

NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

ENG 858: ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

COURSE GUIDE

ENG 858

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

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Caveat: *Diligent efforts have been made to properly and accurately acknowledge every reference and material used in this study book. Any omission is inadvertent. Kindly contact the course developer.*

1. Introduction

ENG 858: English as a Second Language

This course builds on the introductory course at the undergraduate level – ENG 151: Introduction to English as a Second Language. As a post-graduate course material, the approach in this module is different because of the need to take a deeper look at the topics raised at the undergraduate level. There is an elaborate investigation of familiar topics and the course also covers some new topics. The overall intent is to enable the learner to have a deeper understanding of the concept of English as a Second Language (ESL) from a more global perspective since much emphasis was on Nigeria in the introductory course, that is, ENG 151.

2. What to expect in this course

This course is designed to give the learner or student a broad knowledge of the linguistic and or sociolinguistic implications of ESL. There is a deliberate attempt therefore to present the study in such a way that will provide a wider understanding of the relevant topics. The course delves extensively on the background of ESL providing the various developmental stages of the evolution of the English as a global language. This attempt enables the learner to see the diffusion of the language and its growth from Old English to Present Day English and then to English as a Second Language. The approach adopted in this course also affords the learner the opportunity of examining the theoretical models on the use of the language all around the world and its implications on ESL. The course material also covers such areas as the linguistic features of ESL or the general characteristics of this variety of English. Besides all this, the course covers further theoretical insight into such familiar topics as bilingualism, Pidgins and Creoles, language planning and policy as well as second language acquisition.

3. Course Aims

There are fifteen units in this course and each unit has clearly stated objectives. The learner is expected to study the objectives of each unit so as to be well guided in the

course of reading through the material. Besides the objectives presented in each of the units in this course material, the general aims of the course are stated below:

- i. to deepen the learner's understanding of English as a Second Language;
- ii. to point out the linguistic features or peculiarities of English as a Second Language;
- iii. to closely examine the historical development of English as a means of providing a sound background to English as a Second Language;
- iv. to expose the learner to various theoretical models on the use of English in the world;
- v. to set the tone for in-depth post-graduate research work on English as a Second Language.

4. Course Objectives

Based on the aims outlined above, some broader objectives of the course are set out below. These objectives are learning outcomes that are expected at the end of a careful study of this course. By the end of this course, therefore, the learner should be able to:

- i. identify the conceptual terms that are related to English as a Second Language;
- ii. to explain the historical development of English in the context of language variations;
- iii. to state the factors responsible for the spread of English as a Second Language;
- iv. to describe the linguistic models that characterize the use of English language around the world;
- v. to discuss the linguistic features or peculiarities of English as a Second Language;
- vi. to point out the impact of bilingualism on English as a Second Language;
- vii. to describe the linguistic phenomenon of Pidgins and Creoles in the overall context of English as a Second Language;
- viii. to discuss the issue of language planning and policy in second language situations;
- ix. to identify the various theories on the acquisition of English as a Second Language.

5. Working through the Course

The learner is expected to work through this course conscientiously. This would involve paying close attention to the contents of each unit after having digested the state

objectives. It is also very necessary to go through the self-assessment exercise and the tutor marked assignment at the end of each unit.

6. Course Materials

This course material comprises the following:

- i. Course Guide
- ii. Study Units
- iii. Textbooks
- iv. Assignments File
- v. Presentation Schedule

7. Study Units

The units in this course material are highlighted below:

Unit 1: Introduction to English as a Second Language

Unit 2: Historical Development of English Language (1)

Unit 3: Historical Development of English Language (2)

Unit 4: The Spread of English around the World

Unit 5: Models for the Characterization of English Usage in the World (1)

Unit 6: Models for the Characterization of English Usage in the World (2)

Unit 7: English as a Second Language and Concept of Bilingualism

Unit 8: Classifying and Categorizing Bilinguals

Unit 9: Other Typologies of Bilingualism

Unit 10: General Features of English as a Second Language

Unit 11: Code-switching in English as a Second Language

Unit 12: Pidgin and Creole (1)

Unit 13: Pidgin and Creole (2)

Unit 14: Language Planning and Policy

Unit 15: Acquiring English as a Second Language

8. References and other Resources

A list of references is provided at the end of every unit. This is to enable the learner to carry out further studies on the topics treated in this course. They also help to broaden the learner's horizon in the area covered in this course.

9. Assignment File

This file contains all the details of the work the learner must submit to his or her tutor for marking. It is important to note that all the marks obtained in all the assignments will form an integral part of the final assessment score for the learner.

10. Presentation Schedule

The presentation schedule included in this course material gives the learner the important dates for the completion of tutor marked assignments and attendance of tutorials. There should be strict adherence to the dates for the submission of the assignments.

11. Assessment

The learner's assessment will be based on Tutor Marked Assignments (TMAs) and a final examination which the learner will write at the end of the course.

12. Tutor Marked Assignments (TMA)

Every unit contains at least one or two assignments. The learner is advised to work through all the assignments and submit them for assessment. The tutor will assess the assignments and select four which will constitute the 30% of the learner's final grade. The tutor marked assignments may be presented to the learner in a separate file. Just know that for every unit there are some tutor-marked assignments. It is very important that the learner do these assignments and submit them for assessment.

13. Final Examination and Grading

At the end of the course, the learner will write a final examination which will constitute 70% of the final grade. In the examination which shall last for two hours, the learner will be required to answer three questions out of at least five questions.

14. Course Marking Scheme

This table shows how the actual course marking is broken down:

Assessments	Marks
Assignments	Four assignments, best three marks of the four counts as 30% of course work.
Final Examination	70% of overall course marks
Total	100%

15. How to Get the Most from This Course

In distance learning, the study units replace the university lecture. This is one of the greatest advantages of distance learning; you can read and work through specially designed study materials at your own pace, and at a time and place that suits you best. Think of it as reading the lecture instead of listening to the lecturer. In the same way, a lecturer might give you some reading to do, the study unit tells you when to read, and which are your text materials or set books. You are provided exercises to do at appropriate points, just as a lecturer might give you an in-class exercise. Each of the study units follows a common format. The first item is an introduction to the subject matter of the unit, and how a particular unit is integrated with the other units and the course as a whole. Next to it is a set of objectives. These objectives allow you to know what you should be able to do by the time you have completed the unit. These learning objectives are meant to guide your study. The moment a unit is finished, you must go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives. If this is made a habit, then you will significantly improve your chances of passing the course. The main body of the unit guides you through the required reading from other sources. This will usually be either from your set books or form a reading section. The following is a practical strategy for working through the course. If you run into any trouble, please call your tutor. Remember that your tutor's job is to help you. When you need assistance, do not hesitate to call and ask your tutor to provide it.

16. Other Essential Information

1. Read this course Guide thoroughly. It is your first assignment. Organise study schedule. Design a 'course overview' to guide you through the course. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the units. Important information, eg: details of your tutorials and the date of the first day of the semester is available from the study centre. You need to gather all the information into one place, such as your diary or wall calendar. Whatever method you choose to use, you should decide on and write in your own dates and schedule of work for each unit. Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything to stay faithful to it. The major reason that students fail is that they get behind with their course work. If you get into difficulties with your schedule, please, let your tutor know before it is too late for help. Turn to Unit 1, and read the introduction and the objectives for the unit. Assemble the study materials. You will need your set books and the unit you are studying at any point in time. Work through the unit. As you work through the unit, you will know what sources to consult for further information. Keep in touch with your study centre. Up-to-date course information will be continuously available there.

Well before the relevant due dates (about 4 weeks before the due dates), keep in mind that you will learn a lot by doing the assignments carefully. They have been designed to help you meet the objectives of the course and therefore, will help you pass the examination. Submit all assignments not later than the due date. Review the objectives for each study unit to confirm that you have achieved them. If you feel unsure about any of the objectives, review the study materials or consult your tutor. When you are confident that you have achieved a unit's objectives, you can start on the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through the course and try to pace your study so that you keep yourself on schedule. When you have submitted an assignment to your tutor for marking, do not wait for its return before starting on the next unit. Keep to your schedule. When the assignment is returned, pay particular attention to your tutor's comments, both on the tutor-marked assignment form and also the written comments on the ordinary assignments. After completing the last unit, review the course and prepare yourself for the final examination. Check that you have achieved the unit's objectives (listed at the beginning of each unit) and the course objectives (listed in the Course Guide).

17. Tutors and Tutorials

The dates, times and locations of these tutorials will be made available to you, together with the name, telephone number and the address of your tutor. Each assignment will be marked by your tutor. Pay close attention to the comments your tutor might make on your assignments as these will help in your progress. Make sure that assignments reach your tutor on or before the due date. Your tutorials are important; therefore try not to skip any. It is an opportunity to meet your tutor and your fellow students. It is also an opportunity to get the help of your tutor and discuss any difficulties encountered on your reading.

18. Summary

This course exposes the learner to deeper theoretical insights to the concept of English as a Second Language (ESL). Essentially, the learner will be taken through the historical development of English as a global language. The interesting topics presented in the course include the growth of the language from Old English, Middle English to Present Day English. The course also covers the various theories put forward by scholars to explain the different types of English spoken in the world. Such theoretical concepts include Kachru's Concentric Circle, MacArthur's Circle of World English, Stevens' World Map etc. The course touches such sundry topics as Bilingualism, Pidgins and Creoles, Language Planning and Policy as well as the acquisition of second language. A diligent use of the course material shall definitely result in a resounding success.

Unit 1: Introduction to English as a Second Language

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- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Body
 - 3.1 A Description of English Language
 - 3.2 Conceptual Terms for Specifying Varieties
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit attempts to clarify how the English Language originated and the conceptual terminologies associated with the various varieties of the language today. The essence of this is to ensure that the students see how these other concepts or varieties are similar to and or different from English as a Second Language (henceforth ESL) which is the focus of this course.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, the students should be able to:

- i. Explain the origin of the English Language;
- ii. Identify the various varieties; and
- iii. Distinguish the various varieties from one another.

3.0 MAIN BODY

3.1 What is the English Language?

The English language is one of the West Germanic languages that were used in early medieval England. It was spoken by a relatively small number of people and was closely associated with the Angles, one of the Germanic tribes that settled in England in the medieval period. Germanic languages are a sub-field of Indo-European languages. They include among others – Afrikaans, Danish, Dutch, English (Early Modern) English (African/American Vernacular); English (Middle English); English (Later Modern); English (in the present day); English (Old English); English (world), German, Germanic languages, Gothic, Luxembourgish, Norwegian, Old Icelandic; Scots; Swedish; Yiddish.

From its very little beginning and domiciled in the Isle of England, it has grown into one of the most significant languages in the world. Today, it is spoken by over a billion people as a native language and by even a much higher number either as a second language, an official language or a lingua franca. It is the dominant language in international relations as well as science and communication.

3.2 Conceptual Terminologies for Emerging Global Varieties of English Language

By varieties of English refer to the global classification of the different types of ways in which the language is used around the world. In other words, what is being addressed here is not classification according to regional dialects but rather in terms of functionality. The conceptual terms that have been used to characterize the English used in the world include English as a Native Language (ENL), English as a Second Language (ESL), English as a Foreign Language (EFL), English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) as well as Creolized English Communities (CEC).

i. English as a Native Language (ENL)

The vast majority of people across the globe who use English as a first language or L1 are classified as the users of English as a Native Language (ENL). For such categories of people, English is a mother-tongue hence the term ‘native language’. The communities and people who fall within this range are the United Kingdom (UK), United States of America (USA), Australia, New Zealand, Canada as well as, to a limited extent, South Africa. English is essentially the medium of communities in these communities at all levels of human interactions. It is the official language and the people see themselves as the standard bearers of the language.

ii. English as a Second Language (ESL)

Many users of the English Language today use it as a second language or L2. Though the language is usually an official language in the places where it is a second language, it does not have the status of ENL because there are no native speakers in such places. So, the users of ESL already possess and effectively use their own native languages. According to Awonusi (2004:37) ESL users span across communities which had 'English imposed on them as part of the colonial culture'. In such places, English is crucial to the attainment of social mobility in education, politics, business etc. ESL is widely used in Nigeria, Ghana, Sierra-Leone, the Gambia, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe, South Africa, Botswana, Namibia, Swaziland, India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Singapore, Hong Kong (which is now part of China), Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago etc. This course is centred on the study of the English spoken in these communities.

iii. English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)

English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) is closely related to ESL because it generally refers to those places where English has been adopted as an official language for the purpose of communication in schools, government establishments, mass-media and other forms of human interaction. Some scholars hold that ESL and ELF are basically one and the same. But this may not be rightly so because a lingua franca comes into play where there are several competing languages and one is chosen as a common language. It follows, therefore, that English may not necessarily be the second, third, fourth language of these users of English but they are compelled to use it as a means of effective communication in a multi-lingual society. Kirkpatrick and Deterding (2011:382) seem to acknowledge some differences between ELF and ESL (which they term New Englishes or World Englishes) when they point out that the users of ELF often avoid the use of 'local lexis and idioms' because it is fundamentally concerned with facilitating 'cross-cultural communication'.

iv. English as a Foreign Language (EFL)

English is used as a foreign language in countries and or communities where it is neither a native or first language nor is it a second or third language. However, such communities have English useful because of the increasing role the language plays in the global

community. Thus, for purposes of interaction in the diplomatic arena e.g. United Nations Organization engagements, posting of diplomatic personnel; international educational programme, science and technology as well as international business interactions etc. the users of EFL have found that English is utterly indispensable. Users of EFL are found in countries like Russia, Ukraine, China, Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Libya, Algeria, Niger and other parts of South-East Asia.

v. Creolized English Communities (CEC)

According to Awonusi (2004:37), Creolized English Communities (CEC) refers to ‘the communities where the contact with English has, at some point in their history, resulted in the development of a hybrid language or Pidgin (English based)’. This is generally the case with most of countries in the Caribbean where Pidgin English is the first language of many of the citizenry. The communities affected by such a linguistic phenomenon are Guyana, Trinidad and Tobago, Jamaica; the same may go Liberia and perhaps Sierra-Leone.

Self Assessment Exercise

- i. Where did the first users of the English Language come from?
- ii. Mention the five varieties of English Language used in the world today.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The English Language as it is known today has long and enduring history. It began with the arrival of the Scandinavian tribes of Angles, Saxons and Jutes in the coast of England. Since then the language has evolved culminating in the various varieties that are used today all over the world. One of these varieties, ESL, is the focus of this course.

5.0 SUMMARY

Two major things were done in this unit: a brief examination of the origin of the English Language, and the clarification of the conceptual terminologies used for the various varieties of the language.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Briefly explain the origin of the English Language
- ii. Write a short note on the five varieties of English Language studied in this unit.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Awonusi, S. (2004) 'The English Language in a Global Context' In Dadzie, A.B.K and Awonusi, S. (eds.) *Nigerian English: Influences and Characteristics*. Lagos: Concept Publication Ltd. pp.32-45

Kirkpatrick, A. and Deterding, D. (2011) 'World Englishes' In Simpson, James (ed.) *The Routledge Handbook of Applied Linguistics* London: Routledge. pp. 374-387

Unit 2: Historical Development of English Language (1)

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- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Body
 - 3.1 Old English
 - 3.2 Features of Old English
 - 3.3 Middle English
 - 3.4 Features of Middle English
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

A deeper look into the historical development of English Language is undertaken in this unit. In Unit 1, an attempt was made to trace the origin of the language and clarify the various varieties used in the world. But this unit takes the students back to the very beginning of English Language and the various forms it took in the course of time. There are about five developmental strands identified in literature. However, in this unit, the first two namely Old English and Middle English shall be examined.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, the students should be able to:

- i. explain the terms Old English and Middle English;
- ii. point out the general features of both periods, and
- iii. identify differences and similarities if any between them.

3.0 MAIN BODY

3.1 Old English

Old English was originally introduced to England by a group of Germanic invaders or raiders in the 5th century A.D. The invading forces were made up of three tribes – Angles, Saxons and Jutes. Thus, three separate kingdoms were established in England at the time. The period covered by Old English spans 425-1100AD.

According to Allen (2006: 161) there were four old English dialects at the time: North Umbrian (northern), Mercian (Midlands), Kentish and West Saxon (Southwestern). Of these four, only the West Saxon dialect has any trace of records, so it became the standard for writing. History has it that the West Saxon dialect only became official through Alfred the Great who united the separate tribes against the invading Vikings.

It is interesting to note that some of the words used in English today originate from Old English. These words include:

Old English	-	Modern English
Wif (woman)	-	wife
déor (wild animal)	-	deer
mus	-	mouse
cése	-	cheese
halig gást	-	Holy Ghost
temes	-	Themes
fisc	-	fish
scip	-	ship
prud	-	proud

deofl

-

devil

3.2 Some Characteristic of Old English

1. OE used the Latin alphabet instead of Runes which was the original alphabet of the Germanic tribes that brought the language to England. Some of the alphabet which are no longer in present day English include – æ, þ, ð.
2. The spelling or orthographical pattern has also undergone some changes – OE ‘sc’ has given way to ‘sh’ see fish and ship above. Also note hwær for where and hwit for ‘white’.
3. OE also had some borrowed words e.g. take (Scandinavian) replaced the Germanic ‘niman’; prud (French).
4. OE has more inflectional morphology than present-day English – there were inflections for number, gender (feminine, masculine and neuter) as well as cases (nominative, accusative, genitive and dative).
5. Grammatical features are more clearly differentiated through the modifiers of nouns especially determiners.

	Nominative	Accusative	Genitive	Dative
Masculine (the stone)	se stán	þone stáne	þæs stánes	þaun stáne
Feminine (the tongue single)	seotunge	þā tungan	þære tungan	þære tungar

3.3 Middle English Period

Middle English is an evolution from Old English. It came at a period of atrophy for the English language as a result of the Norman invasion and conquest of England in 1066AD. The victory of William of Normandy over the Anglo-Saxon tribes brought a setback of some sort to Old English in particular. This is centrally due to the fact that French, the language of the invaders, quickly replaced OE basically in the courts and the church. In a nutshell, French became the language of the elite, while OE remained the language of the people in general. It is believed that well over 90% of the estimated 6 million people of the kingdom still speak English on a daily basis.

During this period, OE was looked at as crude, vulgar and the language of the conquered. However, French became prominent in the courtyard hence it became the language of the nobles while Latin was used for ecclesiastic purposes. But it is interesting to note that by 1204 when the Normans lost their French territory of Normandy to France, French

language because less attractive and English found its way back not only to the courts but also as the official language. It should be pointed out through that its many years outside the court and its direct contact with French provided some impetus for transformation hence the change from Old English to Middle English.

The piece of writing below shows the Middle English version of the Lord's Prayer.

Oure fadir, þat art in hevenys, halewid be þiname, þi
kingdom come. Be þi wille don as in hevene and in erþe.
Ziue to us yis day oure breed ouer oþer substaunce. And
forziune to vs oure dettes, as an we forziuen to oure
dettouris. And leede us not into temptacioun, but delyuere
us from yuel.

Source (Seragg, 1974: 31-32 quoted in Smith, 2006: 179).

3.4 Features of Middle English

1. The alphabets of Middle English are closer to those of Present Day English. Most of the complexities of OE were done away with during this period. Examples – According to Smith (2006: 177) OE letters æ, þ, and ð disappeared completely during this period. They were replaced by the present day –a, e, th and w. Other changes include OE hw (wh); z (gh); sc (sh) etc.
2. At the phonological level, 22 phonemic consonants were recognizable in Middle English /p, b, t, d, k, g, tʃ, dz, f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ, h, m, n, l, r, w, j/. This leaves out /ʒ/ and /ŋ/ which along with these 22 ME sounds make up the consonants of present day English.
3. There was also a gradual disappearance of inflections quite prevalent in OE. Prepositions became more prominent in ME. At this time also the use of – (e) & for plural or processor forms became more pronounced. It is also significant to note that OE's complicated inflexionally differentiated determiners also disappeared and this was replaced by the now present-day wages (the/this/that/these/those) – see Smith 2006: 178.
4. English borrowed copiously at this time not in the least due to its contact with French, Latin and Norse (the Germanic language) of the settlers Vikings).

Norse OE	Latin OE	French OE
bag	omnipotent	justice

bull	testament	obedience
egg		prison
root		service
ugly		mastery
wing		

Self Assessment Exercise

- i. State the periods covered by Old English and Middle English.
- ii. Write out the Lord's Prayers in Middle English and compare it with the present day English.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has shown that the English Language has a beginning and has progressively developed since its advent. The Old English and Middle English periods are crucial in the developmental growth of the language. The two epochs have marked differences showing the progressive processes that set the tone for establishment of the language as it is known today.

5.0 SUMMARY

The unit essentially focused on the historical development of Old English and Middle English. Old English covered the period 1460 to 1530 while Middle English was used from 1540 to 1750. Many words came into the language at this time, however, a great number of Old English words also disappeared.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Write a short note on Old English and Middle English.
- ii. State in very clear terms the features of either Old English or Middle English.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READING:

- i. Allen, C. L. (2006) 'English, Old English' In Brown, Keith (ed.) *Linguistics Encyclopedia*. London. Elsevier Ltd.

- ii. Smith, J.J. (2006) 'English, Middle English' In Brown, Keith (ed.) *Linguistics Encyclopedia*. London. Elsevier Ltd

Unit 3: Historical Development of English Language (2)

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1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Body

3.1 Early Modern Period

3.2 Later Modern Period

3.3 Present Day English

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

7.0 References/ Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit examines three major developmental phases in the history English language. The three phases considers here are Early Modern, Later Modern and Present Day English. These phases are quite related and also mark remarkable stages in the global ascendancy of the language.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, the students should be able to

- i. identify the three periods under consideration,
- ii. explain the distinctive marks of each of these periods.

3.0 MAIN BODY

3.0 Modern English Period

It will be pertinent to point out that the literature on the historical development of English does not recognize a single monolithic Modern English Period. There is a division instead to two equally distinct periods: Early Modern English (EME) and the Late Modern English (LME). The distinction between these two is both historic and linguistic.

3.1 Early Modern English

The Early Modern English period covers 1500-1700. The major historical development at this time were the Reformation (the advent of the Protestant Churches – those who broke away from the Roman Catholic Church as led by Martin Lurther), the great Civil War in England. There were also economic and social changes such as increased population growth, expanding economic activity as well as greater social mobility (see Raumolin-Brunberg 2006: 164). Much more interestingly, this age witnessed more publications with the introduction of the printing press in England in 1476. It was also the age of Shakespeare and the translation of the Bible to the now vastly popular King James Version or Authorized Version.

Features of Early Modern English

1a. The Great Vowel Shift occurred at this time with many long vowels being drastically changed. It should be noted that the shift became noticeable from the Modern English Period (see the table below). For instance, the diphthongs of ME /ue, eu, au, ai, ou/ became monophthongs /u:, u:, e:, o:/. However, two diphthongs /oi/ and /ui/ remained unchanged in EME.

b. The consonants of ME survived the EME but the inventory moved up from 22 to the present day 24. At the EME period two additional consonants came into English. They are /ʒ/ and /ŋ/.

2a. Grammatical Features: It is generally believed that the English language acquired its present day analytical features during the early Modern English Period. This was due to 'morphological simplification and the stabilization of word order' (see Raumolin-Brunberg Ibid). The inflectional system of OE earlier simplified in Middle English became complete. This resulted in the disappearance of many inflectional endings. For instance, the plural and genitive inflectional ending changed to -s although -en of brethren was retained.

- (1) There was also great changes in the personal pronouns – I became capitalized, a shift in the use of ye/you/your with *you* replacing *ye* gradually, it also replaced his, which became more associated with the male gender.
- (2) There was also more use of auxiliary verbs than in previous periods. The use of can/could; will/would; may/might as well as shall/should as helping instead of full verbs became common. It has also been noted that 'being' also developed at this time.
- (3) The pattern of new indefinite compound pronouns also developed e.g. nobody, anybody, somebody etc. Likewise, the connections such as since, while and because assumed new meanings.

3. Lexicons

i. It has been noted that the first dictionaries in English language were published at this period (Algeo 2010: 157). Robert Cawdrey's Table Alphabetical (1604), a century later Edward Cocker published English Dictionary (1704) although there had been other publications in between this time. However, the most significant publication was Samuel Johnson's two-volume Dictionary of the English language which according to Algeo (2010:158) helped to fix English spelling 'and established a standard for the use of words'.

ii. New words came into English at this period are borrowings from Latin and French, e.g. lament, alternate. There was also the influx of non-native prefixes e.g. a-, dis, in, and non which gradually replaced the native '-un' in some word formation processes.

2. Later Modern English

The notion of 'late' or 'later' Modern English is relatively new (see Beal 2006: 167). This fact is corroborated by the divergence in scholarly studies of this period. While some cast the period as between 1700-1900 (see Beal *ibid*), others fix it as 1800 – present (see Algeo 2010: 181). While noting that major historical development heralded this period,

Beal (ibid) notes that ‘the start of the French Revolution (1789) to the end of World War I (1918) can conveniently be taken as a working definition of the Late Modern English period.

Features

1. Morphological/Syntactic Changes

- i. The loss of the –st inflectional ending for verbs used with the second person singular form – what thou dost.
- ii. Early Modern English –thou, thee, thy, thine but Late Modern English replaced them with ye, you, your and yours.
- iii. EME maintained the distinction between second person singular and plural e.g. you was (singular) and you were (plural). But by the LME era ‘you was’ disappeared completely except in local dialects.
- iv. It was common in EME to have the auxiliary do come before a verb –I do eat a lot but this disappeared in LME except where it is used for emphasis.
- v. Though the wh-relatives –who, whom, whose and which – came into English in EME era, their uses for human and inanimate objects was overlapping. But by the LME, who/whom/whose became restricted to humans and ‘which’ for inanimate antecedents.
- vi. Beal (2006: 170) notes that the expanded usages of be + ing progressive forms occurred in the Late Modern English era. The use of be + ing with stative verbs also became common.

2. Phonology

- i. The dropping of /r/ became prominent. Also known as rhoticity, the practice gradually eventually crept into RP.
- ii. The use of /ŋ/ for /g/ and dropping of /h/ in (hw) spelling became regularized.
- iii. The dropping of the long /ɔ:/ and /a:/ in words such as cloth, off, cross and bath. Note: that /a:/ in bath was retained in RP.
- iv. The diphthongization of /o:/ and /e:/ became prominent at this period.

3. Lexical Changes

- i. The influx of French loanwords continued unabated even when it was resisted by the British – *role* (part), *penchant* (passion).
- ii. The entrance of scientific war words from Latin and Greek – *aeronautics*, *azalea*, *caldarium* (Latin); *aetiological*, *eczema* and *splenttis* (Greek).
- iii. As the British empire expanded loan words began to come from other parts of the world – Africa, Asia, Americas and Australasia – *Kuwi*, *Vale* (Maari).
- iv. Some words came into English as a result of scientific inventions – *bifurcate*, *capilliform* and *locomotory*.
- v. Others came as a result of geology – *bromlite*, *leadhillite*, *uratite*, *voltzite* et.

3.4 English in the Present Day (1900-)

The distinction between Modern English and Present-Day English is not quite. This is even more difficult with the introduction of later Modern English. As stated earlier, Algeo (2010) draws no distinction between late Modern English and Present-Day English. He considers late Modern as an integral part of present day English hence his timeline for this era is 1800 – Present. However, we have followed the distinction of Beal (2006) and Swan (2006). Beal puts late Modern English between 1700-1900; Algeo (2010) lists a series of developments he said that marks the late Modern English to Present-Day English period beginning from 1800 to present. We shall align with Swan (2006) who puts the dateline of present-day English in 1900. We therefore adopt a modified version of Algeo's presentation of the developments that impacted on the English language at this time. We take off from 1906 rather than his preferred date of 1803.

- i. 1906 – The first public radio broadcast was aired, leading in 1920 to the first American commercial radio station in Pittsburgh.
- ii. 1914-18 World War I created an alliance between the United States and the United Kingdom.

- iii. 1922 The British Broadcasting Company (after 1927, Corporation) was established and became a major conveyor of information in English around the world.
- iv. 1927 The first motion picture with spoken dialogue, The Jazz Singer, was released.
- v. 1936 The first high-definition television service was established by the BBC, to be followed by cable service in the early 1950's and satellite service in the early 1960s.
- vi. 1939-45 – World War II further solidified the British-American link.
- vii. 1945 The Charter of the United Nations was produced at San Francisco, leading to the establishment of UN headquarters in New York City.
- viii. 1947 British India was divided into India and Pakistan, and both were given independence.
- ix. 1961 Merriam Website's Third New International Dictionary was published.
- x. 1983 The Internet was created.
- xi. 1992 – The First Web browser for the World Wide Web was released.
- xii. 2007 – An estimated 363 billion text messages were sent in the United States, 429 billion in China, and 2.3 trillion worldwide. (Source: Algeo 2010: 182)

Emergence of National Varieties

One of the salient features of the English language in the period under review is the emergence of national varieties. The diffusion of the language to others parts of the world brought it into contact with other languages and it was adopted as official language in many of these territories. Indeed by the 1900, the language had a footing in virtually all the continents of the world.

Two national varieties emerged: Standard British English and American English. These two thrived amidst various varieties all around the world namely Canadian, Australian, New Zealander, Indian, Pakistan etc. However, the two national varieties – SBE and AE – remained influential till the present day. It is believed that the SBE is even gradually giving way to the AE for various reasons not the least of which is the prominence of America in global politics.

Features of English in the Present Day

1. Orthography

The standardization of the spelling system which started off during the Middle English period became conclusive. Although there were still some criticisms about the arbitrariness of the system which is a mixture of Anglo-Saxon, Norman-French, there was general acceptability. The disparity between the over 40 phonemes of Modern English and the 26 letters of the Roman alphabet was a major cause of concern.

Two spelling systems became clearly identifiable in the language. These are the British spelling and the American spelling.

British English Spelling	American English Spelling
colour	color
centre	center
catalogue	catalog
realize/realise	realize
aluminium	aluminum
analyse	analyze
check	cheque
defence	defense
fulfil	fulfill
jewellery	jewelry
pyjamas	pajamas
skilful	skillful
tyre	tire

2. Phonology

i. The 24 consonants of the sound with the entrant of /ŋ/ and /h/ stabilized at this period. However, the vowels varied but Standard British English with Received Pronunciation (RP) has about 20 vowel sounds. The discrepancy is due to regional varieties where the distribution of vowel sounds is affected by local dialects of the language.

ii. Stress or prominence is achieved through pitch, loudness and lengthening. The weak or reduced vowel /ə/ generally marks unstressed syllables in English.

iii. Intonational features include the use of the rising tones for incompleteness or uncertainty and the falling tones for closure or certainty.

iv. There is also the gradual erasing of the 'stress-timed' and 'syllable-timed' divide as the rhythmic features of spoken English depends on a combination of syllable structure, word stress, and vowel reduction. Some changes that have taken place in present-day English include

i. Increase in the use of intrusive /r/ in British English ()

ii. The dropping of /j/ in typical /ju:/ situations in words like juice, illuminate, news in BE, this is in line with AE.

iii. Glottalization of medial and final /t/, /p/ and /k/ is growing in British English.

3. Lexis

i. Present Day English enjoys a large stock of vocabulary which makes it one of the most diversified languages on earth. It has borrowed and continues to borrow from other languages especially French, Latin, and Greece. There is a rich line of synonyms to draw from – shine, glitter, glisten, slow, sparkle, twinkle, glimmer, blaze, and coruscate (see Swan 2006: 157). It is estimated that English has borrowed from 56 languages (see Algeo 1998 cited in Swan ibid).

ii. English vocabulary is also highly enriched by its beautiful blend of affixes which affect the meaning of words e.g. im, un, anti, re, in, ship, dom, ize, ess, ate, etc. Some of this also come as loans, e.g. auto, eco, cyber, mono, macro, inter, ology, critic, phile, etc.

4. Grammar

Present English has been undergoing some changes namely:

i. general reduction in the use of modals.

ii. increased use of plural verbs.

iii. decline in the use of the subjunctive, especially in BE.

iv. replacement of shall by will, and of should by would in some contexts.

- v. increased use of the progressive with stative verbs (e.g. I'm understanding German better now).
- vi. continuing spread of the going-to future.
- vii. disappearance of whom.
- viii. spread of analytical comparatives and superlatives (e.g. commoner, more common).
- ix. dropping of complementizer/relative that.
- x. increased use and acceptability of noncanonical pronoun case in conjoined subjects and objects (e.g. John and me went...; between you and I).

Self Assessment Exercise

- i. Distinguish the Early Modern English and Later Modern English.
- ii. Point out some historical developments during the periods under the review.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The historical development of English language sheds light on its emergence as a global language. Its evolution from a seemingly rustic language used by immigrants and simple peasants to a dominant medium of communication resulting in varieties such as ESL attests to the resilience of the language.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, three major periods have been examined – Early Modern English, Later Modern and Present Day English. Some historical events characterized the periods under review. These events include the Reformations, the introduction of the printing press, the translation of the Bible to English as well as the age of Shakespeare. Other events that are closely associated with these periods are the French Revolution of 1789 and World War I. Besides these, the language went through drastic changes during these periods.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Carefully distinguish between the Early Modern and Later Modern periods.
- ii. Discuss in details the major features of Present Day English

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING:

- i. Raumolin-Brunberg, H. (2006) 'English, Early Modern' in Brown, Keith (ed.) *Linguistic Encyclopedia*. London. Elsevier Ltd.
- ii. Beal, J. (2006) 'English, Later Modern' in Brown, Keith (ed.) *Linguistics Encyclopedia*. London. Elsevier Ltd.
- iii. Algeo, J. (2010) *The Origins and Development of the English Language*. Boston. Wadsworth.

Unit 4: The Spread of English around the World

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Body
 - 3.1 Political Factors
 - 3.2 Science/Technology and Education
 - 3.3 International Relations/Entertainment
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The previous units addressed issues related to the historical development of English but in the course of doing this, the notion of the spread of the languages have been broached. In this unit, however, greater attention is paid to the factors responsible for the diffusion of the language into the different cultures around the world.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, the students should be able to

- i. mention the factors that led to the spread of English language around the world;
- ii. explain how each factor contributed to the spread of the language.

3.0 MAIN BODY

3.1 Political Factors

This is perhaps the most apparent reason for the spread of English in the world today. Three distinct yet interwoven issues shall be addressed here:

(i). Imperialism

The imperialistic drive of the British Empire was a potent force that propelled the propagation of English in the world. Crystal (2002:78 quoting Pitman, 1993:290) notes that at the height of its glory, the British Empire covered a third of the earth while about a fourth of the population of the world were British subjects. Imperialism was spurred by the desire for economic advancement leading to the search for sources of cheap raw material, gold, spices etc (Awonusi, 2004:35). Indeed, there is no gainsaying that the language and culture of the English followed the empire across the world. Before the decline of the empire in the 20th century, it had roots in many parts of Africa, Asia, the Carribean Islands, North America and, to a little extent, South America. Little wonder English became a prominent language in the world.

(ii). Colonialism

Colonialism is, of course, directly related to imperialism. The conquered territories became governed by the British. This necessitated the setting up of new administrative structures and influx of British citizens to man the various openings at the colonial offices. Generally, colonial administrators interacted through interpreters. This therefore meant that the local people who aspire to work for the colonial masters must have at least an understanding of the language. All of these made English a major pre-requisite for employment in the colony.

(iii). Post- colonial developments

The post-colonial era was a period of emancipation for many of the British colonies. But political independence did not translate to cultural independence as many vestiges of the colonial master – dressing and language, to mention but a few – still lingered in these ex-colonies. Britain still maintained enormous influence on her colonies through organizations such as the Commonwealth of Nations; an entity that is made up of all former British colonies. Of course, this helped to make English retain its relevance in the new countries that emerged from the independence struggles.

To further buttress the significance of English in these newly established nation-states, many of them adopted it as their official language. However, this decision was borne out of necessity as many of the former colonies were made of diverse tribes with heterogeneous languages. Thus, the exigencies of the time made it politically correct to adopt a neutral language as a means of communication among the many tongues and languages that made up most of these emerging nations. All of these circumstances worked in favour of English thereby entrenching the language in the linguistic landscape of many of these nations whether in Africa, Asia and other places in the world. Even when some newly independent nations attempted to adopt a local language as a lingua franca, for instance, the use of Swahili in Tanzania, Uganda and Kenya, it was with varying success and English still found a way of remaining relevant in the scheme of things in these nations.

3.2 Science and Technology

Advances in science and technology provided another platform for the spread of English across the world. Beginning with the Industrial Revolution which was essentially a British phenomenon to the age of computers and the internet, English firmly established itself as the language of science and technology. According to Crystal (2003:82) ‘the magnet of opportunity in Britain attracted several inventors from the Continent, who subsequently became leaders in their field’. The result of this was that many scientists and inventors began to make Britain their home and their publications and findings were, of course, documented in English. He notes further that as the industrial revolution began to spread, America soon gained ascendancy as the world’s economic power and this again played out in favour of English.

Education

The quest for academic success has also had a great influence on the spread of English language. The rise of western education and the world wide acknowledgement of Britain as a centre of academic excellence spurred the influx of many foreigners to her institutions of higher learning. Of course, the international students admitted to such institutions are instructed in English. So, the quest for international university certificate from places like the United Kingdom (Great Britain) and USA created an almost insatiable desire to acquire the language especially by prospective international students. The educational authorities of the UK and USA used this opportunity to institute standardized English language tests – International English Language Testing System (IELTS) and Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) – which form a major requirement for admission into these institutions. Besides this, these tests especially

IELTS in the UK, are required for some other forms of visa processing. All of these have had appreciable impact on the spread and popularization of English globally.

3.3 International Relations

Though it is generally agreed that the languages used for international diplomacy are French, Russian, Chinese, Spanish and English, without doubt the most widely used is English especially after the Second World War (1938-1945). The entrance of the USA into the war and her roles in its resolution gave prominence to English language. Many treaties, bilateral agreements, conference communiqués, memorandum of understanding and other instruments and or documents of international relations are written in English as in other languages of international engagement. However, overtime, English has gained prominence over French, its major competitor in the diplomatic arena. This was due to the rise of USA as the dominant force in international affairs. The establishment of the UK and USA alongside France, then USSR (now Russia) and China as the five permanent members of the United Nations Organization (UNO) also put pressure on diplomats to understand English.

In addition to this, the setting up of military bases across the world especially by USA also helped in the global spread and ascendancy of the English language. After World War II, the United States of America established military bases in specific regions of the world because of the role the nation played in such places during the war. Thus, she had military bases in the Philippines, Germany, Guam and much later in Iraq, Afghanistan etc. The truth of the matter is that wherever, the American military goes English goes with them.

Entertainment Industry

Perhaps one of the most silent means by which English has gained international prominence is through the entertainment industry. The advent of the radio, television, cinemas or motion pictures as the Americans would say have positively impacted on the spread of English. Through this media, the language and culture of the English gained unfettered access to the millions of households all over the world. This process was further solidified by the establishment of Hollywood and Broadway as centres of excellence in film and theatre productions. Western films from Britain and America were watched by people who rarely understood the language spoken by the actors and actresses but the interest in the films also created the urge to learn the language.

The establishment of the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and the Voice of America (VOA) also contributed in no small way to the propagation of the language around the world. Though these stations were seen back then as tools for western propaganda, they nevertheless became irresistible even to their most virulent critics. Today, the international news world is still massively dominated by these stations which have served as springboards for other world influencers like the Cable News Network (CNN). The truth is that through these channels the world has been inundated with English based news sources that the language has imperceptibly established itself as a dominant and in-ignorable means of global communication.

Self Assessment Exercise

- i. Mention some of the political developments that influenced the spread of English.
- ii. What economic development made scientists to migrate to Britain?

4.0 CONCLUSION

There is no doubt that the reasons adduced here as factors for the spread of English are not exhaustive. However, some of the factors highlighted here are quite fundamental or rather foundational. It should also be stated that in looking at the factors responsible for the propagation of the language, it is necessary to consider its functions in the world today.

5.0 SUMMARY

Five distinct factors were identified as being responsible for the spread of English language; they are political factors, science and technology, education, international relations as well as entertainment. A detailed examination of the political factors indicates that such issues as imperialism, colonialism, and post-colonial developments hastened the spread of the language across the world. Closely related to this is the use of the language for international diplomacy and its spread through the establishment of military bases especially by the USA. Other notable factors that accelerated the spread of English are science and technology, education and entertainment.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Closely examine the roles of politics and international diplomacy in the spread of English.
- ii. Write a short note on how the following influenced the spread of English around the world:
 - i. Science and technology
 - ii. Education
 - iii. Entertainment

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING:

- i. Awonusi, S. (2004) 'The English Language in a Global Context' In Dadzie, A.B.K and Awonusi, S. (eds.) *Nigerian English: Influences and Characteristics*. Lagos: Concept Publication Ltd. pp.32-45

ii. Crystal, D. (2003) *English as a Global Language* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Unit 5: Characterizing ESL Situations in the World

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Body

3.1 Kachruvian Model

3.2 MacArthur's Model
3.3 Gorlach's Model
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the ensuing unit, an attempt is made to situate the ESL through the various models that have been put forward by scholars in the field. Though these models were generally advanced to explain the phenomenon of World Englishes, they actually characterize the ESL situation especially as it relates to its emergence and identification in the world today. Five of such models are examined in this course material. This unit concentrates on three of these models while the remaining two shall be featured in the next unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, the students should be able to:

- i. mention the three models covered in this unit;
- ii. explain each model clearly, and
- iii. point out the criticisms leveled in each model studied in this unit.

3.0 MAIN BODY

There are indeed several perspectives on the characterization of English in the world today. However, three of such models shall be examined in this course. Three models are essentially geared towards describing, explaining and identifying the place and functionality of English in the different continents of the world. The three models that shall be considered are as follows:

1. Kachruvian Model (1985)
2. MacArthur's Model (1987)
3. Goirlach's Model (1990)

3.1 Kachru's Concentric Circle Model

This is by far the most influential in the characterization of the English language in the global context. Kachru's model is based on his concept of 'World Englishes' resulting from the diffusion of the language to different parts of the world. His model was first presented in 1985 and it has remained a reference point in the discussions on English around the world. The model is based on three major circles and each counting is placed

in one of these circles to reflect its position in the English speaking world. According to Kachru (1992c: B56-7 quoted in Kirkpatrick and Deterding 2010: 373),

The current sociolinguistic profile of English maybe viewed in terms of three concentric circles... The Inner Circle refers to the traditional cultural and linguistic bases of English (e.g. Britain, USA, Australia). The Outer Circles represents the institutionalized non-native varieties (ESL) in the regions that have passed through extended periods of colonization (e.g. Singapore, India, Nigeria)... The Expanding Circle includes the regions where the performance varieties of the language are used essentially in EFL contexts (e.g. China, Japan, Egypt).

According to Kirkpatrick and Deterding (2010: 373) “the terms ESL (English as a Second Language) and EFL (English as a Foreign Language) in this extract refer to the traditional classifications which Kachru challenged.” The Concentric Circle Model emphasizes the fact that the English language has different varieties the world over and thus the language cannot be viewed as ‘a single monolithic standard’.

Kachru (2006: 196) offers some criteria for the characterization in the three circle model.

- i. The history of the types of spread and motivation for the location of the language.
- ii. Patterns of acquisition.
- iii. Societal depth of the language in terms of its users and the range of functions that are assigned to the English medium at various levels in the language policies of a nation (e.g. in administration, education, and literacy).
- iv. Functional acculturation of the English language within the local culture and the societies and its nativization in the society and its literacy culture.

Kachru (ibid) has argued that the three circles are not ‘static, but dynamic and changing’. Nonetheless, the Inner Circle comprises basically L₁ speakers of varieties of English, the so-called native speakers – Britain, United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. The Outer Circle are areas where English is officially a second language e.g. Nigeria, India, Philippines, Singapore, South Africa, etc. While the Expanding Circle refers to countries where it is used as a foreign language that is places where it is not officially a lingua franca, e.g. China, Taiwan, Korea, Saudi Arabia, Japan, Russia, etc.

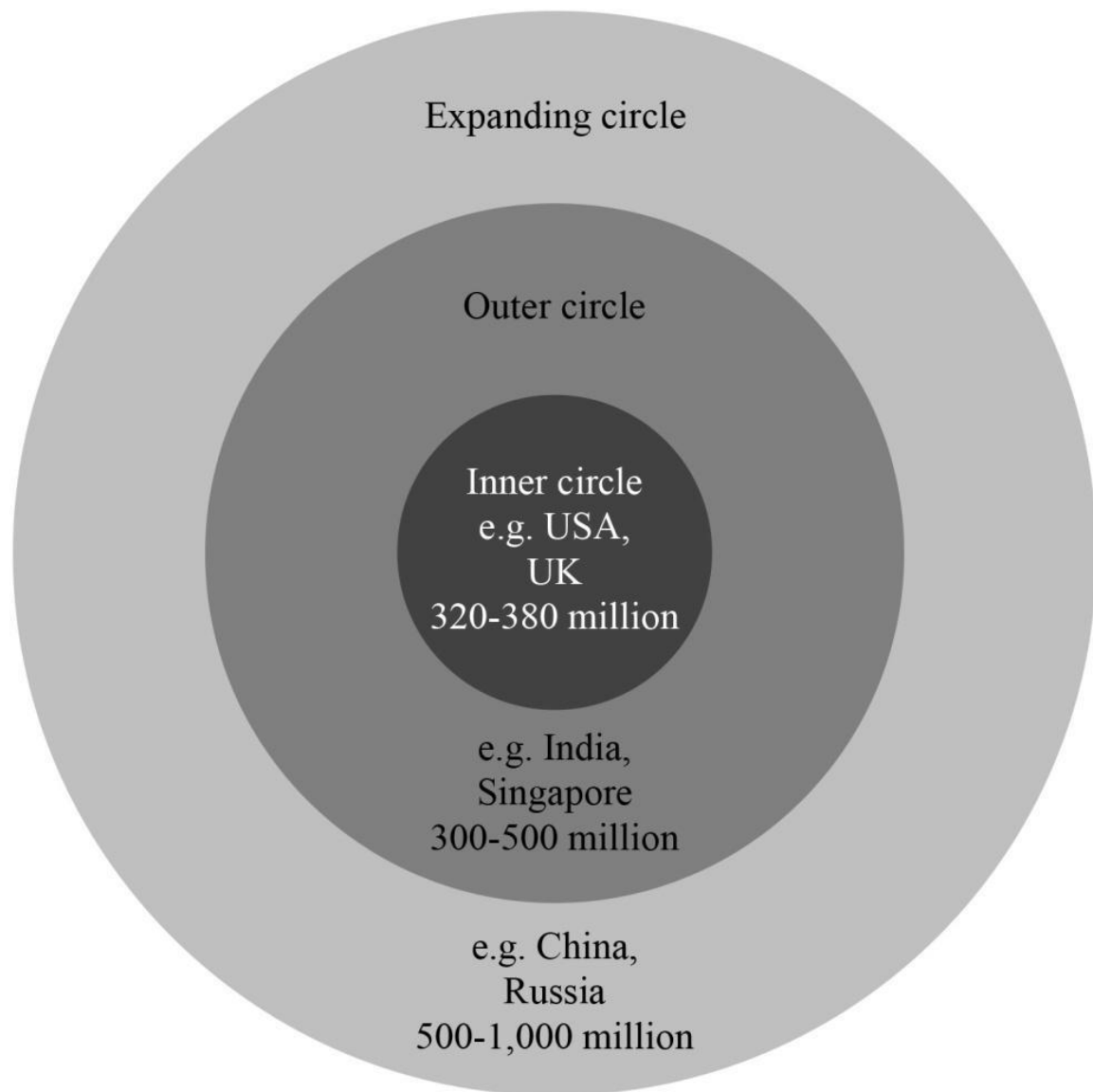


Fig I: Kachru's Concentric Circles

Criticism of the Model

Though widely influential, Kachru's model has also been criticized by some scholars. Majorly, Kachru's model has been criticized for relying so much on historical and geographical parameters. This seems to deprive the model of any systematic and or analytic justification.

Others have argued that the model deals with countries rather than societies and individuals. In other words, concentrating on nations overlooks the fact that there might be a select group of speech communities or individuals whose linguistic orientation does not necessarily fit into the classification ascribed to their countries; for example children of white Zimbabweans, Kenyans and English speaking South Africans.

In addition, the model fails to accommodate countries like Denmark and Argentina that seems to be moving from the Expanding Circle to the Outer Circle. It has indeed been argued that the Scandinavian countries of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark deserve a special review because though they have no colonial links with either Britain or United States, yet English is more of an official language in these countries.

3.2 MacArthur's Circle of World English

MacArthur's model (1987) captures the phenomenon of World Englishes through a huge circle consisting of a wheel, hub, rim and spokes. The hub represents, the 'World Standard English', a hypothetical international variety. This hub is encircled by what MacArthur calls 'regional varieties'. These are eight in number – five of which are grouped as Standard English – Australian, New Zealand and South Pacific Standard English; British and Irish Standard English; American Standard English; Canadian Standard English; and Caribbean Standard English. The other part of the circle consists of what he terms 'Standardizing English'. These are East Asian Standardizing English; South Asian Standard (izing) English. The spokes protruding out of each of these groups further describes each group in terms of the specific varieties commonly found within its environment what MacArthur calls 'a vast ragged fringe of varieties' (MacArthur 1994: 237).

The operative term in MacArthur's model is the word 'Standard'. The five standard varieties – Australian, British, American, Canadian and Caribbean clearly contradicts the inner/native speaker paradigm because of the inclusion perhaps of the Caribbean islands. Likewise, there seems to be a middle road in this description of South Asian and West, East and South(ern) African varieties which he classifies as both 'Standard' and 'Standardizing'. However, East Asian varieties are tagged 'Standardizing' English.



Fig II: MacArthur's World Circle of English

Criticisms of MacArthur's Model

1. The model do not fully clarify the distinctive differences between the 'Standard' varieties of World Englishes and the 'Standardizing' varieties. This is even more salient as the model takes 'World Standard English' as its point of departure.
2. Like Kachru's model, the geographical parameters seems to take precedence over linguistic methods. According to Moody (2003:43), "under East Asian English,

MacArthur lists Hong Kong English, Singapore English, and Japanese English together. However, the sociolinguistic environments in each of these regions differ radically enough that the norms for English used in each of these environments are also radically different”.

3.3 Gorlach's (1990) Model (Circle of International English)

A model very close to MacArthur's was proposed by the German linguist, Manfred Gorlach. His model is also based on the notion of a circle. The centre of the circle has the caption, 'International English', which like MacArthur's 'World Standard English' is not clarified neither is it ascribed to any of the regions where English is spoken. It therefore remains hypothetical and idealistic. The central 'IntEng' is followed by another circle where Gorlach presents what he calls 'regional/national standards' – Antepodean English, British English, Canadian English, U.S. English, Caribbean English, African Englishes and S. Asian Englishes. The third wheel in Gorlach's huge circle contains the 'semi-standard' varieties which he also tagged as the sub-regional varieties. Interestingly, Gorlach identifies two classes of spoken English here – ENL (English as a National Language) and ESL (English as a Second Language). In this category, is found, Australian English, New Zealand English, Papua New Guinea English, Irish English, Scottish English, Welsh English, English English, Jamaican English, Guyanese English, Barbados English, Indian English, West African English, East African English, South African English etc. The final outer wheel or circle is the 'semi/non-standard' varieties which he tags as dialects, Creole and Ethnic English. In this circle, Gorlach groups such varieties as Nigerian English, Liberian English, Kenyan English, Tanzanian English, Zambian English, Melbourne English, Aboriginal English, Yorkshire dialect, Jamaican English, Bahamas English, etc.

Gorlach's model actually thrives on the basis of classifying standards. It is near accurate in identifying that various varieties in terms of standard, semi-standard and non-standard varieties. The users of the language all over the world fall within these three varieties. But the major concern is how the various English speaking worlds fit into his circle.

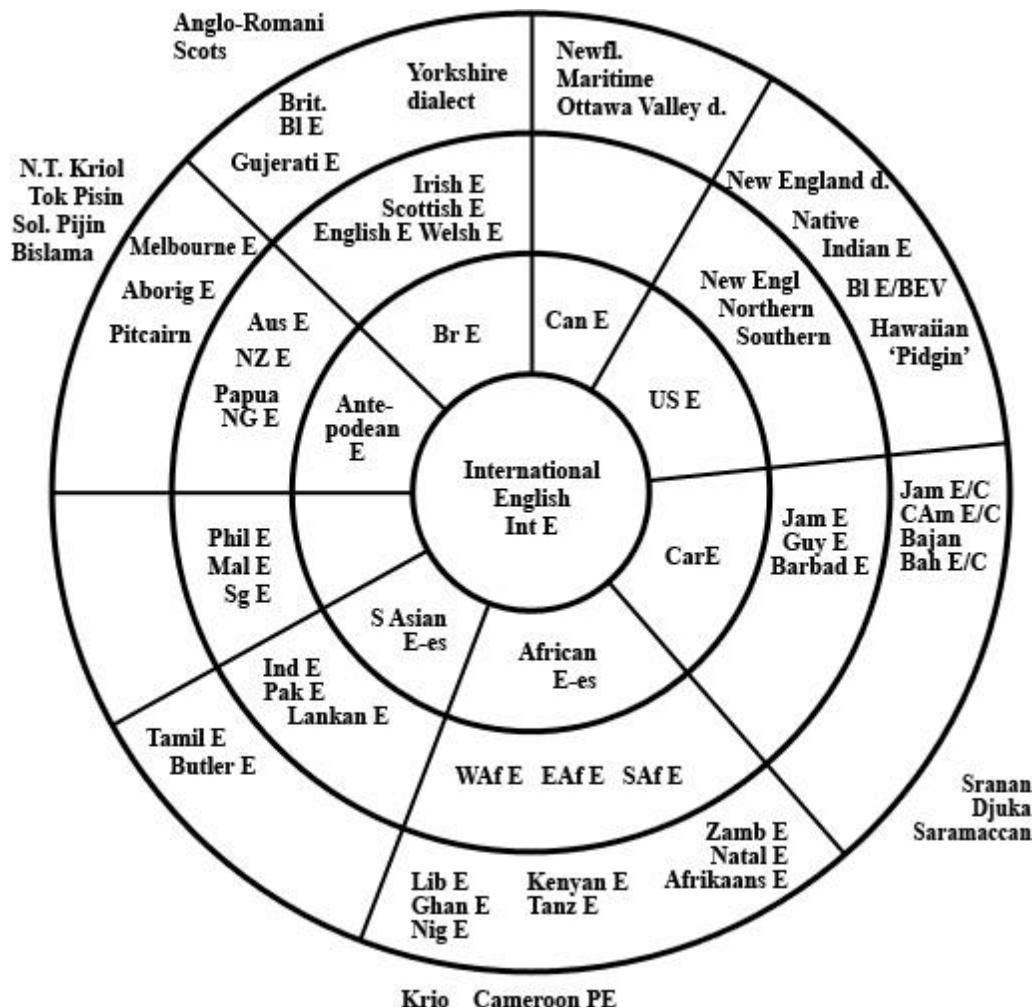


Fig III: Gorlach's Model of World English

Criticisms of the Model

1. International English variety is not clearly defined. As was earlier stated, it remains hypothetical or idealistic as it is not ascribed to any of the regional varieties. According to Moody (2003:45) "it is not clear who would speak this variety and where it is spoken".
2. There is arbitrariness in the classifications of the various varieties identified by Gorlach. For instance, Australian English, New Zealand English, Irish English, Scottish English are classified with Indian English, Malaysian English and Singaporean English. Such classifications take no cognizance of differences as well as sociolinguistic and acquisition patterns among the users of English in these regions.
3. Also worth noting is Gorlach's grouping of ENL and ESL in the same circle. This seems to suggest that various sub-regions where these varieties are used share the same linguistic, sociolinguistic and acquisition patterns but this is not so.

Self Assessment Exercise

- i. Mention some of the political developments that influenced the spread of English.
- ii. What economic developments made scientists to migrate to Britain?

4.0 CONCLUSION

There is no doubt that the reasons adduced here as factors for the spread of English are not exhaustive. However, some of the factors highlighted here are quite fundamental or rather foundational. It should also be stated that in looking at the factors responsible for the propagation of the language, it is necessary to consider its functions in the world today.

5.0 SUMMARY

Five distinct factors were identified as being responsible for the spread of English language; they are political factors, science and technology, education, international relations as well as entertainment. A detailed examination of the political factors indicates that such issues as imperialism, colonialism, and post-colonial developments hastened the spread of the language across the world. Closely related to this is the use of the language for international diplomacy and its spread through the establishment of military bases especially by the USA. Other notable factors that accelerated the spread of English are science and technology, education and entertainment.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Closely examine the roles of politics and international diplomacy in the spread of English.
- ii. Write a short note on how the following influenced the spread of English around the world:
 - i. Science and technology
 - ii. Education
 - iii. Entertainment

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING:

- i. Kirkpatrick, A. and Deterding, D. (2010) 'World Englishes' in Simpson, J. (ed.) *The Routledge Handbook of Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Routledge (pp. 373-387).
- ii. Kachru, B. (2006) 'English: World Englishes' in Brown, K. (ed.) *Encyclopedia of Linguistics*. Elsevier pp. 195-202

iii. Moody, A. (2003) 'A Variationist Approach to Models of World Englishes'. Journal of the College of World Englishes 4. 37-62

Unit 6: Characterizing ESL Situations in the World (2)

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
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 - 3.1 Strevens's World Map Model
 - 3.2 Modiano's Model
- 4.0 Conclusion
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The examination of the different models for characterizing the different strands or types of English used across the world continues in this unit. The unit specifically examines two models namely Strevens' World Map Model and Modiano's Model. These two made up the entire five presented in this course material. Indeed, Streven's World Map and Modiano's Model provide more insights into the penetration and categorization of how English functions in the global scene are made apparent.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, the students should be able to:

- i. identify the models presented in the unit,
- ii. explain each of these two models adequately, and
- iii. point out the criticisms against the models.

3.0 MAIN BODY

3.1 Strevens's World Map Model

One of the earliest models for describing World Englishes was developed by Peter Stevens in 1980. The model is based on the notion that two branches of English exist in the World – British English Branch and the American English Branch. It is believed that the diffusion of the language was made possible by the political and economic dominance of these two nations. Stevens has argued that all other varieties or forms of English share or have ‘affinities with one of the main branches BE or AE’ (Stevens, 1992 quoted in Moody, 2003:40). In particular, Stevens notes that many Hawaiians confuse Australian tourists for British nationals because both speak the same kind of English. This therefore means that the Australian English falls within the British English Branch rather than the American English Branch.

Stevens’s (1980) model of world English varieties is represented by a world map. Superimposed on the map is a grid like structure which has at its head English, this is then subdivided in the next layer to American English (AE) Branch and British English (BE) Branch. The two branches actually divide the world into two neatly separated parts. The AE branch covers the entire North American continent – USA and Canada. It also covers the Philippines and Puerto Rico. On the other hand, the BE branch covers the Europe, African-West, East and South, Asian-East and South (except the Philippines) Australia and New Zealand. The sphere of the BE branch also extends to the Caribbean – Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago etc.

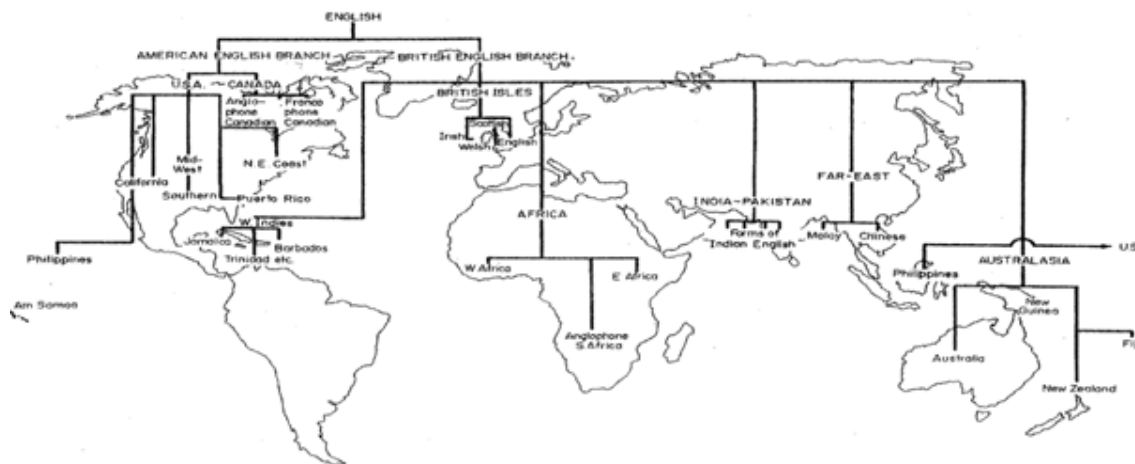


Fig IV: Stevens’ World Map of English

Criticism of the Model

1. Like other models which came after it, Stevens’s model is geographically based. It is not developed on the basis of linguistic parameters. The historical links of the various

regions of the world to British and American hegemony does not fully account for varieties of Englishes.

2. The model's assumption that all other Englishes derive from AE and BE fails to account for the divergent varieties that have developed as a result of the process of nativization or other linguistic or sociolinguistic factors.

3. There are some missing links in the model. For instance, while the Philippines comes under the AE branch perhaps by reason of American occupation and military bases there, Japanese English is not accounted for. It is believed that any form of English used by the Japanese should have direct influence from the AE branch also by reason of occupation and military bases than to the BE branch. This point clearly exposes the failure of the model to account for several new Englishes spoken or used all across the various regions of the world.

3.2 Modiano's Model

Malkko Modiano developed his model of English in 1999. His model comes in two forms: Modiano (1999a: 25) tagged, 'The centripetal circles of international English' and Modiano (1999b: 10) 'English as an International language' (EIL) model.

Modiano's first model, 'the centripetal circles of international English' avoids the geographical and historical classification of earlier models. At the centre of his circle is what he calls 'Proficient in International English'. Modiano's main category-defining parameter is proficiency in what he, like MacArthur and Gorlach before him, calls 'International English'. All the speakers of English who use this form of English proficiently are grouped into the first circle regardless of whether they are native or non-native speakers. Intelligibility and comprehensibility are therefore given serious consideration. Another major criterion listed for those who fall into this band is little or no strong accent or dialect. By this framework, speakers of Modiano's variety cut across regions and cultures.

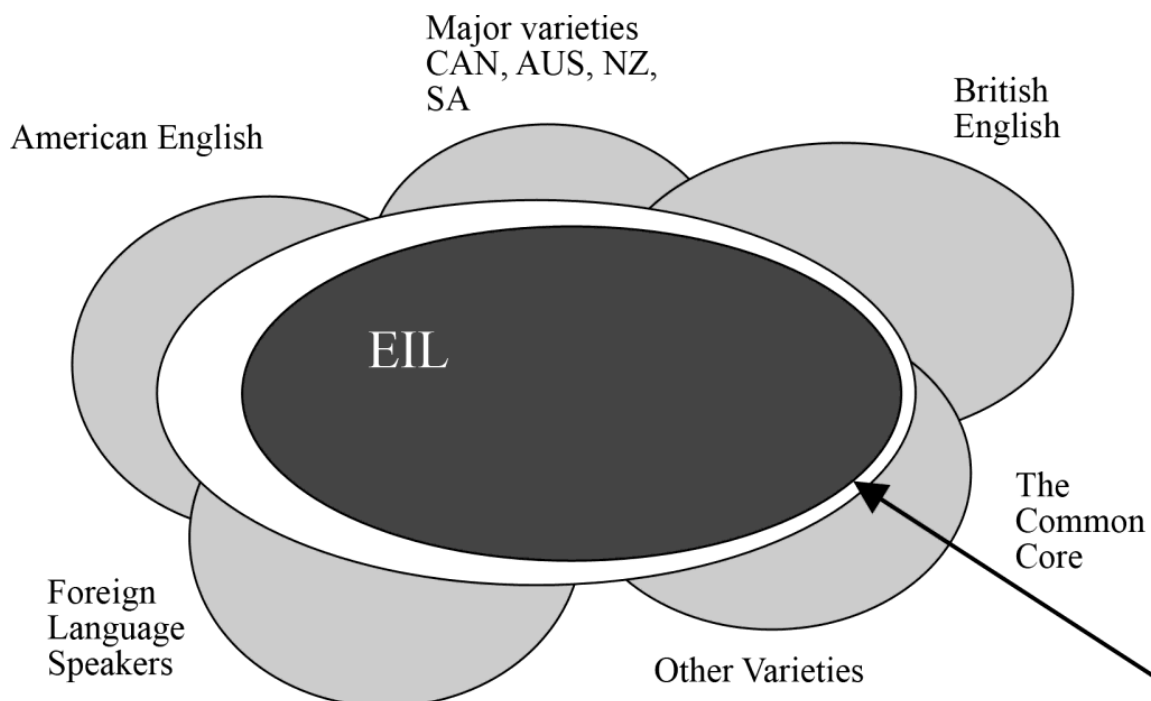


Fig V: Modiano's Model of English as an International Language

The second circle consists of speakers who use English as first language (L_1) and second language (L_2) but whose proficiency does not equate the 'proficient in international English' criterion. These speakers are intelligible to those who use the same form of English as themselves. The third circle groups those Modiano refers to as 'learners of English' while the fourth and final group though completely left out of the three circles but captured outside the third circle are those 'who do not know English'.

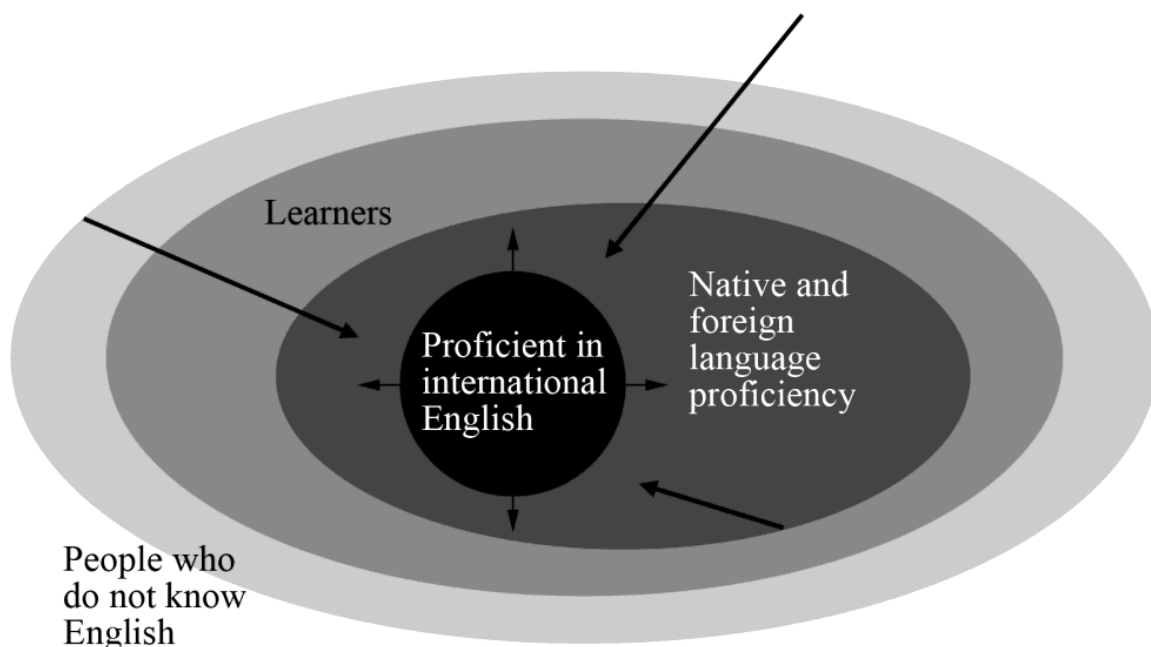


Fig VI: Modiano's Centripetal Circles Model of International English

Criticisms of the Model

1. As with MacArthur and Gorbach, Modiano's 'International English' is not Defined Mutual Intelligibility is not a strong basis for head marking or defining such a feature.
2. In the same vein, the model fails to clearly distinguish how strong and non-strong regional accent can be determined.

Modiano's Second Model (EIL)

In Modiano (1999b), a second model was introduced perhaps in reaction to criticisms of the first model. Modiano's lexicons changes a little bit here. Though proficiency was dropped, such terms as 'core features', 'common core' and 'competent' were introduced. The first circle is captioned EIL which is used by native-speakers and 'competent' non-native speakers. This circle according to this model consists of those who use the core features of English. The second circle is made up of speakers who share 'the common core'. This could be native as well as non-native speakers whose usage of English is internationally comprehensible. The final rings captures varieties that are associated with certain speech communities and are therefore only comprehensible to them. They include American English, British English, Foreign language speakers, Australian, New Zealand, Canadian, South African English, etc.

Criticisms of the Model

1. There are no clear cut distinctions between 'core' and 'non-core' varieties.
2. The issue of competence is also problematic. Modiano gives the impression that all native speakers are competent users of English.
3. Another contentious classification has to do with the reference to native varieties as 'Major' and non-native varieties such as Singaporean English as 'local'.

Self Assessment Exercise

- i. Mention two major divisions in Streven's World Map Model.
- ii. What are the differences between the two models put forward by Makko Modiano.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit brings to conclusion the examination of the different model for characterizing the situation of English language around the world. Specifically, all the models attest to

the notion that English is indeed a global language. They also lay the basis for the identification of the language in terms of its domain of usage in the various regions of the world.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, two more models were examined namely Strevens's World Map Model and Modiano's Model which is presented in two forms. Strevens's World Map Model is presented on the basis of the world map from which the English speaking portion is classified into BE and AE. From this classification, the idealistic 'International English' is derived. The model has, however, been criticized for over dependence on geography. Modiano presents two forms of models, the second being some form of modification on the first. Essentially, he attempts to distance himself from the pitfall of over reliance on geographical classification. He uses such criteria as linguistic competence, comprehensibility; and in the second model he introduces such notions as 'core' features and 'non-core' features as distinguishing elements of the different varieties of English spoken around the world.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Explain in very clear terms the propositions of Strevens's World Map Model.
- ii. Attempt a comparison of Modiano's two models.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- i. Modiano, M. (1999) 'International English in the global village' *English Today* 15, 2 pp 22-27
- ii. Moody, A (2003) 'A Variationist Approach to Models of World Englishes'. *Journal of the College of World Englishes* 4, 37-62
- iii. Strevens, P. (1980) *Teaching English as an International Language: From Practice to Principle* Oxford: Pergamon Press

Unit 7: ESL and the Concept of BILINGUALISM

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Body
 - 3.1 What is Bilingualism?
 - 3.2 Other definitions of the term
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The concept of ESL is inherently related to the notion of Bilingualism. Simply put, every user of ESL is invariably a bilingual because he/she speaks a first language if not many

more besides. It is for this reason that some units in these course materials have been dedicated to a thorough examination of the linguistic concept of bilingualism.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, the students should be able to:

- i. offer some definitions of bilingualism, and
- ii. point out some inhibitions to an adequate definition of bilingualism.

3.0 MAIN BODY

There is a general presupposition that flows from the concept of English as a second language. What can be immediately deduced is that the users of such a variety of English use another language which is definitely not English. Thus, invariably, all users of English as a second language are either bilinguals or are engaged in what can be termed as multilingualism. In this unit of the course, we shall examine the concept of bilingualism especially as it affects the users of English as a second language.

What is Bilingualism?

In a very straightforward way, bilingualism can simply be defined as the use of two-languages either by a speech community or an individual. While there are expectedly many speech communities in the world where mono-lingualism or the use of one language is the norm, it is also very apparent that in many other speech communities more than one language is employed for communication. Unlike diglossia where different varieties of a particular language are used in a particular speech community for instance, High and Low Arabic, High and Low Greek etc., bilingualism specifically addresses the employment of two distinct languages by the individuals within various speech communities. By this token, it is clear, with the focus on English as a second language in mind, that inner circle countries (see Unit 5) are generally monolingual though there are clear exceptions – Britain is somewhat monolingual but the United States of America is not. However, it is quite glaring that Outer Circle countries, that is, those using English as a second language (ESL) are generally bilingual or even multilingual.

Leonard Bloomfield's work has been the starting point for many scholarly works on the subject of bilingualism. According to Bloomfield (1933: 55-56);

In the extreme case of foreign-language learning the speaker becomes so proficient as to be indistinguishable from the native speakers around him. This happens occasionally in adult shift of language and frequently in the childhood shift just described. In the cases where this

perfect foreign-language learning is not accomplished by loss of the native language, it results in bilingualism, native-like control of two languages.

Issues have been raised concerning Bloomfield's use of the words 'perfect' or 'proficient'. By this definition, he introduces the notion of 'degree' (see Edwards 2006: 8-11 for a fuller explanation). Other definitions include Weinreich (1953) who sees the concept as the alternate use of two languages. However, Wei (2006: 1) has argued that while bilingualism refers to 'the possession of two languages'. The term could also accommodate 'the many people in the world who have varying degrees of proficiency in and interchangeably use three, four or even more languages'. Wei's (ibid) view contradicts the earlier depiction of the concept as involving the mastery of two languages. Edwards (ibid) notes that the modern or later definitions 'allowed much greater variation in competence'.

As the tension on the conceptualization of bilingualism seems altogether unresolved, Baker and Prys Jones (1998: 2 quoted in Wei 2006: 1) propose a checklist:

- i. Should bilingualism be measured by how fluent people are in two languages?
- ii. Should bilinguals be only those people who have equal competence in both languages?
- iii. Is language proficiency the only criterion for accessing bilingualism, or should the use of two languages also be considered?
- iv. Most people would define a bilingual as a person who can speak two languages. What about a person who can understand a second language perfectly but cannot speak it? What about a person who can speak a language but is not literate in it? What about an individual who cannot speak or understand speech in a second language but can read and write it? Should these categories of people be considered bilinguals?
- v. Should self-perception and self-categorization be considered in defining who is a bilingual?
- vi. Are there different degrees of bilingualism that can vary over time and with circumstances? For instance, a person may learn a minority language as a child at home and then later acquire another, majority language in the community or at school. Over time, the second language may become the stronger or dominant language. if that person moves away from the neighbourhood or area in which the minority language is spoken or loses contact with those who speak it, he or she may lose fluency in the minority language. Should bilingualism therefore be a relative term?

Self Assessment Exercise

- i. What did Leonard Bloomfield say about bilingualism?
- ii. What did other scholars say on the concept of bilingualism? .

4.0 CONCLUSION

The concept of bilingualism does not have a single definition. Scholars have tended to look at it from different angles. Some fundamental issues remain unresolved as to how a bilingual can be characterized.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit actually serves as an introductory segment to the discussion of the place of bilingualism in ESL. In this short unit, the conceptual delimitation of bilingualism has been examined. Beginning with Bloomfield's (1933:55-56) definition, it is pointed out that other scholars hold different views on the concept of bilingualism. Bloomfield's definition introduced some basic terms such as 'perfect', 'proficient' and 'two languages' which have been challenged by others. The major arguments seem to be that should bilingualism be characterized on the basis of competence or proficiency or simply as the use of two or more languages.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Using Bloomfield's (1933:55-56) definition as starting point, critically examine the concept of bilingualism.
- ii. Examine in clear and lucid prose the concept of bilingualism.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- i. Bloomfield, L. (1933) *Language*. London: George Allen and Unwin Ltd
- ii. Edwards, J. (2006) 'Foundations of Bilingualism' in *The Handbook of Bilingualism* ed. by Bhatia, Tej and Ritchie, Williams, C. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd
- iii. Wei, L. (2006) 'Bilingualism' in Brown, K. (ed.) *Linguistics Encyclopedia*. London. Elsevier Ltd.
- iv. Weinreich, U. (1953) *Language in Contact: Findings and Problems*. The Hague: Mouton

Unit 8: Classifying or Categorizing Bilinguals

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Body
 - 3.1 Weinreich's classification of bilinguals
 - 3.2 Haugen's classification of bilinguals
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Different categories of bilingualism have been proposed by scholars. These categories or classifications have attempted to capture how bilinguals use the two languages at their disposal. In this unit, the proposal of two scholars are examined – Weinreich (1953) and Haugen (1953). Their classifications embody some of the most traditional categories present in literature.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, the students should be able to:

- i. identify and explain Weinreich's classification of bilinguals.
- ii. identify and explain Haugen's classification of bilinguals.

3.0 MAIN BODY

Scholars have put forward different typologies in the attempt to classify bilinguals. We shall now consider these the economical especially as they affect users of ESL. The most highly recognized typological are those of Weinreich (1953), Haugen (1953) and so on.

3.1 Weinreich's Classification

Weinreich's (1953) typology is perhaps the best known in the field. He proposed three classifications of a bilingual namely: co-ordinate, compound and subordinate bilinguals.

i. The Co-ordinate Bilingual

The co-ordinate bilingual, according to Weinreich, is someone who has acquired a native or near native competence or performance in the use of two languages. Such an individual uses the second language in just the same way as he/she does the first

language. In addition, such bilingualism precludes the presence of a foreign accent. This particular classification comes very close to Bloomfield's definition of bilingualism. According to Dadzie (2004: 142) 'a Nigerian who has acquired both English and his native language e.g. Igbo, such that you would consider him an English man when he speaks, and Igbo as well as a native Igbo, is representative of this type'. Many scholars concede that it is very hard to find co-ordinate bilinguals. The sociolinguistic reason for this is that it is generally believed that the acquisition of a first language impedes the acquisition of the second language.

A more theoretical explanation for co-ordinate bilingualism is that such bilinguals have two systems of meanings for words since each linguistic code (L_1 and L_2) are sources differently and co-ordinated separately. Lambert, Havelka and Crosby (1958 quoted in Josiane F. et al 2000:164) point out that the co-ordinate bilinguals:

- i. Make more semantic distinction between a word and its translation equivalent;
- ii. Have two relatively independent association networks for translation equivalents.

These are the factors that account for the proficient use of both languages in the linguistic repertoire of such bilinguals.

ii. Compound Bilingual

This refers to an individual who possesses just one semantic system for the two languages in which he/she functions. In other words, the compound bilingual sources meaning in the two languages from one reference point. Dadzie (ibid) notes that a compound bilingual 'does not function as a native speaker of either of the languages that he speaks. In this case, the languages involved are so integrated at a deep level of organization that one language is equated more or less with the other'. For the ESL user this is a major problem.

iii. The Subordinate Bilingual

The more common type of bilinguals are those who are already proficient in one language (L_1) and thereafter learn to operate or use a second language (L_2). Like the co-ordinate bilinguals, they also have two systems of meanings with two different representations. But their challenge is that their world view is coloured by their first language consequently, they interpret words in the second language on the basis of the first language. this process leads to a lot of transliteration in the speech and writings of such bilinguals.

3.2 Haugen's Classification

This classification is based on the use to which a bilingual puts the second language.

i. Supplementary Bilinguals

Here the second language is used occasionally or for specific purposes e.g. diplomatic interaction, tourism or travel purposes etc. The first language takes predominance in virtually all activities or human encounters but the second language is only used when situations or occasions warrant.

ii. Complementary Bilinguals

In complementary bilinguals the second language plays an even stronger role as it is used to complement the first language. Here, the second language is required for significant societal and individual goals such as educational, political and economic advancement. So while not being deployed or used as L_1 by a greater majority of the people, the second language plays such prominence that it functions as a lingua franca or official language in some speech communities.

iii. Replacive Bilinguals

Replacive bilingualism is a process that terminates in linguicide or the death of a first language where and when the second language becomes so dominant as to replace the first. In other words, the bilingual has come to such a level in both proficiency and societal demand make the first language altogether irrelevant.

Self Assessment Exercise

i. Mention the categories of bilinguals identified by Weinreich.

ii. List out Haugen's classification of bilinguals.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Weinreich's and Haugen's classifications of bilinguals are perhaps the most common classifications in literature. The classifications are carried out based on the observed performance of the bilinguals in the two languages that they use. Of course, this has some implications for ESL users because their competence in the target language (English) makes it easy to categorize them.

5.0 SUMMARY

Six different types of bilinguals are clearly identified in this unit. Three of these categories – co-ordinate bilinguals; compound bilinguals and sub-ordinate bilinguals – are put forward by Weinreich (1953) while three – supplementary bilinguals, complementary bilinguals and replacive bilinguals – are proposed by Haugen (1953). The co-ordinate bilinguals have near native competence in both languages; compound bilinguals operate one semantic system for both languages; sub-ordinate bilinguals refer to bilinguals who are proficient in their first language and are learning an L2. On the other hand, supplementary bilingual uses the target language for specific purposes; for complementary bilinguals the second language plays as much a significant role in the individual's day to day interactions as the first language, and replacive bilingualism refers to a situation where the target language becomes so important that the first language faces the threat of being jettisoned by the users.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Write short notes on the three categories of bilinguals proposed by Weinreich.
- ii. Briefly explain the following:
 - a. supplementary bilinguals
 - b. complementary bilinguals
 - c. replacive bilingualism

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- i. Dadzie, A.B.K (2004) 'Bilingualism' in *Nigerian English: Influences and Characteristics* ed. by Dadzie, A.B.K and Awonusi, S. Lagos: Concept Publications
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Unit 9: Other Typologies of Bilingualism

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Body

3.1 Early and Late bilinguals; Balanced and Dominant bilinguals; Additive and Subtractive bilinguals; Primary and Secondary bilinguals

3.2 ; Folk and Elite bilinguals; symmetrical and Asymmetrical bilinguals; elemental and conscious bilinguals; receptive and productive bilinguals; complete and incomplete bilinguals

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

A further examination of the typologies of bilingualism reveals some other categories that have been advanced by scholars in this field. These typologies or classifications are quite different from the ones examined in the previous unit. One thing to note about these categories is the fact that they come in a binary form; the first item contrasting with the other. However, they provide more understanding of the concept of bilingualism and also aid in the characterization of the linguistic behaviour of ESL users.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, the students should be able to:

- i. identify the typologies of bilingualism proposed in the unit;
- ii. explain each typology lucidly.

3.0 MAIN BODY

Many scholars working on the concepts of bilingualism have proposed other classifications. These sometimes come in the form of a binary representation:

- i. Early and Late Bilinguals

The notion of early and late bilinguals is hinged on the age of acquisition of the target language or L₂. The early bilinguals acquire two or more languages before adolescence. Some scholar proposed the ages between three and five (Lenneberg, 1967) while say the two languages should be attained or acquired on or before 8 years. On the other hand, the late bilinguals are those who acquire a second language after adolescence or simply as

adults. Grigor (2012: 9) notes that 'late bilinguals can have their phonological, morphosyntactic and grammatical competences limited'. The major attribute of early bilinguals is that they possess a near native command of the languages they are exposed to. McLaughlin (1984) makes a distinction between early bilinguals:

(a) Simultaneous early bilinguals:

This refers to a child who learns or acquires two languages simultaneously. McLaughlin (1984 quoted) argues that neither of the two languages can be referred to as the first language. This process often results in strong bilingualism.

(b) Successive Early Bilinguals:

This occurs when a child has acquired a first language say at about 2 years and then begins to learn a second language.

ii. Balanced and Dominant Bilinguals

The major concern here is the level of fluency. The balanced bilinguals are believed to be those who have equal competence or fluency in the use of both languages say French and English or Hausa and English. Edwards (2006: 9) notes that other terms used to describe such bilinguals are ambilinguals and equilinguals. Beardsmore (1986:7) proposes that an ambilingual is someone who uses both languages equally well and with no traces of accents. He distinguishes this situation from balanced bilingualism which categorized as a condition in which the individual's capacity in both languages is 'roughly equivalent'.

Unlike the balanced bilinguals, the dominant bilingual is usually more fluent in one of the two languages. In other words, one language dominates the other in terms of the fluency and or frequency at which it is used. The implication of this is that proficiency and competence of such a person is low in one language and high in the other. However, some scholars have argued that dominant bilingualism may also be a function of context (Liddicoat 1991: 9). He states that 'there are domains of language use in which people use only one of their two languages'. According to him an Arabi-English bilingual 'could be better able to talk about work in English and better able to talk about cooking in Arabic'.

iii. Additive and Subtractive Bilinguals

Lambert (1975, 1976) proposed the terms 'additive' and 'subtractive' bilingualism balanced on the social and psychological outcomes of this phenomenon 'on various individuals in the society. Additive bilingualism is a situation whereby the acquisition of a second language does not affect the first language in any negative ways. In other words, such bilinguals place equal premium on both languages probably because the society

recognizes or emphasizes the need to have both languages. In such a context, both languages are complementary and learning both the language and culture associated with them places the individual at an advantageous position. On the other hand, subtractive bilingualism depicts a situation where the acquisition of a second language results in the loss of the first language. According to Edwards (2006: 11), this condition prevails in societies 'in which one language is valued more than the other'. So rather than complement each other as is the case with additive bilingualism, the two languages here are competing and one generally dominates the other.

iv. Primary and Secondary Bilingualism

The distinction here has to do with formal and informal learning methods. Primary bilingualism generally refers to the bilinguals who acquire the second language 'naturally, through contextual demands' (Edwards 2006: 11). These bilinguals learn the target language in an informal way. They simply pick up the language from interacting with the speakers of the language. The secondary bilinguals acquire the language through 'systematic and formal instruction' (Edwards *ibid*). Grigor (2012) refers to such a situation as 'achieved' bilingualism. Edwards has stressed that the dichotomy between these two forms is not clear cut. He declares that in a general sense people may pick up a language informally and thereafter go on to learn it the language in a formal school setting.

v. Folk and Elite Bilingualism

This typology also draws attention to the social implications of bilingualism. Fishman (1977) proposes that where a person whose first language has a minority status in a given society learns that uses the dominant language as a second language, a state of folk bilingualism occurs when someone whose language is the dominant in a community learns a second language. For the elite bilinguals, the acquisition of the second language brings 'additional value within the society' (Butler and Hekuta 2012: 118). Liddicoat (1991: 7) notes that elite bilinguals learn the second language by choice rather than from any compelling social pressure or compulsion. But the folk bilinguals are generally forced to learn the second language. Folk bilinguals are 'stigmatized'.

vi. Symmetrical vs. Asymmetrical Bilingualism

When a bilingual individual has equal competence in the two languages that he/she uses, then we have symmetrical bilingualism. This is akin to what we find in balanced bilingualism (see Beardsmore, 1986). Again, it must be pointed out that such bilinguals are far between. The alternative case is a situation where a bilingual individual can either speak one of the two languages and not able to write it or can write in one of the languages and not able to speak it. This is known as asymmetrical bilingualism. Grigor

(2012: 10) notes that this form of bilingualism is common among older learners of a second language. Asymmetrical bilinguals are generally often more adept to speaking the second language rather than writing them. The reason for this is that they feel the need to use the language to easily get around in a new environment especially if they are immigrants.

vii. Elemental vs. Conscious Bilingualism

Grigor (2012: 13) also identifies what she calls elemental or spontaneous bilingualism which stands in contradistinction to conscious bilingualism. According to her, elemental or spontaneous bilinguals acquire the second language in a natural environment and without external influences such as e.g. from parents or teachers. On the other hand, conscious bilinguals operate in an artificial environment and the acquisition process often lacks spontaneity. It is done under the control of an external entity e.g. a language instructor. Grigor (ibid) notes that the features of elemental bilingualism include:

- a. Grammatical stability in both languages;
- b. It takes a longer time to forget either of the two languages;
- c. Easier to achieve native fluency at the phonetic and phonological levels of both languages; and
- d. Natural environment of learning the languages generally increase native-like fluency.

The features of conscious bilingualism are highlighted as follows:

- a. Instability in grammar and vocabulary especially where the second language is not used frequently.
- b. Inability to produce fluent speech due to intermittent use of the language.
- c. Poor mastery of phonetic and phonological elements, etc.

viii. Receptive vs. Productive Bilingualism

Edwards (2006: 10) notes that receptive bilingualism or passive bilinguals refers to competence in only one language. He terms this 'semibilingualism' which he notes is not synonymous with 'semilingualism' 'which refers to a lack of complete fluency in either language'. On the other hand, a productive bilingual is one who has active competence in both languages. In a nutshell, while productive bilinguals can express themselves in both the spoken and written form of both languages, receptive bilinguals cannot.

ix. Complete vs. Incomplete Bilingualism

Kornakov (1997: 6 quoted in Grigor 2012: 13) defines complete bilingualism as one in which ‘fluency and competence in both languages are of native standard’. It is also referred to as ‘absolute’ bilingualism. Incomplete bilingualism therefore refers to a situation where the bilingual individual is inadequate in one or two aspects of a given language either vocabulary, phonetics, grammar etc.

Self Assessment Exercise

- i. Mention the various types of bilingualisms examined in this unit.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This is the concluding unit on the discussion on bilingualism. Specifically, the nine typologies presented here indicate that bilingualism is not a monolithic concept but one that has many facades with intricate or complex manifestations. These various typologies also show that the ESL users have varying degrees of competence.

5.0 SUMMARY

Nine types of bilingualism were examined in this unit. Early and Late bilingualism focuses on chronological age in relation to the acquisition of the target language; Balanced and Dominant bilingualism has to do with the degree of fluency by bilinguals; Additive and Subtractive bilingualism centres on the impact of the acquisition of the target language on the first language; Primary and Secondary bilingualism refers to the method of acquisition whether informal (primary) or formal (secondary); Folk and Elite bilingualism draws attention to the social implications of bilingualism; Symmetrical and Asymmetrical bilingualism captures the level of proficiency of bilinguals in the two languages; Elemental and Conscious bilingualism refers to the presence or absence of external factors in the acquisition of the target language; Receptive and Productive bilingualism is competence in either the spoken and written form of the target language (receptive) or competence in both forms (productive); complete bilinguals use both languages competently while incomplete bilinguals use just one of the two languages effectively.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Write short notes on the following:
 - a. Early and Late bilinguals
 - b. Balanced and Dominant bilinguals

- c. Additive and Subtractive bilinguals
- d. Primary and Secondary bilinguals
- ii. Briefly explain the following:
 - a. Folk and Elite bilingualism
 - b. Symmetrical vs. Asymmetrical bilingualism
 - c. Elemental vs. Conscious bilingualism
 - d. Receptive vs. Productive bilingualism
 - e. Complete vs. Incomplete bilingualism

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Unit 10: General Features of English as a Second Language

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Body
 - 3.1 Phonological Features
 - 3.2 Syntactic/Grammatical Features
 - 3.3 Lexical Features
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, the peculiar linguistic features that mark off ESL shall be closely examined. This attempt is geared towards describing ESL as it is used in the various regions of the world. The features to be examined cut across phonology, syntax and lexis. These

features help to capture the variations that make ESL distinct from other varieties of English.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, the students should be able to:

- i. point out the major features that characterize ESL, and
- ii. explain these features clearly.

3.0 MAIN BODY

In considering the general features of English as a second language, it is pertinent to note that the features cited here cannot be divorced from those associated with New Englishes and/or World Englishes. The point here is that since the ESL speaker possesses a first language, there are instances of interference (Edwards 2006:18-19) that greatly affect or influence his/her performance in English. We shall examine these features on the basis of phonology, syntax or grammar, lexis as well as discourse.

3.1 Phonological Features

This section shall focus on the two broad areas of phonology: namely (i) segmental and (ii) supra-segmental features. At the segmental level, Awonusi (2004: 38) has noted that there is some level of uniformity in the number of consonants used by the various 'assents of English...unlike vowels where the divergence is high'. Kirkpatrick and Deterding (2010: 375) notes that some of the phonological features of New Englishes include avoidance of dental fricatives, reduction of final consonant clusters, and use of syllable-time rhythm.

i. Dental Fricatives

Awonusi (2004: 40) and Kirkpatrick and Deterding (2012: 376) declare that the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ are generally absent from the phonemic inventory of many second language users of English. In the initial position, /θ/ is often realised as /t/ by ESL users in Singapore, the Philippines; the Bahamas, India, Ghana, Brunei and Nigeria. However, Kirkpatrick and Deterding (ibid) indicate that the Hausa ESL users produce /f/ instead of /θ/.

ii. Palato-Alveolar Fricative /ʒ/

Awonusi (ibid) notes that the Palato-alveolar fricative /ʒ/ is generally absent in the phonemic inventory of non-native speakers of English. In most instances, /ʒ/ is replaced

by /z/ or /s/ in Indian English or by /d/ and /s/ in other varieties from Asia, Africa and Caribbean.

iii. Distinctive Peculiarities (Stereotypes)

Some varieties of ESL have developed distinctive varieties (see Awonusi *ibid*). For instance, in Nigeria, the Hausa users of ESL are prone to substitute /p/ for /f/ and vice versa. So ‘people’ becomes /fi:fl/. Indian English and Caribbean varieties also use /w/ and /b/ to replace some phonemes in words like river, love, very, etc.

iv. Final Consonant Clusters

It has also been acknowledged that many ESL users omit word-final consonants in consonant clusters (Kirkpatrick and Deterding 2010: 376). Thus words like ‘first’, ‘world’, ‘ask’, and ‘think’ are pronounced without the final consonant by ESL users in Singapore (Deterding 2007: 18): The Malaysian ESL users are wont to realize the following lif (lift), pos (post), hos (host), kos (cost), kem (camp) etc. (Collins 2002).

v. Rhythm

The general characteristics of ESL users as regards rhythm are the syllable/stress timing dichotomy. Many scholars have pointed out that most African and Asian languages are syllable-time. However, some other languages spoken in Europe also share this feature for example French, Spanish, Latin, Greek (Crystal 2002: 168). On the other hand, languages like English, Portuguese, Russian, Swedish, Welsh etc. are stress-timed. The consequence of this is that it takes the African and Asian user of ESL a longer time to articulate sounds and to pronounce words. As Wells (1982: 642 quoted in Crystal 2002: 170) notes ‘for those Africans whose first language is syllable-timed (as many are), the resultant pronunciation of a word such as ‘society’is very different from what is heard in England or America’.

The point here is that syllable-timed languages give prominence to all syllables regardless of whether they are stress or not. However, in stress-timed languages such as English, ‘stressed syllables fall at regular intervals, whether they are separated by unstressed syllables or not’ (Crystal 2002: 169). It should however be noted that some scholars have questioned this dichotomy. They have noted that native speakers’ speech can also be syllable timed depending on a host of factors.

3.2 Syntax/Grammar

Some distinctive features of ESL users are also observable at the syntactic and grammatical levels. We have combined syntax and grammar here because both

essentially deal with the ordering of words. It should be mentioned here that the peculiarities of ESL at this level differ from variety to variety.

Omoniyi (2004:109-110) notes some syntactic features peculiar it would seem to the Nigerian ESL users. Some of these features according to him are the outcome of interference between the first language and English.

- i. Over generalization, and direct one-to-one translation from L₁ to L₂. e.g. the Nigerian ESL speaker often says 'I' on coming in place of 'just a minute' or 'I'll be right back'.
- ii. Wrong ordering of compound subjects; the ESL users would rather mention the speaker or first person first before the second or third person in line with the pattern observable in local languages. 'I and Adenike ate the food' instead of 'Adenike and I ate the food'.
- iii. Wrong use of reflexive pronouns: the Nigerian ESL user makes no distinction between 'each other' and 'one another', both are generally hopped together as "themselves". e.g. 'Mary and John certainly have themselves'.

Kirkpatrick and Deterding (2010: 377-378) note that other peculiarities in ESL usages include:

- iv. Absence of tense marking: the present tense –s inflection is often absent in ESL users in Singapore and Brunei. This is usually common with stative verbs – like know, want (Ho and Platt 1993: 86). He thinks I want to listen to his story is it? (Deterding 2007: 56).
- v. Count/non-count nouns: Many ESL users all over the world also have a problem with distinguishing count and non-count nouns. While they easily grasp such nouns as boys, cars, tables, houses, countries, non-count nouns pose a challenge. The ESL users over generalize such that furniture becomes furnitures, equipment-equipments; staff-staffs; fruit-fruits; accommodation-accommodations; etc.
- vi. Invariant Tags: Scholars have noted that ESL users often use 'is it' or 'isn't it' as tags in the most inappropriate way.

You like that, isn't it? (Alo and Mesthrie 2004: 817).

The example above is from Nigerian English but similar usage has been noted in Singapore English, as well as other ESL environments like Malaysia, India, Pakistan and Hong Kong.

3.3 Lexical Level

According to Crystal (2002: 158) words are the easiest to reflect language contact situations. Okoro (2004: 174) points out that a number of words have been coined by Nigerian ESL users to reflect their peculiar cultural experiences. While such words may show the ‘Nigerianness of Nigerian English’, Okoro argues that ‘they remain perfectly grammatical by analysis and at the same time do not obscure intelligibility to the native speaker of English, though he would himself not use them’.

	ESL Inspired Words/ Expressions	ESL Variant	Meaning
1.	Not on seat	Nigerian	Not available in the office
2.	Big man	Nigerian	Important personality

3.	Cash-madam	Nigerian	Affluent female trader
4.	Bottom power	Nigerian	Undue influence with sex
5.	Invitees	Nigerian	Guests
6.	Co-wives	Nigerian	The wives in a polygamous family
7.	Well done	Nigerian	Greeting to someone performing task
8.	Baby lawyer	Nigerian	Joining lawyer (Awonusi 1990)
9.	Hear French	Nigerian	Understand French (Awonusi 1990)
10.	Senior sister	Nigerian	Elder sister (Awonusi 1990)
11.	Hear the smell	Ghana/Nigerian	Perceive (Gyasi 1991)
12.	Lorry station	Ghana	(Motor) park (Gyasi 1991)
13.	Side-her	Pakistani	Supporting actor
14.	Book/luggage/car lifter	Pakistani	From shop lifter

Self Assessment Exercise

- i. Mention the five phonological features discussed in this unit.
- ii. Identify some syntactic peculiarities of ESL.
- iii. Point some lexical items found in the text of ESL users.

4.0 CONCLUSION

ESL is quite distinct as a variety. The uniqueness of this brand of English is however based on regional peculiarities. As an instance, it is not unlikely that the Kenyan speaking English would sound quite different from a Nigerian but both are ESL users of the language. So, what have been examined in this unit are general features that cut across the regions in the Outer Circle of Kachru's Concentric Circle.

4.0 SUMMARY

Three major areas of distinction have been examined in the usage of ESL in this unit. The first to be examined are phonological features. Here, it was pointed out that many ESL users have very peculiar issues with the articulation of dental fricatives; palate-alveolar fricatives; final consonant clusters and rhythm. It was made clear that in places like Nigeria, distinctive or peculiar varieties have been developed. In the area of syntax or grammar, such features as over generalization; wrong ordering of words; wrong use of reflexive pronouns; confusion of count/non-count nouns, etc. pre-dominant. Peculiar lexical usages such ‘baby lawyer’, ‘invitees’, ‘big man’ etc. was also highlighted.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Carefully examine some peculiar linguistic features in ESL.
- ii. With clear illustrations and or examples, discuss the general feature of ESL.

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Unit 11: CODE-SWITCHING in ESL

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Body
 - 3.1 Exploring the concept of code-switching
 - 3.2 Reasons for code-switching
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

3.0 INTRODUCTION

One of the major characteristics of ESL is the linguistic phenomenon known as code-switching. Though this is generally associated with bilingualism, it finds a place in the speech style of ESL users because they are basically bilinguals or multi-linguals. In this unit, the concept of code-switching shall be examined and attention shall also be paid to the reasons why people generally code switch.

4.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, the students should be able to:

- i. explain the concept of code-switching clearly , and
- ii. state the reasons for code-switching.

3.0 MAIN BODY

3.1 The Concept of Code-Switching

Perhaps one of the most noticeable speech behaviours of bilinguals is the linguistic phenomenon known as code-switching. Many bilinguals and or multilinguals have been known not only to use the first language and second or third language interchangeably but also to use them within a single or the same speech effort (see Dadzie 2004:151). Many scholars in the field of socio-linguistics have attempted to describe or define this phenomenon. This has resulted in various definitions. According to Alvarez-Caccamo

(1998:32), the first major mention of code-switching was made by Vogt (1954:88) “code-switching in itself is perhaps not a linguistic phenomenon but rather a psychological one, and its causes are obviously extra-linguistic”. This psychological bent or approach was to be taken up by Diebold (1961) and Jakobson (1961) who viewed code-switching as a form of ‘recording’. After surveying some earlier descriptions of the term, Alvarez – ‘code-switching’ did not have a uniform meaning’. Dadzie (2004:153-154) has also noted that the diversity in the speech behaviours of bilinguals such as code-switching, code-mixing, interlanguage, loans, borrowings, code-alternation etc. are not generally reflected in the various definitions proposed by scholars. Here are some other definitions as presented in Dadzie (2004:153):

- i. (It) is the use of more than one language by communicants in the execution of a speech act (Di Pietro 1978:1).
- ii. (It) has become a common term for alternative use of two or more languages, varieties of languages or even speech styles (Hymes 1974:103).
- iii. (It) is the use of two or more linguistic varieties in the same conversation or interaction. The varieties may be anything from genetically-unrelated language to two styles of the same language (Scotton and Ury 1977:1).
- iv. It is the alternative use of different languages (Haugen 1953)
- v. it is code alternation within the same discourse (Diebold 1963:56).

More complexities from the earlier definitions feature in Weinreich’s (1953:73) account. He declares that “the ideal bilingual is someone who is able to switch between languages when required to do so by changes in the situation but does not switch when the speech situation is unchanged and certainly not within a single sentence.”

However, later definitions and or description of the phenomenon attempt to narrow down the variables. Auer (1998:1) sees code-switching as the ‘alternating use of two or more codes within one conversational episode.’

In some definitions, code-switching and code-mixing are viewed as one and the same. Orosco and Hooker (2008:43 quoting Hamayan and Damico 1991) declare that “code-switching occurs as speakers shift across different grammatical structures, such as beginning a sentence using words in English while ending that same sentence with words from another language (e.g. French, Spanish, Hmong)’.

Perhaps from a conversational analysis purview, Myers-Scotton (1993:47) refers to code-switching as the ‘use of two or more languages in the same conversation, usually within the same turn, or even within the same sentence of that turn’.

3.2 Reasons for Code-Switching

Appal and Muysken (2005:118-121) proposed some reasons for code-switching based on some functional categories.

1. Referential Function

Code-switching is often resorted to by bilinguals as a means of referring to certain concepts or ideas which may not be present in the target language. In some instances, a given word may not have an equivalent in the target language or where such is available; it may not have the impact of the common/native language.

2. Directive Function

This has to do with the fact that code-switching ‘serves the hearer directly’. Appel and Muysken (Ibid: 119). In other words, it can be used to include or exclude an individual or group in a conversation. For instance, a Yoruba/English bilingual may switch from English to Yoruba in order to include a participant who would hitherto have been excluded from an English only interaction.

3. Expressive Function

For some bilinguals, code-switching is used to express their dual or mixed identity. For such people code-switching only shows that they are from a different background.

4. Phatic Function

Switching is sometimes done to indicate a change in the ‘tone of the conversation’. For some bilinguals the high point of their narrative often attracts the switching of codes either from the vernacular to English or vice-versa.

5. Meta-linguistic Function

According to Appel and Muysken (2005:120), code-switching is sometimes deployed to make ‘direct or indirect comments on the languages being switched. Quoting Scotton (1979), they declare that such practices are done by speakers who want to impress other interlocutors about their linguistic prowess.

6. Solidarity

Code-switching is used to show racial or tribal solidarity or sentiment. Although, this is closely related to the phatic function, here it is used to show affinity with the hearer(s). A clear example of this can be seen in *No Longer at Ease* by Chinua Achebe (see Wardlaugh) where a policeman switched from English to Igbo on noticing that the characters he was conversing with are actually Igbo.

Self Assessment Exercise

- i. Describe the term code-switching.
- ii. Point out the reasons ESL users switch codes.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Code-switching is perhaps one of the most apparent sociolinguistic features that set a user of ESL apart. The tendency to switch codes is made almost unavoidable because of the speech community in which he/she operates.

5.0 SUMMARY

Code-switching has been described in various ways by different scholars. In fact, there seems to be no uniform definition of the term. There is the psychological bent of Vogst to the conversation analysis oriented definition of Myers-Scotton. However, as regards functions, code-switching has been identified as linguistic phenomenon that is used to perform referential function, directive, expressive, phatic, meta-linguistic as well as solidarity functions.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Discuss code-switching as a linguistic phenomenon.
- ii. Vividly explain the functions of code-switching in ESL situations.

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Unit 12: ESL and PIDGINS AND CREOLE

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Body

 3.1 Definition of Pidgins and Creole

 3.2 Processes of Pidginization and Creolization

 3.3 The Linguistic Characteristics of Pidgins and Creole

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Pidgins and Creole are linguistic choices that have sociolinguistic relevance to the ESL and languages in general. In actual fact, Pidgin and Creole are languages in themselves and because of their wide-spread usage in most part of the world especially where there have been language contact, they create some forms of confusion. For instance in Nigeria, some people erroneously view Nigerian Pidgin (NP) as the ESL. The truth is that NP is language all by itself while ESL is a variant of English. In this unit, attention shall be paid to Pidgin and Creole generally.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, the students should be able to:

- i. provide the definitions of Pidgins and Creole , and
- ii. explain the processes of pidginization and creolization.
- iii. point out the linguistic characteristics of Pidgins and Creole.

3.0 MAIN BODY

Pidgins and Creole languages are perhaps some of the least studied languages in the world. They have received so little attention because some scholar did not consider them as languages (Wardraugh 2004:50, 54-55). However this attitude has changed over time.

3.1 What are Pidgins and Creole?

According to Holm (1988:4-5 quoted in Wardraugh 2004:57) a Pidgin can be defined as ‘a reduced language that results from extended contact between groups of people with no language in common; it evolves when they need some means of verbal communication, perhaps for trade, but no group learns the native language of any other group for social reasons that may include lack of trust or of close contact’.

Pidgins are generally viewed as languages resulting from contact situation as such, it is always a derived language. Pidgins arise from ‘simplification of the grammar and vocabulary of that (target) language, considerable phonological variation, and an admixture of local vocabulary to meet the special needs of the contact group’.

In the real sense of the word, Pidgins are languages without native speakers since they are Interlingua in nature. Some of the most popular examples of Pidgins are Tok Pisin (spoken in Papua New Guinea), Nigerian Pidgin English, Haitian Pidgin English; etc. There are, of course, other Pidgins associated with French, German, as well as Spanish.

Yule (1996:233) refers to Pidgin as a variety of language which developed for some practical purposes, such as trading'. This apparently points to the limited functionality of pidgins.

Definition of Creole

According to Yule (1996:234) a Creole evolves when a Pidgin develops and expands its role as a trade language and becomes the first language of a group of people. This notion is echoed by other scholars. Basically, Creole is associated with the off-springs of a generation of speakers of pidgin languages. For this new set of speakers, the Pidgins have become a mother tongue as such the scope of usage has widened. Holmes (1992:95 quoted in Wardraugh 2004:59) declares 'A Creole is a Pidgin which has expanded in structure and vocabulary to express the range of meanings and serve the range of functions required of a first language.'

Examples of Creole include Jamaican Creole, Haitian Creole, Krio (Sierra-Leone), Tok Pisin, Nigerian Pidgin English etc. Yule (Ibid) notes that Creoles have "large numbers of native speakers and are not restricted at all in their uses".

3.2 Processes of Pidginization and Creolization

Pidginization often takes the following ways:

- Reduction of the word structure of the target language
- Reduction of the grammatical structure of the language
- Marked variation in pronunciation
- Extensive borrowing of lexical items from the mother-tongue or first language, and
- Reduction in usages or functions.

A slightly different process is observable in creolization:

- Expansion of the morphology.
- Expansion of the syntax
- Regularization of the phonology
- Increase in the number of functions
- Development of a rationale and stable system of increasing the vocabulary (see Wardraugh 2004:59).

3.3 Linguistic Characteristics of Pidgins and Creoles

Though it may be argued that Pidgin and Creole are two distinct languages, it is quite glaring that they share some characteristics linguistically.

1. Absence of Inflections

It has been observed that both systems generally feature a complete absence of inflection in nouns, pronouns, verbs and adjectives. Such grammatical elements as plural forms, comparison of adjectives etc. do not reflect in Pidgins and Creoles.

This wan big pass dat wan (Nigeria Pidgin English).

2. Several Syntactic Features include the regulation of all negative forms to 'no', and the use of 'de' for the progress verbal form.

i. Them no know say we come.

ii. Him de come.

3. Another common feature is the use of reduplication in the lexical pattern. The vocabulary pattern of Pidgins and Creoles often undergoes repetition or intensification (see Wardraugh 2004:66).

i. No put sansan for mi gari.

ii. I know am well well.

4. There is also a great reduction in the sounds of Pidgin and Creole.

Self Assessment Exercise

i. Define Pidgins and Creoles.

ii. What are the processes of Pidginization.

iii. Mention some linguistic characteristics of Pidgin and Creole.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has clearly established that Pidgins and Creole are crucial and wide-spread linguistic realities. Though they are grossly misunderstood which probably accounts for the little attention they have received hitherto, they are nonetheless completely different from the language variant that manifests itself as ESL.

5.0 SUMMARY

Pidgins and Creole are languages that are closely related. Pidgins arose from the need for speakers of two different languages to communicate; it is therefore a contact language with no native speaker. On the other hand, a Creole evolves from Pidgins and usually has native speakers. Pidginization and Creolization are not exactly uniform. While Pidginization is often achieved through the reduction of the linguistic features of the target language, Creolization comes through the expansion of the Pidgins that are being creolized. The linguistic features of Pidgins and Creoles include the absence of inflections, the use of replications, great reduction in sounds etc.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. 'Pidgins and Creoles are languages on their own' Discuss.
- ii. Mention the processes of Pidginization and Creolization and briefly explain their linguistic characteristics.

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Unit 13: ESL and PIDGINS AND CREOLE (2)

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Body

3.1 Theories of the Origin of Pidgins and Creole

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The concluding part of the study of Pidgins and Creole focuses on the various claims that have been made by scholars in their attempt to explain the origins of these forms of languages. These theories further deepen the mystery or esoteric nature of Pidgins and Creoles all over the world. Five of such theories are examined in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, the students should be able to:

- i. identify the various theories of the origins of Pidgins and Creole, and
- ii. explain these theories in very clear terms.

3.0 MAIN BODY

3.1 Theories of the Origin of Pidgins and Creoles

Some theories have been advanced on the origin of Pidgins and Creoles. We shall examine them briefly in this section:

1. The ‘foreigner-talk’ or ‘baby-talk’ theory

This theory holds that Pidgins originated from Europeans who deliberately simplify their languages in order to communicate with the locals in the environment they find themselves. One of the basis for this theory is the fact that Pidgins and Creoles all share peculiarly common features all over the world whether they are of French, Portuguese, Spanish, Italian or English origin. Many have however argued that this theory is not plausible since many Europeans hardly use Pidgins among themselves. According to Wardraugh (2004:71) it is a well-known fact that Europeans actually learnt the Pidgins from the non-Europeans with whom they communicate.

2. Polygenesis Theory

This theory holds that Pidgins and Creoles have diverse sources of origins and their similarities can only be accounted for by the fact the same situation resulted in their origin. In other words, contact between English traders and others led to a form of English spoken wherever they found themselves. It is argued further that since the

European languages have the same origin, the similarities in the Pidgins and Creoles emanating from them cannot but be similar. This perhaps accounts for the similarities in the Pidgins and Creoles of the Atlantic Ocean viz-a-viz Indian Ocean and Pacific Ocean.

3. Monogenesis Theory

Quite contrary to the polygenetic theory, the monogenetic line of thought is based on the opinion that all Pidgins and Creoles have one source of origin. It is believed that the slave forts along the coast of West African provided breeding grounds for the different languages of the slave to interact thus leading to some form of Pidgins.

4. Relexification Theory

The proponents of this theory believe that all Pidgins and Creoles originate from Sabir, a language used in the Mediterranean in the Middle Ages. It is believed that the Portuguese relexified the language by introducing their own vocabulary into it and developing it a Portuguese Pidgin used basically for trading. The other European languages are said to have carried out the same process of relexification resulting in their own varieties of Pidgin. However, this theory has been found to be inadequate in explaining the similarities among Pidgins and Creoles worldwide. The theory seems to reduce language learning and development to vocabulary only, besides it de-emphasized many of the features that indicate that Pidgins and Creoles are as distinct languages.

5. Theory of Universal Language Learning or Bioprogramme

This theory holds that the universal principle of learning and or acquiring a first language better explains the similarities among Pidgins and Creoles. According to this theory, Creoles, in particular, are developed by children because they are forced to use Pidgins as their first language in a multilingual society. The innate grammatical structure in the children, that is, their bioprogramme enables them to use creoles or Pidgins in the same way wherever they find themselves, thus accounting for the similarities in these languages. This theory has been criticised for neglecting the process of Creolization which often results from a form of expanded pidgin.

Self Assessment Exercise

- i. List the five theories of the origins of Pidgins and Creoles mentioned in this unit.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Pidgins and Creole remain enigmatic languages some sort because of the fluidity of their origins. Just as they have defied some of comprehensive study for quite sometimes, they are also quite difficult to categorize them among the language families of the world. However, because they are off-shoots of some of the modern day language, scholars have continued to strive to explicate their origins, functions and usage.

5.0 SUMMARY

Five theories of the origins of Pidgins and Creole are examined in this unit. The first to be treated is the theory of ‘foreign talk’ or ‘baby talk’ which holds that Pidgins and Creoles originated from Europeans; the proponents of the polygenesis theory believe that Pidgins and Creoles originated from diverse sources but the situations surrounding their origins are similar. There is also the monogenesis theory that there was only one source of origin for Pidgins and Creoles. The relexification theorists believe that all Pidgins and Creoles originated from Sabir, a language the Portugese relexified to form a pidgin. The last theory examined in the unit is the universal language learning or bioprograme theory which holds that the principle of the universal learning of languages especially among children better explains the origins of Pidgins and Creoles.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. ‘Pidgins and Creoles are languages on their own’ Discuss.
- ii. Mention the processes of Pidginization and Creolization and briefly explain their linguistic characteristics.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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Unit 14: ESL and LANGUAGE PLANNING

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Language Planning and Policy are strategic in bilingual or multi-lingual nations. The reasons for this are not farfetched. Basically, the urge to ensure that certain languages receive attention because of their status in the scheme of things in a particular nation necessitates some form of planning.

OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, the students should be able to:

- i. explain the processes involved in Language Planning and Policy, and
- ii. point out the factors that affect Language Planning and Policy.

2.0 MAIN BODY

3.1 Definition of Language Planning and Policy

Various definitions have been put forth on the concept of Language Planning and Policy. One of the most profound definitions is that put up by Das Gupta and Ferguson (1977:4-6 quoted in Simpson 2012:12):

Those planned activities which attend to the valuation of language resources, the assignment of preferences to one or more languages and their functional ordering, and developing the language resources and their use in a manner consistent with the declared objectivities identified as planned targets... successful language planning, or degrees of it, can be understood in terms of the efficacy of planned policy measures as well as the target populations' propensity to comply with the public pertaining to language planning.

This definition invariably links planning with policy. This is to be expected because one actually implies the other; a policy indicates some planning and planning if it must be effective must be based on some form of policy framework. Weinstein (1980:56 quoted in Wardraugh 2004:347) offered another form of definition:

Language planning is a government authorized, long term, sustained, and conscious effort to alter a language's function in a society for the purpose of solving communication problems'.

Generally, bilingual and multilingual countries/nations find themselves in a situation where they have decided on the roles and or functions of the languages spoken in their territories. This often necessitates a level of planning and policy formulation. In many countries where English is a second language, there have been debates as to what role to assign to other languages. In Nigeria, for example, English language is the official language but there is a language policy which makes mother tongues the medium of instruction in the first few years of basic education.

Two vital areas are crucial in language planning:

i. Status Planning

Status planning involves changing the function of a language and the rights of those who use the language (see Wardraugh 2004:347). This often results from official recognition or roles given to a language over and above those assigned to others. In Nigerian for instance, English enjoys a higher status than other Nigerian languages because it is the language of government, media, education, business, etc. On the contrary, other local languages are used generally for elementary or local related issues.

ii. Corpus Planning

This has to do with the standardization of a language or a language variety. The aim of corpus planning is to ensure that the target language or variety assumes the status of official language thereby boosting its function in that particular society or country. It generally involves such activities as the development of an orthography, vocabulary, dictionaries, and literature.

However, it has been argued that these two areas are inevitable in any efforts geared towards language planning. Certainly any form of corpus planning invariably involves status planning because it simply means that the target language is being deliberately upgraded.

3.2 The Processes of Language Planning

Scholars have proposed different stages of language planning. The stages involved in the process of language planning clearly indicate that it is a time consuming exercise. It takes time to implement the various stages involved.

1. The Process of Selection

This is the first stage in the process of planning and it simply involves choosing the language or variety of language intended for planning. This, of course, means there has to be an official pronouncement to this effect. In Tanzania, Swahili was selected as the national or official language even though the country had had English bequeathed to it by virtue of colonial rule. Thus, the average Tanzanian had to learn Swahili along with English while still accommodating his/her tribal/native language.

2. The Process of Codification

This is where corpus planning is crucial. Having selected a language or a variety, there is the need to ensure that it has the capacity to meet the communicative needs of the society. Thus the process of codification is essentially geared towards producing a standard variety of the language. This process as mentioned earlier involves developing the basic grammar of the language, producing effective dictionaries, and generally upgrading its orthography.

3. The Process of Elaboration

Some scholars refer to this stage as ‘modernization’. The basic concern here is to ensure that the target language meets all manner of uses as other languages in its category. According to Ferguson (1968:32 quoted in Appel and Muysken 2005:53)

‘... modernization of a language may be thought of as a process of its becoming the equal of other developed languages as medium of communication; it is in a sense the process of joining the world community of increasingly intertranslatable languages as appropriate vehicles of modern forms of discourse’

The elaboration process invariably means pushing the frontiers of the target language especially in the area of writing. The goal is to ensure that there is sufficient body of literary work written in the proposed standard. According to Appel and Muysken 2005:53) lexical expansion and the development of new styles and forms of discourse are the major preoccupation at this stage.

4. The Process of Implementation

This is the enforcement stage where governments endeavour to carry through the use of the language in its institutions as well as in the general society. It sometimes involves such efforts as publication of textbooks for schools, training for teachers, passing of laws on the language, and generally funding the entire process.

5. The Process of Evaluation

This is also referred to as the stage of ‘acceptance’ (see Yule 1996:233). It is the point where the outcome of the entire is considered as to whether it has been successful or an utter failure. The level of acceptance by the public can be accessed through its usage by the majority of the population. It has been reported that the Swahili experiment in Tanzania achieved a remarkable success. Many Tanzanians now see the language as a national symbol and national pride.

3.3 Factors Affecting Language Planning

Language planning is a very sensitive issue because it affects many facets of social life. This is even more so because of the emotional attachment people generally have towards languages. It is a mark of national or ethnic identity. Some of the factors influencing language planning as identified by Appal and Maysken (2005:56-58).

1. Social-Demographic Factors

Social-demographic factors are crucial at the first stage of language planning. They include information on the number of languages spoken in the area; the number of speakers and the geo-graphical distribution of the speakers. At the selection process, these data really matters. Whichever language is chosen must be one that has a wide coverage is not the selection process may face some jeopardy.

2. Linguistic Factors

Language planning is often influenced by the languages spoken in the country. It is believed that countries with few languages may have little problem with language planning. Besides this the successful adoption of a language may depend on the affinity such a language has with the local language.

3. Social-Psychological Factors

This factor relates to the attitudes that people have either towards their own language or other languages. The general trend is that people associate languages with ethnic nationalities thereby breeding very nationalistic feelings in them. For instance, in Nigeria, Hausa is associated with the Hausa people, Igbo language with the Igbo people and Yoruba language with the Yoruba nationalities, thus the issues of domination of one group over another becomes very crucial when considering which local/national language is adopted in a country.

4. Religious Factors

Religious factors influence language planning in the sense that languages are sometimes used to promote certain religious. For instance, Arabic is closely associated with Islam, therefore adopting it in a multi-religious and multi-ethnic society may create some disaffection and a detachment towards such a policy.

5. Political Factors

Political tendencies or exigencies sometimes influence language planning especially as it relates to national identity. Generally, in bilingual societies, government often attempts to promote local languages ostensibly to ensure that such languages remain relevant. In Nigeria, for instance, the National Policy on Language stipulates that local languages should be used at least in the first three years of primary education. This policy was later strengthened with the campaign on the use of mother-tongue in education.

Political expediency in language planning was also visible in the activities of the colonial powers that used different policies in line with intended goals. For instance, the French government committed itself to a policy of assimilation which laid emphasis on the use of French in her colonies over and above local languages. On the contrary, the British pursued a dual policy whereby local languages were promoted in places where they used direct rule and English was consciously promoted where her indirect policy was implemented.

Self Assessment Exercise

- i. State the differences between Status Planning and Corpus planning.
- ii. List the processes of Language Planning and Policy.
- iii. Mention the factors affecting Language Planning and Policy.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has clearly shown that language planning and policy is indeed a crucial element in ESL environment. Though seemingly contrived, planning ensures that the nations involved in such acts are able to maintain some form of linguistic harmony. It should be noted, however, that planning has its own drawback especially because it is sometimes linked with political issues.

5.0 SUMMARY

Language planning and policy is defined as all the activities or efforts geared towards enhancing communication in a bilingual or multilingual society. The two major areas of planning are status planning and corpus planning. While status planning involves changing the status of a language; corpus planning has to do with changing the variety of a language. The processes of language planning and policy involved selection, codification, elaboration, implementation and evaluation. The factors that affect planning include social-demographic, linguistics, social-psychological, religious and political.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Explain with clear illustrations or examples the act and processes of language planning and policy.
- ii. What factors influence language planning and policy.

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Unit 15: Acquisition of English as a Second Language

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The acquisition of English as a Second Language (ESL) generally follows the usual pattern observed in second language acquisition (SLA). Thus, in examining this topic, we shall be dealing with factors that are basically related to SLA. According to Ortega (2012:181), SLA ‘seeks to explain human language development by older children, adolescents and adults across a wide variety of naturalistic, instructed, and mixed contexts’. This agenda equally applies to the general tendencies in any study on the acquisition of ESL since in this context a specific language, English, is the object of attention. The only difference is that in most ESL environment, a new generation of learners who grew up speaking no other language but English is fast developing.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, the students should be able to:

- i. explain the concept of interlanguage,

- i. describe the approaches to the acquisition of ESL, and
- ii. point out the essence of communicative competence in second language learning.

3.0 MAIN BODY

3.1 Interlanguage and the Acquisition of ESL

The first major attempts at conceptualizing the acquisition of second language resulted in what is now known as Interlanguage. Based on the work of Corder (1967) and Selinker (1972), the concept of interlanguage refers to the set of linguistic strategies which learners develop in the process of acquiring a second language. It is a system that operates in-between the learner's first language and the target language, in this case English. Such forms are neither correct in English nor in the first language yet they serve as attempts by the learner to get close to the second language. According to Yule (1996:1996) 'the language produced by learners contains a large number of 'errors' which seems to have no connection to the forms of either L₁ or L₂'. Scholars have equally observed that interlanguage often results from three major sources:

- i. interference from the mother-tongue or first language (L₁);
- ii. over-simplification of the rules of the target language; and
- iii. over generalization.

These factors sometimes makes the learner to produce such utterances as :

- ❖ The mens comes.
- ❖ He go house every day.
- ❖ The boy know the place.
- ❖ We come Lagos yesterday.
- ❖ They school is far.

Yule (1996) along with many other scholars agrees that some learners do not go beyond the interlanguage in their attempt to acquire a second language. At this stage such learners experience what is termed as 'fossilization'. This notion has led the development of the theory of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

3.2 Formal and Informal Approaches to the Acquisition of ESL

Acquiring a second language especially in ESL environment has been observed to follow two distinct forms: formal learning and informal or interactional approach.

1. The Formal Approach

This approach lays emphasis on the acquisition of ESL through formal education. The educational system therefore plays a focal role in this approach. In line with this, there is

the tendency to expose the child to English as early as possible. The various stages of the educational system and the expected learning outcomes are illustrated below:

i. Creche – (6 months to 1 and a half years): Watching educative cartoons and playing with toys. Basically, children learn to sing songs on the letters of the alphabet.

ii. Kindergarten – (2 to 3 years): the children are expected to be able to identify and write letters A – H. However, they are generally expected to recite the English alphabet that is A – Z.

iii. Nursery – (3 to 4 year old): Read and write small and capital letters and relate to them to given objects, e.g. A for Apple; B for Ball, etc.

iv. Primary School – (5 to 10 years): The pupils graduate with the First School Leaving Certificate. They are expected to have mastered the art of reading (comprehension), writing (composition), listening and speaking. Many private schools also expose the pupils to some form of training in what they term ‘Diction’.

v. Junior Secondary School (Upper Basic School 7 -9): The students usually come into this stage at ages 9 to 11. Most students at this level are expected to communicate with little or no inhibitions. The examination at this point e.g. the Junior Secondary Certificate Examination (JSCE) conducted by the National Examination Council (NECO) aid the assessment of students.

vi. Senior Secondary School (13/14 to 15/16 years): The level of competence at this level is expected to be a little more advanced. This is primarily due to the fact that students are exposed to higher levels of usage of English. Besides, unlike the limited level of lessons in Literature –in – English at the junior secondary school level, those in the Arts now study more sophisticated literary texts which further deepen their knowledge of the language. The various examinations undertaken at this stage also make the assessment of competence much easier. The major exams include the Senior Secondary Certificate Examination (SSCE); the University Matriculation Examination (UTME); the International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE) etc.

vii. Tertiary education – college of education, polytechnics and universities: The students at this level are expected to have acquired adequate knowledge of English to enable them function effectively anywhere in the English speaking world. These are the set of people who end up writing English language assessment tests such as International English Language Testing System (IELTS) and Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL).

2. The Informal Approach

Unlike the formal approach which is characteristically designed for children, the informal approach usually involves adults who are compelled to learn a foreign language for various reasons. Some learn the second language for the purpose of work, immigration, relocation etc. According to Omoniyi (2004: 106), ‘the learning environment in the Informal Approach could be the playground, market place, church or sometimes through

the radio or television which are very effective audio-visual aids in second learning situations’.

3.3 Communicative Competence in Second Language Learning

From the points considered in the preceding sections, it is quite clear that there are varying levels of users of ESL. First, there is the fact that not everyone gets to the peak of their educational attainment so invariably one’s level of education sometimes determines one’s level of competence. Moreover, it is often difficult to assess the competence of those who learn the language informally. Communicative competence can be defined as ‘the ability to use the L 2 accurately, appropriately, and flexibly’. Hymes (1972) conceives communicative competence as not just a mastery of grammatical or structural rules but also the ability to apply extra-linguistics elements in the use of the language. Yule (1996:197) identifies the different levels of competence often displayed by second language learners.

i. Grammatical competence

This is also known to as Linguistic competence. It generally refers to the use of grammar or the linguistic structure of the target language. Many learners encounter difficulty as they constantly attempt to relate the grammar of L1 with that of L2 thereby resulting in what was discussed earlier in the section on Interlanguage. However, grammatical competence alone does not make for effective communication. Yule (1996:197) notes that it does not ‘provide the learner with the ability to interpret or produce language appropriately.’ As it was proven in the arguments against Noam Chomsky’s Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG), a sentence may be grammatically appropriate but altogether meaningless and therefore communicate nothing. In the ESL context, undue emphasis on grammatical competence has been linked to the form ‘bookish’ English reportedly spoken by some set of ESL users.

ii. Sociolinguistic Competence

The learner who has attained this level of competence is not only able to use grammar appropriately but also pays attention the socio-cultural nuances of the language. Thus, rather than churning out a string of grammatical sentences without any relevance to the situation on hand, a learner with this competence communicates effectively.

iii. Strategic Competence

This is the ability to communicate messages and or ideas appropriately while deploying some strategic cues to overcome any difficulties that may arise in the course of interactions. This can come in the form of compensating for L1 words whose equivalent in L2 are either unknown to the speaker or non-existent in the language. Those who exhibit this strategy rely on the flexibility that the usage of the L2 permits.

Self Assessment Exercise

- i. State some cause and manifestation of interlanguage.
- ii. What are the two approaches for the acquisition of ESL?
- iii. Mention the various types of competence.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The acquisition of ESL, it has been shown, has much to do with the educational system. The effectiveness of the educational system determines the success of the learners to considerable extent. However, though often lacking the assessment features prevalent in formal mode, the informal approach to acquiring ESL is largely unaccounted for. Overall, it important to note that what is central any learning or acquisition process is the ability of the learner to communicate effectively.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, the various issues surrounding the acquisition and learning of a second language and ESL in particular have been discussed. The concept of interlanguage holds that learners transfer components of L1 to L2 thus resulting in errors in the target language. Two approaches to ESL learning were also considered: the formal approach lays strong emphasis on the role of the educational system while the informal approach emphasizes interaction. Of course, learning a language invariably brings up the issue of competence and it is stated here that communicative competence should be the goal of any acquisition or learning strategies.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Explain the concept of Interlanguage.
- ii. State the differences between the formal and informal approaches to the learning or acquisition of ESL.
- iii. What do you understand by communicative competence?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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