007) identified a number of features that make a language, such as language is systematic; language is a set of arbitrary symbols; language is used for communication; language operators in a speech community or culture; language is acquired by all people in much the same way; language and language learning both have universal characteristics; language is essentially human, although possibly not limited to humans. Finally, Kramsch (2009) indicates language is the principal means whereby we conduct our social lives. When it is used in contexts of communication, it is bound up with culture in multiple and complex ways. Finegan and

Besnier (1989) define language as a finite system of elements and principles that make it possible for speakers to construct sentences to do particular communicative job. They system of language that allows a speaker to construct and comprehend infinite number of grammatical sentences is called grammatical competence. It also includes the knowledge of speech sounds of particular language and how they may be combined together to produce meaningful expressions. They believe that grammatical competence contributes similarity to comprehension in all human language. According to their ideas about language, the second part of language definition refers to the notion communicative competence. People frequently use of it in order to communicate with other people in the society. In addition, grammatical competence and communicative proficiency are essential for human communication; because, a great part of actual use of language is not sentences at all, but in units larger and smaller than sentences. Falk (1978) defines language as a mental phenomenon, a body of knowledge about sounds, meanings, and syntax which resides in the mind. Farhady and Delshad (2006) indicate that language based on the most scholars ideas are followed based on two principles:

- i. Language is a system of arbitrary symbols and
- ii. It is used for human communication.

Now that you have learned a great deal about what language actually is, let us turn our focus towards linguistics.

1.3 Linguistics

In order to communicate our needs, desires, emotions, feelings and so on, to other human beings in society, we use immense amount of words. Thus we can infer that inability to use the words for such communication will have direct impact on status of people and may have a direct impact on their personalities. Since, Language is essential to human life, with every passing day the significance of language as an integral part of human being is increasing. Generally, linguistics tries to answer the basic questions related to language: what is language? How does language work?; why do languages change in the history of human being? What do all languages over the world have not the same? .Hence, these questions have been frequently discussed by language experts throughout the world. What is important is that the languages have in common in learning. Khansir and Tabande (2014) indicate that language has been defined as a complex system of the human mind. They add that the one of aims of the linguist's is to describe what man knows about his language, and the second purpose of him is to consider how man acquires the knowledge of that language, third aim, what important for the linguist is that how many uses it in order to communicate in his society, the forth, is that how the linguist helps man use his mind to understand the language, (mental process) and the last one is that the linguist should know that man can complete his language knowledge implicitly , because man grows up with his language (p. 63-64).

A question arises what is linguistics, the word linguistics has been derived from Latin “lingua” (tongue) and “is tics” (knowledge or science). He adds that linguistics based on

etymology, is the scientific study of language. But it is not limited to the study of one particular language but it refers to study of human language in general. Therefore, linguistics studies language as a universal and recognizable part of human behavior. Linguistics is that science which attempts to describe and analyze human language and also studies the origin, organization, nature and development of language descriptively, historically, comparatively and explicitly. Thus, it attempts to classify languages over the world. It formulates the general rules related to language. There are several branches of linguistics that study human language from different perspectives. Diachronic (Historical) linguistics studies the development of language through history, and time. Synchronic linguistics on the other hand studies, isolated period of particular language. It studies how the people speak and use language in a given speech community at a given time? Another type of linguistics is comparative linguistics which compares two or more different languages in the world.

Chomsky (1965) defines linguistics as "it is principally concerned with the universality of human mind. He adds that linguistics can be defined as a branch of cognitive psychology. Richards et al (1992) indicates that linguistics is study of language as a system of human communication. Although studies of language phenomena have been carried out for centuries, it is only fairly recently that linguistics has been accepted as an independent discipline. Linguistics now covers a wide field with different approaches and different areas of investigation such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. Verghese (1989) says that linguistics is a science, a systematic body of knowledge and theory. Fries (1964) defines linguistics as a body of knowledge and understanding concerning the nature and functioning of human language, build up out of information about the structure, the operation, and the history of a wide range of very diverse human languages by means of those techniques and procedures that have proved most successful in establishing verifiable relationship among linguistic phenomena. Falk (1978) mentions that the aim of linguistics is to describe languages and to explain the unconscious knowledge all speakers have of their language. Chomsky, in his book, *Aspects of the theory of syntax*, in 1965 introduced two terms (competence and performance) that led to a fundamental change concerning the goals of linguistic analysis. The shift of emphasis from language structures to the human beings who use language caused the focus of analysis to fall on the nature of speakers' linguistic competence which steered the generation of utterances.

1.4 Linguistic Competence and Linguistic Performance

Chomsky (1965) introduced two terms Competence and Performance in his book *'Aspects of the theory of Syntax'*. He makes a fundamental distinction between "competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and performance (the actual use of language in concrete situations)". What we understand of Chomsky idea about linguistic competence and linguistic performance is that linguistic competence is the unconscious knowledge about sounds, meanings, and syntax possessed by the speakers of a language whereas linguistic performance is actual language behavior and the use of language in daily life. Falk (1978) indicates that since linguistic competence is

a mental reality, not a physical one, the isolation of competence from performance is a difficult task. Thus, Richards et al (1992) points out that competence refers to the ideal speaker-hearer, that is an idealized, but not a real person who would have a complete knowledge of the whole language. They differentiate between a person's knowledge of the language (competence) and how a person uses this knowledge in producing and understanding sentences (performance). Crystal (2003) mentions that linguistic competence used as a term in linguistic theory, refers to speaker' knowledge of their language, the system of rules which they have mastered so that they are able to produce and understand an indefinite number of sentences and it recognizes grammatical mistakes and ambiguities. It is an idealized conception of language, which is seen as in opposition to the notion of performance, the specific utterances of speech. Johnson and Johnson (1999) indicate competence in linguistic theory is the system of phonological, syntax and lexical rules acquired or internalized as a formal grammar by a native speaker during the language acquisition process in early childhood. They add that it underlies his /her ability to produce and understand the sentences of a given language, and identify ambiguous and deviant sentences, whereas they believe that performance in the linguistic theory is the production of utterances in specific situations, and it depends additionally on memory limitations, as in the case of the production and the comprehension of extremely long sentences, social conventions, as in the case of the use of formal and informal linguistic expressions, personality, interests, fatigue , sobriety and other divers non-linguistic factors.

1.5 English Language

The language we know as 'English' was introduced in to Britain about 1500 years ago by invaders from the North Sea coast of the Continent. These invaders are known as the Anglo-Saxons. They were at first illiterate, but within several centuries of settling in England, they had acquired the use of writing and then they started writing down all sorts of things in their English literary works. English language as an international language has been changing throughout its history. Khansir and Tajeri (2015) mention that "languages change throughout their existence - new words get introduced, old words dropout of use, meanings shift and pronunciation alter. English language is no exception." Therefore, English language like all languages over the world that are spoken and written, is not as the same as in the period of the Anglo-Saxons 1500 years ago. In the period of these years, English language has been changing: new words, pronunciations, grammatical forms have a history in English from the Anglo-Saxons generation to the new generation. English language makes use of two transmission systems: speech and writing. Speech is transmitted by sound-waves, originated in speaking and is received in hearing. Writing is transmitted by alphabets and letters and other visible marks, produced in writing and is received in reading.

Today English has become one of the widely spoken languages and it has largest population in the world if we combine native and non-native speakers. More than three hundred million people over the world speak English language as their mother tongue. Major English speaking countries include: the United States of America, Great Britain,

Canada, Australia, the South Africa, New Zealand and few other places. English language has been used by people over the world for communication in order to listen to broadcast, to read news magazine, newspaper, books, and travel to other part of the world etc. However, this language has been used as foreign language, second language by non-native speakers in order to resolve the social, commercial, educational and official issues. Crystal (1992) supports the claim as follows:

Some 350000000 use English language as a mother tongue, chiefly in the USA (220 million), the UK (55 million), Canada (17 million), Australia (15 million), New Zealand (3 million) and other places.

In country like ours and many others, English is not native language but it enjoys the status of being the official language. It has been effectively used as a linking language among the countries all over the world. It has been used the language of national and international communication among native and non- native speakers. The value and significance of English language increases many fold when we consider field of education. It plays an important role in education over the world. Education is closely related to the acquisition of knowledge because the degree of education is determined on the basis of the degree of knowledge acquired. So, education is gateway of knowledge and English language is vital to education. In fact, English language is used as the medium of instruction among the students in countries, where English is used as official or second language. The communication between the students and the teachers in educational setting can only be achieved properly if both parties are well proficient in second language. Thus, most of the teachers who teach the students in the different subjects have fewer problems to perform their lessons to them. English as world education language is tied to all subjects of our knowledge. According to this definition, Khansir (2013) mentions that English language is international language of business, science and medicine. Jesa (2008) argues that the aim of teaching English language is to make the learner an effective user of the language. He mentions of the general objectives of teaching English language as follows:

1. In listening, the general objective of teaching English is to enable the learner to comprehend English when spoken at normal conversational speed;
2. In speaking, the general objective of teaching English is to enable the learner to speak English with fluency, accuracy and appropriateness;
3. In reading, the general objective of teaching English is to enable the learner to read English with comprehension at a reasonable speed;
4. In writing, the general objective of teaching English is to enable the learner to write English neatly and correctly.

1.6 Linguistics and English Language

Before, entering directly into an investigation of linguistics and its place in English language and its teaching, it is important to know that both linguistics and language are closely related. Investigations and attempts have been made to find out answers to certain fundamental questions about language like what is language. How is a language learnt?

What is difference between the first language acquisition and the second language learning? Why the second language learning is difficult? And what are the similarities and dissimilarities between one languages to another? And thus, there are more questions such as animal language, child language, etc. However, there are many misconceptions about the above questions. These questions are part of what have been discussed by linguists, researchers and language teachers in the history of language teaching. A Linguist is a person who studies linguistics. He has the ability to study linguistic phenomena. We can conclude that linguistics as scientific study of language studies the original language and tries to answer the above posed questions. Therefore, language needs linguistics in doing several different scientific tasks and linguistics can help to address all the language issues in reaching to answer the fundamental questions of human language.

Let us begin this part of discussion by briefly clarifying the relationship between linguistics and English language teaching. Successful and effective teaching of English as second or foreign language is most significant issue in the field of education. However, the role of linguistics in language teaching has become pre-eminent in modern times. This is in part due to its high profile as a new and innovative discipline, and the general belief that it is the understanding of nature of language which is most relevant to language teaching. Teaching of English language in ELT classroom obviously depends on the English teachers, linguists, and syllabus designers. Linguistics always provides the best process of learning English language to the students. There have been the several hypotheses developed by linguists that enable the instructors to offer the kind of English instruction to motivate the students in learning their English language. From this, we can infer that an important intention of linguistics as a field is to facilitate the process of language teaching in general and English language in particular.

During the past 60 years, linguists have attempted to apply theoretical models of language to issues in second language teaching. However, the theories have focused on issues of generative linguistics, cognitive linguistics, and systematic linguistics. One of the most influential figures in linguistics is Chomsky. Chomsky has criticized the behaviorist theory (will be explained in later units) that it has failed to account for the logical problem of language acquisition. He is of the view that the language learning is same as learning to walk, i.e. it is a natural process. Thus he came up with his own theory that is known as generative grammar or mentalism. Chomsky believes that language is innate. In contrast, cognitive linguists believe that language is similar to other areas of cognition, and that it grows gradually through vast amounts of experience. All these models will be discussed in detail in coming units. Cognitive linguistics and usage-based models explain how we learn language using environmentally adaptive, general and cognitive abilities.

Linguistics, as one of the language subjects has been discussed by great language scholars. Many language researchers have been evaluating place of linguistics in language teaching. The knowledge of linguistics is necessary in the teaching of foreign languages in general and English language in particular. Linguistics has influenced

English language teaching. Linguistics increases English teachers' understanding of the nature of language learning. In general, the aim of linguistics is to improve the process of language learning. Wilkins (1972) argues that for the language teacher the study of linguistics is probably more rewarding in this respect than in any other. He adds that we have seen a number of ways in which linguistics may help the language teacher to make more informed decision.

1.7 How Does Linguistics Contribute to Language Teaching?

Many scholars agree that subject-matter knowledge is an important requirement for being a good teacher. Baugh (2005) states that “middle school and high school teachers are subject area specialists, and must have in-depth knowledge of their specific specialization”. Teachers should know about the language well to transfer their knowledge to the students effectively. One cannot teach what one does not know. It is clear that linguistics contributes language teaching but how and in which ways it has contributions?

Hudson (2010) states that the new elements that have been imported from linguistics all share one or more of the following characteristics with the teaching and research that can be found in any university linguistics department and these are:

- i. Aspiring teachers learn to study language rather than to change their language.
- ii. They acquire knowledge about language rather than just knowledge of it.
- iii. They learn to apply general ideas about language in investigation and observation.
- iv. They learn a metalanguage for talking about language structure and use.
- v. They learn to compare languages.
- vi. They study all kinds of spoken and written language, and not just the language of literature.

Knowledge of linguistics makes teachers self-confident in the process of teaching as it makes them expert in their subject-matter. The process of any foreign language teaching includes 'selection', 'grading' and 'presentation' as the major steps. Linguistics plays an important role in the whole process of teaching. Teachers can get the description of the language that is taught and evaluate the place of each component in the sum total of what is being taught. Secondly, in the area of grading, thanks to linguistics, that has reminded us that content is to be subdivided into units of teaching time in four different skills (understanding speech, understanding listening, reading and writing). According to Halliday (1999), language appears in three forms in schooling: in learning language (first language or second language development), in learning through language (content matter), and in learning about language (metalanguage). For teachers, a *metalanguage* for talking about how knowledge is constructed in language in their subject is a prerequisite for making the link between the “content” and the language through which it is construed. (Achugar, Schleppegrell, Oteiza, 2007).

Fillmore and Snow (2000) try to find the answer of the question “What teachers need to know about language?” in their study titled same as the question. They address the

challenges that teachers face such as the increasing number of English language learners, vernacular dialect speakers and students from different cultural backgrounds and they conclude that if teachers know more about language they meet these challenges more effectively. Teachers that are expert in their subject-matter are more successful in coping with linguistic and learning problems of students. For example; ‘the study of phonology could begin with an examination of interference problems that English language learners might have with the English sound system. It might include investigation of topics such as why speakers of Cantonese or Spanish have problems with consonant clusters at the ends of English words like *five-sixths*, which contains four consonants in a row /sɪksqs/.’ (Fillmore & Snow, 2000, p. 32)

Another challenge that teachers face is the students with speech/language disorders. In such cases, teachers co-work with therapists to adapt students to the classroom. Teachers with linguistic background help students handle with phonological, lexical, morphological and syntactic problems. And preparing specific learning activities, adjusting the difficulty of the activities and tasks as per the level of such students are teachers’ specific duties and teachers with linguistics background can do these tasks better.

The linguistic knowledge is essential, especially in the classrooms where the students come from different regions with different linguistic background. To specify students’ different linguistic backgrounds and satisfy their linguistic needs teachers should be informed about sociolinguistics. Linguistics can provide teachers with a valuable cross-language perspective. On the other hand, Lee (2005) argues that teachers need to know students’ communicative resources and background and examine the differences and similarities between cultural assumptions in a multilingual and multicultural class to get them acquire the language and teacher can succeed this with the help of pragmatic knowledge. Hung (2005) who deals with the application of corpus linguistics in classroom conclude that corpus linguistics provides teachers not only with important evidence regarding state of language but with exhaustless authentic materials for teachers in constructing language learning tasks. Furthermore, teachers that have linguistic and pedagogical knowledge can develop materials for different populations, train other teachers, design assessments, and find effective ways to teach language related topics in specific communities or use the language of a community effectively in instruction. Besides, students benefit from the teachers’ knowledge of language structure and ability to make certain aspects of language clear. Hence, a teacher should be very proficient in the relevant language. Lado notes that:

“The relevance of linguistic information and training for the language teacher should be self-evident from the fact that linguistics provides description of the sounds, words and sentences. It must teach and help him to understand the linguistic problems of his students” (Lado, 1964).

It is necessary to address applied linguistics when talking about the relation between linguistics and language teaching because as Kramsch (2000) states, applied linguistics

can be a *bridge* between recent theory in literary and cultural studies and foreign language teaching programs. It is sub-field of linguistics, yet it has more practical issues related to language, language learning and language acquisition than linguistics. Schmitt and Celce-Murcia (2002,) defines applied linguistics as: “Applied linguistics is using what we know about, (a) language, (b) how it is learned, and (c) how it is used in order to achieve some purpose or to solve some problem in the real world”.

Applied linguistics is the application of the linguistics, linguistic findings, and theory to language teaching. From this definition, it can be referred to that applied linguistics is identical to language teaching. According to Kırmızı (2011), there is a close connection between language teaching and applied linguistics. He proposes that developments and current discussions in linguistics, SLA research and psychology show that applied linguistics research contributes a lot to language teaching and learning. Translation and interpretation, relation between theory and practice, lexicology and glossography, language policy are the other fields that applied linguistics studies. These areas are related somewhat to language teaching and applied linguistics improves it. Hence, applied linguistics facilitates language learning by introducing the real world of English language to learners. Besides, it helps teachers making pedagogical decisions.

Although it is generally accepted idea that linguistics contributes to language teaching, the number of people who opine that linguistic knowledge is not indispensable for language education cannot be underestimated. The idea that practical knowledge is more necessary and that theory reduces importance of linguistics. Johnston and Goettsch (200: 438) states that “...it is the teaching that is most important, not the language: that language teaching is first and foremost an educational enterprise, not a linguistic one.” Similarly, Freeman and Johnson (1998) have called for a ‘reconceptualization’ of the knowledge base in language teacher education in such a way that teachers focus somewhat less on theory and more on the activity of teaching itself, also paying more attention to social contexts and pedagogical processes of teaching. According to Strevens (1992), it is possible to be an extraordinary teacher without knowing anything about linguistics and applied linguistics. He states, that the many changes that take place in methodology belong to the teachers that do not have applied linguistic knowledge. This notion blocks linguistics courses in universities finding place that they deserve.

1.8 Summary

The history of English language teaching is related to a number of academic disciplines such as linguistics, psychology, sociology and education. This unit tried to show the relationship between linguistics and English language teaching. Thus, this relationship came back to 1957, when Fries and Lado had developed a language pedagogy based on behaviourist psychology and linguistics at the English Language Institute (ELI) at the University of Michigan in USA. After 1957, linguistics developed as a discipline in different ways. Universities established department of linguistics and TESOL was founded in the USA in 1966. Linguistics and language teaching were brought closely together (Eapen, 1995).

It is also necessary to keep in mind, that the basic schools of psychology have influenced English language teaching. Behaviourism had influenced the structural approach to the teaching of English and then cognitive approach was coined by Chomsky had influenced the English language. Chomsky's Language Acquisition Device hypothesis, supported cognitive psychology, and methodologies which eventually questioned the notion that input had to result in learner output, or even that output was solely dependent on classroom input. Communicative competence was felt to be as important as grammatical competence, and sociolinguistic applied linguistic discussions on the contexts of language use, influenced the Communicative Approach paradigm in language teaching in general and English language teaching in particular. Contrastive analysis, error analysis, and discourse analysis also have influenced English language teaching.

In the history of English Language Teaching, English language teachers, syllabus designers have gained a large body of information from the study of linguistics. English teachers have increased their language knowledge from linguistics and they have acquired the methods, techniques, approaches, in order to improve English language teaching in foreign or second language settings. Willkins (1972) argues that the value of linguistics is that by increasing language teacher's awareness of language, it makes him more competent and therefore a better language teacher. However, the importance of linguistics as a necessary means of language studies has been felt in English language classrooms. Knowledge of linguistics actually can help the English language teacher understand and handle English language rules through teaching –learning strategies.

Linguistics, the study of language, is necessary for English language teaching. Although it is not seen as the most important part of language teaching by few scholars, its contributions to language learning cannot be ignored. Even those who are of the view that linguistics is not compulsory for language teachers do not completely reject importance of linguistics for language teaching. They also believe that it equips teacher with better knowledge of language and hence it enables better transfer of knowledge and better decision making in teaching learning process. Students, now a days, are curious about not only the subject they are learning but also the language overall. They do not want to memorize the language rules, they want to learn the reasons behind the rules and make sense of these rules. It is the linguistic knowledge that will help teachers fulfill the expectations of learners.

1.9 Exercises

1. Discuss qualities of a good language teacher that have been discussed in the unit.
2. What is language and what is role of linguistics in study of language?
3. Describe the concept of linguistic competence and performance.
4. Highlight the role that linguistics can play in language teaching.

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Unit–2

INTERFERENCE OF MOTHER TONGUE

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Introduction

Language interference (also known as L1 interference, linguistic interference, cross-linguistic interference or transfer) is the effect of language learners' first language on their production of the language they are learning. The effect can be on any aspect of language: grammar, vocabulary, accent, spelling and so on. It is most often discussed as a source of errors or negative transfer, although where the relevant feature of both languages is the same, it results in correct language production or positive transfer. The greater the differences between the two languages, the more negative the effects of interference are likely to be. Interference is the most commonly discussed in the context of English as second language teaching, but it will inevitably occur in any situation where someone has an imperfect command over a second language. Interference may be conscious or unconscious. Consciously, the students may guess because they have not learnt or have forgotten the correct usage. Unconsciously, the students may not consider that the features of the languages may differ, or they may know the correct rules but be insufficiently skilled to put them into practice and so fall back on the example of his first language.

Objectives

After studying this unit, the students' will be able to:

1. Define the concept interlanguage
2. Know phonological interference of mother tongue
3. Overcome phonetic interference
4. Discern interference of mother language at morphological level.

2.1 Interlanguage

The idea of interlanguage is founded upon the assumption that an L2 learner, at any particular moment in his learning sequence, is using a language system which is neither the L1s nor the L2. It is a third language, with its own grammar, its own lexicon and so on. The rules used by the learner are to be found neither in his own mother tongue, nor in the Target Language. The learners use their own L1 as a resource. This used to be looked upon as a mistake, but it is now recognised that all learners fall back on their mother tongues, particularly in the early stages of language acquisition, and that this is a necessary process. The learners use an L2 rule in situations in which a native speaker would not. This can occur at a number of phonetic levels. For example, learners of English, after having learnt to master the English 'r', may take to placing it at the end of words, whereas in RP it is not pronounced. At the grammatical level, a learner in the early stages may use nothing but the present tense. Later, there may be extensive, non-native use of 'be - ing' forms of the verb. At the lexical level - learners tend to use base terms and to stretch them - thus a 'goose' might be referred to as a 'chicken', or a teaspoon may be a 'little spoon'. At the level of discourse, lexical items and expressions may be used in inappropriate social contexts. Someone learning English as an L2, and who has been staying with a friendly family with teenagers may find themselves using the 'they' or 'you' form to strangers.

Consider this dialogue, derived from English:

- A: I'm looking for Ramez. Have you seen him?
B: Yes, I saw him half an hour ago.
A: Learner might produce
A: I am looking for Ramez. You have seen him.
B: Yes. I have seen him half an hour ago.

If speakers of different mother tongues do, in fact, make different mistakes, and if these mistakes do appear to be related to structures in the mother tongue, then it would seem reasonable to speak of interference errors. At the level of phonology, this certainly appears to be the case and there are typical accents, and it is comparatively easy to distinguish between the English pronunciations of a Urdu L1 speaker.

Not all effects of language transfer are negative; indeed, we may consider that without some language transfer, there would be no second language learning. It is found that, it is very difficult to master a language after the age of 11 or 12 years of age, unless one already has a mother tongue to fall back on. It may be that younger children are able to pick up an L2 without reference to their L1, but for adolescents and adults, the mother tongue is a major resource for language learning. Where languages are historically and linguistically related to each other, the positive effects of transfer may be obvious. We must conclude that the teachers who try to forbid their students from having recourse to their L1 may be doing them a disservice, for can, in fact be extremely helpful.

Avoidance: Where certain structures are very different from L1, students may simply avoid using them. It is difficult to know when a student is using avoidance as a strategy - he must show some evidence that he knows of the structure that he is avoiding, and it must also be so that a normal speaker of the target language would have used the structure in that situation.

In fact, there is considerable variation in treating errors from one teacher to another, and also the treatment of error by any one teacher may vary from one moment to the next. Studies of what teachers do have shown that very often they are inconsistent. Also, some errors are more likely to be treated than others – discourse, content and lexical errors receive more attention than phonological or grammatical errors - and here there is variation between native and non-native speaker teachers. Many errors are not treated at all. Further, the more a particular kind of error is made, the less likely the teacher is to treat it.

Another question is ‘about the repairing’. In natural settings, there is a preference for self-initiated and self-completed repair. However, in the classroom, it is the teacher who initiates repair, at least during the language centered phase, while he/she expects the student or one of his/her peers to produce the correct form.

Error treatment seems to have little immediate effect upon student production. Thus the teacher may correct an error made by student A to have student B make exactly the same error five minutes later, and hear student A do it again before the end of the lesson.

Some experts have deduced that this suggests that correction is a pointless exercise. However, we should be aware that there are no studies as yet of the long-term effects of error correction. When we observe about students' attitudes to error correction, mainly they say that they want to be corrected, both in the classroom, and in conversation with native speakers. However, when they are taken at their word, they feel uncomfortable with the resulting style of discourse. However, here are some recommendations to follow:

1. Teachers should respect student errors as they are a part of the learning process. Respecting does not mean taking no notice of them, but it does mean that they are not to be treated as necessarily being evidence of stupidity, idleness or evil intent on the part of the learner.
2. Only treat those errors that students are capable of correcting, according to the state of their inter-language at the time of the error. Written scripts should not be returned with simply everything underlined in red ink.
3. Self-repair is preferable to other-repair, as the student feels better about it. Being corrected by the teacher, or by other students, may be humiliating.
4. Teachers need to develop strategies for overcoming avoidance. The student needs to be put in a situation where he or she is forced to use the unassimilated structure and to think about the problems that this poses. However, this needs to be treated as a process of discovery rather than as a minefield.

Most important to remember that the students errors are a precious resource for the teacher. They inform him about the state of the pupils' inter-language. This is why it so important to avoid negative marking, where the students simply learn that if they make an error they will lose points.

2.1.1 Phonological Interference of Mother Tongue

Since English is a second language to most Pakistani, it's only natural that there is an influence of the mother tongue on the speaker's accent (usually termed MTI - Mother Tongue Influence). MTI manifests itself in certain sounds, technically termed phonemes, for instance the word "Listen" may be pronounced as "Lizzen" by people whose mother tongue is not English and depending on the region they belong. The degree of MTI varies from speaker to speaker depending on a variety of factors such as home environment, school, college, friends, T.V. programs watched etc.

Speech experts agree that the sounds you hear are the sounds you make. If you hear a word pronounced in a certain way in your formative years, it is very likely you will pronounce it the same way. This is why external factors, such as school and friends, play such a significant role in influencing a speakers' accent. It has also been noticed that the influence of schools is the most significant. Students from "English Medium" schools tend to speak better than students from other schools. This is probably because students spend most of their waking hours in their formative years in school.

When confronted with something new, whether it is a new food, a different kind of music, or just new information, it is a natural instinct to look for similarities with things that are familiar with. People try to draw some comparison with what they know already. Consciously or unconsciously, they bring what they know to what they do not, making it impossible to learn anything entirely from scratch.

This is certainly no less true when we set about learning a foreign language. In most cases, textbooks and teachers' explanations are in the students' mother tongue, a bilingual dictionary is consulted in the early stages and even in the classroom. It is not possible to learn a foreign language without relying to some extent on our mother tongue, and the impulse to look for similarities and to draw conclusions based on them is as strong here as in any other learning context. This impulse will be stronger if there are apparent similarities. And the apparent similarities that exist between many of the languages of the world are innumerable. They are also in the eye of the beholder. Since our individual perceptions of similarity are as individual as we are.

There are, of course, many other influences at play when we learn a foreign language. The influence that the mother tongue has on use a foreign language has become a very important area of study for people interested in second language acquisition, language teaching and language in general is usually referred to as 'Language Interference', 'Transfer', or 'Cross-linguistic influence'. It is suggested that the language produced by foreign learners is so unavoidably influenced, and even distorted, by the mother tongue of the learner that it should rather be termed an Interlanguage. Since, it will always be a

blend of the foreign language and the mother tongue. The better the learner is at overcoming language interference, the weaker that influence will be.

This reliance on similarities between the language being learnt and the mother tongue can be both a help and a hindrance. It can help the learner to get things right. This is a rich area of study, and here is concentrated on the role that interference plays in causing learner errors and on the types of errors that it causes.

2.1.1.2 Error identification

The phonological interference can be identified in the following test item given to the student. The following words were selected from the reading and conversation of students.

Table: Error identification in the aspects of phonological interference

No.	English words	Pronounced forms	Sound related errors
1	Poor, our, girl	puwer, ovar, ga:rl, hearts, herds	r
2	Heard, hello, handy, Hungry, he,his,had,him	e:d, alo, endi, eqgri	h
3	Future, farmer, dear, heard, find, Flourished, of, famous, Teacher, Birthright, birthday, think, thankyou Modem, after, with, that	pu:car, parmar, diyar, Pind, plarished, tixer^ap, pemas, barthrait, barthde, a:pteL. modam,tink, tank yu, det	f, θ, ð
4	Listen, decided, voice	lizen, dizaided, woiz	s
5	Walk,would,could,Should, listen,often, know,knack,knif	wa:lk, wuld,kuld, Juld, listan, lizen, a:ften kno, knak, knaif	w, l,t, k,
6	With,then,	wit,with, then	ð
7	Examination,should, Shaking,sheep,station	egjaminesan, sud, seking, seking, sip,stesan	ʃ
8	Station,glad,sku:l,grammer, kiriket,black,private,class, film	istejan, gilaed, isku:l, giramer, kiriket, bilaek, piraivate, kila:s, filam,	Added vowels i, a,
9	Zero,examination,busy civilization,magazine	ji:ro,egja:minesan,civilai jesan,magajin, biji.	z
10	Hall,all,of,on, Called,ball	a:l, a:l, af, a:n, ka:ld,ba:l	ɔ:
11	Sit, pit, bed, red, could, should	sitt, sittu, pitt, pittu, bedd, beddu, redd,reddu, kudd, kuddu, Judd, Juddu,	Doubling the consonant [sounds are ending with vowels]
12	Depended,decided,walked, flourished	dipend,disaid ,ua:k, flarij, sarpris,	Past tense forms: ed, 'id' and 't'
13	Surprised, flourished, walked, Caused,	ka:zid, sarprisid, ka:zed, walked,	Stressing of past tense forms
14	Give, lived, sat, and, cat, that, Another, everything, told	giwu, liud, sya:t, ya:nd, kyart, dya:t, yanader, yavrihir)g,told	Addition of vowels
15	Very, voice, lovely	weri, woice, lowwli	W

2.1.1.3 Error Explanation

A. The students had pronounced [r] in all positions whenever the [r] is found in the spelling of words. They had adopted this strategy because there is one-to-one correspondence between spelling and pronunciation. So the students have done a negative

transfer and used the strategy of overgeneralization. Rs are trilled, and are rolled when following hard ts and ds. eg; No. 1,2 and 3. Heavy rhoticity with trilled [r].

B. The students had pronounced [p] instead of [f], [th] instead of [θ], because this sound in English does not occur in the mother tongue. They have pronounced the sound similar to what exists in their mother tongue. The "th" sound in the word "thing" is a dental t followed by a moderately-prominent h, one that has the potential to sound like spitting with the teeth. Nonexistence of 'f' voiceless labio-dental fricative instead, a voiceless aspirated bilabial plosive [ph] or [p] type sound is employed.

C. The 'h' sound is not pronounced by many of the students, though there is 'h' sound present in their mother tongue. 30% of the students have done this.

D. Contrary to popular belief, 'z' and 'j' are distinct in English. Treasure does not become "tresor" or "treshor". The j-z shift is distinct largely who speak a distinct Urdu.

E. Avoidance of consonant cluster is the strategy found among the students who tend to include a vowel in the consonant clusters.

F. [l, t, k] sounds though silent were pronounced. All the letters are pronounced in mother tongue. [U] sound is employed in place of [w] sound.

G. [ɔ:] sound is pronounced [a:].

H. Germination of consonant sounds is the strategy followed by students. This is due to the interference mother tongue.

I. Past tense forms are not pronounced by many of the students 'ed' 'id' and 't'.

J. The past tense forms are stressed by some students.

2.2 Overcoming Phonetic Interference

Phonetics is about describing the sounds of speech and the patterns they make. Among its various practical applications, the one that will be uppermost in the minds of most readers is that of teaching and learning the pronunciation of a foreign language. This applies particularly to those concerned with teaching English pronunciation.

When we encounter a foreign language, our natural tendency is to hear it in terms of the sounds of our own language. We actually perceive it rather differently from the way native speakers do. Equally, when we speak a foreign language, we tend to attempt to do so using the familiar sounds and sound patterns of our mother tongue. We make it sound, objectively, rather differently from how it sounds when spoken by native speakers. This is the well documented phenomenon of phonological interference. Our L1 (mother tongue) interferes with our attempts to function in the L2 (target language).

We can easily demonstrate the effects of interference by considering the pronunciation of loan words. In each case the loan word has its pronunciation modified so that it accords with the sounds and sound patterns of the language from which it is borrowed.

The word bottle [bɒ:tl] is pronounced [ba:tali]. The word begins with a voiceless bilabial plosive [b] (bilabial). This consonant is followed by a vowel that is usually made with lips neutral, [back half open]. After this comes /t/ it is released laterally that is the central closure is retained and the sides of the tongue are lowered; the compressed air escapes

along the sides of the tongue, when it is immediately followed by /l/. In English football is pronounced [ˈfʊtbɔ:l]. The English word consists of two syllables. Since it is a compound (foot plus ball), in English it has the early stress characteristic of compounds. If a native speaker of English pronounces it as a one-word answer, the pitch of the voice typically falls from high to low on foot and then remains low on ball.

These examples demonstrate that incorporating a loan word from one language into another may involve not only the sounds (phonetic segments, phonemes) of which the word's pronunciation is composed, but also the positions in which those sounds are used (syllable structure, phonotactics), the phonetic processes they undergo (phonological rules) and their accompanying suprasegmental features (duration, stress/accent). Examples for loan words: bus [bASSu], office [a:fisu], bank [baeqku], bench [bencu], factory [faektari], college [kaldeju], pen [pennu], lorry [la:ry], lottery [latari], glass [gla:su], and master [mestru]. The other words that were found in students' speech and writing are: class [klasu], teacher [ti:caru], driver [drivaru], sir [seru], pass [pasu], period [piredu], station [stejAnu], fail [fe:lu], market [marketu] (marukatte),

2.2.1 Phoneme Difficulties

It is well understood that certain sound-types are intrinsically more difficult than others. Thus the English dental fricatives, [θ] and [ð], are a familiar stumbling-block for beginning learners from many language backgrounds. They are also a stumbling-block for native speakers, being among the last sounds that children acquire and tending to be replaced by [f, v] or [t, d] in various local accents. Teachers and learners of English know that they have to devote time and energy to the articulation of these sounds.

Ever since the heyday of structuralism linguistics in the middle of the twentieth century, teachers and textbook writers have known of the usefulness of minimal-pair drills in which the difficult sounds are compared and contrasted with other sounds that might be confused with them. We can practice, for example, with pairs such as [θAm] thumb - [tAm], [θIk] thick - sick- [sik], [θik] [pa:θ] path - [pa:t]. In the last example becomes [pə θ] - [pa: t]. It is not only that the dental fricatives are problematic in themselves, being articulatorily difficult; they also stand in phonemic contrast with the alveolar fricatives: /θ/ vs. /t/, /ð/ vs. /d/, /p/ vs. /f/, /s/ vs. /ʃ/. There are many pairs of words which are distinguished from one another only by this contrast, and there are therefore messages that have the potential for being misunderstood if the contrast is not mastered.

It can be very helpful for learners to be given an articulatory explanation of what is involved, particularly in cases where the relevant organs of speech can be easily seen. English [v] [f] is another difficult sound for learners of English, and it needs to be carefully distinguished from [b]. In the case of [v], the lower lip, as active articulator, is pressed against the upper teeth in such a way as to allow the air expelled from the lungs to continue to pass through: in phonetic terminology, it is labiodental and fricative. With [b], on the other hand, the lower lip articulates with the upper lip and forms a firm contact with it such that the air flow is completely blocked for a moment: it is bilabial and

plosive. Learners can easily see the difference if the teacher demonstrates it accurately and confidently, and they can usually manage to reproduce it themselves by imitation.

Sound production, however, is only one side of the coin. We also need to train learners in sound perception. This is where ear-training is vital. The learner must learn to hear the phonemic contrast /v/ vs. /b/, and /f/ Vs/p/. With a picture showing a vote and a boat learner can be drilled to respond correctly to Is this the boat? Is this the vote? Which is the boat? Show me the vote.

Articulator explanations — /r/ with central air-flow, side rims of tongue in contact with side teeth, tongue tip retracted, some lip-rounding; /l/ with lateral air-flow, side rims of tongue free of contact, tongue tip firmly on the alveolar ridge — must be supplemented by ear-training and minimal pair practice. Is it right? Is it light? A red pencil? A lead pencil? Shall I correct them or collect them?

We can combine the two problems by drilling loving [ˈlʌvɪŋ] and laughing [ˈlɑːfɪŋ] . Students must learn to identify the two words on hearing them, and they must learn to pronounce them in a way that leaves no doubt as to which is which.

Similar considerations apply to vowels and vowel contrasts. Learners must learn to both hear and reproduce the difference between central /a/ and front /ɜː/: fun and fan, butter and batter, mud and mad, cup and cap, which truck should I follow? and which track should I follow? Likewise the difference between mid /ɜː/ and open /ɑː/: stir and star, curve and carve, occur and a car, burn and barn, hurt and heart.

2.2.1.1 Allophonic Difficulties

In all languages phonemes are pronounced somewhat differently according to the phonetic context in which they are found that is, they comprise a number of distinct allophones. There are two kinds of interference problem this can give rise to for the learner: failure to acquire allophonic rules appropriate to the L2 but not the L) f and carry-over into the L2 of inappropriate allophonic rules of the L,.

Instances of the first kind include a failure to apply the appropriate distribution of aspiration for English /p, t, k/ (e.g. aspirated in pin, tanned, come but unaspirated in spin, stand, scum), a failure to distinguish clear and dark /l/, or a failure to apply pre-forties clipping.

Some students, as is to be expected, have difficulty not only in producing the [si-ɪ] distinction but also in hearing it. They can benefit from ear training as well as from articulation practice. Building on this, the learner can also cope with [d] before a high front vowel, rather than [dʒ], in words such as deep [di:p], different [ˈdɪfrənt], discuss [dɪˈskʌs], dear [dɪə], lady[ˈleɪdi].

2.2.1.2 Phonotactic Difficulties

1. Consonant clusters: An English initial consonant cluster comprising two or three consonants. Typical examples of two-consonant initial clusters that may be difficult for learners are those in play [ple^l], tree [tri:], clear [kl^h], brain [bre^hn], draw [drɔ:], glue [glu:], free [fri:], through [θru:], shrink [r^hɪŋk]. These tend to be resolved by inserting a vowel between the two consonants, thus [pilei] etc. To achieve an English-style pronunciation the learner must eliminate this inserted vowel, while also taking care to make the appropriate English distinction between [r] and [ɹ]. The aim should be a close transition from the first consonant to the second. It is to be remembered that native English speakers think of these words as consisting of just one syllable.

It may be helpful to practise hearing and making the difference between pairs such as prayed [preɪd] and parade [preɪd], plight [plaɪt] and polite [p^hlaɪt], Clyde [klaɪd] and collide [k^hlaɪd], drive [draɪv] and derive [d^hraɪv, d^hraɪv].

Another group of difficult initial clusters are those involving [s]. Examples are found in the words spin [sp^hn], steep [sti:p], school [sku:l], smile [smaɪl], snow [snəʊ] private [prɪvet]. There are also the three-consonant clusters exemplified in spray [spreɪ], split [splɪt], straight [streɪt], screen [skri:n]. These, too, tend to be resolved by the insertion of extra vowels. Again, learners must aim at close transition between the consonants. Ideally, spin, smile, spray etc. should be felt as one syllable rather than as three or more syllables. It may be helpful to practise hearing and making the difference in pairs such as sport [spɔ:t] vs. support [s^hpɔ:t], scum [skʌm] vs. succumb [s^hkʌm].

2.2.1.3 Phonotactic Difficulties

1. Final consonants: All the English consonant phonemes except /h/ can be found in word-final position. Thus we have words such as map [mæp], rub [rʌb], net [net], good [gʊd], back [bæk], egg [eg], rough [rʌf], love [lʌv], death [de θ], smooth [smu:ð], face [feɪs], cheese [tʃi:z], push [puʃ], beige [beɪʒ], rich [rɪʃ], edge [edʒ], come [kʌm], pen [pen], sing [sɪŋ], sell [sel].

Even when the learner has learnt to suppress the extra vowel as such, it may still remain in his mind, giving an inappropriate coloration to the consonant. It would usually be better, if possible, to imagine a suppressed [a] after the consonant rather than an [u]. English final consonant clusters combine the difficulties associated with single final consonants and those associated with clusters. There are various subtypes. Some involve a lateral. Examples include help [help], belt [belt], milk [mɪlk], health [hel θ], else [els].

Another type of final consonant cluster involves a nasal. Examples include lamp [læmp], month [mʌn θ], hunt [hʌnt], think [θɪŋk], fence [fens, fents], lunch [lʌntʃ, lʌnʃ]. But it is still important to try to think of each word as consisting of one syllable, not three syllables, and to suppress any added vowel after the final consonant.

In cases such as warmth [wɔ:mθ] and length [leŋ θ] it seems to me to be entirely acceptable for the learner to adopt the easier variants [wɔ:mpθ] and [leŋk θ] or [len θ],

which are used by many native speakers. In this way the difficulty of a nasal followed by a non-homorganic consonant can be avoided. However, inflected forms such as tamed [teɪmd], banged [bæŋd], comes [kʌmz], hangs [hæŋgz] cannot be avoided in this way: for them the learner must learn to produce an appropriate nasal, bilabial or velar, even though it is not homorganic with the following consonant.

Then there are final clusters involving [f] or [s], for example lift [lift], soft [soft], wasp [wɒsp], list [list], desk [desk]. Again, the main error to be avoided is that of inserting extra vowels, as in three-syllables [li /f/ tu] instead of single-syllables [lift]. It may make it easier to practise first words such as lifting ['lɪftɪŋ], softer [sɒftə].

There are other tricky final clusters ending in alveolar fricatives or plosives. Some of these are in morphologically simple words such as lapse [laeps], box [bɒks], next [nekst], desks, marks. But the majority arise in inflected forms such as plurals and past tenses: groups [gru:ps], cats [kæts], takes [teɪks], laughs [lɑ:fs] (AmE [læfs]), births [bɜ: θ s], wasps [wɒspz], tents [tents], desks [desks], risked [rɪskt], touched [tʌtʃt]; cabs [kæbs], heads [hedz], dogs [dogz], loves [lʌvz], breathes [bri:ðz], runs [rʌnz], pulled [pʊld], judged [dʒʌdʒd].

In this connection it will be useful to recall the pronunciation rules for regular plurals and past tenses. They depend on the phonetic classification of the last segment in the stem to which they are attached. The plural ending is pronounced

[s] if the stem ends in a voiceless sound (one of [p, t, k, f, θ]),

[z] if the stem ends in a voiced sound, but

[ɪz] if the stem ends in a sibilant (one of [s, z, ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ]).

The three types are illustrated in cats, dogs, and horses, which are respectively [kæts], [dogz], [hɑ:sɪz]. This reflects the fact that from an English point of view final clusters such as [ts, ɪs] and [gz, vɪz] are fine, but [ss, dʒz] would be impossible.

The regular past tense ending is pronounced

[t] if the stem ends in a voiceless sound (one of [p, k, f, θ, s, b, g, v, ʒ]),

[d] if the stem ends in a voiced sound, but

[ɪd] if the stem ends in [t] or [d].

The three types are illustrated in missed, turned, and waited, which are respectively [mɪst], [tʌɪnd], [ˈweɪtɪd]. So again we see a connection with the constraints on possible English final clusters: those such as [st, pt] and [nd, dʒd] are fine, but [tt, dd] would be impossible.

2.2.1.4 Concatenation, Coarticulation

Beginners can practise word-final consonants by putting them in phrases where the next word begins with a vowel sound. It may be helpful to think of the final consonant as actually belonging to the next word. Thus step up [step Ap] can be imagined as [ste pAp], leave out [li:v aut] as [li: vaut], end it all [end it oil] as [en di toɪl].

This technique can however only be a half-way stage, for two reasons.

First, because native speakers do not actually pronounce final consonants in exactly the same way as initial ones: a great ape [greit eip] is phonetically distinct from a grey tape [grei teip], and an aim [an 'eim] from a name [a 'neim] and secondly, more importantly, because in real life most word-final consonants are not followed by a vowel-sound at the beginning of the next word.

So word-final consonants also need to be practiced both in absolute-final position (before a pause or the end of the utterance) and also in phrases where the next word begins with a consonant.

Examples of phrases for practicing this are keep calm [*kiip 'ka:m], nice time ['nais 'taim], rich food ['ritf 'fuid], bad thing ['baed 'Gig]. In each case there should be no kind of vowel sound - not even a voiceless one - between the last consonant of the first word and the first one of the second word. It may help, too, to try and feel these phrases, mentally, as consisting of two syllables each, not of six syllables (ki-i-pu-ka-a-mu ['kiip 'ka:m], etc.).

Particular care needs to be taken when the two abutting consonants are ones which tend to be confused. They may, for example, be dental and alveolar fricatives, as in both sides ['bauG 'saidz], with salt [wib 'soilt]; or bilabial plosive and labiodentals fricative, as in love bite ['lav bait], they've beaten [5eiv 'biitn], (I like the) club very (much) ['klAb ,veri], and within the word obviously ['ubviasli].

Where the same plosive is repeated at the end of one word or syllable and at the beginning of the next one, we get germination. That is to say, there is no audible release of the first, and no audible approach to the second: the two phonemes are realized by a single articulatory gesture, a plosive with a long hold phase. Examples for the other plosives might be (put the) web back ['web baek], night-time ['nait taim], stood down ['stud 'daun], milk crate ['milk kreit], big gun ['big 'gAn]. However, unlike other obstruents, English affricates are not geminated, so that each chair ['i:tj 'tfea] and orange juice ['orinds d3u:s] should be pronounced with two complete affricates each.

It may also be necessary to emphasize that voiceless plosives are not geminated in English words such as copy['kop\], happy [hæpi], atom fætə'm], better ['betə], jacket ['dʒækɪt].

Repeated fricatives in English are articulated like single ones, except that they last longer. English examples for practice might be rough fight ['rAf 'fait], Faith thinks ['feiθ 'θiŋks], push shut ['puʃ 'ʃAt], love visiting ['lav 'viziŋ], with these [wib 'bi:z]. Repeated nasals and liquids, too, are like single ones but longer: the same method [5a 'seim 'meGad], ten names ['ten 'neimz], / feel lazy [da fi:l 'leizi]. In all such cases it is inappropriate for there to be any kind of vowel or break-and-make of articulation as we pass from one consonant to the next. It may be helpful to do some ear-training and production practice on pairs such as this count ['5is 'kaunt] vs. this account ['5is a'kaunt], (I'm not going to) rush now ['rʌf naʊ] vs. Russia now ['rʌʃnaʊ].

It is to be remembered that many word-final clusters readily undergo simplification in connected speech through processes of assimilation and elision. So although it is necessary for the learner to practise next [nekst] with all three of its final consonants present (for use when the word is said in isolation or in phrases such as next item), it is also helpful to be aware that in phrases such as next time, next contestant its last consonant, [t], can confidently be omitted: ['neks 'taim], ['neks kan'testant]. Although ten must be pronounced with an alveolar nasal in isolation or in a phrase such as ten answers, it can be allowed to assimilate, eg: in ten boys ['tern 'baiz] or ten girls ['teg 'g3ilz]. But this isn't a problem for Kannada medium students because they pronounce it well.

2.2.1.5 Compound Stress:

There are thousands of compound nouns in English. The vast majority of them bear early stress. Any good dictionary will supply copious examples. Here are just a few: alarm clock, baby-sitter, bank account, bookcase, bus stop, car park, contact lens, dining room, fairy tale, heart attack, letter-box, pen-friend, police station, post office, swimming pool, washing machine and youth hostel.

However, not all English compound nouns are early-stressed. The late-stressed, fall into one of the following categories: proper names, including all kinds of street names except those including the word street itself: so, Professor Salman, Model Town, Faiz Road, Jinnah Square, Kenley Avenue, Cunningham Road; compounds in which the first element names the material or ingredient: plastic fork, silk shirt, (but compounds of cake, juice and water are exceptions, being front-stressed); expressions in which the first element names a place or time: town hall, college premises, kitchen window, Easter Day, autumn leaves.

It is best for the student to consult a dictionary or a native speaker for the stress pattern of any compound noun falling into these categories. There is a degree of uncertainty and variability about the stressing of compounds. Of the different manifestations of phonetic interference at which we have looked, this is the one that has the least impact in practice.

2.3 Interference of Mother Tongue at Morphological Level

Students employ a wide variety of strategies when they speak or write English. These include, among others, avoiding constructions and words they are unsure of, overusing those they are confident about. They take rules of English they have learnt and applying them in areas where they do not correctly apply. But the strategy which we have concentrated on in this chapter is that of consciously or unconsciously resorting to features of the mother tongue when speaking or writing a foreign language. We have to look at what can happen when a learner who has grown up with one vast body of vocabulary encounters and tries to get to grips with a language which is another. We have seen that similarities between words in different languages can lead to false assumptions. When this happens the errors made are attributable to 'negative transfer' or 'interference'.

2.3.1 Capitalization

English starts all the days of the week and months of the year with a capital letter. English also starts all proper nouns with a capital letter. The Urdu learner's to be prepared with the use of capital letters. Because there is no concept of capital letters in Urdu. This is a simple example of how a learner's linguistic habits can be carried across from their mother tongue to the new language they are learning.

2.3.1.1 Error Identification

If the high school students were asked to write five sentences. The primary students were asked to write five sentences which were dictated to them. The following errors may be identified;

Table: 3.4 Error identification in the aspects of capitalization

No	English sentence	Samples	Capitalization errors due to over-application
1	My name is Inam.	My Name is inam.	Name, inam
2	He walked to the side.	He Walked to the side.	Walked
3	The rose is beautiful.	The Rose is beautiful.	Rose
4	We have leave on Sunday.	We have leave on sunday.	Sunday
5	The teacher's job is to teach children.	The Teachers job is to teach children.	Teachers
6	Our class teacher teaches us good mannerisms.	Our Class Teacher teaches us good manners.	Class Teacher
7	Ikram killed the cat.	Ikram killed the Cat.	Cat
8	Sometimes we do mistakes.	Sometimes we do Mistakes.	Mistakes
9	I hear with my ears.	I hear With my ears.	With
10	I go to school by bus.	i go to school by bus.	I
11	I heard a voice calling out his name.	I heard a Voice calling out his name.	Voice
12	My mother sends me to school.	my Mother sends me to school.	my Mother
13	Sometimes I play with my friends.	Sometimes i play with my Friends.	i Friends
14	Yesterday I was on leave.	yesterday i was on leave.	yesterday i
15	My sister comes to school by bus sometimes.	My Sister Comes To School By Bus Sometimes.	My Sister Comes To School By Bus Sometimes.

2.3.1.2 Error Explanation

66% of the high school and 85% of the primary students had applied this strategy while writing sentences. Student's linguistic habits were carried across from their mother tongue to the new language they were learning, or the newly-learnt rules were over-applied.

2.4 Spelling

The area of spelling involves similar risk factors. Cognate words present spelling traps which it is very easy for the learner to fall into. Cognates of English comfortable are spelt with an 'n' rather than anomy' in many languages and the spelling mistake is fairly predictable. On the other hand, the cognate is pronounced and sometimes spelt as /kamfdrtebdl/, so different spelling errors can be predicted.

Of course, non-native speakers are not the only people to have difficulties with spelling in English, and not all spelling errors can be attributed to language interference. It is interesting to note that a list of the most commonly misspelled words of English native speakers will have only a small overlap with a similar list of common non-native-speaker spelling errors. But language interference in learning English spelling is not restricted to problems of pronunciation being carried over into spelling. Unlike many languages, English does not have a high correspondence between sound and spelling. For learners whose mother tongue is not English this correspondence is greater, it is harder to grasp some of the complexities of English spelling. The vowel sounds of letters 'e' and 'i' are often confused (e.g. decided, divided), and this and these are often confused because the sound distinction is unclear to learners. Students often reduce a double consonant to a single one, hence attention, opportunity, different. Non native speakers are also, like most learners with closely related mother tongues, likely to assume spelling correspondence between cognates between their mother tongue and English, leading to errors like introduction and especial (for special). Other learners whose mother tongues do not feature clusters of consonants (two or more consonants grouped together, as in friend or government) will interpose an extra vowel (government), miss out one of the consonants (government) or rearrange the vowels and consonants available into a configuration which feels more natural to them (friend), based on their mother tongue. As with all areas of language interference, spelling is an area in which the less similar the mother tongue and English are to each other the less likely it is that errors are attributable to the influence of the mother tongue.

2.4.1 Error Identification

Interference of mother tongue in spelling; the students were asked to write 20 words and 5 sentences. The following errors were identified due to the interference of mother tongue: Table: 65

No	ENGLISH WORDS	SAMPLES
1	Future	Futer
2	Listen, often	Listan, Ofin,
3	Would,could,should,walk	Wud, cud, shud, wak
4	Know,knife	No, nif
5	Examination,station,tution	Examineson, steson, tusan
6	Comparison	Comparition
7	Tomorrow	Tomaro
8	Killed	Kiled
9	Decided	Dicided
10	Daddy,manners, letters, message	Dady,maners, leters, mesage
11	Condition	Kandition
12	Thankyou	Tank you
13	Farmer	Parmar
14	Girl	gal, ga:rl
15	Private,friend,	Pirivat, firend

2.4.1.1 Error Explanation

The vowel sounds of letters ['e' and 'i'] and ['a' and 'e'] are often confused [Eg; no.2 and 9]. Students often reduce a double consonant to a single one [Eg;no.7,8,10]. The 'tion' sounds are confused and written 'son' [Eg;no.5]. The 'son' sounds are replaced by 'tion' [Eg;no.6]. All the silent letters are pronounced [Eg;no.2 and 3].

2.4.1.2 Commonly Misspelled Words in English

- * "dairy" (diary) * "diary" (dairy)
- * "beleive" (believe) * "recieve" (receive)
- * "dias" (dais) * "habbit" (habit)
- * "continously" (continuously) "pronounciation" (pronunciation)
- * "etiquette" is some-what pronounced as "eddi-kaytes"!! and rarely spelled correctly
- * "loose" (lose)

2.5 Noun Accountability

Nouns in English divide into two basic types: countable nouns and uncountable, or mass nouns. Countable nouns are those which can be counted, such as coins, fingers and buildings. Uncountable nouns, which cannot be counted, such as money or laughter. These two types of noun have distinct grammatical behaviours. Countable nouns must have an article; you cannot say 'coin is made of silver'. Uncountable nouns can stand alone without an article; you can say 'laughter is contagious'. While both types can take the definite article 'the', only countable nouns can take the indefinite article 'a' (e.g. a coin, but not a money). Countable nouns have a plural form, whereas uncountable nouns do not; you can say coins but we cannot say laughter's.

Problems arise, when a learner starts to learn a new language and discovers that, rather than being a quality which is inherent in the things denoted by the nouns themselves, accountability is something which is written into a language and what is countable in one language can be uncountable in another. If the learner assumes that the same accountability applies to a word in English as in their mother tongue, interference errors will be made.

Advice is an uncountable noun in English. You cannot say an advice (you have to say 'a piece of advice' as though it is a mass entity that has to be carved up, like bread), and we cannot say advices. But in Urdu, and many other languages, the word for the concept of advice is countable. It is easy to see, then, why so many learners of English say 'he gave me a good advice' or 'his advices were useful', for example. In fact, when it comes to count ability, English is often the exception. Other words which are uncountable in English but often countable in other languages include: information, news, luggage, furniture, weather, equipment, work and money. The learner who only learns the noun and does not also learn the count ability and attendant grammatical behaviour of the noun will always make themselves understood, but their English will be incorrect. Cross-linguistic differences in count ability are the source of such foreign-sounding statements

as 'what a lovely weather', 'the money are in my pocket' and 'I have to do my homework's'.

Number

Variable nouns in English have both a plural and a singular form which differ from each other, most often by the addition or subtraction of an 's', though there are, of course, many irregular variable nouns. Invariable nouns in English come in different forms. Some have only a singular form, as is the case with uncountable nouns like furniture and the names of some academic subjects, games and diseases, e.g. mathematics, darts and measles, which look misleadingly like plurals. Others have only a plural form in English, whereas their counterparts in other languages may have singular forms. For example, many objects which are made up of two joined parts and are symmetrical, such as scissors, scales, secateurs and trousers, have only a plural form in English. To refer to these nouns in the singular, you have to use 'a pair of or 'some'. If the learner assumes that the number of these nouns is the same in English as in their mother tongue invalid noun forms, like trouser, and incorrect verb-noun and determiner-noun agreement errors, as in 'this trouser is too small' will result. This is all the more confusing since in languages where nouns of this type have been borrowed from English, they are usually given a singular form, regardless of their status in the language they were borrowed from. Similarly, some nouns in English, like sheep, aircraft and offspring have the same form in both the singular and the plural, with only context to help with their interpretation. The learner who has not sufficiently learnt these facts may rely on the assumption that these nouns behave in the same way as they do in their mother tongue.

2.5.1 Error identification

Here below are given examples of errors done by students.

Table: Errors in noun counterbid in and number

No	English Sentence	Samples
1	Sometimes I take leave from school. I took leave for two days.	Sometimes I take leaves from school. I took leaves for two days.
2	I did all my home work yesterday. I have much home work to do.	I did all my home works yesterday. I have many home works to do.
3	Our teacher teaches us knowledge.	Our teacher teach us a knowledge for us
4	British were ruling our country.	British was ruling our country
5	My mother told me to buy two loaves of bread yesterday.	My mother tell buy two breads yesterday.
6	Teachers teach well in our school.	In our school teacher are teaching well.
7	There are many flowers in the garden.	There is many flowers in garden.
8	I eat rice sometimes.	I eat rices sometimes.
9	We are five children.	We are five childrens.
10	My father works in K.E.B.	My father work in K.E.B.
11	My father bought 2 dozen pencils.	My father bought 2 dozens pencils.
12	I have two brothers and a sister.	I have two brother and one sisters.
13	I will send a gift to my friend.	I will send one gift for my friend.
14	The gardens in our country are beautiful.	The garden of our country are very beautiful.

2.5.1.1 Error Explanation

Most of the high school students and primary school students commit these errors in their conversation and writing. 1] The errors have occurred because the students assumed that the same countability applies to a word in English as in their mother tongue. [Eg.no.4,6, and 9.] 2] Cross-linguistic differences in countability are another source of errors. [Eg. no. 2]

It is clear that learning the English word for something is only the very first hurdle the learner must overcome in the learning process. Even once the different words or meanings have been grasped and errors avoided, errors resulting from interference in the areas of spelling, noun countability and number still there. Learners need to be encouraged to look beyond the definitions in dictionaries to the details of countability, number and grammatical behaviour given in the dictionary labels and example sentences and to learn these along with the meanings. Fortunately, the errors under discussion here are unlikely ever to be a barrier to understanding or a cause of misunderstanding, as False Friends [homonyms in English and they cause problems for learners, and the problem of homonyms between languages [False Friends.] often are, but they may affect a learner's confidence or reduce their chances of passing an exam.

2.6 Syntactic Interference

There is no denying fact that the English produced by foreign learners of English often sounds and/or looks undeniably 'foreign' in ways that the English of native speakers. If the mother tongue plays a defining role in the English produced by learners, it is clear that there will be as many varieties of Learner English as there are mother tongues of English learners. It would, therefore, be more appropriate to talk of French-Learner English, German Learner English, Japanese-Learner English, Urdu-learner English and so forth. This is where the stereotyping power of foreigners' English lies. A piece of writing by a foreign learner of English, can be identified as the mother tongue of the learner who wrote it will bear the indelible imprint of that mother tongue.

So what makes a learner's English sound foreign? What makes a German learner say 'How much costs the bus?' or a Urdu learner say 'I must to do my homework's'. Learners employ a wide number of strategies when they speak or write English. These include, among others, avoiding constructions and words they are unsure of, overusing those they are confident about and taking rules of English they have learnt and applying them in areas where they do not actually apply. In addition, the process of interference or transfer as outlined above pervades every area of Learner English. It influences spelling, grammar and vocabulary decisions. When stuck, or without even thinking, a learner will simply translate the whole phrases from their mother tongue or just take individual words and transform them, where the need is felt, to make them look or sound English to overcome a gap in their vocabulary. This is understandably more common the closer the mother tongue is to English in its orthography and morphology. This resorting to the familiar to make sense of the unfamiliar leads to the creation of that foreign-sounding variety of English known as Learner English.

The output from this process of interference is valuable material. It is important for researchers interested in the language learning process, providing information on what students get right as well as wrong and the facility to compare Learner English with native-speaker English. It is important to teachers for understanding the errors their students make and targeting their lessons to each student's individual needs, according to their mother tongue or language group. It has also become increasingly important to publishers producing English Language Teaching materials and reference books, including learner dictionaries, since it provides clear evidence of the specific areas of English which would most benefit from further analysis and clarification. All people who come into contact with non-native speakers of English, when traveling or any other time, the awareness of the kinds of mistakes that learners make, why they may have made those mistakes and of what they probably actually meant when they said that foreign-sounding thing will all help towards mutual understanding and may get somebody out of a very tight corner! The most common errors found among students are given below:

Omission of subject:

This is a very common mistake because, unlike mother tongue, a subject is always necessary in English. Students often said: Is important to do this, whereas they should say, It is important to do this. The word it may not refer to anything in particular, but it is absolutely necessary to make the sentence above grammatically correct.

Omission of articles

Students speakers often deleted articles, He is teacher,; I have not pencil; Does she have bag? This occurs because they don't use them in mother tongue.

Pronouns

Students usually have trouble distinguishing personal pronouns (he, him), Did not know who was him instead of I did not know who he was.

Adjectives

Students may know a lot of adjectives, but the main problem is where to place them in the sentence. In mother tongue adjectives are generally placed after the noun but in English it is exactly the opposite.

Double Negatives

Use of double negatives is another typical error; I didn't even have no problems. It is also because of interference of mother tongue.

Verbs

There is a tendency to use present tense only:... she come back ;... the first time I see her.

There is a tendency to use double past tense:

1] He didn't come yesterday.

2] I didn't bring book yesterday.

3] I didn't got pencil.

Word Order

Students usually used inappropriate word order: He in class has lunch, instead of He has his lunch in the class. or Mano is a black beautiful cat, instead of Mano is a beautiful black cat.

Other/Others

Students often get confused with these two words and they usually say, I have others books, the correct form being, I have other books. The mistake is also understandable as adjectives can take plural forms as in mother tongue, unlike English.

This/These

Although this is singular, whereas these is plural, students often tend to pronounce this and these the same. Therefore they frequently use only this in writing. They don't seem to realize that there is also a plural form. Although the difference may look very obvious, it is still a recurrent problem. Examples: I think all this problems are related to poverty, instead of, I think all these problems are related to poverty.

2.6.1 Source of Errors

There are admittedly a number of potential pitfalls to watch out for when analysing student-English and the 'errors' it contains. It is difficult, for example, to form a clear idea of what exactly is an error. What sounds 'wrong' or 'foreign' to one researcher may seem quite acceptable to another. Native speakers' intuitions as to what constitutes acceptable English differ greatly. Is it acceptable, for example, to say 'I had the opportunity of doing something', or is the correct construction 'I had the opportunity to do something'? Or are they both right? Few native speakers will be certain when they stop to think. It is also difficult to establish for certain what caused a learner to make a particular error - analysis is usually carried out in the absence of the learner in question and it is not always the case that the analyst is proficient in the learner's mother tongue. So it is not always easy to establish whether an error is attributable to interference or, for example, simple lack of concentration, classroom misunderstandings, pure accident, or even interference from another, third, language the learner has been in contact with. As long as the analyst is alert to the undeniable subjectivity involved in the error analysis process there is still much to be gained from taking a much closer look at Learner English in all its varieties.

Similarities, or perceived similarities, between languages can exist to varying degrees in the pronunciation and stress patterns of the languages, in grammatical structures of sentences, in word order, tense usage, verb inflections, in their pragmatics and style, and in the way they deal with questions and negatives to name just a few, as well as in the spelling and morphology of individual words. It is as important to be aware of these similarities when we are learning a language as it is to learn the differences and in some cases these similarities can be capitalized upon to good effect. Where they are not purely coincidental, they are the result of contact between languages, of languages and cultures rubbing up against one another at some point, or many points, in their long evolution.

A glance at the long and complex development of the English language as we know it today and at the many linguistic and cultural incursions made into it over the centuries, coupled with its apparent eagerness to welcome words from other languages into its lexicon, goes some way towards explaining the vast number of traps awaiting the unsuspecting learner of English. And when we consider the variety of different learners with different mother tongues, together with the variety of other forces at work in the language learning process, the task of defining, let alone analysing, Learner English becomes a huge challenge.

2.6.1.1 Grammar, Idiom and Usage in Pakistani English Grammar Tweaks

We are aware of the grammar of Urdu language. The anomalies in the grammar of Pakistani English are as follows:

The progressive tense in stative verbs: "I understand it." "He is knowing the answer."; an influence of traditional grammar.

Variations in noun number and determiners: "He performed many charities." "He loves to pull your legs."

Prepositions: "pay attention on, discuss about, convey him my greetings". Most prepositions of English are direct mental translations of the approximate postpositions of Urdu, but the Urdu- speakers fail to note that there isn't always a one-to-one correspondence.

Tag Questions: The use of "'isn't it?'" and "'no?'" as general question tags, as in "You're going, isn't it?" instead of "You're going, aren't you?", and "He's here, no?" ('na' often replaces 'no': another influence of Urdu, this time colloquial, replaces it with the 'ah' sound, as in "Ready, ah?", an influence of colloquial language.

Word order: "Who you have come for?" "They're late always." "My all friends are waiting."

"Yes" and "no" agreeing to the form of a question, not just its content — A: "You didn't come on the bus?" B: "Yes, I didn't."

Use of the indefinite article "'a'" before words starting with vowels (usually a slip of the tongue).

The past perfect tense: used in verbs where international English speakers would use the past simple. "I had gone" for "I went."

Use of the words "but" or "only" as intensifiers such as in: "'I was just joking but.'" or "'It was she only who cooked this rice'".

Use of *yaar*, *abey*, *arey* in an English conversation, mainly by people of native Urdu-speaking origin.

Idiomatic English for quantification in use of preposition "of", as in ""There is so much of happiness in being honest".

Use of the plural "ladies" for a single lady or a woman of respect, as in "There was a "ladies" at the phone."

Use of "open" and "close" instead of switch/tum on/off, as in "Open the air conditioner" instead of "Turn on the air conditioner."

Use of "hope" where there is no implication of desire but merely expectation: "We don't want rain today but I hope it will rain."

Use of "off it" and "on it" instead of "switch it off" and "switch it on."

Use of "current went" and "current came" for "The power went out" and "The power came back"

Use of "y'all" for "you all" or "all of you", as used in Southern American English.

Swapping around the meanings of "slow" and "soft" as in "I shall speak slower for you" (actually means I will speak softly) or "make the fan softer" (actually means make the fan go slower/ reduce its speed)

Creation of nonsensical, rhyming double-words to denote generality of idea or act, a 'totality' of the word's denotation, as in "No more ice-cream-fice-cream for you!", "Let's go have some chai-vai (tea, "tea and stuff")." or "There's a lot of this fighting-witing going on in the neighbourhood." (Prevalent mainly in Punjabi-speaking areas.)

Use of ""baazi""/""baaji"" or "-giri"" for the same purpose, as in "businessbaazi" or "cheating-giri."

Use of word ""wallah"" to denote occupation or 'doing of/involvement in doing' something, as in "The taxi-wallah overcharged me.", "The grocery-wallah sells fresh fruit." or "He's a real music-wallah: his CD collection is huge."

Use of the word "Yani" (Urdu) and "matlab" [Urdu) to mean, loosely, "meaning" ("What I mean is..."), as in ""Your explanation, "matlab", your feeble attempt at one, was sorely lacking in cohesiveness.""

Overuse of the words "Generally"/"Actually"/"Obviously"/"Basically" in the beginning of a sentence.e.g "Actually I am not feeling well."

Use of the word ""since"" instead of ""for"" in conjunction with periods of time, as in ""I have been working since four years"" instead of ""I have been working for four years"" or ""I have been working since four years ago"".

Use of the word ""gift"" as a verb : You are gifting me a new cell phone?

Use of other nouns as verbs, such as "Does it pain?" instead of "Does it hurt?"

Use of "I can able to cook" instead of "I can cook" - a widespread grammatical error in Pakistan.

Omission of the definite article: e.g. "Let's go to city" instead of "Let's go to the city"

Usage of "out of hundred" instead of percent: "He got hundred out of hundred" instead of "He got a hundred" or "He got a one hundred percent".

Pronunciation of h and z as "heh" and "ized" respectively

Use of the Latin word ""cum"", meaning "with", as in "Welcome to the gymnasium "cum" swimming pool building." This was common in the past in British English.

Phrases such as "that and all", or "this and all" are used roughly to convey the meaning "all of that (stuff)" or "regarding that", e.g: A: "Can I pay you back later? I don't have my wallet." B: "That and all I don't know. I need the money now."

Use of "the same" instead of "it", as in "I heard that you have written a document on xyz. Could you send me the same?"

Idioms and Popular Phrases

""Your "good" name please?"": "What is your name?", carryover from local expression.

"That is besides the point"

""Hello, What do you want?"": used by some when answering a phone call, not perceived as impolite by most.

""Tell me"": used when answering the phone, meaning "How can I help you?"

""What a "nonsense"/"silly" you are!"" or ""Don't be doing such nonsense anymore."" : occasional - idiomatic use of nonsense/silly as nouns (although this is not uncommon in British English).

""pindrop silence"" literally means that such a silence should be maintained that even a pindrop can be heard.

""back"" replacing ""ago"" when talking about elapsed time, as in ""I met him five years back"" rather than ""I met him five years ago"." (Though this too is not uncommon in British English)

""freak out"" is meant to have fun, as in ""let's go to the party and freak out".

""pass out"" is meant to graduate, as in ""I passed out of the university in 1995".

"funny" is meant to replace not only "odd"/"strange" but "rude"/"precocious"/"impolite" as well. "That man was acting really funny with me, so I gave him a piece of my mind"

Titles (of respect: formal)

Referring to elders, strangers or anyone meriting respect as ""jee""/""ji"" (suffix) as in ""Please call a taxi for baba-ji"".

Use of suffixes ""Saahib/Sahab"" (Mr.) and ""Begum"" (Mrs.)(Urdu) as in "Welcome to Inam-saahib." or "Begum Sahib would like some tea."

Use of "Mr" and "Mrs" as common nouns. For example, "Jami's Mr. stopped by yesterday" or "My Mrs. is not feeling well".

Use of the English words 'uncle' and 'aunty' when addressing people such as distant relatives, neighbours, acquaintances, even total strangers (like shopkeepers) who are significantly older than oneself. In fact, in Pakistani culture, children or teenagers addressing their friend's parents as "Mr. Ikram" or "Mrs. Ikram" (etc.) is considered offensive—a substitution of "Sir/ Ma'am" is also not suitable except for teachers. On the contrary, if a person is "really" one's uncle or aunt, he/she will usually not be addressed as "uncle"/"aunty", but with the name of the relation in the vernacular language, even while conversing in English. For example, if a woman is one's mother's sister, she would not be addressed as "aunty" but as "Mausi".

Use of "Respected Sir" while starting a formal letter instead of "Dear Sir".

interjections and casual references

Casual use of words "yaar" (friend, buddy, man), "bhai" (brother) and "bhaiyya" (elder brother) much as with the [[American English]] 'man', as in "Arey! C'mon, yaar! Don't be such a kill joy!", "Long time no see, bhai." or "Ay, bhaiyya! Over here!" Yaar is the equivalent of mate in British English. The word "boss" is also sometimes used in this way, among friends but also to male strangers, as in "How much to go to the train station, boss?", or "Good to see you, boss,"

Use of interjections "Arey!" and "acchha!" to express a wide range of emotions, usually positive though occasionally not, as in "Arey! What a good job you did!", "Accha, so that's your plan." or "Arey, what bad luck, yaar!"

Use of "T-K" in place of O.K. when answering a question, as in "Would you like to come to the movie?" -- "T-K, I'll meet you there later." ("theek hai", literally; actually "meaning" okay)

Use of "oof!" to show distress or frustration, as in "Oof! The baby's crying again!

Along with "oof!", there is also "oh foe!" which is in a more whining voice which kind of means "oh shit". Not many will say this, but it is used widely in movies or soap.

Use of "Waah" to express admiration, especially in musical settings, as in "Waah! Waah! You play the sitar so well!"

Use of "just" and "simply" in a seemingly arbitrary manner, e.g. Q:"Why did you do it?"

A:"Simply!" or "Just I was telling to him."

"Hotel" means "restaurant" (as well as specifically "big hotel") in Pakistan: "I ate in the hotel". "Lodge" is used to refer to small hotels. Sometimes Lodge refers to Place where you stay (in rooms) and Hotel refers to a place where you eat.

"stepney" or "stepaney" refers to a car's spare tyre.

"specs" means spectacles (as in colloquial UK English).

"cent percent" means "100 percent" as in "He got cent percent in maths."

"centum" is also frequently used to refer to 100.

Overuse of the word "Please" as an interjection, often overstressing the vowel. This could stem from the lack of a separate word for "please". This could cause speakers to "overcompensate" for this word.

Use of the verb "sit" in place of "live.", e.g. "Where are you sitting?" for "Where do you live?"

"High-End" : (Supposedly) of very high quality (used sarcastically for work and people)

"n" - Many (He takes n troubles to stay neat)

The verb "repair" is used as a noun for a broken object as in, "The TV became repair."

The same word is used for saying when the broken object is fixed: "The TV is repaired and now it is working properly."

The word "stay" used for "live" or reside at": "Where are you staying?" meaning not "Where are you temporarily lodging" but "Where is your residence?"

The word "damn" used as an intensifier, especially a negative one, far more frequently and with far more emphatic effect, than in international English

The word "healthy" to refer to fat people, in particular as in "His build is on the healthy side" to refer to a positively overweight person.

The expression "my dear", used as an adjective to refer a likeable person, as in "He is a my dear person."

The word "dear" used as a term address of pleasant (male) companionability equivalent to "mate" in Australian English and presumably used as "yaar" would be in Urdu.

The word "dress" is used to refer to clothes for men, women, and children alike: "She bought a new dress for her son."

The word "cloth" usually refers only to any clothes or fabrics that are not wearable, like "waste cloth": "Use that cloth for cleaning."

"Cloth" and "clothe" are used interchangeably. 'Clothe' is sometimes regarded as the singular form of 'clothes'.

"Shirting's and suiting's" used for the process of making such garments

"saloon" instead of salon, as in "I will visit the hair salon".

"Bath" and "bathe" are also used interchangeably. "Bath" is used as a verb sometimes, as in "He "bathed" in the morning."

Greetings like "Happy Birthday" are used even to say that "Today is my happy birthday"

Intensifying adjectives by doubling them. For example: "She has curly curly hair"; "You are showing your hairy hairy legs; "We went to different different places in the city in search of a good hotel; "You will get used to the humidity slowly-slowly"

Use of "color" to imply "colorful"; of tentimes doubled in usage as in the previous item. "Those are color-color flowers".

Words unique to or originating in Pakistani English

Words unique to (i.e. not generally well-known outside or popular in Pakistan) include those in the following list:

"batchmate" or "batch-mate" (Not classmate, but of a schoolmate of the same grade)

"cousin-brother" (male first cousin) & "cousin-sister" (female first cousin); used conversely is "one's own brother/sister" (of one's parent, as opposed to uncle or aunt; English brother/sister).

"crore" (ten million) and "lakh" (one hundred thousand)

"Dicky/dickey" the boot of a car

"foot overbridge" (bridge meant for pedestrians)

"godown" (warehouse)

"Himalayan blunder" (grave mistake)

* "nose-screw" (woman's nose ornament)

"opticals" (eyeglasses)

"prepone" (the opposite of 'postpone')

"scheduled caste" (a socially/economically marginalised Hindu caste, given special privileges by the government)

"scheduled tribe" (a socially/economically marginalised tribe, given special privileges by the government)

"upgradation" (commonly used in business communication instead of 'upgrade')

"would-be" (fiance/fiancee)

"arbit" (short for arbitrary. Can be used to mean "vague", "random" or "bad", e.g.: "What an arbit ending that movie had!" It is pronounced either as "arbitt" or "arbid", usually with equal stress on both syllables)

"hardcore" ("intense" - can either be positive or negative in connotation, e.g.: "Amir was a hardcore rock music fan." or "He's a hardcore computer geek.")

2.6.1.2 Error Identification

Interference of mother tongue at syntactic level: Here below are given errors occurred due to mother tongue influence at syntactic level. The students were asked to write five sentences. They were also required to answer five questions orally. The following errors were identified:

Table:

No	Correct form of Sentences.	Samples from students.
1	S-----V----- OBJ—adverb of time. I am watching T.V. sometimes.	S—V----adverb of time—obj I am watch sometimes T.V.
2	S—V----OBJ. I speak English in the school.	S—OBJ—V—OBJ. I am English speak in school.
3	S—V-----OBJ—adverb of place—adverb of time I found the new book in the library yesterday.	Adverb of place—adverb of time. I find the new book yesterday in the library.
4	I will send a gift to my friend.	I will send one gift for my friend.
5	We should look in front while walking.	We should see in front and walk.
6	S----- V----- OBJ—adverb of time All my friends come to play cricket sometimes.	S-----adverb of time—V— OBJ My all friends sometimes came cricket to play.

7	We should lend our pen or pencil to our classmates.	We must give some pen or pencil to our classmates.
8	I will come tomorrow.	S—OBJ—V. I will tomorrow come.
9	My brother and I are in the house.	I and my brother in the house is there. [2nd person should always be first]
10	S—V—OBJ [adverb of time] I was on leave yesterday.	Adverb of place—S—OBJ Yesterday I was in leave.

3.6.1.3 Error Explanation

The students had translated whole phrases from their mother tongue (as in the examples above) or just taken individual words and transformed them, where the need was felt, to make them look or sound English to overcome a gap in their vocabulary. Most of the high school and primary students follow this strategy in their speech and writing.

2.7 Summary

Mother Tongue Interference is just another problem faced by Pakistani students in learning English. Suggestions are made and a few tips are given. If the students are monolingual, then it is easier to make a contrastive analysis, we have to diagnose the problems and find solutions. The first step is to identify the error. One has to be cautious not to assume that all errors stem from mother tongue interference. We have to try to identify the most common ones and give these priorities. The errors can be classified by type: pronunciation, structural and lexical. For pronunciation, we have to look at individual sounds (phonemes): errors might be happening because a specific sound in English does not occur in the mother tongue. In this case the students need to be helped first to actually hear the sound, then they need to be shown how the sound is produced. Mirror can also be made use of to demonstrate ‘this’ and ‘then’. One can give lots of practice in using it. Stress patterns at word and sentence level could be another phonological challenge. The intonation patterns should be examined too. Students will find it easier to produce correct pronunciation of sounds, if they know the phonemic alphabet as, unfortunately, English spelling often hinders pronunciation— the classic example is the many different pronunciations possible for “-ough”: cough, although, through, bough, rough, etc. Structural errors occur most often because the student tries to impose the mother tongue patterns on to the target language: this might be word order, use of tenses, difficulty with articles and many more. Once again one needs first to identify the most common problems and then one can highlight the ways in which English differs. With vocabulary we might find a problem with “false friends” or it might be that the mother tongue uses certain expressions that the students translate literally but the expression does not exist in English. An example that comes to mind is a student who used the more colourful expression “blood-guilty” for the English “murderer”. Some words in English such make/do, say/tell cause confusion. There is always no quick fix rule here. It would be helpful if we could give each student a personal analysis so that each one can work on their specific difficulties.

2.8 Exercises

1. Explain the concept of interlanguage?
2. Discuss phonological interference of mother tongue in learning of English?
3. How can we overcome phonetic interference?
4. Discuss interference of mother tongue at morphological level?

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Unit–3

GRAMMAR

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Introduction

It is axiomatic that language is systematized. If it were not so, we should not be able to understand one another. It is the aim of the linguist to reveal the system of language, the langue, and of the language teacher to enable people to learn it. Sometimes the extent of the systematicity goes unnoticed, perhaps because it is difficult to discover just how the system operates, perhaps because we take much of the system for granted. But behind everything that is shared by the members of a speech community, there must be a system waiting to be discovered.

In traditional descriptions of the grammatical system, there is usually a twofold division in morphology and syntax. Within morphology, we find statements about the internal form of words such matter as inflection for case, number or gender, tense forms, agreement, certain kinds of derivation and so on. Within syntax, we find descriptions of the relations between words, including, for example, those shown by word-order. For the linguist the distinction between morphology and syntax is largely artificial. Both have the function of demonstrating relationships between items in a sentence. A relationship which is one language expressed syntactically may in another be expressed morphologically. For examples because of the relative inflexibility of word-order in English, a noun preceding a verb is more or less certain to be functioning as the subject of the verb. The differences between languages are not necessarily as great as they may appear to be, since it is often the means by which relations are expressed rather than the relations themselves which differ.

Objectives

After studying this unit, the students' will be able to:

1. Distinguish between item and structure
2. Know about syntax
3. Get an idea of the units employed in language

3.1 Item and Structure

It is obviously essential to understand the meaning of the individual words in a sentence, if one is to understand the sentence itself, this alone is not enough. Grammatical devices like case, tense, word-order, concord and subordination express the relations between parts of the sentence, and an understanding of them is essential to the understanding of the sentence themselves. If the forms within a sentence are related to each other by the grammatical system, it follows that a change in any of the items changes the whole system of relationships and therefore the overall meaning of the sentence. It is this emphasis on the inter-relatedness of everything in languages that has led modern linguistics to consider it structuralism.

Linguistics is structural in the sense that the linguist uses relational criteria in identifying or defining linguistic categories or units. He does not start by identifying a class of nouns and establishing its membership and then perhaps examine the way in which words of this class combine with others to form sentences. Instead, he finds that by studying linguistic contacts, it becomes possible to group them as they reveal. Any item has relations with other items along two axes. On the horizontal axis, it is related to the other items in the particular sequence that is under examination. This is the case whether we are concerned with a fixed word-order language or not. A full understanding of the structural potential of any items can only be gained by typical sentences of the language we can derive statements about the structures that sentences may have, the permutations that are possible within them and the word classes which can realize the particular structural functions. Relations along this axis are usually called syntagmatic, and it is to these that the term structure is most commonly applied.

However, relations also exist on a vertical axis. That is to say, any item in a sentence can usually be substituted by one or more other items that have similar grammatical characteristics in spite of some difference in grammatical and lexical meaning. For example, any one of a number of personal pronouns may occur as the subject of a sentence and the overall sentence structure remains the same. These pronouns are strictly limited in number and therefore form a closed system in which to say he is to say not I, not you, not she, not it, not we, and not they. To some extent the meaning of he is defined by the other terms in the system, and in we usually call it 3rd person singular, we might be inclined to say that it is much like its translation equivalent in most other languages. This would be a superficial conclusion, since non-Indo-European languages often have far more complex person systems, and in any case even within European languages, choice of third person is not always made on the same basis. In English, choice is made generally though not exclusively on the basis of human (and animate) versus non-human (also animate) and inanimate. The first permits the selection of him and her, the latter of it. The choice of he and she is one of male v. female. In languages having gender systems, however, the features human and animate are irrelevant and the choice is made on a basis of masculine v. feminine v. neuter or, where there are only two genders, masculine v. feminine. Since gender and sex do not necessarily coincide we have the possibility, very bizarre to an English speaker, of referring to a female person by means

of a neuter pronoun. The structural relations exemplified here by choice of pronouns are often called paradigmatic and where the choice is limited to a finite number of alternatives as here, we are said to be dealing with closed systems.

As one would expect from a structural view, there is no rigid distinction between syntagmatic and paradigmatic considerations. Words in the paradigmatic class of nouns have to be sub-classified as countable or uncountable according to whether they may be preceded by words like many or words like much. Verb-words are sub-classified according to the type of structure which may follow them. Transitive verbs may be followed by a noun, intransitive verbs may not. Intransitive verbs may be followed by two nouns (Objects). Some verbs may be followed by either a noun or an adjective. As we shall see later in this chapter, the interaction of verb words and complement structure is also most complex.

For many years linguistics was dominated by the needs of field linguists who, faced with the task of analyzing unknown languages, attempted to set up a fairly rigorous set of procedures for working out or discovering the structure of the language they were investigating. In such a situation the only evidence that the linguist himself could couch for would be what he could record in his transcription. He could not trust an informant to provide him with any semantic insights and in any case, he had considerable mistrust of somatic evidence whatever its sources. The method he adopted was therefore formal. The analysis of sentence structure would be largely a matter of recording the different numbers of elements that sentences could possibly contain and the sequence in which those elements occurred. Elements-morphemes, words, phrases-would be classed together, if they could occupy the same positions in the structure of the sentence. Such an approach to linguistic description is sometimes called a 'slot-and-filler' approach. The assignment of words to a particular class (part of speech) would be decided by whether it would fit into the appropriate slot in one or more test sentences. Although this approach developed to meet the needs of the linguist in the field, it came to be applied to the study of the better known languages too.

More recently linguists have been less occupied with how a linguist arrives at his analysis than with whether his analysis will successfully predict all the grammatical sentences of the language. The aim of this approach is to work out a complete set of rules for the language, which, if followed in the given sequence, would produce all of the sentences that the native speaker would recognize as grammatical and none of those that he would believe were ungrammatical. If, in order to do this, the linguist finds that it is necessary to categorize some constructions as Noun Phrases, some words as Nouns, some Nouns as Common Nouns and some Common Nouns as Countable rather than Uncountable, he will do so. He does not attempt to relate his categorizations to particular places in explicit as they are for the field linguist, his categories are still in effect defined in terms of their structural function. A description of this type is a generative description.

One of the interesting consequences of the attempt to produce a generative description is the realization of the creative nature of our use of language-creative, not in the sense of

literary creativity, but in the sense that most of the sentences we produce or hear are sentence that we have not produced or heard before. It is doubtful, for example, whether there is more than a handful of sentences in the whole of this book that the reader will have met before. In spite of, every sentence will be understood. This is because, although the sentences themselves are new, they are made up of elements that are familiar-or, would prefer to put it, they are the product of the application of familiar rules. These rules of English share with the reader, who is also a speaker of English, are limited in number, but can produce infinity of sentences. There is no grammatical limit to the possibility of combining, recombining and repeating the structural elements of a language. It is these rules, which underlie our production and comprehension of sentences that the generative linguist tries to describe in a fully explicit way.

The structural view has certainly not been without influence on language teaching. For some years now the word 'structure' has been in some degree a vogue word. In many language text-books, it is not uncommon to find sections which are headed 'structures' where formerly they were headed 'grammar'. In fact, there is rarely a concomitant change in the contents to go with the radical implications of the label. In books on methodology, we are often exhorted to begin by teaching 'the simplest structures of the language'.

Yet if we accept the generative view, the use of the word 'structures' in these different ways implies a somewhat erroneous view of language. It suggests that there exist a limited number of structures in each language some admittedly more simple, more basic, more important than others and that the learning of a language is the learning of these structures one by one. By learning a limited number of sentences, one would cover the possible range of sentence structures in the languages. However, if language is 'rule-governed creativity', as Chomsky has called it, it is not that sentences in a language are structures; it is that they have structure. This structure is on each occasion created by applying the rules of the language. The same set of rules is capable of producing sentences as complex as those found in the writing of Proust and as simple as those found in Hemingway. Obviously language teaching cannot prepare the pupil for all the actual sentence structures he may meet. What we must do instead is familiarize the pupil with the elements of structures of a language and the rules governing the relationships between them. Then he is able to construct and recognize sentences as occasion demands.

This can perhaps best be illustrated through an analogy. The raw materials that are used in building a house can be put together in an infinitely varied way, though naturally there are rules of sound construction that have to be followed. No two houses need be exactly the same. In practice we might not see much value in an infinitely long house, but it is not the characteristics of the materials used would impose any limit on the length. The builder who knows the qualities of his materials is capable of constructing whatever type of house he or his client wants. He knows the rules that underlie house-construction. Another builder may have learned how to build ten or a hundred houses of different design, but he is not capable of building anything more than this limited number of structures. The builder who knows the rules knows far more about building than the one

who has learned to construct ten basic of house. A learner, who knows the rules of sentence construction, can say far more than the one who has learned a hundred basic structures.

3.1.1 The Structural Content of Language Teaching

It is not unusual to hear foreign learners and even teachers of English say that English grammar is relatively simple. When they say this, they are equating the learning of grammar with the learning of morphological variation. Compared with many other languages, English may be fairly straightforward morphologically. There is no case system, no gender system and most verbs have no more than five forms. In fact, looked at overall, the grammar of English is probably no less complex than the grammar of any other language. However, learners do not often get an overall picture since the linguistic content of language teaching is usually cited as a list of items made up of morphological systems or parts of systems. Sections of a textbook may be devoted to the definite article, the indefinite article, prepositions, the past tense, the subjunctive and so on. There are types of language teaching in which learning is almost entirely the learning of morphological forms. A paradigm, for example, is often a set of morphological forms isolated from the structural relations which they are supposed to operate. How far a pupil learns the structural functions of items will depend on what kind of practice follows the learning of a paradigm. As soon as a complete sentence is introduced some structural information is being acquired. But the emphasis is very often on how well the pupil has mastered the internal form of an item. An error of morphological construction is commonly more severely punished than a fault of syntax or somatic choice. Viewing the content of language teaching in terms of morphology might be called an item approach to language teaching.

Its danger lies in the fact that once the form itself of the items has been mastered, pupil and teacher alike will be satisfied that learning is complete. At best one of the structural contexts that the items may have will also have been learned. From that point, on the items may never again be part of the explicit content of teaching, although there is much of the formal patterning of the item for which the learner will not be prepared. In due course new sentences of this type will occur. Their presence in the text will go unnoticed and confusions will arise as learners attempt to extend their existing knowledge to a new linguistic situation. If the confusion are serious enough they may even wash back and undermine the original learning that had been correct, if incomplete.

The inadequate recognition of the structural nature of language leads in teaching to a lack of specificity of the structural and semantic content of learning. There is an unsuspecting selectivity in such teaching, which causes error as the learner proceeds further in his language learning. There are even some aspects of language structure that are not easily classified under the heading of any one morphological form. We shall see this later in this chapter when I discuss some recent work in syntax.

It should be a part of the evaluation of teaching materials to see how adequately the linguistic content of learning is specified. In the case of a text-book this requires a very

detailed analysis of the presentation and practice of new items and a careful comparison between this and a good linguistic descript of the language being taught. In the case of a syllabus, the analysis is rather more easily carried out, since a syllabus is usually no more than a list of what the consequences of an insufficiently specified syllabus and then examine how successful a textbook is introducing and item of language in a controlled fashion; but before doing this I want to make a rapid outline of the English verbal system so that we can check the syllabus and the textbook against it.

3.1.1.1 The Verb in English

The basic paradigm of the tense system in English has eight forms. There are two tenses as such, touches, touched, respectively Present (Simple) Tense and past (Simple) Tense, and a number of constructions which we might call 'tense-phrases', since they perform a similar function although they are not tenses in the strict sense of being inflected. These six tense phrases are constructed by applying two modifications to the Present and Past Tenses. The addition of being, sometimes called an Aspect marker, gives is touching, the Present Progressive, and was touching, the Past Progressive. The addition of having (-ed etc.) gives has touched, the Present Perfect, and had touched, the Past Perfect, the two together will produce has been touching, the Present Perfect Progressive, and had been touching, the Past Perfect Progressive.

The tense system, therefore, can be represented by the following forms:

Touches	has touched
Touched	had touched
Is touching	has been touching
Was touching	had been touching

Form this, it is clear that there is no future tense in English. There is a great variety of ways of referring to future time in English, but no one form whose essential function this is. The forms shall/will touch, commonly described as the future tense, are not part of the basic paradigm at all. They form part of a system of modal auxiliaries including, among others, can, may and must, all of which by implication may refer to future time, but all of which express modality too. The meaning of will is rarely purely temporal, and several of the forms in the paradigm above are used at least as frequently to refer to future time.

A complete account of the sue of the tense system would require each form to be discussed in detail, but it is enough here to say that neither of the modifications is concerned with time as such. Aspect is used to indicate relative duration, and the fact that events and states referred to are not permanent. The 'perfect' modifications call 'phase' by Joos, has nothing to do with perfectly, as its usual label suggest, but is used to emphasize the significance of an event at a point of time regardless of when it took place (linked to the moment of speech by use of the present perfect, to a point in past time by use of the past perfect).

To help in our analysis of syllabuses and textbooks, we can look at some of the salient features of the contrast between present simple and present progressive. In most teaching

grammars the progressive is described as referring to events in progress at the moment of speech and the simple form to habits or general truths. Neither is entirely accurate, though they may serve their pedagogic function. As well as;

(1) Don't interrupt me! I'm working.

And

(2) I come to work by car.

We have

(3) I am working on a new project. (spoken while on holiday)

And

(4) He lives a couple of miles away. (hardly definable as a habit)

Regardless, however, of the over-simplification in the usual formulation, there are difficulties for the learner of English, since the progressive form is not incompatible with an habitual interpretation:

(5) She's always making that mistake. and the simple form is used for activities which apparently are simultaneous with the utterance:

(6) I (can hear some music.

(7) I think it's going to rain.

(8) She feels ill.

(9) Mary resembles her brother.

The issue is complicated by the fact that although with sentences (6), (7) and (9) the progressive form would be wrong, the verbs are not simply exceptions to the general rule since in other instances progressive forms are possible:

(10) I am hearing you loud and clear

(11) He's thinking about it all the time.\

(12) Mary is resembling her brother more and more.\

A progressive form of (8) is possible with little or no change of meaning.

It is also relevant that activities being demonstrated is described through the present simple and so too are events in a commentary:

(13) I connect the machine to the power supply and switch on.

(14) Laver serves to Rosewall.

There are other situations in which the present tense is typically used, but they are not important enough for the learner to delay us here. However, in view of the discussion of a future tense above, we can point out that both the present simple and the present progressive are frequently used with future reference, usually, although not always, with a future time adverbial in the sentence:

(15) I'm picking Jane up after work.

(16) They arrive at six and are taken straight to their hotel.

There need be no great learning problem with these used, at least as far as potential confusion with the present time uses is concerned. As for the present used, there is no way round the difficulties that face the learner who has learned sentences like (1) and (2)

and is then faced with the apparent contractions implicit in (3)-(14). Any attempt to teach English must, therefore provide for these difficulties, and syllabuses and textbooks can be evaluated according to their success in acknowledging and preparing the teacher for the problems that the pupil will have.

3.1.1.2 Syllabuses

No two syllabuses have quite the same purpose, but whether they are mandatory or advisory, they aim to make explicit the linguistic content of teaching in a particular situations.

If they do not have sufficient detail they cannot possibly do their job properly. Below is a sample of an actual syllabus listing what is to be taught during teaching of English.

Articles

- normal use of definite and indefinite

Nouns

- nouns and their plural
- possessive form

Pronouns

- personal as subject and object
- possessive
- demonstrative

Adjectives

- position of adjectives
- demonstrative
- possessive
- quantitative or determinatives (all , some, any, etc.)

Adverbs

- most common adverbs (time and place)
- the -ly ending
- position of adverbs of frequency and others

Prepositions

- all common prepositions of time, place and direction (such as in, out to, from, of, at, on, with, without)
- omission of article in at home, to school, etc.

Verb Forms

- use of can and must
- irregular verbs (list)

Verb Tenses

- present progressive
- present simple
- simple past
- immediate future

Word Order

- affirmative (basic structure only)
- negative (statement and request only)
- interrogative:
 - a with question words (who, what, where, when, how much, how many)
 - b without question words
- request (2nd person)
- question tags (such as isn't it? don't you?)

This particular syllabus was prepared for a situation in which no textbooks were available, but it is doubtful, whether it could function very successfully since there are many points at which it is ambiguous. To take the very first heading, there is no indication as to what constitutes 'normal' use of the articles? It is still left to the teacher to decide which uses of the article he will actually teach, yet presumably the whole point of having a syllabus is to ensure that all teachers teach the same things. Which aspects of the functioning of the definite article system will a teacher decide to include? Will he include the anaphoric function?

I ran into a sailor yesterday . . . Anyway, the sailor told me . . .

Or the cataphoric use?

The horse has four legs.

Or the specifying function?

Shut the door, please.

Brazil won the World Cup in 1970.

It is also perfectly normal to use certain nouns without articles on some occasions:

The astronauts showed great courage.

But with a definite article on others:

The courage of the astronauts impressed the world.

There is the further complication of the use of the article with plural nouns. The use of the plural without an article can have the same cataphoric meaning as the use of the singular with an article.

Horses have four legs.

Any grammar will reveal much more about the use of articles, all of which is perfectly normal to the native speaker of English. Indeed, if there was anything abnormal about someone's usage, it would not be considered part of the language and therefore would not be included in the content of teaching.

If we consider the complexities contained even in the simplified treatment of this contrast of tense above, it is inconceivable that everything that could be subsumed under these item heading could be taught in one year. In fact, a teacher would not even attempt to cover everything. He would teach the use of the progressive as exemplified by (1) and the simple as exemplified by (2). He will do this because these are the uses most commonly taught in beginners' books. In practice such was certainly the intention of the authors of the syllabus. There is no admission, that there is any difficulty in the complex interaction

between these general uses and the lexical meaning of verbs that leads us to the simple form where the progressive form might be expected, as in (6)-(9). There is no preparation for the confusion of the learner who discovers that in which we actually talk about what we are simultaneously doing we use not the progressive as he will have been led to believe, but the simple tense as in 13. He will not be ready for the fact that the uttering of progressive forms need not be simultaneous with the event described, nor that simple forms are used not so much to describe habits as to make statements that characterize the subject. Eventually, he will need to learn that the present forms of the verb can be used to refer not only to the present but also to the past, as in the so-call 'historical' use, and to the future as in (15) and (16).

Present progressive and present simple are mentioned only once in the syllabus. Once each form has been presented in one of these uses, it is likely that teacher and pupil will conclude that each has been fully learned. The further uses will either not appear in the teaching at all, or, more probably, will appear in an uncontrolled fashion without proper provision for presentation and practice. It is an item approach which risks creating a situation in which I think I have taught 'the present progressive', when in reality I have taught only the form (be+-ing) of the verbal construction itself, together with a part of its semantics. This will lead to neglect of much of the semantic aspect of the verb and a great deal too of the structural relations that verb forms may enter into.

In this syllabus, there is remarkably little attention given to the structural relations of the verb forms. We know that irregular (and presumably regular) verb forms are to be taught, and also four tenses. There is mention under 'word order' of the systems of affirmation, negation and interrogation, the emphasis here being presumably aimed at subject/verb inversion and use of the empty verb *do*. But verbs and tenses are not things which exist in isolation. They occur in sentences of the language. Affirmation, negation and interrogation similarly operate in all types of sentence. Yet there is no reference to the different kinds of sentence structure that are to be taught. We do not know whether both transitive and intransitive sentence should be taught; if transitive sentences are to be learned should they be single or double object constructions; if double object, should it be direct and indirect object, or direct object and objective complement? Since the teaching of prepositions implies the use of prepositional phrases, should these appear in transitive or intransitive sentence? Are sentences with more than one prepositional phrases to be included? The verb *be* appears in the list of verbs, but there is no advice on which of the several types of complement that may follow the verb should be taught.

The specification of verbal structures to be taught is, therefore, imprecise in two ways. There is insufficient detail on the choices, and therefore the difficulties, that face the learner in the various forms of the verb paradigm. There is a complete absence of direction on the syntactic structures to be used and therefore the sub-categories of verb to be introduced.

It is by no means unusual for structural information of this and other kinds to be lacking from syllabuses, any course will teach sentences which contain a subject, the verb is as

copula and a complement. Once this has been done, with perhaps an article and a noun as subject and an adjective as complement, this type of structure is unlikely to be made the focus of explicit teaching. Yet, as the following sentences show, great variety is in fact possible within the same kind of sentence. In these sentences, what precedes the verb be in each case is in effect noun or noun phrase. No two of these noun phrases have the same structure and we could extend the examples indefinitely without repeating the same structure.

Ladies are beautiful.
He is a rich man.
Some are here.
John's is a new car.
That is an interesting point.
He who hesitates is lost.
Orange is an attractive colour.
The poor are deserving.
Ladies with blue eyes are attractive.
Ladies who have blue eyes are attractive.
Which way you to is up to you.
To arrive late is impolite.
His coming is of no importance.
His coming here is of no importance.
His coming here so often is of no importance.
What you want is a cup of tea.

That the manufacturers should advertise the product without first ensuring that adequate supplies would reach the shops in time to meet the demand was astonishing.

This exemplification of the variety of constructions that can operate as the subject of a sentence permits us to see the extent to which syllabuses may be under-specified and inexplicit. The information that is brought together here is probably never brought together in language teaching, although many of the forms are taught in isolation from one another. Most learners never appreciate the range of items taught is rarely fully presented. The learner would not be presented with these constructions simultaneously but there should be a point in language learning, probably fairly late in the process, at which some indication is given of how constructions that are internally very different can nonetheless function identically in the structure of the sentence as a whole.

3.1.1.3 Textbooks

There are two criticisms of syllabuses: first, that through being inexplicit and item-based they are impossible to interpret accurately; secondly, that an item is too easily equated with its morphological forms and that therefore learning is directed at that form, or set of forms, functioning in one kind of sentence structure only. To see whether a text-book consists of a sequence of items we must look at the text itself for evidence and not at the list of contents, which may well resemble the sample of a syllabus that we have been

examining. An index does not have to be as explicit as a syllabus and the book should be judged by its actual contents and not by lack of clarity in its index. Spotting the faults of an item approach in a textbook requires a very careful study of the text indeed. In the lesson where, to continue with the example we have been discussing the present progressive is introduced, we may find that either, in a bad textbook, the complex of uses listed above is undifferentiated, or in a better textbook, only one of the used occurs. Even where we meet the latter situation, however, it is rare to find the other uses introduced in a similarly systematic manner. As we look through the book we may suddenly find non-progressive verbs being used without any warning as if they conformed to the general pattern of use of simple forms or as if the writer believed that their use is so obviously logical that no special teaching is required. This is far from the truth, as the many errors of foreign learners over this point testify.

We can examine one textbook to see how systematically forms are presented. In Book one the present progressive is presented and practiced in association with actions which are simultaneous with the speaking of the sentence. This is the orthodox approach in teaching English as a foreign language. Later the present simple is introduced. It is contrasted unambiguously with the present progressive but with habitual actions, taken here to include not only personal the subject. Just after this the first complication occurs with the use of want, like and see, want and like are arguably still within the habitual use of the present simple in the examples in this lesson. But since both are used also in the simple form even when they refer to simultaneous events, their presentation in the manner adopted here may lead to confusion later on if the point is not specifically taught. We may well find such forms as:

I am not liking this ice-cream

Occurring in our pupils' work.

In the lesson in question, see is quite clearly not habitual. We find sentences like:

Can you see him?

What do you see in the sixth picture?

Quite apart from the confusion that may be caused by the use of can and do here, there is no reference in the pupils' or the teacher's book to the fact that the form are you seeing would be wrong here, in spite of what has been previously taught about the use of the progressive form.

Form the learner's point of view the distinction between the two forms at this stage is that habits are reported with use of the simple form, events concurrent with speech are reported with the progressive form. A few lessons later we find in a conversation the sentence:

Oh, you're always losing things.

This is entirely new to the learner. The progressive form is, after all, compatible with habitual events, yet the teacher's book makes no reference to it and there is no provision for practice. The previously firm basis for the distinction of use will be considerably eroded.

In the same conversation we find the two sentences:
Do you remember?
I don't remember where I left it.

The word remember is referred to in the teacher's handbook simply as a new vocabulary item, yet with its introduction the pupil comes into contact with a new sub-class of verbs which, like see and like occur in the simple form, where the learner might expect the progressive. Verbs such as remember, forget, think and believe are not quite the same as see, hear and others, since the latter relates to perception, while the former suggest mental activity of some kind. Formally, the verbs of perception are more likely to occur with can than in the simple form alone. This is not the case with verbs like remember. In this lesson there is no provision for practice nor for explicit teaching of the patterning of these verbs. When the word forget appears a few lessons later, the teacher's handbook does make a cross-reference to the previously introduced remember, but the object of the reference seems to be the contrast of vocabulary (lexical) meaning and not the similarity of formal/semantic patterning.

In the lesson remember has first occurred, the author deals with a correct extension of the use of the present simple. The use is that of demonstrating some procedure as typical of the kind of actions one carries out in performing a task, as exemplified in (13). So, if one wants to show someone how to mend a type or use a washing-machine, one goes through the sequence of events, describing them as one does them. 'I plug into the wall-socket and switch on. I turn the control to "very hot"...' and so on. Hornby points out that such a use is really no different from the habitual use that has already been taught, but that it requires specific practice since the physical situation has just those features of simultaneity of speech and action that have hitherto been taught as characterizing the use of the present progressive form.

These examples, taken from a textbook that is generally very sound linguistically, show just how fully aware the writer and teacher need to be that the teaching of a form in one context, linguistic or situational, cannot be taken as all that is needed for the subsequent accurate use of that form in all contexts. If one is to specify precisely what is to be learned, one does not deal simply in terms of labels like 'present simple', 'comparative', 'negation' or 'definite article', since each of these is little more than a cover term for a whole structural system of relations and it is these that are the true aim of language teaching. This means that the content of any one teaching unit is probably best expressed for the teacher's benefit either as a very explicit rule or through a model sentence with the understanding that learning cannot go beyond what is strictly analogous to the model. Language teaching that neglects syntax and semantics is certain to be inadequate. By thinking of language learning as the mastering of structural relations rather than the acquisition of a set of forms, we can help ourselves to avoid this inadequacy.

3.2 Deep Structure and the Study of Syntax

Most foreign language teaching proceeds on the assumption that linguistic structure has some psychological reality, and that learning is made easier if similar pieces of language are taught together and dissimilar pieces of language are separated. Almost all textbooks, old and new, attempt to reveal the structure of the foreign language progressively, piece by piece, to the learner. The alternative that of exposing the pupils to the foreign language without control may be likened to teaching people to swim by throwing them into the deep end. It has its advocates, but they are few and so far uninfluential. If one is adopting the progressive approach, the linguist's descriptive analysis of structure has considerable significance, since it will identify the units to be taught, though not their sequence. The teacher should base his teaching on that description which reveals most satisfactorily the structural contrasts and relations of the language.

To judge how satisfactory a description is may not be as easy as one would expect. The structure of a sentence is not always what it appears to be, and indeed linguists themselves do not necessarily agree on how to interpret some pieces of language structurally. Let us look at the following two sentences for example:

- (1) They gave John their vote.
- (2) They elected John their representative.

Most older grammars agree that the grammatical structure of these two sentences is not the same, although their analyses of the second sentence are not unanimous. (1) is usually described as an Indirect Object+Direct Object construction. In (2), the second noun phrase *their representative* is known by such names as predicative adjunct or objective complement, with *John* quite simply as an object. Traditionally, therefore, these sentences are described as having different structures.

If we look at (1) and (2) we can see why Hill says this. Each sentence consists of an identical sequence, a pronominal subject, a verb, a proper noun and a noun phrase. If we look at this alone, there are no grounds for saying that the sentences have different structures. Each unit within the sentences has the same internal structure and each stands in the same sequential relationship and therefore, it is argued, their functions must be identical. If we accept this description then, in teaching such sentences as (1) and (2) would have to be classified and taught together. No special explanation would be required since understanding of the lexical meanings involved would be adequate for the pupil to comprehend the meaning of the whole sentence. Such an analysis contrasts strongly with the traditional analysis and this contrast would be reflected in any teaching that was based on Hill's description.

However, many linguists would find Hill's analysis unacceptable, since it rests upon taking as evidence only the sentence themselves as they might occur in speech. For linguists like Hill, this is what was meant at that time by a formal analysis. Yet it can be argued that such an interpretation of what is required for formal analysis is excessively narrow; that since language is structured, no part exists in isolation, nor should it be

studied in isolation. Each element has connections with other parts of the structure and to discover these we must look further than the immediately occurring pieces of language. The analysis which equates (1) and (2) deals only with what appears on the surface. Much more can be revealed about the structure of a language by investigating what underlies the sentences which we actually produce or receive or what inter-connections there are between them. The above analysis has been termed by a more recent linguistic school an analysis of the 'surface structure' and it has been held that such analysis is inferior to the analysis of the deeper regularities of a language-its 'deep structure'. Of (1) and (2) it would be said that the similarity in their surface structure is superficial and that an investigation of their deep structure would reveal that they are structurally distinct. Transformational generative linguists would say that the traditional grammarians were right in assigning a different structural descript to these two sentences. They would show by a set of explicit rules how two sentences which are derived quite differently come to resemble one another in their actual occurrence.

It would be irrelevant to give an example of how these linguists present their descriptions. But without going into the complex technicalities of transformational grammar it is possible to show how, by taking into account a larger linguistic context than the sentences immediately under consideration, one can demonstrate differences between them which argue strongly for the case that their structure is actually different.

The argument rests upon the fact that certain manipulations which can be applied (1) cannot be applied to (2). We can say:

John was given their vote.

John was elected their representative.

And

Their vote was given (to) John.

But not

Their representative was elected (to) John.

In other words, whereas in (1) the second complement can occur as the subject of a passive sentence, in (2) it cannot. Similarly we can say:

It was their vote they gave John.

But not

It was their representative they elected John.

As a further point, the second complement in (2) can be deleted and a grammatical sentence remains:

They elected John.

But not in (1):

They gave John.

It is considerations such as these, depending upon a wider interpretation of formal relations that can lead us to accept that there is a structural distinction between these two sentences. The conditions under which such relationships are established in transformational grammars are very rigorous. The above illustration gives no indication of this.

This reader might think that linguistics has gone in a large circle to return to the same point. He always believed that these sentences had different structures and linguistics had told him nothing new. That can only be argued because the example chosen was familiar one. Transformational analysis often returns to traditional analyses, but it is not the case that all its conclusions are found in realer grammars. In the first place it fills in many of the gaps, making explicit what was left to the reader to supply. Secondly, the notion of deep structure may result in a distinction being found among sentences which were analyzed identically by traditional grammarians. That is to say, for us as teachers, it may split into two or more teaching points what has always been one. The following two sentences provide an example of this:

- (3) He was difficult to understand.
- (4) He was slow to understand.

These two sentences are commonly analysed as having the same structure, with the infinitive being treated as the adjunct of a predicative adjective. Yet whereas he can be considered as the subject of slow and understand in (4), it is obviously not the subject of understand in (3). If we are to believe that separating different structures has any psychological validity for teaching, there are two types of sentence which must henceforth be kept apart. This is one way in which the notion of deep structure may influence the organization of teaching material.

3.2.1 Syntax

Language, we have seen, is structure is not necessarily revealed by the way in which the actual sentences of our speech are organized. The study of the rules governing relations between items of language is the study of syntax, and to it recent developments in linguistics have given a great impetus. It has now been realized that the structure of sentences is far more complex-and important-than early linguists recognized, and although traditional grammarians have often appreciated the significance of syntax, they have nonetheless failed to describe its complexities fully. These deficiencies in language description are very much reflected in language teaching where there is often little understanding of the difficulties presented by the syntax of a language. For this reason, we should like to examine the notion of syntactic structure through a fairly detailed example.

Much recent work on syntax represents a rephrasing and formalization of existing knowledge of syntactic structure. It contains little that is very new. But sometimes a transformational generative description brings together syntactic information which was previously, at best, available only in widely separated places in the grammar; and the demonstration that hitherto unconnected parts of the grammatical system are in fact related is highly informative, not only in the description of that language, but also in developing an understanding of its acquisition.

3.2.1.1 Predicate Complements Constructions in English

The name 'predicate complementation' is given to certain construction involving use of that-clauses, the infinitive and the progressive, forms of verbs preceded by a nominal in

the possessive case. The occurrence of these forms in conjunction with certain verbs, the manipulations that can be carried out on them by way, for example, of passivization are apparently highly unpredictable. Certainly, knowing the meaning of a verb-word would in no way assist a learner in deciding what syntactic functions that word might have. The situation is most complex and there is no possibility of finding a simple solution to its analysis. A full-scale study of this aspect of English grammar has still not been entirely successful in showing how many of these sentences are derived. The difficulties can best be shown by taking a number of examples.

Sentences (1)-(5) seem acceptable and analogous.

- (1) I intend that he shall be a doctor.
- (2) I regret that he is absent.
- (3) They announced that he was an impostor.
- (4) He remarked that John looked ill.
- (5) I suspected that he was a charlatan.

The verbs intend, regret, announce, remark, and suspect therefore belong to a sub-class of verbs which can be followed by that constructions. There are alternative ways of expressing (1) which seem to be entirely synonymous with it.

- (1a) I intend him to be a doctor.
- (1b) I intend him being a doctor.

One might expect that the same kinds of manipulations can be applied to the other sentences, but when we attempt it a very untidy pattern emerges.

- (2a) I regret him to be absent.
- (2b) I regret him (or his) being absent.
- (3a) They announced him to be an impostor.
- (3b) They announced him being an impostor.
- (4a) he remarked John to look ill.
- (4b) He remarked John's looking ill.

In the case of suspect, we do have similar forms:

- (5a) I suspect him to be a charlatan.
- (5b) is suspect him being a charlatan.

However, (5b) would seem to have a different meaning from (5) and (fa), being paraphrasable as:

I suspect him when he is pretending to be a charlatan.

Synonymy would be retained if we inserted of before being.

- (5c) I suspect him of being a charlatan.

So of these verbs, only intend participates in all three constructions. The others reveal different distributions including a fourth equivalent type with of.

If we look a little further afield, we shall discover that there are some verbs which may be followed by the a or b constructions but do not have the that constructions at all.

- (6) I like that he arrives on time.
- (6a) I like him to arrive in time.

(6b) I like him (his) arriving on time.

(7) I admire that John tries so hard.

(7a) I admire John to try so hard.

(7b) I admire John's trying so hard.

The similarity of like and admire to the earlier list becomes more apparent when we look at the following:

(1d) It is intended that he shall be a doctor.

(2d) It is suspected that he was a charlatan.

.....

(6d) It is (much) liked that he arrives on time.

(7d) It is (much) admired that John tries so hard.

The presence of this it may be highly significant, because we find that by inserting it into (6) and (7) we obtain the acceptable sentences below:

(6e) I like it that he arrives on time.

(7e) I admire it that John tries so hard.

It appears therefore that these sentences with it are very closely related to (1)-(5) without it. It seems not impossible too that for some speakers the presence of it is acceptable after some verbs where for other speakers it is not. This is notoriously an area of grammar where even the native speaker is unsure of the boundaries of grammaticality and acceptability.

However, the complications by no means stop there. There is another way of constructing these sentences, probably in order to express a different emphasis but not otherwise changing the meaning. This involves the application of what is called the pseudo-clefting transformation. It produces sentences like the following:

(1f) What I intend is that he shall be a doctor.

(2f) What I regret is that he is absent.

We notice that once again there is no apparent difference between these verbs and like and admire:

(6f) What I like is that he arrives on time.

A similar process seems to be possible with the (a) sentences too:

(1g) What I intend is for him to be a doctor.

But in this case we have to introduce the word for which was not present in (1a). the sentence (3g) appears to be derived in the same way from (3a):

(3g) What they announced was for him to be an impostor.

This is a correctly formed sentence but its meaning is clearly not the same as the meaning of (3a). with (5a) it does not even seem to be possible to construct a well-formed sentence.

(5g) What I suspect is for him to be a charlatan.

Stranger still is the fact that while (7a) is not acceptable, (7g) perhaps is.

(7g) What I admire is for John to try so hard.

The production of the -ing forms seems rather more consistent.

(1h) What I intend is him being a doctor.

(5h) What I suspect is him being a charlatan.

- What I suspect him of is being a charlatan.
- (7h) What I admire is John's trying so hard.
- As with suspect there are many cases where there is another verb which is closely tied to a particle of some kind.
- (8b) I approve building the new town hall.
- (9b) I approve of building the new town hall.
- (10b) I planned your staying at this hotel.
- (11b) I planned on your staying at this hotel.

In each these cases we seem to have two distinct pairs of verbs: approve and approve of, plan and plan on. In order to convey our meaning we have to select the right one. With some other verbs whether or not the particle is expressed is optional and does not change the meaning. There does not appear to be any difference in meaning between decide and decide on, for example. The particle is obligatorily absent in (12) and present in (12b). in (12f) we have the option of including or excluding it.

(12) I decided that he would come for the week-end.

(12b) I decided on his coming for the week-end.

(12f) What I decided (on) was that he would come for the week-end.

One could go on for a long time exemplifying the difficulties which surround the forms under discussion. However, here I will content myself with just one further observation. In the sentences we have looked at so far, to choose between the infinitive and the -ing construction, where both of these have been available, has not involved differentiating meanings. Sentences (13a) and (13b) show this:

- (13a) He began to eat his lunch.
- (13b) He began eating his lunch.
- If we had chosen remember as our main verb we should have had a quite different result:
- (14a) He remembered to eat his lunch.
- (14b) He remembered eating his lunch.

As I have said, this by no means exhausts the apparent anomalies that exist in the use of these forms. I would not wish to suggest that no order can be established here. On the contrary, descriptive linguistics sets out to do just this and we can expect that increasingly satisfactory analyses will become available. But it is by presenting some of the virtually unanalyzed data such as we have above that we can best comprehend the bewildering difficulties that face the learner of English. In practice we inform him on how to construct him hardly any insight into how these can be used. In short we neglect the acquisition of syntax.

3.2.1.2. Pedagogic Implications

I have suggested that areas of advanced syntax like predicate complementation are generally overlooked in foreign language teaching. Comparison and negation would be two other areas where language teaching rarely concerns itself with anything beyond the more obvious forms. By 'overlooked' I do not mean so much that examples of the sentences in question never appear in textbooks, but that the presentation and practice of

them is not specifically planned in the way that the form and use of tenses or cases it. The sentences may indeed occur, but not as a result of a conscious decision about the appropriate moment to introduce them. There is rather an assumption that a learner who has been given the opportunity to practice the negation of a verb can recognize and master the negation of any other element in a sentence without the aid of specially constructed practice materials. If he can make a simple comparison of two adjectives then he should be presented with no great difficulty in grasping the syntactic rule necessary for the comparison of nouns or, say, clauses functioning as nouns.

In a sense there are good reasons why such constructions do not constitute the subject-matter of elementary learning? Even without mastery of the rules underlying these sentences a learner can express a lot in a second language. So perhaps one is concerned here with the content of fairly advance language learning. It is possible for a foreigner to be a very fluent and accurate speaker of English and yet no attempt to produce many of the complementation structures that I have sketched above. It might be that it is in just such a matter as this that a very proficient speaker of a foreign language differs from a native speaker of that language. The difference may lie not in errors committed but in a deliberate avoidance of sentences whose structure is thought to present difficulty, perhaps because such sentences were inadequately taught originally. We sometimes have great difficulty in deciding just what it is about a non-native speaker that marks him off as not using his mother-tongue. It would require a thorough going statistical analysis to show that there was a difference in the range of syntactic structures attempted. An informal check with my own students, some of whom were extremely competent speakers of English, elicited the admission that all of them consciously avoided even trying to produce some of the sentence structures we had been examining. There was surprise in some cases that such sentences could exist in English.

I may appear to have suggested that the step-by-step process by which language teaching commonly proceeds should be extended to include aspects of syntax which have rarely been deliberately taught. It does not follow, however, that because such points present very real difficulties for the learner they have to be tackled in this way, even supposing that in general it is a satisfactory approach to language teaching. In the case of the complementation structures above such an approach would present problems.

In both traditional and modern language teaching the learning-points which are isolated for presentation and practice are precisely those points which offer the largest return for the learner. They enable him to make the most significant generalizations. We show, and practice, certain nouns marked for plural, certain adjectives marked for gender, certain adverbs in a given position in the sentence because they are typical of a large number of other nouns, adjectives and adverbs. We suppose that the learner will be able to generalize the skill he has in producing these words in the correct forms to all other words. What the teacher presents is limited. What the pupil learns goes far beyond what he is taught.

The less significant the generalizations that can be made on the basis of a particular example, the less value there is in attempting to organize language learning in some kind of graded sequence of steps. The early stages of most language courses are devoted to the learning of the most general rules. Sometimes items seem to be included more because they are of general applicability than because they are especially significant for communication. The complement structures that we saw above might be nearer the other end of the scale. No two verbs from among those that I exemplified behaved in exactly the same way. It is true that there are many more verbs than I have shown here and some of them, no doubt, may occur in exactly the same contexts. It should be remembered though that there are syntactic constructions that I have not mentioned. The difficulty will lie in the fact that the numbers of verbs which can be put together into sub-classes because of their potentialities for co-occurrence with the different structures will be very small. Each of these sub-classes will include verbs which are of little importance for the learner of foreign languages, and by the time we have excluded these we may find that we have very small list of verbs indeed. Ideally we should like to be able to say that there is quite a long list of verbs which behave in the same way. A learner that had learned the syntactic possibilities of one or two of them would then have learned the possibilities of all the them. Each largish class of verbs, together with the complement structures that can follow it, could then be the content of a learning unit. Unfortunately, as we have seen, in this instance the classes are not likely to be large enough for this approach to have much value.

An alternative would be to construct units not in terms of sub-classes of verbs, but to present and practice one particular type of complement structure. So a unit might be devoted to sentences with that-clause complements, and in this unit the learner would meet all those important verbs which could be followed by such a clause. This is what existing teaching materials probably come closest to doing. But it presents the difficulty that it might actually encourage false generalizations. Most learners of English, to take a very simple example, have no problems with:

I want to go.

And

I wish to go.

but because of this limited similarity, they presume identical privileges of co-occurrence with other complements and the possibility of

I wish that I could go.

leads to production of

I want that I could go.

Since, both of these ways of producing materials so that the learners, generalizing processes are assisted seem to have their drawbacks' are we to conclude that, after all, there is nothing better than the unexploited and unplanned exposure that is the actual state of affairs? It might be that a solution lies in not using specially constructed materials at all, that there is an alternative in the use of unedited samples of natural language. The teaching of languages at advanced levels might, among other things, concern itself with the detailed linguistic study of texts, literary non-literary, which were not written with the

needs of language learners in mind. A slightly different argument for the use of natural texts throughout the learning process has been made elsewhere, but I would not wish to go as far as that. While I would not see the texts as being primarily literary in style, it seems to me that the literary tradition in language teaching had at least one thing to be said in its favour. It brings the pupil into contact with a range of linguistic forms which is not provided by the more controlled content of the early years of learning. It is true that what the pupil is brought into contact with remains haphazard, but it is not clear how one would establish priorities among these more complex constructions anyway. What is important is that, as sentences with unfamiliar structures occur in the texts, they should not pass unexploited.

The technique to be employed for exploitation of the linguistic content could closely resemble the traditional French explication detente. Any text might contain a number of sentences with structures that were in some way new to the pupils. The teacher would draw the attention of the learners to the sentence. The extent to which he would discuss its grammar explicitly would depend upon the methodological convictions of the teacher. He would exemplify the structure with further sentences and demonstrate the transformational potentialities of the sentence; he would have prepared drills and other practice materials so that some opportunity is given to the pupils to develop a mastery of the structures under examination. In this way, the occurrence of an unfamiliar linguistic form is used to expand the pupil's competence in the language.

We can look at the complement structures to see what kinds of sentences might be brought to the learner's attention and practiced in this way. This sentence might appear in a text being read by students of English.

(15) The Prime Minister likes his ministers to attend meetings punctually.
The teacher has the choice of operating with this sentence or of substituting for it a slightly less cumbersome one. Let us assume that he adopts the latter solution and show his class that:

(16) John likes his wife to eat well.

is similar in the aspect of structure under consideration. He could then show that it was related in structure to any of the following sentences (though not necessarily in this order):

(16a) John likes his wife eating well.

(16b) John likes it that his wife eats well.

(16c) what John likes is that his wife eats well

(16d) What John likes is for his wife to eat well

(16e) What John likes is his wife eating well.

And/or

(16f) What John likes is his wife's eating well.

(16g) What is liked by John is that his wife eats well.

(16h) That his wife eats well is liked by John.

(16i) For his wife to eat well is liked by John.

(16j) His wife's eating well is liked by John.

(16k) It is liked by John that his wife eats well.

(16l) It is liked by John for his wife to eat well.

He could also point out that for in (16d) would be present in (16) if there was an adverb present after the verb:

(16m) John likes very much for his wife to eat well.

Probably he would wish to make sure that all of these sentences must be dealt with at the same time, but (16) to (16m) provide us with an inventory of contexts for demonstrating the syntactic features of the verb like. It is the use of this verb in certain syntactically related sentences that is being taught, not its membership of a particular sub-class of verbs and not the general formation of any one sentence structure. To discourage any possibility of over-generalization, one would probably contrast its behavior with one or more other verbs which show only limited or superficial similarity.

3.3 Units of Language

In identifying the units of language, the linguist follows the traditional grammarian in recognizing the word. The fact that the linguist normally studies speech does present him with some procedural problems since, in speech, unlike in writing, the word is not conveniently marked off by pauses on either side. In practice, he bases his acceptance of the word principally on the fact that it is the smallest stretch of speech that can occur as a complete utterance. However, many words are divisible into component units which recur in other words of the language with regular meanings, sometime grammatical, sometime lexical. To these smaller units the name 'morpheme' has been given. The morpheme has sometimes been defined as the smallest meaningful unit of language. The word walked may be divided into a morpheme walk, also found in walk, walks, walking and a morpheme -ed also found in talked, wrapped, raced and so on. Whenever one adds -ed to a root morpheme, one modifies the meaning in the same way to signify 'took place in past time'. Instead of looking at words as entities which have different forms under certain conditions, one sees them as made up of two or more smaller units. In our description we must find a place for these morphemes to be listed and the rules governing their combinations to be stated. In such an interpretation walked is a different word from walking or walks since it has a constituent which is in contrast with one constituent in each of the other two words.

In linguistics there was at one time considerable preoccupation with the problems that arose in the attempt to introduce this new level of description. The situation is a good deal more complex than the single example above would suggest. It is all very well to think of words being constructed by the addition of more and more morphemes to a root morphemes, each addition bringing a specific addition to the meaning. However, in some other cases the facts are not quite so easily handled. The -ed morpheme in English, for a start, has several different phonetic realizations. Furthermore there is sometimes no overt addition to the root morpheme at all, as in a verb like cut. There are also verbs like rang where the past form differs from the non-past form by an internal contrast that can only very clumsily be thought of as the addition of a morpheme. Most of the morphemes like -

ed which carry grammatical information do not occur in isolation. They are often 'bound' from which have to be attached to another morphemes in an utterance. It is true that there are in English some morphemes whose function is principally grammatical which are conventionally thought of as distinct words, article, prepositions and auxiliary verbs, for example-but even these only occur alone as complete utterances under very exceptional circumstances. The question does not arise, therefore of attempting to teach the morpheme as an isolated unit of language. It is irrelevant to the teacher which of the possible analyses of the walk/walked, cut/cut, ring/rang relationship in linguistically the best. He has to ensure that the learner can operate the contrast, and he can only do this by teaching the words forms, since to break them down into any smaller constituents would introduce an unacceptable degree of artificiality into the language of the classroom.

The value of the morpheme in language teaching is not that it leads us to new facts of the language so much as that it brings us to view the known facts in a different way. If a grammar is based on a descriptive framework that takes the word as the smallest unit of language, the various forms that a word may have are brought together in a paradigm. In traditional grammars of highly inflected languages there are paradigms of noun declension and verb conjugation. In language teaching, especially in the past, each paradigm has been seen, not simply as a descriptive technique, but as a learning unit. Whole paradigms have been taught at a time and the overall organization of teaching has been aimed at exposing the learner to a sequence of paradigms until the range of morphological variation in the language has been covered, by postulating the morpheme as a unit smaller than the word, and by applying a pedagogic principle of 'one thing at a time', each contrast is seen to reveal the presence of a different 'thing' and therefore a different point of language to be acquired. A paradigm is not now one learning point, but contains as many learning points as there are morphemes in the paradigm. If we imagine a paradigm established for a noun system which recognized three classes of noun and a four-case system, there would presumably be twelve different forms for the learner to acquire. Theoretically, at least, these could constitute the content of twelve different teaching units. This suggest that, looked at from the traditional point of view, such teaching materials would contain relatively little new language in each unit and would appear to teach the language very much more slowly. A comparison of older and newer textbooks will reveal just such differences. An older book will often cover in half the time what is now expected from a whole year's language learning. The common rejection of paradigm learning as a means of achieving the aims of language teaching has its own methodological justifications, but evidence for change in the same direction could be found in linguistics too. Morphemes as such have not been taught, but the influence of a morphemic level of analysis has been felt indirectly.

The morpheme, however, is not that only unit of language in which the linguist is interested and before we consider the influence of the morpheme on decision-making in language teaching, we must look at the sentence, since the linguist has not only added to the number of units in terms of which a language may be described, but also reemphasized the largest unit of grammatical structure. We have already seen in this chapter why the sentence is important for the linguist. The structural significance of an

item cannot be understood when it is viewed in isolation. The sentence is the only unit which can display all the structural relations that are possible in a language. The classification of word-classes or parts of speech is based on the function that words have in the sentence and not on semantic criteria as was usually the case traditionally. If the linguist describes only units smaller than the sentence, he cannot hope to have accounted for all the grammatical structure of the language.

The language teacher may find another reason for attaching importance to the sentence. It stems not from the structural nature of language, but from its communicative function. The aims of foreign language learners may differ, but it is unlikely that any of them will be learning for any purpose other than some form of communication in the language. People want to acquire language because language is meaningful activity. In most of our day-to-day uses of language we are in contact with stretches of language which are made up of sentences-reading and dictating letters, reading the newspaper, listening to the news, discussing our work and so on. In very few of these activities do we produce anything smaller than a single sentence as a complete utterance. The only exception to this is conversation, where our utterances may quite often consist of no more than a word or phrase. However, even in conversation a single utterance is commonly made up of one or more sentences. If something less than sentence-say a single word-is uttered and understood, it will be understood only when the hearer is fully aware of what has not been said. A single word utterance is only comprehensible by reference to a complete sentence which provides the necessary context. If the speaker knows that the hearer will be familiar with part of the sentence that he intends to utter, it is no longer necessary for him actually to utter the entire sentence. A word or phrase will suffice. The analysis of discourse has not yet proceeded far enough for one to know exactly what is meant by 'familiar' here, but there can be little doubt that there are fairly clear rules under which one can delete part of an utterance. Anything less than a sentence, then, is not meaningful unless it is clearly related to a sentence.

The sentence, therefore, is the best candidate for the unit of language structure which carries enough information within it to be conceivable as a complete utterance. One could presumably converge in single sentences. One could not converge in anything less. As a unit of communication it is far more meaningful than the word or phrase, and its structure is far better understood than anything larger, such as the paragraph. It is perhaps this feeling that the sentence has a particular communicative status that underlay the traditional attempts to define it as the unit for expressing complete thoughts.

It seems to me that there is some value in the foreign language learner being taught by means of pieces of language which can easily be seen as potential utterances. The whole process is more meaningful, and while it does not follow that because language use is meaningful the process of language acquisition should be so too, there is a strong supposition that this is the case. A method of language teaching that requires a pupil to produce lists of isolated words or paradigms or involves sub-sentence level translation is meaningless in more than one sense. Yet all these things are to be found in many available language teaching courses. The sentence carries enough linguistic and semantic context

within it to be interpretable by the pupil as a possible meaningful utterance. The whole process of language learning seems to have much more point when the learner can see the practical value of the language he is learning. Quite apart from the effect on the pupil's attitude to learning, it seems likely that fully meaningful and fully grammatical language is actually more easily learnt. It seems, therefore, much better to use the sentence as the basic unit of language teaching.

No mention has been made of whether the paradigm has any value in this teaching sequence at all. The implication has clearly been that the paradigm cannot be the basis of language teaching, but that is not to say that it has no place at all. Some teachers might prefer to present the paradigm either before or after such a teaching sequence. Alternatively the paradigm could be elicited from the learners themselves when their practical mastery is complete. If it is presented at the beginning, I would feel that practice along the lines described above is still necessary if mastery of the language is to be produced. Learning a paradigm is a short-cut to knowledge of the language, but by itself it does not seem to result in high performance in the language. Paradoxically it may be that knowing the paradigm is most useful for the learning of those languages which have a very complex inflectional morphology, one reason being that to condition the learning of each individual morpheme would be a very lengthy process indeed.

3.4 Summary

In this chapter, we have looked at three grammatical topics. In the first place we examined the structural view of language and interpreted its significance in evaluating the control of the linguistic content of syllabuses and textbooks. Secondly, we saw the difficulties that syntax can provide for the learner of a foreign language and discussed how these might be handled in teaching? Thirdly, we noted some of the units employed in language description and saw that language teaching has been and can be influenced by the types of units identified in the language. Since grammar is the core of language, linguistics tends to be much more occupied with the grammatical level than any other. The discussion here in no way reflects the range of grammatical interests to be found in linguistic publications. Many of these interests are of no direct value to the language teacher and are too technical to be summarized briefly.

3.5 Exercises

1. Discuss item and structural view of language.
2. What is syntax? Discuss in detail?
3. Explain the units employed in language description.

3.6 Bibliography

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Unit–4

GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY

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Introduction

The linguists characteristically view language as a structured system. It deals entirely with those aspects of language, whose structure is most susceptible to scientific analysis-phonology and grammar. Linguists have little to say about vocabulary. Reflecting the linguist's concern with grammar and the related view, that mastery of a foreign language depends upon complete control of its grammatical rules. The methodologist's emphasis on the subordination of vocabulary teaching grammar teaching. The range of vocabulary should be deliberately restricted, while grammar is still being acquired so that the learner's powers of acquisition can be concentrated on what is most important. To spend time at learning vocabulary is to be diverted from the true contents of language acquisition. Once the pupil knows the many grammatical frames, then to expand the number of words, which can operate in the frames, is a relatively simple task. It therefore comes later. In practice, techniques for vocabulary extension have scarcely been discussed explicitly. Of course, any methods of teaching which aims at to make use of actual content. Commonly, then the lexical content of the earlier stages of language teaching is consciously limited to what is needed either to service the techniques of presentation and practice or to motivate the learners.

Objectives

After studying this unit, the students' will be able to:

1. Define vocabulary and grammar
2. Select appropriate vocabulary
3. Distinguish between denotation & connotation
4. Know lexical structure: paradigmatic & syntagmatic relations
5. Determine the implications for teaching of meaning.

4.1 Grammar and Vocabulary: A Matter of Priorities

In language acquisition, we cannot neglect of the importance of vocabulary. In the first place, one can question whether grammar must always dominate vocabulary. Secondly, it is acknowledged that there is those, who would wish to emphasize the structural aspects of language learning have not found a tradition of vocabulary study, stemming from what might be called pre-structural days and it contradictory. Thirdly, we can ask just what are the problems of learning vocabulary and attempt to discover any implications for the organization of language teaching.

The belief that vocabulary acquisition can be delayed until a substantial proportion of the grammatical system has been learned. It is only where the learner is not likely to have a pressing social need to use the language. The obvious fact is that to communicate seriously and adequately through the language a command of both grammar and vocabulary is necessary. In recent years, it has tended to emphasize grammar as a corrective to the idea that simply by building up a large vocabulary in a foreign language one will be able to use it. Experience shows that to learn numbers of words without learning to construct sentences is of little practical value. Not enough attention has been paid to the converse view, that there is not much value either in being able to produce grammatical sentences, if one does not have the vocabulary that is needed to convey what one wishes to say.

To delay the teaching of an extensive vocabulary will not prove a serious defect as long as the aims of a course are to give a practical mastery language in the long term. Any temporary imbalance between grammar and vocabulary may very well correct itself with time. Where language learning is done in full-time educational establishments-in schools for example-not only will there be no necessity for the pupil to use the language in social intercourse, there will often not even be any opportunity for him to do so. It is at least arguable that foreign language teaching need not aim to produce practical communication skill from the beginning, and that a vocabulary extensive enough for varied communication can be the target of later stages. A skilled user of the language would be the desired product of such a course, but his ability to communicate would not really develop until he approached the end of his course.

A methodology evolved with such a situation in mind and it is possibly the most common language learning situation-must not be taken over, and applied to situations which are critically different. It is easy to conceive other situations in which the learner will earnestly desire to put whatever he learns to immediate social use. He may hope in the long term to become a skillful user of the language, but he has a short term need for the language, which cannot be subordinated to this. Anyone emigrating to a new speech community finds himself in just this position. However important it may be for him, eventually to master the grammatical system, it is even more important that he should be able to communicate with those people with whom his daily life brings him into contact. He will have needs that can only be met by use of language and that effective member of his new community, and consequently will not be accepted by it, if he has no means of

contact with it, the language to be learned by him must, therefore have immediate practical value.

Slightly different from this case is the learner who has no long-term aims at all. He is not concerned, whether he can ever have a wide grasp of grammatical structure, nor whether he can range over a varied set of topics? He may need language for a clearly limited set of situations, and possibly even may expect to use it only over a limited period. He will certainly never hope to be mistaken for a native speaker, or even to approach such skill. The acceptability of his speech to the native speaker may be less important than his ability to convey his social needs.

In either of these cases, we could not accept that vocabulary would be initially less important than grammar. The fact is that while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. What we normally think of as 'vocabulary items'-nouns, verbs and adjectives-do indeed contain more information than is carried by grammatical elements. Telegrams often consist of no more than a sequence of lexical items with no grammatical information other than order of words, and yet we have no difficulty in understanding them, any more than we do ungrammatical headlines and advertisements. Communication in a foreign language is not so very different. Provided one knows the appropriate vocabulary, then some form of interchange of language is possible. Without the vocabulary, it is impossible. Admittedly, this can be no more than a very rudimentary form of communication, which is restricted in what it can achieve and which depends on the willingness of the native speaker to make allowance for grammatical errors. However, it is more than could be achieved with a mastery of grammatical structure and only a partial knowledge of the vocabulary needed.

If we were to take the conventional organization of language teaching, with its early concentration on the systematic introduction of grammatical structures, realized through a vocabulary chosen largely for its pedagogic usefulness, we would not be providing our pupils with what they need. Proper consideration will have to be given from the beginning to the appropriate vocabulary, and that appropriateness will in turn depend on the social needs of the learners. I am not suggesting that the learning of grammatical structures should be replaced by the learning of lists of lexical items, merely that a different balance between grammar and lexis will be required. One must not assume that the same organization of language contents will meet all needs.

4.2 The Selection of Vocabulary

The process of vocabulary selection is perhaps not what would usually be called linguistics. It does not add to our understanding of the lexical structure of the language under examination. Instead, by investigating their use of vocabulary, we learn about the native speaker's need for their language. The relative frequency of occurrence of vocabulary items is determined by the kind of thing we most frequently wish to say. Our range of expression is in no way constrained by the frequency with which the items happen to occur in the language. If the speech of an individual had a distribution of

lexical items very different from the 'normal' distribution, this would mean no more than that he did not commonly express himself on the topics that most people talk about. The most frequent vocabulary is presumably that which individuals feel most need for. Once one accepts that some restriction on vocabulary content is desirable, information is needed, on which items will have the greatest utility for the learner. The frequency and the other criteria which are needed, however, there are one or two historical points should be discussed.

The idea of exposing a learner to language in a progressive manner is one that has developed continuously over the last forty years or so. There is a large literature on the relative merits of different sequences, on the best placed for a particular construction in a graded course. Manuals for teachers discuss the advantage of teaching the simpler before the more complex, the more useful before the rarer, the regular before the irregular and so on. The justifications are no longer much discussed. Historically, it is a process that can be seen as a reaction against materials organized into chunks largely unconnected with one another, failing to discriminate between important, trivial, and containing large vocabularies with no evident objective basis. The conviction grew among practicing teachers that learning could be made easier, if some order could be brought to the business of deciding what language items to include and in what sequence they should be placed. That their attention turned first to vocabulary reflected the relative lack of influence of linguistics on language teaching. If anything the situation has been reversed in recent years. In any case, misguided choice of vocabulary for teaching is so striking that the urgency to correct it is strongly felt. At worst, vocabulary may not be selected in any real sense at all. The words learned will be those that happen to occur in reading passages which themselves are not written with the learners' needs in mind those which are needed for grammatical purposes these may include words that are extremely rare but are taught as examples of a rule or exception to a rule – those that are met in the study of literature, and finally, those that are learned as lists related to given topics of varying degrees of usefulness. In any unit the number of new words is commonly very large, demanding as much of the pupil's time as the grammatical content. Modern text-books with their visual means of presentation do not necessarily avoid these faults. One that comes across has a picture with each unit, in which every single object is labelled. There is no distinction between more and less useful words and the load in each lesson is between 30 to 40 words, which is far too large. The point about all this is not that nothing useful is acquired but that so much time is spent on committing to memory items which are never likely to be useful to the learner. Learning a foreign language is a difficult task for most people. There is no point in diverting the learner's energies on to fruitless labour. We all know the situation where a person who has been learning over a number of years is perhaps called upon for the first time to use the language in a natural context and finds that he lacks the very vocabulary that he most needs. The aim of vocabulary selection is to remedy this and to make the learning process a more efficient one.

Over the years the incorporation of vocabulary into teaching materials has come to depend on a number of criteria. The aim has been to introduce material objectively into decision-making. By far the most important single criterion is that of frequency.

Presumably, the most useful items are those that occur most frequently in our language use. If we take a corpus of material and calculate the relative frequency of the vocabulary items, we shall discover that some words occur with far greater frequency than others do. We can then establish a list in which the different frequencies are stated. The higher on the list an item occurs the more necessary it is to ensure that it appears in any teaching materials that we construct. No one would suggest that the items should be taught in exactly the sequence in which they occur on the list. Rather one would work within broad bands of frequency—the first 500, 1000, 2000, items and so on. The attempt could be made to restrict the vocabulary of a first book to the 500 most frequent items, for example.

The aim of vocabulary counting is fairly simply stated. The practice is rather more involved, since there are a number of other factors to be taken into consideration. First, an extremely large corpus is needed if the frequencies are not merely to reflect the texts that happen to have been chosen. Indeed that claim to objectivity would not be justified unless the choice of texts was also on a sound basis. If the intention is to establish some kind of general frequency, then the texts need to be drawn from all possible varieties of English. The usefulness of the Thorndike-Lorge word-list for English, for example, is reduced in that it is based entirely on written English. Its value is diminished, wherever the aim is to teach spoken English. Handling a corpus that was a representative sample of all varieties of written and spoken language would be mammoth task, perhaps larger than would be justified by the usefulness of the results. Wherever it is possible to predict the uses a language may have for the learner, it should be possible to limit the language taught to that, which has the highest practical return for him.

Even if a count was confined to written language, where words are conveniently identified by the presence of a space before and after, there would still be problems of knowing precisely what the units to be counted were. Not all words have quite the same function. This would actually be revealed by a vocabulary count. Dominating any English frequency list would be things like the article, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, and negative and comparative particles. There are sometimes called grammatical or function words because we use them to establish grammatical relations. The grammar of the language could not operate for long without them and they should be seen as part of the grammatical content of teaching rather than the lexical content. In that case, it is rather pointless to include them among the items to be counted. Therefore, the count requires a grammatical basis, which will clearly identify those items, which are principally grammatical in their function so that they can be excluded from the corpus.

Even when we have set these grammatical words aside, we shall still need to use our description of the language to help us in sorting out cases where orthographic word and lexical item are not the same thing. The best examples of this in English are found in two-word verbs. Look at the following sentences:

He put the milk on the table.

I always put some money by for a rainy day.

My French teacher is putting up for Parliament.

She puts off all her husband's friends.
The secretary put me through to manager.

The orthographic form put occurs in each of these sentences, yet to suggest that these are five occurrences of the verb PUT would be exceedingly misleading. None of the meaning of put in the first sentence seems to be present in the other four. One can replace the first put by place but not any of the others. In fact, it is common to think of these as five (or six) different verbs: put, put by, put up, put off (two meanings) and put through. In our counting, we must be able to distinguish what from now on I will often call 'lexical items.

When actually counting lexical items it is easy to identify the difference between put and put off. It is not only grammatical words, which occupy a high place on frequency lists. We will also find words with multiple or general meanings. They are words, which are not specific enough to be confined to one context of use. An example of this category is the verb make, which will occur very high on any frequency list.

Oxford English Dictionary notes 97 different meanings sometime we are clearly faced with homonyms. The form case may denote some kind of box or alternatively a set of circumstances. However, not all differences of meaning constitute homonyms. Should we, for example, consider *book* in its common sense to be the same as *book* in *book of stamps*? To be useful the statistics should deal with meanings as well as forms. If we were to do this, we might find occurring much higher on the list words of highly specific meaning, the use of which is tied to clearly defined situations. Now such words are considered to be of low frequency. Richards points out that *soap* does not appear in the first 2,000 words of the Thorndike-Lorge list, yet one could hardly deny that it is a useful word to know. We have our haircut, go to the opera, travel on a plane, write a letter, read a notice and ask the way. A person using a foreign language may need to do all of these things and yet they will occupy so little of his language-using time that the relevant lexical items would never appear on a frequency list.

Another difficulty that faces us in counting frequencies is that, however large the corpus, the results may reveal certain oddities. If we take a number of items that form a closed set, like the days of the week or the months of the year, we find marked incongruities in their frequencies of occurrence. If we find that *Thursday* is absent from a straight high-frequency list, we would not conclude that it must be less useful than the other days of the week. We would use our subjective judgment to add *Thursday* to the list. This particular anomaly is easily rectified, but it raises doubts about the assumption that underlies all frequency studies. If frequency does not reflect usefulness in this case, why should it be thought to do so elsewhere? Where items do not belong to such a clearly defined lexical set, their distribution may be equally anomalous. If we look on page 142 of the Thorndike-Large list, we find that *post-office*—presumably a very useful word—is less frequent than, among others, *poverty*, *power*, *prairie*, *prayer*, *preach*, *precede* and *precious*. The explanation for this is to be found in the types of text that make up the

corpus, but this in turn shows that even counts based on a very large corpus may not reflect the usefulness that we would intuitively expect items to have for us.

How necessary is it when constructing materials for learning a foreign language to base the lexical content on the results of a statistical study of language use? In the first place, there are non-statistical criteria, which would need to operate alongside. There is the question of interference from the lexical structure of the mother tongue, of the need to include items that are useful in the classroom if nowhere else, of choosing those words, which fit most conveniently with the methodology, and of excluding those that present particular methodological problems. There is further the problem of reconciling what is desirable for the teaching of vocabulary with what is desirable for grammar and pronunciation. As often as not the criteria conflict and there is no obvious or easy way of determining what weight shall be given to the different sets of criteria.

The original frequency data seem in danger of getting lost among these other considerations. No doubt, those items that would appear on a list of the 2,000 most common words in a language are indeed useful words for a foreigner to acquire. However, as we have seen, learning could not possibly be confined to these items. The teacher himself does not normally choose what vocabulary items his pupils will learn. The writer of the materials he uses usually decides this. If one is going to construct texts from which people are to learn the language, rather than use 'natural' texts, then it may be that for the writer simply to be *aware* of such notions as frequency, *range*, usefulness, language variety and teach ability is enough to ensure that he avoids the mistakes of uncontrolled introduction of vocabulary. The more language teaching is oriented towards meeting the needs of the learners the more likely it is that the situations used for teaching will produce 'useful' language without it having been necessary to draw up an inventory of lexical items beforehand. A reasonable behavioral prediction may do the work that a vocabulary frequency count sets out to do.

4.3 Vocabulary and its Acquisition

So far, we have examined the relative importance of vocabulary and grammar and the selection of vocabulary according to criteria based on the value to the learner of different lexical items. We now turn to the nature of vocabulary itself and thereby to some of the difficulties that vocabulary acquisition presents. It is suggested above that the non-linguist probably considers the acquisition of a foreign language to be a matter of little more than learning a new set of words together with their inflectional characteristics. He will expect the words of the foreign language to have different shapes from those of his mother tongue and he will see his major task in vocabulary learning to be that of remembering which of the forms in the new language to attach to the concepts which he already possesses. He sets out to learn to substitute new words for those, which he knows. The assumption *that* all languages have vocabulary systems in which the words themselves differ but which 'refer to' reality in the same way is common. From it follows the belief that for every word in the mother tongue there is an exact equivalent in each foreign language. It is a belief, which is reinforced by the smaller bilingual dictionaries

where single word translations are often offered, and perhaps too by the practice of teaching vocabulary by setting pupils to learn bilingual lists. It is a belief that should be corrected by even a short exposure to a foreign language, yet as teachers know, it persists into quite advanced stages of learning.

To describe the meaning of words it is necessary to look at them in two respects—in terms of their relations with the physical world, and in terms of their relations with one another. The study of semantics has traditionally been the former, but in recent years, linguists have been more occupied with the latter. Since both are necessary to the full understanding of meaning, we shall look at them each in turn.

4.3.1 Denotation and Connotation

It is clear that there is a relationship between words and concrete objects and activities in the physical world. It appears that we recognize classes of objects and that for each there is an appropriate word which we may use to refer to one or more members of that class or, indeed, to the class as a whole. This relationship is commonly described as the 'denotative' or 'referential' meaning. It is equally obvious that not all the words we use are relatable to physical entities in this way. It is said, therefore, that words like *belief*, *hopeful* or *insist* relate to 'concepts'. It is a small step to take from this to saying that whereas *table* denotes a class of objects (of which we may also have a concept), *belief* denotes a concept of 'belief', however un-observable that may be.

Even within such an approach to the study of semantics, which linguists and others have found unsatisfactory, it is possible to discuss a number of problems of second language acquisition. The difficulties that face the learner are those of language and culture contrast. In the first place, the naive view expressed in the first paragraph of this section is wrong. The physical world does not consist of classes of things, nor are there universal concepts for each of which every language has its own sets of labels. Language learning, therefore, cannot be just a matter of learning to substitute a new set of labels for the familiar ones of the mother tongue. It is not difficult to find a word of equivalent meaning in a given linguistic and social context. It is most unlikely that the same word would prove equivalent in all contexts. Every language classifies physical reality in its own way. There is nothing particularly natural about the fact that in English we use the word *foot* to denote the extremity of the leg. In Russian, there is no equivalent for *foot*—*simply* the word *toga* **in** denote the whole leg including the foot. Not all languages identify the same number of colours, nor are the boundaries between colours necessarily drawn in the same places. In English we operate with only one word *sand*, where in Arabic there are several, each denoting a different type of sand. The same applies to words, which do not have reference to external reality. In spite of their equivalence in many contexts, *education* in English and *Education* in French do not mean the same thing. The concepts involved, though they might overlap, are not co-extensive. It has been argued that our thought and our perception are deeply influenced by the particular segmentation of reality that our language makes. In this view, we tend to be restricted in our perceptions to the categories imposed on us by our language. Our language determines how we see things.

The fact that two different words may have the same form probably does not present any persisting problem to the learner. *Homonyms* like *order* (command) and *order* (sequence) clearly have different denotations and are unlikely to be misinterpreted. However, differences of meaning are by no means always so clear-cut. 'The same lexical item may be used to denote very different types of object and yet be considered by the native speaker to be obviously logical extensions of the 'basic' meaning. To an Englishman it is self-evident that we should be able to use the word *branch* not only of trees, but also of railway-lines and banks.

It is the recognition that the learning of bilingual lists encourages the learner's natural tendency towards inter-lingual identification that has led teachers to look for other ways of teaching meaning than the giving of a mother-tongue equivalent. The procedures adopted are usually 'ostensive' procedures. The word is presented in association with a visual image of an object or activity. The choice of vocabulary is for a time largely confined to 'demonstrable' items. In the commonly taught languages of Europe and America, objective reality is not chopped up by language in radically different ways. The language and cultures derive from common sources and have remained in close contact with one another. Where our vocabulary refers to this concrete world, we can expect consistent similarities. The vocabulary items that can be taught through ostensive definitions may not therefore present many problems, other than the mastery of the form, to learners in these cultures. It is even possible that one could make one's way fairly well by learning single word translation equivalents for words having concrete reference. The aim would be a modest one and the communication would be strictly functional, but this may be no more than some learners hope for the similarities between these languages may at the same time constitute a danger to any ambition that we may have to use the foreign language with great accuracy. Whatever the method the teacher employs, the learner will tend to try to translate, and given the type of vocabulary being taught, he will probably find that he can identify the new words with words in his own language. He will therefore be unprepared for the difficulties that will face him when he meets these same words with extended denotations and when he has to handle more and more words, which do not have external reference. In order to enter the lexical system of a foreign language one may need to assume that its structure is like that of the mother-tongue—and this is achieved where ostensive procedures are used—but from then on the most important thing is to learn that it is in fact different.

Where people are learning a language, which is linguistically and culturally very distinct from their own, the position may be different. Not only will their linguistic view of the world be strikingly different. The actual contents of that world and the life that is led in it may be very different too. Such learners will have the difficulty that even at the beginning there is very little that can be transferred from their mother tongue. They will have to learn to categorize familiar things in different ways and unfamiliar things without the benefit of any point of reference in their own culture. It may be that in the end they will gain from the fact that it is hardly possible for them to entertain the idea that words in different languages are equivalent to one another.

So far, we have been talking about that relation between words and external reality, which is called denotation. However important denotation may be, our understanding of a word is not complete if we know only to what it may refer. In our mother tongue, what a word communicates to us is also partly the product of the associations, linguistic and non-linguistic, that have been built up through our previous experience of the word. This aspect of meaning is usually called 'connotation'. Connotative meaning is additional to denotative meaning and need be related to it only in an indirect way. It is altogether more concerned with the attitudes of the language user, his emotional reactions to the use of a word. The words *relinquish* and *abandon* in the two sentences below illustrate this. Although each is denotatively equivalent to *give up*, what we understand on hearing these two sentences is by no means identical.

He abandoned his post.

He relinquished his post.

The strong implication of blame which is present in the first sentence is completely absent from the second. Since we share the contexts in which language is used with other members of our culture, it is not surprising that much of the connotative meaning of words is also shared. However, it is also true that words may have associations of a purely personal character and therefore meanings, which are not shared with anybody. The very fact that such meanings are not shared makes them irrelevant to language teaching.

It is perfectly possible for words to have similar denotations and connotations cross-culturally, in which case a learner is not presented with any real problem. Difficulty will most often occur where items of similar denotation have different connotations. The language of politics provides some obvious examples. Both Russians and Americans may refer to the sole political party of the Soviet Union as *communist*, but for the one it will have connotations of approval, for the other of disapproval. The converse might be true of *capitalism*. While on the subject of politics, one might mention what seems to be a rare case of 'equitable' words having similar connotations but dissimilar denotations. *Socialism* is a word used in many parts of the world by politicians to denote their political philosophies and practices. These philosophies and practices, and hence the denotations of the word *socialism*, differ, but the connotations are almost universally favorable. To some extent, connotations are derived from the culture and are only properly understood when the culture itself is understood. *Bull* and *bullfight* will hardly mean the same thing to a Spaniard as they do to a member of the Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals.

Studying the differences of connotational meaning objectively is obviously very hard, since the nuances are often slight and difficult to grasp. An attempt to establish and display these differences was developed by the psychologist, C. E. Osgood." He set up a technique known as the 'semantic differential', which required his subjects to rate the meaning of a given word on a number of seven-point scales. A pair of opposed adjectives represented the end-points of each scale. In effect, the subject was being asked to classify his response to the word as relatively *happier* or *sadder*, *slower* or *faster*, more *flexible* or

more *rigid* and so on. In all, there were fifty of these pairs of adjectives. The fifty responses of one subject would produce a profile representing the meaning of that word for him and the responses from a number of subjects would produce a semantic profile for the culture as a whole. The connotational element in this profile would be a large one. The comparison of responses by native speakers of different languages to denotationally 'equivalent' words revealed that they did have different profiles. This research provides confirmation of a strong intuitive belief about differences of meaning between languages and at the same time makes available a tool for research into the acquisition of vocabulary.

The learner of a foreign language can, hardly expect that words will have the same connotations for him as they do for native speakers. His experience of the language can never be as extensive or as intensive as theirs. But from the first moment that he begins to experience the language in use, especially language not produced specifically for the learner but aimed at other native speakers, he will begin to acquire some of the connotations that it has for the native speaker.

4.3.2 Lexical Structure: Paradigmatic Relations

Until now, the entire discussion has been in terms of individual words and their meanings. The implication of this has been that each word 'has' a meaning, and that although no doubt one can discover relations between the meanings of different words, these relations derive from the meanings that the words have and do not contribute to the meanings. This approach is largely the traditional one. Looking at linguistically the situation may be seen as exactly the reverse. Words are not comprehensible solely in terms of their referents. It is more important to study the complex and varied types of relations that exist between words. These are the relationships that determine the semantic structure of a language, and acquiring a language means acquiring its semantic structure as much as anything else does. We can examine this notion of semantic structure by looking at some of the possible relations suggested by Lyons.

1. **Synonymy:** A 'weak' rather than a 'strong' definition is given to 'synonymy', in that there is no expectation that words will be substitutable for one another in all contexts without distinction of meaning. However, in a given context, it is possible that one item will be substituted for another with the overall meaning of the utterance remaining the same. For example *conception* is a synonym of *idea* in the context:
My idea of a university is of a community of scholars where the substitution of *conception* does not seem to change what the sentence communicates. However, in the sentence:
His new idea seems a good one no such substitution is possible, and therefore in this context *conception* is not a synonym of *idea*. For any one lexical item over a range of contexts a pattern of substitutability would emerge as we discovered where words could replace one another and where not.
2. **Hyponymy:** By hyponymy' is meant a relationship of inclusion. *Vehicle* includes *car*, *bus* and so on. Just as the meaning of *vehicle* depends upon what its hyponyms are, so the meaning of *car* depends on its being a hyponym of *vehicle* and its

sharing this status with a number of other words. If there is some change in the constitution of this set, inevitably the meaning of each of its members changes. More important from our point of view is that relations of hyponymy are not the same from one language to another.

3. **Incompatibility:** The relation of 'incompatibility' is in a sense the reverse of hyponymy, in that it is one of exclusion. The incompatibility is between items that are similar in meaning. To say *morning* is to say *not afternoon*, *not evening* and *not night*. A relation of incompatibility also exists between colour terms since the choice of *red*, for example, entails the exclusion of *black*, *blue*, *yellow* and soon. Not all colour terms are incompatible. *Scarlet* is a hyponym of *red*.
4. **Complementarity:** This is a relationship in which to predicate one term is to contradict another. It exists between pairs like *perfect* and *imperfect*, *single* and *married*, or *dead* and *alive*. If we were to falsify one by inserting *not* before it we would automatically assert the truth of the other.
5. **Antonymy:** Lyons reserves the term 'antonym' for relations like that between *young* and *old*. The difference between these and the previous category lies in the fact that to say *not young* is not necessarily to say *old*. There is a graduation from *young* to *old*. In fact terms like *young* and *old*, *big* and *small* or *few* and *many* do not represent absolute values as one is inclined to think. To use one of the terms is to imply a comparison with some *norm*—*young means relatively young*. By an apparent paradox, use of the comparative forms is not at all incompatible with simultaneous use of the antonym:
 She is young but she is older than her sister is.
 To be *older* she does not have to be *old*. It is also usual for one of each pair to be *unmarked* in certain contexts. To ask:
 How old is he? Implies nothing of the speaker's expectations, whereas:
 How young is he? Anticipates that the individual referred to is to be classified as *young*. As with synonyms, relations of antonymy need not apply in all contexts. There are a number of possible antonyms of *dry*, although probably none except *wet* has as wide a range of use. In contrast to *dry air* we would prefer *damp air* rather than *wet* or *moist air*. In contrast to *dry lips*, we probably prefer *moist lips*.
6. **Converseness:** In this case, the predication of one term inevitably implies the other. Pairs like parent and child illustrate it. *Buy* and *sell*, or *employee* and *employer*.

This structural approach to meaning, which provides an alternative to the more traditional analysis in terms of denotation and connotation, does not in any way deny that items of language may relate to concrete features of the real world, but it does suggest that the *meaning* of an item can only be satisfactorily defined in terms of its relations with other words. If intralinguistic relations are as important as this suggests, it is unlikely that meaning can be adequately learned through associations of words with visual and physical context. These ostensive procedures, while they may be necessary, will not prove sufficient. The use of regalia and visual aids is to exploit ostension as a way of introducing the meaning of words, but valuable as it is to build up the range of associations between words and objects, the extension of meaning can only be brought

about by integrating words into a linguistic context so that the complex inter-relationships can be allowed to operate.

4.3.3 Lexical Structure: Syntagmatic Relations

We have now discussed the relations between lexical items and external reality and the intralinguistic relations between lexical items on a paradigmatic axis. However, there are also relations between words occurring in sequence, and to round off our discussion of vocabulary we deal briefly with these syntagmatic relations in lexical structure.

Syntagmatic relations between lexical items are interesting because in every language there are items, which co-occur with high frequency, others, which co-occur as the need arises and still others whose co-occurrence seems impossible. If one could predict these facts from knowledge of the meanings of the words in isolation they would present no difficulty, but prediction is frequently difficult and often impossible. Where items tend to co-occur repeatedly, a 'collocation' is produced. Items are said to collocate with one another.

To illustrate the difficulties presented to the learner by the probabilities of lexical co-occurrence, let us have a look at some adjective noun combinations in English taking *noise* as the noun and bearing in mind that co-occurrence restrictions may operate between any lexical items in a sentence—subject noun and verb, verb and object noun, subject noun and object noun, verb and prepositional phrase, verb and adverb, and so on. First, there are some combinations that we will simply not expect to occur—*tall noise*, *fast noise*, *painted noise*. We will not expect them because in each case the semantic features of the adjective and the noun seem incompatible. Our knowledge of the semantics of the individual words will enable us to predict that they will not co-occur. Since we do not meet tall or painted noises in the real world, there is no problem here for the learner of English as a foreign language. Nothing will lead him even to attempt to produce this combination of forms, nor will he hear anybody else producing it. This is one reason why some current preoccupations of linguists are unlikely to be of interest to language teachers. The linguists are very much interested in discovering just what the semantic features are which make it impossible for us to collocate certain items. They are trying to bring the absence of tall noises within their linguistic description.

Secondly, there are items which are semantically compatible and which may co-occur, yet which are not associated habitually enough to be considered collocations. From under the bonnet of one's car there may come *new noises* and *old noises*. Presumably, we could include here *rustling*, *rumbling* and *clanging noises* too. The borderline between co-occurrences of this sort and collocations will not be a hard and fast one. It is presumably only because we need to talk about *loud noises* more often than new or old noises that we may consider it a collocation. However, before discussing collocations, we must look at the first of the difficulties of the language learner.

Each of the above co-occurrences would be understood the first time it was heard, because the hearer would already know the meaning of the separate parts. Similarly, the

learner himself might produce them without ever having heard them because he knows that the meanings of the parts are compatible; but unfortunately joining together semantically compatible parts does not always produce an acceptable co-occurrence, and the learner has no way of distinguishing the acceptable from the unacceptable.

The words *low* and *high* can both be used to refer to volume of sound. We could ask someone to *turn it down low* or to *turn it up high*. Opposed to a *loud noise* we may have a *low noise*. Since *low* can be opposed to *high*, it seems entirely reasonable to expect the co-occurrence *high noise*. In fact, the sequence is permissible, but never with *high* as a synonym of *loud*. Similarly, since in many contexts *quiet* seems opposed to *loud*, we might expect *quiet noise*, and yet this hardly seems acceptable. The unacceptability of this kind of co-occurrence is quite unlike that described above. There is no incompatibility in the semantics of the individual words. For this reason, it is a frequent cause of error in non-native speakers. A native speaker looking at something written by a foreigner will often be able to pick out pieces of language that he feels not to be correct although very often he has great difficulty in deciding what it is that is wrong.

Some collocations are not different in kind from the acceptable co-occurrences that we have just been examining. There is just a much greater likelihood of their occurrence. If I am sitting alone in a house, any noises I hear are more likely to be described as *strange noises* than *unusual*, *bizarre*, *peculiar* or *abnormal*. It seems that from among a number that will meet our needs quite well we regularly prefer one. Not that the possibility of using the others is excluded, of course.

This does not introduce any new difficulty for the language learner except in a situational sense. Even the extremely proficient foreign language speaker is still likely to be marked out as a non-native speaker if in his speech and writing he seems to avoid the collocations that would be characteristic of the native speaker. The choice of a non-collocational sequence will go unnoticed in one sentence, provided it is semantically acceptable. But over a whole passage the pattern of regularly choosing the unusual sequence begins to look unnatural.

It is when the meanings of collocations cannot be predicted from the meanings of individual elements in them that they become most interesting and most difficult. These sequences are often called 'idioms'. Their meanings will not be readily apparent even to the native speaker when he first is exposed to them. They have a tendency to fossilize as complete units even to the point on occasions of preserving forms, which no longer occur outside the collocation. We find this in an expression like *kith and kin*. The variety and range of idiomatic collocations in any language is vast—to *take someone in*, *to know your onions*, *to lose your head*, *a smashing time*, *a dolly bird* or, to stick with occurrences of *noise*, *a big noise*. Idiomatic collocations are not a feature restricted to colloquial uses of language, although informal speech is often particularly rich in them. There are plenty which are acceptable in all styles of speech—to *look after*, *to give up*, *to make up*, *so as to*, *in order to*, *in point of fact*, for example.

Collocations, both idiomatic and non-idiomatic, have always been included in monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. They have never been studied in a systematic way on a large scale. This means that those, which come to be cited, in bilingual dictionaries at least, are often only an intuitive selection from among those that might have been included. Valuable as such information is, how often one has found on referring to a dictionary that everything seemed to be there except the collocation one was looking for. A further problem lies in the transitoriness of some collocations. Nothing else seems to date quite as rapidly as yesterday's idioms. Familiarity with collocations is normally considered a mark of high proficiency in a foreign language. The appropriateness of idiom to situation is very difficult to master, and where a student has acquired idioms through the memorization of lists of them, it is usually apparent through his inability to restrict their use only to the appropriate circumstances.

While collocations are clearly suited to differing degrees of formality, they may be situationally restricted in other ways too. There are collocations in English, which will not be known to quite a large proportion of mature native speakers. Thus, *only people with certain professional interests would understand white noise*. There may also be collocations—not idiomatic this time—whose meaning will vary geographically. The collocation *green orange* appears to be made up of two incompatible elements. Of course this is not so. As we read it we will understand that it relates to a fruit that is orange when ripe, but green when unripe. *Green orange* is synonymous with *unripe orange*. What most of us will not know is that there are parts of the world, and varieties of orange, for which the implication of *green orange* would be *ripe orange*. The meaning of the collocation *green orange* therefore will vary according to the provenance of the speaker.

4.3.4 Implications for the Teaching of Meaning

The problems of learning vocabulary are caused by the lack of equivalence between the lexical items of different languages. All the preceding discussion would have been superfluous if this was not the case. Vocabulary learning is learning to discriminate progressively the meanings of words in the target language from the meanings of their nearest 'equivalents' in the mother tongue. It is also learning to make the most appropriate lexical choices for particular linguistic and situational contexts. The contribution that our understanding of vocabulary acquisition makes to teaching is largely that it enables us to define the necessary conditions for learning. The evaluation of vocabulary teaching is then a question of whether or not it meets these conditions.

To begin with, it will help us to understand the place of translation. To offer a translation equivalent of an unfamiliar word is not to teach its meaning, though it probably helps the pupil to understand the new word in that particular context. If any meaning is associated with the L2 word, it will be the meaning of the L1 word." As a technique of teaching meaning, translation is in the long run unsound. However, there may be occasions when the teacher does not wish to teach the meaning of a new word, although he does want the learner to understand it in the single context in which it has occurred. For this purpose the teacher may use interlingual synonymy quite legitimately. Such a situation could arise where the teacher is more concerned with the general content of a text than with the

meaning of the individual items it contains. What the teacher must not then do is assume that because his pupils might be able to tell him the translation equivalent of the word *in that context*, they have learned the meaning of the word.

The learning of word-lists is faulty not only because each word is usually associated with its mother-tongue equivalent, but also because each word is linguistically and situationally isolated. However, words are not learnable as isolates. In the first place, words which are used for referential purposes and which are usually taught through ostensive techniques, must be associated with as wide a variety of visual stimuli as possible. The use of a single visual image will imply that the class of items that can be referred to in the foreign language is identical to the class to which the object belongs in the mother tongue. The use of a variety of stimuli may help to correct this assumption and at the same time will exploit the fact that according to psychologists, people learn and retain better words which have been presented to them with a range of visual and other associations."

We have seen too that simply to present words in association with the things they denote is not enough. It does not help the learner to know which the items to which the word cannot refer are. In other words, for learning to be complete, there must be contrast. The boundaries of denotation are defined only when a number of related words have been introduced and associated with relevant objects and images. The learning of meaning is not simply a process of aggregation. The meaning of one word is not built up in complete separation from the meaning of other words. Since it is through our language that we classify things in the universe and since languages provide us with different classifications, linguistic and visual contrasts are essential to the learning of referential meaning.

The question arises as to whether we should make explicit use of the significant linguistic relationships indicated by a structural approach to semantics. Whenever the learner is in contact with spoken and written utterances, he is exposed to these intralinguistic relations, but it might be possible to go further than simple exposure by constructing materials to exploit notions like synonymy, hyponymy and antonymy. Practice is divided. There are ardent advocates and equally ardent opponents of using L2 synonyms and antonyms as a way of teaching meaning. The counter-argument is usually that in the absence of 'true synonymns' it is misleading to use them at all. Yet the structural interpretation of meaning might lead us to precisely the opposite conclusion. In the restricted use of *synonym* given above, it is recognized that there may be a substitute for a word in a given context. The synonymy will be with one or more of the semantic features that the word has, but not with all of them. For each context in which the word is used there may be a different synonym, because it is a different set of features that is significant. A study of the different synonyms, antonyms and hyponyms that a word has may well be the only way that the full meaningfulness of a word can be brought out. Extensive reading in a foreign language without directed study of vocabulary may often fail to reveal to the learner all that he could learn about the vocabulary. No doubt even close word study of the sort will not necessarily turn into an active command of words

and their semantic features. However, it is to be expected that lexical items will only slowly become meaningful to a learner in the same way that they are meaningful to a native speaker. Just as one can have text-based study for the acquisition of syntax, so one can make use of texts to show the whole network of relations that a word may have. The justification is not that the pupil will retain all the details of the network, merely that he will take in enough for the word to have become slightly more meaningful than it was before.

Probably the clearest conclusion that can be drawn from the study of meaning is that given the complexity of relations involved, the acquisition of meaning is neither a simple process nor one that is ever complete. It is naive to believe that any pupil at an early stage of language learning 'has learnt' the meaning of a word. So vast is the network of intralinguistic and extra linguistic relations involved that the acquisition of meaning can only be a gradual process of progressive discrimination following on the rather crude initial assumptions of equivalence between first and second language lexical items. To achieve this is impossible without massive exposure to the language, and this in turn can probably be achieved only through extensive reading in the foreign language. Through reading, the learner is led to recognize the non-equivalence of L1 and L2 items. He is exposed to the lexical items embedded in natural linguistic contexts, and as a result they begin slowly to have the same meaningfulness for him that they have for the native speaker. His exposure to language written by native speakers, especially language written in a variety of styles for a variety of purposes, will also develop his sensitivity to the collocations that native speakers prefer. Without contact on a large scale his judgment of lexical appropriateness will remain unsure and unsound.

There is one important implication to this emphasis on the necessity of extensive exposure through reading. Much discussion of foreign language learning has been bedeviled by the over-simple conviction, first, that a form will not become a part of the pupil's productive repertoire unless he is given ample opportunity to practice it when it first occurs, and secondly, that the only valid aim of foreign language teaching is to set up this repertoire. This has led to a very widely accepted methodology in which every item, grammatical or lexical, at its first occurrence in a teaching sequence is made the object of practice material. It is held that a lesson should not contain new items unless the learner is going to be given the opportunity of practicing those items. The content of a unit is therefore bound to be restricted to what it is feasible to practice in the time available. If one was to insist on maintaining this approach, extensive reading would scarcely be possible, since many items will be met which are not immediately practiced and which do not become part of the learner's 'active' vocabulary.

In fact, neither of these points need be seen as a serious drawback. First, learners do sometimes remember and subsequently use an item, which they did not repeat at the time they first heard it; and secondly, it is a wholly undesirable restriction on the learner to require that he should be unable to understand any more than he is able to produce. This would put him at a considerable disadvantage in comparison with the native speaker who has a far larger 'passive' than 'active' vocabulary. It would be unnatural, therefore, to limit

the foreign learner to a purely 'active' vocabulary. It is perfectly proper that we should use texts in which some of the lexical content is intended for comprehension only. It is no argument against extensive reading to say that the learner may misunderstand or even fail to place any meaning at all on some of the lexical items. It is in any case an experience for which he needs to be prepared, since he will meet it as soon as he is exposed to the language outside the teaching situation.

4.4 Summary

In most situations, a large vocabulary load in the early stages of learning is usually a hindrance. It is more important to ensure the learning of the grammatical system. The criteria by which the vocabulary content of learning is selected are not strictly speaking linguistic. They relate to the eventual usefulness of lexical items to the learner or their value to the teacher and his techniques. Learning vocabulary is learning how words relate to external reality and how they relate to one another. Every language interprets the physical world in its own way and intralinguistic relations vary from language to language too. So complex is the semantic structure of a language that it can be acquired only through wide exposure and this in turn can probably only be provided by extensive reading.

4.5 Exercises

1. Discuss relation between grammar and vocabulary.
2. How can we select vocabulary for writing?
3. What are denotative and connotative meanings of words?
4. Describe lexical structure from paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations.
5. What are implications for the teaching of meaning?

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Unit–5

TEACHING OF PHONOLOGY

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Introduction

This unit introduces the basic concept of phonology, phoneme and related concepts in language teaching and linguistics. It traces the notion of phonological awareness and importance of pronunciation as an integral part of the course. Moreover, the students are made aware of the concept of generative phonology and the role of generative grammar to understand the correct phonetic representations of utterances.

Objectives

At the end of unit the students are expected:

1. To know the basic concept of phonology and phonemes
2. To understand the notion of pronunciation in language teaching
3. To have a sound knowledge of phonological awareness
4. To grasp the idea of generative phonology

5.1 What Is Phonology?

Phonology is essentially the description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in a language. Phonology is concerned with the abstract or mental aspects of the sounds in language rather than with the actual physical articulation of speech sounds. The blue print of each sound type and underlying design is known as Phonology that serves basis of all variations in different types of physical articulation in different context. Phonology is also known as phonemes in languages. Its teaching includes phonemes, stress, accent, intonation, (elision, intrusion and catenation) which are known as features of connected speech. Many linguistic disciplines that includes cognitive science, sociolinguistics and language acquisition are related to Phonology.

- By studying phonology, students get to know the difference between phonetics and phonology.
- Learn how to identify main parts of phonology.
- Understand the combinations of sound and system of sounds.
- Difference between allophones and phonemes.
- It shows the principles that how and in which way sounds are produced in languages and different variations.
- use of phonology in linguistics:

They are closely related sub disciplines of linguistics. Phonologists look for regular patterns in sets of data and write rules that capture the unconscious adjustments to pronunciation speakers make under the influence of neighboring sounds. They also develop theoretical models to account for the distinctive sounds of a language, the features that make up each sound and for the ways both sounds and features are combined. These theoretical models may employ sets of rules that derive utterances from a combination of units, or they may show how speakers arrive at “optimal” utterances through a process of elimination.

5.2 Importance of Phonology

Phonology is about sounds considered to be structured for conveying linguistic meaning so in the context of speaking a language, this is very important because a language is only understood if spoken phonologically correct.

5.3 Types of Phonology

Phonetics is divided into three types according to the production (articulatory), transmission (acoustic) and perception (auditive) of sounds. Three categories of sounds must be recognized at the outset: phones (human sounds), phonemes (units which distinguish meaning in a language), and allophones (non-distinctive units).

5.4 Importance of Teaching Awareness in Phonology

Phonemic awareness is important because it is critical to reading and spelling success. Children who cannot distinguish and manipulate the sounds within spoken words have difficulty in recognizing and learning the necessary print sound relationship that is critical to proficient reading and spelling success.

5.5 Example of Phonology

An example of phonology is the study of different sounds and the way they come together to form speech and words - such as the comparison of the sounds of the two "p" sounds in "pop-up."

5.6 Phonetics and Phonology

Phonetics and phonology are two different terms that are used in Linguistics. Phonetics is to serve as introduction to the first speech sounds that are made by a human language. Phonology on the other hand, is the basic idea behind the association of the sound systems of human language. Specific sounds are studied under the heading Phonology. e.g. Arabic. While phonetics is the overall study of sound.

5.7 Teaching of Pronunciation

Teaching pronunciation has been a great task for teachers in the history of language, its teaching method and learning it. At first it wasn't given importance that it acquired. But recently from near 20th century, linguists have been paying great importance to it. Taking acoustics and synchronic linguistics as a framework, academics have tried to create use of the various elements of those core disciplines so as to use them to their lecture room during this respect that are phonology and phonetics.

Importance of Phonetics and Phonology to the Pronunciation Component:

For a long period of time, teachers have been looking ways to teach students foreign language that are totally different from their native language. The most useful solution they have come up with is International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). It aims at providing visually different symbols for all speech sounds which are phonologically different in any language. Pronunciation has been divided to 2 parts namely distinctive-feature analysis and structuralist analysis. Linguists have developed a hierarchy of priorities that is applicable to the teaching of pronunciation.

That are stated as below:

1. Suprasegmental phonemes.
2. Segmental phonemes.
3. Allophones in complementary distribution.
4. Allophones in free Alliteration.

The teaching of pronunciation has witnessed a substantial quantity of changes in each approaches and techniques. Since the increase of ancient approaches to teaching, teaching pronunciation has gained momentum. However, with the enlarged concentration on the learner in learner-centered approaches and with the continued stress on the communicative side of teaching, lecturers have sought-after new ways that of incorporating pronunciation with alternative language skills. This has resulted in pronunciation being joined in the main to speaking and listening. Nonetheless, one shouldn't deny the role of acoustics and descriptive linguistics within the teaching of pronunciation since a lot of students area unit alert to the precepts and underpinnings of those branches of study, the a lot of they're going to become alert to the idiosyncrasies of the target language and also the a lot of they're probably to attain a native-like pronunciation.

One of the most famous phonetician Sir Henry said in his book "Without phonetics, we can neither observe nor record the simplest phenomena of language" *Methods of Teaching Phonetics and Phonology*:

- Students who stay more silent than usual during a class have to be kept in check periodically. This could be a sign of them suffering from anxiety when a fresh word pops up. They intellectually seal their auditory senses and avert paying attention in the class. Such students are not necessarily dumb but they must be dealt with in such a way as their sound-related discernment is extremely delicate. Whenever recognized, these students must be taken into care of in such a way they don't get further worry inside the class.
- Elocution drills incorporate rehashing (parroting), emulating, mirroring, acting and so forth.
- At the point when the kid or young lady is instructed a firmly articulated new word, the educator needs to trigger his or her continuous flow so the individual stores the word alongside an image in his or her memory.
- Missteps in articulations ought to be taken care of so that they need to support the brains of the student not by just redressing but rather additionally future restorative measures without anyone else.
- Exercises incorporating cards with letters and precedent words with their relative articulation ought to be coursed for the entire class so the way toward learning turns into a satisfied one.
- Students who are actually splendid ought to be supported and yet they ought to be rationed in such a way, that they don't influence the learning procedure of the dull or the timid one.
- At the point, when the above said exercises are performed normally the learning turns into an automatic one.

Problems of Teaching Phonetics and Phonology

- Any error may prompt distortion by the audience members or gives an impression of an outside accent.

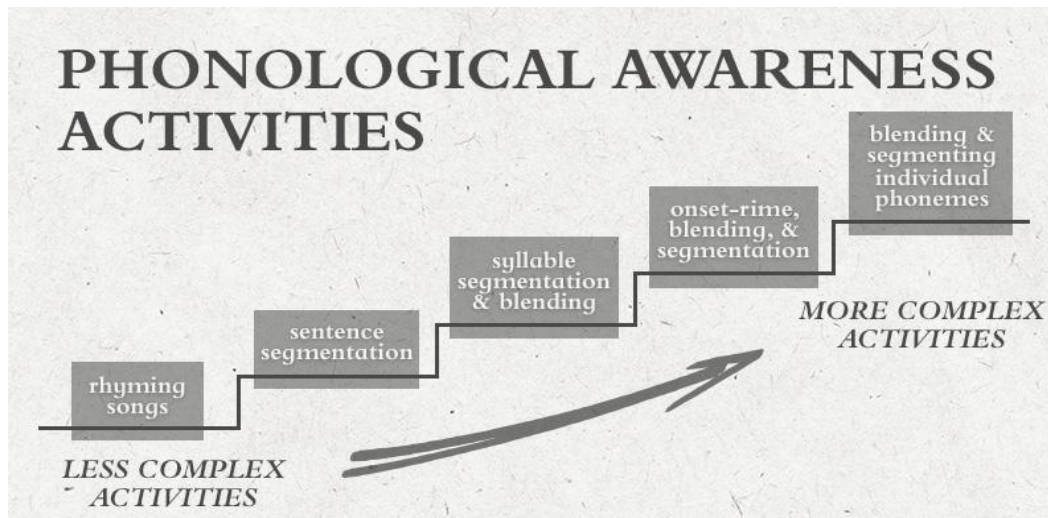
- A standout amongst the most burdensome assignments when learning a language is focusing on memory enough words to enable you to convey what needs be paying little mind to the circumstance or subject.
- English punctuation is famously problematic. Its trouble prompts a large number of regular oversights, which even local speakers have difficulty dealing with.
- Distinctive nationalities have issues with various parts of English articulation, and there is anything but an extraordinary arrangement they can do about it other than training over and over again until they begin to shape the capacity to make the correct sounds. Numerous EFL students discover the "th" sound hard to articulate, in light of the fact that it's very rare in different dialects.
- Another contrast among English and some different dialects is the quantity of consonants it's conceivable to assemble in a syllable – up to three.
- Similarly as it's not constantly conceivable to figure the spelling of a word dependent on how it sounds, articulation of officially troublesome sounds is made more diligently by the way that it's regularly difficult to think about how a word is articulated dependent on its spelling. “bough”, “cough” and “dough” are all pronounced differently despite having similar spellings.
- English has bunches of quiet letters that aren't articulated. For instance, “k” is silent in “knife” and “know”.
- English elocution is made increasingly troublesome by the plenty of local tongues that imply that a similar word can be articulated in all respects contrastingly relying upon who is expressing it.

Importance of Good Pronunciation

Learning English elocution is significant for all individuals concentrating English as a second language. Great elocution makes a student's English justifiable and correspondence among speakers and audience members fruitful. Phonetics is significant for the researchers, yet in addition any individual, who either educates or learns an unknown dialect. A standout amongst the most significant uses of phonetics is in showing previously unknown dialects. It enables instructors to analyze the contrasts between the hints of source and target dialects and disclose this distinction to students. It likewise empowers students to more readily comprehend and talk the language they are learning.

Phonological Awareness

Its ability is to segment and to manipulate the sounds of oral language. It is different from phonics which involves how letters relate to spoken sounds. Activities involve in Phonology awareness include rhyme, beginning sounds, syllables. The best way to teach phonology awareness is through games, songs, hands on activities, poems, read aloud books.



Importance of Phonemes Awareness

The sounds are considered to be structured for conveying linguistic meaning. The context of speaking language is very important because it can only be understood if spoken phonologically is correct.

Example

The example of phonology is to study about different sounds and how they came together to form speech and words. The comparison of the sounds of the two “p” sounds in “pop-up”.

Phonemes

In linguistics, a Phoneme is the smallest unit that distinguishes one word from another, as the letter p in tap, that separates that word from tab, tag, and tan. A phoneme is considered to be less central in phonological theory. According to production, there are 44 phonemes in English. There are just 26 letters in the English language with 44 unique sounds. These 44 sounds distinguish one word from another. It is a kind of sound or group of sounds that is perceived to have the same function by speakers. It also includes vowels and consonants.

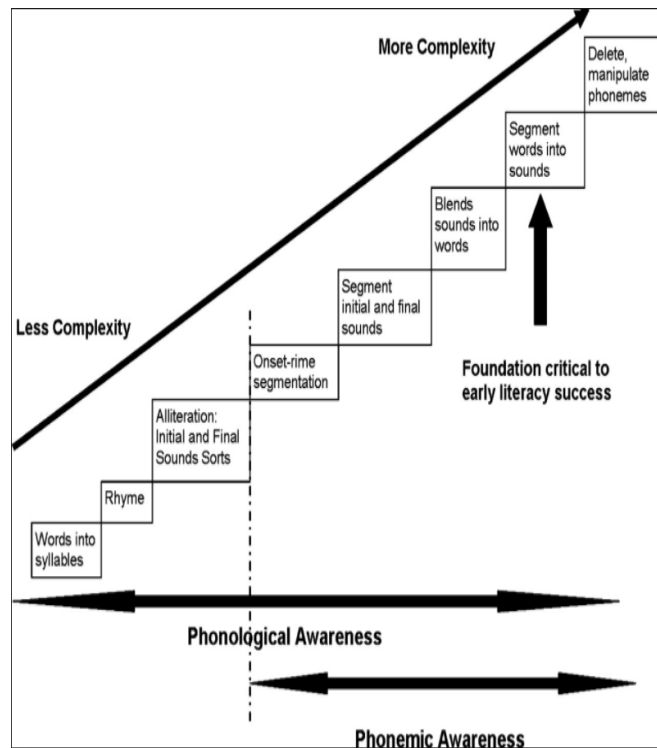
Phonemes Awareness

Phonemes include individual units of sounds that make some words. Let us take the example of the word “sat” which includes three phonemes (s-a-t). Phonemic awareness not only includes the recognition of words that are made up from small units of sounds. It can also break down, manipulate and blend phonemes. Research has shown that for a child’s success, phonemic awareness is the single strongest indicator for learning and reading. There will be an increase in children’s awareness abilities to decode and understand what they are reading.

Phonemes awareness can be done by following methods.

- Isolation.
- Identity.
- Categorization.

- Blending.
- Segmentation.
- Deletion.



Teaching of Phonemes

It should be done by following methods.

There should be focus on one sound at a time also make the learning a memorable.

Help the child to listen for the sounds.

Apply letter sound skills to reading.

Generative Phonology

Generative phonology is a part of transformational generative linguistics. Generative phonology handles the sound system of language in highly abstract terms and it is for this reason that the details of a generative phonological description are likely to be of no more than academic interest to the language teacher. A distinction is made between the phonetic forms in which morphemes, words, phrases etc. are actually realized and the 'under-lying forms' which they have. These underlying forms are more abstract in that they give less information about the actual phonetic shapes that units may take in a given utterance. Indeed, it is not possible to state with any accuracy from looking at the underlying form of a word how it might be pronounced. For this, we must know the rules, and the phonological component of a descriptive grammar is a set of rules for giving a phonetic form to an underlying unit. There is no place for the type of phonemes or the

sort of phonemic level of analysis outlined above. Why do linguists propose that there should be these underlying forms, often rather far removed from the 'surface' form words eventually have? If we take conventional phonemic transcriptions of capacious, capacity, audacious, audacity, rapacious, rapacity, they will look like this:

/kə'peɪʃəs/	/kə'pasɪti/
/ɔ:'deɪʃəs/	/ɔ:'dasɪti/
/rə'peɪʃəs/	/rə'pasɪti/

There is little indication of any relation between the noun and the adjective. The linguist aims at to make the widest and most significant generalizations about the language he is describing, and he must show all the relations that exist within the language. Relations of derivation such as hold between words like capacious and capacity are just significant as other types of relations in English. In the grammar of the language this should be clear. It would not be clear if we had only a phonemic transcription of such words.

This can be restated in mentalist terms, although not all linguists would accept this. It seems reasonable to suppose that when each speaker of English stores a word away in his mind, that word is not necessarily represented in a form that closely resembles its pronunciation, but in a form that makes the relations with other words most clear. It is hard to believe that as speakers of English we are not fully conscious that there is a relation between capacious and capacity and that this formal and semantic relation is the same as that of the other pairs above. In fact it may not, be words that are stored but morphemes—roots and rules for adding derivational affixes.

Further evidence of the need for an underlying representation is found in those words which are pronounced in more than one way. We saw that can is pronounced /kæn/ /kən/ or /kan/. Are there then three different words? Surely not. But if there are not, which representation is the best candidate for a citation form? Probably /kæn/ because the other two can be derived by a general rule of English phonology from it. In making a language description we have to decide which the best representation is. In writing about English in conventional orthography, we have no difficulty. In writing the second sentence of this paragraph I was able to use the orthographic form for citation. I was using can as a fairly abstract representation, which enabled me to avoid using a phonemic transcription. The one representation permitted me to refer simultaneously to all possible actual pronunciations of the word.

As it happens the only detailed generative study of English phono-logy that we have to date sets up underlying forms that are often very close to the traditional orthographic forms. We see the relation of capacious and capacity far more clearly from the orthographic forms than we could from the phonemic transcriptions. It was not the aim of Chomsky & Halle(1997) to justify English orthography, but it happens that their analysis has produced representations that demonstrate how much grammatical information there is in English orthography which would be lost if ever there was a major spelling reform. In theory underlying forms need not resemble orthographic forms at all.

In a generative grammar the underlying forms of words (or morphemes) are put into sequences by the application of grammatical rules and then a set of phonological rules is applied to them. In the case of English these rules assign stress patterns to morphemes, words and sentences, reduce vowels and produce vowel and consonant alternations, so that by the application of this explicit set of rules the underlying string of morphemes is converted into a sequence of phonetic elements which accurately represents our production of the sentence. It requires an extremely complex set of rules to do this, and in recent linguistic descriptions these rules are expressed in a form that makes them inaccessible to the non-linguist. The rules are applied to the underlying form in a predetermined sequence. Each rule changes the form of the word on which it operates and the next rule is then applied to the resulting form. A word passes through a succession of forms until the last rule has been applied. The result of this rule can be converted into a speech-form but none of the preceding forms can. They are all abstract.

The language teacher can only work through the phonetic form that words have in actual utterances. We might wish to believe that the foreigner 'must learn those rules as the native speaker does, but 'learning' means the internalization of the rules on the basis on inductions from contact with the language. It is not credible that anyone could learn to internalize these rules on the basis of a prior externalization of them. Explicit discussion of the rules, far from being the short-cut that it might arguably be for grammar learning, would prove a very long way round indeed. Chomsky and Halle say that their underlying representations close as they are to normal orthography, are perfectly adequate for native speakers of English. After all, the native speaker does not require information on pronunciation from orthography. He already knows how his language is pronounced. It is perfectly reasonable therefore that a system of orthography should reveal relations at a deeper, 'psychologically more real' level. We have seen that these relations are more evident in Chomsky and Halle's phonological representations. However, although they say that 'there is, for the moment, little evidence that phonemic transcription is a "psychologically real" system', they agree that their own transcription is of little use for one who wishes to produce tolerable speech without knowing the language. The student, learning English as a foreign language, is just such a person, at least until he has mastered a great deal of the language. 'For such purposes a phonetic alphabet, or the regularized phonetic representations called "phonemic" in modern linguistics, would be superior'." The authors are in effect suggesting the inapplicability of their theory to language teaching. If there is nothing to be gained by teaching these generative rules, that is not to say that one has to throw in the towel and say that nothing can be done to facilitate the development of the rules in the individual. Modern language teaching has not substituted simple random exposure for rule-teaching. Instead it has attempted to predigest the raw language data by organizing the exposure systematically on lines which, it is assumed, ease the internalization of the language structure. There is no reason why one could not do the same with the phonology, presenting sequences of related forms to the learners in the belief, as yet unproved, but at least plausible, that this helps the learner to assimilate the rules. So, for the teaching of English, the learner might be required to repeat, with phonetic accuracy, sequences like these:

'Alternate al tentative alternation'

Contemplate	con ternplative	contemplation
'Demonstrate	demonstrative	demon station
'Indicate	indicative	indication
Remonstrate	remonstrative	remonstration.

If we do not believe in the psychological reality of these or any other linguistic rules, but rather hold that the phonetic forms of units are learnt in isolation when the learner is exposed to the units, a view which it is not easy to defend, then, of course, there would be no advantage to be seen in the presentation of sequences like those above. But, really, few would try to suggest that no generalization are made by the learner, even though there are very deep differences opinion on the manner in which they are made. By emphasizing the relatedness of words, generative phonology brings to our attention something that has been neglected in language teaching in recent years. However, the teaching consists of no more than an arrangement of language data, and it does not require a generative description to enable the teacher to do this. The form and sequence of the linguist's rules do not influence the teaching, and therefore any subsequent changes in this kind of phonological description will be of little interest to the teacher. In the final chapter I shall attempt to assess the role of linguistics in language teaching. If at points we find that linguistic insights are helpful, we must not forget that there are areas of linguistic study which are of great interest to the linguist and central to his concern but which will remain at most marginal for the teaching of languages.

5.8 Summary

The science of phonetics provides the language teacher with precise descriptions of the articulations of the target language. Phonology helps the teacher establish the priorities of pronunciation teaching by enabling him to identify the most important features to be acquired. It is not certain that the drilling of pronunciation effectively assists learning, but one of the more systematic approaches exploits the notion of contrast is much the same way as it is has been used by linguists to establish the phonemes of a language. Amore important influence on the learner is probably the teacher's own pronunciation. For this reason, teachers should avoid all distortions in their speech. This applies as much to intonation as to the production of sounds. Intonation contributes directly the interpretation of an utterance, and accuracy of intonation is, therefore, at least as important as accuracy of individual sound segments. Recent developments in phonology have produced radical, new approaches, but it is unlikely that they will prove very relevant to language teaching.

5.8 Exercises

1. What is phonology and its importance in language teaching?
2. Pen your thoughts on the concept of teaching pronunciation.
3. What do you know about the idea of phonological awareness?
4. What is generative phonology as introduced by Noam Chomsky?
5. How would you deal with problems while teaching phonology?

5.9 Bibliography

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Unit–6

SOCIOLINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Introduction

In this unit, significance of sociolinguistics in the field of foreign language teaching has been discussed. Three perspectives: attitudes towards learning a foreign language, inclusion of culture in foreign language lessons, and the contribution of language planning to foreign language education, has been focused. In order to facilitate foreign language learning it is pertinent to promote positive attitude towards that language. Curriculum and instructions can be designed in such a way that it promotes positive attitudes toward the foreign language to be learned and nationalities associated with the language. Inclusion of cultural elements in the foreign language curriculum help learners to understand new language concepts and provides a context for their use. Language planning at the highest level, on the other hand, must be based on data derived from research and must be conducted by foreign language educators. Finally, the status of English as an international language is also examined and Kachru's (1985) three-circle model of English speaking countries is reviewed. In the world today, no country and no culture can claim sole ownership of the English language.

Objectives

After Studying this unit, the students will be able to:

1. Understand the concept of variety of language and its different types
2. Realize the significance of positive attitude towards language learning.
3. Describe the relationship between language and culture.
4. Discuss the concepts of bilingualism and multilingualism.
5. Understand the significance of foreign language policy & planning.

6.1 Sociolinguistics

Foreign language learning is one of the most significant perspectives of education in present era. Keeping in view our personal or professional requirements, we learn foreign language. We learn foreign language in order to go abroad for education, to prepare for travel to foreign country or to communicate internationally while doing business. For the teacher of foreign language, it has become increasingly important to familiarize themselves with the process of language acquisition, techniques of foreign language teaching, linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and methods of measurement and evaluation. In this unit, we are going to learn about the significance of sociolinguistics in the field of foreign language teaching.

There are two major goals that foreign language teachers have in their mind while imparting knowledge of second language. The first one is obviously related to classroom, it is that teachers want their students to learn formal properties of language and practice using it in communicative situations. The second goal is related to real life situation where student should be able to communicate with people in a foreign language environment. Communication of this type, where verbal exchange takes place among people falls in the dimension of sociolinguistics.

The researchers of English language teaching (ELT) are focusing on sociolinguistics. The primary areas of interest are English language teaching and world English's (World English's refers to the different varieties of English and English-based creoles developed in different regions of the world), English as an International Language (EIL) and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). These areas of research have emerged as a result of ever increasing interaction between native and non-native speakers in a common language i.e. English. These trends include the analysis of different genres of written and spoken language emerging in contexts where English is spoken as a native language and also in international contexts where other varieties of English are used. In order to develop understanding of these researches it is necessary for us to have know how of basic concepts of sociolinguistics such as language registers, varieties, context, modes of interaction between people, and so on. Earlier, we concluded that one of the goals of teaching language is to use language in real life situation; by real life situation we mean having the ability to use of correct register or appropriate variety and knowing where to use the correct register or variety. On a theoretical basis, Hymes's "communicative competence" (1972) emerges out of such a trend in ELT and the whole method or approach of CLT comes as a result of an understanding of this theoretical construct , analyzing the context where this interaction is taking place. Intercultural communicative competence which emerges out of Hymes's communicative competence becomes the basis of EIL and ELF. Therefore, it is pertinent for language teachers to have thorough knowledge of relationship between foreign language teaching and sociolinguistics through the study of related areas of research adapted from sociolinguistic.

Sociolinguistics can be defined as the science that investigates the aims and functions of language in society and Sociolinguists are generally concerned with the social implications of

the use and reception of language. It explains to us that why is it that language differs from one context to another across geographical borders and how people in one context communicate with people in other contexts. Scientists working in the field of sociolinguistics conduct research on how language is used in diverse social contexts and the appropriateness of language used in any given context, considering such factors as etiquette, interpersonal relations, and regional dialects. They carry out basic research on language variation, sensitivity, and acquisition among social groups of all types including those based on social status, age, race, sex, family, friendship units and others. Some of the topics of sociolinguistics include dialect geography, bilingualism, linguistic interference, social dialectology, language situations (language rivalries, standardization, language as a means of group identification and functional styles), and attitudes toward language. In the next section of this unit, this definition of sociolinguistics will be expanded further and relationship between sociolinguistics and language teaching will be explored.

Spolsky (1998) states that one of the uses of language in society is to build and sustain meaningful relationships among people. When we interact with people for the first time in a social context, we try to form a picture about where they come from, and what social class they belong to, by analyzing their spoken language. Such assumptions result in formation of a fully developed image and understanding that may or may not be true. By doing this we are applying science of sociolinguistics though we are not fully aware of that. Sociolinguists collect reliable data in this regard and analyze it on scientific basis for which parameters are already there. Hence, we can define sociolinguistics as the branch of science that analyzes the relationship between language and society on the basis of its use in diverse social contexts. This branch of linguistics has interaction and impact on many other disciplines such as including foreign language education and international relations. The field of research in sociolinguistics is very vast ranging from analysis of local dialects and accents to differences between men's and women's use of language. Some of the basic issues addressed in the field of sociolinguistics can be listed as follow:

- i. Language variety and change
- ii. Variation and style
- iii. Language attitudes
- iv. Language and culture
- v. Language and interaction
 - a. Interaction analysis
 - b. Discourse analysis
 - c. Language and interaction in social settings
 - d. Use of politeness as a variable in speech
- vi. Bilingualism or multilingualism and multiculturalism
- vii. Social class and language use
- viii. Language contact
- ix. Language and gender
- x. Language planning and policy
 - a. The selection of foreign language(s) to be taught
 - b. Curriculum development
 - c. Teacher education

The basic theoretical features of sociolinguistics and the context of its practice lend foreign language education its rich social content. For example, when we look at teaching of language in the context of school, we note student-teacher communications beside the content of teaching and learning, the significance of social interactions is readily perceived. As far as communicational functions are concerned, the application of sociolinguistics in a classroom context can contribute enormously to the development of foreign language teaching techniques. Research in the areas listed above is well developed and has been applied in foreign language teaching. The main notion behind this unit is to elaborate the relationship between sociolinguistics and foreign language teaching.

Generally, the FLT researchers do not make any connection between the two even though they make inferences about the significance of the context in developing the communicative competence of the learners of a foreign language. Therefore, it is essential to see the attributes of both sociolinguistics and foreign language education disciplines, such as language attitudes, language and culture which will be discussed in this unit.

6.2 Varieties of Language

In sociolinguistics, language variety, also called '*lect*,' is a general term for any distinctive form of a language or linguistic expression. Language variety is an umbrella term for many subcategories of language such as dialect, register, jargon, and idiolect and so on. These language varieties develop out of standard language, but they differ slightly from standard language. A *standard language* is a variety of *language* that is used by governments, in the media, in schools and for international communication. It is thought to have no errors what so ever. Varieties of language develop for a number of reasons: differences can come about for geographical reasons; people who live in different geographic areas often develop distinct dialects—variations of Standard English. Those who belong to a specific group, often academic or professional, tend to adopt jargon that is known to and understood by only members of that select group. Even individuals develop idiolects, their own specific ways of speaking.

A **dialect** is a regional or social variety of a language distinguished by pronunciation, grammar, and/or vocabulary. The term *dialect* is often used to characterize a way of speaking that differs from the standard variety of the language. For example, there is a difference in Urdu spoken in Karachi, Lahore and Peshawar. That difference will be termed as dialect.

6.3 Types of Lects

In addition to the distinctions discussed previously, different types of lects also echo the types of language varieties:

Regional dialect: A variety spoken in a particular region.

Sociolect: Also known as a social dialect, a variety of language (or register) used by a socioeconomic class, a profession, an age group, or any other social group.

Idiolect: The language or languages spoken by each individual. For example, if you are multilingual and can speak in different registers and styles, your idiolect comprises several languages, each with multiple registers and styles.

Register is defined as the way a speaker uses language differently in different circumstances. Think about the words you choose, your tone of voice, even your body language. You probably behave very differently chatting with a friend than you would in a formal situation like a job interview. These variations in formality, also called *stylistic variation*, are known as registers in linguistics. They are determined by such factors as social occasion, context, purpose, and audience. Registers are marked by a variety of specialized vocabulary and turns of phrases, colloquialisms, the use of jargon, and a difference in intonation and pace. **Jargon** refers to the specialized language of a professional or occupational group. Such language is often meaningless to outsiders.

A **pidgin** is a new language which develops in situations where speakers of different languages need to communicate but don't share a common language. The vocabulary of a pidgin comes mainly from one particular language (called the 'lexifier'). An early 'pre-pidgin' is quite restricted in use and variable in structure. But the later 'stable pidgin' develops its own grammatical rules which are quite different from those of the lexifier. Once a stable pidgin has emerged, it is generally learned as a second language and used for communication among people who speak different languages. Example in this regard is Urdu in its initial stages as it was called language of army. When children start learning a pidgin as their first language and it becomes the mother tongue of a community, it is called a **creole**. Like a pidgin, a creole is a distinct language which has taken most of its vocabulary from another language, the lexifier, but has its own unique grammatical rules. Unlike a pidgin, however, a creole is not restricted in use, and is like any other language in its full range of functions. Now Urdu has developed as full language and is passed the stage of creole.

6.4 Language Attitude

When we listen to somebody in a situation, we make countless inferences about language use and language users. These inferences are related to the geographical origin of people on the basis of their speech. There are certain styles and figures of speech that may be inappropriate for one region but may not be inappropriate for other. People usually show approval or disapproval for such things. For example, today there are many companies that are involved in telemarketing. Such companies establish call centres in countries where wages are low and use these call centres to market their products in developed countries. Call centre representatives talk to people they have never met. During these conversations, people begin to draw inferences about the people they hear on the phone, about their gender, social background, friendliness, ethnic origin and whether or not they

have good intentions. Such inferences determine the kind of approach that speakers and listeners adopt in relation to one another during communications.

Such uses of language may provoke positive attitude or negative attitude or positive attitude in listeners. An example of positive attitude towards language is that people speaking perfect and fluent English in Pakistan are more likely to secure a job as compared to those who are not good in English. In this case attitude towards good English speaking is positive. An example of a negative attitude is the development and use of new words in order to avoid gender discrimination. Words like "chairman" are being replaced by "Chairperson", "police officer" instead of "policeman," "humankind" instead of "mankind." All of above mentioned examples reinforce the connection between language and attitude. Language is a medium that contributes to the formation of speakers' attitudes about themselves and others.

6.5 Language Attitudes and Foreign Language Education

Researches that examine attitudes in foreign language teaching have been subject at all the levels of teaching. The generic aim of such research is examine and develop an understanding of how students' and teachers' positive or negative attitudes towards a language influence the teaching and learning of the language. To carry out research on language attitudes, researchers have to develop a valid and reliable questionnaire incorporating psychological, sociological, and linguistic dimensions and then collect data by means of this tool. For instance, students' attitudes towards the foreign language taught will either facilitate or complicate their language learning. Study of the relationship between attitudes and learning will contribute to the development of foreign language teaching methods and materials appropriate for specific student groups exhibiting specific attitudes. At present, there are many studies of students' attitudes towards the foreign language they are learning.

Baker (1992) states that there are three components that make attitude, they are cognition, affection and readiness of action. If we look at our society we can jump to conclusion that upper and upper-middle classes are inclined towards learning English language. Their thoughts are more inclined towards west, therefore, they have positive attitude towards English language. Their emotional attachment to English is greater. and they have readiness of action towards English language. Positive attitude towards a second language facilitates in learning. So they send their children to elite schools where English is medium of instruction and communication.

6.6 Language and Culture

Language is multi-purpose, we use it to share our ideas, wishes, desires, needs, experiences, feelings and to understand the same things communicated by other people. There are certain factors that manipulate our choices related to language use in any social context. The first such factor in context (school, office, house, park, shopping mall, etc.),

the relationship between the individuals involved in communication (acquaintance, stranger, etc.), the effects of the selected words among the listeners considering the culture and people of the country where the language is spoken. In this section, we are going to examine place and importance of culture in foreign language learning. The word 'culture' has many definitions and they change from the perspective of discipline in which the term is being used, and the variety makes it hard for us to arrive at a satisfactory definition. Generally speaking, Culture embraces all that contributes to the survival of man, such as art, craft, drama, dress, education, music, politics, religion and technology. If we examine the concept of Pakistani culture and Pakistani identity we see that though the different regions of Pakistan have their own local culture and regional languages, what unites us is a set of shared beliefs or values regarding standards of behaviour, qualities of character, human relations and life styles that are admired by all Pakistanis whether they are Punjabis, Pathans, Sindhis or Baluchis. Our teachings of Islam affect every aspect of our cultural life. Another important feature of Pakistani culture is a sense of nationhood so that other religious groups, whether they are Christians, Parsees or Hindus, have this shared feeling of belonging owing to shared sentiments of patriotism and loyalty towards the nation state, Pakistan.

6.7 The place and Significance of Culture in Foreign Language Education

A look at the concept of culture within the scope of foreign language learning reveals that experiences acquired by students in their native language are restructured as a result of new concepts and experiences acquired while learning a new language. Students activate their prior cultural knowledge before starting the foreign language class and try to make sense of new cultural concepts by comparing and contrasting them with previous ones. It is pertinent to enhance students' awareness of second language culture so that foreign language could be understood in better way. According to Fantini (1997), learning languages by comparing and contrasting the similarities and differences between two cultures is a period of transition in which students' awareness of the foreign language and the culture associated with that language increases. At the end of this transitional period, a universal culture will emerge. To put it in a nutshell, in light of cross-cultural communication and transfer assumptions, it could be argued that while learning a second/foreign language, students will also explore the second language culture. Additionally, students' culture and language that has been acquired prior to second language learning, will help them in clarifying and classifying cultural concepts they encounter in second language. In the meantime, students will reconstruct the concepts they have learned in the past and make use of earlier experiences in the learning process. An overview of the culture concept in terms of the foreign language classroom indicates that the culture of the foreign language is a component of the topics covered in the foreign language class. Some researchers believe that incorporating the culture of the foreign language in the classroom is a waste of time since the students will never need such knowledge, while others claim that multilingualism and multiculturalism are qualities students need to understand and integrate newly met concepts. To this end,

foreign language teachers' cultural awareness should be increased and foreign language learning materials should be restructured in line with multiculturalism and multilingualism (Bayyurt, 2006). Another approach to the inclusion of culture in foreign language classrooms is to prepare the cultural component of the curriculum in view of learner needs, local/source culture, language identities, and the learning contexts.

6.8 Cultural Needs of Pakistani Learners

Learning English for Pakistani students is a complex phenomenon. As second language learners, the learning and teaching of English has different implications for native and foreign language learners. English is used widely in Pakistan in official, business and academic circles, not only to meet the needs of Pakistan as a developing country for the purposes of modernisation and technology, but also because of linguistic, political and social considerations. Pakistani student needs for learning English are primarily for instrumental reasons like travelling abroad, reading advanced technical literature, coping with university classes, access to international books and journals, getting good jobs and as the working language of their future careers (Mansoor, 1993). Students also need it for social purposes.

To prepare students to use English, the teaching of English should therefore have the following objectives:

- For academic purposes,
- For inter-active purposes,
- For communication in target areas of work
- For travel and study abroad and meeting native speakers as well as speakers from ESL / EFL countries.

The first three objectives point to the need for students to learn English within their own local contexts and the fourth to learn English for inter-cultural communication. The teaching/learning of English in Pakistan must therefore prepare students to use English both as a second language in Pakistan and as an international language.

The implications in terms of language and culture are manifold. It involves:

- a. an awareness and understanding of the students own ethnicity i.e. his local culture.
- b. an awareness of Pakistani culture, and
- c. an awareness of the target culture (not only British and American culture but also sensitization to global culture).

Incorporating the student's own culture as well as foreign culture would enable Pakistani students, as second language learners of the outer circle, to communicate effectively not only with English speakers of their own country, but also English speakers from other countries whichever circle (inner or expanded) that they may belong to (Kachru, 1985).

6.9 The Teaching of English in Pakistan to Incorporate Pakistani Culture

If we critically analyze the available syllabus and other materials available for teaching English at Board or University levels, we realize that majority of the books are imported written by English writers and they are meant to be used for native students. This lack of local material for teaching and learning of Functional English has resulted in ineffective teaching learning process. Inclusion of English textbooks based on local culture in curriculum would facilitate in teaching learning process. It would mean that textbooks are meaningful for the students as well as teachers. They can relate the stories to their background knowledge. The most obvious influence of language and culture on thought is that of vocabulary. As Boas points out, words are suited to the environment in which they are used.

In considering the relationship between second language learning and second culture learning, it is very important to consider several types of second language learning contexts as each type involves different degrees of acculturation. Acculturation is the transfer of values and customs from one group to another. Second language learning, if it involves foreign learning material in a foreign culture, it clearly involves the deepest form of acculturation. Second language learning in the native culture varies in the severity of acculturation experienced by the learner, depending on the country, the socio-political status of the language and the motivation and aspirations of the learners. Kachru (1983) observes that education of English in India does not involve learning about a new culture, as the English being taught is Indian English in school. Same is true about Pakistan where English language enjoys a high status and plays a key role in the educational, official and business set-up. It is therefore of great value that students be taught Pakistani English that reflects their own culture as well as provides local contexts for using the language.

6.10 The Teaching of English as an International Language for Inter-Cultural Communication

The material that is now being used to teach English poses difficulty for our students. They face great difficulty in understanding and relating to foreign contexts and no effort is being made by course designers to make interesting. Again, the students are neither sensitized to the foreign culture nor is tact used in introducing certain ethnic groups or their value systems. Research produced in this century has evolved a theory that a native culture is as much interference for second language learners as for native language learners. Likewise, it has been seen that just as similarities and differences have been found to be useful in language studies so too cultural similarities, once identified and understood, can be used to advantage. For second language teachers, knowledge of the commonalities between two languages or of the universal features of language appears to be useful for understanding the total language process. We can recognize not only different world-views and different ways of expressing reality but can also recognize

through both language and culture some universal qualities that bind us all together in one world.

6.11 Bilingualism or Multilingualism

Multilingualism is the use of two or more languages, either by an individual speaker or by a community of speakers. Research in this area of linguistics is focused in identifying the relationship between social factors and choice of language or ‘code’ in specific situations. In Pakistan for example, most people use two or more languages or varieties in their daily interaction. The terms ‘code’ and ‘variety’ refer to any set of linguistic forms which are socially patterned, including different accents, different linguistic styles, different dialects, and different languages which contrast with each other for social reasons. The linguistics repertoire of a typical Pakistani school going boy includes at three languages (mother tongue, Urdu and English) and certain varieties of these languages. How a young person draws on and makes use of this repertoire in interaction is a matter of prime sociolinguistic interest? Sociolinguists are interested in establishing range of factors that influence choice of code in multilingual context. Preference of one code over another depends on specific situation, the relationship between individuals involved in communication, the formality of context and the purpose of interaction. In Pakistan, for example, the indigenous languages, Punjabi, Pushto, Sindhi, Balochi, are used in interactions with friends and family, while Urdu is the appropriate language to use while visiting a doctor or an office. Educational institutes use English as medium of instruction and official language in offices is also English. Code choice may also point toward more abstract influences such as orientation to an urban rather than a rural lifestyle. More recently, researchers have begun to analyze code choice as a more dynamic activity, examining ways in which speakers change the emphasis in an interaction through linguistic initiatives, and how code choice actively contributes to the construction of particular types of interaction.

Diglossia is a term used to describe a particular kind of societal bilingualism. In his classic article on the topic, Ferguson (1959) defined diglossia as a situation where two varieties of the same language, (a High variety and a Low variety), are used in a community for complementary functions, a linguistic division of labor. The high variety is mostly used in formal situations is considered to be prestigious, while low variety is used for daily conversation and in informal situations. The term proved so useful it was extended to cover a much wider variety of bilingual and multilingual situations where different languages were associated with different domains or social contexts. Thus, sociolinguists have steadily modified the scope of the diglossia concept to handle more complex patterns of societal multilingualism.

6.12 Code-Switching

Another related area to the domain of multilingualism is code-switching/code-mixing. Code-switching has been defined as mixing of two or more languages within same conversational episode. According to Nunan and Carter (2001) code-switching is “a

phenomenon of switching from one language to another in the same discourse.” The use of mother tongue in language learning has been a significant area of interest for researchers for many years. Code-switching is an inevitable outcome of language contact in multilingual societies like Pakistan. Teaching methods such as, direct method, audio-lingual method and communicative language teaching method consider mother tongue a hindrance for learning the second language and believe it must be avoided. On the other hand, research has established the fact that the use of mother tongue, while teaching second language is no more considered a negative phenomenon rather it must be incorporated in the classrooms.

In Pakistan, Urdu is the national language of Pakistan and Urdu and English are official languages. English is taught as a compulsory subject in all the educational institutes- public and private sector. English and Urdu have coincided for centuries in the sub-continent, therefore, English holds a strong position. “Code-hybridization” is a conspicuous linguistic phenomenon and natural by-product of language interaction and evolution in Pakistani society argue Mushtaq and Zahra (2012). Majority of Pakistani students are unable to acquire communicative competence in English therefore, code-switching, from English to Urdu, becomes a demand of the students even in English language classrooms. Teachers switch code from English to Urdu to make students understand difficult concepts, to clarify, to give examples or to socialize. In Pakistani classrooms the teachers are found to switch code for translating grammatical points and to make the lesson easier for the students.

Teachers also have different reasons for switching to mother tongue. Teachers switch code for multiple reasons and to fulfil academic, social and management purposes. The teachers switch back to mother tongue not only to meet academic ends such as clarification or explanation amid the lesson but also to cater the social needs of the students. Flyman-Mattson and Burenhult (1999) emphasize that code-switching is used to socialize with the students, when the teacher realizes the need to be friendly to suit the need of the task or the entire process of language learning.

6.13 Foreign Language Planning and Language Policies (LPLP)

In its general sense, language planning and policies involve in the selection of educational structure for teaching the languages which will be used in official-unofficial institutions in a country says Ricento (2000). In recent years, the most significant example of foreign language planning and policy is the European Language Portfolio.

Cooper (1989) classifies language planning into three categories: status planning, corpus planning and acquisition planning. Status planning involves decisions regarding official status of a language, general preferences regarding a particular language and aims at using the language. Corpus planning is focused on language itself, and it focuses on selection of vocabulary regardless of gender discrimination, new words added to the language, alphabet selection and identification of spelling and punctuation rules. Acquisition planning refers to

teaching learning process, using a language for specific purpose. It 'refers to organized efforts to promote the learning or relearning of a language.

Language planning seems a very complex idea which not only resolves linguistic issues but also generates simultaneously linguistic issues to the surface. The rationale behind it is that it creates problem may be because it's done by the bureaucratic organizations or ruling elites who always do language planning and formulate language policy to their own favour neglecting the other minor languages. When devising language policy or working on language planning, some very crucial factors are never to be neglected, be that social needs, religious, technological and financial.

LPLP in Pakistan has been inconsistent from the very beginning however, no significant lesson has ever been learnt by policy-makers. The dilemma in LPLP in Pakistan is that of no execution but only planning or rhetoric, and no considerable attention towards regional and provincial languages.

Pakistan has now completed 70 years of its independence, though it has not got any authentic policy for language which is sincerely implemented and is in the official process. Below are the given policies pertinent to language from the day one of independence.

The first meeting to discuss the educational policy of country was held in 1947, where issues over status of various languages arouse. Pakistan faced the problem of language policy from the very beginning as this problem in particular was complicated by language groups competing to be recognized as national languages, the two dominant native languages were Urdu and Bengali. Urdu language had symbolic significance as this language united the Muslims of sub-continent while Bengali was the language of majority of East Pakistan.

In 1959 a commission was formed to explore language issues in Pakistan. This commission proposed adoption of both Urdu and Bengali as medium of instructions at school, while it proposed that Urdu should be developed as medium of instructions in higher education within next 15 years. This commission proposed to replace English with Urdu, However it also pointed out that "English should continue as second language since advance knowledge which was in English only needed for advanced study and research." In the government schools, Urdu was the language of instruction, English was taught as a compulsory subject and English medium schools were allowed to flourish.

Zulifqar Ali Bhutto tried to give Urdu official recognition in the constitution of 1973. The article 251 of 1973 constitution states that:

- The national language of Pakistan is Urdu and arrangements shall be made for its being used for official and other purposes within 15 years from the commencing day.
- The English language may be used for official purposes until arrangements are made for its replacement by Urdu.

- In addition to the national language, provincial languages should promote to the status of national language.

Thus, 1973 constitution gave English a new lease for 15 years based on first clause, language instructions were set up to develop Urdu and English medium schools got legal protection under this constitution.

In 1979, there was drastic change in national education policy under General Zia-ul-Haq. Educational institutes were advised to shift to Urdu or regional language. All the schools in the country were directed to adopt Urdu as medium of instruction. In 1979 Muqtadira Quami Zaban (National Language Authority) was formed to devise ways and means for the promotion of Urdu as the national language of Pakistan. Urdu was duly introduced as language of instruction in government schools and English was introduced after primary level. However, Elite schools were unaffected by this policy as they had strong political lobby. The policy of 1992 did not directly take up the issue of language directly. There was change in stance regarding English as Benazir Bhutto gave schools option for choosing language of instruction of their own choice. English may be used as one of the medium of instructions in addition to Urdu as a provincial language. At secondary level, English may be the medium of instruction for science and technical subjects.

In National language policy of 1998, the state makes a commitment to use Urdu as the medium of instruction in state schools. This policy focuses on elevating the status of English in government schools, introducing reforms in basic education and literacy, revision of curriculum in secondary and technical education and interfacing between higher education and industry. National Education policy of 2013 states that Medium of Instructions for all subjects at primary level shall be either local language or national language (Urdu) and English as compulsory subject shall be started from grade one.

We have seen a number of educational policies instituted by different governments but never has there been a comprehensive document on language policy and these documents have not been bolstered by institutional support. English is an important contemporary language used for wider communication in the world. Pakistanis must learn English but not at the cost of rejecting regional languages. In fact, we should be striving for a balance between English and the local languages. There is a serious need to carve out a policy that is realistic in nature and that makes the attempt to preserve local languages and cultures.

6.14 Teaching English as an International Language

Considering the worldwide status of English today, the necessity for teaching English as an international language (EIL), training teachers, and developing appropriate materials is obvious. This is an established fact that English is a world language, therefore the related educational policies yet to be developed must take into account the international status of English besides promoting and preserving indigenous languages. Additionally, it is pertinent to conduct experimental and observational studies in this context. First of all, it

should be noted that English is an international language and it does not belong to a certain country or culture. Since, English is a natural language, its use as native language should not be ignored. It is a fact that number of people who use English as second language is far more than its native speakers. So who sets the norms and standards that are to be followed around the world becomes a prominent issue. Smith (1976) proposes, English, as an international language, does not belong to any nation, a position that challenges theorists and researchers. As far as this issue is concerned, McKay (2003) raises three important points. Firstly, the cultural content of English should not be limited to societies whose indigenous language is English. In other words, students' local culture and other countries' cultures must be featured in the learning process. Secondly, local expectations regarding the role of teachers and the students in the teaching and learning of English must be considered. Third, bilingual teachers' dual qualities, that is, their mastery of the local and international culture must be acknowledged.

The overarching qualities of bilingual teachers help them to be models for students, thus motivating students to learn and to use the language. While teaching English in countries like India and Pakistan that have adopted English as their official language, teachers of English must bear in mind that the cultural dimensions of English are not the same as those of other languages. All the cultures in the world can play a role in teaching English. In simple words, English teachers can teach English efficiently when they incorporate the local culture into their curriculum, while also incorporating the broad picture of international use. McKay (2003) stresses that English is an international language, therefore, local and international culture must be reflected in English language teaching as well.

McKay's (2003) approach contradicts Kachru's (1985) three-circle model. Kachru (1985) classified world countries keeping in view the rank of English in each country as inner circle, outer circle and expanding circle (see Table 1)

Table 1: The inner circle, outer circle and expanding circle as defined by Kachru (1985)

	Aims	Countries
Inner Circle	Countries where English is taught as a first language (EFL)	United States of America, Britain, Australia, etc.
Outer Circle	Where English is taught as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL)	India, Pakistan, Jamaica, Singapore, Nigeria, etc
Expanding Circle	Teaching English as a foreign language (EFL)	Turkey, Germany, Japan, China, Brazil, etc.

In his original definition of these categories, Kachru (1985) emphasized that there is no distinct boundary between categories. To Kachru, the most significant difference between outer and expanding circle countries is the acceptance of English as an official language in outer circle countries and its presence in the daily lives of people (in official procedures, schools and the workplace, etc.). In actuality, the position of English in expanding circle countries is not so clear; English is usually learned for functional purposes and it is not the official language of these countries. This gives rise to the

teaching of English as a second language in outer circle countries, as it is taught in inner circle countries, and as a foreign language in expanding circle countries. In addition, Kachru holds that distinct separation between expanding and outer circle countries is also lacking and that some important features of these categories are shared. To illustrate, English speakers in both groups are considered to be bilingual or multilingual. In his study questioning the confusion of concepts related to the teaching of English, Nayar (1997) mentions the fuzzy boundaries of classification systems. In addition to this, as Canagarajah (2006) also states, many people who have lived in countries defined as outer and expanding circle countries have moved to inner circle countries. Thus, in inner circle countries, which are dominantly monolingual, residents hear English varieties spoken among their neighbours, colleagues, and service workers, and they have need to communicate with these groups. The question of which the English belongs to is of no significance now. It is well established fact among researchers of both inner and the expanding circle countries that English is a world language. These developments demand for reconsideration of Kachru's theory. Exclusion of the outer circle group when defining native English speakers is unacceptable for scholars in the "World Englishes" school. This unit has focused on English in inner and expanding circle countries, and educational issues have been analyzed accordingly. It is need of time to conduct experimental and observational research in context of these countries. These researches can help make a significant contribution to the teaching of English as a foreign language and English as an international language in outer and expanding circle countries.

6.15 Summary

This unit has explored subcomponents of sociolinguistics such as language attitudes, the relationship of language and culture in foreign language education, bilingualism and language planning in foreign language education. In the age of globalization it necessary to maintain good relations with other countries and, a common language ensuring communication across borders is necessary. In order to develop foreign language proficiency, it is important to promote positive attitudes towards the language to be taught. Teaching of language is difficult task, and in case the learners have negative attitude towards target language, the nationality of the language teachers, or the teaching context, its teaching becomes impossible. For this reason, knowing existing attitudes towards the target language and the development of methods and materials that encourage positive attitudes are worthwhile endeavours. The incorporation of culture into foreign language instruction helps learners to understand unfamiliar concepts by meeting them in context, and thus the learning of the language is enhanced. Keeping in view all the above mentioned aspects, effective execution and implementation of foreign language planning by related authorities (The Ministry of Education) will greatly assist foreign language teaching and learning. Keeping in view above mentioned facts, we can argue while formation of foreign language policy, decisions must be based on reliable data generated by research. According to Graves (2000) and Belcher (2006), the planning and implementation stages of data collection and contextual analysis, identification of aims, planning, piloting, implementation, reaction analysis, measurement and evaluation, and re-planning must be seriously thoroughly complete.

In this unit, we have focused on students' and teachers' attitudes towards the foreign language selected for instruction and the contribution of target language culture to learning. In addition, it has addressed the importance of planning and effective implementation of a language policy.

6.16 Exercises

1. What is meant by variety of language? Discussed different types of varieties mentioned in the unit.
2. Highlight the significance of positive attitude in foreign language teaching.
3. Discuss relationship between language and culture. Do you think localized textbooks of foreign language can prove helpful in teaching that language?
4. What do you understand by Bilingualism and multilingualism?
5. How important is foreign language policy? What should be kept in mind while formulating foreign language policy?

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Unit–7

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Introduction

The field of Psycholinguistics, or the psychology of language, is concerned with discovering the psychological processes that make it possible for humans to acquire and use language. Psycholinguistics is the branch of cognitive psychology that studies the psychological basis of linguistic competence and performance. Psycholinguistics is defined traditionally as the study of human language, language, comprehension, language production and language acquisition. In this Unit, as a field of interdisciplinary study, various relations of the psycholinguistic approach to mother tongue teaching and foreign language teaching are discussed. As a result of this investigation, it has been established that the psycholinguistic approach, in fact, as an interdisciplinary study, has a problem solving relation in ELT, and that it has a blocking function of the negative transfers of the interferences from the mother tongue to the target language in terms of teaching reading-writing- listening-speaking skills.

Objectives

After studying this unit, the students will be able to:

1. Understand concept of psycholinguistics and its significance.
2. Describe concept of language acquisition
3. Compare and contrast behaviorist and nativist approach.
4. Elaboate role of psycholinguistics in teaching language skills.

7.1 What is Psycholinguistics?

Psycholinguistic is a sub branch of linguistics that derives its name from combination of two fields, psychology and linguistics. According to Titone and Danesi (1985), the term psycholinguistics was coined by Pronko in 1946. However, proper theory was not established until 1950. Basically, this branch of linguistics is concerned with the study of relationship between language and brain. Generally, it is defined as the study of the mental processes that a person uses in producing understanding and storing language and how humans learn their mother tongue and foreign languages. The first wave of studies in this field started in Europe in 1900s, while second wave started in America in mid 20th century. Linguists looked upon psychologists for insights into use of language by human beings. However, later psychologists turned to linguists for insights into nature of language. Popular theory in this regard at that time was behaviorism and it dominated the area of inquiry.

Psycholinguistics is the study of language with reference to human psychology. It is a very broad field but is frequently used with specific reference to processes of language acquisition, especially of one's first language. In the more general psycholinguistics covers the following three areas: Neurolinguistics, Language processing and language acquisition.

7.2 Language Processing

Language processing refers to the way human beings use words to communicate ideas and feelings, and how such communications are understood. Understanding what other people say and write is a more complicated process than it appears. Processing language involves a variety of capacities, skills, processes, knowledge, and dispositions that are used to derive meaning from spoken, written and sign language. Wernicke's area, which is located in the left temporal lobe, is thought to carry out this process for us. The main function of this cortical area is the symbolic representation of language. Language processing is a complex procedure that is easily and effortlessly done by human brain. It is thought that use of gestures enhances the language processing. It is an area of enquiry of psycholinguistics that how word meaning, sentence meaning, and discourse meaning are computed and represented in the mind.

7.3 Neurolinguistics

Neurolinguistics has physical dimension to it and is the field of neurologists who deal with impairments of language due to brain lesions, tumors, injuries or strokes. However, there is a domain of neurolinguistics that is related to linguistics. In this domain, a linguist observes certain phenomena like slip of tongue and various performance errors, in order to gain insights regarding structure of language faculty in the human brain. Language pathology is key area of interest in neurolinguistics.

7.4 Language Pathology

The breakdown of language has been subject to study by researchers from two chief angles. The first angle is medical where attempts are made to help patients in regaining at least partially the ability to use language normally. Such people include individuals who had strokes that had affected the brain, in this case affecting the Broca or Wernicke areas or people who have been involved in accidents that has resulted in impairment of language faculty. Another group is formed by patients who have had a tumor in the brain which impairs their speech pressing on either of the speech areas.

Term ‘aphasia’ is used in linguistics and medicine to describe language disorders. There are many different kinds of aphasia depending on the impairment which a patient shows. Broca's area is part of the brain approximately above the left temple. It is named after its discoverer the French doctor Paul Broca. This part of brain is responsible for speech production. Damage to Broca's area has been associated with the agrammatic, dysprosodic, halted, and non-fluent speech output as well as difficulty in understanding syntactically complex sentences. Wernicke's area is the part of the brain which is taken to be responsible for the comprehension of language. It is located just above the left ear. It is named after Karl Wernicke, the German scientist who discovered the area in the second half of the 19th century. Wernicke's aphasia, also known as receptive aphasia, sensory aphasia or posterior aphasia, is a type of aphasia in which individuals have difficulty understanding written and spoken language.

7.5 Speech Errors

The slip of the tongue phenomenon can often be observed with common speakers having no medical issue and is characterized by a sudden block in lexical retrieval and which is released again for no apparent reason. Slip of the tongue involves the involuntary and unintended switching of elements among words of a sentence. Normally the onset or rhyme of adjacent syllables is switched and this phenomenon offers firm evidence for the validity of the syllable as a phonological unit.

7.6 Language Acquisition

By language acquisition, we mean the process whereby children achieve a fluent control of their native tongue. By 1950, people thought that children imitated their elders and got language but now various theories have been presented. Some argue that it is the environmental impact and product of our experience and others discuss the innateness of language or Empiricist (Behaviorists) and Rationalists (Mentalists). The theoretical questions have focused on the issue of how we can account for the phenomenon of language development in children at all. Normal children have mastered most of the structures of their language by the age of five or six. The earlier behaviorist assumptions were that it was possible to explain language development largely in terms of imitation

and reinforcement. Psycholinguistics, therefore, argues that imitation is not enough; it is not merely by mechanical repetition that children acquire language. They also acquire it by natural exposure. Both nature and nurture influence the acquisition of language in children. Both schools of thought have said significant things but neither is perfect. Language Acquisition is a process of analogy and application, nature and nurture. Experience and innateness. Imitation is there but the child forms his own grammar of rules. Children learn first not items but systems. In other words, what is being claimed is that the child's brain contains certain innate characteristics which 'pre-structure' it in the direction of language learning. To enable these innate features to develop into adult competence, the child must be exposed to human language, i.e., it must be stimulated in proper to respond but the basis.

7.7 The Birth and the Development of the Psycholinguistic Approach

Speech is a peculiar feature of human beings that makes human beings distinctive from other species. So, its properties and functions in the life of man is an indispensable part of psychological enquiry. Field of scientific psychology based on scientific lines emerged in 1879, when first laboratory of psychology was developed at University of Leipzig in Germany. Study of relationship between language and mind developed when Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920), a trained psychologist, presented his view that the study of language could provide important insights into the nature of mind. He extensively investigated about different aspects of language; therefore he is regarded as the master psycholinguistics. In early days of psycholinguistics, most of the investigations in child psychology focused on the development of speech in early childhood, especially studies on memory and mental associations involved the use of language.

J.P Watson, an American psychologist, coined the term Behaviorism. By the 1920s, Behaviorism became very popular in America and it took over the mainstream of experimental psychology. Psychologists like B.Watson, L. Bloomfield, and B. F. Skinner, were able to apply behaviorism to describe human speech. The way in which parents mould their children's utterances was described by Skinner in Verbal Behavior. In teaching, the young child to talk, the formal specifications upon which reinforcement is contingent are at first greatly relaxed. Any response by the child which has similarity with acceptable behavior of community is encouraged by reinforcement so that it may appear more frequently. In this manner complex sentences and verb forms are learned by the child.

The acquisition of language in early childhood was explained by behaviorist in the same manner as acquisition of other habits. Early studies that were carried out between 1920s and 1950s, development of language was regarded mainly as "a matter of imitation, practice and habituation." The psychologists, who supported behaviorism regarded conditioning as the main mechanism to account for language development."

Behaviorism pointed out that the totality of human language comes from the experience. This period is generally regarded as the “formative period” in the historical development of psycholinguistics approach. In this period, the following issues are made the job of psycholinguistics:

1. How people comprehend language?
2. How do they produce it?
3. How and under what circumstances do they lose it?
4. How does a particular language affect cognition, if at all?
5. Are there relations between the first and foreign language learning?
6. Is there such a concept like mother tongue interference?

By 1950s, an exchange of ideas between linguists and psychologists started. In 1960s, Noam Chomsky introduced his idea of mentalism and transformational generative grammar. These ideas became very popular as these approaches which tried to handle the unknown in the first and second language acquisition. Chomsky and others, in particular the neuropsychologist, Lenneberg, decided that language development could not be defined with the terms of behaviorist psychology. Psychologist George Miller also started association with Chomsky and their joint research articles and studies started appearing. With these developments, language acquisition became a popular area of inquiry and scholars like Braine, W. Miller, S.M. Ervin, D. McNeil started contributing to this area of investigation. During this period “theoretical analyses of language development emphasized the role of innate factor.” Chomsky postulated his idea of Language Acquisition Device (LAD), which is an innate mechanism to process the linguistic data. So, Mentalist and Rationalist (Cognitive) theories emerged with the psycholinguistic approach to explain the learning of first language. Soon after this, Chomsky developed the Nativist approach to unearth the riddles in learning the mother tongue by claiming that mother tongue language learning is an inborn process. The findings of two newly established fields, biolinguistics and neurolinguistics, also supported idea of Chomsky.

Nowadays, psycholinguistic approach has increasingly been viewed as a section of the interdisciplinary field of cognitive science which also covers computer science, philosophy, neuroscience and other related fields. As it is also indicated by Kess, psycholinguistics is being “subsumed under the larger scheme of research, in that truly broad interdisciplinary activity that has come to be labeled as cognitive science.”

Our main focus in this unit will be on theories of language acquisition, i.e. Behaviorism and Mentalism.

7.8 Behaviorism

The learning theory that dominated early 20th Century was behaviorism. Till 1950s and 60s behaviorism remained influential, however by that time new theories have begun to make substantial inroads in general acceptance. Behaviorism is a psychological approach to learning that emphasizes observable measurable behavior. The behaviorist theory of learning chiefly focuses on objectively observable behavior. Behaviorist theorists define

learning as a more or less permanent alteration in behavior. Learners passively adapt to the environment that they are provided with. Two of the most famous experiments upon which proof of learning is based are the "Dog Salivation Experiment" by Ivan Petrovich Pavlov and the "Skinner Box" experiment with pigeons by B.F. Skinner. Behaviorists believe that humans are shaped by their environment and if that environment is changed it will result in change of thoughts, feelings and behaviors. Desired behaviors can be encouraged by providing positive reinforcements.

The behaviorists tried to explain learning without referring to mental processes. Their focus was on explaining how an organism adapts to its environment and how observable behavior changes occur. Ivan Pavlov performed an experiment on dogs where he made them salivate at the sound of bell. Later B.F Skinner performed an experiment with pigeons in the so called "Skinner Box." These are famous behaviouristic learning experiments. These experiments are concerned with reflexes but behaviorists have applied and generalized them to many higher level functions as well.

B.F skinner, the chairman of the psychology department at Indiana University, was not satisfied with the assumption that all behavior was based on reflexes. He argued that our behaviour is determined by the consequences generated by our past behaviors. This consequence is termed as reinforcement by Skinner. He believes that it is the history of reinforcements that determine behaviour. We learn to choose or avoid behaviours based on their consequences.

The behaviourists' basic mechanism of learning is;
stimulus => response => reinforcement

While shifting focus from reflexes, B.F Skinner argued in favor of positive reinforcement in learning process. So, learning is operationally defined as changes in the frequency of a particular response. Reinforcement is the key element in Skinner's Stimulus Response S-R theory. A reinforcer is anything that strengthens the desired response. It could be verbal praise, a good grade or a feeling of increased accomplishment or satisfaction.

7.9 Implications of Reinforcement Theory

1. Practice should take the form of question (stimulus) - answer (response) frames which expose the student to the subject in gradual steps.
2. Learner is required to respond to every question and immediate feedback should be given.
3. Frames (questions) should be arranged keeping in view difficulty level, so that it generates a positive reinforcement.
4. Ensure that good performance in the lesson is paired with secondary reinforcers such as verbal praise, prizes and good grades.

7.10 Principles

1. Behaviour that is positively reinforced will be repeated; intermittent reinforcement is particularly effective.
2. Information should be presented in small amounts so that responses can be reinforced ("shaping").
3. Reinforcements will generalize across similar stimuli ("stimulus generalization") producing secondary conditioning.

Here some of the applications of behaviorism in education:

- Directed instruction (a teacher provides the knowledge to the students directly)
- The use of exams to measure observable behavior of learning.
- The use of rewards and punishments in our school systems.
- The audio-lingual approach to language teaching.
- The breaking down of the instruction process into "conditions of learning" (as developed by Robert Gagne)

According to behaviorist view, Language acquisition is a process of developing a set of habits. This view has normally been influenced by the general theory of learning described by the psychologist John B. Watson in 1923, and termed behaviourism. Behaviorism refutes nativist theory of innate knowledge as nativists are thought to be inherently irrational and thus unscientific. Knowledge, in behaviorist view is produced through interacting with environment and is learned and retained through stimulus-response conditioning.

The process of stimulus response works as follows. And in the environment (the unconditioned stimulus, or UST) brings out an unconditioned response (URE) from an organism capable of learning. The unconditioned response is followed by another event appealing to the organism. This appealing event is termed as positive reinforcement. If this process, unconditional stimulus, unconditional response, and positive reinforcement is repeated sufficiently, the organism will learn how to associate its response to the stimulus with the reinforcement. This will consequently cause the organism to give the same response when it confronts with the same stimulus. In this way, the response becomes a conditioned response (CRE).

The most uncertain part of the behaviouristic view is perhaps the notion that all learning, whether verbal (language) or non-verbal (general learning) takes place by means of the same underlying process that is via forming habits. In 1957, B.F Skinner produced behaviourist account of language acquisition where he showed that utterances serve as both conditioned stimulus and conditioned response.

According to behaviorist view, there is no difference between L1 and L2 acquisition as acquirers receive linguistic input from speakers in their environment, and positive reinforcement for their correct repetitions and imitations in both cases. When responses of language learners are reinforced positively, acquisition of language becomes relatively

easy. These claims are strictly criticized in Chomsky's "A Review of B.F. Skinner's Verbal Behaviour". Chomsky (1959) asserts that there is "neither empirical evidence nor any known argument to support any specific claim about the relative importance of feedback from the environment." Therefore, it would be unwise to claim that unconditional stimulus, unconditional response, and positive reinforcement and imitation can account for the process of language acquisition. Additionally, behaviorist theory overlooks individual differences and internal factors in description of this process.

B.F Skinner idea of language acquisition supports nurturist view. The Bloomfieldian school of linguistics accepted the influence of behaviorism. As result of this influence, application of behaviorism can be seen in the field of ELT in the form of Audio-lingual method of teaching foreign language. Behaviorism sees human mind as a blank slate having no built-in knowledge. The theory and the resulting teaching methods failed due to the fact that imitation and simple S-R connections only cannot explain acquisition and provide a sound basis for language teaching methodology.

7.11 Mentalism

The behaviorist view of language acquisition is, to some extent, not adequate because of its failure to account, among many things, for the occurrence of language, which is not in the input learners are exposed to. Therefore, researchers attempt to look for an alternative theoretical framework. Here, researchers have abandoned looking at 'nurture', i.e. how environmental factors shape learning and look at 'nature', i.e. the role of innate properties of human mind in shaping learning. This new approach is known as mentalism or nativist approach.

Chomsky claim that a child learns his first language through cognitive learning and this is not an example of habit formation. He claims that language is governed by rules, and is not a haphazard thing, as Skinner and his followers claimed. Mentalists believe that man is born with innate capacity for acquiring language and we only need to activate it. According to Chomsky, the child is born with a mental capacity for working out the underlying system of sounds and words which he hears. He constructs his own grammar and imposes it on all the sounds reaching his brain. This mental grammar is part of his cognitive framework, and nothing he hears is stored in his brain until he has matched it against what he already knows and found a 'correct' place for it within this framework.

Chomsky considered Linguistics part of psychology. He glorifies the role of mind. Chomsky's basic claim is that the grammars for human language are too complex and abstract to be learned on the basis of the type of experience to which children have access. Therefore, Chomsky argues that significant components of the grammar must be inborn. He says that a child is born with some innate mental capacity which helps the child to process all the language which he hears. This is called the Language Acquisition Device, and he saw it as comprising a special area of the brain whose only function was the processing of language. This function, he argues, is quite separate from any other mental capacity which the child has. This process is possessed by the individual and

developed in him as part of his maturation (competence/performance). Competence is the system of knowledge of language which can be formed in the mind of a person and it can be used to produce and develop grammatical utterances and these utterances are called performance. This internal capacity is specific to human beings and is not found in other animals. Chomsky's point of innateness and species specificity of language is based on universality of certain properties of language structure. These properties of language have been referred to as structural dependency. Structural dependency is more obviously a characteristic of syntax. Structural dependency means that knowledge of language relies upon knowing the structural relationship between parts of sentence and not on mere sequence of words. For example, passive sentences can be formed from active sentences by moving certain elements of a sentence. This conversion does not depend upon moving fourth or fifth word in the sentence rather it depends upon moving phrases. Therefore, structural dependency can be put forward as universal principle of all languages. Whenever elements of the sentence are moved to form passives, questions, or any other structure, such movement takes account of the structural relationships of the sentence rather than the linear order of the words. All known formal operations in the grammar of English, or of any other language are structure dependent. Such universal properties of languages are known as universal grammar.

7.12 Key Ideas of Mentalism/Nativist Approach

As it is known and accepted by everyone that every child learns his/her native language and this is usually achieved before the age of five. In our households language is not taught formally, however children achieve high level of proficiency in native tongue by the time schools begin. There is no formal process of teaching involved, but they all reach the same level of proficiency in using their native tongue by the time schools begin. It is amazing how each child succeeds in acquisition and possesses the same general abilities in using the language without the proper help of elders. Therefore, this is an area of enquiry from which the mentalism is able to suggest some formative notions. The basic characteristics of the mentalism/nativist approach are as follow: Mentalism/nativist approach supports the idea that language acquisition is innately determined; that is, it is rewired by birth since both acquisition and improvement in language are a biological process.

Acquisition of language, which is specific to human beings only, requires certain perception skills cognition abilities and other mechanisms that are related with language. Because of LAD, the child is able to attain mastery over his/her mother tongue. As it is asserted by Kess (1992) "the stages of learning the mother tongue appear to be very similar across languages and the principles which guide the child's formulations at successive stages may well be universal". Thus, in child language acquisition research in order to discover what all children bring to the process of learning, mentalism/nativist makes use of Universal Grammar which is in a way an expanded version of LAD notion.

Categorizing is basic to human cognition and allows children to extend their knowledge of language. Early semantic development may be formed by the child's cognitive

perceptions and grouping, Children usually make, use of properties such as color, shape and size to form categories and for this reason as cited in Kess (1992) “ a legless lizard is not a snake “ but because of inefficient grouping children may call it as a snake”. As the child grows up the categories improve and become more in number. So, even different groups are also achieved.

The forms of language are organized in the mind of human beings with interdependent connections of memory, perception, thought, meaning, and emotion. Language development is viewed as “one manifestation of general development” in terms of both cognitive and affective abilities (Brown, 1994). Such types of memory as short term memory, long term memory, semantic memory, pragmatic memory, interim memory and the like are all dependent on psycholinguistic background.

Mentalism regards competence and performance as distinctive features of knowing a language. Competence is defined as “one’s underlying knowledge of a system, event or non-observable ability to do something” and performance is” observable ability to do something, to perform something” (Brown, 1994). This view was first put forward by Ferdinand de Saussure as a distinction between *langue* and *parole* in 1916. Later Chomsky worked on linguistic competence and performance in 1965.

According to Bhat (1991) as it is proposed by Slobin “...development is paced by the growth of conceptual and communicative capacities... (and it) is paced by the growth of perceptual and information-processing capacities”. In brief, psycholinguistics is fundamental to not only mother tongue learning but also to foreign language learning. It helps to develop language learning pedagogy both in the field of first and second language learning. It draws parallelisms to Stephen Krashen’s monitor model and input hypothesis, but it also claims that the natural approach, created by Krashen, is weak because it disregards the socio-psychological issues in teaching foreign languages.

7.13 Significance of Psycholinguistic

Psycholinguistics can be regarded an integral part of mother tongue learning and foreign language learning because of the following features.

The ideas offered by psycholinguistic have made significant contributions to our perception of the first language acquisition. It provided us with “freedom from the restrictions of the so-called-scientific method to explore the unseen, unobservable, underlying abstract linguistic structures being developed in the child” (Brown, 1994). In other words, instead of rejecting to study mental processes of a child learning his mother tongue claiming that is impossible to observe, psycholinguistic attempted to provide a description of the stages of language acquisition process.

Owing to Language Universals, Universal Grammar and LAD, the idea that human beings are biologically programmed for learning the first language improved and biolinguistics and neurolinguistics took over the further research on this issue. For

example, neurolinguists developed the idea that learning is not only a biological process but also a neurological one, a matter of neuron activation. In addition, cross-linguistic studies brought many other evidences to light.

Starting from the generative “rule-governed” model of describing the child’s linguistic repertoire to Spolsky’s parallel distributing processing model or connectionism which proposes that linguistic performance is a consequence of neural interconnections, psycholinguistic exhibited rigorous attempts to provide a description of the child’s language learning mechanism. The studies of psycholinguists approach on how an infant acquires language provide important information for other research areas. As it is also stated by Bhat” the findings and observations of psycholinguistic research have a significant impact in the areas of language teaching, speech therapy, stylistics and so on whose description is beyond the scope of this unit.

Psycholinguistic has clarified the importance of the psychological reality of linguistic rules in language learning and acquisition. In sum, it is the psycholinguistic that primarily forms the ways of language, learning and developing learning and acquisition processes. It is a real problem identifier, problem solver, and a facilitator. It must be borne in mind that specifying and then solving the intrinsic difficulties in language learning, which is the prime occupation of the psycholinguistic, cannot be regarded as an easy task.

7.14 Psycholinguistic and Four Skills

The relation between psycholinguistics and ELT is very deep. Psycholinguistic research poses the following questions:

1. At which production stage is the language of the message is decided?
2. How are the corresponding first language (L1) and second language (L2) words are related
3. Why does code switching (both intentional and unintentionally) occur relatively frequently?
4. In what ways does our mother tongue interfere with the production of L2 speech?
5. Why do we usually speak more (slowly and hesitantly in a foreign language than in our mother tongue?
6. How do speakers try to compensate for the gaps in their incomplete L2 system?

By using the research background and research data from psycholinguistics on four skills of language learning, following views can be developed:

7.15 Psycholinguistic and the Listening Skill

Psycholinguistic exerts usable influences in the field of listening. Knowledge of psycholinguistic enables teachers in increasing the interest and motivation of students, reducing the intrinsic difficulty of listening text and thus prepare them for the listening activity. In accordance with the instructions of the psycholinguistic approach, the

intrinsic difficulty of a listening text consists of the speed of the speech, number of the unknown words (amount of intake in one class hour), interaction between previously learned topics and the new topic to be learned. In addition to intrinsic difficulties, there are extrinsic difficulties that include interest, motivation of students, purpose of listening and noise in the environment.

Psycholinguistic researchers have indicated that in teaching listening, the intrinsic and extrinsic difficulties should be overcome in order to reach to a highly qualified listening activity. They suggest that a good listening text having length of 100 words, should include averagely 5-10 new vocabulary items at pre-intermediate level. Moreover, the teacher should make that topic of upcoming text is familiarized to students so that they may show interest. The listening text, needless to say, should arouse the interest of the students. Again, it must be borne in mind that it is a psycholinguistically proven fact that the students should be positively motivated for the listening activity before, while and during the class period. The reading speed is another point of consideration for psycholinguistics. Speed of speech in class is a serious factor, varying in degrees from elementary to an advanced level. The classroom atmosphere and noise of the environment obviously affects the reading speed. Noise is an extrinsic difficulty which affects the comprehension level of the students.

7.16 Psycholinguistic and the Reading Skill

People read certain types of materials for different purposes. Skimming and scanning are, in fact, psycho linguistically oriented activities.

Psycholinguistic approach resorts to text-based approach as a case of bottom-up processing so as to emphasize the comprehension activity. It also advocates the use of inside the head model (top-down processing) to stress the fact that comprehension rests primarily on student's knowledge base. So it can be said that reading skill is mainly meaning based activity as proven by the psycholinguistic. Psycholinguistic points to the fact that a psycholinguistic control on reading reduces the intrinsic difficulty of reading text by arousing the interest of the students onto the reading passage. It provides authentic materials so as to increase the reading level. It must be noticed that if the students are not properly exposed to authentic materials they may fail in seeing their relevance to the real world.

7.17 Psycholinguistic and the Writing Skill

Psycholinguistic has a functional effect in the field of writing in accordance with the mistakes on graphic notation. Similarly, it has a clear contribution on spelling mistakes since in English words are not spelled as they sound there is a hardship on this case because storing of the spelling of words and retrieve them on demand is very difficult. As the psycholinguistic approach indicates there are also mistakes caused by aphasia, which must be treated properly. Psycholinguistic approach helps teachers to find interesting

topics for writing activities. It also indicates, via a needs analysis, the importance of creating reasons for writing and finding topics that students have information about or the topics they want to write on. Such a conduct will also increase the motivation of the students who will write willingly. Thus, the psycholinguistic approach serves to decrease the level of the difficulties in writing. It helps to specify the writing level and writing types. It pins down the mechanic mistakes on punctuation and suggests certain cures for them.

7.18 Psycholinguistic and the Speaking Skill

Psycholinguistic approach has a workable control over the field of teaching speaking as a skill. It has specified several difficulties in speaking. For example, the student-oriented difficulties, environment dependent difficulties and situation related ones are just three of them. The difficulties caused by students themselves are speaking defects and personality factors (like introvert and extrovert students). Speaking defects like voice disorders, stuttering and misarticulation are also psychological in origin caused by personality factors. There are also some traumatic disorders such as aphasia and autism caused by localized damage. It recommends therapies and counseling practices for such difficulties. Thus, the investigations of psycholinguistic approach have provided solutions for almost every type of language learning difficulty, its importance, especially teacher training and the teaching of four language skills cannot be denied. It leads the foreign language teachers towards being reflective teachers.

7.19 Weak Points of the Psycholinguistic Approach

No approach is perfect. Needless to say, it is impossible to control all of the factors involved in the language learning and acquisition process. Owing to some border-line limitations among its related areas, psycholinguistic approach exhibits the following weak points:

The psycholinguistic approach disregards behaviorism too much. The behaviorist aspect of learning the first language cannot be rejected completely since children are great imitators as specified by the imitation theory and reinforcement theory of behaviorism. Especially, the first stages of language acquisition have a great deal of surface imitation, as the infant has not developed enough categories to locate the input. As the time passes, children become poor imitators on deep structure.

In addition to imitation, the importance of input in the child's acquisition of language is undeniable. "Whatever one's position is on the innateness of language the speech that young children hear is primarily the speech heard in the home, and much of that speech is preferential speech or the speech of older siblings" (Brown, 1994). Natural dimension of language acquisition is a must; however, also nurture has an indispensable role in language learning. The more nature supports nurture and nurture backs up 'nature, the more the psycholinguistic difficulties in language learning are mitigated.

According to the psycholinguistic approach, not the frequency but the complexity of words determines the items which are learned beforehand, but what about the role of the frequency of hearing and producing items while acquiring the first language? It is easy to observe children practicing the language constantly. Therefore, the behaviorist claim that practice, repetition and association are the main sequence of gaining habits may work out in the early stages of language acquisition. Then, the job of psycholinguistics to explain the unknowns in language acquisition starts where the job of the behaviorist approach slows down. In brief, the psycholinguistic approach is able enough to jot down the problems that come to the surface both in language acquisition and foreign language learning and then suggest some solution to the psycholinguistic difficulties in the learning process.

7.20 Contributions of Psycholinguistic Approach to ELT

Psycholinguistic is a problem-solving area in the language learning and teaching process. It has fundamental contributions to language and teaching pedagogy. The psycholinguistic approach has provided the theoretical ground for the flourishing of many second language learning theories and methods. Mentalist and Rationalist, Cognitive-code theories of learning are the byproduct of psycholinguistic viewpoints in science and research. Besides, Cognitive-code theory which was propounded by Bruner and Miller, the Functionalist approaches to teaching foreign languages and Thorndike's Connectivism are psycholinguistically based contributions to language teaching. The psycholinguistic approach has improved the ways of teaching vocabulary items to foreign language learners. It defines the psycholinguistic difficulty elements in learning new words of a foreign language by focusing on the intrinsic difficulty of language structures and the effect of native tongue on newly learned vocabulary. By clarifying the problematic points in such cases, it suggests ways to indicate meaningfulness and familiarity between previously learned words and a new word. While teaching groups of words, the approach suggests ordering from easy to difficult, from known to unknown. Moreover, the existence of the primacy and regency effects in learning and teaching vocabulary items was also pointed out for the first time by this approach. By means of this approach the psychological factors affecting second language learning such as motivation, memory, and explication, and induction, difference between adults and children in second language learning and soon have been put forward. Therefore, other areas of research in this field were encouraged by this approach. For example, first language acquisition has received a great deal of impetus and feedback from the psycholinguistic approach, and in this way the riddles on the mother tongue interference are unearthed to a great extent by means of applications of Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis on second language acquisition. Similarly, the validity of LI = L2 Hypothesis and the status of interim grammars and interlingual errors are being reconsidered today through the contributions furnished by the psycholinguistic approach.

With the notions provided by transformational generative grammar, both teachers and course book writers started to be more careful about selecting “ patterns which were really analogous at the deep structure” while presenting the language items. Besides, with

LAD the creative aspect of a language surfaced and gained importance in language classrooms.

Owing to the Nativist period of psycholinguistic, it is realized by the researchers that children pass through a series of interim grammars. This approach sheds light onto the fact that foreign language learners also display similar characteristics and “the term interlanguage came into use to describe the kind of language a particular second language learners was using at a given time that is the learner’s version of the new language....” And interlanguage differs from the native speaker’s way of using the language (Rivers, 1981). Psycholinguist approach provides ways to make grammar and vocabulary presentation more pedagogical. So, language teacher who is trained in psycholinguistics, and pedagogical presentation of the new material, “he will easily handle the psycholinguistic and psychological processes involved in language teaching” (Demirezen, 1989). It has helped to predict the learner’s mistakes, It gave new directions to error analysis and contrastive analysis. It also helped in the understanding of the nature of interlingual transfer, mistakes and errors, mother tongue interference, ambiguity, and hierarchy of difficulties in ELT by way of phonetic and phonemic analysis, morphemic and morphological evaluation, and syntactic, semantic and pragmatic evaluation. It has served for the identification of difficulties by giving solution to them. It is a great facilitator in establishing a productive learning environment and in using effective, pedagogical class activities.

7.21 Summary

By means of the psycholinguistic, it is understood that we, as human beings, are innately and biologically programmed to acquire the first language, second and third languages, which may also be learned, if the right learning atmosphere furnished by the psycholinguistic approach is provided. Therefore, it has furnished solid scientific ground for the validity of Chomsky’s, the neuro-psychologists’ and Krashen’s theories. Moreover, cognitive processes are regarded as the main starting point to provide a description of language acquisition stages. Therefore, with this approach, the unseen and abstract language operations to learn languages are tried to be unearthed and systematized. Since the scope of psycholinguistic approach is so pervasive, it unfolds many questions and disputes about language acquisition and learning. For example, it can give solutions to deeply seated psycholinguistic difficulties and ambiguities involved in foreign language teaching. Also, it can expound the weak status and validity of some approaches, as is the case with the natural approach, devised by S. Krashen, by pointing out that it disregards the socio-psychological issues in learning foreign languages.

Psycholinguistic covers many scientific fields such as cognitive psychology, behaviorism, psychology, applied psychology, linguistics, mentalism, nativism, biological linguistics, neurolinguistics, rationalism, etc. In addition, in the field of language teaching, psycholinguistic considerations have improved the ways of teaching skills in terms of cognitive, meta-cognitive, and socio-effective respects by giving their psycholinguistic difficulty levels and ambiguity phenomenon. As psycholinguistic

considerations offer ways of teaching four basic skills including even teaching testing and vocabulary, the impact of this approach upon the teaching of four skills cannot be overlooked. In addition, psychological factors such as motivation, memory, learning styles, etc. have been clarified and regarded as crucial in learning a foreign language because of the contributions of the psycholinguistic approach. Thus, this approach has given rise, by showing the directions of negative activation of the mother tongue interferences, to the establishment of psycholinguistic methodology, to a teaching and learning language pedagogy, both in the field of first language and foreign language acquisition.

7.22 Exercises

1. Explain different areas that are covered by psycholinguistics.
2. What is meant by language acquisition?
3. What is behaviorism and what are behaviorist views regarding language learning?
4. Elaborate mentalism or nativist approach of language acquisition?
5. How has psycholinguistics proved helpful in teaching of four language skills?

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Unit–8

PHONETICS AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Introduction

This unit introduces the concept of phonetics, intonation and pronunciation in learning English language. It explains the differences between phonetics and phonology and through a considerable light on the intonation pattern of English that can help students in pronunciation of words. Lastly, this unit also deals with the manner and places of articulation during the process of comprehending different given speech sounds.

Objectives

At the end of this unit, the students are expected

1. To acquire a sound knowledge of phonetic
2. To differentiate between phonetics and phonology
3. To practice different consonant and vowel sounds
4. To familiarize themselves with different properties of the sounds
5. To determine different levels of intonation in phonetics

8.1 Phonetics

In linguistics, it deals with the study of human speech or in the case of different sign languages. Phonetics basically deals with the study of how sounds are produced physically by positioning the mouth, tongue and lips. And how sounds can be listened by the other person? Generally it deals with the characteristics of speech sounds.

It has three areas or branches.

- Articulatory.
It is concerned with the production of speech sounds
- Acoustic.
It is concerned with the transmission of speech sounds in term of duration, frequency and energy.
- Auditory phonetics.
It is concerned with the reception of speech sounds through ear.

8.2 Teaching of Phonetics

One of the most important benefits in phonetics is in teaching of foreign languages. It allows teachers to study or examine over all difference between the target languages and sounds of the source and this difference can be explain easily to the learners.

It also allows the learners to speak and understand easily the language that they are learning.

Phonetics and phonology refers to the idea of breaking the sounds of the words into smaller words and articulating them properly according to the correct sound of that word. The articulation or the importance of pronunciation of words was so negligible in the past that no one really paid heed to the matter of fact that the pronunciation of words according to their proper sound. It gained attention just half past the 20th century and the people became conscious of the importance of the way a certain word was pronounced or sounded in a particular manner. Though initially, it was very difficult for teachers to teach a second language phonetics as it was very hard for people from one region of one native language and one particular accent to adopt a complete different and new accent and comprehending a complete different accent with many different sounds and the way they were articulated needed a lot of practice to get a command over it but the linguists always kept trying new and different methods to make it work.

There is definition of pronunciation given below:

“The manner in which speech sounds; especially connected sequences are articulated by individual speakers or by speakers generally.”

According to the definition mentioned above, the pronunciation of words of any language directly links with the phonetics and phonology because the language is always

concerned about this thought of how it actually is being spoken, or how the way an individual or in general people of that particular region speak or pronounce the words. It's also that the speakers of same language can have the different accents or way of producing sounds. As an example, English is used as native language in United States of America, United Kingdom and Australia, but the way an American says "Would you like to have a cup of tea?" is completely different as an Australian native says the same sentence. This is where we get to understand the importance of teaching of phonetics and phonology. The teachings of sounds have one through many evolutions and it does not remain to this but it further more incorporates as well.

From the very beginning of the learning and teaching of the phonetics and phonology, all the efforts were made to make the teaching of phonetics and phonology easier. Many teachers also argued if the pronunciation was even needed to be taught. However, after so many of the methods and the techniques being tried the 'listen and repeat' method was proved to be reflecting the most positive results. As the learning of any language also includes four steps; listening, speaking, reading and writing of the language. Whereas, in matter of speaking or pronouncing the target language words in accurate manner only observing the way a native articulates the word and the places of the articulation that are active during the production of sound is more important. For this reason as mentioned above the 'listen and repeat' method just does that all. To apply this method the students or learners were reinforced to listen to the second or targeted language very carefully and repeat the sound production as closer to the original accent as possible, unless the students became more fluent and accurate in pronouncing the word properly.

In 1980's there was a very rapid growth in the study of phonology and a lot of attention was given to this field. The need of teaching phonetics and phonology is always required for second language and it always have been a difficult task for teachers to do so because acquiring language is somewhat easier than speaking it in that very particular manner of the origin of the language, which is considered to be quite difficult. Teachers have always been dealing with new methods and techniques to make it work more in effective, easier and accurate way.

The most recommended method for teaching the phonetics and phonology is considered to consult the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). This chart has assigned very unique symbols with different representation for each sound to make it distinctive. Due to the distinguishable shapes of the symbols it's easy for a learner to remember them and use them as well. Many different versions of IPA have also been approved by teachers to be adopted by the students.

Phonetics, same way is concerned with the pronunciation of sound and manner of articulation, it is of huge importance in pronunciation. As it mainly describes the sounds of the words, it is very important to be studied in order to learn the pronunciation of any second language. In English language, alphabets are classified into two categories; of vowels and consonants, depending upon the sound and airstream of the word produced

during the articulation. Learning of these rules is important due to the very slight differences present between the sounds.

Since the most effective method to teach the phonetics and phonology has been a great deal of debate, most of the teachers agree on the repetition method. For bringing more accuracy in the word pronunciation phonemes are used, for they break the words into small sounds and makes it easier to learn the accurate pronunciation. Another practice is to illustrate different words with similar sounds to the students and ask them if they are same or different.

All in all, teaching of phonetics and phonology has been a challenge and has gone through different stages of evolutions and stages of techniques used. In short teachers have always been in quest to find better method of teaching phonetics and phonology. All the methods have been mainly linked to speaking and listening of the target language. So, one can never neglect the importance of phonetics and phonology in terms to learn a language in a better way. As the learner knows more about the phonetics and phonology, more they understand the target language efficiently and more they are prone to adopt an accurate accent and the pronunciation of that language.

8.3 Consonants in English

For many learners of English, one of the hardest things to grasp about the language is its pronunciation. Not only are there many accents to get accustomed to – American, British, Australian among others – but there are many fundamental sounds within the language that can be difficult to produce.

To make things even worse, English's spelling system is horrendous and seldom a reliable indication – even for native speakers – of how to pronounce most word.

Because of this, it's useful to try to depict the pronunciation of the English language through a set of symbols besides the Latin alphabet – namely, the International Phonetic Alphabet. Known as the IPA for short, this phonetic system might be familiar to you, and in my experience, it's a useful tool for learning any language.

The great thing about the IPA is that its symbols are meant to be universal. This means that if you learn the set of symbols used for English sounds, you can apply them to most other languages you might want to learn, from French to Arabic to Japanese.

It is not a perfect system, since its details can only be so fine, and nuances like tone and stress are often overlooked in IPA transcription, which can be a bit of a problem with tonal languages like Mandarin and Vietnamese.

However, for our purposes with English, these phonetic symbols can definitely come in handy if you're looking to improve your pronunciation.

		MANNER	VOICING	PLACE						
				Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Obstruent	Stop	Voiceless	p			t		k	ʔ	
		Voiced	b			d		g		
	Fricative	Voiceless		f	θ	s	ʃ		h	
		Voiced		v	ð	z	ʒ			
	Affricate	Voiceless					tʃ			
		Voiced					dʒ			
Sonorant	Nasal		Voiced	m			n		ŋ	
	Liquid	Lateral	Voiced				l			
		Rhotic	Voiced					r (ɹ)		
	Glide		Voiced	w				j	(w)	

The first set of symbols presented here represents consonant sounds. Most are fundamental to English pronunciation regardless of accent. Since you might be unfamiliar with some of the terms used to describe the sounds, here are some definitions you might find useful:

Voiced: a voiced sound is a sound where the vocal cords vibrate, thus producing some sort of pitch. This is the kind of sound most people associate with regular talking or singing.

Voiceless / unvoiced: a voiceless or unvoiced sound is one where the vocal cords do not vibrate, thus making the sound very whispery and without a pitch. It can tend to make a letter sound harsher when pronounced.

Stop: a consonant sound where the airflow is stopped completely by the mouth and then sharply released. Think of sounds like “p,” “k,” and “t.” All languages contain stops.

Fricative: a consonant sound where the airflow becomes noisy and turbulent because it only has a very small space to travel through in the mouth. Think of sounds like “f,” “s,” and “sh.” Most languages have fricatives, but not all.

Nasal: a consonant sound where the airflow passes exclusively through the nose instead of the mouth. Think of sounds like “m,” “n,” or “ng.” Almost all languages have nasals.

Affricate: a consonant sound that begins like a stop but then releases like a fricative, thus making it a sort of combination sound. Think of sounds like “ch” and “j.” Affricates are common, especially in English.

Alveolar ridge: a ridge found on the roof of the mouth between the upper teeth and the hard palate, which is used in conjunction with the tip of the tongue to make many sounds

Soft palate: the soft tissue in the back of the roof of your mouth, which is used in conjunction with the back of the tongue to make many sounds

Glottis: the part of the larynx (air passage) that contains the vocal cords and the opening between them.

8.4 Places of Articulation

Bilabial:	The point of maximum constriction is made by the coming together of the two lips.
Labiodental:	The lower lip articulates with the upper teeth.
Dental	The tip of the tongue articulates with the back or bottom of the top teeth.
Alveolar:	The tip or the blade of the tongue articulates with the forward part of the alveolar ridge. A sound made with the tip of the tongue here is an apico-alveolar sound; one made with the blade, a lamino-alveolar.
Post alveolar:	The tip or the blade of the tongue articulates with the back area of the alveolar ridge.
Palatal:	The front of the tongue articulates with the domed part of the hard palate.
Velar:	The back of the tongue articulates with the soft palate.
Uvular:	The back of the tongue articulates with the very back of the soft palate, including the uvula.
Pharyngeal:	The pharynx is constricted by the faucal pillars moving together (lateral compression) and, possibly, by the larynx being raised. "It is largely a sphincteric semi-closure of the oro-pharynx, and it can be learned by tickling the back of the throat, provoking retching" (Catford 1978:163).
Glottal:	The vocal folds are brought together; in some cases, the function of the vocal folds can be part of articulation as well as phonation, as in the case of [ʔ] and [h] in many languages.

8.5 Vowels in English

Vowels are speech sounds that involve pulmonic air and a less extreme narrowing of the vocal tract than consonants. Thus, they cannot easily be described in terms of articulatory criteria. Instead, they are defined in terms of an abstract vowel space, known as the Cardinal Vowel Chart, which bears a relation to the following articulatory parameters:

Tongue position

(high vs. low ; front vs. back)

Lip rounding

Using these parameters the International Phonetic Association (IPA) classifies two basic sets of vowels that serve as reference points for the various vowels that occur in the languages of the world

Primary cardinal vowels

Secondary cardinal vowels

A further phonetic criterion used for the classification of vowels is the presence of nasalization.

The cardinal vowels are not vowels of any particular language. Rather, they serve as a reference system for the vowels of the languages of the world. They are classified according to the parameters:



front vs. back, high vs. low (tongue position)

unrounded vs. rounded (lip position)

The eight vowels above constitute the primary set of cardinal vowels.

The eight primary cardinal vowels were found to be insufficient to cover the whole vowel field, so eight more were added by applying changes of lip position to the original vowels. They are referred to as secondary cardinal vowels.



Depending on their phonetic properties, vowels can be realized in various ways: as monophthongs (or simple vowels); Examples [i :] in several languages

as diphthongs (or complex vowels)
as nasalized vowels
as semi-vowels (or approximants)

A diphthong is a vowel which undergoes considerable change of quality during pronunciation, therefore, it appears to have two parts. Diphthongs can be classified: according to the tongue position involved in the second vowel (upgliding, downgliding, ingliding)
alternative classification: closing, opening, centering
according to the prominence of one of its parts (rising - second part prominent, falling - first part prominent).

Cross-linguistically, the onsets (first part of a diphthong) as well as the direction and distance of tongue movement vary considerably.

In nasalized vowels the nasal cavity is used as an additional resonance chamber. The diacritic for "nasalized" is ~ written as a superscript.

In general, all semi-vowels or approximants are problematic for phonetic analysis and constitute a special class of consonants. They are similar to vowels since they allow an almost free passage of air through the mouth. The palatal approximant [j] is similar to cardinal vowel 1: [i] and the labio-velar approximant [w] is similar to cardinal vowel: [u].

In most dialects of English, such as British Received Pronunciation and General American, there is complementary allophonic vowel length. Vowel phonemes are realized as longer vowel allophones before voiced consonant phonemes in the coda of a syllable, meaning vowels are renewed for a voiced consonant. For example, the vowel phoneme / AE / in / Baet / 'bat' is realized as a short allophone [æ] in [Baet], because the / t / phoneme is voiceless, while the same vowel / AE / phoneme in / baed / 'bad' is realized as a somewhat long allophone (which could be transcribed as [baed]) because / d / is expressed.

/æ/ → [æ̃] | _ [+consonant]
+voiced

/'bæd/ → ['bæ̃d]

/æ/ → [æ] | _ [+consonant]
-voiced

/'bæt/ → ['bæt]

In addition, the vowels in Received Pronunciation are usually between short and long, as is evident from their transcription. The short vowels / ɪ / (as in kit) / ʊ / (as in feet) / ε / (as in clothes) / ʌ / (as in strut) / AE / (as in fall) / ɒ / (as in part) and / ə / (as in the first syllable of ago and the second bank). The long vowels / i / (like fleece) / U / (as in all) / ɜ :

/ (as in nursing) / ɔ: / as in the north and thinking, and / ɑ: / (as in father start). While varying degrees of longitude indeed present, there are also differences in the quality of these vowels and the now prevailing view tends to emphasize the latter than the former.

8.6 Long and Short Vowels in English

English vowels are sometimes divided into “long” and “short” vowels along lines different from the linguistic differentiation. Traditionally, the vowels / eɪ I aɪooJu / (as in ace rhythm bite boat bute) is said to be “long” counterparts of the vowels / AE ε ɪ ʊ ʌ / (as in bat bet bit blunt but) that are said “short” are. This terminology reflects their judgment before the Great Vowel Shift.

Traditional English phonics teaching, often use the term “long vowel” for each statement that might result from the addition of a silent E.

Letter	“Short”	“Long”	Example
A a	/æ/	/eɪ/	mat / mate
E e	ε/	/i:/	pet / Pete

8.7 Intonation in Language Teaching

Once such descriptions are available the question arises of how use can be made of them in foreign language teaching. The production of teaching materials involves decisions on the selection of items to be taught and their ordering. So far this has been done on the basis either of the grammar of the language or of its vocabulary, the reason being that only here has research been done that is adequate to enable one to make the decisions. To a limited extent, phonetic criteria have been used too. But the question of teaching intonation systematically, attempting to make general decisions on teaching content open to criteria concerning intonation, has been almost completely ignored. The justification for this has been that the necessary descriptions were just not available. This argument can hardly be employed now. There is no reason, a priori, why the general structuring of a foreign language course should not be attempted with the controlled introduction of intonation patterns, just as there is already controlled introduction of grammar and lexis. It would increase the number of variables to be manipulated and we would have to settle the priorities between the different levels of language and indeed between these and non-linguistic criteria. Still, even if course grading entirely in terms of intonation might prove impracticable, a deliberate restriction on the range of intonation patterns introduced in the early stages and subsequent presentation of new intonation patterns one or a few at a time might prove to be a practicable application of descriptions of intonation. The alternative is to leave intonation uncontrolled in general oral teaching, as it is largely at present, but to make provision for systematic practice drilling as the course proceeds. In this way the importance of intonation is not neglected and yet the general course content need not depend on what is desirable by way of intonation. In point of fact the trend towards greater use of dialogue in language teaching, and the attempt to make drilling resemble

natural language use, make it possible to integrate intonation and grammar practice to an extent that suggests great potentialities for the teaching of intonation in the future.

It may be thought by some readers that more importance is being attached here to intonation than is justified. But perhaps such an attitude does no more than reflect the extent to which intonation has in the past been ignored in language teaching. In situations where people are learning a spoken language with a view to fairly extensive social contact in that language, intonation assumes major importance. I would place the need for accurate intonation above the need for accurate sounds.

A foreigner speaking English may not be able to pronounce the -ng, [ɪn], sound. For thing, [θɪŋ], he may always say thin, [θɪn]. As we look at this example, we may think that the hearer will believe he has said thin. In practice he is most unlikely to interpret what he hears in this way. In a sentence like:
What's that thin over there?

The fact that this is an adjective and could not appear after that, the general semantics of the sentence and the gestures and other para-linguistic features that might accompany the utterance would make it quite clear that the intended word was thing not thin. The hearer may not even be aware that he has had to disregard a faulty pronunciation. Communication is scarcely ever impaired by the mispronunciation of a single sound. With intonation the position is quite different. Errors of two kinds may be made. A pattern may be used which is clearly not one that occurs in the target language. In this case the hearer will either simply not understand or will interpret it according to that intonation in his own language, that shares some feature with it. He may or may not arrive at the right interpretation. The other kind of mistake is perhaps more probable. The hearer may not even be aware that there is an error in the speaker's utterance. Most people probably think that all intonational features are universal. They are not on their guard for possible error and will not notice, when one occurs. Instead, they will put their usual interpretation on what they have heard and understand something quite different from what the speaker intended to convey. Nothing in the grammar and vocabulary of the utterance, nor in the context, will rectify this, since, in English at least, none of these things determine the intonation of a sentence. Intonation is largely additive. In many languages it does not cast doubt on the validity of a statement to raise the pitch on the last stressed syllable, but in English it does. It may even turn the statement into a question. Especially in the attitudinal functions of intonation, the speaker may convey a meaning which is quite different from that intended, the effect of which he may not be aware of. How many foreigners have been thought to be rude and uncouth when in fact they were probably employing an intonation pattern which had a perfectly acceptable meaning in the mother tongue, but unfortunately bad connotations of rudeness and uncouthness in the foreign language? It is easy to be humorous about a foreigner's intonation. In fact, incorrect intonation may seriously hamper communication at any levels. That is why intonation deserves more serious attention than it gets.

8.8 Phonetics and Phonology

Many language textbooks contain a list of the sounds of the language being taught. Often for each sound a symbol is given in a phonetic transcription. The transcription used for English shows that English has twenty vowels, twenty-two consonants and two semi-vowels, while French has sixteen vowels, seventeen consonants and three semi-vowels. The list of symbols appears to be for the sound system what the alphabet is for the orthography. Most people without training in phonetics would assume that just as there is a fixed number of letters for their language to use, there is also a fixed number of sounds. The number of sounds would usually be larger than, but comparable to, the number of letters. In fact, it is a quite mistaken belief that these lists really represent all the different sounds of the language. We cannot even get by with the use of a word as imprecise as sound, although I have so far been using it myself. If one was to listen to the language being spoken and if one wrote down a fresh symbol for every different sound that one heard—if it were even possible to do this—we would end up with an inventory many times larger than the two mentioned above. Many of the noises, that we think of as one ‘sound’, are different both acoustically and in their articulation. English [b] may be voiced, voiceless or partially devoiced, according to whether it occurs between vowels, finally after a vowel, or initially before a vowel or consonant. The air-pressure that builds up in the articulation of a plosive consonant is normally released through the mouth, but if the [h] is followed by an [m], that is, a nasal consonant with the same place of articulation, the pressure is released through the nasal passage instead. From this it is clear that there is not just one [b] in English.

A close investigation of the vowels and consonants of any language would reveal a similar degree of variability.

Each of these variations is strictly speaking a different sound and the trained ear can hear the differences. If a different symbol were to be used for each sound, they would number hundreds, not forty-four or thirty-six. For an accurate picture of the pronunciation of a language we need to have this kind of detail, and when a phonetician is describing what he observes this closely, he is said to be providing a description of the phonetics of the language. Such a description will give us a very comprehensive picture of the native speaker's pronunciation, and since it is presumably the teacher's aim for his pupils to attain a pronunciation like that of the native speaker, he would, ideally at least, wish them to master all that is described. In practice, however, he might not find a description in this form all that usable. Amid such detail, it would be very hard to know just where to start. The answer to the question of what is the most important is to be found in the fact that the linguist believes that not everything has been said about the pronunciation of a language when the phonetics has been described.

The linguist phonetician does not stop short at the phonetic statements that we have been discussing so far. He attempts to discover some kind of system operating within the great diversity of sound that occurs in any one language. There is good reason to believe that analyses of pronunciation systems proposed by linguists are not just a construct imposed

by them on the data. Most native speakers are quite unaware of the variety of their own pronunciation. Their intuition tells them that the number of significant sounds is far fewer than the hundreds that the phonetician can observe. The lists of the 'sounds' of a language which 'were produced before the conscious effort was made to develop scientific procedures bear a close resemblance to the lists of phonemes that linguists eventually proposed. This suggests that the system has a psychological significance for both the user and the learner of the language.

To investigate the phonology or the phonemics of a language is to enquire how the different sounds are used to operate the grammar and vocabulary of the language and thereby to convey meaning. If the linguist finds two words which are identical in pronunciation except for one sound, he will accept that the pair of sounds are significantly different and will be satisfied that they constitute separate phonemes. On the other hand, he will also come across sounds that are phonetically distinct from one another and yet never contrast with each other in such a way as to distinguish one word from another. As long as the two sounds have a reasonable phonetic similarity they will be considered realizations of the same phoneme.

This is most easily understood through an example. The words *pat* and *bat* in English are the same except for the first sound. *Pat* begins with [p^h], a bilabial, voiceless plosive, immediately followed by the puff of air known as aspiration; *bat* begins with [b], a bilabial plosive with partial voicing and no aspiration. This is the only difference between the two words, but it is enough to make the two words utterly distinct for any native speaker. We therefore know that /p/ and /b/ are separate phonemes in English. Our examination will also reveal that there are other sounds in English that are rather like this [b] but not quite the same. In a word like *robber* there is a b-like sound between the vowels, only it is voiced throughout. In *mob* the last sound is completely voiceless [b]. These are just three phonetically distinct sounds that could possibly be thought of as [b]s. In order to establish that these differences were significant in English, we should have to find pairs of words that were distinguished from one another by such differences in the way that *pat* and *bat* are distinguished by /p/ and /b/. If we substitute [b] or [b] for the [b] of [mab]. We do not change it into another word, nor would we do so if we substituted the different [b]s for one another in any words. Furthermore, as we look through the language, we observe that there are plenty of other words that begin with a partially voiced and still others which end with a voiceless [b]. There seems to be a pattern, which we first found in *bat*, *robber* and *mob*, but which is repeated throughout the language. This will lead us to the conclusion that what we have are not different phonemes, but different variations of the phoneme, /b/. To these varied realizations of the same phoneme we give the name *allophone*.

From the original undifferentiated list of sounds—from the phonetics—the linguist has abstracted a much more limited number of significant sounds, each of which may itself occur in a number of forms. However, in the way they enable the language to operate they may be thought of as the same and the differences may be disregarded. In any case the differences go unheard by the native speaker, although he produces them. To acquire

a reasonable pronunciation the foreign learner has to develop a mastery of these significant sound distinctions. The aim of pronunciation teaching should be to ensure that the learner has a command of those features that enable the native speaker to perceive phonemic contrasts.

Is it possible to say that instead of teaching the hundreds of sounds of the language, the teacher need only teach the forty-odd significant sounds-- the phonemes? Unfortunately it is not as simple as that. Phonemes are essentially abstractions, not concrete entities. If a phoneme always occurred in an identical form, one would be able to talk about teaching a phoneme. We have seen that the symbol /b/ represents several phonetically distinct sounds and the differences may be just as important as the similarities.

This can be seen if we look in still more detail at English plosives. The consonants /b, d, g,/ in English are still often referred to as voiced consonants and are contrasted with the voiceless plosives /p, t, k,/. From this labelling one might suppose that the crucial phonetic difference between them is one of voicing and that if one taught a group of learners always to voice the one set and to make the other set voiceless, one would have done all that was necessary to establish the phonetic contrast in their speech. A closer analysis of the various ways in which the contrast between these plosive consonants operates will reveal this to be a very superficial and dangerous solution.

In initial position, the opposition between voiced and unvoiced often does not exist at all. The first sounds of *tome* and *dome*, for example, may each be voiceless. The distinctive feature here is the aspiration of the /t/ and the lack of it on the /d/. The foreign speaker of English may pronounce these two sounds in quite different ways, but the English-speaking hearer will be listening for the presence or absence of aspiration not for the degree of voicing. Where he hears no aspiration, he will believe that he has heard /d/, even if the sound was completely voiceless. *Tome* will be mistaken for *dome*. Voicing is a more important feature where the plosives occur intervocally. In *writer* /t/ is voiceless, whereas in *rider* /d/ is fully voiced. Here too, however, there is aspiration on the voiceless plosive, weak aspiration in a word like *writer* where it is in initial position in an unstressed syllable, but strong aspiration in a word like *pretend* where the syllable is stressed. In final position voicing is again irrelevant.

In *mat* and *mad* /t/ and /d/ are both voiceless. Since final consonants are often unreleased there is no aspiration to distinguish them either. The native speaker does not hear any difference between these final plosives. What he does hear is a difference in the length in the vowel, /æ/, which precedes them. The /æ/ of *mad* is distinctly longer than the /æ/ of *mat*. It could be said that in final position the phonemic distinction between /t/ and /d/ is realized, not by voicing, but by vowel length. If the learner voices the /d/ his pronunciation will, at the least, be inaccurate. At the worst his utterance may be heard as *madder* or *man*, depending on whether he releases the final voiced consonant or not. To be acceptable the pronunciation of *mad* requires a voiceless final plosive, preceded by a long vowel.

There is no single way of pronouncing each of the six plosives that will lead to a largely accurate pronunciation of English. If a simple solution is demanded, probably the best is to insist that the forties consonants' are always aspirated. This means that final consonants would always have to be released, but learners have a tendency to do this anyway. In view of this, the learner's pronunciation would still have a clear accent, especially since he would be aspirating strongly on unstressed syllables and on /t/ in words like *stem* where there is no aspiration in normal speech. This strategy involves deliberately teaching a faulty pronunciation and many teachers (and linguists) would baulk at going this far in an effort to simplify learning. Ultimately it might prove to have complicated the pupil's task. If one looks at plosives in French the picture appears a good deal less complex. /p, t, k,/ are always voiceless and never aspirated. /b, d, g,/ are fully voiced in all positions. Each of the phonemes has a more or less consistent pronunciation. The target is simple but the learning is not necessarily so. The English learner of French might appear to have a relatively easy task, since even in his own language he produces fully voiced plosives in intervocalic positions. It is only necessary to teach him to produce this sound in the other positions. It is precisely this that he will find difficult to do, because pronunciation problems are not caused only by strange sounds with unaccustomed articulations, but also by familiar sounds in unfamiliar places. Following his English habits, he will produce a voiceless /b, d, g,/ at the beginning and end of words and these will be heard as /p, t, k,/ by the Frenchman, who will be looking for lack of voice as the distinguishing features and will be unimpressed by the existence of another, aspirated set of plosives in the Englishman's speech. To be satisfied by the learner's apparent ability to produce a voiced set of plosives would be to be quite misled as to his ability to pronounce French accurately. The full picture of what needed to be taught would only become clear when allophonic variation was taken into account.

We can see from these examples that it is impossible to know what the really significant features of a phoneme are without examining the relation of contrast with other phonemes. This is very well brought out in the analysis of vowel systems. If we were to hear a single vowel sound, we would have no idea of how to interpret it unless we knew something of the system in which it operated. English has twenty vowels but there are other languages with only five. The same sound would have a different value in each of the languages, even though there might be no phonetic difference. Even languages, which have approximately the same kinds of vowel systems do not necessarily draw the boundaries between vowel phonemes in the same places. What is more, the phonetic realizations of one phoneme may overlap those of an adjacent phoneme. The degree of overlapping will certainly vary from one language to another. In brief, vowel phonemes are mutually defining and, as we shall see below, this is important for the teaching as well as the description of vowel systems.

Oral vowels are distinguished from one another principally by vowel quality and length. The relevant articulatory features in vowel production are the relative height of the tongue, the part of the tongue, front or back, engaged in the articulation, and the relative rounding or spreading of the lips. Each of these parameters is a continuum phonetically. The French phoneme /y/, as in *tu*, is pronounced with the front of the tongue high and the

lips rounded. It contrasts with /u/, as in *tout*, which has the back of the tongue high and the lips rounded, and with /i/, as in *lit*, which has the front of the tongue high, but the lips spread. If the phoneme is to be perceived as /y/ by the hearer, it has to be sufficiently fronted to be distinct from /i/ and sufficiently rounded to be distinct from /u/. Provided these conditions are met, precise phonetic accuracy is probably unimportant, at least as an intermediate goal. Because to the English ear /y/ is auditorily closer to /u/ than to /i/, most English learners of French will probably substitute /u/ for /y/ in the early stages. The spelling will reinforce this tendency. Where in English /u/ follows the semi-vowel /j/, as in words like *duty* /djuti/ or *puma* /pjumə/, the allophone of /u/ is further forward because the front of the tongue has been raised to form /j/. The resemblance of this allophone to French /y/ will lead many English learners to substitute /ju/ for /y/. Words like *tu*, *du*, *nu* will be pronounced [tju], [dju], and [nju]. One of the possible strategies in teaching an acceptable pronunciation of /y/ to English speakers is to make use of this existing English allophone.

A complex interaction of quality and quantity is shown in the opposition between /i:/ and /I/ in the English words *bead* and *bid*. When the vowels are followed by a lenis consonant, such as /d/, or by no consonant at all, there is both a qualitative and a quantitative difference between them. /i:/ is a little further forward and closer, the lips a little more spread, the whole articulation rather transfer than with /I/. /i:/ is also noticeably longer. In the words *beat* and *bit*, where the vowels are followed by a fortis consonant, there is no significant length difference, but the quality difference remains. Many foreign learners will bring from their own language a single vowel in this area which may be close in quality to /i:/ and in quantity to /I/. They will find the English phonemes very difficult to separate because they are phonetically close together, perhaps closer than are some sounds that we consider allophones of the same phoneme. As we have seen, it is not the phonetic distance between two sounds that decides whether they are the same or separate phonemes. The learner will probably first succeed in making the distinction where quality and quantity reinforce each other. Working on the hypothesis that /i:/ is a long, tense vowel and /I/ a short lax vowel, he will master the distinction between *bead* and *bid*. But, having learned to associate /I/ with short duration, he will then produce /I/ instead of /i:/ in words like *beat* where the final fortis plosive demands a short preceding vowel. He now has to learn to dissociate the vowel quality from vowel length. It would be quite impossible to know which features are the most important to acquire, if one did not know the whole system of oppositions.

It is clear above that one cannot arrive at an understanding of the task that faces the learner without going into allophonic variation. Neither the 'sounds' with discussion of which I began this section nor the phonemes which were subsequently proposed to replace them can alone provide the basis for an acceptable pronunciation. Certain features of allophones must be insisted upon if phonemic distinctions are to be adequately drawn. Not all allophonic variation will be of equal concern to the teacher. A distinction has been proposed between intrinsic and extrinsic allophones. Broadly, the difference is that intrinsic allophones are 'natural' (i.e. predictable from their environment without knowledge of the phonology of the language in which they occur), while extrinsic

allophones are not. We can generally account for allophonic variation in terms of position in the syllable and influence of adjacent sounds. The latter particularly seem the more predictable. The contact between the tongue and the roof of the mouth in producing /k/ is much further forward in king /kɪŋ/ than in dark /dɑ:k/. This is because in king the articulation of the vowel /ɪ/, which involves raising the front of the tongue, is already being anticipated. The reason why such allophonic variation may not be very important to the teacher is that the learner can be expected to produce it without being taught or, indeed, without being aware of the different ways in which he is producing the same phoneme. He will not have to learn to produce a more palatal /k/, because the nature of articulation is such that he will do it automatically before a front vowel.

Other allophones are not natural, in this sense. They therefore have to be learned. The English word little contains two distinct kinds of /l/. They never contrast in English and the difference is not phone-mic. In /lit/ the initial /l/ is clear. That is to say it has something of the quality of a front vowel. In final position /l/ is said to be dark, because it has more the quality of a back vowel. It is perfectly possible to produce a clear /l/ in this position, as is shown by French. The word table ends with a dark /l/ in English, but with a clear /l/ in French. Since this sort of variation is not the result of any general conditioning factor, it is to be expected that it will present greater difficulties to the learner than that which we find with intrinsic allophones. Whether this distinction will prove to be of widespread application to language teaching will depend on how satisfactorily rather less obvious examples than these can be handled.

The importance of a phonological level of analysis for the language teacher is that it gives a clear understanding of the phonetic features that a learner must acquire if he is to make the phonological distinctions on which the language operates. Teaching that is based on no more than a list of phonemes or 'sounds' will prove unsatisfactory because it ignores much significant variation in pronunciation. It may seem that by aiming at allophonic accuracy one is returning to the complexity of a purely phonetic description. This is not so. Only through a phonological analysis can one determine what the most significant features are? A phonetic description will attach equal importance to all features. A learner must learn to make the phono-logical contrasts, but this can be done with less than complete phonetic accuracy. The value of a phonological description is that it indicates the targets of pronunciation teaching.

8.9 Exercises

1. What is phonetics?
2. How would you characterize teaching of phonetics and its importance?
3. Delineate your thoughts on English consonants and vowels sounds.
4. Explain different levels of intonation in English language and its importance in pronunciation.
5. What is the difference between phonetics and phonology?

8.10 Bibliography

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Unit–9

COMPUTER IN LINGUISTICS & LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Introduction

It is known that computers are in use for the purpose of language teaching since the 1960s. An explosion of using computers is shown, in the recent years, solely for the purpose of language learning and teaching. As compared the use of computers in years back was just related, especially to the small group of people known as specialists that knew well the techniques and art of using computers. With the advancement of internet along with the multimedia, the use of computers in learning of language has become the important topic of discussion.

Objectives

At the end of unit, the students are expected:

1. To know the idea of language embedded into computer science known as computation linguistics
2. To understand the concept of machine translation
3. To comprehend different computer related tools in language testing
4. To get an idea of computer applications used in linguistics
5. To equip themselves with the process of document processing/text processing

9.1 Comparison of Computers and Language

According to a study investigated to see the results conducted between the typed language and a person's natural language; as they communicated towards the computer during a task. On purpose, no restrictions were applied on the syntax, vocabulary, or even in the manner of speaking. So the results showed that there was no kind of errors in spoken entries compared to the typed one as it contained more unique words. Ignoring the manner of communication, the subject's text were clear and exactly to the point.

9.1.1 Computational Linguistics

Computational linguistics is a branch of linguistics which deals with the ability of computers to manipulate the language of humans. It has the idea of automatically translating one language into another, the evolution of computer languages, computer manipulation of texts, and the role human language has played in building up artificial intelligence.

9.1.2 Aims of Computational Linguistics

The field of computational linguistics basically has two aims which are as follows:

- The technological. To enable computers to be used as aids in analysing and processing natural language.
- The psychological. To understand, by analogy with computers more about how people process natural language.

From the technological perspective, there are three uses for natural languages in computer applications. Natural language interfaces to software basically. For example, demonstration systems have been made that let users with microphones ask for information about commercial airline flights, which is being a kind of automated travel agent. Document receiving and extraction from data and written text. A computer is capable of scanning newspaper articles or some other forms of text, looking for information about certain events for a particular type and enter into the database system who did what and how the event took place? Through computers texts can be transferred from one language to another. Rough translations are possible of texts from a language say Japanese to a language such as English.

When we talk about computational linguistics in the psychological perspective, we say that a brain is more like a biological computer and that an adequate and valid answer to how people feel, understand, think and generate or produce language must be in terms put formal and precise enough to be modeled by a computer.

9.1.3 Problems in Computational Linguistics:

One of the most significant problems in processing natural language is the problem of ambiguity. For better understanding, let us take a sample sentence:

"I saw the man in the park with the telescope."

Now in this sentence, it is not clear at all whether I, The man, or The park has the telescope. This way it becomes difficult and confusing to comprehend its meaning. Now let us take another sample sentence. If you are told by a fire inspector: "There is a pile of inflammable trash next to your car. You are going to have to get rid of it."

Now if you interpret the word "it" as your car your action will be different and if you interpret the word as the trash you will obviously act differently. It is a confusing sentence because "it" can be used for either of the car or trash. Ambiguities like this are pervasive in utterances and written texts. Most ambiguities escape us because we are able to resolve them with our knowledge of the word and context. But this knowledge is not present in the computer systems so they are unable to get out the real interpretation of the context which has ambiguities. Unlike us, computer systems do not have the knowledge of the word or context well enough to give us the correct meaning of the text.

9.1.4 Some Applications of Computers in Linguistics

Computers already had a considerable impact on linguistics, and there is every reason to believe that the impact will be far greater and far more important in the future. The application of computer methods in linguistics has been along several lines: There have been applications to traditional or usual linguistic methods. There have been applications to extensions of traditional methods made possible by the special abilities of the computer. These are both important, but most important of all are applications to methods that are entirely new to linguistics and that hold the exciting promise of new and deeper insights into language phenomena. Computer applications to traditional or usual linguistic methods are the most straightforward. These are methods that have been useful in an unautomated form for many years. Concordance making, text searching, and the handling and sorting of linguistic data lend themselves to easy automation. The use of the computer can bring speed, convenience, accuracy, and relief from a certain amount of drudgery. Computer applications that involve straightforward extensions of the older techniques hold the promise of yielding results virtually unattainable using the older techniques. This is because the superior speed, accuracy and clerical manipulating ability of the computer bring a new dimension to the research capabilities of the investigator. The kinds of operations envisaged in these extensions of older techniques would be entirely impractical without the computer because of the large amount of manual labor that would be entailed. The computer thus becomes an instrument for increasing or extending the scope and usefulness of older techniques into areas that had previously been effectively closed to investigation. But some of the computer applications to linguistics are entirely new and are not just straightforward applications or extensions of older non-computer methods. The computer is opening up exciting new vistas in linguistic research. It offers opportunities for the exploration of virgin territory and the possibility of obtaining new and deeper insights into language, its structure and its use by the human organism. The full scope of the future possibilities is only dimly seen, but the results already intend to indicate that the future will be very bright indeed. It is thus important to understand these new techniques and to develop them and apply them systematically in linguistics. A representative and diverse selection of this work was

supported in part by the National Science Foundation an application is discussed here. We do not here present a complete survey:1 there are other applications that are perhaps equally important. But the ones presented here should serve to indicate the kind of an impact that computers are already having in linguistic research. In this new area, progress may be limited only by the bounds of our creative imagination.

Computational Semantics: is a subfield of etymology managing the limit of PCs to process human language. It ponders the possibility of programmed machine interpretation starting with one language then onto the next, the advancement of coding languages, PC handling of writings and the job of human language in making man-made brainpower.

Content Processing: PCs was appeared to be valuable in recognizing regularities about language. Content handling has been utilized to decide relative word and sound recurrence. Examinations of word recurrence among composed and spoken language have been made. The whole of the writings accordingly utilized (regardless of whether composed or spoken) is known as a corpus. Computational information has likewise been utilized to decide creation of unknown writings.

PCs can likewise be utilized to create a lexical cross reference to a scholarly content, called a concordance. There are vast quantities of concordances to the Bible. There exists an extensive, 4-volume concordance to craft by the incredible nineteenth century Russian writer Pushkin. PCs can perform such monotonous mechanical errands rapidly and precisely.

Talking Computers: Some advancement has been made in orchestrating human discourse with the goal that PCs can perceive certain vocal signs. By and by, we are managing a coordinated correspondence: the PC can't perceive really novel directions. Nor would it be able to pursue discourse that is spoken with any slight deviation (with a highlight, or quick discourse ellipsis, for example, watch for what did you.) More achievement has originated from endeavours to record sounds utilizing PCs. A sound spectrograph can decipher discourse vibration of the air into a visual readout called a sound spectrogram.

PCs have additionally been customized to create certain fundamental sounds. One phonetics PC program can imitate every one of the hints of the IPA letters in order with relative exactness.

Programmed Machine Translation: First thought about in the 1940's amid the World War II. The thought is to nourish into the PC an entry written in a source (language to be made an interpretation of) and to get an unravelling in the objective language (the language of the decoder). Tremendous endeavours have been gone through with minimal common sense outcome. Restricted word records have been developed, with a balanced correspondence among source and target language.

It has been significantly harder to instruct PCs to produce important language in an inventive manner. All PC "talking" is actually just set reactions to a restricted arrangement of

Improvements (increasingly like the undermined behaviourist perspective on language as opposed to genuine human language). PC creation of language is subsequently essentially restricted.

Concordance: Computers can also be used to make a lexical cross allusion to a literary text, which is called as a concordance. In Bible there are concordances in huge number. Computers are able to perform such tedious functions quickly and accurately.

Parsing Sentences: Parsing a sentence is to break it into the entities which are syntactically well formed. Parsing computers can have difficulty with the sentences which have uncertain meanings. Some sentences require best knowledge to interpret the meaning due to the high uncertainty in their structure. A computer can reveal both meanings but it is not able to choose between them due to the lack of common sense. It is a difficult task for any computer to distinguish between all likely and unlikely possible meanings.

The Supercomputer Generated these Five Meanings:

1. Time continues as fast as a bolt continues - the proposed significance
2. Measure the speed of flies similarly you measure the speed of a bolt.
3. Measure the speed of flies similarly that a bolt estimates the speed of flies.
4. Measure the speed of flies which resemble a bolt.
5. Flies of a specific kind, time-passes quickly, are enamoured with a bolt.

People, yet not PCs, can ignore ludicrous implications without monitoring them. This is on the grounds that we people bring a tremendous measure of world learning to a discussion; this various information enables us to talk enigmatically or circularly yet still be comprehended.

In spite of being modified with huge quantities of actualities, principles and words, a PC would most likely not think of the expected importance of numerous straightforward sentences.

Dialectical investigation: There are several alternative prospects unfolded by pc techniques. Let's examine the attainable next application to dialectology that might contribute to a large-scale study of the speech sound structure of connected dialects. A changed informant technique would be used that may not need the presence of a certified linguist. This, coupled with the use of the computer for data reduction, would allow the collection and processing of phonemic dialect information on an unprecedented basis to be able to use large amounts of such data, the programs would have to develop in order to group and summarize the data according to set theory or statistics. These operations will all be applied mechanically. The result would be a reasonably complete catalog of

informant responses classified by to the non-standard speech likeness. Compact statements of similarities and variations would then be created on the idea of the processed knowledge, and these can be used as a basis for additional in-depth and careful field investigations. In fact, the supply of outline knowledge from an outsized range of individuals would enable the linguist to pick the most effective little cluster of informants for an in depth phonetic and speech sound analysis personal interview surveys. The technique would so enable a alternative of informants that may cut back the efforts required to attain the specified result non-standard speech descriptions.

Testing of Linguistic Statements: No language statement or description can be approved, unless it has been properly tested against the linguistic data it is intended to cover. Difficulties to compare a statement with data become very large as the complexity and the richness of the details covered by the declaration increases. In this field, computer techniques find a very important application. The usefulness of computer methods in tests is particularly evident in generative morphology and syntax. But, this is not the only area where computer techniques are relevant. Paradigmatic descriptions, historical statements and all other methods of linguistic description are sufficiently explicit and precise can be tested.

Language User Templates: If a computer program can analyze and synthesize sentences according to a language statement, the program itself can be considered as a theory in this sense makes predictions. So, as our knowledge progresses on how to test grammars in means of programs, it may be reasonable not to make any distinction between the program and the language declaration. This practice becomes enough feasible with the use of high level programming languages such as COMIT, 3 by means for writing a computer program in a practical way to the linguist to read and understand. But the most exciting implication of computers in linguistics stems from the man and computer are both symbol manipulators or information processors. For this reason, a computer simulation of language behavior has a chance to give us much more detailed information about the linguistic phenomena that computer simulation could provide in other areas, such as simulating traffic in a city or material flow in a manufacturing process. In other words, a computer program can be a model of man in his role of manipulator of symbols in a much deeper sense that a computer program can be a model of other processes because the computer is also a symbol manipulator

An example of the heuristic value that a computer model of linguistic behavior provide can be found in the work on the relationship between temporary memory and language structure. 14, 15 in this work, a computer program was designed to model some aspects of the behavior of human language, namely the production grammatical sentences. This led to a more unified understanding of a wide variety of hitherto unrelated facts of the English structure and led to a unified view of the syntax that promises to be extremely important in understanding typology and language change. On the basis of this work, he became possible to understand perhaps the major reason for the complexity of languages. It may be prudent to say that we will only truly understand the behavior of human language, when we can create work patterns that also exhibit language behavior. The

emergence of the computer as a linguistic tool puts at our disposal the very techniques that we need to create such work models, and the perspective is extremely exciting.

File Processing: Many existing linguistic procedures involve the handling of large files of data or large quantities of text. In each case, the application of the computer brings certain advantages. In the case of files of data, computer handling makes possible frequent updating involving the interfiling of new material, and then, with each updating, the whole file can be printed out in its new form. Thus the linguist always has available the whole current file arranged and printed in a convenient format. With the file stored in a form amenable to computer operations, the possibility is open for easy production of complex new arrangements and sortings, with printed copies in each new arrangement. Or it is possible to make special searches of the file for particular types of items answering to certain specified search criteria. The ease with which specialized searches of the data can be carried out makes possible a considerable flexibility in research, for new searches can be planned on the results obtained from previous searches.

The advantages that automation brings to these rather straightforward file operations are several. First of all, there is the advantage of accuracy in sorting and copying. The accuracy of the computer far exceeds that of manual sorting and copying.

Another advantage is the more flexible and convenient arranging and displaying of the data without the necessity for extensive manual operations. Then there are the speed and flexibility in research that are gained by having the data in a tractable form where they can be easily searched, sorted, arranged and printed.

But perhaps one of the greatest advantages of the automation of file operations is the possibility of introducing sophisticated error checks and controls based on known regularities in the data entries. For example, in a large file of personal names in the ancient Semitic Amorite language, ² it is presumed that the names will conform to a certain known internal morphological structure. It is thus possible to program computer checks of the accuracy of the manual copying and transliteration based on the presumed structure of the entries. Any names that do not conform to the posited structure are automatically located and marked by the computer so that they can be examined in detail to determine, whether the deviation is significant or whether it is due to an inadvertent error in copying or keypunching the data. By such means, the data can easily be maintained in a state of accuracy much higher than is generally feasible without an inordinate amount of manual checking.

Text Handling: In the case of text handling, there are several operations that become quite easy with the availability of text in machinable form. The first thing that comes to mind, of course, is the preparation of concordances, a task that has been a very time-consuming one for scholars in the past. With the use of the computer and existing concordance programs, concordances can be obtained relatively easily.

Related to the production of concordances are a number of other operations that can easily be automated. These include the extraction of vocabulary from text and the counting of words, morphemes, or other items of interest. These operations and other more sophisticated ones are being extensively applied in dictionary and glossary making, as well as in areas of literary and textual criticism and stylistics. With the availability of text in the computer, certain important extensions of concordance techniques emerge. These involve the ability of the computer to carry out searches of the text according to complex search criteria. The limitations of the concordance that this possibility overcomes are twofold. In the first place, the typical concordance arranges segments of the text alphabetically according to each of the words of the text, so that the investigator can look up any word and find all of its contexts brought together. But typically the investigator has neither the interest nor the time to look up every word in the concordance. But also, typically, he could not use a partial or selective concordance because he cannot foresee which words he is going to want to look up, because he cannot foresee the exact course that his research will take. The ability to carry out text searches to order overcomes this difficulty, for a number of searches can be carried out during the course of the research.

The second difficulty of the traditional concordance is that, although it is easy to find all of the contexts of a given word, it is difficult to use a concordance to help find examples of more complex patterns, for example, sentences involving inversion, sentences involving three or more clauses, sentences involving one of a number of negative adverbs and a progressive verb form. Searches of text for patterns such as these become possible with the newer computer techniques. Particularly important in achieving the flexibility and ease of programming required for specifying and carrying out such complex searches is the use of a convenient high-level programming language. The flexibility of the clerical tasks that can be accomplished by the computer to order, especially if a high-level programming language like COMIT3 is employed, is so great that the effect of this approach is to give the investigator a much more powerful tool for searching his text than he could possibly expect by using concordances.

Bringing Structure to Light: The use of the computer with its increased speed and flexibility opens up the possibility of entirely new operations on text and on data that promise to add new dimensions to Linguistic research. Some of the new possibilities involve the use of statistical techniques for revealing suspected structures in a text. These methods include some of the cryptanalytic techniques that have been used so successfully in deciphering texts in unknown languages. But the possibilities are much broader than appear to be realized, for the methods have not been generally explored or exploited to the extent that they deserve.

The basic idea behind some of these methods is that there is an antithesis between structure and randomness. Randomness is lack of structure: A completely unstructured sequence of characters would exhibit all the properties of randomness that are known to mathematicians, but if the sequence of characters is structured in any way, the randomness is in some measure destroyed. Therefore, if statistical measurements are

made on the text and deviations from randomness are found, the deviations are to be attributed to the influence of structure. The technique thus involves a search for ways in which the text deviates from randomness and requires the finding of statistical measures that are sensitive to the constraints of interest to the investigator.

Now at any given point in the course of research, a certain amount of the structure of the text is understood and describable, and the remainder of the structure is not understood and is undescribed. The statistical techniques are to be applied to the problem of discovering some of this unknown structure. It is thus necessary, when setting up the statistical tests, to cancel out the known and measurable effect of the known structure. This can sometimes be done in a rather straightforward manner; sometimes it requires considerable ingenuity. An early experiment along these lines dealt with a scheme called gap analysis, which was pursued as a method of looking for syntactic constraints. The experiment, using an English text of about ten thousand words, was aimed at exploring the possibilities of the technique. It was assumed that the known and measurable structure was the different frequencies of different words in the text. The statistical structure of the text was then examined to look for deviations from randomness arising from the constraints of syntax. If there were no constraints due to syntax, the occurrence of a word in a text would have no effect on the possibilities or probabilities of occurrence of other words in the vicinity. The experiment, however, showed up strong deviations from randomness, and these could be used to posit syntactic constraints that agreed with what is known about English syntax. The method was thus shown to be capable of giving results.

Dialect Survey: There are many other possibilities opened up by computer techniques. Let us consider the following possible application to dialectology that could assist in a large scale survey of the phonemic structure of related dialects. A modified informant technique would be used that would not require the presence of a trained linguist.

This, together with the use of the computer for data reduction, would make possible the gathering and processing of phonemic dialect information on an unprecedented scale. A linguist with some knowledge of the dialects in question would prepare a list of words to be presented to the informants. For each word, a punched card would be prepared which contained the word and a sentence exemplifying its use. The word and sentence would appear printed along the top of the card. The cards would be made up into decks and distributed to the informants together with carefully worked out instructions. The informants would be instructed to sort the cards into piles according to criteria designed to reveal phonemic similarity and difference. The informant would then check over the piles that he has made and add to the top of each pile one of the heading cards provided. The various piles of cards, separated by their heading cards, would then be returned to the linguist who would have a computer program ready for reading the cards and summarizing the information implicit in the sorting done by the informants.

In order to make use of large amounts of data of this type, programs would have to be developed for grouping and summarizing the data according to techniques of set theory or statistics. These operations can all be applied automatically. The result would be a

rather complete catalog of informant responses arranged according to dialect similarity. Compact statements of similarities and differences would then be made on the basis of the processed data, and these could be used as a basis for more thorough and detailed investigations in the field. In fact, the availability of summarized data from a large number of individuals would allow the linguist to select the best small set of informants for further detailed phonetic and phonemic investigations by personal interview. The technique would thus allow a choice of informants that would reduce the over-all effort involved in obtaining the desired dialect descriptions.

Testing of Linguistic Statements: No linguistic statement or description can be trusted unless it has been adequately tested against the linguistic data that it is supposed to cover. The difficulties of comparing a statement with data become very great as the complexity and wealth of detail covered by the statement increase. In this area, computer techniques are finding a very important application. The utility of computer methods in testing is particularly evident in generative morphology and syntax. However, this is not the only area where computer techniques are relevant. Paradigmatic descriptions, historical statements and all other methods of linguistic description that are sufficiently explicit and precise are amenable to computer testing.

Linguistic statements can be tested in two ways, by synthesis and by analysis. The testing by synthesis may involve synthesizing all forms that are predicted, as in the case of the author's statement of the inflection of the English regular and irregular verbs. A program to test this statement synthesized and printed a complete paradigm for each of the irregular verbs and for representative regular verbs. But if the linguistic statement involves more variability, as in the area of syntax, it may be difficult or impossible to synthesize and print out each of the described sentences. In fact, most syntactic statements generate an infinite set of sentences, and it is in principle impossible to synthesize and print them all. A method of random generation, thus has much to recommend it. 7-10 According to this scheme, sentences conforming to the grammatical constraints expressed in the grammar are synthesized at random. In the generating of a sentence, a random choice is made at any point where there are alternative constructions that could fulfill a given function.

Documents Processing: Many existing etymological techniques include the treatment of vast records of information or extensive amounts of content. For each situation the use of the PC brings certain points of interest. On account of documents of information, PC dealing with makes conceivable successive refreshing including the interfiling of new material, and after that, with each refreshing, the entire record can be printed out in its new structure. Accordingly the language specialist dependably has benefit capable the entire current record organized and imprinted in an advantageous arrangement. With the record put away in a structure agreeable to PC tasks, the likelihood is open for simple creation of complex new arranging's and sorting's, with printed duplicates in each new course of action. Or then again it is conceivable to make exceptional looks of the record for specific sorts of things offering an explanation to certain predefined look criteria. The straightforwardness with which particular quests of the information can be completed

makes conceivable an extensive adaptability in research, for new quests can be moved toward the outcomes acquired from past ventures.

Computers play a very important role in the field of linguistics. The field which deals with the study of the applications and roles of computers in linguistics is known as computational linguistics. It is a subfield of linguistics which deals with the capacity of computers to process human language. It studies the idea of automatic machine translation from one language to another, the development of computer languages, computer processing of texts and the role of human language in creating artificial intelligence.

Text Processing: Computers are shown to be very useful in finding out various regularities about language. Comparisons have been made of word frequency between written and spoken language. The total sum of texts used, whether written or spoken is known as corpus. Computers are also used to produce lexical cross references to literary texts, known as concordance. We deal with one to one concordance; computers cannot recognize or follow truly novel commands. Neither can computers follow any sort of speech that is spoken with any sort of even slight deviation, nor the words spoken really quickly and in a fast way or words spoken with an accent. Recording sounds using computers have proved to be very successful. A sound spectrograph can translate speech vibration of the wind or air into a visual readout called a sound spectrogram.

Approaches to Ambiguity: Many efforts were made to solve the problem of ambiguities. The focus was on two potential solutions:
“Knowledge based and Statistical”

In the knowledge based approach, the system developers must encode a great deal of knowledge about the world and develop procedures to use it in finding out the sense of texts.

In statistical approach, a huge corpus of annotated data is needed. The system developers then write procedures that compute the most likely resolutions of the ambiguities given the word or word classes and other conditions.

9.2 Exercises

1. What is the role of computer in language teaching?
2. How would you compare and synthesise computer science and language teaching?
3. What are the possible applications of computers used in language/linguistics?
4. What is the process of file processing or text processing?

9.3 Bibliography

Barnbrook, G. (2007). *Language and Computers: A Practical Introduction to the Computer Analysis of Language*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh Univ. Press.