

https://dspace.org/

The syntactic language development of two groups of Indian boys during their first year at school

Ranchhod, Maganlal Mithal

2015
http://hdl.handle.net/10539/18114

Downloaded from a DSpace repository. https://dspace.org/

A research report submitted to the Faculty of Education
University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
Degree of Master of Education

Johannesburg 1984

THE SYNTACTIC LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT OF TWO GROUPS OF INDIAN BOYS DURING THEIR FIRST YEAR AT SCHOOL

TANCHHOD, Maganlal Mithal. M.Ed.University of the Witwatersrand

This research report deals with the effect different oral language teaching styles have on the growth of syntax of two groups of Indian boys who are just over six years old.The description of teaching styles is based on the analysis of transcriptions of actual lessons and on follow-up interviews.The February and December samples of oral language are analysed in terms of Crystal, Fletcher and Garman's (1976) LARSP Profile. The qualitative analysis is supported by frequencies of selected syntactic features reflected as percentages for comparative purposes. The trends observed strongly suggest that Teacher B's teaching style might be more effective than that of Teacher A. The study also reveals that certain constraints in lesson structure prevent the development of complex types of syntax and that both groups use several patterns of non-standard English. The implications of these findings and modifications to the LARSP Profile are discussed.

DECLARATION

I declare that this research report is my own, unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Master of Education in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University.

29 day of November, 1984.

To my loving wife

and our children

Maya , Jayshree , Jasvina , Vimal

PREFACE

In the formalized school situation language is not only an instrument for conveying and ordering knowledge, but also a tool for socializing the child.In addition language provides the [illegible] whereby cognitive development is stimulated.Because of [illegible] children from poorer homes , coming to school for the first time, are found to be at a linguistic disadvantage and generally do not fare well at school.In such circumstances schools are expected to provide support for these children and help to remedy the imbalance or disadvantage.All strategies chosen by the teachers or the school to help these children develop linguistically (and cognitively) are at best calculated guesses as very little research is available which can categorically indicate that certain teaching strategies are beneficial in specific ways.

This study attempts to describe the effect different teaching styles have on the syntax of children from poor socio-economic areas during their first year at school.

Acknowledgements and thanks

The realisation of this research project is the result of the support and cooperation of numerous individuals, and while it will not be possible to mention everyone by name I wish to emphasize that I appreciated the help of each one of them.

I wish to thank the children who took part in the study , and the few teachers who permitted me to examine their approaches to the teaching of oral language in such minute detail.I am greatly indebted to them for their friendliness, help and cooperation.

I wish to thank the Department of Internal Affairs - Indian Education for giving me permission to conduct this study.

I wish to thank Professor D.R. White, Dean of the Faculty of Education who supervised this study and who provided valuable support, guidance and encouragement.

I wish to thank Dr. C.A.M. Penn of the Department of Speech Pathology and Audiology, whose lectures on language development inspired this study, and who provided valuable advice on the LARSP Analysis.

I wish to thank Mrs Sharon Moonsamy of the Lenasia School for the Deaf who painstakingly checked the accuracy of the analysed language samples and who provided valuable advice.

I wish to thank Miss A Bhabha , Mr A. Nana, Mr [illegible] Padiachi ,
Mr I S Variawa and Mr E A B Williams who read various sections of the manuscript and gave valuable advice.

Finally I wish to thank the numerous other people I consulted from time to time and who helped in no small way to clear the obstacles encountered as the study progressed.

M.M. M.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

(a)	Abstract	ii
(b)	Declaration	iii
(c)	Dedication	iv
(d)	Preface	v
(e)	List of tables	ix
(f)	List of figures	xi
(g)	Appendices	xii
(h)	List of Composite [illegible]	xiii

CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION

1.1	Oral language teaching in Indian Schools - Junior Primary phase	1
1.2	The Indian community of Lenasia	6
1.3	The problem	7
1.4	The scope of this study	11
1.5	Definitions	12
1.6	The purpose of the study	13

CHAPTER TWO - REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1	Theories of language development	14
2.2	The development of language	21
2.3	The Theory of Generative Grammar	24
2.4	Syntactic description : Quirk's Grammar of Contemporary English (GCE)	27
2.5	Syntactic description according to Crystal and his associates	29
2.6	Educational research which could have a bearing on oral language teaching	34

CHAPTER THREE - THE LARSP PROFILE

3.1	Introduction	42
3.2	Stage I . One element sentences	43
3.3	Stage II : Two element sentences	44
3.4	Stage III : Three element sentences	45

3.5 Stage IV : Sentences of four elements or more 46
3.6 Stage V : Recursion 47
3.7 Stage VI : System completion 48
3.8 Stage VII : Discourse structure, syntactic comprehension and styie 49

CHAPTER FOUR - METHOD OI INVESTIGATION
4.1 Subject selection 52
4.2 Aim of the study 54
4.3 Research design 55
4.4 The equipment 56
4.5 Recording procedure and language sample. 58

CHAPTER FIVE - ANALYSIS OF LESSON DATA
5.1 Introduction 60
5.2 Features identified in the discussion lessons 61
5.3 Description of the Main Language lesson 67
5.4 Discussion of features observed in the discussion lesson 68
5.5 Summary of results 72

CHAPTER SIX - ANALYSIS OF PROFILES
6.1 The LARSP Profiles 74
6.2 The mean ages of the samples 74
6.3 The extent to which the two groups of pupils from Class A and Class B were equivalent in terms of the syntactic features reflected on the LARSP Profiles 79
6.4 Description and comparison of syntactic features reflected on the LARSP Profiles 80

CHAPTER SEVEN SUMMARY OF FINDINGS , DISCUSSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
7.1 Similarities and differences in the two samples 116
7.2 Suggestions and recommendations 123
7.3 Suitability of the LARSP Profile 126

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
1 (a)	Aspects of Quirk's Grammar of Contemporary English	28
1 (b)	Flanders's Interaction Analysis Categories(FIAC)	34
2	Ages of pupils used in the study	52
3	Pupil utterances in response to teacher stimuli	62
4	Grammatical errors made by the pupils in the recorded lessons	63
5	Frequency of teacher utterances	66
6	Frequency of clause items discussed in 6.4.2.1	82
7	Double adverb elements in clauses	82
8	Adverb elements in clauses	83
9	Phrase structures with low frequencies or which showed the effects of teaching	83
10	Frequency of coordinating connectives and their relative percentage usage	87
11	Frequency of subordinating connectives	87
12	Frequency of different types of clauses	88
13	Frequency of post modal clauses	90
14	Frequency of noun phrases : Initiators and coordination	90
15	Frequency of complex verbs	91
16	Types of complex verbs and their relative frequency	92
17	Frequency of passives	93
18	Connective errors	94
19	Analysis of subordinate connective errors	95
20	Frequency of clause elements omitted	96
21	Frequency of types of concord errors	98
22	Frequency of third person singular (3's) usage	98
23	Frequency of tense sequence errors	100
24	Frequency of determiner usage	101

TABLE		PAGE
23	Analysis of determiner errors	100
24	Frequency of preposition usage and errors	101
25	Frequency of pronoun usage	104
26	Frequency of other auxiliaries and auxiliary variants	107
27	Frequency of modal usage	108
28	Use of auxiliary 'did' to form the past tense	111
29	Frequency of the incorrect use of the preposition 'by'	112
30	Other stylistic features	113
31	Summary of quantitative data on the LAPSE profile	114
32	Trends observed for positive syntactic features	117
33	Summary of trends observed for positive features	118
34	Cumulative frequency of errors (Stage VI)	121
35	Trends observed for negative syntactic features	122
36	Summary of trends for negative syntactic features	123

		PAGE
	Levels of language structure	32
4	Diagram showing how the samples will be compared	56
5	Diagram of the research design	57

[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

LIST OF COMPOSITE LARSP PROFILES

1	Composite LARSP Profile	Class A	[illegible]
2	Composite LARSP Profile	Class A	[illegible]
3	Composite LARSP Profile	Class B	February 1981
4	Composite LARSP Profile	Class B	[illegible]

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Oral Language Teaching in Indian Schools - Junior Primary Phase

The syllabus(1980) issued most recently by the Department of Indian Affairs - Education Division[1] emphasizes the important role oral language plays in extending and enriching individual experiences. In support of this view the following passage is quoted from 'A Language for Life' (Bullock, 1975) :

> For language to play its full role as a means of learning the teacher must create in the classroom an environment which encourages a wide range of uses (Department of Indian Affairs -Education Division, 1980, P1).

The following issues taken from 'A Language for Life' are also highlighted:

(a) The need for the child to share his personal interest and learning discoveries with other children.

(b) The need for the teacher to enter into conversation with the children in the class without depriving them of verbal initiative.

(c) The need for pupils to solve the daily practical problems by means of discussion.

(d) The need for children to talk about the information presented by the teacher and to make sense of it

(e) The importance of motivating children by introducing them to 'new and stimulating experiences' across the curriculum so that they will want to use language creatively.

The syllabus then highlights the following two aspects of spoken language and suggests possible activities which can be used to develop them.

---

1. The Department of Indian Affairs - Education Division later became part of a larger department and was known as the Department of External Affairs - Indian Education.

(i) Oral communication
Developing the ability to express ideas clearly and accurately through :

Conversation
Planning, presenting, reporting, expressing opinions
Discussion
Announcements, messages, descriptions, directions , explanations
Group activities : stories, poetry, choral speaking, role playing , dramatization , puppetry.
Interpreting pictures, stories , music , art
Action chains i.e. describing activities in logical sequence

(ii) Social courtesies
Developing ease and graciousness in social situations such as:
Conversations
Introductions, greetings, invitations, requests, responses to congratulations received
Situations of regret, apology, appreciation
Telephone answering and conversations
(Department of Indian Affairs , 1980, P5).

The syllabus therefore emphasizes the need to facilitate oral expression and communication, firstly between pupils, and secondly between pupils and teachers, and to channel interest and enthusiasm to communicate in such a manner that language development takes place spontaneously and unobtrusively. This programme, therefore , has to be implemented bearing a multitude of variables in mind , which according to Bartlett and Hamilton (1977) , in the process of implementation undergoes modifications which are rarely trivial. Two teachers, working with the same syllabus or content, may vary their approaches to such and extent that in implementing the common syllabus , the changes they effect may be tantamount to following two different programmes. Hamilton (1975) in reporting on the integrated science curriculum at two Scottish schools found that the interpretation of the instructional system from two different settings transformed the said programme, so that it became in effect two different programmes.

Similarly , in translating the syllabus into a daily lesson programme one notices that there are several constraints which prevent the

teacher from realizing many of the objectives laid down in the syllabus. For example, the way in which the oral language lesson has been structured allows for teacher-centred discussions, and pupil - teacher conversation , but allows for very little pupil- pupil conversation. Similar lesson formats characterize the 'Main Language' period when reading is taught using the 'Breakthrough to Literacy' programme, which is a language - experience approach to the teaching of reading.

Briefly, the reading lesson is structured as follows:

(i) Pupils are grouped according to reading ability and are called out for reading instruction in groups consisting of five to ten pupils.

(ii) Core words from the scheme are introduced, their meanings are explained, and the children are then trained to recognize the words through flash-card drill. These words are then used in sentences by the pupils.

(iii) Once the pupils know a sufficient number of words children are trained to construct sentences using the word cards available to them. If necessary, the sentence is corrected by the teacher , read aloud by the pupil , and then recorded in the pupil's story book.

(iv) While one group is getting reading instruction from the teacher, the rest of the class is assigned non-verbal tasks such as recording the sentences constructed by them (if and when this is possible), drawing , completing puzzles, etc. Very little pupil-pupil discussion is permitted during this period.

The structure of the oral language lesson therefore seems to have inherent constraints which prevent pupil-pupil conversation from developing spontaneously during most lessons. The result is that the sharing of all language experience during teaching time takes place under the orchestration of the teacher in the form of class or group discussions.

The syllabus of 1980 emphasizes that the development of oral communication skills is one of the most important objectives for the Junior Primary Phase.This view is supported by the 1983 orientation notes (Lecture 4 and 5) which were prepared by the subject-advisers of the education department and presented at an orientation course to all Junior Primary teachers employed by the Department of Internal Affairs - Indian Education. One would therefore expect that in the day to day implementation of oral language programmes teachers would be encouraged to develop strategies which facilitate oral communication.However,the guidance given to teachers by principals ,subject advisers and heads of departments constantly remind teachers of the need to correct errors which occur in the spoken language of their pupils.Often the impression gained is that correct syntactic expression and pronunciation is as important as the communication of meaning (if not more important). That this view is encouraged by the officials of the education department is evident from the following extract taken from the notes of the 1983 orientation course which indicates how the marking of the register can be used to develop spoken language:

T Tony Naidoo.
P Tony isn't 'ere.
T Tony is not here,ma'am!Say it-
P Tony is not 'ere ma'am.
T h h h here.
P Here.
T Tony is not here,ma'am.
P Tony is not here,ma'am.
T Good.Does anyone know why Tony is away?
P Ma'am!ma'am!Tony ma'am:Tony fell ma'am yesterday ma'am and he cut his foot ma am.
T Oh dear ! I am sorry to hear that.Now let's get your answer right.Can anyone help?.....and so on.

> Slowly, slowly, the 'h' will start to come right; the repetition of 'ma'am' and 'sir' will stop; the grammar will improve; the vocabulary will increase - but it takes time and patience and every opportunity must be used - even the calling of the register! (Department of Internal Affairs - Indian Education, 1983, P2).

The frequency with which the above-mentioned approach is implemented could have adverse implications for children who 'can't speak properly' as it would inhibit their spontaneous speech. The syllabus (1980, P5) mentions that corrections should be done judiciously so as not to inhibit the pupil .

According to Crystal, Fletcher and Garman (1976) an important feature of conversation is the correct use of ellipses e.g.

T: Who cut off Rapunzel's hair ?
P: The witch .

Elliptic utterances make oral expression economical and help highlight the important and relevant information sought. The information omitted by the pupil is contained in the stimulus question and can be recovered if needed. The orientation course notes (1983) emphasize that after each reading lesson the children should be asked questions on what they have read, and 'Every answer should be given in a full sentence' (Department of Internal Affffairs , 1983,P1_7.While it is natural to expect questions to be answered in full sentences in written form, this should not be required when answering questions orally as it robs the lesson of its spontaneity, as the child , by answering orally in a full sentence, is repeating what is after all obvious to the listener who has heard the stimulus question.

The preceding discussion can be summarized in the following way:
(a) The Department of Internal Affairs-Indian Education through its syllabus highlights the importance of fostering oral language development amongst Indian children.
(b) In implementing the major suggestions made in the syllabus the oral language teaching programme seems to have undergone changes which are 'rarely trivial' (Parlett and Hamilton , 1972),

> Slowly, slowly, the 'h' will start to come right; the repetition of 'ma'am' and 'sir' will stop; the grammar will improve; the vocabulary will increase - but it takes time and patience and every opportunity must be used - even the calling of the register! (Department of Internal Affairs - Indian Education, 1983, P2).

The frequency with which the above-mentioned approach is implemented could have adverse implications for children who 'can't speak properly' as it would inhibit their spontaneous speech. The syllabus (1980, P5) mentions that corrections should be done judiciously so as not to inhibit the pupil .

According to Crystal, Fletcher and Garman (1976) an important feature or conversation is the correct use of ellipses e.g.

T: Who cut off Rapunzel's hair ?
P: The witch .

Elliptic utterances make oral expression economical and help highlight the important and relevant information sought. The information omitted by the pupil is contained in the stimulus question and can be recovered if needed. The orientation course notes (1983) emphasize that after each reading lesson the children should be asked questions on what they have read, and 'Every answer should be given in a full sentence' (Department of Internal Afffairs , 1983,P16).While it is natural to expect questions to be answered in full sentences in written form, this should not be required when answering questions orally as it robs the lesson of its spontaneity, as the child , by answering orally in a full sentence, is repeating what is after all obvious to the listener who has heard the stimulus question.

The preceding discussion can be summarized in the following way:
(a) The Department of Internal Affairs- Indian Education through its syllabus highlights the importance of fostering oral language development amongst Indian children.
(b) In implementing the major suggestions made in the syllabus the oral language teaching programme seems to have undergone changes which are 'rarely trivial' (Parlett and Hamilton , 1972),

and these changes may be preventing teachers from accomplishing some of the major tasks outlined in the syllabus under the heading "oral communication".

There therefore seems to be a need to describe the oral language teaching styles of different teachers and to examine the different effects such teaching style variations have on different pupils.

1.7 The Indian Community of Lenasia

The Indian population of the Republic of South Africa is about 850 000 (Department of Internal Affairs -1982 to 1983, Annual Report). According to the Official Year Book of the Department of Foreign Affairs (1982) this is about three percent of the total population of the country.The Transvaal has 111 135 Asians of whom 53 135 reside in Johannesburg with the majority living in Lenasia (a suburb of Johannesburg).

Indians first started moving to Lenasia in 1956 because of the acute housing shortage for Indians in central Johannesburg and because state legislation such as the Group Areas Act prevented them from living in other suburbs of the city.

The first Indian school , the Lenasia High School was established in 1955 , while the first primary school opened a year later.Since then the number of schools has increased rapidly .In 1984 there were six secondary schools , fifteen primary schools, one school for the deaf , and one training centre for the mentally retarded.The total school population for the area is 14 000 of which 9 555 pupils are in the primary schools (Department of Internal Affairs - Indian Education , 1984).

Van Rensburg (1981, P194), who used the father's occupation as an indicator of socio-economic status , found that 61 percent of the children in primary schools in Lenasia came from high socio-economic status homes,while only 39 came from low socio-economic status homes. However,he also observed that there were distinct socio-economic

living areas within Lenasia,and the school where the present study was conducted(referred to as school E in Van Rensburg's study)had 71% of its pupils coming from low socio-economic status homes.

Bugwan(1970) found that the majority of Indians used English as their mother tongue and used various Indian vernaculars for formal religious occasions and for speaking to elders in the community.In Lenasia Van Rensburg(1981) found that English was the adopted language of 84% of the population,but that 75% of the homes also had a second language. Some of the languages Indians used as second languages in their homes were:-

(a)	Telegu	0,1%
(b)	Tamil	10,1%
(c)	English	13%
(d)	Hindi	4,7%
(e)	Moslem-Gujerati	23,8%
(f)	Urdu	5,8%
(f)	Afrikaans	17,8%
	TOTAL	75,3%

(Van Rensburg 1981,p196).

As regards item (c) it would seem that Van Rensburg included all the Moslem dialects such as 'Memon','Cockney',etc. together with Gujerati and classified them as Moslem-Gujerati.The above figures reveal that in terms of language background the Indian community is extremely heterogeneous and the majority (75%) of them speak a second language in their homes. The quality of spoken English in the homes of most Indians is therefore likely to be influenced by the second language used.

1.3 The Problem

Oral language teaching is a highly complex activity and no two teachers teach the same topic in exactly the same way.Factors which might affect the structure of the lesson,the organization of the material,the selection of the content,the order of presentation,and the emphasis on specific aspects are the following:-

(a) Different theoretical orientations of teachers

The acquisition of the linguistic skill necessary for educational success is a complex and intricate process which is not only dependent on the genetically based language acquisition device (Lenneberg 1967, Chomsky 1964),but also on sociolinguistic experience derived from ones culture.This linguistic experience helps one to focus on particular aspects of experience and to organize that experience into a world view. The result is that although children might have the same biological potential to acquire sophisticated and elaborate linguistic skills the paucity of skill in translating the experience into language or organizing the linguistic experience could have a restrictive effect,or alternately could lead to the development of different linguistic structures or dialects.

The view that children's language is deficient in some way , or is so different from the received language at school that it is as if it were deficient and acting as a barrier to successful learning and teaching,is a common one and Bernsteins work (1971,1973) has often been quoted in support of both the language different and the language deficit viewpoints.

(i) The language deficit version of the theory implies that the child fails at school because he does not have enough language - the areas of deficiency being sounds,words,constructions and meanings.Halliday(1973) states that it is unlikely that the deficiency is related to the area of sound,and there is no convincing evidence that failure at school is the result of children having a smaller vocabulary or less rich grammatical system.He states that it may well be that 'one individual extends his potential more by enlarging his grammatical resources while another...does so by building up a larger vocabulary...and different varieties of language tend to exploit these resources differently '(M.A.K.Halliday,1973,p xii).In addition to the above there are so many problems in counting and deciding what has been said , or

whether the two things said are the same or different , that it becomes difficult to assess linguistic resources in qualitative terms.In addition such information says very little about one's linguistic potential and there is no way of saying that one child has a smaller linguistic inventory than another. Finally such information can never help to answer questions such as the following : If there is a deficit , is it that the child does not have enough language or is it that he does not know how to use what he has? , and is the presumed deficit individual or sub-cultural ? Work by Labov (1970) exposed the fallacy of this view when he demonstrated that the non-standard English of Negroes was as complex as that of any Standard English speaker.

When oral language teaching styles reject the dialect of a child , lessons are presented so as to compensate for deficits, and such teaching experiences could have extremely harmful effects on language development. Lessons based on deficit theory will contain varying degrees of corrections of pronunciation errors , numerous corrections of syntactic errors , and the repetition of pattern sentences,so that the message content of a child's utterance is often ignored or relegated to a level of virtual insignificance.Such experiences are likely to harm the child's self-esteem and he might withdraw from active participation in the oral language lesson as he will be afraid of making grammatical mistakes , and fear the subtle humiliation which goes parallel with being constantly corrected for not speaking 'properly' like the others.

(ii) The Language Difference Approach to the Teaching of Oral Language

The difference version of the theory states that there are some children whose language is different from that of others.According to Halliday (1973) , in this instance, the child speaking a dialect may be at a disadvantage because in certain instances the standard version is demanded. Such children are penalized because of the social prejudice of the dominant group. Frederick Williams (1972) , who examined the stereotyping hypothesis based on language divergence, found that a teacher's expectation of a pupil's performance decreased as the child's dialect increased in

[illegible]ergen[illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] suggested that children acted [illegible] their stereotypes. Many assumptions [illegible] the difference theory are therefore justified because of the hidden application of the self - [illegible]lfilling prophecy which has played [illegible] [illegible]ificant role in educational [illegible]ure.

[illegible] [illegible] deal of evidence to show that children can learn several dialects without any ill effects e.g. Fishman and Luerder-Salmon's study of Swaaben children (1972) and [illegible] the observation by Jill Richards [illegible]78) that only urban dialect speakers fare badly at school, while [illegible] dialect speakers, who show even greater linguistic divergence do not.

[illegible] factor [illegible] these studies seems to be that both Swaaben children and rural children are not made to feel inferior because they [illegible] a different dialect, in fact, their dialects are give[illegible] equal status [illegible] the standard dialect of the country.

[illegible] therefore be safe to hypothesize that whenever oral language [illegible] style show acceptance of the dialects of different children [illegible] communicative competence, such children will show greater [illegible]guistic growth. They will be inclined to speak more freely, for their [illegible] [illegible] be threatened although they are speaking a different [illegible]lect. Indian children generally do speak a dialect of English which is [illegible] some respects different from standard English. Acceptance of their dialect would encourage them to speak freely and confidently and [illegible] gradually come to use the various syntactic structures of the language [illegible] they search for ways to express their ideas. Therefore the [illegible]ance of dialectical differences could prevent the alienation [illegible] dialect speakers and these children could develop a more positive [illegible]titude [illegible] interaction in the classroom. Not only would these children contribute their fair share to the development of the lesson, but they would view learning and the school culture in a more favourable light. [illegible] would still have to become aware of how their dialect differs from [illegible] standard dialect and the dialect used in books, and of the need to [illegible] the standard dialect under certain circumstances, but they would be [illegible]pared the trauma that goes with the realization that their home [illegible] unacceptable.

(b)Teachers with the same theoretical orientations may still have variations in their teaching style.This is so because approaches to teaching are based on what has been found successful by the teacher in the past, his 'world view' of the teaching situation, and the nature of aids and material available and approved by the school. Therefore one teacher who believes her pupils have language deficits might do a great deal of drilling of pattern sentences , while another might emphasize the correction of the pupil's own errors. However the psychological effect would be the same because of the inherent criticism in any approach to the teaching of language.

1.4 The Scope of this Study

The preceding discussion suggests that while the Junior Primary Syllabus (1980) highlights the importance of developing the oral communication skills of children from the time they come to school for the first time, this objective comes into conflict with the need to develop correct grammatical structures , and the formal sentence structure characteristic of written language.Developing communicative competence entails accepting the view that many Indian children in Lenasia speak a dialect of English which has differences in comparison to Standard English which can quite easily be ignored if the message is understood. Developing the correct use of grammatical structures and vocabulary items involves spotting faulty usage and encouraging children to develop the correct forms by means of regular corrections and drill-type exercises. Sometimes in such lessons , the message of the utterance is relegated to a level of virtual insignificance while the teacher tries to encourage the child to use the correct grammatical structure.

In terms of the guidance given to teachers , and the manner in which the correction of errors highlighted, many teachers would strive to correct as many errors as possible, or even prevent them from occurring.The extent to which teachers use strategies to remedy or prevent grammatical errors, in relation to the strategies used to facilitate communication, will reflect the particular oral language teaching styles of such teachers.

1.5 Definitions

The following terms are defined for the purpose of this study:

(a) Language is defined as the system relating sound and meaning (Flekser, 1979 , P 1).The symbols of this system must be systematically related to one another and must be capable of portraying novel utterances.

(b) Syntax , an aspec. of language structure,has be. ined as 'the network of organizational principles underlying linguis . expression, without which language would become an incoherent jumble of vocabulary and sound'(Crystal, Fletcher and Garman ,1976 ,P5).

(c) The Language Assessment, Remediation , and Screening Procedure (called the LARSP Profile) is an instrument which was prepared by Crystal , Fletcher and Garman (1976) , and is used extensively to gauge the level of language disability of people suffering from speech impediments or disorders such as aphasia,mental retardation,deafness,etc. The profile provides a description of an individual's syntactic development in terms of the variety of sentence types,clauses,phrases and words used, that is , it provides a complete description of all aspects of syntax. Furthermore , these different aspects are organized into stages which are hierarchically structured and related to age norms so that one can readily gauge whether a child's syntax is delayed or not.

(4) Class One is the first year of the Junior Primary Phase.Grade One is the equivalent class in the Transvaal Education Department.

(5) Teaching Style is an aspect of the teaching strategies used in a lesson.Turner distinguishes between lesson structure and teaching style in the following way:

> To assert that certain operations must be performed in order for teaching to occur, and to assert that the performance of certain operations increases the probability that teaching will eventuate

> in learning, is to make assertions about the structure of teaching, but to make assertions about how variation in performance of operations bears on the learning outcomes ,is to make a statement about teaching style .
> (Turner,1971,P11-12).

One therefore notes that all lesson structures comprise an organized sequence of teaching strategies (called operations by Turner).The extent to which these teaching strategies differ from one teacher to the next is a reflection of the teaching style of that teacher.

1.6 The Purpose of the Study

The objectives of this study are as follows:

(a) To analyse the oral language lessons of two Class One teachers who have been selected for the study and to describe the structures of their oral language lessons and their individual teaching styles.

(b) To describe the changes in syntactic language development of Indian boys after they have been taught for 10 months by the two teachers selected for the project.This will be done as follows:

(i) By describing the levels of syntactic development of these boys on admission to school for the first time.

(ii) By describing the levels of syntactic development of these boys at the end of their first year at school.

(iii) By comparing the syntactic development of the boys after they have been taught for a year by two teachers who have different oral language teaching styles.

(c) To determine the extent to which the LARSP Profile Chart of Crystal, Fletcher and Garman (1976) can be used to gauge the growth in syntactic development of Indian boys in their first year at school.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The following headings will be used when discussing the related literature:

(a) Theories of language development
(b) Syntactic development
(c) Research on education

2.1 Theories of Language Development

The field of language development is extremely wide.No single theory has been able to explain all the facets of growth and development which take place as a person acquires and strengthens his language skills from birth through to adulthood.Elliot(1981,P3) observes that 'In the last 20 years work in the subject has grown explosively'. This interest in language development is the result of the increasing awareness of educationists , and others, of the importance of language to the growth of human potential. De Villiers (1979 , P2) states that language ' is a reflection of what the child knows.... It increases , or at least refines that knowledge. Language provides a window on the child's mental abilities'.

2.1.1 The work of Piaget

Piaget's work on the cognitive development of children also reflected his views on the development of language.Piaget(Sprinthall and Sprinthall,1977) believed that cognitive development preceded language development and that language was the label for the mental image the person had in his mind.According to Vygotsky (1962,P20) the sequence of development started with non-verbal autistic thought , then went to egocentric

thought and speech,and finally developed into socialized speech and logical thinking.In terms of Piaget's views , the higher the level of the person's cognitive development , the greater would be the person's potential to acquire the higher order language processes , but language development would always be limited by a person's cognitive development. In terms of Piaget's theory of cognitive development , children in the concrete operations stage would have language concepts related to their level of mental development and would not be able to comprehend the abstractions characteristic of the adolescent in the formal operations stage. Piaget however accepted that all language concepts related to the appropriate stage of development could only be acquired through suitable environmental stimulation and interaction.

According to Elliot (1981), for Piaget speech reflected the child's own point of view, and the young child at the pre-operations stage displayed egocentric speech , that is,speech directed at anyone within hearing distance with no effort being made to take into account the knowledge or specific interest of the listener, as he was often not aware of another person's point of view.

Two important features of language development were highlighted by Piaget's work.Firstly,he emphasized that language reflected thought and did not shape it.In terms of his theory the child demonstrated cognitive insight by demonstrating a practical skill such as conservation of quantity when he showed that five apples on a saucer were equal in quantity to five apples placed on five desks (i.e. five desks with one apple on each desk).Demonstrating cognitive understanding made the child an 'intuitive conserver'. The child became a conserver proper' after he could explain the phenomena and justify his answers. In Piagetian terms this was the process of conscious understanding.

Piaget's second contribution was to emphasize that a child gradually developed into a mature social being from a stage of being imperfectly socialized , and his language had to keep pace with this development .

According to Elliot (1981) Piaget has been criticized because his interest was restricted to the universals of language and he had little

to say about the development of specific features of language.

2.1.2 Vygotsky

According to Pflaum (1974) Vygotsky's view is diametrically opposite to that of Piaget.Vygotsky (1962) believed that dialogue between an adult and a child was the major factor in stimulating language development and cognitive growth.Such linguistic stimulation continued to facilitate growth in language and cognitive structures , and progressively development took place which eventually resulted in the acquisition of mature concepts which were expressed in qualitative terms and organized independently. For Vygotsky language was first social , it then became egocentric , and finally it was internalized to reflect the inner speech of thought.

For Vygotsky, therefore , the environment , which included the linguistic culture of a community, was a major facilitating factor for language and cognitive growth.

2.1.3 Biological factors in the Acquisition of Language

Brown (1973) and Lenneberg (1967) believe that the ability to learn a language is unique to human beings. Lenneberg (1967) after numerous surveys, found consistent, regular and fixed developmental patterns of language acquisition in all normal children occurring at the same time and in the same sequence , irrespective of language or cultural environment.He reported that the unfolding of language milestones paralleled milestones in motor development and concluded therefore that language was genetically based and maturational in nature.He also emphasized that the critical period for language acquisition was between 18 months and puberty.He believed that if a person did not develop language by puberty, the left hemisphere, which controlled language acquisition took on other functions , and language acquisition after that became difficult if not impossible. Lenneberg based this claim on the observation that brain damage to the left hemisphere of adults led to aphasia in 70% of the cases, while in children below 18 months the same effects were observed irrespective of the

hemisphere which was damaged.Lenneberg believed that children made sense of language according to their level of maturity, that is,they formed rules to account for their language input.Increasing maturity led to the processing of increasingly more complex inputs and this led to the rule system being modified accordingly.The child's speech then reflected the new rules and the increased understanding of the new syntactical forms.

2.1.4 Jerome S. Bruner.

Through his studies on cognitive development and thought Bruner (1980 , 1983) concluded that before language could play a role in cognitive development the child had to have a sufficient number of developmental activities and experiences. He stated(1983 , P 163-164) that babies did not talk sooner , not only because of lack of performance capabilities, but also because they did not know enough of the world- its people and themselves - to appreciate how the rules of language were to be used.

Although he accepted the existence of an innate mechanism for the acquisition of language , (Chomsky's Language Acquisition Device - later abbreviated as LAD), he felt that the Chomskyan account had failed because it did not explain how the LAD was activated by a knowledge of the world into a need to communicate.He therefore stated that for the LAD to work it needed a LASS - A Language Acquisition Support System which organized encounters with the outside world and the culture as depicted in language , so that an infant LAD could recognize it. Bruner stated 'You don't acquire a language abstractly. You learn how to use it.You use it to communicate, to put order into events , to construct reality'(Bruner 1983, P164).Language acquisition started off in the young child with an awareness of the need to communicate meaning as depicted in an action which portrayed 'who' did 'what' to ' whom'. The child had to choose a suitable linguistic means to attract and direct attention to crucial information in the world so that the listener could grasp the intention of the child. Language developed because the child and the adult focussed visually

on a common referent.They then achieved joint reference by linking a sound or a gesture to the object they were jointly attending to.This ability to achieve common visual reference , which occurred as early as at the age of four months, and which was well developed at the age of one year , was proof of the child's consciousness of other people in the world around him.He also stated that a child could use the change in the pitch of a parent's voice to gauge that the mother's attention had shifted, and he would then look back at the mother , determine where she was looking, and then re-focus on the new common referent. This suggested that tne child was cued to a need to establish common references which were essential to acquiring common experiences about which he could then communicate by means of language. Once joint reference was achieved,the experience was labelled by means of a subtle,almost unconscious form of tutoring from the mother. This,according to Bruner,involved the establishment of <u>formats</u>.

> 'A format is a little microcosm, a task, in which the mother and the child share an intention to get something done with words.At the start, what the child cannot do in the format, his mother does for him.Once he can , she requires him to do it thereafter.' (Bruner , 1983 , P121).

As the child mastered certain linguistic skills,these competencies were incorporated into the competencies already developed.The mother then raised the criterion she expected in the child's language response.In this way minimum expected responses progressed from 'babbling' to non-standard 'labels' to 'shorter names' and then finally to the standard label.

According to Bruner (1983, P172) 'formats' were little pieces of culture which enabled the child to enter his language and culture simultaneously, and he concluded that 'the need to use language fully as an instrument for participating in a complex culture' , in the same way that an infant used it to enter the simple culture of his environment, was what provided 'the engine for language acquisition' (Bruner , 1983, P173).

Bruner's views are therefore similar to those of Vygotsky in that both emphasize that culture (as represented by language) stimulates cognitive development and that once language is systematically organized children can solve problems by translating them into language. Language therefore becomes a tool through which a child achieves ever increasing consciousness of the world as he takes advantage of the assistance others render to help organize his thought processes until such time that he can do so on his own.

One therefore notes that Bruner did not accept Piaget's view that cognitive development governed the level of language acquisition. Instead, he believed that the child's linguistic culture stimulated the Language Acquisition Device into acquiring the language of his culture.

2.1.5 The Behaviourist Theory of Language Acquisition

Skinner believed that crucial to all verbal behaviour was the interaction which occurred between a speaker and a listener. He felt that 'we can account for the dynamic characteristics of verbal behaviour within a framework appropriate to human behaviour as a whole' (Skinner, 1957, P10). An important aspect of all verbal behaviour was the behaviour of the listener, as both speakers and listeners were responsible for influencing and modifying one another's verbal behaviour. He therefore defined verbal behaviour as 'behaviour reinforced through the mediation of other persons' (Skinner, 1957, P14). His theory of learning had the following two basic concepts:

(a) The operant. To Skinner all activities which operated on the environment were classified 'operant behaviour' and any unit of such behaviour was called 'an operant'. The term 'operant' was therefore concerned with the prediction and control of a kind of behaviour and it specified the effects it might have on the environment if it was used by the speaker. A repertoire, as a collection of verbal operants, described the potential of the speaker.

(b) Reinforcement. Reinforcement was caused by the stimulus which followed the occurrence of a verbal operant.This stimulus could be pleasant enough to provide positive reinforcement which increased the chances of an operant recurring , or unpleasant to provide negative reinforcement which decreased the chances of an operant recurring. Initially when the child was learning to talk, the formal conditions upon which reinforcement were contingent were greatly relaxed.Reponses which vaguely resembled the required behaviour were reinforced.When these occurred regularly only closer approximations were reinforced.In this way the approximations were progressively refined until the acceptable verbal behaviour of a particular community was achieved. This method of 'progressive approximation' was often referred to as 'shaping' in learning theory.Selective reinforcement of sound therefore eventually enabled the child to acquire the sound system of his culture and these could be used to form words with which he could convey meaning.In his book Skinner (1957) referred to specific meaning conveying devices such as the 'autoclitic frame'. 'The term autoclitic is intended to suggest behaviour which is based upon or depends upon other verbal behaviour ' (Skinner , 1957, P315) . In the sentence 'I see that it is going to rain' , the phrase 'I see that' is an autoclitic description which informed the listener of the type of operant that was to follow.Sprinthall and Sprinthall(1977 , P158) referred to an autoclitic frame as 'a partial sentence ... which permits children to expand their ability to talk by a process of generalization'. Examples of such autoclitic frames are 'I deny that ...' , 'I am happy to say ...' 'In my opinion...'

Skinner (1957) explained in great detail how a child grew up to acquire all or most of the verbal behaviour which was part of the culture in which he was born.According to Sprinthall and Sprinthall (1977) what he failed to explain was how a child acquired the skill to use a language creatively to generate novel utterances.Skinner (1978) did not accept this criticism as being valid and maintained that his work had not been fully understood.He felt that speakers manipulated their verbal behaviour in order to qualify and control the responses of their listeners so that 'a technology of verbal self management emerges

(b) Reinforcement. Reinforcement was caused by the stimulus which followed the occurrence of a verbal operant.This stimulus could be pleasant enough to provide positive reinforcement which increased the chances of an operant recurring , or unpleasant to provide negative reinforcement which decreased the chances of an operant recurring. Initially when the child was learning to talk, the formal conditions upon which reinforcement were contingent were greatly relaxed.Reponses which vaguely resembled the required behaviour were reinforced.When these occurred regularly only closer approximations were reinforced.In this way the approximations were progressively refined until the acceptable verbal behaviour of a particular community was achieved. This method of 'progressive approximation' was often referred to as 'shaping' in learning theory.Selective reinforcement of sound therefore eventually enabled the child to acquire the sound system of his culture and these could be used to form words with which he could convey meaning.In his book Skinner (1957) referred to specific meaning conveying devices such as the 'autoclitic frame'. 'The term autoclitic is intended to suggest behaviour which is based upon or depends upon other verbal behaviour ' (Skinner , 1957, P315) . In the sentence 'I see that it is going to rain' , the phrase 'I see that' is an autoclitic description which informed the listener of the type of operant that was to follow.Sprinthall and Sprinthall(1977 , P158) referred to an autoclitic frame as 'a partial sentence ... which permits children to expand their ability to talk by a process of generalization'. Examples of such autoclitic frames are 'I deny that ...' , 'I am happy to say ...' In my opinion...'

Skinner (1957) explained in great detail how a child grew up to acquire all or most of the verbal behaviour which was part of the culture in which he was born.According to Sprinthall and Sprinthall (1977) what he failed to explain was how a child acquired the skill to use a language creatively to generate novel utterances.Skinner (1978) did not accept this criticism as being valid and maintained that his work had not been fully understood.He felt that speakers manipulated their verbal behaviour in order to qualify and control the responses of their listeners so that 'a technology of verbal self management emerges

[illegible] useful [illegible] discovering what one has to say and in [illegible]tricting the range of controlling variables emphasizing for [illegible]mple . the kinds of variables (characteristic of logic [illegible]ience) most likely to lead to effective practical action [illegible]he kinds found to be more productive of poetry or fiction.' [illegible] 1978 . [illegible]

[illegible] development of language

[illegible] babbling of a young infant gradually developed into [illegible] sounds [illegible] identified three stages in this process.These were:

[illegible] child built up a repertoire of early vocalizations which [illegible]eemed to resemble the sounds of adult speech.
[illegible] he child built up phonemic control over the sounds of his [illegible]anguage.
[illegible] the child displayed knowledge of the phonological rules of the language and used it to differentiate between acceptable [illegible] unacceptable utterances in the language.

[illegible] the child had mastered the sound system of his language he was [illegible]ady [illegible] start using the syntax of the language to express meaning. [illegible] emphasized that in the beginning , language acquisition [illegible] to be unfolding according to the grammatically accepted [illegible] according to the semantic relations the child [illegible] his environment. He identified five aspects of sentence [illegible] which corresponded to the five stages described in his work. [illegible] aspects of sentence structure were :

[illegible] Semantic roles such as agent,patient,instrument,locative, etc., in simple sentences expressed by linear order, syntactic relations, prepositions or postpositions.
i) Semantic modulations such as number, specificity, tense , aspect,mood, etc., expressed by inflections or free forms belonging to small closed classes.
ii) Modalities of sentences: Yes-no interrogation , request for specification of a constituent, negation, imperative.
iv) Embedding of one simple sentence as a grammatical constituent or in a sematic role in another including all the roles of (i), all the constituents which one may ask to be specified in (iii).

(v) Coordination of full sentences or of partially identical and partially distinct (but structurally matched) sentences with deletion of one representation of the identical stretches. The coordinated sentences appear with connector words that approximate in meaning to relations of prepositional logic.

I suggest that these five processes constitute the core of English sentence construction and, with some allowance for variation in in syntax and meaning, of language generally (Brown , 1973, P32).

Brown differentiated his stages on the basis of the Mean Length of Utter nce (MLU) which was calculated on the basis of morpheme count. A morpheme could consist of a root word such as 'walk', though many words had more than one morpheme. For example the word 'walks' had two morphemes (walk + s). The utterance 'I walk' had a morpheme count of two while 'I walked' had a morpheme count of three (I + walk+ed)

The five stages identified by Brown (1973) had the following Mean Length of Utterance (MLU)

Stage	Mean Length of Utterance
I	1.75 morphemes
II	2,25 morphemes
III	2,75 morphemes
IV	3 50 morphemes
V	4,00 morphemes

Brown emphasized that his stages were arbitrary. The stage prior to Stage I consisted of single morpheme utterances such as content words where meaning was contextually based. Stage I commenced as soon as the morpheme count rose above one.

2.2.1 Syntactic Development

Whether language is the result of cognitive development, the result of a biological unfolding of a language acquisition device , an instrument for cognitive development , or , the result of operant conditioning, is debatable. What we do know is that societies have developed languages of their own which are vehicles for expressing meaning and

communication.The linguistic vehicle which conveys this meaning is the syntax of a particular language.According to Atkinson , Kilby and Roca (1982 , P145) syntax has the following features:

(a) It organized the meaningful elements of a sentence.
(b) Morphemes , which were the basic units of meaning in a language and which comprised root words , prefixes and suffixes , were part of syntax , although they preferred using words as the minimum units for syntactic analysis.
(c) The upper limit of syntax was the sentence.

Atkinson and his associates emphasized that syntax was the means whereby the abstract deep structure meaning was systematically given expression through the linguistic sound system in order to facilitate communication between members of that group .The indispensability of syntax to linguistic theory was highlighted by the fact that it was central to any description of language. Diagrammatically this was represented as follows :

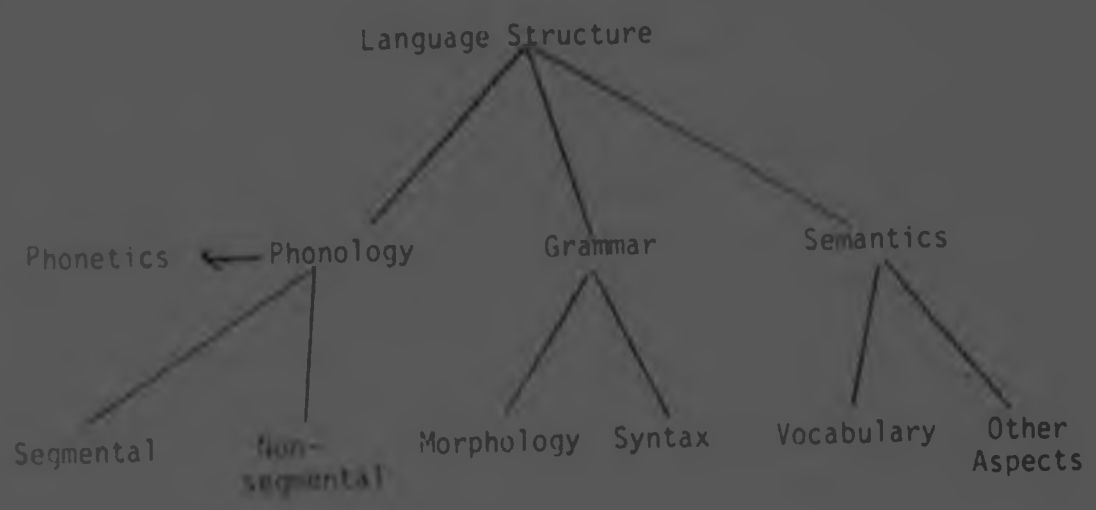


FIGURE 1 : LEVELS OF LANGUAGE STRUCTURE
(From Penn , 1983 , P. 9)

As can be seen from the above diagram , the following were the three most commonly recognized levels of linguistic organization :

(a) Phonology
(b) Grammar - the structure of which included syntax
(c) Semantics - the lexical or meaning level

In using the term 'grammar' Penn (1983 ,P10) distinguished between the following two levels of meaning:

(a) Theoretical grammar which went ' beyond the study of individual languages , using the language data as a means of developing theoretical insights into the nature of linguistic enquiry in general'.
(b) Descriptive grammar which was a systematic description of a specific language such as English.

2.3 The Theory of Generative Grammar (Ten.)

Penn (1983)stated that the Theory of Generative Grammar by Chomsky was the best example of theoretical grammar.

In his writing , Chomsky (1964 ,1968, 1975) constantly referred to the innate mental faculties which made language acquisition possible.This Language Acquisition Device (LAD) he maintained was unique to people and he stated (1975 , P12 - 13) that it provided a sensory system used to analyse preliminary linguistic data through a 'schematism' that embodied the 'Universal Grammar' - a grammar that had the basic conditions necessary to satisfy the grammars of all possible languages. According to Chomsky,a child was not grammatically disposed to acquire any particular language, but because of the culture he was born in, the LAD accepted the linguistic data available in his environment and produced as output the generative grammar of his community (Chomsky , .968 ,P113).This learning of the language of his community occurred intuitively without conscious effort or motivation (Chomsky ,1975 ,P70-71).

Chomsky (1964,P9) referred to grammar as a device which specified the infinite set of well formed sentences of a language.This grammar

assigned to each sentence one or more structural descriptions.In order to distinguish this device from descriptive statements of grammar, which comprised an inventory of elements, Chomsky called it a 'generative grammar'. He stated that the generative grammar embodied a central syntactic component to which a phonological component and semantic component was attached.The generative grammar was the device which paired the phonological signals with semantic interpretations by means of abstract structures generated by the syntactic component , and the syntactic component provided for each sentence a semantically interpretable 'deep structure' - the meaning or abstract idea underlying a sentence - and a phonically interpretable 'surface structure', the verbal syntactic form which was the transformation of the deep structure.

Chomsky, through his theory , explained how linguistic competence was acquired, thus , how knowledge about the structure of a language was acquired by a native speaker so that he could speak and understand it The theory suggested that if one knew a language one could use its small set of finite rules to create a limitless number of meaningful sentences, and this was referred to as the concept of infinite generativity.Having acquired this concept,a person was not only able to understand all nove' sentences,but he was also able to distinguish between grammatical sentences and ungrammatical ones.

Penn(1983)stated that the underlying set of rules of the language was called 'language competence', and language competence was what made language performance possible. 'Language performance' referred to how a person actually used his language in a social setting and this was only possible because the inherent competence embodied in the LAD had been actualized.

The system of rules underlying the Theory of Generative Grammar had three components.These were.

> (a) The syntactic component which was the 'central device in the the grammar (and which) generated the sentences of the language' (Penn, 1983, P11).

(b) This in turn gave rise to an 'abstract phrase marker' which represented the deep structure of the language.
(c) A 'derived phrase marker' which represented the surface structure and was the realm of the spoken word.

It was the syntactic structure which enabled the surface structure to express deep structure meanings through the selection of appropriate verbal phrase markers.

Recently several concepts contained in Chomsky's model have been criticized on the basis of theoretical as well as language experiments (Penn, 1983, P11).According to her there were few aspects of the theory which were not controversial and the concept of competence was too restrictive.Many performance features which Chomsky found 'grammatically irrelevant. such as attention, memory , prior beliefs , communicative intentions etc. have been shown in ensuing research to be rule governed and based on universal principles (Penn, 1983, P 11-12).

Elliot (1981) felt that the concept of competence should also have included communicative competence as the rules governing the latter were different from the rules which indicated that sentences were grammatically correct.She felt that competence should include 'at least the control of basic features such as deictic reference, pronouns of address and speech acts' (Elliot,1981, P14).The deictic aspects of a language were those aspects which themselves depended on the situation of an utterance for their interpretation, that is , they were context dependent.For example, the meaning of words such as 'it' , 'there', 'they', 'bring' etc.only become apparent in the context in which they occur.

According to Crystal, Fletcher and Garman (1976), although many researchers had used the theory of generative grammar, the most important studies revealed that its salient differentiating features were precisely those which could not be easily described in terms of Chomsky's concepts.They state that a renewed interest in basic linguistic features might be more valuable for the assessment of language development in

children.They feel that while Chomsky's theory might be relevant when studying linguistic features in adults , they believe that the notion, 'its formalization in transformational terms, and the more powerful notion of innate structure, which is usually associated with ', is extremely difficult to work with in young children' (Crystal ,Fletcher and Garman, 1976 , P35).

Because of all these criticisms of the Theory of Generative Grammar , language development models which are based on actual behaviour, are becoming increasingly popular.

2.4 Syntactic Description : Quirk's Grammar of Contemporary English(GCE)

Quirk's 'Grammar of Contemporary English' was compiled after surveying actual spoken and written educated English, and it takes the form of a basic descriptive register of English grammar.A University grammar of English is an abridged version of Quirk's GCE.

Intended as a reference grammar, GCE contains facts on the usage of language. It describes the regular patterns which make up grammatical structure as well as the exceptions to grammatical rules and problem cases.Being eclectic in origin, it does not present any theory of grammatical structure, but uses information from various models to explain specific linguistic features. To Crystal and his associates this grammar's significance lies in its 'comprehensiveness of features and the clarity of its terminology' as well as in 'its emphasis at clause level on the functional relationships between the various elements of clause structure' (Crystal ,Fletcher and Garman, 1976 , P 38-39).

Penn (1983,P19) states that GCE 'is undeniably the most systematic and definitive account to date of the grammar of English.Its application has been very broad in all spheres of language endeavour' and it has been used to describe the spoken utterances (normal and disordered) of children and adults. Table 1(a) on page 28 highlights significant aspects of Quirk's Grammar.

TABLE 1 (a) : ASPECTS OF QUIRK'S GRAMMAR OF CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH

Aspect of the Grammar	Abbreviations	Example
Clause Structure Elements :		
Subject	S	The boy ran away.
Verb	V	He ate his pudding
Object	O	John passed the ball .
Direct Object	Od	He gave the girl an apple.
Indirect Object	Oi	She gave the boy a pear.
Complement	C	She seems much happier .
Adverbial	A	They were in the kitchen.
Phrase Structure Elements :		
Noun Phrase	NP	The girl I saw yesterday is here
Determiner Noun	DN	The room
Adjective Noun	AdjN	Blue box
Initiator	I	Some of them are present
Postmodification :		
Prepositional Phrase	PrDN	the man in the garden.
Dependent clause		The boys walking down the road.
Verb Phrase	VP	He might have to be asked.
Copula	Cop	He is happy
Auxiliary	Aux	He 's running.
Particle	VPart	He looked over the room.
Negative	egV	He won't come on Tuesday
Word Structures :		
Noun Phrase		
Plural	Pl	The dogs bark.
Genitive	Gen	The dog's bone
Comparative	er	Bigger
Superlative	est	Biggest
Verb Phrase		
3rd person singular	3s	He walks home
present participle	ing	eating
Past participle	en	have been
Past tense	ed	jumped , ran
Contracted auxiliary	'aux	he's coming
Contracted copula	'cop	he's clever
Contracted negative	n't	can't walk
Adverbial marker	-ly	beautifully
Sentence Connectivity		
Coordination	SVAcSVA	John came at three and we came later.
Subordination	SVAsSVC	Mary ran home because she was late
Sentence Type		(From Penn , 1981 , P20)
Statement		
Questions		
Yes No	YS	Did he come ?
Wh-	QVS	When did he come ?
Commands :Let	let XY	Let Jane do this.
Do	Do XY	Do come in.
Exclamations		
What		What a lovely day it is !
How		How tiring it is !

2.5 Syntactic Description according to Crystal and his associates

Crystal, Fletcher and Garman (1976) basing their work on Quirk's GCE, identified the following tasks:

(a) To identify the sentences in the data
(b) To analyse their structure and function
(c) To analyse the way they combined in connected speech.

2.5.1 Identification of sentences

A special problem encountered was that the clear-cut guidelines of written language did not exist.They felt that falling intonation, tones and pauses helped to decide when a sentence ended,but in 5% of normal adult data this was not always true.

2.5.2 The Analysis of Sentence Structure

The syntax of a sentence had different levels each with its own kind of pattern.The analysis therefore commenced with the most general/ abstract aspects of sentence structure and then described the more precise details. The three main levels of sentence structure were the following:

(a) Patterns of sentence and clause structure
(b) Patterns of phrase structure
(c) Patterns of word structure
(d) Patterns of sentence connection

2.5.3 Patterns of Sentence and Clause Structure

The following two types of sentences were identified:

(a) Minor sentences e.g. 'Oh!' and 'Yes.'
(b) Major sentences which have a subject -predicate structure
e.g. Vimal kicked the ball.

Major sentences can be simple sentences (as in (b)) or multiple sentences e.g. I am careful when I work with a lawnmower.

The structure of different types of clauses are described in terms of elements such as Subject (S) , Verb(V) , Object (O) ,Complement (C) and Adverbial (A).

The Verb (V) is central to the sentence as it governs the patterns of the other elements which are allowed to appear in the sentence. The simplest sentence consists of the SV pattern e.g. Vimal came. Exceptions to this occur in commands such as 'Go!' or 'Look!' which consist of one verb only. In addition to having subjects, verbs govern the following elements .

(a) An Object e.g. I talked to him.
S V O

(b) Two Objects - a direct and an indirect object
e.g. I wrote a letter to him
S V O d O i

(c) Complements - that is,words or phrases which tell us something further about a subject
e.g. He is honest
S V C

') An Adverbial - a word or phrase which indicates time,place manner etc.
e g. He arrived on time at the station
S V A A

In addition to the above the Vocative (Voc) is an optional element in clause structure. Crystal, Fletcher and Garman(1976,P47) summarize basic clausc structure as follows:

$$(Voc)^{(1)} + SV + \begin{Bmatrix} O \\ C \end{Bmatrix} + \begin{Bmatrix} O \\ C \\ A \end{Bmatrix} + (A)^{(1)}$$

FIGURE 2 : ELEMENTS OF CLAUSE STRUCTURE

(1) Brackets indicate optional elements

Multiple sentences have more than one clause with each clause having the same element structure as the one outlined in Figure 2.There are two types of multiple sentences:

(a) Clauses joined by coordinating devices such as 'and', 'but' and 'or' , and represented by a small 'c'.

e.g. Vimal ran home and Jasvina walked.

S V A c S V

(b) Clauses joined to the main clause by subordinating devices such as 'because' , 'how' etc and represented by a small 's'.

e.g. Maya ran because she was in a hurry.

S V A

s S V A

The sentence in (b) also illustrates that multiple sentences with subordinating devices nave two levels of analysis, namely the analysis of the main clause which includes the subordinating word and the subordinate clause element , and then an analysis of the subordinate clause.

In addition to coordinate and subordinate clauses , the following types of clauses are also mentioned:

(i) A non-finite clause

e.g. I saw Vimal running down the road.

S V O

non-finite clause

(ii) A verbless clause

e.g. Although tired he continued working

A S V O

Verbless clause

(iii) A Comparative clause

e.g. Jasvina is bigger than Vimal is.

S V C

comparative clause

(iV) A Comment clause

e.g. I like this , you know .

S V O S V

Comment clause

(v)Clauses commencing with empty items 'it' and 'there'.

e.g. t is diffi lt There are several solutions

It V A There V S

2.5.4 entence Connection

There are four ways of connecting sentences. They are :

(a) By linking them with intonation.

e.g. Jayshree said she'd cóme . Maya said she'd stày.

(b) By replacing a word in one sentence with a related word or phrase in another sentence.

e.g. George is abroad. The clever crook wants to remain free.

(c) Using semantic connection.

e.g At the end of winter he ploughed his land.He started planting at the beginning of spring.

(d) Using grammatical links.

(i) Adverbials of time , place ,consequence.

e.g. Jasvina worked out the sum.Then she copied it neatly into her book.

(ii) Cross-reference using articles , pronouns etc.

e.g. John ran away. He was afraid.

I tripped over a stone. The stone was hidden in the grass.

(iii) Using ellipses.

This enables one to omit elements o. clause structure when these are present in the previous sentence.

e.g. T : Who is this in the picture?

P : John.

The phrase structure of sentences and the word structure of phrases is tabulated most succinctly in Table 1(a)(See Page 28).The various sentence types and their functions also appear in the above-mentioned table.

[illegible] development has different perspectives [illegible] orientation [illegible] shed light on different aspects of language. However none [illegible] comprehensive enough to explain all the facets of language.

[illegible] language [illegible] the label for the cognitive images the person has [illegible] mind. As these images become more complex, language is modified [illegible] accommodate such changes, but language on its own does not stimulate [illegible] cognitive development.

[illegible] Bruner, Vygotsky, and Lenneberg accept that language [illegible] acquisition is genetically based, but they believe that the environment [illegible] the acquisition of language and cognitive development.

[illegible] Skinner believes that the environment plays the dominant role in the [illegible] acquisition of language, and verbal operants are modified and reinforced [illegible] complex linguistic structures develop which can be used to describe [illegible] experiences in the environment.

[illegible] none of these theories have been able to explain all aspects of [illegible] linguistic acquisition from birth to adulthood, many linguists have [illegible] started adopting eclectic descriptions of language. The three areas of language commonly identified are phonology, grammar, and semantics. The term 'grammar' can refer to theoretic grammar or descriptive grammar. While theoretic grammar has universal application across all cultures, [illegible] is very abstract and extremely controversial as regards specific detail. Descriptive grammar, being eclectic, attempts to order and explain [illegible] the linguistic features observed by drawing on the entire spectrum [illegible] language theories. They are thus very comprehensive and extremely [illegible] practical day to day situations.

[illegible] present study is about syntactic development, a key aspect of grammar. [illegible] syntax of children is different from that of adults, but through continuous modification and expansion of structures it gradually resembles [illegible] by the age of 4½ years

2.6 Educational Research which could have a bearing on Oral Language Teaching

Rosenshine and Furst (1971) maintained that we knew very little about the relationship between classroom behaviour and student gains. Smith(1971) observed that in spite of numerous studies no acceptable conceptual syste had been formulated which could be used to identify effective teaching skills and most research was fragmented and difficult to compare with other studies. Bennett (1976) , Smith (1971) and Good Biddle and Brouphy (1975) foun very little research which supported unequivocally, a particular teaching strategy as being more effective than another

2.6.1 Flanders's Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC)

Flande (1970) developed his system of interaction to analyse a classroom behaviour. Called FIAC , it embodies notions of teacher directness and indirectness. Flanders's FIAC categories(numbered are shown below in summary form.

TABLE 1 (b) :FLANDERS'S INTERACTION ANALYSIS CATEGORIES (FIAC)

Teacher talk	Indirect influence	1 Accepts feeling: accepts and clarifies the feeling tone of the students in a non-threatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting and recalling feelings are included.
		2 Praises or encourages: praises or encourages student action or behaviour. Jokes that release tension, not at the expense of another individual; nodding head or saying "un huh?" or "go on" are included.
		3 Accepts or uses ideas of student: clarifying, building, or developing ideas or suggestions by a student. As teacher brings more of his own ideas into play, shift to category five.
		4 Asks questions: asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that a student answer.
	Direct influence	5 Lectures: giving facts or opinions about content or procedure; expressing his own ideas; asking rhetorical questions.
		6 Gives directions: directions, commands, or orders with which a student is expected to comply.
		7 Criticizes or justifies authority: statements intended to change student behaviour from non-acceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing; extreme self reference.
Student talk		8 Student talk-response: talk by students in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits student's statement.
		9 Student talk-initiation: talk by students, which they initiate. If "calling on" student is only to indicate who may talk next, observer must decide whether student wanted to talk. If he did, use this category.
		10 Silence or confusion: pauses, short periods of silence, and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.

(From Wragg, Oats and Gump ,1976, P39)

As teacher talk,which has an indirect influence,has a bearing on this study,this section , which contains the first four of Flanders's categories will be expanded on further.

Teacher talk which has indirect influence

The 'indirect influence ' categories have an affective component (accepts feelings , praises , encourages), as well as a cognitive component (uses ideas of students , asks questions) and Flanders (1970 , P 270) felt that both must be considered if one wanted to know what went on in the classroom.The four categories of indirect influence are discussed below

(a) Category 1: Acceptance of student feeling. The teacher's statements are so phrased that they indicate acceptance or clarify a pupil's attitude or feeling in a non-threatening manner.

e.g. You seem very happy with your results. Tell me , what will your parents say?

(b) Category 2 : Praise or encouragement. These statements reflect the teacher's approval. For example,a smile or a nod directed at a child who is doing the work correctly is as effective as remarks such as 'Good for you , you remembered to do your homework'.

(c) Category 3 : Use of student ideas.Flanders (1970) identified five sub- categories of behaviour for this section.They are:

(i) Acknowledging a student's idea by repeating the nouns and logical connectives he has used.

(ii) Modifying the ideas expressed by the student by rephrasing them in the teacher's own words.

(iii) Applying the idea, that is, using it to make an inference or developing the next step through logical relationships.

(iv) Comparing the ideas expressed by relating them to others expressed earlier.

(v) Summarizing what was said by the student or the class.

(d) Category 4 : Teacher questions. These questions are asked by the teacher in a non-threatening manner to move the lesson to the next section.It is a prerequisite for the teacher to think that these ideas are important , and he must act as if he expected an answer.

e.g. Who has another idea he would like to add? John will you try ?

Teacher indirectness has been associated with positive student gains by Rosenshine and Furst (1971).

2.6.2 Cazden's Modelling Technique

According to Hopper and Naremore (1978)this technique was found to be most effective in improving language performance.They state that in using the 'modelling technique' teachers attempted never to repeat, correct or expand on a child's utterance.Instead they attempted to comment on what the child had said, to answer questions, and to offer contributions on related topics.In this way the child was offered a model of mature speech which he could emulate without imitation. It would seem that the child , in trying to emulate the model of mature language , sets the syntax acquisition process (called induction of latent structure by Brown and Bellugi ,1971) into motion. This enables the child to generalize implicit syntactic rules after hearing a number of sentences which have the same syntactic form. Brown (1973) feels that this rule induction occurs in the early years on the basis of extremely limited evidence when the child is developmentally ready to acquire the new form, and this accounts for the fact that language structures are acquired rapidly. Cazden (1972 ,P11) states that teachers who try to correct the the grammatical errors of their pupils might be interfering with their learning process, as they are asking for responses which superficially sound correct ,but which the child has not learnt to use meaningfully. He believes that rule governed errors will automatically be discarded when the child is ready to move on. He also quotes a study by Ammon and Ammon involving sentence training (sentence drill) with Negro preschool children in which sentence performance did not improve on a test containing the target constructions when this group was compared to a control group.

2.6.3 The effect of Complex Roles

Hawkins (1973) found role effects operating in the language development of working class girls.In his study , seven year old working class girls were found to be linguistically more articulate than middle class girls and boys, and the quality of their linguistic output was in no way inferior (a study which contradicted Bernstein's view that the children of working class parents had restricted language).Hawkins explained his findings by stating that this was so because working class girls had more complex roles in the family.They had to control and mother younger siblings and often mediate between them and their parents , and were thus forced to acquire the language structures which went with their complex family roles.Consequently their language was equivalent to that of middle class boys and girls.

Similarly one can postulate that as the roles of children at school become more complex they will stimulate children into acquiring the language structures necessary to verbalize their new experience.Simultaneously the reinforcement provided by teaching strategies with indirect influence (discussed on pages 35-36) and the facilitative environment that it generates, will result in teachers who use these methods being perceived as high status persons and many pupils will try to identify with them by trying to imitate their speech style (Giles , Bourhis and Taylor , 1977 P322). This would facilitate language acquisition without numerous corrections or boring choral drill.

2.6.4 Types of Variables studied in Educational Research

Bennett (1976) discusses the variables studied in educational research under the following four headings:

(a) Presage variables. These refer to the characteristics of teachers, their experiences and their cognitive and affective properties.

(b) Context variables. These are the conditions to which the teacher has to adjust. For example the characteristics of the school, the classroom and the pupils.

(c) Process variables.These refer to the actual activities of classroom teaching , teacher and pupil behaviour and interaction, and the type of classroom climate created.

(d) Product variables. These refer to the results of the teaching strategy, that is , the changes which occur in the pupils as a result of their involvement in the classroom activity.

2.6.4.1 Research based on Process-Product Variables

Bennett (1976) believes that process-product studies which attempt to relate observed teacher behaviours to student outcome measures have started showing most encouraging results.Rosenshine and Furst (1971) call such studies correlational studies and state that the findings from such studies must be treated with great caution as the results of the study could have been influenced by unknown variables.They , after comparing 50 process-product studies , isolated 11 variables in teacher behaviour which influenced student achievement and found that the first five had the strongest relationship. The variables isolated by them are discussed in the section which follows.

(a) Clarity.This refers to the cognitive clarity of the teacher's lessons and includes clarity of presentation in respect of clear conceptual explanations , whether or not children understand them , the ability of the teacher to answer the pupils questions , clarify misunderstandings, and make lessons just right for the pupils' most of the time.This variable correlated positively with favourable student gains.

(b) Variability refers to the teacher's use of variety during the course of the lesson.Student achievement is positively related to classrooms which had a variety of instructional material and procedures and a varied cognitive level of discourse and student tasks.

(c) Enthusiasm refers to the vigour and power of presentation, as well as the teacher's involvement in his lessons and his interest and excitement regarding his subject matter. Enthusiasm was positively related to student achievement.

(f) Task orientated and/or business-like behaviour. This scale revealed the extent to which the teacher was task orientated , achievement orientated and/ or business-like in his lesson presentation. Again a positive correlation was obtained with student gains.

(e) Student opportunity to learn criterion material. Here the question asked was whether the criterion instrument was relevant to the instruction, that is , the relation between the opportunity to learn and what the student was tested on.Relations between measures of opportunity to learn and student achievement were positive , significant and consistent.

(h) Use of student ideas and general indirectness.

(i) Use of student ideas. This is one of the four aspects of Flanders s (1970) description of teacher indirectness (see page 35 , category 3). While Rosenshine and Furst admit that the term indirectness' remains ambiguous, they found positive correlation between the teacher's use of student ideas and student achievement.

(ii) General indirectness. This term refers to aspects of teacher talk which have an indirect influence on pupil outcomes (see pages 35- 36). A positive correlation was found between indirectness of teacher strategies and student achievement.

(g) Criticism. There was a significant negative relationship between teacher criticism and student achievement.

(p) Use of structuring comments. These comments are designed to provide an overview,or cognitive scaffolding,for what is to happen,or,for what has already happened.The following are examples of such comments:

(i) Now get this.
(ii) Notice how cruel the father is.
(iii) So you see, some good has emerged from his suffering.

(r) Type of questions. Two different types of classifications were used.The first , a dichotomous classification , used the headings 'lower cognitive level' and'higher cognitive level'. Lower cognitive

level questions referred to content type questions which focussed on 'what', 'where' and 'when'.Higher cognitive level questions focussed on 'why' and 'how'.Studies related to these types of questions yielded inconsistent results.

(ii) Multiple classification of discourse on the basis of more than two cognitive levels. Rosenshine and Furst found two studies with significant results but found that the results could not be compared because the design and coding procedure differed.

( ) Probing refers to the teacher's response to the students answer which encourages that student (or another student) to expand on his answer. Significant results were obtained but the variety of methods used to record such behaviour prevented a synthesis of results.

(k) Level of difficulty of instruction. The student's perception of difficulty was positively related to achievement in two studies out of four. No discernable trend was observed in the other two.

2.6.5 Summary

While very little is known about the actual relationship between classroom practice and pupil gains , process-product research in the last 20 years has started coming up with some promising findings.

Methods based on strategies which enhance the child's self-concept,such as teacher strategies with indirect influence seem to be related to positive pupil gains as are approaches which introduce clarity and provide good language models which the child can emulate.Hawkins' study (1973) suggests that if children are placed in situations where they have to assume different roles, the changing contexts and perspectives in which they are placed will stimulate them into acquiring more advanced forms of linguistic structure to meet the challenges of their new roles.

Criticism and teacher strategies with direct influence which assign passive roles to pupils seem to be associated negatively with pupil gains , or , lower pupil gains.

All the variables associated with positive student gains, identified by Rosenshine and Furst (1971) , Cazden (1972) , Flanders (1970), Bennett(1976) and others, mark a significant step forward in the task to develop effective teaching strategies which are soundly anchored in research.However,a great deal of research is still left to be done , and in order to use the ones which have been identified purposefully , their effectiveness will have to be established in terms of .

(a) The different ages of pupils at school

(b) The different ability levels of the pupils

(c) The relevance of these strategies to different types of lessons across the curriculum .

CHAPTER THREE

THE LARSP PROFILE

3.1 Introduction

Crystal, Fletcher and Garman (1976) in reviewing the literature on the the development of syntax emphasize that although our knowledge is still incomplete enough is known to warrant investigations such as their own. They and Brown (1973) indicate that studies based on the English language suggest that the acquisition patterns of syntax are 'approximately invariant' (Brown ,1973,P58),and although the rate of acquisition may vary from child to child,'all normal children, regardless of how quickly or how slowly they are travelling, are following a single developmental path' (Crystal, Fletcher and Garman,1976, P59).They go on to emphasize that while only the first five years have been studied in sufficient detail to warrant the above-mentioned assertion there 'is every suggestion that subsequent syntactic development until puberty is also governed by some underlying set of conditions but evidence for this is not yet forthcoming' (Crystal, Fletcher and Garman ,1976 ,P59-60).

The following important aspects are mentioned when discussing the LARSP Profile :

(a) The approach is a synthesis of what is known about the rate of syntactic development in children.

(b) The descriptions have been compiled without bias to any particular theory of syntactic development.

(c) The approach provides hypothetical stages through which a child's language passes as it grows towards the norms of adult language, and it helps to 'classify the structures and categories which operate at each stage' (Crystal ,Fletcher and Garman,1976 ,P61).The authors do add a word of warning when they emphasize that the stages are not discrete

entities, that syntactic development is a continuous process, and that the stages are divisions of convenience, based on theoretical justification made by Brown (1973 , P59).Crystal ,Fletcher and Garman (1976 , P61) do clarify further how they went about naming stages.

> A stage is named either for a process that is the major new development occurring at that interval or for an exceptionally elaborate development of a process at that stage' and using these 'stages provides a workable scheme for assessment and remediation'.

(d) The LARSP Profile is characterized by chronological age limits for the various stages.

(e) Earlier stage patterns continue to be used in later stages but their frequency is reduced and the authors emphasize that the later the pattern is acquired the closer it will be to adult language and therefore will be subjected to minimal change later on.

(f) From the samples they have analysed the authors state that 60% of the structural processes found in a sample will belong to the main stage. Ratios for the occurrence of the processes from other stages,in relation to the main stage,have not been calculated.

g) The authors recognize seven stages and describe them in terms of their descriptive framework which is based on Quirk's GCE.The profile chart with a key to abbreviations appears in the appendix.

3.2 Stage I - One Element Sentences'

A great deal of controversy surrounds the effort to resolve whether or not single element utterances should be considered full sentences. Elliot (1981),in referring to the work of Dore, states that single word utterances are capable of conveying as much meaning as full sentences as their intonational patterns possess meanings which enable adults to view them as assertions, questions, or commands by interpreting various contextual clues such as situation , previous knowledge,etc. However, they admit that the one element sentence of a child does not have a grammatical structure.

Because of the controversy, Crystal and his associates(1976) place the word 'sentences' in inverted commas in order to emphasize that the debate is far from complete.Examples of utterances in this stage are:

(i) Questions (Q) Where ? meaning 'Where is my cap?'
(ii) Commands (V) Go. meaning 'Go away'
(iii) Verbs (V) Give . meaning 'Give me the car'
(iv) Nouns (N) Ball meaning ' My ball'.

This section also includes minor sentences, that is sentences which do not have a syntactic structure .This includes social greetings and responses (e.g. Hello) , vocatives (e.g. John , the man with the hat ...) , stereotypes such as play formulae (e.g. peep-bo), etc.

2.3 Stage II - Two Element Sentences

This stage is distinguished by the following features.

(a) All syntactic patterns of this stage consist of two elements of sentence structure.

(b) During this stage it is possible to identify an hierarchy in the levels of sentence structure.

e.g. (i) 'Shoes there' .This sentence has a Subject-Adverb (S A) pattern of clause structure.

(ii) 'Big shoes' .The phrase structure (Adj N) has the function of a complement .

(c) The child has acquired some notion of grammatical rules by the time he reaches the middle of this stage(Crystal,Fletcher and Garman 1976).

(d) The notion of two elements is not confined to the physical length of a sentence only , but is also tied to the notion of cognitive linguistic complexity. For example ,'Me come shop' (Stage III, three syllables) is shorter than 'Mummy cooking' (Stage II, four syllables), but the Stage III sentence has words which function as a subject, verb and object , while the Stage II utterance only has a subject and a verb. The sentences of this stage consist of two-element statements, questions and commands

[illegible] the phrase structure consists of two elements as well

[illegible] Mummy bag

N N

Stage (ii) Th[illegible] Element Sentences

[illegible] element sentences are formed through two distinct processes which [illegible] a[illegible] follows

[illegible] process clause and phrase structures are blended.

Stage 1 . Play ball red ball

O O

Adj N

[illegible] the above structures are combined to form :

Play red ball

O

Adj N

[illegible] that any element of clause structure can now be represented [illegible] phrase structure as the sentence element is expanded at phrase level. [illegible] the profile (Appendix 1) the above structure is recorded as X + O: NP [illegible] can be any element of sentence structure (i.e. O,V,S,C,A) [illegible] the object [illegible] the main phrase consisting of two elements.Other [illegible] tures at phrase level are :

NP Black dog fast

S C

Adj N

[illegible] Boy very naughty

C

Adj N

[illegible] Man [illegible] coming

V

[illegible]

[illegible] Hall on payment

[illegible]

b The following new structures appear during

(i) Three elements of clause structure.

e.g. Daddy kick ball
S V O

(ii)Three element structure at phrase level

e.g. Vimal's big car
N Adj N

In the
Pr D N

(iii) At word level new structures begin to appear and continue to do so up to the end of Stage IV.The order identified by Brown (1973) is used and is as follows:

1. -ing.e.g. he be running (-ing on the chart
2. plural.e.g. we saw the girls (pl
3. past tense.e.g. the car crashed (-ed
4. past participle e.g. it's broken (-en
5. 3rd person singular.e.g. he wants his dinner.
6. possessive.e.g. that teddy's pencil (gen.
7. contracted negative. e.g. he isn't coming (n
8. contracted form of the copula. e.g. he's happy (cop
9. contracted form of the auxiliary. e.g.he s coming (au
10. superlative forms. e.g.that's the biggest one -est
11. comparative forms.e.g it's bigger (-er
12. adverbial suffix. e.g. go quickly (-ly)

(Crystal ,Fletcher and Garman. 1976. p73

3,5 Stage IV - Sentences of four Elements or More

As with Stage III the extra element of sentence structure is obtained either by blending two patterns of the previous stage or developing new patterns of clause and phrase structure which have four or more independent elements. The new features occur as follows:

(a) In the blending process , one element of the three element sentence is expanded.

e.g. 'He lost game' is blended with 'the game' to become

He lost the game
S V O
O N

In the example on the previous page the object was expanded .This can be represented in the form XY + O : NP at phrase level.In the same way the following patterns are possible:

XY + A : AP	You are walking on the road.
XY + V : VP	He will be coming tomorrow.
XY + S . NP	The tired old man drove the car.
XY + C/O : NP	John is the best tennis player.
	John kicked the red ball.

(b) The following new structures appear during this stage.

(i) At clause level sentences which have four elements appear.

e.g. My son walked five miles today.
S V A A

He gave my pen to the boy.
S V Od Oi

(ii) Phrases with four or more elements begin to appear (e.g. In a red car), as well as the double auxiliary (e.g. She has been crying), the negative verb (e.g.He does not agree.)The negative used with an element of phrase structure other than a verb(Neg), e.g. not my ball).Phrases such as 'and the man' and 'small and ugly' also occur.

By the end of this stage the child is able to use all types of sentence structures discussed in section 2.5 (P29) to section 2.5.4 (P 32) .

3.6 Stage V - Recursion

A feature of this stage is the use of clause sequences to produce the various types of multiple sentence structures.During this stage the child learns to use different connecting procedures and the embedding of one sentence within another.Because of this,sentences become longer and more complex.

(a) The first process to appear is heralded by the use of coordinating conjunctions 'and' and 'so'.

(b) This is followed by the use of subordinating conjunctions.
e.g. He can come <u>because</u> he has been a good boy.

Other clauses which appear are the following:

(c) (i) Noun clauses which are functions of a complement, object or a subject.

(ii) Comparative clauses begin to be used.
e.g. He is <u>as fast as John</u>.

(iii) Within noun phrases relative clauses and non-finite type clauses begin to appear.
e.g. This night , which is the shortest of the year,will be long remembered .

(d) During this stage sequences of prepositional phrases are observed.
e.g. The child in the room <u>with the red coat on</u> ...
Post modal clause

(e) Tag questions (e.g. This is right , <u>isn't it?</u>) and 'how' and 'what' exclamations appear.

4.7 <u>Stage VI - System Completion</u>

At this stage the child is doing so much right that it is more economical to describe what he cannot do.According to Crystal and his colleagues (1976) research in this area is fragmented and incomplete and the guidelines set must be considered at the most tentative.For convenience , errors have been listed under three headings according to their effect on the Noun Phrase , Verb Phrase or Clause Structure.

The errors may be summarized as follows

(a) Noun Phrase:
- (i) Errors in pronouns
- (ii) Errors in determiners
- (iii) Errors in irregular nouns
- (iv) Errors in adjective sequence patterns.

(b) Verb Phrase
- (i) Errors in the use of auxiliary verbs
- (ii) Errors in the use of tense forms
- (iii) Errors in the use of irregular verb inflections

(c) Clause Structure (i) Mistakes in concord
(ii) Mistakes in adverb position
(iii) Word order errors

The positive features are recorded as follows:

(d) Noun Phrase (i) Initiators
(ii) Coordination patterns within the noun phrase
(recorded if not Stage IV)
e.g. John , the old man was healthy.
Coordination

(e) Verb Phrase - Complex Verbs
e.g. He will want to go to town.

(f) Clause Structure - Passive Voice.
e.g. She was bitten by the dog.

(g) Clause Structure - Complementation - These are more complex patterns of post verb construction .
e.g. This is ready to eat.

3.8 Stage VII - Discourse Structure , Syntactic Comprehension and Style

By the age of 4½ years the spontaneous speech of children is noted for its fluency and grammatical accuracy of surface structure, yet 'a large range of grammatical processes remain to be implemented' (Crystal, Fletcher and Garman , 1976 , P81). These processes are little researched and operate in the following areas:

(a) Discourse Structure

While five year olds have an enormous amount of information on sentence structure and function , they are still in the process of acquiring information on how sentences can be linked to produce a structural discourse. The processes to be mastered between five and puberty are the following :

(1) Sentence connecting devices. e.g. however , frankly , actually. Adverbials such as these , which connect sentences , do not appear

until the age of seven years. Patterns of cross reference and ellipses also occur at this stage. e.g. The other also took one.
(ii)Word order patterns used to emphasize specific information. This includes clause sequences commencing with 'it' and 'there' and tne complex embedding listed in GCE , Chapter Fourteen. While the LARSP Profile allows for the 'it' and 'there' structures separately, all other clauses in this section are listed under emphatic order.

(iii) During this stage children begin to learn how to use intonation to control the relationship between the various elements of a sentence e.g. John gave the book to Jim and he gave one tc him also (i.e Jim gave one to John also).Acquisition of this process is still going on at nine years but knowledge of the gereral developmental pattern is not yet clear.

(iv) This stage concludes the learning of irregular verbs , nouns,etc. although some seven and eight year olds may still sometimes say 'tooken' for took'. The rules governing the two types of comparisons (prettier vs more interesting) take some time to master properly.

(v) Errors in the sequencing of tenses and relations between main clauses and subordinate clauses begin to be sorted out during this stage.

(b) Syntactic Comprehension

Crystal ,Fletcher and Garman (1976) maintain that one cannot assume that a child who produces a particular syntactic pattern understands what he has said.The kind of syntactic awareness that needs to be developed is illustrated by the following sentences both of which have the same surface structure of SVC :

(a) John is eager to please.
(b) John is easy to please.

In (a)'John' is the subject and is doing the pleasing , in (b)'John' is the object and is being pleased. Sentences like (b) being the exception, cause comprehension problems and have to be mastered during this stage, and it takes children some time to sort out all confusions. Complex

conjunctions such as 'since', 'although', and 'unless' continue to be confused with 'and' even at the age of nine years.

During this stage the child becomes aware of the need to analyse sentences in depth to get their full semantic meaning and his ability to detect ambiguity increases.

(c) Style

Entry into school brings the child for the first time into contact with speech norms and he becomes aware of notions of correctness in reading/writing and speaking/listening.Crystal, Fletcher and Garman (1976) emphasize that syntactic development comes to an end with the onset of puberty.While the stages of language development have been summarized by them on the LARSP Profile, they emphasize that most research on language development has been done with children of families from the upper socio-economic levels, so that the chronological norms might be too high.They indicate that a spread of another six months might be quite acceptable within the notion of 'normal age range'.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

4.1 Subject -Selection

4.1.1 The Pupils

The school assigned pupils to the two classes alternately according to the order in which parents applied for their children's admission to school.For example, the first boy went to Class A,the second boy went to Class B. The same procedure was adopted for the girls.For the purposes of this investigation a sample of five boys each was selected at random from each class.

TABLE 2 : AGES OF PUPILS USED IN THE STUDY

Sample from Class A	Age in Feb 82	
	Years	Months
Pupil: A 1	6	0
A 2	6	10
A 3	6	5
A 4	5	11
A 5	6	4
Average Age	6	4

Sample from Class B	Age in Feb 82	
	Years	Months
Pupil: B 1	6	1
B 2	6	2
B 3	6	6
B 4	5	9
B 5	6	1
Average Age	6	1

(a) In this report the sample from each of the two classes will be referred to as Class A and Class B respectively.

(b) All the pupils in the sample had come to the school for the first time in 1982.

(c) It was decided to confine the study to boys for the following reasons :

(i) The major part of syntactic development is completed by the age of 5½ years.

(ii) Between the ages of 5 years and 6 years 11 months language is reported to mature later in boys than in girls (Lee 1974,P264-8) and the LARSP Profile would be more sensitive to the language of the later maturing boys.

(iii) As the school from which the pupils came is situated in one of the poorer areas of Lenasia, the majority of subjects could be considered as coming from lower socio-economic backgrounds(Van Rensburg, 1981, P194).Because of this , according to Crystal , Fletcher and Garman(1976, P84) the language development of this group can be expected to occur about six months later than the normal age ranges reflected on the LARSP Chart.

(iv) A further allowance could be made as the subjects are culturally different from English speaking subjects living in England.

Therefore by making allowances for the fact that boys are late maturers, culturally different , and come from a low socio-economic background , it was estimated that the language of the subjects would be within the upper limits of the syntactic features reflected on the LARSP Profile at Stage VI and VII.

(d) The sample was not matched for intelligence as I.Q. scores were not available.

4.1.2 The Teachers

The two Junior Primary teachers were selected because , to the writer , their approaches to the teaching of oral language appeared to be different. This conclusion had been reached after the writer had visited the teachers several times over a period of two years in order to evaluate their lessons.It was felt that if differences were large enough it would affect the language development of the pupils in different ways.

Both teachers had the Junior Primary Teachers' Diploma, were considered equally effective by the principal , and the subject adviser had given them the same teaching assessment.In terms of teaching experience they were not matched. Teacher A had taught for two years , while Teacher B had taught for seven years.

4.2 The Aims of the Study

The study had a three-fold purpose:

(a) To analyse the oral language lessons of the two class one teachers selected for this study and to describe their lesson structures and teaching styles.

(b) To describe the syntactic language development of the two samples of Indian boys after they have been taught for approximately a year by the two teachers selected for the project.This would be done as follows:

(i) By describing the levels of syntactic development of these boys on admission to school for the first time.

(ii) By describing the levels of syntactic development of these boys at the end of their first year at school.

(iii) By comparing the syntactic development of the two samples at the beginning of the year and again at the end of the year to isolate the influence of different teaching styles.

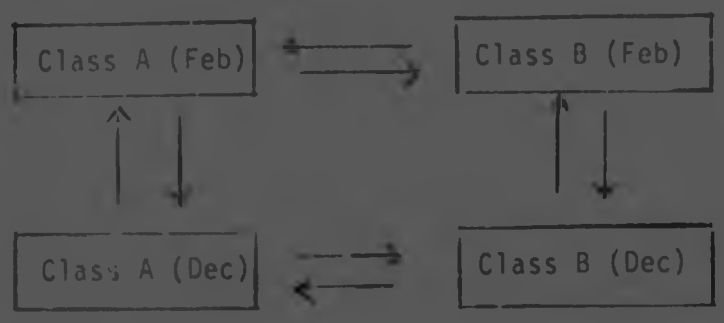


FIGURE 2 : DIAGRAM SHOWING HOW THE SAMPLES WILL BE COMPARED

(c) To determine the extent to which the LARSP Profile Chart of Crystal,Fletcher and Garman (1976) can be used to gauge the growth in syntactic development of Indian boys in their first year at school.

4.3 Research Design

Factors considered when planning the study:

(a) The teachers

The teachers were considered equally effective by the principal.

(b) The pupils

The pupils were comparable because they had the same socio-economic background , lived in the same geographic area , and therefore were expected to have the same socio-cultural experiences before they came to school.

Linguistic development is dependent on maturation and the stimulation provided by ones cultural environment . As the pupils came from a homogeneous geographic area it was expected that their levels of

linguistic develcpment would be similar and the pre-test would confirm this.

At school . as the pupils interacted with one another informally in the classroom , or outside , it was expected that their influence on one another would be similar as they came from the same cultural environment.

(c) The Lessons

(i) The discussion lessons. These were analysed in detail on the basis of transcripts made from audio-taped lessons. Interviews were used to confirm that the lesson structures identified by means of the analysis were representative of the teaching styles of the two teachers.

(ii) The main language lesson. The importance of this lesson to the outcome of the study was only realized after all the other data had been collected. As it was no longer possible to observe actual lessons at that time , a description of the lessons was obtained by interviewing three class one teachers to identify a basic approach. These findings were then discussed with Teacher A and Teacher B to obtain a description of their approach and teaching style for this section.

In terms of this study the independent variable/s is/are embodied in the teaching styles of the two teachers. The dependent variable is the syntactic development of the pupils.

4.4 The Equipment Used

(a) A cassette tape recorder
(b) A series of pictures arranged in sequence, illustrating the the story of 'The Three Pigs'.
(c) The pictures in the following story books:

KINCAID L.. (1979) Rapunzel , Brimax Books , Cambridge , England.
KINCAID L.: (1980) Rumpelstiltskin, Brimax Books , Cambridge, England.

Select two class one teachers who seem to have developed different approaches to the teaching of oral language

↓

Define the teaching styles of the two teachers by analysing a recording of their oral language lessons

↓

Interview teachers to confirm that the variables isolated are representative of their general approach to the teaching of oral language.

Interview teachers to obtain a description of the Main Language lesson.

↓

Interview teachers to confirm that their approach has not changed during the course of the year

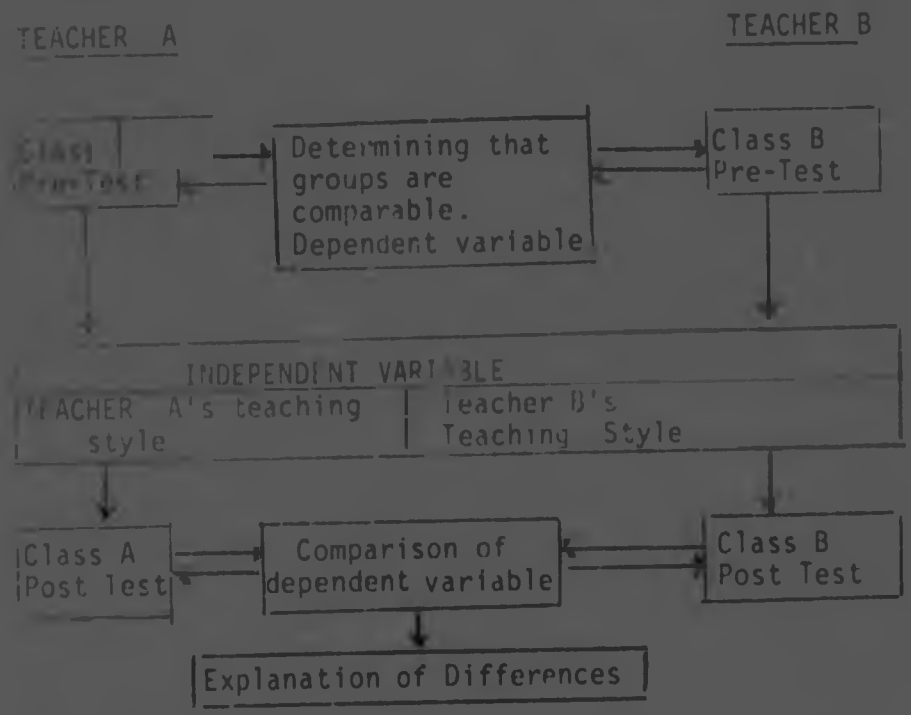


FIGURE 1 - DIAGRAM OF RESEARCH DESIGN

4.5 Recording Procedure and Language Sample

(a) Each child's language was recorded individually with the writer who was the only other person present.

(b) The writer and the child sat at a table at right angle to each other.

(c) The tape recorder was placed in front of the child and its function was explained to each child.

(d) The language sample was elicited in the following manner

(i) In February and December pupils were asked to tell about their experiences in the classroom, on the playground and at home. Although questions were not predetermined, an effort was made to ask as many open-ended questions as possible e.g. What did you after school? This made up the first part of the language sample.

(ii) In February the second part of the language sample consisted of pupils relating the story of 'The Three Pigs' while looking at a series of pictures arranged in sequence.

In December the second part of the language sample was obtained by asking the pupils to relate the story 'Rumpils..ltskin' or 'Rapunzel' as they looked at the pictures in the books.

(e) The samples of oral language which had been recorded on the audio-tape were then transcribed verbatim and the transcriptions checked for accuracy by the second person.

(f) Six-minute samples of the subject's oral language were then analysed in terms of the LARSP Profile chart. The analysis was checked for accuracy by a speech therapist, and where differences

occurred, these were discussed and re-analysed.

(g) Composite LARSP Profiles were prepared for each class group by adding frequencies of syntactic features for each class sample.There were,therefore, two profiles for each class group,one as at February and one as at December.

(h) The LARSP Profile Chart served as a basis for the qualitative analysis and interpretation of the data as the sample of five subjects per group was too small to be analysed statistically. However,wherever possible,frequencies were reduced to percentages to facilitate comparison and identify trends.

CHAPTER FIVE

ANALYSIS OF LESSON DATA

5.1 Introduction

The two teachers were teaching Class One when the lessons were recorded on audio-tape, transcribed and analysed.By trying to isolate verbal interaction patterns based on actual recordings of lessons, it was hoped to get a more accurate description of the lesson structure than was possible by means of surveys and questionnaires. A large portion of communication is however non-verbal, and this aspect was lost in the process of recording the lessons and transcribing them. After the lesson structures had been analysed, the various features were discussed with the respective teachers to confirm that the characteristics isolated were representative of their teaching styles.

The audio-taped lesson of Teacher A lasted 15 minutes, while Teacher B's lesson lasted 17 minutes.In order to facilitate a more accurate comparison, lesson B was reduced proportionately by multiplying the frequency of features by $\frac{15}{17}$.

A special feature of speech lessons is the fact that verbal interaction takes place with the entire class and it is difficult to obtain a completely audible recording of the entire lesson.Therefore portions of the lesson were lost because they were inaudible.

The act of recording the lessons appeared to make the pupils and teachers somewhat uneasy and they must have made more errors than they normally do.

When one considers the vast range of possible approaches to oral language lessons, and the variety of ways in which different aspects

can be emphasized and developed, as well as the numerous topics and the variety of subject matter from which selections can be made. One realizes that it would be difficult to monitor content and teaching approaches over the entire period of study. The writer therefore accepts that the analysis of these lessons might not reflect the full repertoire of these teachers' teaching strategies, but hopes that the subsequent interviews with the teachers might highlight aspects which were not captured in this analysis.

5.2 Features Identified in the Discussion Lessons

After the lessons had been transcribed, an attempt was made to analyse the lessons in terms of Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) approach, but after having done several pages at the level of speech acts, it was felt that this approach did not say much about the nature of the lessons. There were also difficulties in deciding on the category of each speech act. This approach was, therefore, abandoned and the data was analysed in terms of pupil and teacher utterances.

5.2.1 Pupil utterances

These were categorized under the following headings:

(a) Single word utterances
(b) Utterances of phrase length
(c) Utterances of sentence length
(d) Utterances consisting of two or more sentences
(e) Utterances which involved the repetition of certain grammatical patterns at the request of the teacher.

A list of pupil errors was also prepared so that one could gauge how many grammatical errors occurred during the lessons, whether or not they were corrected by the teachers, and whether they were similar or different across lessons.

TABLE 3 : PUPIL UTTERANCES IN RESPONSE TO TEACHER STIMULI

	Frequency of Utterances with Percentage occurrence relative to total utterances		
1. Single word utterances	Class A	Class B	Class B - Adjusted
1. Single word Utterances	32 (29%)	45	41 (30%)
2. Utterances of phrase length	9 (8%)	26	23 (17%)
3. Utterances of sentence length	30 (27%)	6[illegible]	58 (42%)
4. Utterances longer than one sentence	10 (9)	15	13 (9%)
Sub-Total	81 (7[illegible]	. 3	135 (98%)
5. Utterances which were repeated at the request of the teacher			
(i) words	1 (1%)	2	2 (1%)
(ii) Phrases	6 (5%)	1	1 (1%)
(iii) Sentences	22 (20%)	0	0 (0[illegible])
Sub-Total	29 (26[illegible])	3	3 (2[illegible])
Total	110	156	138

TABLE 4 . GRAMMATICAL ERRORS MADE BY PUPILS DURING THE RECORDED LESSONS

TYPES OF ERRORS	FREQUENCY Class A	FREQUENCY Class B
1. Use of 'gonna' for 'going to'	3	2
2. Omission of third person singular verb ending (3's)	2	4
3. Incorrect positioning of 'even e.g. Sometimes even it bites.	1	1
4. Incorrect use of prepositions	2	6
5. Use of 'was' for 'were'.	1	3
6. Use of 'did' to form the past tense e.g.'He did come' for 'He came.'	3	2
7. Use of present tense when past tense is required.	2	1
8. Redundancy -Verbs and prepositions	2	2
9. Omission of article or pronoun	1	2
10. Dialect : Use of Afrikaans terms	2	0
11. Omission of auxiliary verbs	0	3
12. Use of 'a' for 'an'	0	1
13. Incorrect plural formation e.g. geese.	0	1
14. Use of 'got' (as verb) for 'has'	0	2
15. Incorrect form of auxiliary plus negative e.g. It don't bite	0	1
16. Non categorized errors	1	1
Total number of errors	20	34

5.2.2 Teacher Utterances

These were analysed as follows :

(a) Questions

(i) Questions requiring single word answers e.g. Yes / No

(ii) Questions requiring phrases or sentences as answers.The phrases were elliptic and the pupils could have chosen to answer in full sentences if they wished.

e.g. T[1] : Where do giraffes live ?

P[2] : in the veld. or

Giraffes live in the veld.

(iii) Questions which could be answered with a single word or a full sentence.The single word answers were also elliptic in nature.

e.g. T : What else do giraffes eat ?

P : Leaves or

Giraffes eat leaves.

All open-ended questions were included in categories (ii) or (iii)

(iv) This category was a record of questions which were repeated by teachers to probe for further information or to get pupils to clarify earlier statements.The questions which were repeated were not included in the first three categories.According to Rosenshine and Furst (1971) probing for further information correlated positively with greater student gains.

All types of questions, including probing questions, fall under category 4 of the FIAC (Flanders ,1970)and are part of the indirect teacher influence identified by Rosenshine and Furst(1971)and are associated with positive student gains.

---

(1) 'T' refers to 'teacher'

(2) 'P' refers to 'pupil'

(b)(i)Feedback .This entailed indicating that the answer from the pupil had been accepted by the teacher. Acceptance was indicated by using terms such as 'O.K.' , 'right', 'good' etc., or by repeating the answer. While the first three examples would not be considered category 1 in terms of Flanders's FIAC if it was not accompanied by expansion , it was felt that acknowledging that an answer was correct, no matter how brief, encouraged children to participate in the lesson. Feedback through repeating an answer was part of category 3 on the FIAC, although the fourth example was not pure category 3 because the repetition to show acceptance was almost verbatim. This item was therefore included with other forms of feedback.In the lessons feedback provided reinforcement through nurturing the affective components of learning, and served to maintain interest as it showed acceptance of the child's contribution.This was part of the teacher strategies with indirect influence which was associated with positive student gains.

(ii) Expansion and elaboration plus feedback. Here the pupil's answer was rephrased and the teacher added new information where necessary. This was similar to Flanders's(1970) category 3 response(see P35). It indicated acceptance of the pupil's ideas and was associated with positive pupil gains (Rosenshine and Furst, 1971). The following example is taken from Teacher B's lesson :

> (After discussing in depth how some animals have to kill weaker animals in order to survive, the teacher sums up the discussion by saying) 'So here somebody has to die and somebody has to live. So the other animals that are .... that don't attack the lions, they have to run away to save their lives.But the lion if he can catch them, he can keep himself alive by eating them.'

(c) Drill- pattern elicitations

T : It is a sunny day. Say everyone ...

P's :It is a sunny day.

T : Again.

P's : It is a sunny day.

Here the teacher asked the pupils to repeat selected sentences which she said she wanted them to 'remember'.

(d) Turn -taking elicitations

In this instance the pupils were called by name to make a contribution to the lesson, e.g. 'Yes Fatima' or 'Yes Anisa . Stand '.

(e) Correction of errors

These occurred when the teacher interrupted a pupil to correct an error.

e.g. P : My brother ... we was playing with that ...
T : We were ...
P : We were playing with that .. that. ..er.. thing.

TABLE 5 : FREQUENCY OF TEACHER UTTERANCES.

Type of teacher utterance	Frequency of features and percentage occurrence		
	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher B Adjusted
Questions requiring			
(i) Single word answers	24 (18%)	45	40 (22%)
(ii) Sentences/Phrases as answers	24 (18%)	35	31 (17%)
(iii) Words, sentences or phrases as answers	5 (4%)	6	5 (3%)
Sub - Total	53 (40%)	86	76 (42%)
(iv) Probing questions	0 (0%)	18	16 (9%)
(v) Feedback	22 (17%)	41	36 (20%)
(vi) Feedback plus expansion	18 (14%)	56	50 (28%)
Sub - Total	40 (30%)	115	102(56%)
(vii) Drill pattern elicitation	29 (22%)	3	3 (3%)
(viii) Correction of errors	2 (2%)	0	0 (0%)
(ix) Turn-taking elicitation	8 (6%)	0	0 (0%)
Sub- Total	39(30%)	3	3 (2%)
Final - Total	132	204	181

5.3 Description of the Main Language Lesson

The importance of this lesson for the development of language only emerged after the teachers had been interviewed to discuss the data derived from the transcripts of the discussion lessons.Because of this the writer was unable to describe the actual interactions from direct observation as by that time the teachers were no longer teaching the same classes.The information has therefore been obtained by interviewing three Class One teachers to get the general format and then interviewing Teacher A and Teacher B to get a description of their approach to the teaching of 'Main Language'.

(a) During the first part of the Main Language lesson, children were taught to read using a language-experience approach called 'Breakthrough to Literacy'. The Lessons followed the following pattern:

(i) Topics such as 'The Home' were discussed and as the occasion arose words such as 'mum', 'dad', 'television', 'home', etc. were introduced.

(ii) Where necessary , words were explained and children were asked to construct sentences with them. Getting children to construct full sentences initially posed quite a problem, and children had to be constantly reminded to do so. By the end of the year most children were able to do so with ease. In the process of constructing sentences the pupils made numerous grammatical errors and the teacher corrected these whenever they occurred.

(iii) The pupils then constructed sentences with the'word cards' provided, read the sentences to the teacher, had them corrected if necessary, and then recorded the sentences in their 'story books'.

(iv) Errors in complex sentences were often corrected by showing children how these could be broken up into shorter simple sentences.

(v) When teachers noti ed that sentence structures were becoming stereotyped, they encouraged pupils to vary them, though they did not use a check-list to ensure that a variety of sentence patterns were used.

(b) The second part of the Main Language lesson was used to correct some or all of the syntactic errors which occurred during the discussion lesson.This took the form of oral remedial work. This exercise implied that all sentences used by pupils had to be grammatically correct , if not , the teacher was obliged to correct them.

When children used sentences which were grammatically correct, or corrected incorrect structures, their behaviour was reinforced by means of appropriate praise.

5.4. Discussion of Features Observed in the Discus ion Lesson

When one considers how speech acts , as defined by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975),are linked together to form a unique discourse reflecting features of individual members as well as the social dynamics of the group, one realizes that it might be virtually impossible to isolate all the features of such groups.At the same time the process of analysis and categorization is responsible for distorting a great deal of information, and oral language data are no exception. In spite of such limitations, it is n essary to look at oral language lessons in minute detail if one is ever to determine how different teaching styles have ilar or different effects on the performance of pupils.

The comparison of these two lessons is in a small way an effort to isolate the features of two approaches to the teaching of oral language which appear to be different.

single word utterances. These were mainly 'Yes / No' type responses and vocabulary items.

e.g. T: What did you see at the zoo?
P: Lions
Can you keep lions at home?
No.

made 12 (29) such utterances while Class B made 41 (30). There was therefore very little difference between the two classes as regards this type of response. It would seem that these questions were used to focus attention on the lesson content and/or to get pupils to interpret some of the information available during the course of the lesson. It could also be used to give some of the less articulate pupils a chance to participate in the lesson, though this aspect was not assessed during the course of the lesson or afterwards.

utterances of phrase length. As stated earlier, these were elliptic responses to teacher questions. In Class A 8 of the pupil responses were of phrase length while in Class B 17 of the responses were of phrase length. By answering in phrases which were completely comprehensible lessons retained their spontaneity, and time and energy was conserved. The briskness of verbal interaction, which is a consequence of the use of elliptic utterances, helped to retain the attention and interest of the pupils and ensured that maximum information was exchanged in the shortest possible time. As this occurred more frequently in lesson B, one would consider it to be more effective in terms of the amount of information exchanged and in terms of focussing the pupil's attention on the lesson.

utterances of sentence length or elliptic utterances of at least clause length.

had 58 (43) such utterances in comparison to Class A's Pupil utterances of sentence length occurred almost twice as often in Class B as in Class A, and this suggested that Class B had more opportunity to use sentence generating syntactic structures

spontaneously than Class A

(d) Utterances which were longer than sentence length.

In both classes 9% of utterances fell into this category. However the table in this instance was misleading as Class A had a larger number of words per utterance than Class B. Class A used 380 words altogether in this category in comparison to the 221 of Class B.This was the only area in which the pupils of Class A contributed more to the lesson than the pupils of Class B.This could have been due to the nature of the lesson.for example , in the 'daily news' section of Teacher A's lesson, pupils were given an opportunity to talk as much as they wished without prompting from the teacher, and pupils gave lengthy reports on topics of their choice. Teacher B did not have a 'daily news' section on the day the recording was made. At the same time it did seem that Teacher B's technique did not lend itself to such lengthy reporting by the pupils and the utterances were rarely longer than two sentences.The longest utterance in Lesson A was 110 words in comparison to Lesson B's 28 words.

(e) Total number of pupil utterances. Class A had 116 contributions from the pupils while Class B had 134. Teacher B's lesson seemed to allow for a larger number of shorter answers in comparison to Teacher A's lessons.This would allow a larger number of pupils from Class B to contribute to the lesson.

3.4.2 Pattern Sentences and the Correction of Grammatical Error.

A feature which contributed to the difference in teaching style was the repetition of pattern sentences in lesson A.These repetitions formed 20% of the lesson.In the subsequent interview Teacher A said that she did a lot of pattern sentence drill as she did not want pupils to forget certain sentences, while Teacher B indicated that she rarely used this strategy in any of her lessons.The analysis of the two lessons revealed that very few grammatical errors were corrected during the oral language lesson. In the interview which took place later both teachers said that they recorded the most important grammatical errors

in a special book and these were corrected in the 'Main Language' section in the form of remedial exercises.

Class A made 20 errors while Class B made 34.The difference in the frequency of errors could be due to the nature of the topics discussed. Class A spoke on 'daily news' and other related matters and was quite familiar with the vocabulary and sentence structures of this topic as it occurred three to four times per week.Class B spoke on 'wild animals' , a theme which would only be discussed for one or two weeks.The pupils therefore had to search for new vocabulary items and syntactic structures with which to express t deas and were therefore likely to make more grammatical errors. Furthermore,as Class B had more pupil utterances greater than sentence length, they were likely to make more grammatical errors than Class A.

5.4.3 Teacher Utterances

While analysing teacher utterances under the headings 'questions', 'elaboration' and 'feedback' it became apparent that Teacher A was also using a set drill pattern to reinforce certain language structures and a special category was created for this feature (See Table 5). Altogetner 12 structures were repeated - the repetitions ranging in sequence from two to four.There were also four single word repetitions.

In comparing the number of questions asked one again found the difference was quite large. Teacher A asked 56 questions while Teacher B asked 76 questions. In addition Teacher B repeated 18 questions to probe for further information. For example :

T : What else do you know about the cheetah?
P : He eats meat.
T : What else?
P : He's wild.
T : What else ?

If these 18 questions were added to the original 76 the difference became even greater . The general impression was,therefore , that Teacher B probed for further information and tried to exhaust the

knowledge of the pupils. In doing so she forced her pupils to search for appropriate structures with which they could convey all their ideas and this forced them to become more articulate, in the same way that Hawkins (1973) found that working class girls had become more articulate because of the complex roles they had in their homes and community.

5.5 Summary of Results

The analysis of lesson data may be summarized as follows:

(a) Teacher A used a large amount of pattern sentence repetition to reinforce selected grammatical structures and consequently restricted the natural flow of her lessons or at least interrupted it, while Teacher B allowed her pupils to express themselves freely as long as they adhered to the conventions of turn-taking.Because of these repetitions,lesson A sometimes became monotonous and lost its vitality, while lesson B seemed to hold the pupils' interest and they often had to be restrained from calling out answers. Drill type sentence repetitions were found to have no effect on the language development of preschool black children in a study by Ammon and Ammon (reported by Cazden , 1972). These repetitions must therefore have diluted the effectiveness of Teacher A's lessons.

(b) Teacher B often repeated questions to probe for further answers and to extend the pupils' contributions, while in the transcribed lesson Teacher A did not do so.This might have been due to the limitations of the structure and content of Teacher A's lesson topic. In the interview, Teacher A emphasized that she also repeated questions to get further information from the pupils. However , the frequency with which teachers used 'probing' type of questions in different types of lessons was not assessed.Teacher B said that she used 'probing ' type questions in all her lessons , while the recorded lesson of Teacher A did not have this feature. Probing of this sort was associated with positive student gains by Rosenshine and Furst (1971) and this could contribute to the greater effectiveness of Teacher B's

lesson.

(c) Grammatical errors which occurred were corrected independently as remedial work in the Main Language lesson by both teachers.

(d) Probing (by means of questions) does in fact force pupils to search for more complex and appropriate syntactic forms to express their ideas effectively , this would be reflected in the spontaneous speech of the pupils.

(e) Features such as 'feedback' , 'questioning' , 'feedback plus expansion' and 'probing' are aspects of Flanders's teacher strategies with indirect influence which Rosenshine and Furst(1971) found were associated with greater student gains.Collectively,the intensity of these features was greater in Teacher B's lessons. This suggested that , theoretically, her lessons might have a more effective structure and be associated with greater pupil gains.

CHAPTER SIX

ANALYSIS O- PROFILES

In analysir : data for this project , several issues such as the following need to e kept in mind:

(a) The sample sizes were too small for statistical evaluation and as such all conclusions are at best tentative.

(b) No age norms are available for the frequency of specific features on the LARSP Profile.

(c) Because of the numerous variables reflected on the profile, it is al st impossible to say that two pupils , or two groups , are exactly equal in terms of linguistic development after comparing each of the specific features within the different developmental stages.The Stage VII features on tne profile have therefore been used to determine whether or not the groups are equivalent.

6.1 The LARSP Profiles

the following LARSP Profiles were compiled (See pages 75 to 78):

(a) Class A - Compcsite Profile as at 15 February 1982
(b) Class A - Composite Profile as at 8 December 198
(c) Class B - Composite Profile as at 15 February 1982
(d) Class B - Composite Profile as at 8 December 1982

6.2 The Mean Aoes of the Sample

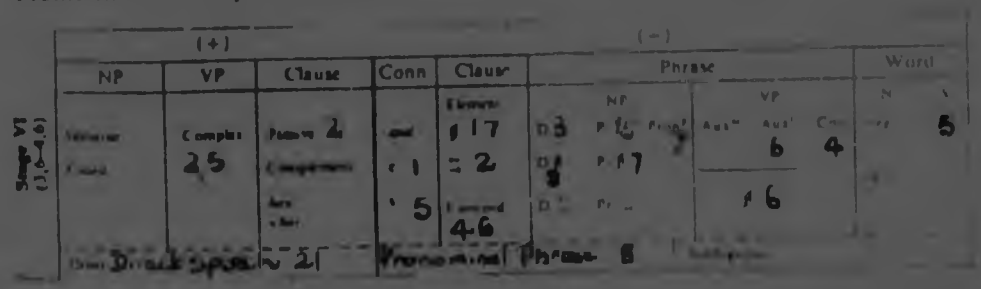
The mean ages of the sample ,rounded off to the nearest month,were as follows (See page 79):

COMPOSITE LARSP PROFILE - CLASS A FEBRUARY 1982



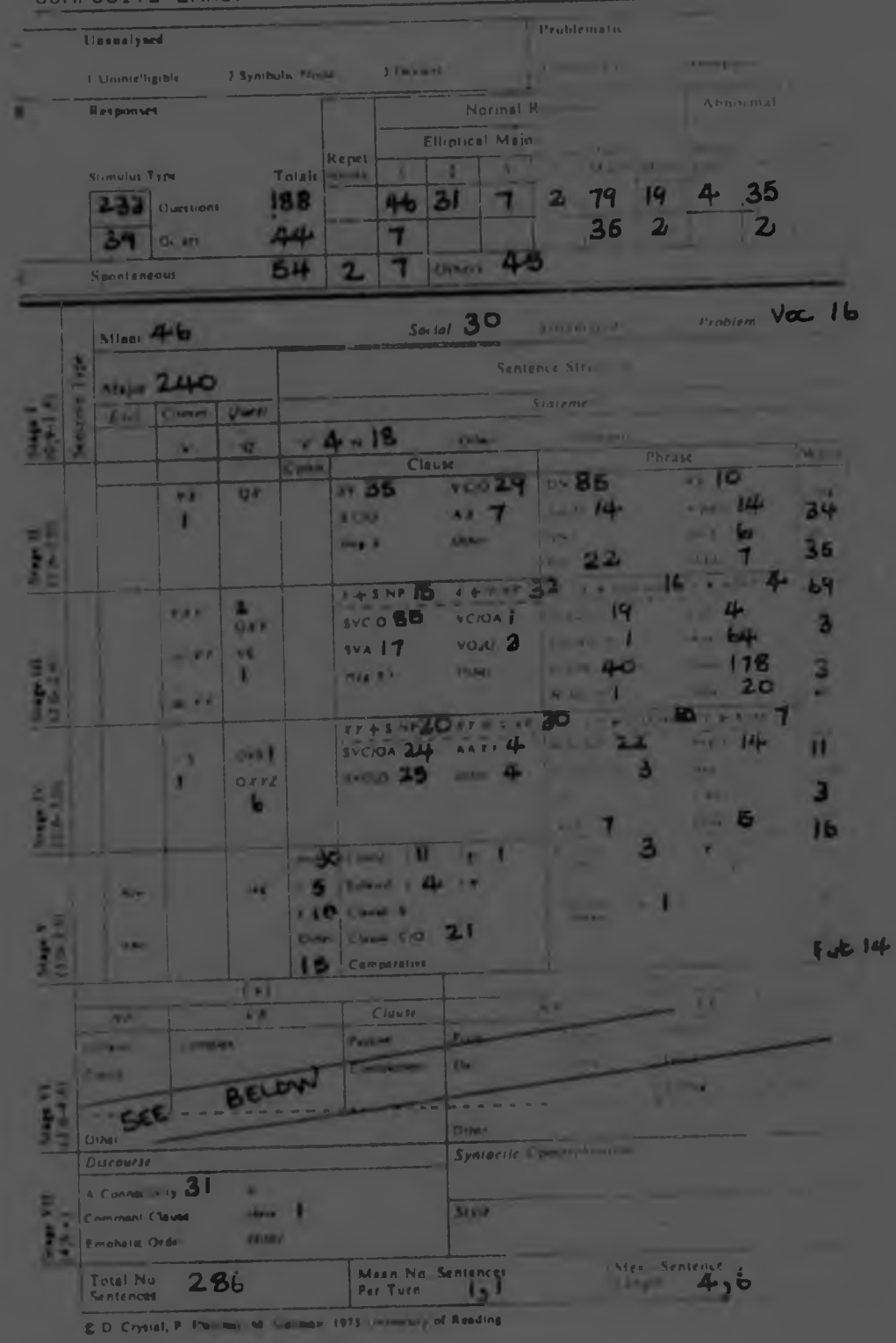
© D. Crystal, P. Fletcher, M. Garman, 1975 University of Reading

Profile chart: developmental stages



Extract from revised chart - Stage VI (Crystal , 1982).

COMPOSITE LARSP PROFILE - CLASS A . DECEMBER 1982

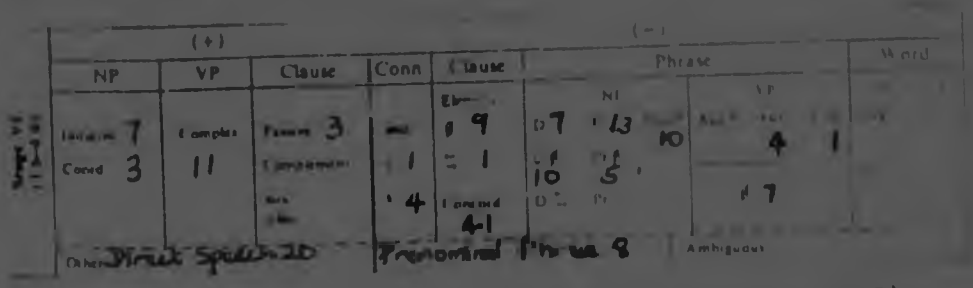


Extract from revised chart - Stage VI (Crystal , 1982).

COMPOSITE LARSP PROFILE - CLASS A , DECEMBER 1982

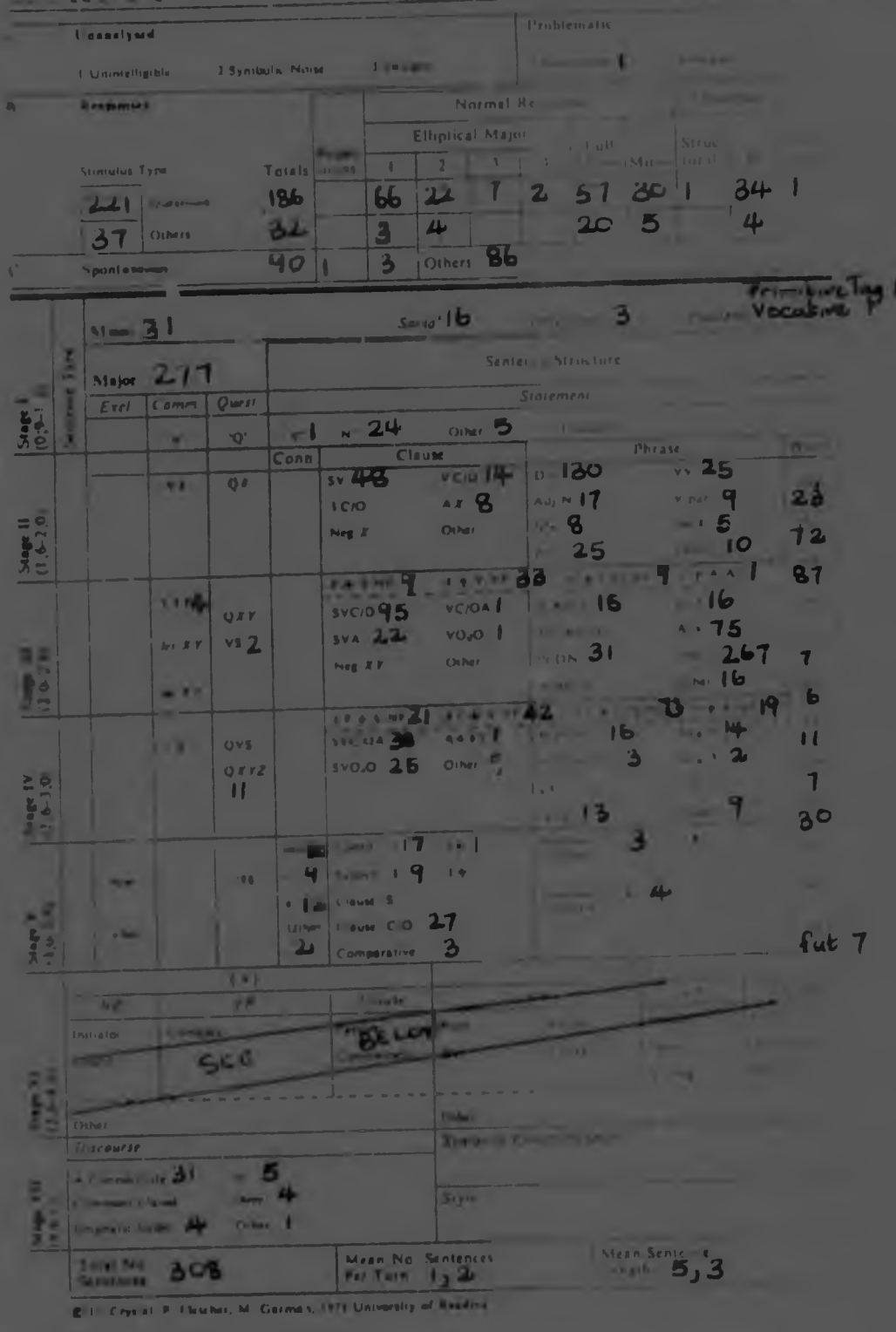


Profile chart: developmental stages

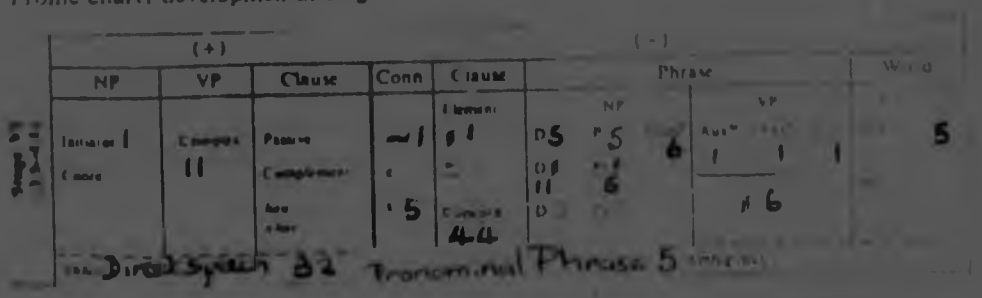


Extract from revised chart - Stage VI (Crystal , 1982).

COMPOSITE LARSP PROFILE - CLASS B . FEBRUARY 1982



Profile chart: developmental stages

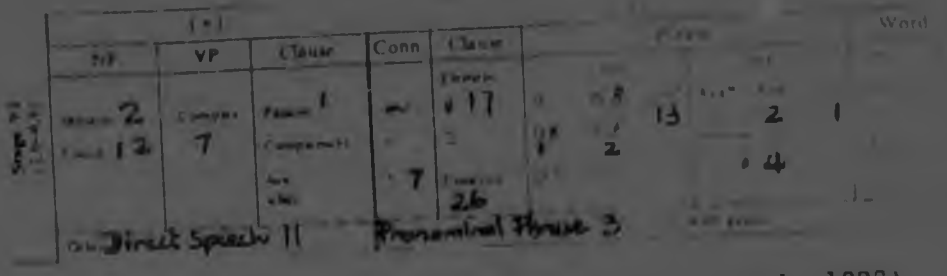


Extract from revised chart- Stage VI (Crystal, 1982)

COMPOSITE LARSP PROFILE - CLASS B , DECEMBER 1982



Profile chart: developmental stages



Extract from revised chart - Stage VI (Crystal, 1982)

Class A - February 1982 : 6 years 4 months
Class B - February 1982 : 6 years 1 month

The difference in average age between the two groups is three months.As the samples were small it was expected that they would not be identical in respect of chronological age.The actual range of the two samples in February was as follows:

Class A : 5years 11 months to 6 years 10 months
Class B : 5 years 9 months to 6 years 6 months

According to Crystal, Fletcher and Garman (1976) the basic syntactic structures are normally complete by the age of 4½ years.However,they state that these norms were compiled from studies with middle-class English children and they recommend that for children from lower socio-economic cultures about six months should be added.If a further six months were added because these were Indian children from lower socio-economic homes, the basic syntactic structure could be expected to be completed by the time the pupils were 5½ years old.In the present study one notes that the youngest pupil is 5 years 9 months old , and the average age of both groups is over six years.The writer therefore feels that a difference of three months in average age between the samples, when evaluating the syntax of children who theoretically should have mastered the basic syntactic structures of English more than a year ago, need not have a major influence on the results of this study.

6.3 The extent to which the two groups of pupils from Class A and Class B are equivalent in terms of the syntactic features reflected on tne LARSP Profile

An examination of the profiles reveals that both groups have reached the Stage VII level of syntactic development.This indicates that the pupils' socio-linguistic and cultural background , which stimulated language development , must have been equivalent.In terms of maturation of linguistic features, their levels in general terms were also equivalent as they could only have reached Stage VII developmentally if they were ready in terms of maturation.There were , however , differences as regards

...reflected development. For example, although ... showed development up to Stage VI!, the two samples differed terms of individual Stage VI features. For example , at Stage VI lass A, the positive features were complex verbs and passives , while Class B the positive features were complex verbs and an initiator. were also differences in terms of frequencies of different features. example, in Class A there were 25 examples of complex verbs in the ruary Profile while Class B only had 11.These differences in specific ures will,however, be discussed when comparing February and December ...files of each sample, and again when comparing the changes which occurred ... samples after a period of 10 months at school.

...tion and comparison of syntactic features reflected on the LARSP Profile

...entence type

...Fletcher and Garman (1976) identify four sentence types in English. ey are exclamations , commands, questions and statements.An examination ... the four profiles revealed that there were no exclamations, only a ...w commands, and slightly more questions , while there were several ...ndred statements.The manner in which the sample was collected, namely, ...here the teacher provided the verbal stimulus and the pupil responded, ...d not allow the child to use exclamations and commands , or ask ...any questions.Because of this the speech sample did not have many examples ... sentence types other than statements.In a free-flowing conversation ...ould be less structured, such as between two children at play, one could ...therefore expect a larger number of these structures to occur.Similar ...observations have been made by Penn(1983) , and Crystal (1982,P19).

... Lee in her Developmental Sentence Analysis recommends that 50 complete , different, consecutive,intelligible, nonecholalic sentences, obtained from ...sample in conversation with an adult,is sufficient to provide a description of a child's syntax through her technique of sentence analysis.While all the sentences recorded on the LARSP Profiles are not complete sentences in terms of Lee's definition, each profile does have ...more than 50 complete sentences which would meet with all her criteria

as each profile has more than 200 complete sentences. Therefore, one can say that the large number of statements, together with the few commands and questions, are more than adequate for the purposes of this study, and these have been analysed in terms of clause elements, phrase elements, word elements and connectives.

6.4.2 Description of the LARSP Profile Stages

This section will be presented under the following headings.

(a) Description up to Stage IV
(b) Description of Stage V
(c) Description of Stage VI
(d) Description of Stage VII

6.4.2.1 Description of Syntactic Development up to Stage IV

Clause Structure

Fletcher (1979, P23) defines clause structure as 'a syntactic structure containing a subject and a predicate'. However one must remember that in many elliptic utterances the subject may be omitted, and it is not recorded. Although it is still recoverable from the stimulus sentence.

e.g. T :What work does your mummy do ?
P : Washes the dishes
V O

In the above example the elliptic utterance of the pupil consists of the predicate, which has been subdivided into the sentence elements 'Verb' and 'Object'. A close examination of the four profiles reveals that all clause structures are well represented with the exception of the data reflected in Table 6. The low frequencies reflected in Table 6 can be explained as follows.

(a) The SC/O Clause (Stage II). Although the frequencies in all the profiles are 0 these have already been expanded to SV/O Stage III

TABLE 6 : FREQUENCY OF CLAUSE ITEMS DISCUSSED IN 6.4.2.1

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. SC/O clauses (Stage II)	0	0	0	0
2. Neg. X clauses (Stage II)	0	0	0	0
3. Neg. XY Clauses (Stage III)	0	0	0	0
4. VC/OA Clauses (Stage III)	4	1	1	3
5. VOd Oi Clauses (Stage III)	7	2	1	0

(iii) The Neg X, e.g. Not car , and Neg XY, e.g. No man come. These have already been expanded to the more advanced forms of Stage IV using the phrase forms of Neg V and Neg X.

(iv) The low frequency of clauses with VC/OA and VOdOi. The low frequency is the result of many of these clauses having been expanded to SVC/OA and SVOdOi patterns of Stage IV.

(v) (i) Clauses having two adverb elements and two other elements (AAXY ,Stage IV) have a low frequency.This suggests that the syntax requiring the use of double adverbs is poorly established.

TABLE : DOUBLE ADVERB ELEMENTS IN CLAUSES

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. Frequency of double adverb elements in clauses	3	4	1	4

TABLE 8 : ADVERB ELEMENTS IN CLAUSES

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
Frequency of Adverb Elements in Clauses	102	57	71	84
Percentage change from Feb. to Dec.	44% decrease		18% increase	

(ii) The frequency of Adverb (A) elements used in clauses is shown in Table 8. While there is a 44 percent decrease in the use of Adverb elements in Class A. there is an 18 percent increase in Class B.

Phrase Structure

TABLE 9 PHRASE STRUCTURES WITH LOW FREQUENCIES OR WHICH SHOW THE EFFECTS OF TEACHING.

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. NN Phrase (Stage II)	3	0	8	3
2. Adj. Adj N (Stage III)	0	1	0	3
3. N Adj N (Stage III)	0	1	0	1
4. N Pr NP (Stage IV)	11	22	16	9
5.Neg V (Stage IV)	22	14	14	8
6. Neg X (Stage IV)	3	0	2	2
7. 2Aux (Stage IV)	3	0	0	0
8. Pr D Adj N (Stage IV)	7	3	3	8

Flekser defines a phrase as ' a small group of words expressing a single notion' (Flekser ,1979, P24).The four profiles show that phrases were well distributed with the exception of the following(See Table 9):

(a) The NN phrase was used rather infrequently and did not occur in Class A during December.

(b) The use of the double adjective (Adj Adj N)did not occur in either of the February profiles and occurred 4 times in the December profiles. This suggests that the use of double adjectives for descriptions was poorly established.

(c) The N Adj N pattern ,(e.g. Johnny's big train) did not occur in the February profiles of either class group,and occurred once only in each of the December profiles.This could be due to the nature of the sample and because this type of phrase is not used too frequently. In fact Crystal (1982) omits this pattern in his revised profile.This pattern , if it occurred,would then be included under the heading 'Other' (Stage III).

(d)The Stage IV phrase level frequencies were well developed for N Pr NP and Neg V (Table 9).The N Pr NP increased in usage in Class A while it decreased in Class B.

(e) The Neg V decreased in usage in both class groups.

(f) The Neg X occurred seven times in the four profiles altogether.

(g) At this stage it is interesting to note that the double auxiliary (2Aux) occurred only three times in one February sample and not at all in the other three samples.The cognitive complexity captured by double auxiliaries such as 'I will be coming' involve ' very subtle and complex time distinctions'(Lee , 1974 .P17), similar to those involving the use of the auxiliary 'have'.That children were not using this type of elaboration might be due to

the nature of the sample , or , because the pupils' linguistic environment did not stimulate these pupils into acquiring this type of syntactic structure. Lee (1974, P144), gives this type of sentence her highest score of complexity and expects it to develop at Stage VI with passives.In a subsequent test with six boys who had been at school for nine months it was established that all of them could use 'can be' and 'will be' in sentences when asked to do so. One boy could also use 'should have' and 'could have' but the other five could not.This suggests that while children in their first year at school do have the ability to use some types of double auxiliaries in sentences, they do not have the ability to use all of them , and there might be a hierarchy in the acquisition of the double auxiliary patterns.

(h) Although the frequency for P D Adj N (e.g. in the blue car) was low , one noticed that the frequency decreased in Class A while it increased in Class B.

Word Structure

(a) The items which were well developed were the present participle(-ing), plurals (pl), past tense form (-ed), the contracted negative (n't), and the contracted auxiliary.

(b) There were instances of the present indefinite tense - third person singular (3's) in the sample as well as the contracted copula ('cop).

(c) The genitive occurred in three of the four samples.

(d) The comparative and superlative forms of the adjective did not appear on any of the four profiles. This could be due to the nature of the sample.In a follow-up study with six boys who had been at school for nine months, it was found that four of them could use comparatives and superlatives to describe practical situations, one boy seemed confused and got half the items right whileone did not seem to understand what was required.

(e) The adverb ending in -ly occurred only once.It does seem that this type of word is not well developed and might be used infrequently in the child's culture.In a follow-up study with six boys it was found that only one of the boys could recall a word ending in -ly . None could complete sentences such as 'Mummy does not want you to run fast because she is afraid you will fall and get hurt. She therefore asks you to run _____'. All the children said 'slow';They chose words such as 'slowly' when asked to choose the correct word from pairs such as 'slow' and 'slowly'.This suggested that the adverbs ending in -ly were not sufficiently developed for them to be used spontaneously in oral language.

(f) The future tense (fut) is formed with the modal verbs 'will' or 'shall', and occurred in all four profiles, although its frequency fluctuated.This fluctuation could be due to the nature of the sample and the particular expressive styles of the subjects.

(g) The past participle form , represented on the profile by the symbol -en occurred five times in Class A and once in Class B, and was poorly developed. This could be due to the complex verbs being poorly developed and the modal verbs , which could be used to form such complex verbs , being rather restricted in their use.The only modal auxiliaries in use were 'must' , 'could', 'will', 'can', and the two auxiliaries which were joined with contracted negatives , namely , 'couldn't ' and 'can't '.

4.4.2.2 Syntactic features at Stage V

(a) Connectives

The four types of connectives listed by Crystal, Fletcher and Garman(1976) occurred in each of the profiles.These will be discussed under the headings Coordinating Connectives and Subordinating Connectives.

(i) Coordinating Connectives

Table 10 shows that there was a decrease in the use of coordinating connectives in both classes. At the same time one notices that the

frequency with which they were used to coordinate clauses dropped from 41 to 13 in Class A , a decrease in percentage usage from 69% to 39% , while at the same time in Class B its use to coordinate clauses increased from 41 to 45. This was an increase from 59% to 85%. These figures also indicated that while there was an increase in the use of coordinating connectives to maintain narrative flow in Class A , in Class B there was an increase in the use of these connectives to link clauses.

TABLE 10 : FREQUENCY OF COORDINATING CONNECTIVES AND THEIR RELATIVE PERCENTAGE USAGE.

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. Frequency of 'and' and other connectives	59	33	69	53
2. No. of times used to link clauses	41	13	41	45
3. Percentage usage to link clauses	69%	39%	59%	85%
4. No. of times used as a cevice to maintain narrative flow	18	22	28	8
5. Percentage usage to maintain narrative flow	31%	63%	41%	15%

(ii) Subordinating Connectives

TABLE 11 :FREQUENCY OF UBORDINATING CONNECTIVES

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. Frequency of usage	5	10	12	22

Table 11 shows that the use of subordinating connectives was rather limited for all the samples. While there was a decrease in frequency in Class A , there was an increase in Class B.

(iii) Comparison of the different Types of Clauses

TABLE 12 : FREQUENCY OF THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF CLAUSES

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. No.of main clauses	228 (80%)	210 (90%)	209 (80%)	197 (75%)
2.No. of coordinate clauses	41 (14%)	13 (6%)	41 (16%)	45 (17%)
3. No. of subordinate clauses(including elliptic subordinate clauses)	15 (5%)	10 (4%)	12 (5%)	22 (8%)
Total No. of clauses	284	233	262	264

The above table shows that the relative percentage of coordinating conjunctions used to join sentences decreased in Class A from 14% to 6% , while it increased in Class B from 16% to 17% . O'Donnell and his colleagues (1967 ,P21) found that main clause coordination decreased with increased Grade Levels of their pupils.The present study presents a conflicting view, namely that , after a period of 10 months the use of coordinating clauses decreased in Class A and increased in Class B. O'Donnell and his colleagues(1967) hypothesized that the excessive use of 'and' was a sign of immaturity and the rate of occurrence per 100 T-Units [1] in their study was 60% for pupils in Grade 1. This was

(1) According to O'Donnell and his colleagues(1967 , P33-34) "the T-Unit is a single independent prediction together with any subordinate clauses that may be grammatically related to it.It may be a simple or complex sentence, but not a compound sentence... In identifying T-Units" A coordinating conjunction linking two independent clauses was regarded as the first element in the second clause.

an extremely high frequency.In the current study, the figure is below 15 for all four profiles.It would therefore appear the O'Donnell's speech sample was significantly different from that of the present study and comparisons might not be valid urder such circumstances.

Templin (1957 , P144) found that there was a general increase in the use of subordinate clauses with an increase in the age of the pupils. The present study again presented a conflicting picture.In Class A the use of subordinate clauses decreased from 5% to 4% , while in Class B it increased from 5% to 8%.The sample used in the present study was too small for these to be regarded as real differences.

(b) Other Features at Stage V

(i) Subordinate Clauses (1+) did not occur in any of the four profiles. Possibly pupils were not familiar with this type of structure.That this could be due to the nature of the sample was unlikely as there were no examples of this type of clause in any of the transcriptions of oral lessons or in the written work of the pupils who had been at school for ni · months.

(ii) None of the four profiles had an example of a subject clause.This suggested that the pupils had not yet learnt to expand subject phrases into clauses.

(iii) Object clauses were well represented in all four profiles while comparative clauses occurred rather infrequently.The latter type of clause was rather primitive in its structure, for example :

1: We got things like mountains and all.
2: When he was small like me.

(iv) The incidence of postmodal clauses (type 1) decreased in Class A from 11 to 3 and increased in Class B from 3 to 7.

(v) Post modal clauses (type 1+) were poorly represented in all four profiles. They occurred twice in Class A in February and once in Class B

in December.It seemed that this pattern was not in regular use when these pupils came to school for the first time and the classroom experience had not facilitated the development.

(vi) Post modal phrases were also being used infrequently as can be seen from the table below.

TABLE 13 : FREQUENCY OF POST MODAL PHRASES

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
Post modal phrase usage	1	1	4	2

6.4.2.3 Stage VI - Positive Features

Although a child at this stage gave the distinct impression that much of the language learning process was complete, there were several areas of syntax which were still developing. The positive features of this stage are discussed under the following headings:

(a) Noun Phrases : Initiators and coordination
(b) Complex Verbs
(c) Clauses

(a) Noun Phrases

TABLE 14 : FREQUENCY OF NOUN PHRASES - INITIATORS AND COORDINATION

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. Initiator	0	7	1	2
2. Coordination	0	3	0	12

Initiators such as 'all the people' occurred seven times in the December sample of Class A, and Class B the frequency increased from one to two.The increase for Class A was larger than for Class B.

Coordination such as 'First you make the horse, then the door, then the window' , or , 'Go there , by that house there' occurred for the first time in both December samples.It seemed that this syntactic feature had just started developing and its frequency was low.The increased frequency for Class A was smaller than for Class B.

(b) Verb Phrases

Complex kinds of verb phrases are recorded at Stage VI.Included in this group are verb phrases which contain an auxiliary and a negative (Crystal 1981,P37) , for example , 'He might not go ',as well as all instances 'when more than one verb process is used' (Crystal ,1979 , P94).

e.g. He didn' see no way to go out.

TABLE 15 : FREQUENCY OF COMPLEX VERBS

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
Frequency of complex verbs	25	11	11	7

As can be seen from the above table, the frequency for complex verbs dropped in both samples and the usage appeared to be limited.Most of the complex verbs were of the contracted negative + auxiliary + main verb type. Complex verbs were further subdivided as indicated in Table 16.

The negative + auxiliary was a very elementary type of complex verb and first made its appearance at Stage IV. According to Lee (1974 , P28) 'the use of negation is dependent upon knowing the auxiliary verb system and its obligatory do requirement'. While one noted that the

[illegible] negat[illegible] [illegible] form was represented in reasonable numbers, he more advanced forms which involved higher levels of cognitive skill nd the use of the auxiliary'have' had not yet developed adequately. fact in the four language samples, the following was the only [illegible] have being used as a complex verb:

[illegible] have you got lots of friends here ?
[illegible] aven't.

[illegible] 1974, [illegible]17) most investigators agreed that the [illegible] have developed rather late because of the very complex [illegible] time distinctions which were required when it was used.

[illegible] Table 16 revealed that the frequency of complex verbs [illegible] both samples had decreased relative to the total number of verbs [illegible] though the percentage usage was higher for Class A in both instances. [illegible] trend observed for the two classes was contrary to expectations, [illegible] one would have expected the children to use more complex forms of verbs [illegible] they matured.

TABLE 16 [illegible] TYPES OF COMPLEX VERBS AND THEIR RELATIVE FREQUENCIES

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
[illegible] negative + auxiliary + [illegible] verb type, e.g. I don't know	17(6[illegible])	7(3%)	7(3%)	5(2%)
Other	8(3[illegible])	4(2%)	4(2%)	2(1[illegible])
[illegible]	25(9%)	11(5%)	11(4%)	7(3%)
[illegible] of verbs in sample	284	233	262	264

(c) Clause Structures

Two advanced forms of clause structures are listed [illegible] are passives and complementation.

(i) Passives

According to Quirk and Greenbaum (1973 ,P168) , [illegible] noun phrase assumes the function of the subject.Crystal (1976, P[illegible] identified two types of passives , namely :

Type 1 : The pure form such is in ' The cat was bitten by the dog'
Type 2 : Where 'got' was used as a passive auxiliary, as in
' He got burnt.'

TABLE 17 : FREQUENCY OF PASSIVES

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
No.of Passives	2	3	0	1

The above table indicates that the use of passives was very restricted. There was only one passive of the Type 1 category , namely , 'A boy was stabbed', while the other four were formed by using the auxiliary 'got'.

(ii) Advanced forms of complementation were not present in the sample.

6.4.2.4 Stage VI . Negative Features

Crystal , Fletcher and Garman(1976) believe that children at this stage of development were doing so much right that it was no longer fruitful to describe what was syntactically right.They therefore included in their chart a set of negative features which formed a type of error chart. The chart was revised by Crystal in 1982 (See Appendix II). The 1982 Chart-Stage VII was used in this study as it was found that it could describe the syntactic errors of six to seven year old boys better than the 1976 chart

Crystal and his colleagues emphasized that the errors indicated that a particular syntactic rule was in the process of being acquired, and as the errors decreased in frequency, it indicated that a greater mastery of the rule was being achieved. The Stage VI negative features will be discussed urder the following headings.

(a) Connective errors
(b) Clause element errors -General
(c) Clause element errors - Omissions
(d) Clause element errors - Concord
(e) Noun phrase errors - Determiners
(f) Noun phrase errors - Prepositions
(g) Noun phrase errors -Pronouns
(h) Verb phrase errors - Auxiliaries
(i) Verb copula errors
(j) Word level errors

(a) Connective errors

TABLE 18 : CONNECTIVE ERRORS

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
Type of connective:				
1. And	0	0	1	0
2. Other coordirating connectives	1	1	0	0
3. Subordinate connectives	5	4	5	7
No. of subordinate connectives	15	10	12	17
Percentage subordinate connective errors	33%	40%	42%	41%

The 'an.'' error was an error of omission , for example ,
'He ran there ^ opened the pot for the wolf to fall in '.

The coordinating connective errors were related to the faulty use of 'so'.

e.g. I'll make this gold for you.So then what will you give me?

At this stage it was interesting to note that the use of coordinating connectives had been mastered quite well by all the pupils in the sample. Mastery of subordinate connectives in all four profiles was far from complete, and the percentage error was quite high , ranging from 33. to 44 . Table 19 shows the breakdown of subordinate connective errors.

TABLE 19 :ANALYSIS OF SUBORDINATE CONNECTIVE ERRORS

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. 'Cause' is used for 'because	3	0	1	0
2. 'Because' is redundant	0	0	1	0
3. 'That' is used for 'because'	0	0	1	0
4 'That' is redundant	0	1	0	0
5..'That' is omitted	0	1	0	0
6. 'Where' is used for 'when'	1	0	0	0
7. 'When' is omitted	0	1	0	1
8. 'What' is used for 'which'	0	0	0	1
9. 'When' is redundant	0	0	1	0
10.'When' is used for 'where'	0	0	0	1
11.'I ' is omitted	1	0	0	0
12 'How' is used for 'as'	0	1	0	0
13.'Till' is used for 'until	0	0	0	1
14.'Such' is omitted	0	0	0	2
15.' such as' is omitted	0	0	0	1
16.'As' is omitted	0	0	1	0

Table 19 reveals that there was no particular pattern of subordinate connective errors, and that the errors which occurred in the February profiles did not recur in December.This was in keeping with Crystal, Fletcher and Garman's (1976 , P78-79) statement that the various types of errors decreased and were eliminated as the children grew older. It is possible that the sample size was too small to identify error patterns.The present sample of pupils seemed to experience problems with wh-conjunctions, and with the use of 'that and 'as'.

(b) Clause element errors - General

At Stage VI the clause element errors were those of element omission(ø) , incorrect element position (⟷), and concord.The profiles revealed that the most frequent errors were those of omission and concord and these are discussed in greater detail in sections (c) and (d).

(c)Clause element errors - Omissions

Examples of this type of error were the following :

1. ^ must make your own house . (subject omitted)
2. Cause they ^ too big . (verb omitted)

TABLE 20 : FREQUENCY OF CLAUSE ELEMENTS OMITTED

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
No. of clause elements omitted	17	9	1	17

The above table revealed that in Class A the omission errors had decreased from 17 to 9 , while in Class B they had increased from 1 to 17 , in order to account for the rather marked increase in omission errors in Class B , these were analysed further.

It was found that four pupils in Class B had a total of only six errors, while one pupil had made 11 omission errors , when in February he had only one error.This pupil seemed to be having problems with the use of ellipses. For example , when asked 'Do you play with friends?' he replied ' ^ play alone '.

Ellipses within a sentence, when sentences are conjoined, also gave difficulty.The following are examples of this difficulty:

1. My small cousin threw ^ ^ and broke it.
2. They were giving out prizes and ^^ the puppet show and all.

The verb-particle omission (example 1) accounted for two omission errors while the subject-verb omission (example 2) occurred in three sentences and accounted for six omission errors.It appeared that this pupil had not fully generalized the rule governing which elements could be omitted and under what circumstances this could be done, when sentences were conjoined.The frequency of omission errors in Class B was high in December because one pupil had made 10 omission errors when in the February sample he had made one error only.

(d) Clause element errors - Concord

According to Crystal,Fletcher and Garman (1976) ,Crystal (1979) concord errors refe. to the lack of agreement between subject and verb, lack of agreement between tenses in a series of sentences (or clauses), or a lack of agreement between subject or object , and pronouns.Subject-verb agreement has further been sub-divided into the following sections:

(i) Third person singular -present indefinite tense
(ii) Other types of subject concord.

Table 21 reveals that the main types of concord errors related to the third person singular - present indefinite tense and tense sequence concord.

TABLE 21 FREQUENCY OF TYPES OF CONCORD ERRORS

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
Concord Errors:				
1. Subject -Verb Agreement				
(i) Third person singular (3's)	35	27	29	16
(ii) Other	1	3	2	2
2. Tense Sequence Concord	10	8	12	7
3. Other types	0	3	1	1

(i) Subject-verb concord - omission of third person singular verb endings (3's)

According to Table 22 this type of error was common to all samples and incorrect usage was more frequent than correct usage.

TABLE 22 : FREQUENCY OF THIRD PERSON SINGULAR (3's) USA

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. Correct usage of third-person singular (3's)	7(17%)	3(10%)	7(19%)	4(25%)
2. Incorrect usage of third-person singular (3's)	35(83%)	27(90%)	29(81%)	16(75%)

An example of a third person singular (3's) error is the following :

e.g. Then my father come^ from work . (correct form - comes)

In Class A the percentage error rate increased from 83% to 90% while

in Class B it dropped slightly to 75%.In spite of the changes,the error rate was extremely high.Parshotam (1979 ,P29) had an error rate of 58% for a normal group of three and a half year old Indian children. The high error rate in the present study, bearing in mind that in December the children were about seven years old , suggests that this might be a stylistic language feature which was being reinforced by the linguistic community in which the child was growing up, and as such the child was not perceiving it as an error in usage which needed to be corrected.However this does not explain why there were some instances of correct usage. It is possible that these instances of correct usage were features of stereotyped sentences, that is , the sentences with their correct third person singular verb were learnt as a unit and used whenever the need arose, but the child was not consciously aware of the syntactic rule that the sentence embodied. According to Rhemtula (1983), Roberts (1981) omission of the third person singular verb ending (3's) was a feature of non-standard English and Coloured English.

The present study differs from Rhemtula's (1983) study in that it did not find deletions in copulas (e.g. the man^ here. for 'the man's here.'), or possessive morpheme omission e.g. 'John^ car ' for 'John's car'). Klatzko(1975) believes that third person singular tense (3's) errors decreased with age.Roberts (1981)did not find support for this view.He concluded by stating that because South African school populations were homogeneous they reinforced non-standard English patterns.The present study provides conflicting data on this aspect. In Class A percentage errors increased slightly, while they decreased slightly in Class B.One is however inclined to agree with Roberts that homogeneous school populations were likely to reinforce non-standard English patterns so that the rate of decrease in third person singular errors (3's) would be small.

[illegible] tense sequence errors

Tense sequence errors refer to the lack of agreement between the tenses of verbs in a series of sentences or conjoined sentences.This type of error can therefore only occur in utterances which are at least two

sentences in length, or , if the utterance consisted of a single sentence, it consisted of two or more clauses . Young (1978) called this tense shifting.

In Table 23 the distribution of errors in each sample was expressed as a percentage in relation to the total number of coordinated and complex sentences reflected on the LARSP Profiles, and secondly ,as a percentage in relation to the number of turns which were longer than one simple sentence, that is , pupil utterances which consisted of more than one sentence , or one or more multiple sentences.

TABLE 23 : FREQUENCY OF TENSE SEQUENCE ERRORS

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. No. of tense sequence errors	10	8	12	7
2. No. of complex and coordinated sentences	45	16	27	39
3. Percentage errors in relation to complex/coordinated sentences	22	50	44	18%
4 No. of turns which consist of two or more sentences, or one or more multiple sentences	68	41	47	57
5. Percentage errors in relation to 4 above	15	20%	26%	12

As can be seen from Table 23, both comparisons revealed that the percentage of tense sequence errors increased for Class A, while it decreased for Class B.this suggests that the linguistic experience of the two class groups might have been different, and hence the different outcomes in percentage terms.

(e) Noun phrase errors - Determiners

According to Varun (1975, P21) the child who uses determiners correctly

has demonstrated that he can recognize the difference between proper, mass and common nouns as each takes only certain determiners.For example, proper nouns occur without articles, while common nouns take articles . 'Mass nouns are quantified by 'same' and 'more', and count nouns require articles, or 'other' ,or 'another' (Narun ,1975 ,P21). Menyuk (1971 , P137) states that determiner errors occur in the following order - first it is omitted , then it is substituted , and finally it is substituted and used redundantly.Brown(1973.P355) says that children learn to control the specific , non-specific distinctions of articles between 32 and 41 months.

TABLE 24 :FREQUENCY OF DETERMINER USAGE

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. No. of determiners used	218	147	179	92
2. No. of determiner errors	11	17	16	1
3. Percentage errors	2%	12%	9%	1%

One notes that the percentage errors increased for Class A from 2% to 12% , while it decreased for Class B from 9% to 1%.It does seem that the 10 months of teaching experience has had different effects on the two groups as regards determiners.

Table 25 gives a further breakdown of determiner errors.It indicates that in Class A determiner omissions increased from 8 to 10 over a ten month period, with 'the' having the largest omission frequency. In Class B determiner omissions dropped from 11 to 1 , indicating that pupil had learnt to use 'the ' correctly in all instances except one. The use of redundant determiners was confined to Class A only.The substitution errors were confined to using 'this' for 'that' ,'those', 'these',and 'that' for 'these'.No trends could be established for determiner substitutions. In Class B determiner substitutions had

decreased to zero whereas in Class A they had increased to five.

TABLE 25 ANALYSIS OF DETERMINER ERRORS

		Class A		Class B	
		Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
Determiner omissions:	the	8	7	9	1
	our	0	1	0	0
	a	0	2	2	0
		8	10	11	1
Redundant determiners:	a	1	1	0	0
	the	1	0	0	0
	those	0	1	0	0
		2	2	0	0
Determiner substitutions.					
'a' for 'some'		1	0	0	0
'This' for 'that'		0	1	0	0
'that' for 'those'		0	3	4	0
'this' for 'those'		0	1	0	0
'this for these'		0	0	1	0
		1	5	5	0

(4) Noun phrase errors - Prepositions

According to Narun (1975) prepositions developed in an ordered fashion. 'in' and 'on' were acquired first according to Brown (1973). Clarke H. (1973) believed that 'at' was acquired first , followed by 'on' and then 'in', Clarke E. V. (1974) found the order to be 'in' , then on', and finally 'under'. Lee (1974,P 8) believes that preposition omissions indicated that the basic rules of subject-verb-object had not been observed and that the child was not fully aware of the acted upon semantic relationship of the 'object to the verb'.

TABLE 26 : FREQUENCY OF PREPOSITION USAGE AND ERRORS

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. No. of prepositions used	84	87	75	75
2. Preposition omissions	7(8%)	5(6%)	5(7%)	2(3%)
3. Ordinary preposition substitutions	10(12%)	8(9%)	4(5%)	4(5%)
4. Stylistic preposition substitutions (i)	5(6%)	5(6%)	1(1%)	4(5%)
5. Total no.of preposition substitution errors	15(18%)	13(15%)	5(7%)	8(11%)
Total preposition errors	22(26%)	18(21%)	10(13%)	10(13%)

Brown (1973, P262) found that omission errors were common from the earliest stages of language development and the present study also reflected such omissions. The percentage frequency of preposition errors decreased in Class A while it remained constant in Class B. Preposition omission errors decreased in Class A from 8% to 6% and in Class B from 7% to 3%.

Ordinary preposition substitution errors decreased in Class A from 12% to 9% while it remained constant at 5% in Class A. Stylistic preposition errors remained constant at 5% in Class A while it increased in Class B from 1% to 5%.These errors consisted of the incorrect use of 'by' which seemed to be derived from its equivalent Afrikaans usage such as 'by die huis' and 'by die skool'. This dialectical feature , although a preposition error , must have been culturally reinforced and maintained.

(i) This is the use of the preposition 'by' in the context of its Afrikaans usage (eg. by die huis). Examples of this are 'by the house' and 'by morning school'.

[illegible] Pronoun

[illegible] that Pronouns semantically perform major roles such as [illegible]gent and patient ,and s[illegible]tactically control relations such as subject, [illegible]ject and [illegible]ier, and in doing so form a closed grammatical class. [illegible]run ([illegible] 17) refers to the following two rules which are [illegible]portant [illegible] the development of a pronominal system:

[illegible] Learning that the subject form of the pronoun differs from [illegible]hat found in other sentence positions. e.g. I- me ,he - him , [illegible]he- her , we - us ,they - them.

[illegible] Possessive pronouns must be learnt as a subset of case marked [illegible]ronouns e.g. my - mine , your - yours , her- hers , our - ours, [illegible]heir [illegible] theirs

[illegible]urthe[illegible] development is the learning of reflexive pronouns which appear [illegible] b[illegible] an extension of possessive pronouns.According to Quirk and [illegible]eenbau[illegible] (1973 P103) reflexive pronouns replace co-referential noun [illegible]hrases normally within the same finite verb clause eg.John hurt [illegible]imsel[illegible] [illegible]he[illegible] [illegible]eflexive pronouns are itself , herself , ourselves , [illegible]oursel[illegible] [illegible] [illegible]themselves

[illegible] [illegible]onoun[illegible] have been divided into pronoun omissions [illegible] pronoun sub[illegible]tutions.Pronoun omission errors refer to situations [illegible] [illegible]hed without doubt that only a pronoun can [illegible] [illegible]entenc[illegible].

[illegible] [illegible] Pinky. (a) say "Gimme some sticks. (b) want [illegible] house.

[illegible]he omission at (a) would not be counted as a pronoun omission as Pinky and 'he' fits. At (b) only 'I' fits ,therefore it would be [illegible]unte[illegible] [illegible] [illegible]ronoun omission error.

[illegible] [illegible] refer to the incorrect use of pronouns e.g. He [illegible]

TABLE 27 . FREQUENCY OF PRONOUN

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. No. of pronouns used	285	[illegible]	267	235
2. No. of pronoun omissions	3	[illegible]	2	8
3. Percentage pronoun omissions	1%	[illegible]	0,7%	3,4
4. No of pronoun substitutions	4	[illegible]	4	[illegible]
5. Percentage pronoun substitutions	1,4	[illegible]	1,5%	2,[illegible]
Total no. of pronoun errors	7	10	6	13
Percentage pronoun errors	2,5	5,6	2,2%	5,6

The above table shows that pronoun omissions have increased at approximately the same rate in both classes.Pronoun substitutions also increased slightly in percentage terms but the increases were rather small.The percentage of total pronoun errors was also more or less the same for both class groups.The omission errors suggested that rules governing pronoun usage and the syntactic relations they control had not been mastered fully. The substitution errors suggested that specific rules governing various classes of pronouns such as those related to functions in a sentence (e.g. subject - object) , gender , possessive pronouns , and reflexive pronouns had not been fully differentiated and hence the confusion. A further breakdown of substitution errors revealed that the 17 errors in the four groups were made up as follows:

(i) Reflexive pronouns.In two instances the object form of the pronoun was used instead of the reflexive pronoun.For example , 'him'was used instead of 'himself'.In two instances the incorrect reflexive pronoun was used - 'theirself' was used for 'themselves'.

(ii) There were four instances of person confusion 'they ' was used when 'we' was required.

(iii) There were eight instances of gender confusion.These errors occurred when children related the stories of 'Rapunzel' and 'Rumpelstiltskin'.This might be because the pupils had not fully assimilated the fact that 'Rumpelstiltskin'was a 'wizard' and a 'man', while in the story called 'Rapunzel' many pupils did not know that the 'witch' and 'Rapunzel' were females and the'prince' was a 'male'.

(iv) There was one instance of subject-object pronoun confusion. For example , 'I' was used when 'me' was required.

The frequency of pronoun errors in this sample was , however, too small to identify trends in faulty usage. A larger sample might shed more light on the pattern of pronoun errors.

n) Noun phrase errors - Auxiliaries

Flekser (1979,P26) states that the elaboration of the verb is one of the most complicated aspects of English as the particular meaning of each auxiliary has to be superimposed on the meaning of each lexical verb.Lyons (1974, P171 states that 'only when a child is capable of very subtle and complex time distinctions will the semantic value of the auxiliary 'have' become apparent' and until this happened the child would be quite at home using simple past tense markers such as 'I did' and 'he went'. According to Narun the importance of the auxiliary verb lies in 'its necessity as a structural component , without which fully grammatical sentences are not possible'.

(i) Modal auxiliary errors

In the entire set of four profiles there was only one modal error and this occurred in the contracted form in the sentence 'I'll gonna puff'. When one considers this in relation to the frequency of these verbs which was 14 and 23 for Class A, and 33 and 5 for Class B in February and December respectively, one could safely say that the use of modal auxiliaries had been mastered quite well.The variety of modal auxiliaries in use were however quite limited (see page 116).

(ii) Other auxiliaries

This category included the verb 'to be' (such as 'is','am' and 'are') and the auxiliary 'have'. Table 28 shows that in Class A errors increased from 8 to 10 , while in Class B they increased from 2% to 4 .

TABLE 28 :FREQUENCY OF OTHER AUXILIARIES AND AUXILIARY OMISSIONS

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. No of other auxiliaries	72	41	42	50
2. No. of other auxiliary errors	6	4	1	2
3. Percentage errors	8%	10%	2%	4%
4.No. of auxiliaries used	87	64	75	55
5.No of auxiliary omissions	6	7	6	4
6. Percentage errors	7%	11%	8	7%

(iii) Auxiliary omissions

According to Table 28 the percentage auxiliary omission errors increased from 7 to 11 in Class A, while it decreased slightly from 8 to 7 in Class B.

(i) Verb copula errors

The verb copula is defined as the 'verb to be' used as 'sole verb'. For example , in the sentence 'He is early' , 'is' is the only verb and is not used as an auxiliary verb (Crystal ,Fletcher and Garman,1976, P 45).According to Flekser (1979 ,P 27) the contracted form occurred

in the early stages of language development, so that the appearance of the uncontracted form was an indication of more advanced syntactic performance. In the sentence ' He's here' the 's is a contracted copula.

TABLE 29 : FREQUENCY OF COPULA USAGE

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. No. of Copulas used	12	4	16	12
2. No. of copula errors	4	1	1	1
3. Percentage errors per sample	33%	25%	6%	8%

The table reveals that in Class A copula errors decreased from 33% to 25%, while in Class B they increased from 6% to 8%. The frequency of errors was however too low for meaningful conclusions to be derived from it. It was noted that in Class B there was only one copula error in the February profile and one error in the December profile. In order to establish trends a larger sample would have to be used.

(j) Word level errors

The profile classifies errors into Noun errors and Verb errors. Each of the February profiles had five irregular verb errors while there were no word errors in both December profiles. The decrease was in keeping with Crystal, Fletcher and Garman's(1976) assertion that the errors would decrease as the children differentiated specific rules relevant to irregular verb forms.

6.4.2.6 Stage VII

This stage is divided into the following three sections:

(a) Discourse features
(b) Style
(c) Syntactic Comprehension

This stage is characterized by sentence connecting ability and style , each of which is related to advanced syntactic structures that highlight the 'conscious awareness of features of language' (Crystal,Fletcher and Garman ,1976 ,P85). Crystal and his associates admit that these features have not been fully identified and might be impossible to record.

(a) Discourse features

The LARSP Profile lists six discourse features. The profiles revealed the following:

Class A . In the February profile five of the six features were represented with a total frequency of 44.In the December profile only two of the six discourse features were represented and the frequency had dropped to 32.All items except Adverb-connectivity were poorly developed. At the same time Adverb-connectivity consisted of 'then' only.

Class B. In February five of the six discourse features were represented, with a total frequency of 45.In December again five of the six features were represented and the total frequency was 76.This increase was due to Adverb connectivity (primarily 'then') being used 63 times.The 'comment clause' , 'emphatic order' and 'there- clause' were poorly developed.

As both February Profiles reflected five of the six discourse features, this showed that both groups had reached Stage VII in syntactic development.That Adverb-connectivity lacked variety, might be due to the development of these features being incomplete. Features

which occurred once or twice in the oral language of one or two pupils were items such as 'emphatic order' and 'other connectivity'. This suggested that many pupils were not using these features in their expressive language.

The decrease in the variety of discourse features in Class A might be a cause for concern as it suggested that the 10 months of classroom experience had failed to reinforce all the syntactic features which the child had brought to the classroom at the beginning of the year.

In Class B the February and December profiles had five discourse features each.There was only one instance of 'emphatic order' in the December profile, and one 'comment clause' while the 'there clause' was absent.This again seems to suggest that even in Class B discourse features were not properly reinforced and consolidated.

(b) Style

Style refers to the way in which syntax is affected as new structures appear and the children develop likes and dislikes in their ways of speaking (and listening), that is , they develop stylistic idiosyncrasies of speaking (Crystal , Fletcher and Garman, 1976 ,P83). Sometimes these idiosyncrasies become embedded in the sociolinguistic culture of a community and the children , through their speech, reflect the culture from which they come.While this study did not explore the sociolinguistic nature of these stylistic features , the features which seemed to be stylistically based were noted. The following appeared to be the most important stylistic features.

(i) [illegible] the auxiliary 'did' to form the past tense when the emphatic form was not required.

e.g. The wolf did come . (Correct form : The wolf came.)

TABLE 33 : USE OF THE AUXILIARY 'DID' TO FORM THE PAST TENSE.

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. No. of times 'did' was used to form the past tense	5	5	7	17
2. No. of times past tense verb was used	81	69	87	119
3. Percentage usage of did' to form past tense verb relative to no. of past tense verbs	6%	7%	8 %	14 %

Table 30 shows that 'did' was being used more often to form the past tense, the increase being greater in Class B than in Class A.Roberts (1981 , P35) stated the the use of 'did' as a past tense marker, and the omission of the morpheme ed , was a direct transfer of the past tense form from Afrikaans where 'het' was used before the verb to form the past tense.A further analysis of the use of did' to form the past tense revealed that in 15 instances the 'did' past tense form was used spontaneously and independent of the stimulus question.An example of this is the following.

T : what happened in the film?
P . The animals did help the friends.

In the other 19 instances,the 'did' past tense marker was used after 'did' had been used in a stimulus question, for example :

T : What work did you do?
P : We did story sums.

T : And what did the girl do?
P : Did call the police.

In the above instances it seemed that the pils had not differentiated

the specific rule required when answering questions which contain the auxiliary 'did'.They thus used a generalized rule, and used the auxiliary as part of the verb, as they did in answers such as the following:

T : And who is kicking the ball?
P : The little boy is kicking the ball.

(ii) The use of the preposition 'by'

The over-use of the preposition 'by' in ins ances such as 'by the house and 'by morning school' seemed to reflect the influence of the Afrikaans idiom as in examples such as 'by die huis' and 'by die skool'. The incidence of this feature was not , however, as large as the previous one.

TABLE 31 : FREQUENCY - THE INCORRECT USE OF THE PREPOSITION 'BY'

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1 No. of times 'by' was used incorrectly	5	5	1	4

(iii) Other features which might be stylistic in origin

TABLE [illegible] OTHER STYLISTIC FEATURES

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. The use of 'ja' for 'yes'	0	3	18	8
2. The use of 'gonna' for 'going'	7	0	12	1
3. Huh (meaning 'what?'	2	0	4	1
4. Gimme (meaning 'give me?')	1	0	1	0
5. OK (meaning 'I agree' , 'all right' or 'fine')	6	0	1	0
6. The primitive tag 'ne	3	0	1	2
7. Uhuhh ! (meaning 'no')	0	0	3	3
8. [illegible]uh? (meaning 'why')	0	1	0	0

(v) A final feature which might be stylistic in nature and culturally based was the third person verb ending in the present indefinite tense. Crystal ,Fletcher and Garman (1976) state that children normally acquire this feature at the age of two and a half years.In the present study , at 7 years 1 month , Class A omitted this feature 90 of the time and Class B 70 of the time.This seemed to suggest that the form without the '-s' ending had become firmly entrenched.It is interesting to note that in Afrikaans the third person singular verb ending (3's) does not occur:

e.g. English : He walks to school.
Afrikaans : Hy loop skool toe

6.4.2.7 Additional Features

These features were not listed on the profile.

(a) Direct Speech.There were a large number of examples of direct speech in each of the language samples and these were listed as positive features in Stage VI. There were also several errors related to the use of this type of structure and often there was a mixture of direct and reported speech as reflected in the following example.

P . He asked the man, 'Can he give me the grass, I wanna build me a house .' ('he' is used when the correct word is 'you'.)

(b) Pronominal Appositions : According to Parshotam (1979, P35) pronominal appositions refer to redundancies in the noun phrase. Examples of this form are the following:

1. The small baby , he come with sand from outside.
('he' is redundant .)
2. Then the pigs , they saw a man with straw.
('they' is redundant.)

Parshotam (1979) found pronominal appositions in the expressive language of Down's Syndrone subjects but not in her sample of three

and a half year old children.In the present study pronominal appositions were found to be a feature of normal six to seven year old Indian children in their first year at school.Young (1978, P 30) also found pronominal appositions in the speech of normal children who were almost eight years old.It would seem that these pupils were not yet aware of the redundancy rule relevant to eliminating such errors.

6.4.2.8 Quantitative Data

This is the final section of the LARSP profile and is divided into the following three sections :

(a) Total number of sentences used
(b) Mean number of sentences per turn
(c) Mean sentence length.

TABLE 33 : SUMMARY OF QUALITATIVE DATA ON LARSP PROFILE

	Class A		Class B	
	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1. No. of sentences used	350	286	308	303
2. Mean no. of sentences per turn	1,3	1,1	1,2	1.2
3. Mean sentence length	5,3	4,6	5,3	5,4

While there are no norms available one notes that after being in Class A for 10 months , the pupils showed a decrease in the number of sentences used, the mean number of sentences per turn, and the mean sentence length, while in Class B the total number of sentences used and the mean number of sentences per turn remained more or less constant while the mean sentence length increased slightly.The mean number of sentences per turn for both groups was,however, low compared to the study by Young (1978, P21) who had 12,3 sentences per turn, and Flekser (1979 , Appendix IV) who had 2,59. The mean sentence length was also low compared to the figures of 8,6 obtained by Young (1978,P21)

and 7,45 obtained by Flekser (1979 ,Appendix IV).The differences may, however, be due to differences in the methods of obtaining the samples. In the present study children were encouraged to talk about school and home experiences and to relate stories they had heard by referring to sets of pictures in sequence. Young (1978) and Flekser(1979) used single pictures as well as sets of pictures in sequence as stimulus material. Young , in evaluating her stimulus material found that single pictures elicited longer sentences , as well as a larger number of sentences, than pictures presented in sequence.

The possibility that Indian subjects are less verbal is also a real one and Rhemtula (1983 , P29) in assessing the language of Indian children between 6 years and 7,6 years found support for this when she compared her sample with statistics prepared for white children. Because of differences in the method of obtaining the sample the present study cannot be used to establish whether Indian subjects were less verbal or not.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

What were the similarities and differences in the two samples after the pupils had been at school for 10 months?

Positive Features - Stage I to VII

Generally the use of adverbs (with word-ending -ly) was low when the pupils came to school and remained low for both samples at the end of the year. This indicates that the linguistic culture from which the children came had not facilitated the acquisition of this syntactic feature, nor was the school able to stimulate the development during the first 10 months. This suggests that the teaching styles of the teachers did not embody strategies which could have helped develop the use of adverbs ending in -ly.

The frequency of sentences with double adverb elements (AA) at Stage I was very low in both samples in February, and remained low in June. This again indicated that although the children had the opportunity to acquire this feature, the school was not able to facilitate its development. The tendency to restrict the length of sentences in the classroom could have had an inhibitory effect on the development of this feature.

The trends of positive syntactic development identified for the two groups of Indian boys in the previous chapter, are listed in Table 34 and a summary appears in Table 35. These two tables reveal that for Class B there was an increase in usage in 13 of the 17 features examined, while in Class A this only occurred in four of the features. Five of the features in Class A usage decreased as opposed to the three in Class B. This again suggests that the classroom experience for the

TABLE 34: TRENDS OBSERVED FOR POSITIVE SYNTACTIC FEATURES

Type of syntactic feature	Class A Trend Feb sample compared Dec sample	Class B Trend Feb sample compared Dec sample
1. Pr D adj N-Phrase Structure	Frequency decreased	Frequency increased
2. Adverb elements in clauses	% usage decreased	% usage increased
3. % of times 'and' was used to join sentences in relation to frequency of 'and'	% usage decreased	% usage increased
4. Frequency of Subordinating Connectives	Usage decreased	Usage increased
5. Coordinating clauses relative to no. of clauses in sample	% usage decreased	% usage increased
6. Subordinate clauses relative to no. of clauses in sample	% usage decreased	% usage increased
7. Post modal clauses	frequency decreased	frequency increased
8. Stage VII-Discourse Features total frequency of items	frequency decreased	frequency increased
9. Mean no. of sentences per turn	decreased	increased
10. Mean sentence length	decreased	increased
11. Use of initiators	frequency increased	frequency increased
12. Use of coordination	frequency increased	frequency increased
13. Passives	frequency increased	frequency increased
14. No. of sentences used	frequency decreased	frequency decreased
15. Use of complex verbs	% usage decreased	% usage decreased
16. N Pr D Phrase Structure	Frequency increased	Frequency decreased
17. Stage VII- Discourse Features. No. of features used	decreased	constant

TABLE 35 : SUMMARY OF TRENDS OBSERVED FOR POSITIVE FEATURES

Trend observed	Class A	Class B
1. No. of items in which there was an increase in frequency or usage	4 (24%)	13(76%)
2. No. of items in which there was a decrease in frequency or usage	13 (76%)	3(18%)
3. No of items in which frequency or usage remained constant	0 (0%)	1 (6%)

two groups must have been different and that Teacher B provided classroom experiences which stimulated greater growth of positive features than Teacher A.Teaching strategies which could have influenced the effectiveness of the teachers' lessons were the following :

(i) The drill-type sentence repetition tasks. Cazden (1972) quotes a study which indicated that this type of activity did not improve the language performance of preschool black children.This was a feature of the teaching style of Teacher A, and if using this strategy did not give advantage to her pupils , then it served to dilute the effectiveness of her lessons.

(ii) Teacher B used 'probing' type questions which encouraged pupils to supply more information and extend discussions.Children were therefore forced to search for additional syntactic structures with which to express these ideas.'Probing' was found to be associated with positive student gains by Rosenshine and Furst (1971).This therefore could have stimulated greater syntactic development for this class.Teacher A also indicated that she used 'probing' in her lessons , though the lesson analysed did not have examples of this strategy.This would suggest

that she did not use the 'probing' strategy in all her lessons.When she did use it , its incidence would have been reduced as a large percentage of her lessons consisted of drill-type sentence repetition tasks.

(iii) Teacher 'Feedback', 'Feedback plus Expansion' and 'Questions'. These strategies were related to the 'teacher indirectness' strategies of the FIAC (Flanders, 1970). Both teachers used these strategies to reinforce answers and reward pupil participation.Teacher A made 93 such utterances while Teacher B made 178.The greater frequency of these features in Teacher B's lesson gave her approach a stronger theoretical base and this might account for her pupils showing greater improvement on the positive features.

(b) Later maturing features such as initiators , advanced coordination, and passives (Stage VI) showed increased usage in both class groups although frequencies were still low.This indicated that these features were still unfolding and might not be fully developed. Informal testing with six boys revealed that none of them were able to construct passive sentences.This indicated that the rate of development of these features varied from pupil to pupil and many of them might not have acquired some or all of these advanced syntactic features.

(c) Multiple sentence structures (i.e. subordinate clauses 1+ , post modal clauses 1+, and postmodal phrases 1+) were poorly developed in both classes and coordinate clauses 1+ were poorly developed in Class A. At the same time the use of complex verbs decreased in both classes, the number of discourse features (Stage VII) decreased in Class A while four out of the five items in Class B were poorly developed. One would have expected these complex linguistic features to be strengthened by the 18 months of school experience.That this did not happen suggests that there were one or more inhibitory factors operating in both classes and that their effect was stronger in Class A. Some of these retrogressive effects could be ascribed to the way in which reading was taught to the pupils by means of the language-experience based 'Breakthrough to Literacy' reading programme. During this programme the child's repertoire of colloquial speech and

elliptic utterances had to be modified and made context independent and formal so that they could be recorded in written form in unambiguous terms(Crystal, 1981, P31). At this school this was done in the 'Main Language' lesson when the children were trained to construct complete sentences for use in the reading lesson. Where necessary ,the pupils' sentences were subjected to extensive alterations in order to make them grammatically acceptable. In the process of training pupils to do this, there was the possibility that many pupils might have refrained from using certain structures as they were uncertain about their correctness. At the same time,the process of changing faulty complex sentences to a series of simple sentences in order to eliminate syntactic errors, also prevented children from getting the experience to use these forms correctly. The result was that children missed a valuable opportunity to acquire the correct use of advanced and complex syntactic forms.

In the reading lesson children seemed to overuse stereotyped syntactic constructions such as the following , possibly because they knew that these would be accepted as being grammatically correct:

e.g. I love my mum .
I love my dad.
I love my dog.

I saw a man.
I saw 'Benson'.

The above discussion suggests that the structure of the reading lesson had certain constraints which discouraged children from using their wide range of linguistic skills and extending them into areas of greater complexity as they were afraid of being constantly corrected. They therefore resorted to using structures which they knew would be accepted even though they might be mundane and stereotyped.

7.12. Negative features

According to Crystal , Fletcher and Garman (1976) these errors decreased

in frequency as the children grew older because they differentiated the specific syntactic rules necessary to cater for exceptions and special cases. The cumulative frequency of errors (Table 36) revealed that the errors decreased in Class A by 14% and by 16% in Class B. When the errors were analysed in terms of specific negative features, (Table 37) Class B showed a reduction of errors in 7 of the 13 features while Class A had a reduction in 5 features.This showed that Teacher B was slightly more effective in reducing errors than Teacher A.

TABLE 36 : CUMULATIVE FREQUENCY OF ERRORS (STAGE VI)

	Class A		Class B	
Type of errors	Feb 82	Dec 82	Feb 82	Dec 82
1.Connective errors	6	5	6	7
2.Clause element omissions (Ø)	17	9	1	17
3.Incorrect clause elemen[illegible]ition(⟷)	2	1	0	0
4.Clause element concord	46	41	44	26
5.Determiner errors	11	17	16	1
6.Preposition errors	22	18	10	10
7.Pronoun errors	7	10	6	13
8.Modal auxiliary errors	0	0	1	0
9.Other auxiliary errors	6	4	1	2
10.Auxiliary omission (Ø)	6	7	6	4
11.Copula errors	4	1	1	1
12.Word errors	5	0	5	0
Total no. of errors	132	113	97	81
	Percentage decrease 14		Percentage decrease 16	

When these figures are added to the growth of positive syntactic features one firds that while Class A had favourable growth in 10 features, Class B had favourable growth in 20 features.Teacher B's teaching style therefore seemed to be more effective than that of Teacher A. At the same time there were areas in which both teaching

styles were ineffective .In Class A there were 19 such features while in Class B there were 8.As both teachers used 'feedback' , 'feedback and expansion' , 'probing questions' and 'questions' to develop their lessons , it would seem that the difference lay in Teacher B not using the drill type sentence repetitions of Teacher A so that other lesson features which were more effective could be used at a higher frequency.

TABLE 37 : TRENDS OBSERVED FOR NEGATIVE SYNTACTIC FEATURES

	Class A Trend Feb sample compared to Dec sample	Class B Trend Feb sample compared to Dec sample
1.Subordinating connective errors	% increased	% decreased
2.Third person singular verb (3's) errors	% increased	% decreased
3.Tense sequence errors	% increased	% decreased
4.Determiner errors	% increased	% decreased
5.Ordinary preposition substitutions	% decreased	% remained constant
6.Stylistic preposition substitutions	% remained constant	% increased
7. Total preposition errors	% decreased	% increased
8.Other auxiliary errors	% increased	% increased
9.Auxiliary omissions	% increased	% decreased
10.Clause element omission	frequency decreased	frequency increased
11.Copula errors	% decreased	% increased
12.Verb errors	% decreased	% decreased
13.Preposition omissions	% decreased	% decreased

TABLE 38 : SUMMARY OF TRENDS OF NEGATIVE FEATURES

	Class A	Class B
1. No. of features in which errors increased	6 (46%)	5 (38%)
2. No. of features in which errors decreased	6 (46%)	7 (54%)
3. No. of features in which errors remained constant	1 (8%)	1 (8%)

7.2 Suggestions and Recommendations

While the present study has highlighted some of the consequences of oral language teaching styles it has not exhausted the list of variables that could affect the growth of specific linguistic features.At the same time it must be remembered that the trends observed were not evaluated statistically as the sample was too small. The following suggestions are made bearing in mind the limitations of this study:

(a) That all teachers be trained to use the teaching strategies with indirect influence identified by Flanders (1970) and which Rosenshine and Furst(1971) found were associated with positive student gains.

(b) That by means of ongoing research these strategies be evaluated to determine which are the most successful combinations for different types of lessons, for different class groups and for pupils with different ability levels. It should also be established which other strategies could be used with the teaching strategies which have indirect influence to make the teaching of oral language more effective. The present study seems to suggest that lesson structures containing 'questions', 'probing questions', 'feedback', 'feedback plus expansion' and the 'correction of syntactic errors' are more effective than lesson structures consisting of all the above-mentioned features together with sentence repetition exercises.

(c) That the use of drill-type sentence repetitions be discouraged as they do not appear to be effective in stimulating the growth of syntactic features.

(d) That the use of criticism as a strategy to improve pupil performance be discouraged. Criticism can be overt or implied. Overt criticism occurs when a child is told explicitly that his work or manner of expression is unacceptable. Implied criticism is embodied in the teachers' efforts to help pupils to construct grammatically correct sentences

or to remedy common syntactic errors. If such corrective strategies are not used sparingly they could become counter-productive because the fear of making a mistake and having to be corrected might discourage many pupils from attempting to use as yet untried forms of syntactic structures.This could have adverse effects on the pupils as syntactic development can only be stimulated if the pupils attempt to use the various syntactic structures to describe their actual experience. Initially , when a syntactic structure is used for the first time,there will be many errors especially amongst the linguistically less proficient,and pupils need to be made to feel secure enough to continue using the structure until they have worked out the rules related to when it is correct to use it and when it is incorrect. This can only occur if they are not subjected to a continuous series of requests to speak properly or to construct their sentences properly. The stereotyped sentences which were a feature of the pupils' written work suggested that they were adhering to well-tried syntactically correct sentence forms and were avoiding variations or different syntactic forms as these might be incorrect. If this is true the syntactic development of these pupils could have been stifled or arrested. This might possibly explain why Stage VII discourse features were not strengthened by the school experience. or why advanced forms of complementation and sentence embedding did not develop further.

Avoiding grammatical errors by reducing complex sentences to a series of simple sentences also has adverse implications for syntactic development.Besides implying that the original sentence was not acceptable it also tacitly suggests that using complex sentences is bad practice and should be avoided. This strategy therefore deprives the child of the experience in using more complex linguistic structures. The result is that not only are these structures poorly developed , but their use can actually decrease as happened with Class A. At the same time if language experience does actually stimulate cognitive development (Vygotsky 1962 , Bruner 1980,1983)

then these pupils were being deprived of a valuable opportunity to acquire the more complex cognitive structures which were embodied in such advanced syntactic forms. The writer therefore feels that the use of complex syntactic structures should not be discouraged nor should children be trained to simplify them when these structures are used incorrectly. Instead pupils should be encouraged to use such forms. In addition ways should be devised to stimulate pupils into acquiring and using structures which are not part of their syntactic repertoire without resorting to drill-type repetition.

There also appears to be a need to reduce the frequency of exercises designed to correct syntactic errors as there is the danger that this practice might make the weaker pupils feel linguistically incompetent and the present study suggests that these exercises might not always be effective in reducing the incidence of errors.For example,the third person singular verb error (3's) was actually strengthened in Class A, while its incidence decreased only slightly in Class B although both teachers indicated that they had tried to correct this error throughout the year. From the point of view of stimulating communication it might be more fruitful to try Cazden's (1972) 'modelling' technique where children were offered a model of mature speech which they could emulate without imitation. If teachers were also perceived as high status persons with whom pupils would like to identify (Giles, Bourhis, Taylor, and Taylor, 1977), they would try to speak like the teacher and the correct forms could be acquired without the use of sentence repetitions or corrective 'remedial' exercises which should only be used as a last resort when all other strategies have failed.

(d) The practice of insisting that pupils reply to all questions in complete sentences during the discussion and Main Language lessons needs to be re-assessed.Conversations are characterized by elliptic utterances which are concise and economical , and help to stimulate and maintain an interest in the discussions.Full sentences are a feature of the context-independent nature of written language and this is what makes written language different from conversation.While it is

appropriate when training children for written exercises to emphasize that they give all answers in full sentences, this should be restricted to specific instances where there is a written follow-up. In conversations and discussions elliptic answers to question should be accepted as being correct because they are correct .

7.3 To what extent can the LARSP Profile be used to describe the syntactic development of normal Indian boys during their first year at school?

The LARSP Profile was found most appropriate for analysing the oral syntactic language of Indian boys in their first year at school.Up to Stage V all the sentence types, clauses, phrases, and word structures were recorded with ease.To make the profile more relevant for the assessment of the language of six and seven year old normal children the following sections need to be expanded:

7.3.1 Stage VI - Positive Features

(a) Complex verbs. This section should be expanded to differentiate the simplest type which consists of the 'contracted negative +auxiliary+ main verb' from the more advanced forms found in complementation and in the use of the auxiliary 'have' as in 'I will have to buy a new car.'The section on complex verbs can therefore have the following two categories:

(i) Contracted negative + auxiliary + main verb
(ii) Other complex verbs.

(b) The writer agrees with Penn(1983) that the category 'direct speech' be added under positive features as there were many instances of this feature in all the profiles.

7.3.2 Stage VI - Negative features

This stage was found to be inadequate and the data were re-analysed in terms of Crystal's (1982) revised profile.Sections of this profile

were also found to be inadequate and these were expanded as follows:

(a) Clause errors - concord : This section needs to be expanded to include the following sub-divisions.

(i) Subject-verb concord e.g. The men are busy

(ii) Concord of tenses e.g.He went to town.He wanted to buy a car.

(iii)Concord of other elements e.g. John was late.So he ran.

(b) Phrase errors

(i) Determiner errors can be expanded by introducing a category for redundant determiners.e.g. There was the Pinky ...

(ii) Pronoun error categories should be expanded to include the following :

Pronoun errors-subject position e.g. Him's coming today.

Pronoun errors-other positions e.g The man built yours house.

Reflexive pronoun errors e.g. He built him a house (correct form - himself)

Pronominal phrase errors e.g. The prince , he came in.

7.3.3 Stage VII - Discourse Feature

In this section the section on ' Adverb connectivity ' needs to be expanded as it does seem that 'then' is overused.This would be done as follows :

(i) Then

(ii) Other A- Connectivity. This would then include instances of 'however' ,'actu ly', frankly', etc.

7.3.4 Conclusion

(a) This study reveals that the syntactic development of Class A and Class B appeared to take different directions during the 10 months the children were at school, and although the findings could not be evaluated statistically, the results suggest that the

upils linguist exper ces in the classroom must effectively
have been differen.A ma part of this influence may be ascribed to
he teaching style of the class teacher who interacted with the pupils
n varying degrees for about four hours per day for approximately
200 days.Howeve the effect of the pupils mutually interacting
ith one another in the classroom cannot be gauged or ruled out.

D The view that specific aspects of the teacher' teaching styles
esponsible for the differences in syntacti development must
ccepted w th caution. for in a longitudinal study of this nature
cult o isolate and control all the variables which could
luence the syntactic development of these pupils. Language
oduct of society and language development is
ocial contexts

en. o be a need for all teachers to become aware of
essen features of oral language and to promote communication
vely and creative way without confusing them with the
emen written language

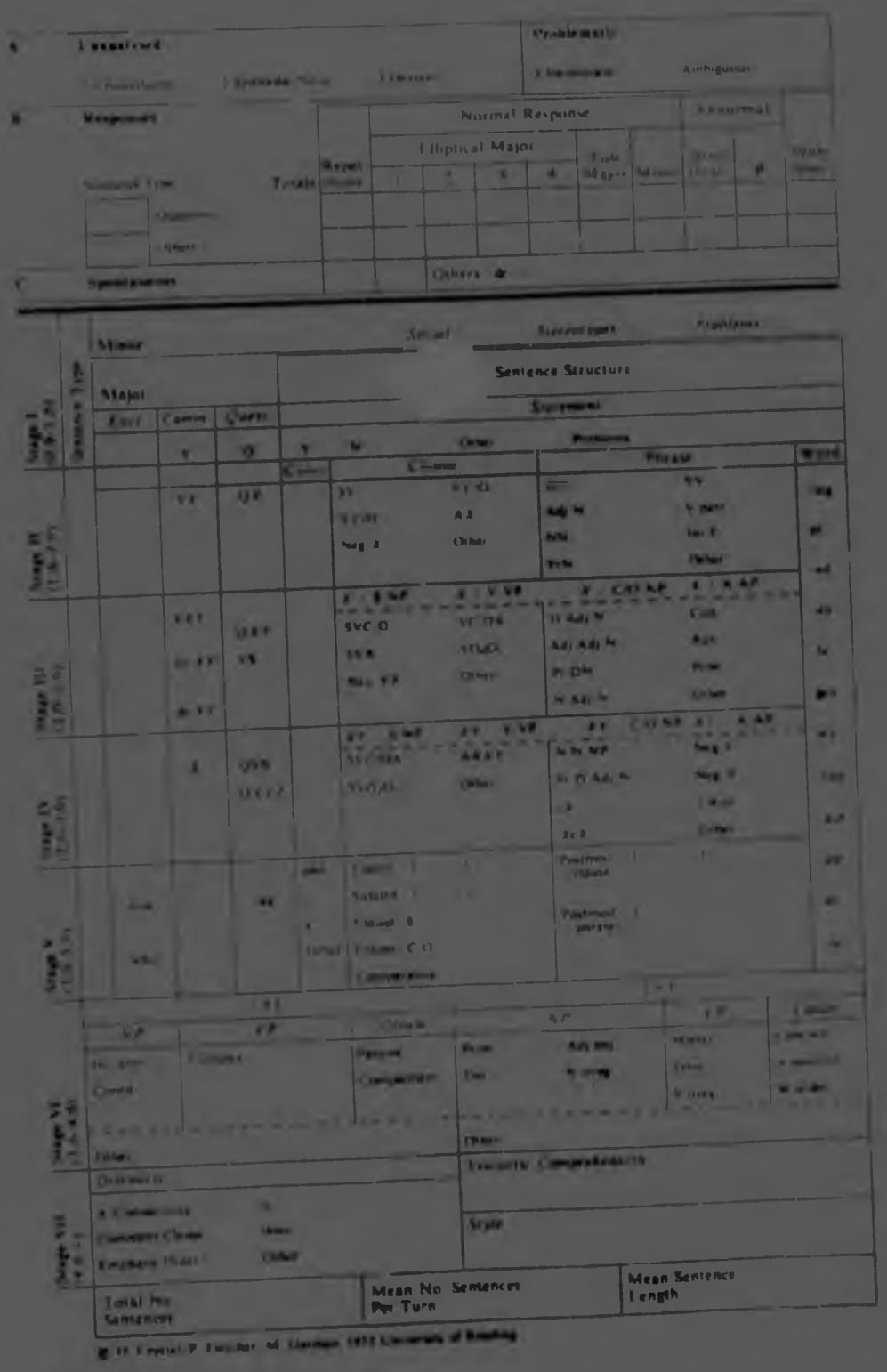
ghlighted the need to study teaching strategies in
e are not always aware of all the hidden implications
what we do or ask others to do in the classroom.This is especially
ng realm of oral language . because of its extreme complexity
ecause we do not have instruments sensitive enough to measure
aspects of anguage.There is an urgent need to define and describe
h anguage eaching strategies and to investigate their

APPENDIX



Profile chart: developmental stages

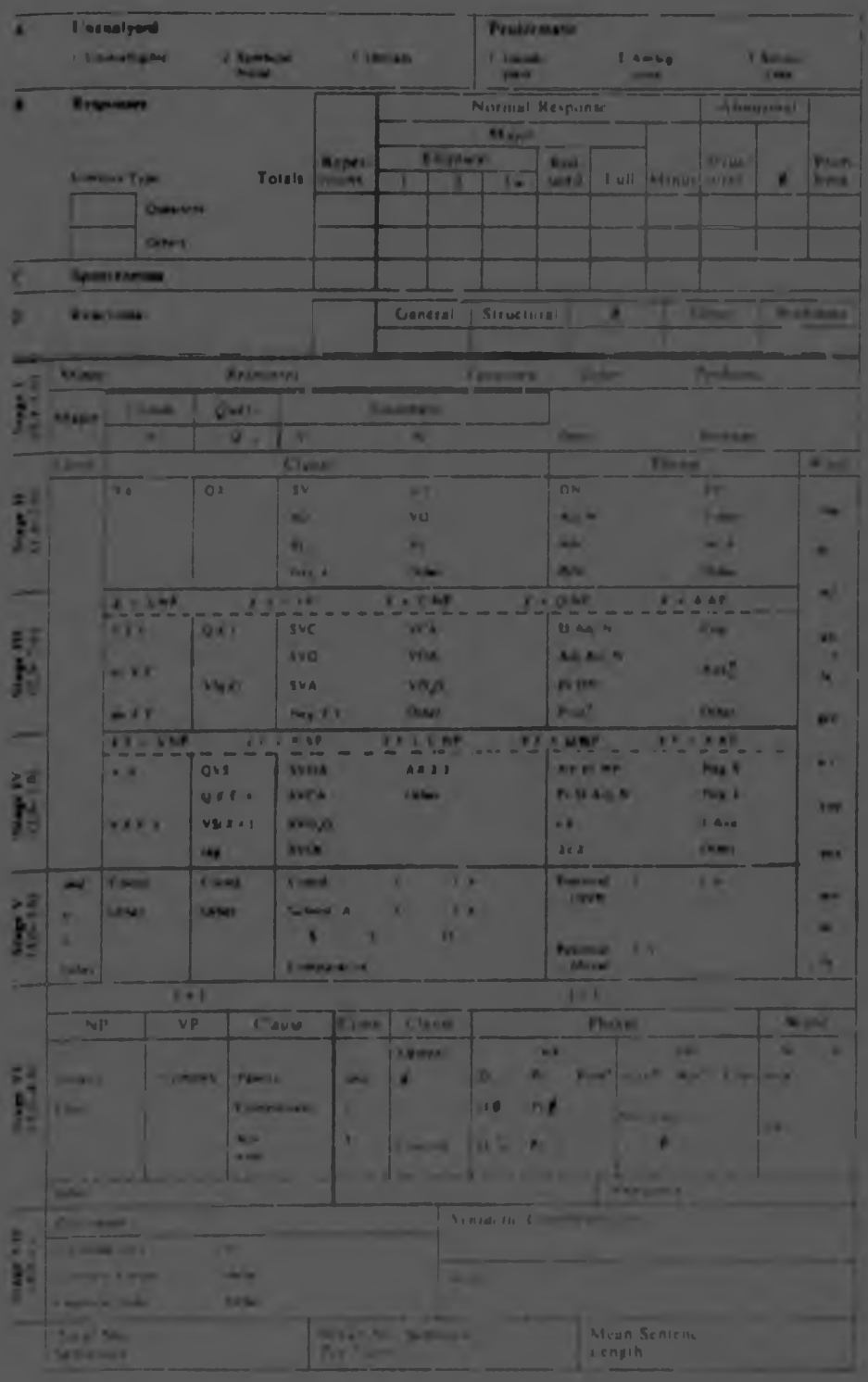
APPENDIX I



Profile chart: developmental stages

APPENDIX II

Name Age Sample date Type



Extract from revised chart - Stage VI (Crystal , 1982)

APPENDIX III

GLOSSARY OF SYMBOLS

LARSP Profile-1976

A	adverbial
A pos	adverbial position
Adj	adjectival
Adi seq	adjectival sequence
Aux	auxiliary
'aux	contracted auxiliary form
c	coordinator
C	complement
Comm	command sentence type
conn	connectivity marker
cop	copula
'cop	contracted copula form
D	determiner
Det	determiner system (errors)
-ed	past tense
-en	past participle
-er	comparative
-est	superlative
Excl	exclamatory sentence type
gen	genitive
I	initiator
-ing	present participle
Int	intensifier
let	first person command
-ly	adverb marker
Mod	modal verb (errors)
N	noun
'N'	noun-like element
N Irreg	irregular noun inflections (errors)
Neg	negative
n't	contracted negative form
O	object
O_d	direct object
O_i	indirect object
part	particle
pl	plural
postmod clause	postmodifying clause
postmod phrase	postmodifying phrase
Pr	preposition
Pron	pronoun
Q	question-word
'Q'	Stage I question-word
Quest	question sentence type
s	subordinator
S	subject
v	main verb (at phrase structure level)
V	verb
'V'	verb like element at Stage I
V_{imp}	imperative verb
V_{irreg}	irregular verb inflections (errors)
Voc	vocative
WO	word order errors

GLOSSARY OF SYMBOLS (CONTINUED)

X,Y,Z	Cover symbols for elements of structure
3's	Third person singular - present indefinite tense

ARSP Profile - 1982 : Stage VI

(Additional symbols)

ø	Element omission at clause phrase or word level
⟵	Incorrect position of element or phrase
Aux^M	Modal auxiliary
Aux^O	Other auxiliary

REFERENCES

1. ATKINSON M., KILBY D., ROCA I. (1982): Foundations of General Linguistics. George Allen and Unwin : London .

2. BENNETT N .(1976) : Teaching styles and Pupil Progress Open Books : London.

3. BERNSTEIN B. (1971) : Class Codes and Control - Volume I Routledge and Kegan Paul : London.

4. BERNSTEIN B. (1973) ;Class . Codes and Control - Volume II Routledge and Kegan Paul : London.

5 BHAGWAN D .(1970) :An Investigation into the use of English by Indian South Africans with special reference to Natal. Doctoral Dissertation. University of South Africa. Preto : Pretoria.

6. BROWN R. (1973) : A First Language . Harvard University Press; Cambridge , Massachusetts.

7 BROWN R., BELLUGI-KLIMA U. (1971) : Three Processes in the Child's Acquisition of Syntax in BAR-ADON , LEOPOLD W. F (ED): Child anguage - A Book of Readings . Prentice Hall: Englewood Cliffs , New Jersey.

8 BROWN R.,CAZDEN C.,BELLUGI U. (1969) :The Child's Grammar from I to III . In HILL J.P. (ED) :Symposium of Child Psychology 2 .University of Minnesota : Minneapolis.

9. BRUNER J.S. (1980) : Afterword, in OLSON D.R. (ED) The Social Foundations of Language. W.W. Norton : New York.

10. BRUNER J.S. (1983) :In Search of Mind. Essay in Autobiography. Harper and Row : New York.

11. BULLOCK REPORT. (1975) : A Language for Life. H.M.S.O London.

12. CAZDEN C.B. (1970) : The Neglected situation in Child Language Research and Education, in WILLIAM F. (ED) Language and Poverty . P81 to 101. Markham Publishing : Chicago.

13. CAZDEN C.B. (1972) : Child Language and Education. Holt , Rhinehart and Winston : New York.

14. CAZDEN C.D., JOHN V. P., HYMES D.(1972)(ED) :Functions of Language in the Classroom. Teachers College Press : Columbia University

15. CHOMSKY N. (1964) : Current Issues in Linguistic Theory. Mouton and Co. : The Hague.

16. CHOMSKY N. (1968) :Language and the Mind . Enlarged Edition. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich : New York.

17. CHOMSKY N (1975) : Reflections on Language . Pantheon Books, Random House : New York.

18. CLARK E.V. (1972) : Some Aspects of the Conceptual Basis for First Language Acquisition, in SCHIEFELBUSCH R. L , LLOYD L. L. Language Perspectives- Acquisition , Retardation and Intervention. University Park Press :London.

19. CLARK H . H. (1973) :Space , Time , Semantics and the Child, in MOORE T.E. (ED) Cognitive Development and the Acquisition of Language. Academic Press : New York.

20. CRYSTAL D., FLETCHER P., GARMAN M. (1976) :The Grammatical Analysis of Language Disability. Edward Arnold : London.

21. CRYSTAL D. (1979) : Working with LARSP. Edward Arnold : London.

22. CRYSTAL D. (1981) : Directions in Applied Linguistics. Edward Arnold : London.

23. CRYSTAL D. (1982) :Profiling Linguistic Disability
Edward Arnold : London.

24 DEPARTMENT OF INDIAN AFFAIRS - EDUCATION DIVISION (1980):
Syllabus for English First Language in the Junior
Primary Phase.

25. DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL AFFAIRS - ANNUAL REPORT : 1982 - 1983,
Chapter 3 : Development of the Indian Community.
Government Printer Pretoria.

26. DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL AFFAIRS - INDIAN EDUCATION , (1983):
Teaching of English in the Junior Primary Phase-
Orientation Course notes : Lectures 4 and 5.

27. DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL AFFAIRS - INDIAN EDUCATION (1984):
Circular Minute AP of 1984.

28. DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS AND INFORMATION - SOUTH AFRICA 1982.
Official Year Book of South Africa. Chris van Rensburg :
Johannesburg.

29. DE VILLIERS P.A .(1979) : Early Language . Harvard University Press:
Cambridge , Massachusetts.

30. DE VILLIERS J.G., DE VILLIERS P. A. (1978) : Language Acquisition.
Harvard University Press : Cambridge ,Massachusetts.

31. ELLIOT J.A. (1981) : Child Language. Cambridge University Press:
Cambridge, Massachusetts.

32(a) FISHMAN J.A.,LUERDER-SALMON E. (1972):What has Sociology
of Language to say to the Teacher ? On Teaching the Standard
Variety to Speakers of Dialectical or Sociolectal Varieties,
in CAZDEN C.B., JOHN V. P., HYMES D. (ED) :Functions of
Language in the Classroom. Teachers College Press :
Columbia University.

32(b).FLEKSER K. (1979) : A Comparison of the spoken Syntax between a profoundly hearing impaired child, a mentally retarded child, and a normal child.Unpublished Research Report, Department of Speech and Audiology. University of the Witwatersrand :Johannesburg.

33. GILES H.,BOURHIS R.Y.,TAYLOR D.M. (1977) : Towards a Theory of Language, in Ethnic Group Relations , in GILES H (ED): Language , Ethnicity and Inter-Group Relations . Academic Press : London.

34. GILES H.,SAINT JACQUES B. (1979) :Language and Ethnic Relations. Pergamon Press : Oxford.

35, GOOD T.L.,BIDDLE B.J., BROPHY J.E. (1975) : Teachers Make a a Difference . Holt , Rhinehart and Winston : New York

36. HALLIDAY , M.A.K (1973) : Foreword, in BERNSTIEN B (ED) : Class , Codes and Control - Volume II . Routledge and Kegan Paul : London.

37. HAMILTON D. (1975) :Handling Innovation in the Classroom,P179-207. In [illegible].A., WALKER D.F. : Case Studies in Curriculum Change.Routledge and Kegan Paul : London.

[illegible], HAWKINS P.R. (1973) :Social Class , The Nominal Group and Reference, in BERNSTEIN B. :Class , Codes and Control - Volume II . Routledge and Kegan Paul : London.

39. HOPPER R., NAREMORE R.C. (1978) : Children's Speech -A Practical Introduction to Communication and Development.Harper and Row : New York.

40. KAVANAGH J.F. , MATTINGLY I.G. (1972) : Language by Eye and Ear : The Relationship between Speech and Reading. M. I. T. Press: Cambridge , Massachusetts.

41. KLATZKO R, (1975): Language of English Speaking Coloured Children. Unpublished Research Report. Department of Speech Pathology and Audiology, University of the Witwatersrand·Johannesburg.

42. LABOV W. (1970) : Logic of Non - Standard English,in WILLIAMS F.I (EC) Language and Poverty , P 153 - 189 . Markam : Chicago.

43. LEE L. (1974) :Developmental Sentence Analysis : A Grammatical Assessment Procedure for Speech and Language Clinicians. North-Western University Press : Evanston.

44. LENNEBERG E. (1967):Biological Foundations of Language. John Wiley : New York.

45. MATZKIN N. (1980) : An Assessment Procedure for Studying the Older Child. Unpublished Research Report , Department of Speech and Audiology , University of the Witwatersrand : Johannesburg.

46 MENYUK P. (1971) : The Acquisition of Language . Prentice Hall : Englewood Cliffs , New Jersey.

47.NARUN L. R. (1975) :Therapy for Preschool Language Impaired Children considering Psycholinguistic Tneory.Unpublished Masters Dissertation. University of the Witwatersrand : Johannesburg.

48. O DONNELL R.C., GRIFFIN W.J., NORRIS R.C :(1967) :Syntax of Kindergarden and Elementary School Children - A Transformational Analysis. National Council of Teachers for English : Champaign , Illinois.

49.PARLETT M.,HAMILTON D. (1972) :Evaluation as Illumination : A new approach to the study of innovatory programmes. Occasional Paper 9 , Centre for Research in Educational Sciences. University of Edinburgh.

50. PARSHOTAM K. (1979) :The Use of Language Assessment, Remediation and Screening Procedure to assess the expressive syntax of a group of South African Indian Down's Syndrone children. Unpublished Research Report. Department of Speech Pathology and Audiology , University of the Witwatersrand: Johannesburg.

51. PENN C.A.M (1983) : Syntactic and Pragmatic Aspects of Aphasic Language . Unpublished Doctor of Philosophy Thesis. Faculty of Arts , University of the Witwatersrand : Johannesburg.

52. PFLAUM S.W. (1974) : The Development of Language and Reading in Young Children . Charles E. Merrill - International Publications : London.

53. QUIRK R., GREENBAUM S., LEECH G., SVARTIK J. (1972) : A Grammar of Contemporary English Usage . Longman : London.

54. QUIRK R., GREENBAUM S. (1973) : A University Grammar of English . Longman : London.

55. RI HARDS J. (1978) :Classroom Language , What Sort ? George Allen and Unwin : London.

56. ROBERTS D. (1981) :Assessment of the Language of the Coloured child. Unpublished Research Report . Department of Speech Pathology and Audiology. University of the Witwatersrand: Johannesburg,

57. ROGERS S. (1976) : They don't Speak our Language. Edward Arnold : London.

58. ROSHINE B., FURST N.F. (1971) : Research on Teacher Performance Criteria, in SMITH B.O. : Research in Teacher Education. Prentice Hall : Englewood Cliffs , New Jersey.

ne Language Performance of English
Indian Children on the T.O.L.P. Unpublished
esearch Report. Department of Speech Pathology and
udiology. Jniversity of the Witwatersrand:Johannesburg.

(1975) Towards an Analysis
Discourse Oxford University Press : London

Verbal Behaviour. Methuen : London.

Reflections on Behaviourism and Society.
Hall Englewood Cliffs , New Jersey.

. Research in Teacher Education.
Hall Englewood Cliffs , New Jersey.

. SPRINTHALL R. (1977) : Educational Psychology -
Developmental Approach. Addison Wesley : Reading ,
ssachusetts.

Certain Language Skills in Children.
of Minnesota Press : Minneapolis .

Conceptual Foundations of Research in
Teacher Education . In SMITH B. O. Research in Teacher
Education Prentice Hall Englewood Cliffs,New Jersey.

ISBURG .W .. (1981) A Comparison of the 'Basal Reader'
Method . 'Breakthrough to Literacy' and the Distar Reading
System. Unpublished Ph. D. Thesis. Faculty of Education ,
land Afrikaans University Johannesburg.

(1962) Thought and Language. Joint Publisher -
T.I Press Massachusetts & John Wiley : New York.

GUMP P.(1976) Classroom Interaction.
Block III , Open University Press : Walton Hall ,

69. YOUNG L. (1978) : The Syntax of Spoken and Written Language of Deaf and Normal Children. Unpublished Research Report Department of Speech Pathology and Audiology, University of the Witwatersrand , Johannesburg.



Author Ranchhod M M
Name of thesis The Syntactic language development of two groups of Indian boys during their first year at school 1984

PUBLISHER:
University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg
©2013

LEGAL NOTICES:

Copyright Notice: All materials on the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg Library website are protected by South African copyright law and may not be distributed, transmitted, displayed, or otherwise published in any format, without the prior written permission of the copyright owner.

Disclaimer and Terms of Use: Provided that you maintain all copyright and other notices contained therein, you may download material (one machine readable copy and one print copy per page) for your personal and/or educational non-commercial use only.

The University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, is not responsible for any errors or omissions and excludes any and all liability for any errors in or omissions from the information on the Library website.