CHAPTER I : INTRODUCTION

I. 1.1 English as an International Language.

1.2 Standards of English in M.P.

1.3 Hindi, a Modern Language with a Deep Ancient Heritage.

1.4 Hinglish, a Recent Development.

II. A General View on the Acquisition of a Language by a Child.

III. Thematic Interpretation of Language Acquisition Device (LAD).

IV. Comparative and Analytical Study, Error Analysis and How it Helps in L2 Learning.
I 1.1 English as an International Language

During the 18th century with the expansion of the British Empire the English language migrated from its homeland to remote places. Today English is not only the language of England but many of the people from British colonies have also adopted it. It is also the language of United States. As English-speakers migrated to different places and lands - America, Australia, Canada, South Africa, India, they gradually differentiated themselves from those who remained in Great Britain, with the result that many new varieties of English sprang up, each with sub-varieties. With the spread of English as L2 and vehicle of a great deal of higher education every where, there has been an interesting new development in other fields of life. English, the second largest language is spoken by more than 250 million persons, has scattered to all the four corners of the earth.

One of the most distinctive features of English is the copiousness and the cosmopolitan character of its vocabulary. When, in the fifth and sixth century, the Anglo-Saxons conquered England, it was almost an unmixed language with hardly any foreign words but today it is the most mixed of languages. English has never suffered the institutions of an Academy, like the French, or Italian academies, to regulate the vocabulary. Englishmen have always enjoyed the freedom of borrowing words from the four quarters of the globe. The spirit of enquiry, adventures and experiments led to amazing discoveries, and influential theories that revolutionized thought in many fields of life. Language was not left untouched.

English has built up its enormous vocabulary by borrowings from Latin, French, Hebrew and Arabic, Hungarian, Malay, Chinese, Hindustani, Bengali, the languages of Australia, Tahiti, Polynesia, West Africa. A comprehensive dictionary of Modern English comprises over one million words. The copiousness of English vocabulary is striking and more striking is its amazing variety and heterogeneity. But English has assimilated these heterogeneous elements so thoroughly that only the professional students of language can say that they are of exotic origin.

But the fact remains that English had to struggle against great odds, before it attained an established position as a language popular now as an International language. The victory of English was due to the rising of social, occupational, industrial and science groups which had little Latin and less Greek. And English slowly gained supremacy.
English is not the property of any particular country. It now belongs to all
those who utilize it. Barriers across the countries are crumbling. Thus mastery over the tools
of international communication has become essential. And it is sensible for one to remain in
a position where he can use it to his own advantage. This is true not only for an individual
but also for a country.

Among the few positive outcomes of the British rule in India, the
introduction of English is one. Its introduction has lifted the obstructions that blocked the
communication between different languages in the country. It is essential for
communication with the outside world, as well as, progress in the fields of science,
medicine, technology, trade and commerce.

The need of a link language in the country to unite people from different
parts of the country comes into focus again and again. Some experts feel that English has
remained and can still continue to be the link language in the country, as it has a wide
acceptability not only in India but all over the world. With the globalisation of the Indian
economy, the need to popularise it as a link language has become of greater significance.

The widespread use of English around the globe is often attributed to social
prestige and the need for it in technological advancement, as well as, to the simplicity of its
inflexions and the cosmopolitan character of its vocabulary.

1.2 Standards of English in M.P.

In the first half of the 19th century English assumed a dominating position in
India. English became the language of the rulers and thus of those who wished to emulate
their masters socially and professionally. It became almost exclusively the language of
higher education. Thus it began to assume the position of lingua franca of the multilingual
Indian communities.

Under the common inspiration of English learning the number of students
reading English multiplied manifold and the demand for English schools went on
increasing. English is understood by 110 lakh people, i.e., hardly 2 percent of the entire
population. If this is the scene of the whole country then think of M.P., where about 74
percent population resides in the rural areas, and even primary education in Hindi is a dream
for the parents. English knowing persons are those who have received education in English
medium schools and colleges in M.P., or have come and settled here from other states.
A scene very common in India is also seen in the homes of M.P. The small children start cramming alphabets, some common nouns and poems from books, and if fortunate enough, join nursery schools where the same things are taught by teachers who themselves are no good speakers of English. The child picks up some nouns and verbs and uses them in communication in L1 to impress the adults. It learns some rhymes and recites them before its elders without understanding the meaning behind them.

The text books used in certain private schools and semi-government schools contain stories, question-answers and grammar rules and exercises. But explanation for exercises are usually given in Hindi. Communication in English is not forced on students even in English missionary schools. True English rarely becomes a medium of education in post graduation classes of English literature. Students never bother about their pronunciation and grammar in their communication. For them [sɔb kʊcɪŋˈkɔlɪə; hæ] ‘anything goes’. It is now self-evident that English as the medium of higher education in colleges and universities will soon disappear. There was a time when perfect proficiency in English was considered to be be-all and end-all of education. But now, English is not to be studied as an end in itself but as a means to an end. Now the only utility of English for Indians is to use it as a medium to make available the advanced knowledge of the west in science and technology.

There has been an ever-increasing rush for primary and secondary education during the last thirty years. Classes have become over-crowded. The urge for education has been growing among the masses bringing more pressure on schools which have shortage of buildings, funds and experienced teachers. This affects teaching of English adversely.

In schools run by state government English grammar is taught in V standard when the student has rigidly established his mother-tongue’s patterns. He learns the definitions of the various parts of speech but is never in a position to transfer them in his communication.

English enjoys official status in name only. Class I and II officers may communicate in English, but class III and IV employees are restricted to ‘sorry’, ‘thank you’, ‘come in’, and ‘excuse me’. To facilitate these workers Hindi is being popularized in official work.
The general population communicates in their respective dialects or in Hindi and may use a few English words in between. English speakers rarely get a common stand to share their thoughts in English except in seminars or meetings.

Thus, the overall view suggests that English has still to go a long way to become a true lingua franca in M.P.

1.3 Hindi, a Modern Language, with a Deep Ancient Heritage.

Hindi is a new Indo-Aryan language spoken in the north of India. It belongs to the Indo-Iranian branch of the Indo-European family of languages. Y. Kachru estimates it to be spoken by more than two hundred million people either as a first or second language in India, and by people of Indian origin in Trinidad, Guyana, Fiji, Mauritius, South Africa and other countries. Along with English, it is the official language of India. In addition, it is the state language of Bihar, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, M.P., Rajasthan and U.P.

Next to Sanskrit, Hindi, during the Hindu period of history, was the most widely-known written language, and had therefore been raised to official status even in non-Hindi territories. The name Hindi is not Indian in origin, as Dr. Varma points out, it is believed to have been used by the Persians to denote the people and languages of India. Hindi as a language is said to have emerged from the market place and army camps during the period of repeated Islamic invasions and establishment of Muslim rule in the north of India between the 8th and 10th centuries A.D. At the time of conquest of Sind by Mohammad-ibn-Kasim in the 8th century, government accounts in that province were kept in Hindi. The conqueror continued the tradition. In Kashmir, far away from the parental region of Hindi, this language was one of the current languages at the time of Muslim conquest. Several Arabian and Persian books were translated into the Hindi language.

The Muslim rulers, much before, had recognised the fact that Hindi was in a way the lingua franca of India and must be promoted as such. Ala-ud-din Khilji made the greatest known contribution to the speech of Hindi. Amir Khusro was a gifted poet of Persian and Hindi. His Hindi verses give the evidence that he took care to maintain the purity of the language by avoiding the use of Persian words.

The speech of the areas around Delhi, known as Khari boli, was adopted as a common language of interaction with the local population. Hindi looked to Sanskrit for linguistic borrowings and Sanskrit, Prakrits and Apabhramsas for literary conventions.
During the Muslim rule Hindi was used as an appendage of the official language; i.e., Persian and it continued to be so up to the 1830's. Public orders and inscription on the coins appeared in both the languages. Hindi continued to figure in official work in some form, because it was the language of the people. For 80 years after the war of Plassey, Hindi retained its status in certain administrative departments of the East India Company. In Hindi speaking areas, government orders, meant for the people generally, were translated from English into Hindi.

The gulf between the Hindus and Muslims, which was created in 1837 by the substitution of Urdu for Persian was considerably widened by the turn of the century. The Hindus complained that even Muslim rulers had not accepted Urdu as the court language - it was Persian with Hindi as the second language - and that British, by giving it an official status, had sown the seeds of communal dissension and were maintaining the disharmony by denying Hindi the status due to it.

In the 20th century, the advocacy for Hindi transcended the limits of the Hindi-speaking provinces. It is considered as the only all-India language enjoying the popularity of being understood throughout the length and breadth of the country. It was not a national language in the modern sense of the term, but of the many standard languages, it alone had loosely been the medium of interprovincial contacts. According to Dr. Suniti Kumar Chatterji,

…it [Hindi] is a great communication speech, particularly in its simplified Bazaar Hindi Form.

Leading men of non-Hindi provinces advocated the installation of Hindi as the lingua franca of Independent India. Individual assertions are to be found scattered in old papers and government reports suggesting Hindi as a commonly understood language of India. The Census Report of 1911, contains a significant statement,

The Gaekwar of Baroda recently asserted that he had never met a native of India who could not understand easy Hindi.

The All-India Common Language Conference adopted a resolution urging the adoption of Hindi as a common language of India, in its session held on 30th December 1918.
Laxmikanth Verma commented on the present condition of Hindi,

यह एक विविधता ही है कि आज जान हम आजादी की स्वर्ण जयंती मना रहे हैं, वही हम हिंदी भाषा-भाषी लोग आज भी हिंदी के भविष्य के विचार में विचारते हैं।... हिंदी का विवाद तो यह है कि जिस तरह तेज गति से हिंदी के विकास के लिए संस्थायें बनायी गयी थी वह भी पशु होती रही है।... हिंदी साहित्य सम्प्रदाय उत्साहित है, नागरी प्रवारणी संस्था आता है, राष्ट्र-भाषा, सभायें मैं हैं, हिंदी के शेयरकों और दिनांकों की इसकी दिनता ही नहीं है, पूरा राष्ट्र बिना राष्ट्र भाषा के जी रहा है।...  

Hindi has been in use as a literary language since the 12th century. The development of prose, however, begins only in the 18th century under the influence of English, which marks the emergence of Hindi as a full-fledged literary language. Critics plausibly suggest that if Hindi were deprived of its literary form it would be thrown back to the age when it was just a spoken language. Dr. Sampurnand believes

...the Hindi of today is the Hindi that has evolved down the centuries from the various Prakrits which began to take literary shape in Northern India.

Hindi, recognised as the natural language covering many other languages and dialects within its fold, is understood by a large number of people in its elementary form. English and Sanskrit also have a special place. Practically all people throughout the land passing out the Matriculation or school-leaving examination and higher exams, do learn these languages and these are still the main integrating forces. Sanskrit still holds the traditional reverence and remains the cultural vehicle, whereas English most used for official purposes is the medium of higher education, and the vehicle of inter-state and international communication.

Before independence Hindi was a free language enjoying fresh expressions, and free existence on the pages of literature. And now free India celebrates Hindi Divas on 14th September every year to remind her people of its existence. Hindi is not a new language which needs any identity. It has denied the dominance of Sanskrit, Persian and English and still has retained its excellent position in the Indian Society.

1.4 Hinglish, a Recent Development.

Hinglish, a very recent but a wonderful development in India, is at its height. English has always been a craze for Indians. It has pierced its roots deep into Indian culture and what has come out as a result of it is called Hinglish. India has been very liberal in accepting religions, people, languages and cultures of other nations. In spite of its open heartedness it still retains its identity.
English has seen a history of nearly four centuries in India and has become a part and parcel of all aspects of Indian life, still it stands aside as a foreign language. The common-street man is still ignorant of its true atmosphere. English is still devoid of the love and respect of the people, which Hindi enjoys.

During its long stay in India, English has come very close to Hindi, rather people have modified the two languages, in common speech to such an extent that one serves the function of the other where the former fails to do so. It is not a deliberate attempt, rather the development is completely unconscious. "Words of Indian origin have been insinuating themselves into English ever since the end of the reign of Elizabeth," wrote Yule and Burnell in their introduction to *Hobson-Jobson*.

Infrastructure has played a major role in this development. Scholars sometimes must have thought of the whole world as a single nation, but in India people have comfortably adopted English with Hindi without any grudge or complaint.

Hinglish goes back a long way. Bapoo, a columnist writing in *The Times of India* in 1872, wrote a series of articles in Hinglish. But he was mocking not the attempts of the natives to speak English but that of the officers speaking an alien language. The difference today lies in the self-consciousness with which it is used. The new Hinglish with its self-conscious irony began around the time when Shobha De was editor of *Stardust*. She wished to use the language of the streets, the way the common man speaks. There was no intention of being ironic or of mocking the people. No one would have dreamt of such a phenomenon creaking underground, a decade or two ago. Former P. M. Mr. Deve Gowda (1996) may have tried to use pure Hindi in his Indepndance Day speech with sentences like, "Is saal hamara nation ne liberalisation aur globalisation ko apnaya hai," yet he standarized Hinglish in his own way being a P. M. Satellite channels, having a face-to-face contact with common man have sparked the process with their English interspersed with Hindi words or vice-versa. In advertising, communication is a matter of life and death. To get the message across, the language used by the people is a must. A few writers like Nissim Ezekiel, Khushwant Singh, have managed to use it with emotion and feeling.

Hinglish has always been a presence in Hindi films or pop music. This reaches back to Kishore Kumar's "M-A-D, Mad, Mad mane pagal," and came to us with a "Tell me O khuda, mein kya karoon," "Jahan paown men payal ..... It happens only in India," "Sabko ho gaya Temptation", "Dekhke kudie teri height," or "Ye dil mange more."
No strategy works behind this happy-go-lucky development. It may have been a language of the Indian fools but now it is a matter of confidence and comfort for the educated. An Indian feels more comfortable with a ‘cup of chai’ than with a ‘cup of tea’.

Nida Fazli, a renowned lyricist, sounds a note of caution for he feels that Hinglish is eroding the respect of the words, and wishes writers to renew the respect. Some mutations are better accepted than others. Hinglish can be used for common communication. It is fine to use Hinglish in articulating pleasantries but it cannot be used beyond a certain framework or concept of communication. The duel seems complicated but does no harm to Hinglish. With a whole new generation turning in, the language will continue to evolve with more ‘sorries,’ ‘thanks’ and ‘excuse mes’ in India. There is no reason to succumb to linguistic slavery. After all, the Oxford Dictionary itself has declared that Hinglish and Indian English are okay.

II. A General View on the Acquisition of Language by a Child

How children learn to speak? This problem has always engaged the attention of linguists and developmental scientists. Early vocalizations of a child, before he speaks the first word, are limited to cries, grunts, gurgles, babbling and coos. The major problems faced by the linguists are: firstly, the language acquisition process is an unconscious process, and secondly, they cannot depend on the child for its experiences, as it is then learning to speak. These problems do need some deep insight to resolve them. Observations of the child’s acquisition at this stage is superficial and this proves to be a major hindrance to the formation of any theory of Language Acquisition (L.A.).

In the early phases, L.A. is very closely related to the satisfaction of two primary needs, i.e. hunger and thirst, and one social need, i.e. safety. Lewis (1951) traced an interesting relationship between the child’s movements which are characteristically made with the vocal apparatus in typical states of comfort, i.e. after feeding and in states of discomfort, i.e. in anticipation of feeding.

Jean Piaget, as a result of her observations, declared that the speech of the child tends to be ‘egocentric.’ ‘Socialized’ speech attains importance only at a later stage of development, at about 7-8 years of age. Various observations have stressed the role of verbalization with regard to the child’s own and others’ behaviour. With the above
description it is clear that the child's ability to speak is a key to social interaction at the first grade level, and on this communication depends its success in its social circles.

McCarthy (1952) has described physical or postural changes, as the process of ingestion of food and respiration, and the erect posture which affect the shape of the oral cavity. Along with the changes in the oral cavity, the child gets cortical control of speech sounds, and starts self-imitation and also those of others.

The fact most unanimously accepted is that the first utterances of the child are vowels. Observations by Preyer (1893) Lewis (1951), Lynn (1951) and others, support the above statement. As against it, some observations report /m,n,p,b/ as the first consonants to appear and also to modify the early vowel sounds into syllables. General observation of infants of 1-2 months shows that the utterances or cooing begins with /a:/ and its allophones. While in crying the air passing through the nasal cavity with closed mouth is somewhat similar to /m,n/. /p,b/ are produced at a later stage when the child learns to control its lips, apart from when using in sucking.

The consonants are produced as a result of more control of the tongue and the lip movements, particularly in the anterior region. They develop later. McCarthy (1966) found that the development of consonants begins from the back of the oral cavity towards the front. Though this may be the case, G.P. Srivastava (1974), in his observations of many Hindi-speaking children, found that this back-to-front progress of production of consonantal sounds does not always occur. In some observations parents report that the first sounds of consonantal type produced by the child are bilabials /p,b,m/.

Lewis (1951) presented a detailed phonemic analysis based on a single child. He found that all the back consonants are the consonants uttered in comfort and the front consonants, both nasal and oral, are later consonants uttered in discomfort.

More complex vowels and consonants go on adding to the child's language. Acquisition of morphological patterns is a complicated process, not present during the first two years of growth. Speech is usually isolated with only word order making clear the syntactic relationships. Gaps and imperfections in communication serve as a reinforcement to learn the standard morphological patterns, usually during the third year. The child, as observed, first learns the coarse patterns in whichever field of language it enters. As this is true in the case of phonology, so it is also true in the case of morphology and syntax. The
child neglects the endings and the stem modifications. These coarse patterns are later refined and modified by the learning of contrasts and formal differentiations.

Further, the child does well without the help of morphological devices, but for sometime only. The usual trend is from one-word sentence to the two-word sentence. The one-word may be a noun, an adjective, a verb, but it serves for the child as the vehicle of a complete sentence. As far as the syntax is concerned the parts of speech have no meaning during this stage. It is an observed fact that the verbs or adjectives used during this stage serve the function of nouns. There is often a direct transition from one-word phase to the two-word phase in the form of two one-word sentences following each other. The two-word sentences may consist of verb-noun, noun-verb, adjective-noun patterns.

E. Dewey (1935) points out:

The literature is in general agreement that the first sound of the newborn infant are the overt elements from which speech develops; that vocalizations are used as means of communication before words proper are used; that comprehension appears before the use of words; that the normal child has a repertoire of a very few words by one year of age; that development is slow in the first months of the second year, but that towards the end of that year a great increase in the speed of progress appears; that words are first used in a generalized sense, and their use for speaking meanings is a developmental process; that name words appear first, verbs and adjectives later, relational words still later, and pronouns are just beginning to be used by the most advanced children by the end of the second year, that the first words have the force of a phrase or sentence, and combinations of words do not begin for some time.

Thus, the established fact is that the L.A. begins with the speech movements/sound production by the child at an early age, beginning with babbling. Though linguists and psycholinguists still have different views as to whether the sound uttered during babbling are preserved and later differentiated into various phonemes, or the phonemes that occur in later stages are in themselves new entries into the L.A. capacity of the child. Whatever the case may be, it cannot be ignored that the physiological, psychological and linguistic development takes place side by side.

III. Thematic Interpretation of Language Acquisition Device (LAD).

Linguists and psycholinguists have been continuously trying to give a unique theory of language acquisition by a child. And as a result a bulk of data and postulates have amassed in thousands of studies from various cultures and lands. In the
present work some of the theories along with those dealt with in the synopsis are interpreted to arrive at some better solution to the problem.

The child’s learning of its mother-tongue provides an admirable test core for any theory of learning that one might consider. McGrawaham (1936) distinguished two types of theories of evolution of language, of which, the first belonging to the 19th century postulates the development of language as a building-up process involving the progressive combination and integration of a number of elementary units called roots. And the second theory belongs to Jespersen (1922), which postulates that the process of language development is one of progressive differentiation of a number of primitive mass units.10

The basic fact is that any child regardless of its parentage learns the language to which it is exposed in its environment. It is claimed that the sounds used in any particular language, to which the child is exposed, are selected and singled out through practice as they are heard so frequently. Latif (1934) states:

... repetition, or reduplication, may well be considered the final step in that process by which mere vocalization becomes organized into language. It is here that explanation of the development of language must begin.11

This statement by Latif goes along with the model of classical conditioning paradigm of L.A. Child’s babbling often consists of repetition of random or similar syllables such as ‘dada’, ‘mama’, ‘bye-bye’, etc. But apart from mere repetition and reproduction of Latif, Floyd Allport stressed the importance of conditioning in the process of acquisition. The unconditioned responses produced by the child, at a critical level of maturation, are heard both by the parents and by the child. The curiosity of the parents to hear their child speak its first word makes them reinforce it by speaking a word similar in sound to the child’s vocalization. These words serve as unconditioned stimuli to elicit an imitative response from it. These stimuli when paired with a conditioned stimuli, i.e. objects, pictures of animals or living ones evolve a conditioned response. Allport assumed that the entire language development is acquired in the same way.

Mower (1960) elaborated the paradigm of Allport by holding the view that the sounds due to their pleasurable association with sensations accompanying feeding, cuddling, bathing etc. reinforce the child to imitate the adult’s language. Along with imitation it also produces new responses and tries at combination of responses and also learns to generalize its verbal responses. Its failure to recognize a distinction in sounds,
form, or meanings, or the result of false analogies lead him to errors. Through generalization and selective conditioning further language development goes on throughout the trajectory of life.

Allport and Mower are strictly empirical in the sense that they put much emphasis on the role of learning in L.A. This theory is still in search of some solid evidence to support its principle of L.A.. The fact that normal child learns the language of its environment and that deaf child does not spontaneously learn a language in a similar environment, has been taken into account by the empirical theory. It also has the advantage of being able to relate linguistic development to conditioning paradigm of concept formation.

Behaviourists like Skinner (1957), and Osgood (1963) have explained the development of language in terms of learning. Operant Conditioning of L. A. was proposed by Skinner in his book *Verbal Behavior* (1957). The model admits that the infants begin to learn language by imitating sounds of human beings, particularly mother’s sounds in need-satisfying circumstances. The infant on being rewarded, on producing a sound, particularly if it approximates adult speech patterns, learns that its imitations are generally reinforced and gradually the unpatterned vocalizations assume forms which approximate appropriate consequences in a given verbal context.

The behaviourists’ theory seems inadequate as it focuses heavily on imitation. Imitation and reinforcement might help in language acquisition, but experiments have established that it does not advance the child’s knowledge of linguistic rules. Children do imitate a great deal, are reinforced and corrected, when they commit errors, by the family members, especially in learning sounds and vocabulary, but little of their grammatical ability can be explained in this way.

Observations in this respect have established beyond doubt that imitation does not advance the child’s knowledge of the linguistic rules. Lenneberg and Lenneberg (1975) after observing the speech skills of a child, who could not talk due to a congenital disability but could understand elaborate verbal instructions well, concluded that imitation was not necessarily involved in speech comprehension. Ervin (1964) found that imitative speech was not more “grammatically progress” than spontaneous utterances. Piaget (1962) suggests that a child’s speech is imitative to the extent that if it hears someone produce a lexical item before it, it itself uses it. According to him imitation during the first two years is
an unconscious process. These sensorimotor imitations are provoked from “direct perception” only. At the end of second year the reproduction of model comes to be preceded by an “imagined representation” of it. This he refers to as “representative imitation.” Bloom et al. (1974) suggest that imitation provides experience in encoding the relevant aspects of the situation to which the utterances refer which help affirm the relation between form and content. He agrees with Piaget that imitation is a continuation of understanding.

Brown studied the utterances of children as imitation of their mother’s utterances and found that the length of the child’s utterances is not constrained because of vocabulary limitations, but because of limitation on the planning and programming ability of the L.A. function at early ages. Secondly, the child does not omit nouns and verbs which are the fundamental parts of speech, but also the prepositions, articles, pronouns, plurals, possessives, and connectives. He also found no evidence that parental approval and disapproval were contingent on the syntactic correctness of their children’s utterances. He again suggested that the process of reinforcement does not enhance its knowledge of syntactic rules. It seems that imitation or reinforcement has no role to play during the first six months of a child’s life in the manner that reinforcement theory would demand.

Slobin, however, insisted 15% of the child’s imitations are responses to adult expression of its own telegraphic utterances. Some responses were merely repetitions of the child’s original utterances. A fact quite significant according to Slobin is that about half of these responses added morphemes not in the original expression but echoed from the adult expressions.

An overall view that can be established at this point is that reinforcement does not appear to provide mechanism whereby the child might learn the more complicated structures used by adult speakers. Adults’ approval or disapproval of its utterances, though seem to be directed at the semanticity or truth-value of utterance, does not seem contingent on the grammaticality of what it says, and they do not correct its grammar in the early stages of acquisition.

Imitation and reinforcement still remain a mystery, as studies in this field do not provide adequate evidences to prove them as the whole-sole process involved in L.A.. The imitation theories shift back and forth from reinforcement to conditioning. It is inadequate to define L.A. only on the basis of imitation.
These limitations of the theories of imitation and reinforcement led to an alternate proposal in the 1960's. Chomsky and others reasoned that since language is specific to human species and is universal, there must be some thing common in the language rules followed in different languages of the world. They postulated that since all humans acquire language, it must be biologically based, i.e. humans must possess a specific, innate capacity for language. Had language been a learned behaviour, some humans would fail to learn it, just like some fail in learning to play the piano. Chomsky observed that human languages differ only superficially, across the regions or nations, their underlying principles, based on two types of universal features, called substantive and formal, are more uniform.

Chomsky (1957) argued that children must be born with an innate capacity for L.A. When the infant is exposed to speech, certain principles in general for discovering or structuring language automatically begin to operate. The observation that young children’s utterances are similar in every language has been used as a powerful argument in support of the innateness hypothesis. It is claimed that the developmental similarities across children indicate that the child is equipped with an innate L.A.D. which contains universal underlying linguistic principles/phrase structure rules (corpus).

The LAD enables the child to process incoming linguistic data and form hypothesis based on the regularities in that data. The child derives an accurate concept of the syntactic rules of its L1 through hypothesis testing. Once the child has done this, it can go beyond the sample of heard sentences so that it can produce and understand novel sentences.

Thus, LAD formulates a grammar by passing the evidence of corpus through some kind of internal structure. It is this unknown internal structure of LAD that processes the corpus and extracts grammatically relevant information.

Many evidences have been proposed in favour of nativistic theory of L.A. Some of them can be described as follows: Firstly, the similarities in the stages of L.A. process parallel to developmental stages in all children - beginning with crying, babbling, progressing to one-word utterances and then to two-word phrases, could be accounted for on the basis of their knowledge of linguistic universals. Secondly, there is a restricted period of child’s life during which “normal” language learning can take place. There may be a “sensitive period” during which first language learning must occur. Thirdly, Lenneberg et al. (1965) studied deaf children from deaf parents, or children who had severe congenital
defects of the speech mechanism preventing articulation and he found that they showed a surprisingly well-developed comprehension of language which obviously could not be acquired through reinforcement or by imitation. Naturally a deaf child cannot acquire a language spontaneously; and children from severely handicapped verbal environment are retarded in their linguistic development, thus revealing the role of learning. However, their comprehension of words and of correct grammatical structure shows that even though deprived of a natural opportunity to use a language, learning is possible.

Although the theory of grammar is thus logically sufficient to describe child’s capacity for L.A., it is not completely formulated. Syntax based models of Chomsky, McNeil and others ignore the fact that acquisition of semantic relationships precedes the acquisition of syntactic rules. As the child develops, word order rules give way to the syntactic device which adults use to signal case relationships. Syntactic rules are used to engross older semantic functions. Bowerman (1976) argued that one-word and two-word utterances of a child seem to be governed by semantic relationship and to be devoid of syntactic process. During language development in later stages also children do not employ one transformational rule, followed by two, and so on in order to attain the capacity to utter complex sentences. Bloom (1970) found that the child’s meanings could be ascertained from the context and the syntactic rules were inadequate for describing their different meanings. Bloom and Lahey (1978) argued that we underevaluate child’s knowledge and capabilities by imposing upon its language a preconceived adult model of Chomsky’s theoretical grammar.

Again, this theory does not adequately recognize the importance of the environment of early social and cognitive growth. The fact is that children use language to describe and to account experimental events which obviously require a definite level of cognitive development and social awareness. It seems that Chomsky’s major concern is with “grammatical competence” not with “communicative competence.”

In child-adult interaction, the first interaction is between mother and child, and this interaction provides the originating force, as well as the conditions to the child to formulate its linguistic system. It has been found that mother’s speech to the child is slow and her vocabulary is geared to the child’s vocabulary, and she uses very common sentence patterns in her speech. The child receives quite selective language input and sets up the routine child-adult interaction. Such opportunities are important in its development of a
language, to which it is exposed. The fact that nativists hold that there is no evidence to show parents training a child to use language by systematically set-up schedule of reinforcement proves quite appropriate, still it cannot be ignored that the physical inactivity of the child after its birth does not allow it to interact too much with the parents and the little time that it gets, apart from sleeping, crying and playing schedules, is utilized in interaction. And it is a common experience that parents are keen to hear the correct language from the child and thus try to initiate it to produce the same. Though the process is not systematic or regularly reinforced, the mere presence of the adult attending it, pleases it to act according to the adult model. Interaction opportunities are important in child's development of a language, to which it is exposed. Snow (1972) observed that parents respond to child's early utterances, by expanding the form or extending the meaning of the utterance by making a comment or a reply, by imitating or by giving feedback. That parents modify the language input to the child in accordance with its capability of using new structures, is a fact critically ignored by the nativists.

Linguistic environment has an important function in the process of L.A. which provides a subtle reinforcement, different from Skinner's direct type of reinforcement, which may consist of closeness and need fulfilment. Children of different social strata do not receive similar communication input hence they exhibit differences in their language output. It was observed that middle class mothers tend to give their children informatically adequate linguistic data, whereas lower class mothers tend not to be explicit and convey very little information. Methods, like baby talk, listening to songs, etc. do facilitate the learning process. It is contended that language is first acquired as a means of achieving already existing communication functions like gestures, etc. which are directly related to the situational and pragmatic aspects of later language.

Learning theories which have not supported reinforcement, as the primary mechanism explaining L.A., have accepted the role of imitation or of self-reinforcing activity. However, the available evidence does not support the claims of a first language anymore than it supports the claims that reinforcement does.

The controversial issues between empiricists and nativists lead to an ongoing investigation of physiological (genetic), cultural, motivational, cognitive and environmental factors in the acquisition and utilization of language. How difficult it is to study a human being in his original? The internal and external factors that act as initiating
forces and enhance the speed of acquisition of language at its fourth or fifth birthday (individual differences to be taken into account), seem to be unidentified. Theoretical constructs provided by each theory do have relevance and importance. Language development does have an inter-relationship with social and cognitive development, but it is at the same time separate too. Vygotsky (1962) emphasizes the close relationship between thought and inner speech. Language is certainly a product of cognitive development, social development, the functions of human physiology and neurological systems. Each of these aspects have a significant contribution in the L.A., though the difference in their relative contribution may differ from child to child. It has also to be borne in mind, as Owens argued, that in all these approaches we have imposed adult classification models upon child language. The possibility that children's way of ordering words may be just child-like quite away from our adult models, cannot be negated altogether. In fact the information, supplied to support theories or postulates of language development is based more heavily on what children do than on how such learning takes place.

The controversy between nativism and empiricism presents the issue as if it were an all-or-none affair. In fact it is much more a matter of degree. It is maintained that both innate capability and environmental factors come together in child's interaction with the context, and the child gradually matures as an active speaker.

IV. Comparative and Analytical Study, Error Analysis (EA) and How it Helps in L2 Learning

According to Robert Lado,

...in the comparison between native and foreign language lies the key to ease the difficulty in foreign language teaching.

Comparative study is a technique in linguistic science to delineate systematically the similarities and differences between languages. Analytical study joins it to analyse the fundamental points and reasons for these similarities and differences in different languages. Comparative study deals with a theoretical point of view, while analytical study has a practical view. The theoretical implication is to find out the 'hows' and 'wheres' of similarities and differences. Comparative and analytical studies claim to be central to all linguistic research. They help to develop a general theory of language based on the discovery of the universals of languages, to study dialectal variations, to underline diachronic changes, to initiate longitudinal studies of language acquisition, and also help in translations.
The practical side deals with the analysis of projects to develop teaching models and teaching methods, designing courses to provide adequate knowledge of different languages, whether of L1 or of L2, to the beginners. The constructions and functions of language are compared, with the aid of so-called analytical procedures and one learns more about his L1 and if possible apply the same knowledge while learning L2. Thus providing insight into similarities and differences between the languages is the basic assumption of comparative and analytical studies. Along with this such studies also provide criteria for establishing the hierarchy of difficulties, grading the teaching materials, refining the teaching techniques and models.

According to Sridhar:

... Error Analysis has probably the largest tradition. Yet till recently a typical Error Analysis went beyond impressionistic collection of 'common' errors and their taxonomic classification into categories (mistakes of agreement, omission of articles, etc). Little attempt was made either to define "error" in a formally rigorous and pedagogically insightful way or to systematically account for the occurrence of errors either in linguistic or psychological terms.13

The goals of EA were purely pragmatic. By identifying the areas of difficulty of the learner of L2, it could help in determining the sequences of presentation of various items in study materials in a hierarchy of difficulty level, deciding the relative degree of emphasis, and practice required in putting across various items in L2, devising remedial lessons, drills, exercises and, last but not the least, selecting items for testing the learner's proficiency.

With the advent of comparative analysis, serious interest began to be taken in error analysis. The methodology of EA involves the collection of data, identification and classification of errors into types, statement of relative frequency of error types, identification of the areas of difficulty in L2 and finally the remedies. Further more sophisticated investigation includes the analysis of the source of errors like L1 interference, over-generalization, inconsistencies in the spelling system of L2 etc., and the determination of the degree of disturbance caused by the error.

The object of EA is to describe the whole of the learner's linguistic system, and while comparing L1 and L2 point out the errors in their productions. That is why error analysis is a branch of comparative linguistic study. The crucial element in describing the learner's system is the correct interpretation of the learner's utterances. This is to be done by
Restructuring the correct utterances of L2, matching the erroneous utterances with its equivalents in the learner’s L1.

The most important influence of the studies of EA has been on the researches and studies in child language acquisition system. Some linguists insist that errors are caused by inadequate knowledge of the target language, where the learner is inclined to perform in L2 with many things he does not learn to do in the early stages. And as a consequence he has to make up with what he knows in order to do what he does not know. The conditions under which L2 is learnt are quite different from those of L1 learning. In L1 learning the learner is fully exposed to the mother-tongue, but in L2 situation the learner usually faces an artificial atmosphere, much different from that of L1. Above all, the important fact is that the L2 learner already passes through a language acquisition experience and as a consequence he tries to use his L1 acquisition strategies in internalizing the patterns of L2. This technique helps him as long as there is similarity between the two language systems, but as the dissimilarities emerge he faces a problem in transferring the L1 strategies to his L2 patterns. And here comes the role of the systematically organized Comparative, Analytical and EA studies.

References:-
6. Dr. Sampuranand, Speech reported in Daily Statesman, 28th March 1951, page number not given.