

Diploma in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

MODULE ONE Language Theory

SECTION A

Objectives By the end of this Section you should:

- 1 be aware of the nature of language
- 2 have knowledge of the different varieties of language

Contents

- 1.1 English as a Global Language. EFL, ESL, ESOL, ELF. The numbers of English speakers. Why and where people learn English.
- 1.2 What is language? Sounds, symbols, a complex system, speech and writing.
- 1.3 What is language for? Communication, control, socialisation, thought, feelings.
- 1.4 Language varieties. Historical, geographical and social dialect.
- 1.5 Register: age, gender, status, role; topic, medium, style. Appropriateness and error. Communicative competence, teaching model.

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SECTION A

1.1 ENGLISH ESSENTIALS

1.1.1 Some Terms

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) speakers use English occasionally for study, workplace, personal or social purposes. Learners in countries such as Japan, Russia and Vietnam would be in EFL environments.

English as a Second Language (ESL) speakers use English to function on a daily basis. ESL is adopted by people who keep their own mother tongue ('L1'), but use English for living and working in English speaking cultures such as the UK, USA, Australia and many other countries particularly in large cities where English is in use for everyday use, retail and business.

Native speakers of English acquire and use English as a mother tongue, from birth. Native speakers (NS) may be nationals of countries such as the UK, America, Australia and may also be from other countries where their family uses English, they have used it from birth for example Singapore, India.

English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) is used when English is the operating language between people from countries where English is not the primary L1 language in either. Many communications around the world use English as an intermediary language where the communicators do not have each other's language. The Franks in Europe of 600-700AD had a language which was easily used as an intermediary between people of other parts of Europe. The Frankish language had a commonality with speakers of other early European languages allowing them to use it with some ease to communicate when they did not speak each other's language. The term 'Lingua Franca' comes from this. English as a Lingua Franca is sometimes referred to as 'Globish' and its simplifications are a strong feature.

Note: L1 and L2

The mother tongue is designated L1 and a target language, for example English that our students are learning is designated L2.

Some simplifications in ELF:

- a. The verb *have* replaces the verb *to be* in many situations. The coverage of meaning in the foreign language is wider than in English. *Have many cars in my country.* Native speaker English will change the verb *to have* into *to be*, *There are many cars in my country.* [Grammar Note: 'There' is a pronoun acting as a subject for the verb *are*.]
- b. Uncountable nouns become countable, so we have *informations, machineries*.
- c. *Discuss about* is an example of a verb with an unnecessary preposition *about* added. *Discuss* already means talk about, so an extra preposition *about* after the verb *Discuss* is not needed.

1.1.2 Numbers of Users

English is established as the dominant global language though Chinese Mandarin may challenge this position in the longer term. There are, throughout the world, about:

- 750 million EFL speakers
- 400 million ESL speakers.
- 375 million native speakers of English. The main native speaker countries are the US, the UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand.

David Graddol in *English Next* (British Council, 2006) suggests the number of people learning English worldwide will peak at about 2 billion by about 2020. This is probably a saturation level. It includes government school attendees.

<https://englishagenda.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/attachments/books-english-next.pdf>

1.1.3 What do we teach?

We may be *Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)*, that is the learners are in an EFL environment outside the classroom. We may be *Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL)* if the learners are using English comfortably as a second language in an ESL environment. In many classrooms, there could be both types of learner. In many countries, there may be both types of learner in different locations in the country, ESL in a capital city and EFL in an outlying area. The distinction between EFL and ESL becomes blurred in many teaching situations. Therefore, *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)* is a term that has been introduced to cover both TEFL and TESL.

Traditionally, private providers of courses in the UK have offered certificates in TEFL, despite the fact that their trainees may well be teaching immigrant community groups in the UK where the environment is ESL. The UK universities have opted for TESOL, using Masters in TESOL as a course title – first degrees in TEFL/TESL/TESOL are not usual.

1.2 INTRINSIC LEARNER MOTIVATIONS

The learner's needs in learning English represent the *intrinsic motivation* of the learner, the motivation bringing the learner to your course. Main intrinsic motivation sources are:

Intrinsic Learner Needs/Motivations
<p>1. Education</p> <p>i) Specific test score requirements. The International English Language Testing System (IELTS) and the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) are taken by candidates from non-English speaking countries requiring English test scores for entry to degree-level programmes, delivered in the English medium, by universities of native speaker countries, perhaps delivered 'offshore'. IELTS is rapidly growing in popularity. For an introduction to IELTS, refer to: http://ielts.org http://www.ieltsessentials.com/home.aspx http://www.idp.com/global/ielts</p> <p>ii) The student may be entering an education institution either in the same country or in another country, where the medium of instruction is English.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - English may be taken as a course to be completed before progression to a Diploma and perhaps an offshore degree programme. http://www.kbs.edu.au/international-students/international-entry-requirements/ - A <i>School Entrance Test</i> or <i>Polytechnic Entrance Test</i> may be required of foreign students. These will contain English testing. Notice the unwillingness to release past papers in: http://www.np.edu.sg/admissions/faq/Pages/faq_international.aspx

- A *University Foundation Programme* (UFP) will probably include English for Academic Purposes (EAP)/English for Academic Study (EAS). It may include IELTS/TOEFL preparation modules. For more:

<http://www.bellerbys.com/courses/foundation>

<http://www.bristol.ac.uk/english-language/study/ifp/progression.html>

<http://www.ed.ac.uk/schools-departments/humanities-soc-sci/undergraduate-admissions/international-eu/foundation-prog/about-the-programme/progression>

- iii) Within a school, there may be students who range from EFL, through ESL to native speaker. Support work in English language will be vital to integrate the first two groups into the mainstream curriculum.
- iv) The student may be in his own country, either in an EFL, ESL or English speaking environment, where English is a compulsory part of the government school curriculum as an academic subject.
- v) After-hours tuition is popular in some countries and this will support the English in the government schools' curriculum. The audience for tuition is actually the parent(s), wanting their child to be intensively prepared for the waypoints of the local, i.e. national education system. Paramount is familiarity of tutors with the local education system and its syllabi [Note: *syllabuses* is also an acceptable plural of this noun]. It is a disadvantage not to have this familiarity. Exceptions come in for highly niche areas such as English Literature, Physics, where an international expertise can counteract a non-local experience of syllabus. The local system and any variations from standard English in the country are widely acceptable as long as familiarity with the local Ministry requirements is there.
<http://www.hometuitionagency.com.sg/>
<http://www.hometutormalaysia.com/>
- vi) Pre-schools are important in an increasing number of countries where there are families in which both parents have to work. English learning may be worked into early learner activities. There may be significant preparation for the language requirements of the first year of the government school system.
<http://www.etonhouse.my/>
<http://www.lornawhiston.com.hk/>
- vii) Holiday English, summer camps and enrichment are popular in some countries. These may concentrate on needs of revision of English, and perhaps other subjects, hopefully with a mind to the fact that it is a holiday break!
http://www.hws.edu/offices/conferences/esl_vietnamese.aspx
<http://www.teachenglishinasia.net/teach-english-korea/english-camps-13237.html>

2. Immigration

- i) Those wishing to work, study or settle in an English-speaking country may have to take an English test to establish residency. Accepted qualifications vary by country. UK immigration requirements specify results in the IELTS test or in examinations offered by Trinity College <http://www.trinitycollege.com/site/?id=3220> .
- ii) Immigrants and temporary workers may take English to help in their stay in an English-speaking country. Such communities are not able to afford courses with high fees, so a government may step in with schemes or enlightened employers may help their workers, perhaps domestic helpers, with fees. Unfortunately, things can go wrong for

these most vulnerable members of the globalised economy,
<http://twc2.org.sg/2011/12/06/settling-in-programme-to-replace-english-language-test-in-mid-2012-for-foreign-domestic-workers/>.

3. Career

English for Specific (Special) Purposes (ESP), including:

- i) English for Business – students may take these business English courses to help in preparation for further study, perhaps culminating in an offshore business degree. They will have taken general English (ESOL) usually at least to ‘intermediate’ level.
<https://www.englishclub.com/business-english/>
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Business_English
- ii) Coaching of business managers and other professionals. These may be highly tailor-made programmes and expect to be asked for a training needs analysis and a plan for the training. An initial test and a final test, plus a report, may also be requested by a company paying for the training. These may be on a 1:1 basis or for groups of trainees, see <http://www.eontraining.com.sg/cos/o.x?c=/wbn/pagetree&func=view&rid=1148672>
- iii) To demonstrate ability in workplace English language communication skills there are programmes such as the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), popular in East Asia <http://www.toeic.or.jp/english.html>.
- iv) English for retail employees.
<http://www.newham.ac.uk/courses/english-languages-and-communication/esol-introduction-to-the-language-of-retail-entry-level-2/>
- v) Tourism
Graddol (2006) states that for world tourism in the year 2004, there were about 763 million international tourist arrivals. 74% of these were between non-English speaking countries, where English as a lingua franca may well be adopted; 22% were from an English-speaking country to a non-English speaking country, or vice versa. *Complete: 4% were between* _____.

There is a requirement for English for employees in tourism, hotels, restaurants, tour operations, etc.

<http://www.cthwards.com/qualifications/management-programmes/level-1-diploma-english-communication-tourism-hospitality-qcf/>
<http://hotel-tefl.com/>

4. Personal

- i) Travellers improving their English prior to travel (see 3.v)
- ii) Social purposes, social networking.
- iii) Following an interest – hobbies, drama, movies, novels, etc.
- iv) Lifelong learning including education courses in the area of English, offered by, for example many universities in the US – search in their websites under *continuing education*.

1.3 WHAT IS LANGUAGE?

Human languages were developed to create words to stand in for reality. An apple is only called an apple in English language because of historical choices made as the language grew. Language enables reaction, with words available to make linguistic response on hearing the word apple. Does an apple look like 'apple', obviously and visually linked to the word 'apple'? No. Most of our words are symbolic, standing in for reality but not obviously describing real things.

The exception is the onomatopoeia. Onomatopoeic words have their meaning, reality reflected in the sound of the word. Examples in English are:

- Bang
- Splash
- Cuckoo
- Whisper
- Buzz
- Hum

Mini Task 1 THE ONOMATOPOEIA

List another three words in English which are onomatopoeic.

If they were onomatopoeic, *mata* and *mati* in Bahasa Melayu (Malay) would mean almost the same thing, only one letter and the final syllable in speech have changed. They do not, the first means eye and the other means 'not living'; shot and short would mean almost the same thing in English but do not. And what about *discussed it* and *disgusted*?

The connection between sound and symbol is quite arbitrary. Avoid the misapprehension that words have intrinsic, onomatopoeic meaning, that students will understand if you hold a ruler up in the classroom, point to it and say "Look...can't you see?....., **ruler!**" loudly enough.

Language, being **symbolic**, is flexible and can often represent meaning beyond the immediate reality. Returning to our word 'ruler' and its associated word 'rule', meanings can go off in different meanings such as to rule a line, to rule a kingdom, to set rules in a school, to rule on something....., all requiring different situations, '**contexts**'.

Language learners have to learn to relate a word to its meaning or meanings. So we like to use context to teach language. The only other way is to tell the student the meaning - by the technical process of translation, or if they are advanced enough, by explanation in English. Since translation by itself is not productive, it needs to be backed up by going into perhaps many contexts. To do this we need to use a word in many meaning contexts and the many ways needed of using the word mean we need rules for the word and its relationship to other words. The first we call **grammar** and the second, how we build sentences from words, is called **syntax**.

Grammar and rules of syntax are complex and sometimes ambiguous in natural languages. A complete and unambiguous grammar of the English language is too complex to be written. Constructed languages have been developed to have simple grammars. The hope was that English, with its, complexity, could be replaced as a Lingua Franca by something easier to use. Esperanto was invented in 1887 and is the most successful of the constructed languages. However, it remains a hobby. Is there an Esperanto Society in your home town? Because of the many meaning possible for a word, it has to be explored in many situations, i.e. contexts and sentences using the word have to build in many directions of meaning.

Language is a **complex** system and it has to be **productive**. By **productive** we mean that a certain number of rules need to be able to produce an infinite number of sentences, for example when exploring a word and its many meanings.

Every native speaker of a language can make completely original and correct sentences because they 'know' the rules. They may not be able to explain the rules - give a grammatical explanation - but they have intuitively learned or internalised them from birth. A main aim as language teachers is to help our learners acquire this power of productivity, of generating original speech; rather than memorising phrases and sentences to produce them parrot-fashion. Your student must learn the language system, the grammar and syntax. This may be done in a very direct way, teaching the rules or may be more indirect, as we shall see under Approaches in Methodologies in Section B of this Module.

The Productive Language Skills of Speech versus Writing

Language is primarily **speech**. People brought up in a literary culture often attach more importance to writing than to speech. Some even regard speech as a debased form of the language. But speech is many thousands of years older than writing; and speech comes first in the growth of the child. Except those with severe physical challenges, or those brought up with little human contact (confined children; feral children) all children learn to speak amazingly quickly and without formal teaching. Generally they only learn to write if taught at some length. Speech is a natural activity, writing is not.

Many of us have been so used to reading aloud in our schooldays we forget that speech is not primarily an interpretation of written symbols. Writing is an attempt to record speech. Traditional language teaching emphasises the need for written deliverables, evidencing of progress so the written essay predominates. Modern language teaching reflects the importance of speech. We nowadays prefer to teach from **speech to writing** and not from writing to speech.

Paralanguage

Humans and animals also use sound and movement to communicate. Gestures, sometimes called **paralanguage**, may have meaning intrinsic to all humans, a glare for example communicating anger. Alternatively, gestures may be symbolic and vary from one community to another in their meaning. Some gestures are considered rude in one society but not in another, for example:

- a) Hands in pockets – in Asia this is considered over-casual, in the UK and the US it indicates that you are relaxed and confident
- b) Pointing with a finger at each other – in Asia this is considered very rude and hostile, much less so in the UK and the US. Don't point at your students in an Asian classroom. Instead, keep your fingers together and with palm uppermost, indicate.
- c) The handling of name cards – in Asia, the card is presented with both hands. On receiving a name card, it is taken with both hands and laid on the desk/table in front of you until the end of the meeting; several cards received would be laid top to bottom in descending seniority order.

Mini Task 2 PARALANGUAGE

1. What differences, if any, are there in your country to the handling of name cards as described above?
2. Folding arms, sitting on a desk, sitting in the chair and putting feet up on the desk – briefly write about possible interpretations of these in different societies.

1.3 WHAT IS LANGUAGE FOR?

Language has a number of uses.

1. It is for **communication** - conveying information and ideas from one person to another. This is probably the most important function for a language learner.
2. Language may be used to **control** situations, events or relationships by being able to make choices in the language used, to be able to command, persuade, ask, apologise, explain, request in the way wanted. There are many ways to request something. Some are abrupt, some are firm, some are polite and some are casual, friendly.
3. Language can be used to little purpose in meaning, more to fill empty space. In English we have *Come again* (at the counter of a fast food restaurant), *Have a nice day*, *Lovely weather*, *Very hot (weather)*. This is **phatic communication**. It expresses sociability and indicates, for instance, that the speaker is not hostile, so we can think of it as a kind of controlling function. It is obviously useful if a learner is to use English socially.
4. Language is for **thought**. Our learners of English of have their own language, L1, for thinking in. It is desirable for them to arrive eventually at thinking in English, L2, while using the language. Being able to think in L2 reduces translation errors and L1 interference errors arising from the rules of their own language interfering with the target L2 language.
5. Language is for expressing **emotions** and internal states of mind. Your learners may prefer their first language for this, but they may be curious on how to express their emotions in English. This can lead to some interesting language!

Capabilities

Humans and animals derive capabilities from language. Humans operate at a high level than animals in the following and we can be fairly sure that animals do not operate at all in (7)!

1. Use of symbolic language (not just onomatopoeic).
2. We pass meaning via language from one language user to the next, consciously or unconsciously.
3. We can communicate concepts, ideas about things that are not physically experienced.
4. We can work with both literal and non-literal meaning. E.g. *'Let's hang around a little longer.'*
5. We have grammar toolkits for language using composed and discrete units of language that can be combined to give meaning.
6. We have rules of syntax to allow us to build a limited number of grammar units into an infinite number of utterances. In theory, we never need to say the same thing twice!
7. We are able to discuss language itself.

1.4 LANGUAGE VARIETIES

1.4.1 Dialect

Dialect in a language arises from differences in:

- Vocabulary
- Grammar
- Idiom – the non-literal use of language
- Pronunciation (i.e. 'accent')

There are historical, geographical and social variations in a language and in its dialects.

1.4.2 Historical Variation of English

Language varies **historically**. Most English speakers can recognise 'old fashioned' use of English. It changes quite rapidly in our lifetime. Vocabulary especially, comes into use and goes out of fashion quite quickly.

The frequency of use of the following has dropped markedly in recent years:

- *palmtop*
- *VCR*
- *chum* (as in *friend*)
- *super!* (the expletive)
- *jeeppers!* (the expletive)
- *crumbs!* (the expletive)
- *audiocassette*

The following have been introduced, are used more frequently or have had a meaning change in recent years:

- *kids* (for *children*)
- *to Google*
- *to tweet*
- *to headquarter* (a company)
- *hipster*
- *tablet* (IT equipment)
- *app*

Mini Task 3 CHANGING LANGUAGE

Add five more words or phrases to the above list of those introduced, are used more frequently or have had a meaning change in recent years:

Pronunciation changes with time. Spoken English in the UK has become increasingly casual in the mainstream media in recent years with local dialect pronunciations increasingly appearing.

Sentence lengths change and tend to become shorter. Think of the change from Charles Dickens' writing to the present day.

THE STORY OF ENGLISH

Knowing something of how English grew to the language we now know makes us more informed teachers.

When the Romans first arrived in Britain (around 44 AD) the main language spoken was a Celtic variant, a member of the same family as modern Welsh. There were several other languages, but the Celtic group was the most common. 'Celtic' includes Scottish Gaelic, still a living language with its own TV channel in Scotland. Listen to the weather forecast for Scotland given in Gaelic: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Lktt_DlpsJA .

The Romans used the Latin language. You may recognise some Latin roots of words we now have in English, in the following recordings: <https://youtu.be/wH3JDRwxTqA> and <https://youtu.be/x6DEQaBjLAU>

The Romans stayed in 'Britannia', as they called it, until about 410 AD. In most other places conquered by Rome, Latin had taken over as the local language (this happened in France and Romania), but in Britain very early Welsh/Celtic seems to have competed though it borrowed lots of words from Latin.

From about 400 AD, Germanic tribes from what we now call Denmark and northern Germany started arriving. Rome had retreated and collapsed as an Empire. Some of the Germanic people were economic migrants, some were warriors. Sometimes they conquered the local tribes in Britain but more often they seem to have settled alongside them and intermarried.

The Old English Period

Slowly, the main language in what we now call Britain became a Germanic family language with lots of words borrowed both from Celtic and Latin. The main tribes who brought the new language were the Angles (in the north) and the Saxons (in the south), so the new language mixture was called Anglo-Saxon. Other Germanic groups who arrived were Jutes, Frisians and Billings. The north-east England place name *Billingham* means *ham* (home from the Germanic) of the *Billings*.

By 600 AD the language consolidated into what is sometimes called Old English.

In 793 AD the first Viking raids started. The Vikings were from Scandinavia. They did not always, as is often believed, violently raid the east of England. Some sailed round the north of Scotland and settled peacefully in what we now call the Lake District and in west Scotland, as farmers.

In some parts of England, Vikings set up towns. Vikings hardly ever conquered an entire area, they just conquered a small region, built a city, and then traded with the natives. York, in northern England, was a Viking town for over a century, known then as 'Jorvik'. Because there were Viking cities, lots of Norse got mixed in with the Anglo Saxon (which was already a mixture of Angle, Saxon, Latin, Celtic). There is a discovery in modern York of the remains of the Viking settlement under a shopping centre in the city centre, <http://jorvik-viking-centre.co.uk/>.

Old English now seems to us almost a foreign language. It derived from Anglo-Saxon Germanic, Latin, Norse, and Celtic. It was already distinct from the continental European languages. In modern English, there is a heavy Anglo-Saxon influence; many short words, including well-known rude words, are known to be of Anglo-Saxon origin!

Beowulf is an Old English epic poem in the oral tradition, later written down at an unknown date between 975-1025AD in an early pre-English script by an anonymous Anglo-Saxon writer: [https://youtu.be/ K13GJkGvDw](https://youtu.be/K13GJkGvDw)

Between 1040 and 1060 the English Royal family, now Christian, was unsure of succession. The Vikings had invaded what is now Normandy in north west France, intermarrying and creating 'Normans', in fact a Viking-French population. Duke William, whom we now call William the Conqueror, invaded England in 1066, an invasion made out of anger with Harold Godwinson the King of England. Harold had, in fact, had grabbed the throne when the last King, the weak Edward the Confessor died. The succession was unclear and Harold was not the prime candidate for the crown. He had even promised to help William to become the next king of England, but then went against his promise when Edward died. Harold was killed in the successful Norman invasion during the 1066 Battle of Hastings in south east England. Anglo-Saxon England was at an end.

The Middle English Period

From 1066, over about the next three hundred years all the top people spoke Norman French even though they were born and lived in Britain. This was the era of the story of Robin Hood, an Anglo-Saxon earl dispossessed by the Normans (Robin Hood – true or just a story?).

The ordinary people spoke variants of Old English so between them and their new rulers, nobody really knew what the others were talking about! One great service the ordinary people then did was to simplify their English. For example, nouns were no longer given gender, a carryover from Latin, and a feature that remains in languages such as French and Italian.

Then the Norman rulers of England eventually lost interest in Normandy and Norman French. Sometime between 1300 and 1400 people higher in society realised that it made more sense if they changed to speaking English. Importantly, the language of the court, of administration and of the law changed to English.

Many Norman French origin words had now entered use in Britain.

One of the odd things about English at this stage is that if it is an animal in the field it is a *cow*, a *pig*, or a *sheep* - all Anglo-Saxon influenced words, because the farm workers who looked after them were Anglo Saxons - but if it is meat on your plate it is Beef, Pork, or Mutton - all from Norman French because the Norman upper classes did much of the fine dining of the time!

Geoffrey Chaucer wrote *The Canterbury Tales* in about 1380. It is written in late Middle English but is substantially recognisable to a user of modern English. It is quite different to the Old English of *Beowulf*. We have *The Canterbury Tales* written in what we think is a fairly unedited, unaltered form, so it is a valuable source of knowledge of late Middle English. We know that pronunciation did not have long vowel sounds. There were no 'silent e' words where, in modern English, a word spelt *haste* would be one syllable as in 'HAYST', instead this word would be rendered 'HA-STE' in Middle English. Reflecting this, our modern English word *end* was then spelt *ende*, to indicate production of a final syllable in speech. Listen to the general prologue of *The Canterbury Tales*:

<https://alanbaragona.wordpress.com/the-cryng-and-the-soun/the-canterbury-tales-general-prologue-ii-1-18-tom-hanks/>

The Modern English Period

By about 1400 AD, the blending of Celtic remnants, Latin, Anglo-Saxon, Viking Norse and Norman French was complete. This is where the term Modern English begins to be useful.

Soon after Chaucer, the vowel sounds of English began to change. They became longer, with diphthongs in speech. So, to repeat the above example, *haste*, began to be pronounced 'HAYST', one syllable with a vowel diphthong. A diphthong is a vowel sound that starts with one vowel and finishes with another. The diphthong in *haste* starts as the sound /e/ and ends with the sound /i/. We study phonetics, how sounds are made, and phonetic symbols in Module 4.

William Shakespeare worked in the late 1500s to create many new word combinations, adding great depth to the language. Pronunciation in this 'Early Modern English' era is discussed by David Crystal, a noted writer on English and its history and present-day regional variants, in <https://youtu.be/gPlpphT7n9s>.

The age of the British Empire began in the 1600s, continuing with acquiring colonies well into the late 1800s. India was an early acquisition. The Americas became colonies which were lost in the War of Independence; however, Canada and Caribbean colonies remained under the dominion of Britain. Empire took in many parts of the Middle East and Africa. Australia and New Zealand were strong reincarnations of the mother country. Although Empire is now dismantled, its effect is with us, leaving English as an international language spoken in many parts of the world as ESL and EFL, also as a Lingua Franca. We should be aware as teachers that this historical association with conquest is uncomfortable and scholars in TESOL/TEFL do concern themselves with the question of whether teaching English in non-native speaker countries could be considered 'neo-colonial' in nature.

Travel had become safer by the 1700s. Richer families in England took to the fashion of sending their growing children (young adults) to southern Europe on a 'Grand Tour'. These were social

trips, much enjoyment interspersed with viewing ancient Greek and Roman architectural remains and natural wonders such as the Swiss Alps. Appreciation of architecture changed. New words which were remnants of Greek and Latin such as *colonnade*, *atrium*, *Doric*, *Ionic*, *hyper-*, *super-* were introduced into English.

By the 1800s, American English and British English were separating on some vocabulary, word spellings and some pronunciation features. As we have already heard in the video recording <https://youtu.be/gPlpphT7n9s>, the English of Shakespeare pronounced the letter *r* and this was later lost in British English though it continues in American English. Following a vowel sound, American English will, to an extent depending on the location in the US, articulate the 'r' sound, e.g. in *color*, *herb*, *heart*, *hard*. Meaning can be different in vocabulary; words such as *boot* and *trunk* (UK and US respectively) in cars differ, *tap* and *faucet*, *lift* and *elevator*, *pavement* and *sidewalk*, etc. Spellings have diverged, e.g. *colour* and *color*, *recognise* and *recognize*, etc.

The 1800s were an age of great change. The 'Scientific Revolution' introduced open questioning in nature and science. In northern Europe this was adopted more than in southern Europe, essentially from religious differences, and it allowed a freedom to invent, question, create and initiate. From all this came the Industrial Revolution in Britain, followed later in other countries catching up. New scientific concepts and new industries required new words. The new industry institutes, many in London, played a part in creating new words and went to classical Greek and Roman to bring in language items such as *micro-*, *kilo-*, *nano-*, *hyper-*, *mega-*, *mechanic*, *optic*, *electron*, *hydraulic*, *technical*...

English pronunciation in Britain was diverse, with regional dialect differences. A new pronunciation pattern grew in the mid-1800s onwards, gathering pace in the 1900s up to about the 1970s. This is Received Pronunciation (RP). RP is an aspirational accent associated with upper echelons of society, conveying exclusiveness and privilege: <https://youtu.be/blemPxHSb6Q>. RP is pronunciation deriving from holding the upper lip fairly stiff and articulating sounds with emphasis on other vocal organs than the lips; also, diphthongs and triphthongs are used much more than in 'General British English'. RP is supposedly regionless but a speaker would be more comfortable and more widely accepted in the south of England than in the north. RP is also popularly known as 'Oxford English' or 'Queen's English'. This 'upper class' English is not quite the modern adaptation for wide communication in the present day, 'General British English'/'Standard British English' as exemplified perhaps by the current BBC Radio and TV news readers and sometimes called 'BBC English'. Regional dialects have weakened slightly in recent decades since the advent of the national media but are still very present and used by many in Britain.

From the beginning of the 1900s to the present, we had two major world wars leading to the breakup of Empire, to the rise of American culture and American English, to globalisation (which uses English heavily in logistics) and to the IT revolution. These had many effects on English.

Immigration from former colonies into the old ex-colonial powers then brought new influences. Jamaican English influenced street English in some British cities. Immigration of people from neighbouring countries to richer countries has meant that Spanish influenced American English with Hispanic immigration into the US.

1.4.2 Geographical Variation of English

Language varies **geographically**. There are, of course also historical variation issues examined above that have led to present-day geographical variation.

English has changed and continues to change. Non-native speakers of the language are taking it and making it their own. Ownership of English does not reside in the UK or the US. As a challenge to English as an international language, Chinese Mandarin will be a future competitor.

David Graddol's paper for the British Council, English Next (2006) is good background reading on change: <http://englishagenda.britishcouncil.org/sites/ec/files/books-english-next.pdf>.

With increased travel and communication, we are much more aware of Scottish English, London English, Texan English, Singaporean English, Australian English, Bangladeshi English, etc. See if you can guess the meanings of: *Vinglish, Singlish, Manglish, Pinglish, Konglish, Hinglish, Chinglish, Janglish*....

Even quite advanced learners of English, cannot easily place English speakers by their dialect. They may even hear:

Me conk's givin' me gyp = *My nose is sore*. East Midlands, UK. 'Gyp' is a soft 'g' as in 'giant'. Vocabulary differences and note the grammar change with 'Me'.

You sabo me! = *You are deliberately causing me trouble!* [usually at the workplace]. Singapore English. Vocabulary: 'sabotage' has a change in meaning and an abbreviation. Grammar: notice the incomplete verb, the present continuous or another tense would be more usual. Pronunciations: vowel sounds will be very short ('shot').

Gerraway! = *Get away!* = *Unbelievable/Amazing!* North East England, UK. Vocabulary change.

Aw, look at the wee bairn! = *Oh, isn't he/she [a small child] cute!* North East England if no diphthong sounded in the last word. Scotland, UK if 'bairn' is with a diphthong and a rolled 'r'. Pitch directions will change between the two regions. Pronunciation and vocabulary changes from standard English.

How's theesen? = *Hi!* Rural East Yorkshire, England, UK. A grammar change in the verb and an older English vocabulary item 'theesen' for 'you'.

Give us me pen. = *Give me my pen.* Grammar changes in casual speech, UK.

There's too many people who.... Grammar, *is* instead of the plural *are*. A common feature of spoken modern British English.

Such examples would not be taught in a course of English but course materials usefully expose students to pre-recorded listening material in commonly heard varieties of English. The popular English language school series *Headway* (Oxford University Press https://elt.oup.com/catalogue/items/global/adult_courses/new_headway/?cc=gb&sellLanguage=en) takes care to include varieties such as south east/London local English, Scottish English, Received Pronunciation, American English, Australian English, New Zealand English and English spoken by nationals of many countries. This is to embrace diversity in accent.

For variations in accent within the dialects of Britain, try recordings in <https://youtu.be/-8mzWkuOxz8>.

1.4.3 Social Variation of English

Language varies **socially**. Some languages have very marked social dialects - different socio-economic groups use somewhat different vocabulary and pronunciation.

In the UK, high social prestige Received Pronunciation is associated with 'separateness', social distance from everyday English regional dialect speakers or even from General British speakers. With the history of RP, even today some people consider regional dialect pronunciations as somehow 'not good English'. However, the reality of 21st century Britain is that local regional accents have entered the mainstream radio and TV media to a major extent. These judgements

are purely social. Linguists have found no justification for considering one dialect or accent 'better' than another, whether historical, geographical or social. In accent, RP has had no merit other than being historically recognised as relating to high social groups in the UK. Interestingly, RP speakers are less successful than English regional dialect speakers or General British English speakers at assimilating the speech of some other languages such as French or Italian, languages where much more movement of the jaw and lips are needed to articulate sounds than RP requires.

General British English has taken a strong position in modern day society in Britain partly following wider education opportunities from the 1960s onwards and the spread of university education throughout the population, in a much wider range of educational establishments. The old privileges of a public school, Oxford University or Cambridge University education once entrenching exclusiveness of RP are considered less socially relevant in modern society. Younger people in modern Britain are less impressed by an RP accent than would have been the case years ago.

General British English enables effective communication. It is probably the norm for British English that matches your learners' needs unless they are better aiming at American English, Australian English or another English variant.

In extreme cases groups within a country use another language altogether - in some ex-colonial countries the ruling groups make greater or lesser use of the colonial language (Spanish in Paraguay, English in India). When they use the local language, they incorporate foreign vocabulary. Where the colonial language was English there are obvious implications for teachers of English. Knowledge of English in these societies can provide the means to upward social movement for local students of English.

1.4.4 Some Issues on Language

Linguists have not proved that one language is 'better' than another, or (as some maintain of Latin) leads to more logical thought. Confusingly, Latin commonly places the verb at the end of the sentence, after the subject and object. Inflection (changes of the endings of words) in the words give the clues in Latin as to which noun is the subject, which is the object, and which preposition (*to/for, by/with/from* buried within one noun inflection) is at work. Do you think, waiting for the verb to come at the end of a sentence you are reading, all that mental processing could lead to 'more logical thought'?

Some languages have a restricted vocabulary in certain areas, particularly the modern sciences. They have to borrow terms, often from English, to express scientific, technological and engineering concepts. Bahasa Malaysia and Bahasa Indonesia are examples.

1.5 REGISTER, APPROPRIATENESS AND ERROR

1.5.1 Register

Language varies in many ways and what is appropriate at one time or place may not be at another. What is appropriate in one situation is not in another. Within a language and dialect, such language variations are called **registers**. Register is part of all languages. Your learners are aware of different registers in their own language, L1, but now need help to identify registers for their use of English.

These are all greetings:

<i>Good morning! How are you today?</i>	<i>Hi! How's things?</i>
<i>Hi man!</i>	<i>I bid you welcome.</i>
<i>Hello, good evening and welcome.</i>	<i>How do you do?</i>
<i>It is my great pleasure to welcome you all here this evening.</i>	

They vary immensely in the degree of formality. You can think of plenty of situations where each of these would be inappropriate. The status of the speaker and of the person spoken to restrict the use of the expression.

These are register variations caused by features of the situation:

- Who the **participants** are.
- The **topic** of the piece of language, and related to this, the **setting** in which it takes place. Some writers restrict the term 'register' to topic variation.
- The **medium**, i.e. speech or writing.

Participants

Language varies according to who the **participants** are - their **age, gender, status, group identity** and their **roles** in the 'speech situation'.

AGE When talking to, or writing for, children we use a different variety of English. We alter not only our vocabulary, but often our pronunciation and grammar too. It may be 'koochikoo' language to a baby, or children's stories full of magic, ghosts, dragons, princesses, fairies and palaces which adults rarely mention among themselves. Such stories are often marked by certain grammatical structures: *No sooner had..., The beautiful princess kissed the frog..., Once upon a time.....*). Now there is nothing 'wrong' or inappropriate in going *koochikoo* to a baby but you would not normally do it to a police officer.

Children's own language changes as they grow older. They talk differently to their peers than they do to their teachers, and possibly differently again to their parents.

GENDER In English itself there are very few differences between male and female speech. For instance nouns do not inflect for gender - have masculine and feminine endings - as they do in some languages.

For English language in use, one difference is that female speech tends to be more emotive, with expressions like *fabulous, gorgeous, disastrous, beautiful, stunning.....* Male speech tends to be more subdued: *not bad, quite enjoyed it, not very fond of it*. Not having a grammatical outlet to display their masculinity, perhaps English speaking males use understatement instead.

A native speaker male knows the pitch level, directions of pitch and stressing changes within words to change *fabulous, gorgeous, disastrous, beautiful, stunning* into male-oriented use. It is probable your learners will not understand this male/female distinction in English. There are implications here for teaching. A non-native speaker male using excessively enthusiastic language will probably be more accepted while a native-speaking male might be considered slightly feminine. We are not of course being judgemental here but these are real language issues.

Approximate measures of the number of words uttered in a day have a distinction. 7,000 words for adult male speech in English and 20,000 words for female speech. There is much

argument over this, refer to:

<http://www.theguardian.com/lifeandstyle/2006/nov/27/familyandrelationships>

STATUS In many languages the speaker makes a specific choice of grammar or vocabulary according to the status of the person being spoken to. The best-known example is the choice between subject personal pronouns *tu* and *vous* in French. The first is singular, the second is plural; referring to an intimate friend, partner or family member will use *tu* and talking to others will use *vous*, even if to one person. Other languages have similar choices, referred to as **T** and **V** forms.

In English the choices are not specific, but they exist. They come in the use of more formal speech to strangers and people of higher status, and also to people of much lower status. We look at degrees of formality in more detail in 1.5.2.

When students are not taught how to deal with differences in status there can be strange consequences. One is that a learner may search for a means of expressing respect in English and choose an inappropriate one: *kind sir*, *your good self*. Another is the use of informal language which should be restricted to peers.

GROUP Some groups use one variety of English among themselves and another with outsiders: football/soccer/rugby enthusiasts, youth groups such as skinheads or rap music followers. Their speech can be considered a social or social-cum-geographical dialect.

ROLE One person can play many roles in day-to-day activities. Roles important for general language teaching might include (with the learner normally the first of the pair):

friend	- friend
inquirer	- stranger
employee	- colleague
employee	- employer, head of department etc.
inquirer	- official
worker	- client
customer	- shop assistant, waiter, barman etc.
self	- boy/girl friend
student	- teacher
patient	- doctor

Topic

Language varies with the **topic**. It is not only that each subject has its own vocabulary. The language used by people involved in certain subjects or occupations is said to be marked by a certain range of grammatical forms. This is clearly so in some cases: legal and religious language, or the language airline pilots use. But it is in the courtroom, religious ceremony or cockpit of an aircraft that this language is especially marked.

It is not only the topic but also the **setting** which influences the language used. The airline pilot changes his way of expressing the language of, say a flight between talking to his copilot over a coffee in the rest area and talking to his copilot and the control tower in the aircraft cockpit.

This is rather important since a large area of English teaching has grown recently - **ESP**, English for Specific (Special) Purposes: English for Business, Legal English, Aviation English, English for Healthcare, English for Tourism and Hospitality.....

Certainly each topic has its own vocabulary. In each setting, language takes on a greater or lesser degree of formality (more of this in 1.5.2). Language is perhaps restricted in function. For example, service technicians need to understand and give instructions, describe faults and issue

warnings more than to express surprise, pleasure or disappointment. These restrictions in turn affect the grammar used: a greater use of imperatives for instance.

So the **setting** is important, not merely the topic. It affects vocabulary, the function of language in that setting, and how formal the language is.

Medium

Language varies according to the **medium** in which it takes place. This is either auditory, in speaking and hearing, or visual, in reading and writing.

We do not write as we speak or speak as we write. They are different skills, the brain is processing information in different ways. Listening and understanding are different from reading and understanding.

The content of speech and writing may well be different. Students are likely to encounter a greater vocabulary when reading than when listening to speech. Most kinds of writing are grammatical. Speech often is not; it is full of false starts and changes of direction; we may employ a gesture instead of making our meaning verbally explicit. This is not 'wrong', it is part of the nature of speech. We can usually take time to interpret the written word; we rarely can for the spoken word. Different skills are needed to cope with these differences.

It is not necessary for learners to repeat all they hear, or to write what they speak, or speak what they read and so on. We should teach all the four skills in different ways. We cannot assume that if we teach students to listen and speak they will automatically transfer their acquired language skills to the other medium.

1.5.2 Formality

The language setting and the participants often dictate a certain degree of **formality**. Some writers refer to this as **style** (but literary style involves more than this - grammar, choice of vocabulary, rhythm, imagery). The medium, whether speech or writing, also affects the degree of formality used. The scale of formality is usually split for convenience into five 'styles'. A number of names have been applied:

1. Intimate, free
2. Casual, friendly, close
3. Informal, consultative
4. Formal, correct, deliberative
5. Frozen, rigid, ceremonial, oratorical

Intimate and casual speech will contain many elided forms and missing words: *'m no' so sure 'bou' tha'*.

Formal speech is careful but not unnatural.

Ceremonial speech is sometimes unnatural - articles and prepositions may be stressed; normal weak forms such as *was* or *are* may be given a strong pronunciation; rhythm may be distorted and intonation quite different from more normal speech.

Table 1 gives examples of how not only pronunciation but grammar and vocabulary may change with the degree of formality. The table also gives examples of how the medium and setting may affect the degree of formality used.

TABLE 1

STYLE	<u>Situations and settings</u>	
	<u>Pronunciation/grammar/vocabulary</u>	<u>Speech</u> <u>Writing</u>
INTIMATE STYLE <i>Dunno / No idea / Search me</i>	Speaking to family and close friends	(Rare, perhaps texting)
CASUAL STYLE <i>I don't know, Not sure</i>	Speaking to colleagues of equal status & acquaintances	Personal letters to family and close friends Memos to oneself Diaries
INFORMAL STYLE <i>I don't know</i>	Speaking to colleagues of unequal status Speaking to strangers Informal meetings	Personal letters to friends Memos to others Dialogue in novels
FORMAL STYLE <i>I do not know / I am not aware of it</i>	Formal meetings Public addresses Court proceedings	Business and official letters Reports, essays, Novels
FROZEN STYLE <i>I am not cognisant of the fact</i>	Ceremonial speeches Set prayers	Legal documents

Texts for language teaching, such as dialogues in a text book, used to be set at the formal level. Nowadays they tend to be more informal, even casual.

Generally we need to be more formal in style for writing than in style for speech.

The language we expect from learners and that we provide in materials may be more exact in reading material at the beginning of a course, to clearly show the grammar in use. The speech (heard or written) may be less formal because social English is useful at the early part of a course.

1.5.3 Communicative Competence

From the above, it follows that it is important to judge the language used as 'appropriate' or 'inappropriate' rather than 'correct' or 'incorrect'.

Students must learn not just to say what they mean but to suit the language to the occasion. As teachers we try to create an awareness of what is or is not appropriate.

This awareness is obviously to be expected more in advanced students. Even at earlier levels, this awareness can be encouraged.

Elementary ESOL level:	Say ' <i>Hi</i> ' to your friend, not to your teacher; Say ' <i>Good morning</i> ' to your teacher (or whatever you consider appropriate).
Intermediate ESOL level:	When studying a text or dialogue, either printed or recorded, ask questions e.g. <i>Who is speaking here?</i> <i>Where is she from?</i> <i>What sort of job do you think she has?</i> <i>Where are they?</i> <i>Is Mr. A senior to Mr. B?</i> <i>Do you think the writer was a man or woman?</i> <i>How do you know he is American/an old man/well educated/a scientist?</i>

The ability to use appropriate language, which need not necessarily be grammatically correct, has been called **communicative competence**.

There are situations where the grammatically correct form is inappropriate: in emails, film subtitles, newspaper headlines, jocular banter (*Long time no see*) and other intimate or casual speech (*Hi, just ringing to say not I am*).

This process of situation affecting the choice of language applies as much to pronunciation and choice of words - vocabulary - as to grammar. These usually affect each other, as we have seen from Table 1.

Language teaching has traditionally been concerned with linguistic accuracy. Modern second language teaching emphasises the increase in the learner's communicative competence. This adds another dimension to traditional language teaching - creating the awareness of the appropriateness of language. Learners should use language appropriately and appreciate appropriate use. Relating language to the situation involves making inferences which are essential for more than very basic communication.

We have highlighted this point because some teachers insist the same language can be used on all occasions, even that they themselves do so.

1.5.4 Which Teaching Model?

Since no one accent or dialect is intrinsically superior, any could be used as a model for teaching. In practice, in countries where English is taught as a foreign language (see Introduction) the main models are General British English (not RP) or General American in countries such as Japan, Korea and the Philippines. Australian English is also becoming more influential as a model in Oceania.

The teacher's accent and dialect act as the chief model for spoken English in the classroom. Variation is given from pre-recorded teaching material (audio CDs or online material).

A course textbook provides model dialect (grammar, vocabulary and idiom) particularly for written English.

Where these models do not coincide with learner needs, teachers may have to make choices such as moves between General British and General American English vocabulary:

She's got a new car	-	She's gotten a new car
tap, lift, pavement	-	faucet, elevator, sidewalk
colour, recognise	-	color, recognize

For speech, if your own accent is not the required model for your learners' needs, you have to decide whether to tell students something like 'last' is pronounced [la:st] but I come from the North of England so I say [læst].' Note: These are rendered as AR and A respectively; the phonetic symbols used here will be covered in Module 4.

In countries where English is a strong second language, local standard forms have emerged. Their features have been described and they are becoming, in reality if not officially, the local model. Since the vast majority of ESOL teachers of English in those areas speak the local variety it seems only sensible that a form of Indian English could be taught in India, Filipino English in the Philippines and so on. These varieties of English are as valid as General British English and General American English. However, we must consider which variety our students require. Their needs may be, in pronunciation, the local model if they are to remain in that environment, otherwise their need may be for General British/American/Australian if they will use English internationally or for continued education.

Teachers of ESOL from the UK, USA, Australia and other native speaking areas should be aware that their form of English may not be the most acceptable or desirable in some parts of the world. The '*I speak RP so my pronunciation is correct and you should copy it*' attitude should be discouraged.

Online Course Assessments

Module 1, Section A

1. **Mini Tasks**

Complete and submit the three mini tasks in the course notes:

Mini Task 1 THE ONOMATOPOEIA

List another three words in English which are onomatopoeic.

Mini Task 2 PARALANGUAGE

1. What differences, if any, are there in your country to the handling of name cards as described above?

2. Folded arms, sitting on a desk, putting feet up – briefly write about possible interpretations of these in different societies.

Mini Task 3 CHANGING LANGUAGE

Add five more words or phrases to the list of those introduced, are used more frequently or have had a meaning change in recent years

Assignment

Write between 750 and 1250 words on **ONE** of the following.

1. Elaborate on any ONE of the following areas of intrinsic learner needs/motivations:
 - a) English for education purposes – IELTS or TOEFL
 - b) English for education purposes – university foundation programmes
 - c) English for education purposes – pre-school education
 - d) English for education purposes – after-school tuition
 - e) English for business.
 - f) English for hospitality and/or tourism

2. English varies geographically. Give any issues of vocabulary, grammar, idiom and pronunciation that you are able to identify and describe in an English variant of your choice. This may be an English variant locally spoken in any country and with which you are familiar.

3. Explain, with your own examples, how language varies with register, the context in which it is spoken or written.