NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

COURSE CODE: EDU 728

COURSE TITLE: THE METHODS OF TEACHING NIGERIAN LANGUAGES

COURSE GUIDE

USER'S GUIDE TO EDU 728- THE METHODS OF TEACHING NIGERIAN LANGUAGES

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CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Contents

       3.1 Introduction

       3.2 Readers" Guide through EDU 728

              3.2.1 Course Aims and Objectives

              3.2.2 Corse Materials and Structure Resources

              3.2.3 Getting the Most of from EDU 728

       3.3 Course Delivery

              3.3.1 Facilitation

              3.3.2 Tutorials

              3.3.3 Counselling

              3.4.1 Self Assessment Exercises

              3.4.2 Tutor Marked Assignments

              3.4.3 Final Exanimation

       4.0 Conclusion

       5.0 Summary

       6.0 Tutor- Marked Questions

       7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The document you"re about to begin to read and study is EDU 728 – Methods of Teaching Nigerian Languages, one of the courses you must take to qualify you to earn the Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) of the National Open University of Nigeria. EDU 728 is the pedagogy or the methodology of teaching Nigeria"s three major languages Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá.

EDU 728, Methods of Teaching Nigerian Languages is one of the many programmes of the National Open University of Nigeria and it is based in the School of Education of the University. **EDU 728** is an integral part of the PGDE programme of the National Open University of Nigeria and it is designed to meet the professional requirement of all Nigerians who hold a first degree or its equivalent in a Nigerian language and are desirous to earn the National Open University of Nigeria"s PGDE with emphasis on the teaching of Nigerian languages. The programme description of the course is available in the Brochure of the Open University and Distance Learning Academic Programmes.

You"re advised to carefully read through this *Course Guide* because it gives you a holistic picture of what to expect in the programme.

It should assist you to make the best use of this course/instructional material that has been specially prepared for you. It should instruct and assist you the way a manufacturer"s manual guides and instructs you on the use of a new appliance in order for you to maximize its potentials.

1.1 The Significance of EDU 728

EDU 728, the Methods of Teaching Nigerian Languages is sociolinguistically significant to Nigerians because it holds the potentials for supporting the eventual emergence of one of Nigeria"s three major languages as Nigeria"s official national language or in the least, of making Nigeria a trilingual nation, that is, a nation that speaks three languages, Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá.

All major economically developed countries of the world convey their national and international sentiments using their native languages. Most African countries, including Nigeria, do not have a local national language with which to convey national and international sentiments. Today, Nigeria uses English, a West Germanic Indo-European language to do what it cannot do in any of her local languages. The potential or possibility in the teaching of the three Nigerian languages is the probability that at least one of the three Nigerian languages will, in the future, emerge as Nigeria"s official national language or languages.

To attain a national language goal, the Federal Government of Nigeria instituted a language policy that seeks to make the average Nigerian school child able to speak, at the least, one of Nigeria"s three major languages, Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá. This way, using education as a tool, the three languages are being encouraged to evolve/develop without the overt imposition of any of them on Nigerians. In other words, this trilingual approach encourages the growth and development of the most populous three languages without "overtly enforcing" them on us. EDU 728 is designed by the National Open University of Nigeria to assist the national trilingual approach to Nigeria"s language policy issue. EDU 728 should, therefore, be tackled by you from the point of view of national pride and patriotism. It may take time, but before long, the long term objective of teaching national languages to Nigerian children will be realized as generations of Nigerians to come will be able to express personal, national and international sentiments in a national language or national languages. Nigeria is using education as the most impersonal and objective tool available to achieve this. You should congratulate yourself on being a part of that process.

1.2 The Focus of EDU 728

The course title focuses on Nigeria"s three major languages, Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá. These three languages are statutorily recognized in the *Constitution of Federal Republic of Nigeria* and in Nigeria"s *National Policy of Education*. These three languages are academic disciplines in Nigeria"s Colleges of Education and Universities. So, as a Post Graduate Diploma student, you are assumed to hold, at the least, a university degree in either Háúsá, or Ìgbò, Yorùbá or any other Nigerian language offered as an academic discipline from a University in Nigeria or from a university abroad. You are also assumed to be teaching one of these languages in a secondary school in Nigeria.

You should, however, understand from the beginning that although the focus of the course is the three major languages of Nigeria (Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá), the approach is so general that the contents can be adapted to teach any Nigerian language as a second language. The contents are addressed not to just any teacher, but to Nigerians who hold, at the least, a first degree in a Nigerian language and have *either* undergone or are undergoing necessary training like you are doing to qualify professionally to teach Nigerian languages at the secondary school level.

This course material you"ve begun reading should be seen only as *a guide* to the teaching of Nigerian languages. In other words, what follows from Module One Unit One to the last Unit of Module Three is a series of principles given to guide your teaching any of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá in Nigerian secondary schools. You will, therefore, come across many statements directing you to do one thing or the other. All the directives are established or based on the general principles of second language teaching. I daresay for the second time that the principles are so general that they can be adapted to teach any Nigerian language.

The guidelines are no substitute for textbooks. They are not meant to replace them. You should use these *course materials* alongside *the references as prescribed textbooks* and the *national curriculum description* for any of the three languages that you teach. In fact, you must always arm yourself with these three in order to make a success of the teaching of any of the three Nigerian languages as a second language:

- the national curriculum description (the national Nigerian languages syllabus) will tell you what items to teach;
- the prescribed texts will give the linguistic contents of what to teach, and
- EDU 728 Instructional Materials will guide you on how to teach such items.

2.0 Objectives

The objectives tell you what you are supposed to be able to do after reading through each unit. You should use the unit objectives to assess your progress i.e., to judge whether you understand what you have read and have, therefore attained the stated objectives or not. The objectives are written in observable or measurable terms so that you can by yourself judge whether or not you have attained the desired outcome of your reading as stated by the course writer. The objectives for EDU 728 are stated as follows:

At the end of your reading/studying EDU 728, you should be able to:

- state the socio-political necessity for teaching Nigerian languages, especially, Nigeria‟s three major languages;
- state the relationship between the teaching of Nigerian languages and the national language policy;
- state the political advantages of teaching the three major languages in Nigerian secondary schools;
- state the challenges/difficulties in the teaching the three major Nigerian languages in Nigeria;
- the relevance of EDU 728 to the average Nigerian child;
- state the hurdles in the way of implementing of Nigerian national language policy;
- state identify structural differences among the three major Nigerian languages;
- state the implications of structural differences among Nigeria‟s three major languages for the learner of any of Nigeria‟s three major languages, and
- explain the meaning and relevance of trilingualism in Nigeria‟s language policy.

3.0 MAIN CONTENTS

3.1 The Aims and Structure of EDU 728

Main Contents refer to the "business" of each unit, that is, what you have to do/study. The main contents contain the bulk of the Unit. From the Main Contents, you‟ll move to the summary, the conclusion, tutor marked assignment and the references which mark the end of the unit.

In addition to the learning objectives stated above, the aims of **EDU 728** are:

1. to introduce you to the sociolinguist setting of Nigeria so that you can be familiar with the language terrain/situation of Nigeria;

2. give you the basic outline of second language pedagogy adapted to teaching each of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as second language to Nigerian secondary school students in Nigeria;

6

3. link language pedagogy and other areas of *language education* and *linguistic studies* (such as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, communicative competence and pragmatics) to bring out their relevance as areas of cooperation in language teaching and learning;

4. giving the critique of Nigeria"s language policy as it relates to English, Nigeria"s major languages H̄ s , Ìgb and Yoruba and other Nigerian languages;

5. introducing you to the necessary academic and professional competencies required for teaching Nigerian languages in Nigeria;

6. equip you with the necessary ingredients in language and linguistics studies, literature, sociology, psychology, that will enable you to contribute to the values of English as a language, culture and medium of education in Nigeria, and

7. equip you with the correct perspectives to language acquisition and second language learning.

3.2 Guiding You through EDU 728

The Course Code is EDU 728 and the Course Title is Methods of Teaching Nigerian Languages. EDU 728- is an integral part of the Post Graduate Diploma in the Teaching of Nigerian Languages of the National Open University of Nigeria.

3.3 Course Structure

EDU 728 is a two-credit three Module course consisting of five units per module. So, there are a total of fifteen units in all. The Modules and their Units with unit summary are given below.

MODULE ONE **The Linguistic Situation in Nigeria** is 40 pages long and has 5 units as follows:

- UNIT ONE – Generalities, 3 pages.
- **Unit Summary**

    For this very brief introductory unit, we discover that EDU 728 is an important component of the NOUN"s PGDE programme because it makes you take a peep at the political significance of recognising Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as major languages. These points raised should be borne in mind as you read through the rest of the materials.

- UNIT TWO - Second Language Teaching and the Teacher of Háúsá, Ìgbò and

    Yorùbá in Nigeria, 10 pages.
- **Unit Summary**

In this Unit, we tried to take you through what makes a second
language teacher. Being a native speaker of a language is not
a criterion for teaching the language. Also, taking a degree
in it is not sufficient to qualify you to teach it. To qualify
as language teacher, you have to go through well defined
academic programmes, a set of cognate courses and relevant
courses in education. Some of the tools you need to deal with
second language difficulty are also discussed. These are
contrastive analysis and error analysis and pragmatics.

- UNIT THREE - Techniques of Evaluation the Teaching of Háúsá,
  Ìgbò and Yorùbá, 8 pages.
- **Unit Summary**
  In this unit, you were introduced to the phonemes and
  graphemes of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá. It is emphasized that
  each language is to be taught as a second language. We
  identified for you the alphabet of each language and their
  phonemic source. You also read that orthography is an economic
  way of using limited number of alphabet to write or turn a
  language to its written form. In other words, it is not all
  the phonemes attested in a language that are necessarily used
  in writing the language. You are encouraged to recognize the
  alphabet of each language and for the students, the alphabet
  of the language he is learning as a second language.

- UNIT FOUR - The Language Situation of Nigeria, 6 pages.
- **Summary**
  In this Unit, we examined the language situation of Nigeria as
  an aspect of the problem of the multilingual setting of
  Nigeria. We note that the scrambling for Africa by the West
  resulted in the emergence of multilingual Nigeria. We observed
  that in spite of all that the Federal Government of Nigeria
  may do to encourage the local rise of Nigeria‟s three major
  languages, English will continue to be on the rise,
  especially, as it becomes more and more international. On the
  issue of English, Nigeria cannot afford to be left behind. We
  cited the NTA*I* to support this view. This, however, does not
  mean we should neglect our Nigerian languages.

- UNIT FIVE - The Sociolinguistics of Nigeria‟s Three Major
  Languages: Háúsá Ìgbò
                          and Yorùbá, 8 pages.
- **Unit Summary** You have read about the position of the three
  major languages, why they are major and the advantages of
  being major languages. You also have read the characteristics
  of each major language and their role and status in the
  national scheme of things in Nigeria.

MODULE TWO: **Nigerian National Language Policy** is 64 pages long and has 5 units. The 5 units are as follows:

- UNIT ONE - General Remarks on Nigeria"s National Policy on Education, 7 pages.
- **Unit Summary**
  In Unit One, we tried to discuss the linguistic situation of Nigeria. You read that Nigeria is a multilingual nation having within her boarders over 500 languages and that out of these, three languages representing three dominant language and tribal groups, have been officially selected. These languages are Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá. You also read that Nigeria has no single indigenous language of wider communication, a single indigenous language uniting all Nigerians together as one. English, the official national language which currently does this is inherited from the colonial administration. Officially, English is the national language used for all official functions at the federal, state and local government levels. In addition, it performs a function no other language has been able to, and that is, acting as a bridge language, English links all Nigerians together irrespective of tribe, language and culture.

- UNIT TWO - Guidelines for the Teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as second languages in Nigeria, 15 pages.
- **Unit Summary**
  The phoneme is the beginning point to identify the significant sounds of a language. Because alphabet or graphemes are phoneme based, only those phonemes that are significant enough or those that are minimally contrastive are useful in determining the alphabet or graphemes of a language.

- UNIT THREE - Main Features of Aspects of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá phonemes, 7 pages.
- **Unit Summary**
  You have read through the guidelines for the teaching of Nigeria"s major languages. Although tagged Nigeria"s major languages, the guidelines can be adapted to teach any Nigerian languages. The phonemes of each of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá and their graphemes are identified to make you see the importance or relationship of phonemes and graphemes. The differences between Chadic languages and Kwa languages are clearly indicated by the labio-velar stops in Ìgbò and Yorùbá and its absence in Háúsá. The presentation of the phonetic features of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá show that the velars, the nasals and the fricatives are the source of major differences among Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá. Intensive and extensive practices activities of these are needed to make the teaching of the sounds highly communicative.

- UNIT FOUR - Orthography of Háúsá, Igbo and Yorùbá, 7 pages.
- **Unit Summary**

  In this unit, you were introduced to the phonemes and graphemes of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá. It is emphasized that each language is to be taught as a second language. We identified for you the alphabet of each language and their phonemic source. You also read that orthography is an economic way of using limited number of alphabet to write or turn a language to its written form. In other words, it is not all the phonemes attested in a language that are necessarily used in writing the language. You are encouraged to recognize the alphabet of each language and for the students, the alphabet of the language he is learning as a second language.

- UNIT FIVE - Strategies and Resources for the Teaching of Háúsá , Igbo and
                         Yorùbá, 25 pages.
- **Unit Summary**

  In this unit, you were introduced to the phonemes and graphemes of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá. It is emphasized that each language is to be taught as a second language. We identified for you the alphabet of each language and their phonemic source. You also read that orthography is an economic way of using limited number of alphabet to write or turn a language to its written form. In other words, it is not all the phonemes attested in a language that are necessarily used in writing the language. You are encouraged to recognize the alphabet of each language and for the students, the alphabet of the language he is learning as a second language. The unit ends with the resources (human and materials) as well as the techniques that you could adopt in the teaching of the three major Nigerian languages.

MODULE THREE: T**he Nature of Language** is 44 pages long and has 5 units. The five units with each unit summary are given below.
- UNIT ONE - The Structure of Language, 7 pages.
- **Unit Summary**

  Language structure is important. It characterises human language. A typical language consists of the sound system, studied as phonetics and phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics or meaning relationships. All of these linguistic levels are brought to play in language use. Language use is based on the ability to manipulate the linguistic levels identified for effective communication.

- UNIT TWO - Theories of Language Acquisition, 9 pages.
- **Unit Summary**

  You have read from the beginning of this unit, the behaviourist and cognitive views on language. The behaviourist

views are championed by such behaviourist psychologists as Watson and Skinner while the cognitive views are expressed by Chomsky. While behaviourists hold the view that language is bequeathed on us by nature, the cognitivists hold the view that language and the ability to acquire it are part of the innate biological heritage of humans.

- UNIT THREE - The Characteristics of Language, 6 pages.
- **Unit Summary**
First language develops in the normal human child as a matter of course because it is prepared from birth to speak language. The environment in which it grows up must, of course, be a linguistically living human one for it to have language to respond to. Without a living human language environment, a child may only grow to grunt and never produce human speech sounds.

- UNIT FOUR - The Psychological and Pedagogical Basis for Language Acquisition, 9 pages.
- **Unit Summary**
You have read from the beginning of this unit, the behaviourist and cognitive views on language. The behaviourist views are championed by such behaviourist psychologists as Watson and Skinner while the cognitive views are expressed by Chomsky. While behaviourists hold the view that language is bequeathed on us by nature, the cognitivists hold the view that language and the ability to acquire it are part of the innate biological heritage of humans.

- UNIT FIVE - Psychological Basis for Language Pedagogy, 10 pages.
- **Unit Summary**
This unit discussed the theoretical foundations of two dominant teaching methods the audiolingual teaching method and the cognitive code learning method. You read that the audiolingual teaching method derived from behaviourist psychology and all its methods are a reflection of empirical features of behaviourism. Cognitive code learning method, on the other hand, is derived from cognitive psychology and its tenets.

The modules and units vary in length, that is, in the number of pages per unit. Each unit has a title, a table of contents, a unit objectives stated in observable terms, an introduction, and the course materials referred to as main contents, self assessment exercises, tutor"s marked exercises, a summary, conclusion, and a list of references and other relevant materials that should assist you.

The course materials replace the lecturer, the same way you do not see the author of the books you read. Consequently, the course materials have been written as if the lecturer is physically present before you and talking to you. That is the way you too should read them, always thinking or visualizing the lecturer standing before you and talking to you. In the course of your study, you will be meeting such *facilitator*s as *course tutors/facilitators* and *counsellor educators*. You are advised to take the full advantage of the contacts you will be having with them.

3.4 Course Facilitation

By course facilitation is meant everything that has to do with aiding you to successfully study and pass the EDU 728. The NOUN has such human resources/facilitators as Course Tutors and facilitators, counsellors, and so on at the Study Centre or designated centres for you to meet and interact with. You are advised to meet these people regularly for your own advantage. Your *Study Centre* is the principal facilitation centre for you. You should keep in constant touch with it. It will supply all the logistics and the enabling information to facilitate everything that has to do with you and the programme. So, you must be in close contact with your Study Centre.

3.3.1 The Course Tutors

Course Tutors are teachers or facilitators you will be opportune to meet in person for tutorials, self assessment exercises, tutor marked assignments and discussion in the course of preparing for your examinations.

3.3.2 Counsellor Educators

Counsellor Educators are available for consultation at all stages of your study. They are available to attend to your academic and other needs relating to your studies.

3.4 Assessment

The programme has a couple of built-in assessment mechanisms to assist you in your study. These are the Self Study Assessment Exercises, Teacher Marked Assignments. These are given in the body of each unit and are designed to ensure that you follow the contents of the course. They will assist you to determine whether you have fully understood each Unit or not. time you write the end of course examination, By the you put in about 60 hours of work into the course, you will be ready to write the end of course examination. The Tutor Marked Questions are important. They will be

marked and graded at 30% of the course work while the end of course examination will be marked and graded at 70% of the course.

3.4.1 Study Assessment Exercises

The Study Assessment Exercises are *practice exercises* in each unit which are meant to aid and test your understanding of the course materials as you progress in your reading of each unit of the course materials. The Study Assessment Exercises are internal and personal to you. They are given in the body of each unit are meant to assess your progress i.e., to judge whether you have attained the objectives stated by the course writer. You should, please, answer them very carefully, making sure all the time that as you read along, you compare your answers with the main contents of the course materials. You need not show your Study Assessment Exercises answers to your course tutor or facilitator, except you so desire it. As said earlier, the Study Assessment Exercises are personal to you and are a measure of your understanding of the course materials. The ease or otherwise with which you answer the Study Assessment Exercises should naturally tell you how well you have followed and understood the course materials. The Self Assessment Exercises come up fairly frequently because of the need for you to continuously self evaluate yourself as you read.

3.4.2 Tutor Marked Assignments
The Tutor Marked Assignments are the second built-in materials designed to aid and test your understanding of the course materials. They are important to you as the Study Assessment Exercises except that while it is not mandatory for you to submit answers to your Study Assessment Exercises to your course tutor or facilitator to mark and grade, it is   *obligatory* for you to *do and submit* your Tutor Marked Assignments to your course tutor or facilitator to mark and grade for you as part of your *continuous assessment* (CA)*. The Tutor Marked Assignments, as you read above, form part of your CA which accounts for 30% of the end of course examination. You should, please, pay attention to both the Study Assessment Exercises and the Tutor Marked Assignments.

3.4.3 End of Course Examination

The end of course examination marks the end of EDU 728. You will be expected to write an end of course examination. The examination will be 70%.   The end of course examination questions will come from the course materials. The questions may not be very radically different from the self assessment exercises and the tutor-marked assignments. You should, therefore, give close and equal attention to both the self assessment exercises and the tutor-marked assignments.

4.0 Study Plan and Time Management

You have to learn to manage your time to cope with your regular work (that is, if you are working and studying) and the PGDE programme. Because it may not be possible to combine the two with equal zest, there will be the need to for you to work out a time management scheme that allows you to maximize your time.

As you will notice as you read along, the Modules and their Units vary in length and texture. For example, while it is true that the longer Modules and Units will require longer studying time, so also is it true that the texture of units will, irrespective of their length, determine the length of time required to study them. So, you should use your personal discretion in this regard. The tabulation of the Modules and Units below should guide for you in this respect.

MODULE ONE • THE LINGUISTIC SITUATION IN NIGERIA, 40 PAGES.	Unit I - Generalities, 3 pages.
	Unit II - Second Language Teaching and the Teacher of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá in Nigeria, 10 pages.
	Unit III - Techniques of Evaluation the Teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá, 8 pages.
	Unit IV - The Language Situation of Nigeria, 6 pages.
	Unit V - The Sociolinguistics of Nigeria"s Three Major Languages: Háúsá Ìgbò and Yorùbá, 8 pages.
MODULE TWO NIGERIAN NATIONAL LANGUAGE POLICY 64 PAGES	Unit I - General Remarks on Nigeria"s National Policy on Education, 7 pages
	Unit II - Guidelines for the Teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as second languages in Nigeria, 15 pages
	Unit III- Main Features of Aspects of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá phonemes, 7 pages.
	Unit IV - Orthography of Háúsá, Igbo and Yorùbá, 7 pages
	Unit V - Strategies and Resources for the Teaching of Háúsá, Igbo and Yorùbá, 25 pages.
	. Unit I - The Structure of Language, 7 pages

	Unit II – Theories of Language Acquisition, 9 pages
MODULE THREE	UNIT III – THREE – The Characteristics of Language, 6 pages.
THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE 44 PAGES	Unit IV– The Psychological and Pedagogical Basis for Language Acquisition, 9 pages.
	Unit V Psychological Basis for Language Pedagogy, 10 pages

5.0 Summary

The above is a guided step by step introduction to EDU 728, Methods of teaching Nigerian languages. It is my belief that you have found it useful. Like you do to every guiding write up, you should read it several times over to make sure that you are understand every bit of it before you begin to make use of it. You should not regret doing so.

5.0 Conclusion

It is in your interest to read the reader"s guide and it is highly recommended for you to do so.   It is like you going through the table of contents, references and index of a textbook to know what it contains.

Self Assessment Exercise

Explain trilingualism and its relevance in the context of the sociolinguistic setting of Nigeria.

6.0 References

Nigeria, The Federal Government of Nigeria (1999**).** *The Constitution of the Federal Government of Nigeria.* Abuja. Federal Government Printers.

Nigeria, The Federal Government of Nigeria. *The National Policy on Education*. NERDC, Abuja.

MODULE ONE: THE SOCIOLINGUISTIC SETTING OF NIGERIA

CONTENTS

UNIT ONE   Generalities

UNIT TWO   Second Language Teaching and the Teacher of Háúsá, Ìgbò and
                  Yorùbá in Nigeria.
UNIT THREE   Techniques of Evaluation in Teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò
                  and Yorùbá and Nigerian Languages in
General

UNIT FOUR The Language Situation of Nigeria

UNIT FIVE The Sociolinguistics of Nigeria's Three Major Languages:
Háúsá Ìgbò
                  and Yorùbá

UNIT 1 – **Generalities**
CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Unit Objectives
3.0 Main Contents
   3.1 The Official Status of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá in Nigeria
   3.2 Háúsá, Ìgbò, Yorùbá and other Nigerian Languages
   3.3 The Pedagogical Status of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá
4.0 Summary and Conclusion
5.0 Self Assessment Exercises
6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment.
7.0 References and other Sources

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This is the very first Unit you will read in EDU 728. The unit consists of aspects of the problem of the multilingual setting of Nigeria and the linguistic situation in Nigeria. Indeed, EDU 728 is designed to address one aspect of the multilingual problems of Nigeria, the issue of Nigerian languages, especially, Nigeria"s major languages- Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá and their statutory position, vis-a avis   other Nigerian languages. This Unit, therefore, consists of general facts that introduce you to the sociolinguistic setting of Nigeria, which is one of the aspects of the problems of the multilingual setting of Nigeria.

2.0 Objectives

   At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:
- identify the languages for which this programme is being developed,
- state the official status of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá,
- state the pedagogical status of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá,
- discuss the socio-political significance of the official status of Háúsá, Ìgbò and
        Yorùbá,
- discuss the historical justification of of recognizing Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as

17

major languages; and
- 	discuss the implications of recognizing Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as major languages.

3.0 Main Contents

3.1 The Official Status of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá in Nigeria

Officially or statutorily, the three languages of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá are recognised jointly as Nigeria"s three major languages. They are so recognised in the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Government of Nigeria. By this status, each of these languages may be used at the state level where they are dominant to perform all the roles that English is currently performing for Nigeria. They are to be used:

1. to conduct debates in the various Houses of Assembly and Local Government Councils,
2. to keep records of House of Assembly and Council proceedings,
3. in state owned media houses;
4. to print newspaper;
5. to keep official records; and
6. as instructional mediums in the basic Education School system.

Although these languages enjoy this status, the phrase *where they are dominant* clearly shows that these languages are to be used where they are perceived to be dominant. Within areas where they are perceived to be dominant, there may be other languages that may challenge them and compete for recognition as well. Where this happens, the major language may not be able to fully appropriate its special status and privilege. However, no matter this state, the important thing is that Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá are Nigeria"s official three major languages and this has been reflected in the national policy of education brochure. Its reflection in the national education policy brochure is one of the reasons for mounting this programme by the National Open University of Nigeria. The other more pertinent reason is, of course, that Nigeria desires to use the languages to convey her national ideals, pride and aspirations. The recognition and encouragement of the functional rise of three languages will, at the least, provide at the home front, a measure of pride and contentment that Nigeria is not blind to her languages. Perhaps, the unspoken reason may be that Nigeria is, through the three languages, trying out an experiment in trilingualism with the hope that one of the three languages will, in the very long run, by the process of natural selection, rise to become Nigeria"s officially recognized national language.

As a multilingual nation, Nigeria is faced with the problem that the British colonial masters could not or did not solve at the time Nigeria became independent in 1960. The three languages are significant because they represent the three political regions the

colonialists started with. Nigerian politics was based on the three regions- the Northern, Western, and Eastern Regions. The leading languages and tribes happened to be Háúsá in the North, led by a Háúsá-speaking politician from the North, Sir Ahmadu Bello, the Sardauna of Sókótó. Yorùbá, in the old Western Region, led by Chief Öbáfĕmi Awólõwô, a Yorùbá- speaking politician while Ìgbò was led by Dr. Nnmadi Ázikìkwë, an Ìgbò-speaking political leader from the old political Eastern Region. The first common problem of identity of these men is that each of them came from a region whose people and language are the same:

- Ahmadu Bello, the of Sardauna represented the North, the majority of who were Háúsá by tribe and spoke Háúsá language
- Chief Öbáfĕmi Awólõwô represented the West, the majority of who were Yorùbá by tribe and spoke Yorùbá language
- by Dr. Nnmadi Ázikìkwë represented the East, the majority of who were Ìgbò by tribe and spoke Ìgbò language.

Recognising these languages was important for at least two reasons. First, it more or less served as a tribute to these leaders who represented their people and language in an attempt to wrestle political power from the colonial masters. Two, it ensured that the three languages are given equal footing and/or recognition and that no one region was given an edge over the other. This has helped to keep Nigeria politically and sociolinguistically balanced.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Mention two advantageous reasons for the official recognition of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as major languages.

3.2 Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá and Other Nigerian Languages

Although we tried to justify the recognition of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as major languages, their majority status is not without blemish. We will note some of them.

1. The recognition of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá naturally created a dichotomy between them and other languages, a status superior to non-majority and minority languages within the natural spread of each of the three languages.
2. Generally, the peoples of these non-majority languages are collectively/jointly in the majority demographically and linguistically.
3. The dichotomy raises the issue of status and importance which is a reflection of the relative size of Nigeria.
4. There are non-majority languages with equally competing and challenging demography which have not received the kind of qualified attention the major languages have had.

5. The major languages make the other languages feel inferior and desirous to identify with major languages.
6. The three major languages are fast melting the minority languages, thus endangering some of the minority languages leading to possible extinction.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Discuss the relative position of your language to the three major languages.

3.3 The Pedagogical Status of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá

By being major languages, each of them has attracted the attention of the Federal Government of Nigeria in various ways. For example, each of the three languages (Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá) enjoys special privilege. Some of the privileges are that:
1. they attract official attention from the federal Government of Nigeria;
2. they have official orthography each;
3. they have a national curriculum description;
4. there are textbooks published in each of them to enhance its learning by both indigenous and non-indigenous speakers;
5. they have accumulated literature in almost all human endeavours;
6. educationally, they have become languages for literacy; and
7. within Nigeria, they have attained second language status; EDU 728 is evidence or proof to that effect.

4.0 Summary

For this very brief introductory unit, we discover that EDU 728 is an important component of the NOUN"s PGDE programme because it makes you take a peep at the political significance of recognising Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as major languages. These points raised should be borne in mind as you read through the rest of the materials.

5.0 Conclusion

In the course of the Unit, you read as part of the Min Contents the status of the three major languages of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá, the reasons for their being officially recognised as major languages and the implications of the status as major languages. Perhaps, one of the most important reasons is that the recognition created a dichotomy between them and the rest of Nigerian languages. Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá are to be taught as second languages in Nigeria.

6. Tutor Marked Assignment

Discuss the political significance of the recognition of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as official languages in Nigeria. What is the implication of such recognition for the student to whom you teach any of the three languages as second languages?

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UNIT 2: SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING AND THE TEACHER OF HÁÚSÁ, ÌGBÒ AND YORÙBÁ AS SECOND LANGUAGES IN NIGERIA.

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

I would like you to understand from the beginning, firstly, that **EDU 728 – Methods of Teaching Nigerian Languages** deals with how to teach Nigerian languages in general and how to teach each of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá and a second language in Nigeria. Secondly, that as a teacher of Nigerian Languages, you can teach only one of the three major languages and thirdly, that these materials are a guide for the teaching of the three major Nigerian languages- Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá.

Although each of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá are supposed to be taught to Nigerians who speak other languages, you will and may, indeed, have discovered that you are either teaching Nigerian secondary school children who already speak one or the other of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as a first language or who do not speak any of them as a first language. In the latter case, you will be teaching any of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as a second language.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of the Unit, you should be able to:
* mention four areas relevant to the preparation of a Nigerian teacher of Nigerian languages

- discuss the academic justification of EDU 728 in the preparation of the Nigerian language teacher.
- discuss professional justification of EDU 728 in the preparation of the Nigerian language teacher
- state orally and in writing the importance of the native language to the Nigerian child.
- discuss the preconditions for the teaching of a second language.
- list the features of the sociolinguistic setting of Nigeria.
- discuss the significance of age and „maturity" in the educational programme of the Nigerian child.
- identify, at the least, six points on the critical period in the development of the Nigerian child.
- list the implications of the multilingual setting of Nigeria.
- discuss the significance of sociolinguistics in second language teaching.
- relate psycholinguistics to language and human physical development.
- discuss the significance of the age of six in the educational career of the child.

3.0 MAIN CONTENTS

3.1 Second Language Teaching

Second language teaching is common across the world. It exists in both developed and developing economies of the world. For example, second language teaching exists in Britain, US, Canada and Australia, where English is "native" to many. English is being taught as a second language to citizens whose native language is not English. For an understanding of this, for example, the native Welsh speakers in Wales, the native Scot speakers of Scotland and the Irish speakers of Northern Ireland all in the United Kingdom, learn to speak English as a second language in the United Kingdom. So, if you teach any of three major Nigerian languages, you are either teaching it as a second language to Nigerian children in Nigeria or you may be teaching it to Nigerian children to whom it is a first language. This is the same way the various native North American peoples learn to speak English as a second language in the US while it is taught to some other American children as a first language. Indeed, in principle and practical terms, EDU 728 may be termed the Nigerian equivalent of America"s Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). I expect that with time, there will emerge in Nigeria individual programmes on the teaching of each of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá to Nigerian children and we will have such programmes as Teaching Háúsá to Speakers of other Languages, (THSOL), Teaching Ìgbò to Speakers of other Languages

(TISOL), Teaching Yorùbá to Speakers of other Languages (TYSOL) instead of the current merger of the three languages as a course.

You will be teaching one of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá either as a second language in Nigeria to Nigerian school children who do not speak any of the three languages as a *first language* or you may be teaching it to Nigerian children to whom any of the three languages is actually a first language. In countries listed above where English is spoken as a native language, English plays a tripartite role as:

1. the official national language to all;
2. a second language by virtue of its being the official national language to those who do not speak it as their mother tongue; and
3. a native language to only some.

EDU 728 can be said to recognise three sets of Nigerian children:

1. Nigerian children from the three major language groups.
2. Others, that is, Nigerian children from non-major language groups who must learn one of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as a second language.
3. Nigerian children from minority language groups

What is certain is that you, the teacher of a Nigerian language, may be teaching one of the three Nigerian languages to Nigerian children to whom the language is a first language or you may be teaching it to Nigerian children to whom the language is a second language. This latter class of Nigerian children do not speak any of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as a native language. The reality that some of you may actually be teaching one or the other of the three languages to Nigerian children to whom the language is a first language does not in any way sway the principal objective of the National language policy which is to ensure that the Háúsá child is taught either Ìgbò or Yorùbá and that the Yorùbá speaking child is taught Ìgbò or Háúsá and that the Háúsá child is taught either Yorùbá or Ìgbò. Thus, EDU 728 is consistent with Nigeria"s language policy.

However, you must remember that as a teacher, these children will learn any of these languages the way we all learn to speak and write English as a second language in Nigeria. You should, therefore, expect similar error patterns, error types and error sources, and so on. You must remember as well that on the average, the Nigerian children you teach or are going to teach any of the three major Nigeria languages to, will bring into your class, a linguistic entry behaviour, what Banathy (1969) called input competence and this entry linguistic behaviour is their native language. While you teach your language of concern, you must bear

in mind, the effect of the linguistic entry behaviour of your students.

1. What indigenous native language do you speak?
2. Do you think you should learn, or feel that you qualify to learn any of Nigeria"s three major languages? If so which one/ones will you prefer to learn and why?
3. If you do not speak any of the three major languages, (I don"t, for example), why do you think you should learn one of them as a second language?

Unlike English, which the Nigerian child learns as a second language in the school, every Nigerian child raised in Nigeria grows up naturally speaking the language of the environment where he or she is raised. The indigenous language or the first language or the mother tongue which the Nigerian child speaks is part of the cognitive endowment of the Nigerian child and part of the developmental equipping that the Nigerian child brings from his home to the school-learning environment. The Nigerian child"s native language is, therefore, very important because it is the language with which he established the initial rapport with his immediate environment. The first language or the mother tongue is the Nigerian child"s input competence or the linguistic entry behaviour.

3.2 Academic Preparation of the Second Language Teacher

Equally important is the fact that this course is aimed at sensitising you, the Nigerian language teacher, to the teaching of indigenous Nigerian languages. The expectation is that as a teacher of a Nigerian language, you are a native speaker of the Nigerian language you teach or, that at the least, you will have attained such guided competency that qualifies you to teach it. It is important for you to know and remember that it is not every native speaker of a language that is qualified to teach the language. As a native-speaker who has the natural knowledge of your language, you are expected to be a specialist who has the academic knowledge of the linguistic structure of the language you teach. This is in addition to all you know intuitively about your language. The necessary training gives you a technical and academic edge over anybody whose criterion for teaching his native language is native knowledge. The areas of formal academic training include:

1. the phonetics and phonology of the your native language;
2. speaking, reading and writing skills as part of communication skills;
3. the morphology of your native language;
4. the syntax of your native language;

5. the lexis and structure of your native language;
6. a vocabulary and meaning relationships as they apply to your native language;
7. a working knowledge of the culture of your native language;
8. literature and literary studies in your language of speciality including the literary heritage and culture of the language, and
9. language use, and so on.

In addition, your academic preparation may include course in pragmatics and principles of communicative competence.

The above, (1 -9) are the necessary academic equipment that you are expected to bring into the language teaching situation, and indeed, into EDU 728. As a teacher of any of the three major languages, you are expected to possess the academic ability and professional competency as part of your academic equipping to qualify you to effectively teach your own language at the secondary school level. In addition, you are expected to have taken relevant or cognate courses to complement your academic and competency. A combination of academic and cognate courses will enable you to perform as a professional. Such cognate courses are: sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, pragmatics, error/contrastive linguistic analysis, language testing/evaluation, relevant education courses and practicum.

3.3 The Professional Requirements of the Teacher of Nigerian Languages

By professional requirements of the teacher of Nigerian languages is meant the kind of exposure through cognate courses that add quality or added value to your academic training and performance as a teacher. Many people go into language teaching without these cognate courses. Thus, such individuals are not qualified for language teaching. Indeed, they are not until they have acquired the skills through these cognate courses. Going through the university to acquire the necessary academic training without acquiring the professional skills through cognate courses does not make you a language teacher, not even if the language is your native language. All teachers of language need the professional training to be qualified to do so.

What follows from here is a discussion of the cognate courses that add a professional dimension or added value to your academic equipping. Acquiring that professional dimension is precisely what you are doing by registering as a PGDE student of the NOUN. The cognate courses in language teaching are sociolinguistics,

psycholinguistics, pragmatics, error/contrastive analysis and relevant education courses and practicum that you need to take in order to make your training and preparation as a language teacher complete. You may, in fact, be required to take more courses to make you professionally qualified as a language teacher at the secondary school level. Many of such courses have all been embedded in EDU 728. Others are relevant education courses, including language pedagogy and practicum. We will discuss some of these cognate courses that are meant to add value to your academic competence in your study of teaching Nigerian languages as second language in Nigeria.

3.3.1 Psycholinguistics

Psycholinguistics as a cognate course includes courses that expose you to the theories of how humans learn language. Psycholinguistic courses are meant to assist you in the understanding of the cognitive processes at work when language learning and acquisition take place. Psycholinguistics helps you to blend psychological principles of language development with the linguistics to give you a robust understanding of the relationship between developmental psychology, developmental psycholinguistics and physical growth and development, including language development. For example, developmental psycholinguistics helps to trace parallels in developmental psychology and physical growth and development in relation to language development.

Developmental psychology and developmental psycholinguistics recognise a stage of development called *the critical period in human growth and language development*. For example, by the age of six years, physical, mental, psychological, and most importantly, cognitive growth and development and full language development are expected to be complete in every clinically normal child. This is why the United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) recommends six as the age at which the Nigerian child is considered mature enough to begin formal education. This is because, most importantly, language, the key index to cognitive development, is expected to be complete quantitatively and qualitatively.

The age of six is very important in the life of the child. It marks for him the *end of a stage of growth and development* and *the beginning of another*. At six, the child is expected to be physically and maturationally ready to embark on formal education. Part of the readiness includes ability the readiness to add a first second language, English which is Nigeria‟s official language, a second official language, French and later, at the secondary school stage, a major Nigerian language. The age of six for the developmental psychologist, the developmental psycholinguist and the language teacher marks the:

a) the ending of the child"s initial language growth and
   development;
b) the localisation of language and cortical lateralisation; and
c) the beginning of formal adventurous life of the child
   including readiness for formal instruction and to add a second
   language as medium of instruction.

If at the end of six years, for example, it is discovered that a
child has only grown physically but is not developed, or that he
has grown but there is no evidence of language, then we all know
that there is a problem. I will list for you below some of the
areas that will be negatively affected if by the age of six, there
is no proper growth and development.

1. The home of the child who is improperly developed at six may
   never be joyful. The child and the parents will never know the
   joy and pleasure of having a healthy child.
2. The society may be at loss, especially, if its resources are
   used to maintain such a child.
3. The child will be a problem to the language teacher whose joy
   to see language learning in children is frustrated.
4. He is a disappointment to the linguist who is concerned with
   speech as the instrument of expression of the life.
5. He is a problem to the language and speech pathologists who
   may be required to find a solution to his his speech
   malady/impairment.
6. He is a problem to the government to whom a speechless child
   is an extra responsibility
7. He is a problem to the neurologist who is concerned with the
   nervous system of the child.
8. The child is a problem to himself because he cannot behave
   like the child next door.

The age of six is significant because it marks developmentally and
maturationally the age the child is ready to face the rigors of
formal education, especially, formal education using mother tongue,
language of the environment or English the medium of instruction.
Long before the age of six, the every normal child has naturally
begun to think, act and interact in his native language. This is
why Nigeria"s educational policy recognizes the age of six as the
age the Nigerian child is ready developmentally, psychologically,
cognitively and maturationally to begin school.

The age of six is important because psycholinguistically, language
development will have been complete in the normal Nigerian child.
For example, lateralisation process, that is, function
specialization of the brain, will have been attained and localised.
For example, dexterity will have been fully established. Any
malfunction physical, mental/psychological, will have been fully

recognized even before the age of six. The child at six will have attained the following growth and development indices that are considered basic to life and living. These include demonstrating through speech:

1. the evidence that he has mastered the phonetics and phonology of his language;
2. evidence of his mastery of the morphology and morphological processes of his language;
3. evidence of the syntactic control of his language;
4. the evidence of mastery of the vocabulary and meaning relationships in his language; and action,
5. the evidence that he is imbibing or has imbibed the socio-cultural milieu of his language and its environment.

At the age of six, the child is cognitively, socially and culturally ready to learn English as a subject. From the age of six onward, the Nigerian child embarks for life on the road of formal learning hopping in and out his first language in the attempt to cope with English as a subject and as a medium for learning other subjects. It is in this sociolinguistic context of the Nigerian child that you, the Nigerian language teacher are going to introduce a major Nigerian language as an added second language to him or her. This has its implications for you. For example:

- How are you going to cope with him or her in terms of the subjects competing for his time and attention?
- How are you going to keep balanced in the face of such competing languages as English, the official language of education and instruction and with French, the „official second language" which he is expected to acquire?
- Above all, how does he and how do you cope with the student"s first language?

These are some of the challenges that will face you in your teaching of a major Nigerian language as a second language. This is where cognate courses and specialist language teaching tools/technique in applied linguistics become very relevant. The ability to use such applied linguistics tools and techniques *as contrastive analysis, error analysis and language testing* and *evaluation* become very relevant and useful or applicable to you. It is expected that you will be able to functionally apply them as the need arises to assist you in dealing with the problems of second language teaching and learning.

3.3.2 Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics courses expose you to the relevant socio-cultural practices of the language. It exposes you to the language environment and its people as observed in the day- to-day living

and as they express it in their culture-*music, art, clothing*, *the food they eat and how such foods are prepared and eaten*, and so on. Sociolinguistics focuses on language use within the society in terms of the norms of the society, such as greetings and show of respect to the elderly. Attitudes acquire meaning by the way language is used to express all these. For example, common etiquette and social distance can be expressed in language. Sociolinguistics shows you the various ways the language is used by the speakers to make life relevant to them.

Sociolinguistics traces the relationship between language and the society you live or the society where language is used by interpreting the attitudes and cultures associated with the language. For example, there is so much to greeting and the attitudes that go with greetings that it can very easily become an issue. Character training is reflected in language use within its cultural setting. Sometimes, a set of behaviour is governed by predetermined paralinguistic features such as shouting and the level of the voice. Others, such as the expression of respect and social distance in multidimensional settings are essential sociolinguistic factors in communication and interaction. For example, do you squat to greet, prostate to greet or stretch out your hand to greet? Indeed, different Nigerian languages have their own peculiar sociolinguistic activities. It is the job of the teacher to expose students to these peculiar attributes.

3.3.3 Applied Linguistics Courses as Tools in Language Teaching

Under this sub unit, we will discuss one important psychological concept in language teaching and that is interference. Interference will be discussed in relation to contrastive analysis and error analysis.

3.3.3.1 Transfer and Interference

Interference is a fairly common concept in learning. It refers to a situation where what is known prevents one from properly acquiring a similar but new thing. In second language learning, it has been discovered that your students" native language which he has known and mastered usually intrudes into the second language which he is learning but has not mastered.   Second language interference or intrusion is an unconscious process. The learner, without intending it, unconsciously and uncontrollably discovers that his L_1 patterns show in the process of acquiring the L_2 system. To the second language learner, interference is a facility because it enables him to communicate or learn the second language. In other words, interference enables the learner to scale the barrier in his learning the second language. To you, the second language teacher, barrier breaking as interference may be to the learner, it distorts the second language structure and results in errors. At the

psycholinguistic level, interference is based on the concept of transfer of one set of language and culture skills into another. This is succinctly expressed by Lado (1957):

> Individuals tend to transfer the forms and
> meanings and the distribution of forms and
> meanings of their native language and
> culture to the foreign language–both
> productively when attempting to grasp and
> understand the language and receptively when
> trying to understand the language and act in
> the culture as practiced by the natives.

Transfer produces interference and interference results in errors. While transfer results in interference, it is not every transferred item that results in errors. Some are proactive. To behaviourist psychology, transfer is negative if it produces a negative, that if it is retroactive but proactive if it aids new learning. According to Lado (1968), it is the kind of transfer that produces a negative effect that should be classified as interference and it is this kind of interference that should interest you as a language teacher because it is retroactive. This position is typically psycholinguistically behaviourist. It has not given any consideration to transfer that aids new learning. This is the major criticism of behaviourist view of transfer and interference. As a language teacher, you should be interested in factors that promote new learning and those which impede it.

3.3.3.2 Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis evolved from the concept that whenever two languages are in contact, there is bound to be a mutual transfer of items between them. In other words, when a learner learns second language, there is bound to be a transfer of the learner"s language structures into those of the second language. Behaviourist psychology accepts the fact that such elements so transferred will have positive and negative effects on the L_2, but that it is only those that have negative effects that we should bother about and that by comparing and contrasting the linguistic levels of the various systems of the learner"s L_1 and L_2, we should on the basis of the similarities and differences, able to predict potential learning difficulties for the L_2 learner. Thus, contrastive linguistics is one of the tools in your hand to use in solving your students" second language learning difficulty. You could go about CA in two ways, the traditional approach of making CA predict errors or go the explanatory way to make CA explain rather than predict second language errors. Traditionally, the concern of contrastive analysis is to compare and contrast a particular aspect of your students" L_1 with a corresponding aspect of his L_2 you are teaching him on order to predict the potential difficulties he will

have in the learning of the L_2. This approach is known as the predictive CA. The other approach to CA is explanatory; it says that when you notice errors in the performance of your L_2 students, you carry out a CA of his L_1 and L_2 in order to explain why the error occurred. This latter approach is called the weaker approach to CA while the former approach is called the strong approach to CA. The weaker approach tends to be feasible because you will be dealing with the error at its point of occurrence while with the strong approach, you will be predicting errors and predictions are not always correct. The weaker approach to CA was suggested as a remedy against the stronger approach to CA which never made correct prediction of errors. A Nigerian language teacher can engage the students in contrastive analysis of their languages with that of the second language bveing tights to biting out reasons for perceived difficulties in the second language. This approach, if carefully and meaningfully carried out, could clarify difficult language issues your students may face.

CA is based on the concept of transfer of first language habits and culture into those of the second language (Weinreich 1953, Lado 1957). This means that in L_2 teaching, there is every possibility that your students will transfer some of their native language items into the Nigerian second language you teach. This will tend to occur at all levels of the second language system, namely: the level of oral performance (phonetics and phonology), the level of morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, culture and so on.

3.3.3.3 Error Analysis

Error Analysis involves studying the errors of your student"s L_2 performance in order to remedy them in the course of your teaching. In error analysis, you deal with actual rather than hypothesized errors. The approach to error analysis involves:
   a) your collecting a body of errors;
   b) reconstructing them to reflect the student"s intended usage;
   c) classifying them into the various linguistic domains violated;
   d) indicate the degree of difficulty of each error by way of giving the frequency of occurrence of each error;
   e) calculate the percentage of each error in the corpus of errors elicited, and
   f) using the errors as a basis for remedial teaching.

Contrastive analysis and error analysis are tools for you to solve your students" second language learning difficulties. They are not meant for your students in their complex forms. The implication of this fact for you is that you must be prepared to apply or extend the linguistic skills you have acquired in the course of your

training to the study and analysis of your student"s L_1 in order to deal with their L_2 learning difficulties either by way of contrastive analysis or error analysis. Language testing will be examined as a full unit on its own.

3.3.4 Pragmatics and Discourse

Pragmatics refers to that aspect of language teaching and learning that deals with "describing what can be done by means of language" while discourse refers to "the description of language as texts" (Faerch, Haastrup, Phillipson and 1984, p. 40). Pragmatics is important because the students have realise that language use is a bidirectional affair involving a speaker/writer and listener/reader and that involves a continuous process of meaning negotiation between language source and language destination. The ability to keep speaker"s meaning and listener"s interpretation balanced is one important aspect of language use and communication. Doing this effectively is one important aspect of pragmatics. As a teacher, you have to sensitize the students to taking cognisance of the way the speaker/writer manipulates language to effect his (speaker"s/writer"s) intended meaning.

3.3.5 Educational Courses and Practicum

Relevant education courses, language pedagogy and practicum are designed to expose you to education principles and management that give you a matrix of teaching methods, psychology and methodics, that is, language teaching methods in conformity to educational and linguistic principles. Relevant education courses for the teacher of Nigerian languages include the sociology and management of education in Nigeria, second language teaching methodology and practicum to test out his proficiency. Relevant education courses should enhance your professional competency.

4.0 Summary
In this Unit, we tried to take you through what makes a second language teacher. Being a native speaker of a language is not a criterion for teaching the language. Also, taking a degree in it is not sufficient to qualify you to teach it. To qualify as language teacher, you have to go through well defined academic programmes, a set of cognate courses and relevant courses in education. Some of the tools you need to deal with second language difficulty are also discussed. These are contrastive analysis and error analysis and pragmatics.

5.0 Conclusion

You read about the significance of native language in the preparation of the Nigerian child. I advocated that the teacher of the Nigerian language as second language should speak the language as a native language and must be prepared both academically and professionally. We gave the necessary attention to the Nigerian child at six by giving you the advantages and the challenge.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignments

a) Discuss the advantages inherent in Nigerians learning one or the other the three major languages as a second language in Nigeria
b) What is the implication of the current practice in Nigeria"s secondary schools of teaching Nigeria"s three major languages to native speakers of those languages?
c) Justify the observation that it is not every native speaker of a language that is qualified to teach it.
d) Write a critique of the Nigerian child in school at age two.
e) Justify the interplay of developmental psychology developmental psycholinguistics as cognate courses for the language teacher

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UNIT THREE: EVALUATION OF THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF
HÁÚSÁ, ÌGBÒ AND YORÙBÁ

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

Evaluation refers to tests, measurement and assessment of teaching/learning outcomes in educational studies. It is a feedback mechanism to measure teaching effectiveness on the learner and learning effectiveness or outcomes. In evaluation, you assess the contents of the curriculum, and in our context, various aspects of the Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá curriculums taught as a second language. In other words, evaluation has to do with assessing learning outcome. When you evaluate, you are interested in the degree of students" achievement and proficiency.

2.0 Unit Objectives

At the end of this Unit, the student should be able to:
- define the term evaluation and all other related terms;
- tell what is evaluated and how the evaluation is done;
- define psychometrics and its used in educational studies;
- list at the least five variables in evaluation;
- list four psychometric language proficiency evaluation techniques;
- list two levels of receptive evaluation and two levels of productive evaluation;
- list the components and functions of multiple choice questions;
- list the six graded levels of reasoning, and
- give at the least, four qualities of a good multiple choice questions.

3.0 Main Contents

3.1 Psychometrics of Learning

Psychometrics of learning is the most enduring contribution of educational psychology to evaluation and evaluation techniques. It is essentially a test of mental ability expressed in quantitatively either as quotients or aptitude scores. In language learning, attempts have been made to develop aptitude tests on language proficiency. There are at the least, five variables in to bear in mind in evaluation and they are social contexts, learner characteristics, learning conditions, learning process and learning outcomes. These variables are integrated. Social contexts, learner characteristics and learning have a bearing on the learning process and learning outcome (Stern, 1984).

Evaluation is integral to the educational philosophy and underlying psychology of teaching and learning outcomes: "The needs of assessing the outcome of learning have led to the development of tests of achievement and proficiency" (Stern, 1984, p. 311). Evaluation (assessing/testing) of learning outcomes is the ultimate in all teaching and learning situations. Evaluation may be done via psychometric tests such as intelligence quotient (IQ), language aptitude tests, multiple choice tests and essay testing.

There are two parts to the evaluation of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá and they are **the curriculum driven evaluation** and **the non-curriculum drive evaluation**. The curriculum based evaluation is cognitive evaluation measuring teaching/learning outcomes, the expected effectiveness of change in behaviour in the learner following instructional sessions. The non-cognitive aspect of evaluation is proprietarily based and has nothing to do with the learner. The curriculum driven evaluation is a feedback mechanism for the teacher, education planners and administrators and to proprietors on how effective learning has taken or is taking place. We will take a look at some of evaluation techniques and discuss two types, **subjective essay evaluation testing** and **objective multiple choice question testing.**

3.2. Evaluation of Language Learning Potential-IQ and Language Aptitude Tests

IQ and Language Aptitude Tests are a means of evaluating of language learning potentials. They are essentially **prognostic** in nature. They tell you how well or how mentally equipped is this individual or group of people for the learning of this language. The equipping of the individual or a group of individuals is a gamut of several factors such as age, gender, aptitude, socio-economic background, motivation, learning environment, etc. To evaluate is to assess how well or successful an expected change in behaviour has taken place or how successful is the learning outcome that has taken place.

Most importantly, evaluation of learning outcomes must take cognisance of the underlying language teaching theories, interpretations of learner characteristics and learning process. The Nigerian language learning potentials can be evaluated using various aptitude and IQ tests. These techniques are applied to test proficiency either from a **prognostic** or **diagnostic** point of view. Some of these evaluation techniques (IQ and Language Aptitude Tests) that can be used are:

1. Symond's Foreign Language Prognosis Test. It focuses on the ability to handle grammatical structure and translation.
2. Carroll and Sapon's Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT).
3. Carroll and Sapon's Elementary Modern Language Aptitude Test (EMLAT).
4. Pimsleur's Language Aptitude Battery (PLAB).

MLAT, EMLAT and PLAB, are advanced approach to language test construction and audio lingual principles/theory of language teaching. They assess the "discrimination of speech sounds, the capacity to relate sounds to a given set of symbols, rote memory in a language learning task, sensitivity for sentence structure, and an inductive language learning capacity, all characteristics of audio lingual theory," (Stern, 1984, p. 369). Psychometric tests (IQ and language aptitude tests) are both prognostic and diagnostic in nature. IQ and language aptitude tests are predictive kinds of test designed to sort out individuals before they undergo language training. As for Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá, IQ and language aptitude tests may not be necessary if learning these languages is a precondition in the national language policy as the case in Nigeria. Learning these languages is official and is an integral part of Nigeria's educational system. Evaluating them will have to proceed in the course of all second language learning. They can be examined receptively in listening and hearing, and productively in reading and writing. Listening and hearing test auditory discrimination of language sands and utterances while reading and writing test word recognition, syllable recognition, spelling, pronunciation and morpheme recognition and more. Reading and writing test communicative ability and orthography proficiency via the spoken and written mediums.

3.3 Evaluation of Cognitive Learning Outcomes

These skills involved in the listed items above may be tested, especially in the Nigerian language situation, either through subjective essay writing or tested objectively through multiple choice questioning and the computer. Both of these tests or evaluation procedures or techniques are familiar. The use of the

computer is just coming on. We will examine them very briefly. What is required of you incidentally is the ability to construct objective tests well enough to make them objective.

3.3.1 Objectivity in Evaluation

Objectivity in evaluation can be achieved through the use of multiple choice questions such as the short answer type, the alternative response type as in True/False, Yes/No, Correct/Incorrect, Fact/Opinion Type and the Matching Type (Owólabí, 2009).

Multiple choice question has two parts, the stem which introduces the testee to the behaviour to be tested or assessed "in terms of the reasoning that will generate the response," (Ow lab 2009, p. 1) and the responses which consist of between four and five items. The stem gives the statement by introducing the student to be tested to the behaviour in terms of the reasoning that will lead the testee to the expected response (Owólabí, 2009 and Lawal, 2009). The responses consist of the options or the alternatives from which the right answer must be made. The responses consist of two sets of answers, the correct answer and the others that distract the testee"s attention away from the right answer. The „others" which distract attention away from the right behaviour are called *distracters* or *decoys*. To objectively test your students, your questions must be such that there are no ambiguities. The right answer must be so right that it cannot be compromised and the distracters must be such that there cannot be two possibilities. Good multiple choice questions must reflect the six varied and graded thinking levels of *knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation*. One important requirement of Multiple Choice Questions is that they must be valid, reliable and economical or usable (Owólabí 2009, p. 2). Multiple Choice Questions are generally reliable and easy to score. They are even more so, with Computer Based Testing (CBT).

Computer Based Testing (CBT) is now the icing on the Multiple Choice Testing. The quality of CBT is that once the questions have been properly set and the answers code in, it makes scoring very easy and stress free. Within seconds of concluding a test, the outcome is flashed for the student to see. CBT has a number of challenges.

- Students who are not computer literate cannot use the CBT because there is no time for *trial testing* or *trial by error* by the testee; the exam time is not the time to practice or learn how to use the computer, very user-friendly as the computer is.
- Power may fluctuate in the course of testing and the monitor goes blank
- The time is auto-controlled.

- All the students may not be answering the same test items at the point of testing.
- Where the items are the same, they may not be ordered the same way, i.e., the sequence may not be the same.
- A little error in handling the computer may result in loss of data.

3.3.2 Essay/Writing as Evaluation Technique

Even though writing is an age old mode of evaluation, its greatest weakness is the tester‟s subjectivity. It was the need to combat subjectivity and improve testing that led the West African Exanimations Council (WAEC) to introduce objective testing in the West African School Certificate in 1966. The inability to eliminate subjectivity in essay testing led to seeking for an objective alternative for evaluation, which is objective testing. However, although objective testing eliminates subjectivity, essay/writing mode of evaluation is still being done to complement the objective testing. The advantages of the essay as an evaluation technique are: it it permits the student to select, organise, integrate, synthesize and present his answer in his/her way and words. Essay writing allows "students to use information at their disposal in solving problems presented to them in question form or present them in a novel way" (und 2009, p. 14). We have two essay types,   **the expanded response essay questions**   and **the restricted essay question type.**

The expanded response essay question type provides a wide range of latitude for students. Students are free to write to express their minds as much as possible. They are at liberty to select all or any of the facts available to them to organize and integrate their answer. Consider, for example, the essay topic „Compare a Nigerian Language and English" Here, the student is at liberty to write as much as he can within the time available. The restricted response essay questions tend to limit the content and form of the student‟s answer. The assessor places restriction on the kind of answer the student could give. For example, you may give the following topic for your students to write on: *List in order the first three Military Heads of State in Nigeria and describe, in not more than five sentences, the attitude of the second to music*. Here, the students have to list the sequence of governance, the ordinal or sequence has to be correct, the attitude to music is not in respect all of them or any of them but in respect of   *No 2* or *the second* Military Head of State.

The following guidelines on the construction of good essay questions are based on Ôẏundé (2009).

Essay questions should be restricted to those aspects of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá learning that cannot be covered by objective

questions. According to Ôýundé (2009), we use the essay mode of evaluation:

1. to find out how well a student can express himself;
2. when the teacher is concerned with students" feeling and how well they can make judgment or inference to defend it, and
3. to measure students" ability to criticize, state cause and effect relationship and to apply principles in novel situations

Essay questions are meant to elicit measurable behaviour. Therefore, the questions (consisting of the stem and the responses), must be clear and unambiguous. To ensure that you measure the same behaviour in essay questions, you should not give options to your students. Everybody should answer the same question by answering all questions to make your test valid and reliable. This is the only way to ensure that you have a common basis for the evaluation of their behaviour and or achievement.

Indicate the mark value for each question to encourage the students to develop a sense of direction as they react to the questions. You have to be conscious of the developmental and cognitive ability of your students. The questions must be reasonably short and straight forward. The questions must be so very clearly state that they reflect or conform to the frame work within which the student is expected to operate. To do this, you should

1. delimit the area covered by the question;
2. use words that give appropriate directions;
3. give specific directions or aim the student at the desired response, and
4. indicate clearly the value of the questions and the time allowed for the student to answer the question (Ôýundé, 2009, pp. 15 & 16).

A number of difficulties are inherent in marking essay questions. Some of them are students" writing and language quality. A student"s poor hand writing and poor language quality can easily put you off or even discourage you totally from the grading of a script. It can create a bias and increase subjectivity. In addition to the problem of poor hand writing and language use on the part of the student, you as an examiner could be moody, unhappy and irritating. One of the reasons you were advised above to mark one question at a time for all the students is to ensure comparatively fair marking. Another reason is to ensure consistency in the award of marks. You can ensure this using a **marking guide**. A marking guide should help you to in reduce subjectivity which bad writing, bad moods, irritation could give rise to. Ensure that your students answer the same questions by making them answer all the questions.

You should avoid setting either or questions. *Students should answer the same number of questions by making them answer all questions.* This way the aggregate scores of each student can be objectively compared as the scores derived from the same question by all the students.

3.3.3 Objectivity in Marking Essay Questions

Essay questions are subjective. The antidote to subjectivity is the marking guide or marking scheme. It provides a common framework of reference for evaluating each student"s answer script and ensures the standard for marking each question. To ensure objectivity and remove bias in marking essay questions, Ôýundé (2009) advises that you should score each script anonymously, using the students" examination or school number. This is in addition to marking one number at a time throughout. You should, in other words, mark essay questions number by number; you take a number and mark it for everybody and then proceed to the next until you finish marking the scripts. This ensures relatively comparable marking, rating and consistency in the marking of the scripts. This way, you can never overscore or underscore your students.

3.3.4 Conformity and the National Objectives for Teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá

For the external marking of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as a second language, I personally believe that the marking will be in conformity to marking standards set by such external school certificate bodies as the West African Examinations Council (WAEC) and the National Examination Council (NECO). While their guidelines are out of your control, I believe that they should be useful to you in internal evaluation of your students" learning outcomes. Moreover, their guidelines should conform to the evaluation patterns of all second language examination/evaluation.

As a mission oriented programme, the teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá has to be continuously evaluated from the point of view of the national language policy- the patriotic dimension and the human and material resources made available for teaching them. This implies that there is a need for the continuous evaluation of the curriculum and the resources available for teaching the languages, bearing in mind the objectives for which the languages are being taught.

3.3.5 Other Areas Needing Evaluation

The evaluation so far has focused on the curriculum, the cognitive aspect of the three major languages. What follows is a focus on the evaluation of the non-curriculum aspect, the aspects that should facilitate teaching and learning outcome and this is the evaluation

of the available resources (human and material) for effective teaching and learning outcoms. These should be continuously accredited and reaccredited as curriculum supporting resources. This, therefore, calls for the adequacy of *personnel* academic regularly training and retraining them on regular and sandwich basis so that they can continually update their knowledge and competencies through workshops, conference and membership of academic and professional associations and so on. Since national curriculums are usually fairly stable, the concern will always be how to sustain the curriculum to meet stated objectives. We will now take you through the non-cognitive aspect of the evaluation of the teaching

To ensure the national objectives for the teaching of the three major languages of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá and other Nigerian languages, the curricula as operated in the classroom must be executed within the stipulated time frame by ensuring that items/details of items analysed or broken into time chunks- annual chunk, term-chunk, monthly time chunk, weekly time chunk and hourly time chunk are attended to within the school-hours to allow for time to cope with other items on the school curriculum. The total curricula must be seen as an entity that spells national aspiration stated in individual subject objectives. The accomplishment of this depends heavily on you because it is you who operate the curriculum, conduct continuous assessment and prepare your students for school and national examination in your subject. You have the full control of time in your hands.

At a higher level of education, we talk of the gown and town, the contribution of institutions to their immediate environments. The school must be seen as meeting the socio-cultural needs of its immediate environment. At the secondary school level, we talk of the reflection of the environment in the school curriculum. In this respect, you want to see how much of the *immediate language environment is reflected in the teaching* and its *behavioural outcome* in such areas as expressing social distance, food eaten with the immediate environment of the language, greeting styles, mode of dressing, religious beliefs and practices and so on. In other words, even when the socio-cultural aspect of the language is reflected in the texts, it is you to translate it into reality for your students in teaching your language of interest.

Personnel are the greatest determinant factors in any human endeavour. They are evaluated on a regular and continuous basis to ensure their numerical strength and continuous suitability and or relevance to the system. Personnel evaluation is the responsibility of the proprietor. He ensures this by transfers of personnel from location to location to ensure that there is no vacuum or shortfall or excess personnel idling away while there is strangulation elsewhere. In other words, teachers must be appropriately deployed

to meet teaching needs and avoid waste, especially, through underutilization and overutilization. The proprietor also creates time for them to take a rest to refresh themselves regularly to avoid stress and fatigue mentally, physically and psychologically.

In addition to spread of personnel, it is felt that personnel evaluation should be tied to welfare parameters to ensure productivity. Opportunity for personnel improvement must, however, be provided or made available. Such opportunities are mentioned here: "regular training and retraining of teachers on regular and sandwich basis so that they can continually update their knowledge and competencies."

Materials and facilities available for teaching must also be evaluated. Evaluation in this respect includes evaluation of the teaching-learning environment such as classrooms, laboratories, hostels and boarding facilities. Textbooks must as well be evaluated for relevance, availability and spread, that is, numerical adequacy, academic contents and the physical state of the books. Laboratories includes language laboratory, science laboratories, audio and audiovisual studios. Solid state resources include such electronic equipment as the radio and television, ICT facilities and broadcast times, levels of broadcast and suitability of broadcast items.

Self Assessment Exercise

State the various ways you can attain socio-cultural objective in teaching a Nigerian language of your choice.

4.0 Summary

Evaluation of the teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá has been done from two perspectives, the cognitive dimension and the resources dimension.   The cognitive dimension centres on how to evaluate teaching and learning outcomes. Two main evaluation types are discussed, the essay type of evaluation, its strength and weaknesses and how to construct multiple choice questions. There is also the evaluation of supportive aspect of teaching-learning outcomes.

5.0 Conclusion

Evaluation is an important aspect of teaching learning outcome. It is a necessity for all institutions from the basic grades to the tertiary and university levels. While there are regular schedules for academic evaluation, the evaluation of nom-academic aspect of the teaching-learning outcome should be done regular and continuously to ensure a healthy state for teaching and learning.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignments

1. Draw ten objective questions with answers on any level of your second language.
2. Discus the significance of evaluation in a teaching-learning system.

7.0 References and Other Materials

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UNIT FOUR: THE LANGUAGE SITUATION OF NIGERIA

CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Unit Objectives
3.0 Main Contents
       3.1 Nigeria's Multilingual Setting
       3.2 The Creating of Multilingual Nigeria
       3.3 A Brief Sociolinguistic Setting of English in Nigeria
       3.4 English in Nigeria: Past and Present
 4. Summary
 5.0 Conclusion
 6.0 Tutor Marked Questions
 7. References/Other Sources

1.0 Introduction

By the language situation of Nigeria is meant the sociolinguistic setting of Nigeria. This includes the indigenous and non-indigenous languages spoken in Nigeria, their use, distribution and so on. There is a brief discussion of the sociolinguistics of English, Háúsá, Ìgbò, and Yorùbá.

2.0 Unit Objectives

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:
- explain the term language situation in Nigeria;
- able to discuss the multilingual setting of Nigeria;
- able to discuss the sociolinguistic setting of English in Nigeria;
- able to discuss the multilingual setting of Nigeria"s three major languages;
- able to discuss the position of minority languages in Nigeria;
- define the role and significance of English, and
- define and explain the term *status quo* as it relates to English in Nigeria.

3.0 Main Contents

3.1 Nigeria's Multilingual Setting

Sociolinguistically, Nigeria is as *a multilingual nation*, a nation with very many languages spoken within its political confines. Nigeria is about the most multilingual nation in Africa. Nigeria"s multilingual setting may be viewed from four perspectives:

  1. the perspective of English in Nigeria;

2. the perspective of Nigeria‟s three major languages Hausa, Ìgb
   and Yorùbá;
3. the perspective of large but the non-majority language groups,
   and
4. the perspective of minority languages in Nigeria.

Nigeria has very many languages. Although there seems to be no
certainty about it, it is generally now being assumed that Nigeria
has one of the highest numbers of *mutually unintelligible* languages
spoken within one country in Africa. The latest number of languages
spoken within the political confines of Nigeria is now being put at
521 (Olútóyè, 2010). By „mutually unintelligible‟ is meant that the
speakers of these 521 languages do not understand one another when
they speak. Of this large number of languages, only very
comparatively few of them are written or codified.

Characteristically, most Nigerian languages are oral languages.
They are spoken only and not written. They are not used beyond the
primary level of Nigeria‟s Basic Education System. They are not
languages of literacy; they are not used in the teaching of reading
and writing in native languages in Nigeria. Most Nigerians are not
literate in their mother tongue. The implication of most Nigerian
languages being oral languages is that most Nigerian languages have
no local or official alphabet. On the contrary, each of Nigeria‟s
three major languages (Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá) has a vast body of
literature. Uncodified languages face the risk of dying out of
existence either because they are not being spoken by those to whom
the language is a native language or the native speakers find it
more convenient to speak other languages which act as the language
of wider communication. They may not speak their languages for
other reasons.

Today it is known that many Nigerian languages face the risk of
death due to noncodification (Crystal, 2002, Rafiu, 2010 and
Olútóyè, 2010). Another implication is the absence of literacy.
Unwritten languages are generally never languages of literacy and
so, most of Nigerian languages are not languages of literacy. By
languages of literacy I mean languages which are used to teach
people how to read and write. It is known that literacy level of
Nigeria is generally low and mother tongue literacy is even more
appalling! Mother tongue illiteracy is one of the many problems
facing multilingual Nigeria and generally, the problem of the
world‟s emerging multilingual economies of Africa, Asia and South
America.

We noted above that most Nigerian languages are not written
languages. This means that the alphabet of these languages have not
been developed for literacy purposes. Whereas, the alphabets of the
three major languages have not only been developed, the languages
are literate languages. They are used to teach their speakers how

to read and write. A written language has an alphabet, that is, orthography, which the natives can use to read and write in their language. In Nigeria, the languages that qualify to be called literacy languages are very numerically few in number when compared with the total number of language that we have in Nigeria.

A written language is also a language that can be used to teach non-literate people to read and write in their native language or mother tongue. Such a language can also be used in a formal school system. The fact that most Nigerian languages are unwritten is an indication that these languages are yet to meet the demands of mother tongue education, that is, teaching the acquisition of reading and writing skills in the mother tongue.

Self Assessment Exercises

Make a summary of 3.1: Nigeria"s Multilingual Setting

3.2 The Creating of Multilingual Nigeria

The problem of multilingualism in Nigeria originated from the British colonialists who in the process of the scramble for Africa brought together people of different languages and cultures as one nation. The way the British embarked on the amalgamation process in 1914 showed that they had very little or no idea about the linguistic diversity of the territories they were amalgamating as in the case of Nigeria. The result is what we have today, a linguistic and socio-cultural conglomerate of several territories ranging geographically from near desert conditions in the North to the equatorial conditions on the coast; a situation that makes Nigeria partly Saharan in the North and partly equatorial in the South. The summary effect is that such a sprawl naturally made it impossible for the British administration to have one local language to unite all the peoples from the fringes of the Sahara Desert in the North to the equatorial forest on the Atlantic Coastlands in the South. Given the structure the British colonialists had on the ground, they had no option to adopting English as the official language and medium of contact for everything they had to do. The colonial masters resorted to using education, the same way it is still being done now, as the medium for officially actualising the use of English as the official language of administration. Since the Nigerians of that time did not understand English and the British could not speak any of the Nigerian languages, it became rather incumbent on the people too to learn English to facilitate communicating with the colonialists. The colonialists were quick to see *English as a bridge language* across peoples and cultures. English has ever since then remained to play this all important role for Nigeria.

3.3 The Sociolinguistics of English in Nigeria

English got to where it is today because there is no one single indigenous Nigerian language of wider communication uniting the peoples of Nigeria together (Fishman, 1971). So, language, a very vital part of human life, stood between the colonialists and the natives. The adoption of English by colonial masters in 1862 (Ömölçwà, 1976), solved the language issue confronting the colonial administration. The adoption of English in colonial Nigeria was an advantage to the colonialists. This is because English in Nigeria was the same as English in the England; the locale and environment was what made the difference. It was convenient for them to use English for everything it was used for in England: the official language for records and documents, for the judiciary, commerce, trade, business industry and others. Above all, it became a medium or link uniting the colonialists and their subjects.

Functionally, the colonialists used English as a medium to raise the corps of unskilled hands to assist the colonial administration. Such a corps of low level Nigerian personnel functioned as clerks, messengers, interpreters, escorts, office hands and so on (Ömölçwà, 1976). For Nigerians, English easily created a caste and elite system, which was easily recognized by the ability to speak English. English became a language whose acquisition was possible only through formal education. It quickly replaced Arabic as the medium of communication across the linguistically diverse territory known as Nigeria (Malik, 1999). Besides, it gradually became an inter-ethnic language that began to break barrier among the diverse peoples of the territory by bringing about inter-ethnic unity across the territory known as Nigeria. Irrespective of our diverse linguistic background, English has continued to function as a language of unity across Nigeria. Today, besides being the language of unity, English is about the most enduring legacy of the British administration in Nigeria. It has an official second language (L_2) status and used as the language of education (instruction and learning), banking and commerce, administration, politics and international relations, media and advertisement, and so on.

English became Nigeria"s official language when Lagos was annexed as a colony of Britain in 1862 and thereafter, the British did all possible to promote English as the official language of Nigeria. For example, in 1882 the Education Ordinance declared English as the language of instruction in schools (Bánjö 1970, Ömölçwà 1975). With the declaration, the colonial administration had hoped that it would make it replace Nigeria"s local languages as Nigeria"s official language. The British administration had, therefore, looked forward to seeing English being used and spoken the way it was used and spoken in Britain.

As colonial Nigeria‟s official language, both the colonialists and the subjects needed English for different reasons but for the same end. The British needed English to succeed in their task of administering Nigeria. For example, they needed Nigerians who could speak English to be employed as clerks, messengers, interpreters, accounting clerks, copy typists and telegraph probationers in the administration of colonial Nigeria while Nigerians needed English to so participate in the colonial administration.

3.4 English in Nigeria: Past and Present

Indigenous Nigerian languages had no direct place in colonial administration and so, colonial Nigeria did not cater for them. The attention Nigerian languages had or received came from Christian missionaries who developed orthography/alphabet of Nigerian languages to promote literacy in mother tongue as a means of promoting Christian evangelization and Nigerian Christianity converts who were able to read the Holy Bible in their native tongues. So, from the very beginning, the colonial administration had promoted English to the detriment of Nigerian languages. Nigerians had sought to be able to read and write English because of the dividends that accrued to such individual who possessed literacy skills in English. The cadres of indigenous staff on the colonial payroll became the incentive and attraction for colonial subjects. The way to get there was through the mastery of English language (Banjo, 1970 and Ömölçwà, 1975).

The need for English is on the increase across the world because of its world language status. In Nigeria, the need to speak, read and write it well is on the increase, especially, because of its association with modern development in terms of science and technology, information and technology, electronics, agriculture, aviation, etc. In fact, many elite Nigerian families now bring up their children with English as their first language.

As an instrument for intellectual development, English will, for a long time to come, be a medium for cultivating the intellect, the talent and the personality of Nigerians, as well as facilitating Nigeria‟s socio-economic drive and development. So far, there has been no other Nigerian language to challenge English in this respect. Moreover, the very dynamic nature of Nigeria‟s socio-economic development, especially, the development of infrastructural facilities such as roads, electricity and rural integrated development have encouraged the mobility rate of Nigerians across the country and the world. This, in turn, makes the language needs of the average Nigerian far more complex, especially, in terms of national activities and operation outside his or her ethnic or immediate linguistic environment. For now, it is English, and not any other language, that enables the Nigerian to effect intra-national communication, communication across ethnic

49

barriers, in Nigeria: "because of the multiplicity of language, English has become a lingua franca … an Ibo talks to a Yor b   in English, (Tiffen, 1969, p. 2).

It is likely that English will continue to be used as Nigeria"s official national language due to the absence of a local language of wider acceptability. It is likely that English will continue to be used as Nigeria"s language of education, diplomacy, foreign affairs, judicial system, communication on the radio and television and so on. The fact that as a language of education, a minimum level of proficiency, stated in terms of a degree of credit pass in English as a prerequisite for all post-secondary education and or to enter into certain employments in Nigeria is a testimony that English will continue to be in use for a long time in Nigeria.

English has a curriculum description from the primary to the University levels in Nigeria. The multilingual setting of Nigeria and the absence of an acceptable Nigerian language to replace English as a national and lingua franca have made these possible. The two factors have favoured the continued rise of English in Nigeria. For a long time to come, it is likely that English will hold the position of Nigeria"s dominant official language in spite of the apparent attempt to promote indigenous languages in Nigeria, (*National Policy of Education* 2004).

The sociolinguistic setting of Nigeria that favours the continuous need, use and rise of English may be made summarised   in this section.

1. None of Nigeria"s three major languages exhibits an all- round domineering influence to make it accepted by others.

2. Sentimental factors have not allowed Nigerians to consider Hausa, the most continental of all Nigeria"s languages and the one with the greatest potential (in terms of total number of speakers and national geographical spread)   to rise as the official national language (Mùnkáílà and Hárúnà, 2001).

3. The need to balance the general national equation takes from the government the necessary fiat and the political will to declare Hausa as the local national language.

4. Historically, Nigeria has no record of any past strong political, historical, cultural or social traditional factor binding the people together as one before and after the emergence of colonialism (Fishman, 1971). What Nigeria had instead were regional traditions binding different parts of Nigeria together as units. For example, the Sókótó Caliphate brought together only the North and had Arabic as the language of administration while the Ôyõ Empire held the Yorùbá people

together as a unit with Yorùbá as lingua franca over the South –West, parts of Delta, Kwárà and Kogí States.

These four factors have resulted in mutual distrust which disallows the emergence of a Nigerian language and the relative strengthening of the position of English. English, therefore, looks able to satisfy all the requirements of a national language in terms of spread, acceptability, international contact, ease and economy of learning and so on. The NTA (International) programme is a testimony of Nigeria supporting the internationality of English.

As a second language, English is used alongside other Nigerian languages. As a lingua franca, it functions as a common language and permits people who have no common indigenous language to communicate with each other. Besides, the position and influence of the over 300 million native speakers of English over world economy, politics, medicine, agriculture, science, engineering and technology, has continued to make English a world language. Therefore, there is always an incumbency to learn and master English worldwide either as a foreign or second language.

The status of English as a leading language in Nigeria has been reflected in the policy and goals set by the Federal Government, particularly as enunciated in Nigeria‟s policy on education. At the primary level, it holds its traditional position of being taught initially as a subject and being used later as a medium for teaching other subjects. It has a curriculum description from the primary to the tertiary grades. At the tertiary level, it is a discipline of specialization. Although there is a provision in the National Policy on Education for all Nigeria languages to be taught this policy does not evoke concern the way English does in the school system. Some Nigerians do not even see the need for speaking or teaching indigenous languages in their homes. They are even more ambivalent to doing so in the school. Considering the Nigerian language context presented in this unit, the teacher of Nigerian languages should highly motivated and be able to motivate students to learn the languages which are competing with English. The teaching Nigerian languages should be innovative in approach.

4.0 Summary

In this Unit, we examined the language situation of Nigeria as an aspect of the problem of the multilingual setting of Nigeria. We note that the scrambling for Africa by the West resulted in the emergence of multilingual Nigeria. We observed that in spite of all that the Federal Government of Nigeria may do to encourage the local rise of Nigeria‟s three major languages, English will continue to be on the rise, especially, as it becomes more and more international. On the issue of English, Nigeria cannot afford to be

left behind. We cited the NTA*I* to support this view. This, however, does not mean we should neglect our Nigerian languages.

5.0 Conclusion

Nigeria should continue to support the use and promotion of English as a second language in Nigeria. She should promote the teaching of other languages" as well in her effort at trilingualism.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignments

Discuss critically, the factors that promoted the use of English in Nigeria from the colonial days to the present.

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**UNIT FIVE: THE SOCIOLINGUISTICS OF NIGERIA'S THREE
                   MAJOR LANGUAGES: HÁÚSÁ ÌGBÒ AND YORÙBÁ**

CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Unit Objectives
3.0 Main Contents
        3.1 The Background
        3.2 Háúsá in Nigeria"s Multilingual Setting
        3.3 Ìgb in Nigeria"s Multilingual Nigeria
        3.4 Yor b in Nigeria"s Multilingual Setting
        3.5 Implications of Special Status Languages
 4.0 Summary
 5.0 Conclusion
 6.0 Tutor Marked Questions
 7. References/Further Readings

1.0 Introduction

Here you will read a very sketchy sociolinguistics of Háúsá, Ìgbò
and Yorùbá. It is meant to give you an insight into the
sociolinguistic setting of each of the languages, their relative
position and the influence they wield in Nigeria. You will read the
tremendous advantage these languages and their speakers have in the
overall national setting of Nigeria.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of the Unit, I expect that you will be able to:
  • explain the relative advantage of Háúsá over the problems
     other two major Nigerian languages;
  • cite at least three problems that confront multilingual
     nations;
  • the advantage of Swahili over Nigeria"s three major languages;
  • one major reason for Nigeria"s inability to have a local a
     native language as Nigeria"s official language;
  • state the challenges that Nigeria may face if she succeeds in
     having a local language as an official national language;
  • discuss the relative advantage of H   s   over other Nigeria"s
     major languages;
  • discuss possible solutions to books problem for nations that
     adopt local languages as official national language;
  • state actors that may favour any of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá in
     vocabulary development;

- mention at least one factor that favoured Háúsá over Ìgbò in vocabulary development
- explain why the study of Yorùbá did not begin in Nigeria;
- state which Nigerian language had any form of documentation in indigenous languages;
- discuss the relative advantage of Hausa, Ìgbò and Yorùbá over the rest of Nigerian languages;
- identify special status languages in Nigeria and, and
- state the advantage and the disadvantage of retaining English as Nigeria‟s official national language.

3.0 Main Contents

3.1 The Background

Nigeria is a multilingual nation. Like most multilingual nations of the world, Nigeria is faced with the problem of its many languages. Among nations which speak English as second language due to colonialism are for example, India, Malaysia, the Philippines (outside Africa) and are Ghana, Sierra Leone, the Gambia, Ethiopia, Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya to cite only a few within Africa. Each of these countries has attempted in ways it thought best to solve its multilingual problem. India for example, adopted one of its languages, Urdu as the official language, Malaysia adopted Malay while Kenya and Tanzania adopted Swahili as their official languages. Although these steps appear bold and challenging, how successful they are have not been fully understood.

Countries that adopt local languages as lingua franca have always had to contend with the challenges of producing books to meet their educational needs and developing meta-language for such educational essential areas as mathematics, science and engineering and technology. There is no end to the development of meta-language as knowledge is constantly on the increase.   This is the experience with India, Malaysia, Kenya and Tanzania. The position of Swahili, the official national language of Kenya and Tanzania does not have the kind of problem that confronts Nigeria. It has an advantage that none of Nigeria‟s three major languages has and it is that although a very small percentage speak Swahili as a first or indigenous language in both Kenya and Tanzania where it is a national language and medium of education in schools, Kiswahili, the trade language from which Swahili emerged, is spoken as an effective lingua franca across Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, the Congo, Malawi and Burundi and Central Africa (Abdulaziz, 1971). The spread of Kiswahili outside Kenya and Tanzania, adds an intrinsic value to its use as a national language in the East African countries that have adopted it as a national language. Although the only one of the three major languages that has this spread outside Nigeria is

Háúsá, Nigeria has at the moment not got the intrinsic motivation to put forth Háúsá as the national language.

Like Háúsá, Swahili is richly inundated with lexemes directly derived from Arabic. In spite of the role of traders, missionaries, colonial governments and political mass media organizations in the rise and development of Swahili, Swahili has not attained the success envisaged. In both Kenya and Tanzania, it has not been able to compete with English as the language of education. To make any one or all Nigeria"s three languages play their role as the language of education, there must be a massive development of meta-language in the social sciences, mathematics, science and technology, engineering, agriculture, medicine and related sciences.

3.2 Háúsá

Háúsá is a West-Chadic wing of the Afroasiatic family of languages. It is spoken as a native language by about by over 25 million people while over 12.5 million more speak it either as a second and even third language in Northern Nigeria. Háúsá, therefore, has a competitive demography among the three major Nigerian languages. In fact, it ranks as one of the world"s major languages (Newman, 1991, Múnkàílà and Hárúnà, 2001). It is a lingua franca used for purposes of trade and commerce, information and administration in Northern Nigeria.

The period of indirect rule of colonial Nigeria helped to stabilize Háúsá and aid its growth (Mazrui, 1971). In Nigeria, Háúsá is one of the three major languages of Nigeria enshrined in the *Constitution of Nigeria the Federal Government of Nigeria* (1999) and in Nigeria"s *National Policy on Education* (2004). In most of Northern Nigeria, Háúsá is a regular medium of instruction in the primary level and to some extent, at the senior secondary school level as well.

In Nigeria, Háúsá is a subject of specialization at the NCE and degree levels. It is also a subject of study in Europe and the United States of America. Large volumes of papers are published and distributed in Háúsá while local radio broadcasts in Háúsá keep the language vibrant and alive across the West African subcontinent. Háúsá is broadcast in Niger Republic while international radio stations such as the BBC, Voice of America, Deutsche Welle and Radio Moscow regularly broadcast in Háúsá. This thus makes Háúsá the most international of Nigeria"s three major languages. With a population of over 35 million speakers, Háúsá ranks with Swahili as one of the most international languages in sub-Sahara Africa (Newman 1991).
Háúsá has a very rich vocabulary because of its huge capacity to borrow and accommodate loan words from such languages as Arabic,

Taureg, Mande and Kanuri. But the major source of borrowing for Háúsá has been Arabic:

> The major influence by far has been from Arabic. . . In certain semantic spheres, e.g. religion, (particularly Islam), government, law, warfare, horsemanship, literature and mathematics, Háúsá is literally swamped with loan words of Arabic origin. Interestingly, Háúsá has had no difficulty in integrating these Arabic words into her own morphological system noun plural and verbal inflection. In the 20th century, Háúsá has had a new wave of loanwords from English (in Nigeria) and French (in Niger)…. there has been a move from Háúsá intellectuals to turn to Arabic for the technical vocabulary required for modern scientific and educational purposes (Newman (1991, p. 709).

There is very little dialectal variation in Háúsá. The remarkably different variation there is in
pronunciation. Going by systematic differences in pronunciation and grammar, two major dialects may be recognized and they are the Western dialect with centres in Sókótó and Gòbir, and the Eastern dialect with centres in Kánò and Záríà (Dada 2003). The Háúsá teacher must take note of these two variations and ensure that irrespective of his own dialect, his teaching conforms to the Háúsá curriculum specification in terms of speaking, reading and writing.

In the Northern States of Nigeria, Háúsá is a *lingua franca*. Its use is so widespread and fundamental that it is fast taking over many minority languages a first language (Fákúàde 1998, 2010, and Rafiu 2010). Together with Arabic and Swahili, Háúsá is one of the three dominant languages that spread across international borders within Africa. A Nigerian language teacher who is able to teach Háúsá, therefore, has the opportunity of teaching Háúsá, not only in Nigeria, but also beyond the shore of Nigeria.

3.2 Ìgbò

Ìgbò is the second in alphabetic order of the three major languages of Nigeria. It is the dominant language in Nigeria"s South-East geopolitical region. Nigeria"s South-South geo-political zone equally has a large population to whom Ìgbò is a first or second language. Ìgbò is the dominant language in the Eastern part of the Nigeria. Ìgbò is spoken by about 20 million who are primarily of Ìgbò descent. Migration took Ìgbò people to the Cameroon and Equatorial Guinea, while the 1967- 970 Nigerian Civil War took Ìgbò to the Republic of Gabon. The Slave Trade took them to the Caribbean (*Wikipedia, the free encyclopaedia*, p. 2).

Genetically, Ìgbò, like Yorùbá, is Kwa and like all Kwa languages, Ìgbò and Yorùbá share the striking feature of the presence of the double articulated labial-velar stops, [kp gb] (Williamson 1969 and Pulleyblank 1991). Although there are several dialects of Ìgbò distinguished by variant accents and orthography, the dialects are in most cases mutually intelligible. A standard literary Ìgbò language based on Central Igbo spanning Òwèrrì and Úmuahìà dialect was developed in 1972. From the moment it was proposed in 1939 by Dr Ida Ward, the Central Ìgbò has gained very wide acceptance, especially, in its use for scholarly work (Oraka, 1983). The Ọnwụ Orthography, for example, was based on Central Igbo. Kay Williamson"s contribution to *Twelve Nigerian Languages* (Dunstan, 1969) was based on Central Igbo. Central Igbo has, however, faced a lot of challenges. For example, viewing Central Igbo as imperialistic, the Society for Promoting Ìgbò Language and Culture set up a parallel Ìgbò orthography harmonization committee which sought to cross pollinate Central Igbo with words from other dialects outside the Central Ìgbò and to accommodate loan words:

> The major problem confronting Ìgbò Orthography is the inability to harmonize and standardize the very
>
> wide range of spoken Ìgbò dialects. The Ọnwụ Orthography agreed to in 1962 was a compromise between the Missionary Lepsius Orthography in use for over 70 years before the colonialists introduced the Africa orthography in 1929 and the newer one advocated by the International Institute of African Languages and Cultures (*Wikipedia, the free encyclopaedia*, p. 2).

Ìgbò-speaking people had a traditional coding or writing system known as the *Nsibidi Ideograms. Nsibidi Ideograms* was developed for writing by the Ekoi people long before the 1550s. It died out naturally as a writing system. The *Ekpe cult group* revived it by adopting it as a secret code among its members. Two factors distinguish the various dialects of Ìgbò and they are accents and orthography. Ìgbò orthography varies according to the dialect. According to Williamson (1969, p. 85):

> For many years the development of Ìgbò as a written language was hampered by a dispute between advocates of two different orthographies. This was essentially a disagreement over how to represent the 7 vowels of Ìgb . The „old" orthography used the five Roman alphabet symbols plus one sub-dotted ọ and thereby
>
> left two vowels (i and the dotted subscript ụ) unrepresented.

In keeping with the tradition of harmonising the alphabet, the Ọnwụ Orthography attempted to harmonise Ìgbò alphabet by using eight

symbols to accommodate the two variants of /ɛ/ (ç). The Ọnwụ Orthography was criticised for using three difficult phonetic symbols: [ɛ] for e, []] for ö, and [θ] for   ụ. In addition, the use of the Ọnwụ Orthography was felt to distort the structure of the language (Williamson 1969, p. 85).

Of the three major languages of Nigeria, perhaps, Ìgbò has the most controversial orthography because of the emergence of competing orthographies. This caused confusion for over three decades during which the Ìgbò language suffered:

> . . . publications in Ìgbò virtually came to a halt,
> teaching of the language in schools stagnated, and
> public and public examinations in Ìgbò could not
> take off as was the case with Háúsá and Yorùbá when
> the   Cambridge   University   introduced   senior
> certificate examinations on some African languages
> in 1935 (Àyándòkun,   Ayçni,   Bellò,   Bõlárìnwá,
> Èjeagbà, Gíwá, Hassan, Ibíyçyè and Ìdòwú 2009, p.
> 5).

To stem the tide of confusion, the government of the then Eastern Nigeria introduced the Ọnwụ Orthography as the official orthography to be used in Eastern Nigeria. Hardly had the dust settled on the Ọnwụ Orthography than new challenges started. As observed by Àyándòkun, Ayçni, Bellò, Bõlárìnwá, Èjeagbà, Gíwá, Hassan, Ibíyçyè and Ìdòwú (2009, p. 5):

> Beginning from 1968, many individuals and groups now
> write Ìgbò with different orthographies - new
> symbols, tonal notations, and spelling rules all of
> which differ from the official orthography could not
> take   off,   competing   orthographies   have   posed
> difficulty and embarrassment to the ministries of
> education in the Ìgbò speaking states and such Ìgbò
> stake- holders   as   "authors   and   publishers,
> researchers,   electronic   and   print   media
> organisations and practitioners, teachers, schools
> and   learners,   examination   bodies,   and   non-
> governmental agencies.

Like other major languages, Ìgbò has orthography, a curriculum description and it is taught from the primary grades to the NCE and the University levels in Nigeria. The implication of all these is that the teacher of Ìgbò should (i) stick to the most acceptable orthography,   (ii)   make   students   conversant   of   the   other orthographical variations (iii) conversant with the Ìgbò language curriculum

3.3 Yorùbá

Yorùbá is the third of the of Nigeria‟s three major languages. It occupies what is called the South- Western geo-political zone of Nigeria, that is Ôyõ, Ògùn OÃdó, Èkìtì, Lagos Osún and parts of the States of Kogí and Kwara.

Like Ìgbò, Yorùbá is one of the many Niger-Congo languages of sub-Saharan Africa. It is one of the four major Kwa languages spoken in the West African countries of Togo, Benin and Nigeria. The other three are Akan, Ewe and Ìgbò (Pulleyblank, 1991).

Yorùbá is spoken as native language in the following States of the South-Western geopolitical zone of Nigeria: Ôyõ, Öÿún, Ògùn, Lagos, Èkìtì and OÃdó and in parts of the North Central States of Kogí and Kwara. In Kogí, the Okun and Yàgbà dialects of Yorùbá are spoken while in the West, South and Central parts of Kwara state, Ìgbómìnà, Ìbôlõ and Ilõrín dialects are spoken. Núpé and Bàtônu are spoken in the Northern part of Kwara. Among Yoruboid languages are the Àkókó clusters of Êdó and OÃdó States Ùrhòbò and Ìtsêkírì of Delta State and Ígálá of Kogí State. Outside Nigeria, Yoruba is spoken in Benin Republic, Togo, Ghana and Sierra Leone (Bámgbóÿé 1969).

Although Yorùbá is a native language to Nigeria, its study actually began in Sierra Leone. Following the British abolition of slave trade, all slaves of West African origin were repatriated to Sierra Leone and settled in Freetown. Yorùbá began to thrive in Sierra Leone following the very large number of freed slaves of Yorùbá origin repatriated to Sierra Leone and who were settled in Freetown. Yorùbá became so dominant that in 1831, it was chosen as one of two African languages to be used as the medium of instruction in a girls‟ school in Sierra Leone (Pulleyblank 1991). The Church Missionary Society, under the leadership of the Reverend Bishop, Dr. Samuel Àjàyí Crowther in Nigeria settled down in Abëòkùta where the reverend bishop undertook the translation of the Holy Bible and the Anglican Communion Prayer Book and Psalms into Yorùbá as a means of bringing the Gospel of our Lord Jesus Christ to the natives, especially, the Yorùbá-speaking world. In Abëòkùta, the Church Missionary Society developed the Yorùbá alphabet, prepared primers for initial alphabet teaching in Yorùbá. Between 1859 and 1867, the Church Missionary Society produced a periodical in Yorùbá, the first of such material ever to be produced in West Africa (Pulleyblank 1991).

Yorùbá is also highly influenced by Arabic where it had been entrenched as part of the literary culture of the South-Western part of Nigeria long before the arrival of Christian missionaries. It is on record, for example, that court proceedings of the Tìmì of Çdç were kept in Arabic (Malik, 1999). Yoruba is inundated with

Arabic words in the area of religion, ethics, and politics and so on.

Although Yorùbá may be said to have a most stable orthography of Nigeria"s three major languages, it took some time for it to arrive at its level of acceptability. Beginning from efforts of Thomas Bodwich, in 1819, Yorùbá orthography grew gradually through the efforts of Hannah Kilham, who first taught Yorùbá at the Charlotte Girls" Secondary School Freetown, Sierra Leone, to Edwin Norris, culminating in the translation of the Holy Bible into Yorùbá by Reverend   Bishop,   Dr.   Samuel   Àjàyí   Crowther   (Pulleyblank   1991). Although Yorùbá has many dialects, the Ôyõ dialect has regularly been seen as standard Yorùbá. It is this dialect of Yorùbá that is used in publications and broadcasts and for interaction between speakers of different dialects.

3.5 Implications of Special Status Languages

The decision clearly benefitted from the experiences of the British in their governance of Nigeria and from the experiences of such ex-colonies as India and Malaysia, Kenya and Tanzania, which have adopted native languages as official languages.
There are merits and demerits in not adopting one of the three major languages as an official national language of Nigeria. One of the   merits   is   that   it   has   saved   Nigeria   from   the   problems associated   with   ex-colonial   countries   which   adopted   indigenous languages   as   official   national   languages.   Such   ex-colonial countries that adopted their local languages as official language are India, Malaysia, Kenya and Tanzania. Nigeria has been saved the trouble of coping with the problems of developing meta-language in education, science, technology, medicine and other fields for her educational system. Nigeria has enjoyed relative political peace. "Unpatriotic" though this may appear, it is my opinion that the decision to let English play the role of national language has helped to keep Nigeria"s sociolinguistic equation at equilibrium (Aje, 2004). With English, Nigeria can turn attention to national needs in other areas.

The retention of English as Nigeria"s official language makes it continue its role as the language of administration and policy, politics, diplomacy and international relations, the judiciary, the language   of   internal   and   external   affairs,   the   language   of international trade and commerce, aviation, science and technology. The retention of English makes it possible for Nigeria to partake in the use of English as a language of international learning.

Nigeria has continued to use education as an instrument to promote English.   Following   the   pre-independence   practice,   in   Nigeria, English is taught as a subject and used as a medium for teaching other subjects in Nigeria"s educational system. It has a curriculum

description and specification from the basic education level to the tertiary and university levels of education. It is an examined subject at the school certificate level and an academic discipline at the university level.

Perhaps, the most outstanding credit in the retention of English as Nigeria‟s office language is that within Nigeria, English serves as the language of unity. It promotes the harmonious coexistence of Nigerians across the borderlines of language, tribe or ethnic origins to give Nigeria a kind of balance to Nigeria‟s sociolinguistic setting. So far, English has done very well in many respects. This is the worry, especially, because of the fact that English is not the language the average Nigerian child grows up speaking. The hope of the Federal Government of Nigeria in trying out a "trilingual" approach to Nigeria‟s national language policy is the probability that some day one of the three major languages will rise to the challenge of becoming Nigeria‟s official national language.

3.6 Being a Major Nigerian Language

Their strength derives from the fact that each of them corresponds to a colonial region created by the colonial administration and represents as well the dominant tribe of each region. Aside from statutory support from the Federal Government, they have the necessary demographic, economic, political and social significance to back up their status as major Nigerian languages.
The status "major languages" carries with it a lot of privileges which are not open to minor language groups. For example:

- They are recognised as languages of education even beyond their natural geographical spread by being made compulsory at the school certificate level in Nigeria. A proof of this is this course designed to prepare teachers to teach them as second language in Nigerian secondary schools.

- As languages of education, they have official orthography, have full curriculum descriptions and specification from the primary to the university level.

- The languages are examinable subjects at the Secondary School Certificate level. At least, one of them is a mandatory subject for Nigerian children writing the Senior Secondary Certificate in Nigeria.

- The three languages regularly attract government funds through regular budgetary allocations at the Federal, State, and Local Government levels to the Ministries of Education and other government parastatals through the payment of salaries, wages

and emoluments of teachers who teach these languages as subjects at the basic, secondary and university levels in Nigeria.

- Nigerian educational system prepares teachers up to the Nigeria Certificate of Education (NCE) level to teach these languages as subjects at the basic and secondary school levels in Nigeria.

- The three languages are areas of academic discipline and specialisation in Nigerian universities and in universities outside Nigeria.

4.0 Summary

You have read about the position of the three major languages, why they are major and the advantages of being major languages. You also have read the characteristics of each major language and their role and status in the national scheme of things in Nigeria.

5.0 Conclusion

The three major languages are a reality in Nigeria. The speakers of each of these three languages are larger numerically than any other language group in Nigeria. Each language and represents a people or tribe. Each of them enjoys the privilege of being major statutorily as enshrined in the Constitution of the Federal Government of Nigeria and in the national policy on education and they, therefore, attract a lot of government attention.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

 Discuss the various ways the three major languages attract government attention

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MODULE TWO

NIGERIAN NATIONAL LANGUAGE POLICY

UNIT 1 General Remarks on Nigeria"s National Policy on Education
UNIT 2 Guidelines for the Teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as Second Languages in
            Nigeria.
UNIT 3 main features of aspects of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá phonemes
UNIT   4 Orthography of Háúsá, Igbo and Yorùbá
UNIT 5 Strategies And Resources For The Teaching Of Háúsá , Igbo And Yorùbá

UNIT ONE: GENERAL REMARKS ON THE NATIONAL LANGUAGE POLICY

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Contents
       3.1 Background to the National Language Policy
       3.1.1 Nigeria"s Language Policy and Nigeria"s Three Major Languages
       3.2 National Language Policy and Non-Major Languages
       3.3 National Language Policy and Minority Languages
       3.4. National Language Policy and English in Nigeria.
       3.5 The Challenges for Government and Its Agencies
4.0 Summary
5.0 Conclusion
6.0 Tutor's Marked Assignments
7.0 References and Other Sources

1.0 Introduction

The national language policy is examined from different perspectives in order to set it in its proper perspective. The general conclusion here is that the National Policy on Education made provisions for only the major languages of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá and seemed to that others should either take care of themselves or perish.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of the Unit, you should be able to:

- discuss the implications of most Nigerian languages being oral languages;
- discuss at the least five implications of the multilingual setting of Nigeria;
- list at the least five challenges of a non-literate language;
- able to define and explain the term literacy language;
- give the disadvantages of an unwritten language;
- identify the languages involved in the policy;
- discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the adoption of English as Nigeria"s official national language;
- mention at least five privileges of Nigeria"s major languages;
- explain the term "linguistic equation" or "linguistic equilibrium," and
- explain why Nigerian languages received so little attention in the national language policy.

3.0 Main Contents

3.1 Background to the National Language Policy

The National Language Policy is a part of the Nigerian Education
Policy formulated from the
proceedings of the Nigerian International Curriculum Conference
organised by the Federal
Ministry of Education in 1969. The most important outcome of the
1969 International Curriculum Conference is the introduction of the
6-3-3-4 system of education enshrined in the Nigerian Educational
System. Some of the features associated with the 6-3-3-4 system of
education are:

1. the replacement of the Higher School Certificate programme
   with the School of Basic Studies;
2. the break of the secondary school education into two tier
   system, the junior secondary school and the senior secondary
   school;
3. the formal introduction of technical and vocational dimensions
   to Nigerian secondary school curriculum;
4. the formal introduction of Nigeria"s three major languages
   into the secondary school curriculum, and
5. A blue print on Nigeria"s educational system titled   *National
   Policy on Education* of (2007).

The national language policy is one of the many policy statements
made in the handbook on Nigeria"s educational system,   *National
Policy on Education* (2007).

3.2 Nigeria's Language Policy and Nigeria's Three Major Languages

Nigeria"s three major languages, H   s , Ìgb   and Yorùbá come next
in rank to English. The three major languages, Háúsá, Ìgbò and
Yorùbá represent approximately, the three regions the colonial
administration created in pre-independent Nigeria. The national
policy on education recognized them as such and this recognition
has been entrenched in the Constitution of the Federal Republic of
Nigeria. They are official languages where they are dominant. This
means that they can play, in their areas of dominance, the role
English plays for Nigeria. As pointed out earlier, these three
languages are synonymous with Nigeria"s three largest tribes/ethnic
origins. The recognition of these languages as major languages
directly or indirectly statutorily imposes them on minority
language groups of Nigeria. The major languages are major because
individually and collectively, they have the highest population of
speakers than any other single ethnic group in Nigeria.

There is no formal document on national language policy as one will
find on education. Whatever may be referred to as national language

policy is whatever is enshrined in the Nigerian policy on education.The national language policy is part of Nigeria‟s *National Policy of Education* (2004). The policy on language was perhaps a little disappointing because it did not say anything spectacular on language. Although it gave a good measure of recognition to English, on the final analysis, its stand on English was not much more than affirming the **status quo** of English in Nigeria. If the language aspect of the national policy on education was disappointing, it is because, according to Awóbùlúyì (1979), the language aspect of the policy was formulated without a single linguist on the language sub-panel. The policy recognized three languages:

1. English, Nigeria colonial language
2. Nigeria‟s three major languages- Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá
3. "Others", that is the non-major languages.

The policy granted English its erstwhile status as Nigeria‟s official national language. Nigeria‟s three major languages-Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá were recognized as official languages in the areas where they are dominant and were to enjoy at such levels, the same privileges as English. "Others" here refers to two language groups, non-majority languages and minority language groups. By non-majority languages, I mean those languages that are comparatively regionally populous but not nationally major. Such languages are Fula, Tiv, Kanuri, Bêrôm, Edo, Ésàn, Èbìrà, Ìbìbìò, Ëfìk, Ìjö, Èbìrà and Núpé. There are several others in this category. These non-majority languages at the national level are major languages at the state level and enjoy considerable attention at the states where they exist. The second group in the "Others" are the minority languages which are neither recognised at the national level nor at the state level. Minority languages are those languages that may be said to be endangered. Some of the minor languages are so minor that nobody knows that they exist.

3.2 National Language Policy and Non-Majority Languages

Most Nigerian languages belong to this group of "Others," that is, the non-majority languages which are catered for at the State levels through programmes aired on State radio and television stations. For example, News and other programmes are cast in them. But the many hundreds of minority languages that exist only at the spoken level are not catered for by the language policy. No particular provision was made for "Others." For example, while the major languages have a statutory backing at the national level and the non-majority languages are catered for at the state level, nobody in particular takes care of the minority languages. To the Nigerian children from the three major languages, the national language policy expects that:

1. the Háúsá-speaking Nigerian child should learn either Yorùbá or Ìgbò as a second language;
2. the Ìgbò-speaking Nigerian child should learn either Yorùbá or Háúsá as a second language;
3. the Yorùbá-speaking Nigerian child should learn either Ìgbò or Háúsá as a second language, and
4. "Others," that is, all other Nigerians from non-major language groups will or should be taught any of the three major languages.

Many of the minor languages are not even reflected on the national map. The numerically small languages are the ones that generally have no alphabet/orthography, and have no access to education, health, infrastructure and integrated development. It is among members of these minority languages that we have the highest percentage of the poor and non-literate Nigerians. Because the majority of these minor languages are unwritten, they cannot function as languages of literacy. They cannot be used as languages for mother tongue education. Incidentally, the total population of all other languages put together surpass the population of each of the three major languages or the three languages put together.

You should take note that whereas the national language policy said something definite on English and the three majority languages, it hardly said anything concrete on minority languages. Whatever little it said was so general that it cannot be held responsible for not implementing it. For example, when the policy said that Government would, as far as possible, reduce Nigerian languages to writing by developing orthographies and primers for them to facilitate mother tongue instruction using the languages, it is known that it did not have minority languages in view. Even for the little that the policy said concerning them, it is not known that the policy said anything on the modality for achieving this. The policy did not, therefore, say anything to make the Government feel convincingly committed to developing minority languages. On paper, Government was to ensure that Nigerian children were educated through the use of local orthographies, primers and the mother tongue or the language of the children"s immediate environment. The National Language Centre would be encouraged to develop primers for initial mother tongue teaching of the Nigerian child at the primary school level.

3.3 National Language Policy and Minority Languages

There was nothing in the national language policy for minority languages. Aside from mentioning them, the policy was silent on how to tackle the technical and professional challenges involved in reducing minority languages to writing. The policy did not say, for example, how many minority languages there were in Nigeria and how it would go about preparing them to play the new role envisioned

for them as languages of instruction in their natural environment. If the policy failed to state the modality for equipping minority languages as languages of instruction, it is because there was not a single linguist on the panel that formulated the language aspect of the national policy of education (Awóbùlúyì, 1979).

Although the National Language Centre was saddled with the responsibility of developing orthographies and primers for Nigerian languages, it was obvious from the beginning that there were so many unwritten Nigerian languages that there was no way the National Language Centre could, all by itself, develop orthographies and primers for each of them. The manuals developed by the National Language Centre bears a testimony to this. Most of the manuals the Centre developed were on non-majority languages which had already been fairly well documented (Bánjö, 1985). The hundreds of disadvantaged Nigerian minority languages have remained untouched.

Making the national language policy succeed by reaching the educationally unreached Nigerian, requires a long time planning and a deliberate or conscious effort to bring linguists, language teachers and textbook writers together to develop working templates or guidelines for the orthography of unwritten Nigeria languages in order to promote literacy generally and mother tongue literacy for the majority of Nigerians. This requires an extensive cooperative effort between the National Language Centre, Universities, Federal Government educational agencies such as the Nigerian Educational Research Development Council (NERDC), National Institute for Nigerian Languages (NILAN) and various voluntary agency Institutes of Linguistics and language Villages across Nigeria to cooperate to develop primers and other instructional materials for the teaching of Nigerian languages.

Because of the enormity of work involved, individuals and communities that have the expertise or technical know-how could be co-opted across the nation into this gigantic programme. This is to assist the corps of linguists and other professionals in developing the necessary orthographies, numerals and primers for unwritten Nigerian languages.

The credit for the initial development of Greco-Roman orthography for mother tongue literacy generally goes to Christian missionaries who combined western education with mother tongue literacy as a necessary tool in Christian evangelization. Western education and mother tongue literacy enabled Christian converts to read the Bible in English generally and specifically in their native language. When the British formally took over Nigeria, it did not continue practice of Christian missionary tradition of catering for indigenous languages that had been established in some parts of the eastern and the south-western parts of Nigeria, but went ahead to

adopt English whole scale as the language of colonial administration in Nigeria. The situation in the North was, however, different because Arabic language and orthography had been firmly put in place before the British administration and Christian missionaries got there.

3.4 National Language Policy and English in Nigeria

English is the focus of the policy. This is hardly surprising as you have read above. The policy simply affirmed the *status quo* of English. It upheld the dominant position of English as Nigeria"s official language, the way it had been from the colonial days. It must be acknowledged that the decision of the Federal Government of Nigeria in 1981 to retain English as Nigeria"s official language was informed by the understanding of the sociolinguist setting of Nigeria:

- the domineering position of the three major languages;
- the inability to settle for one of them as Nigeria"s officinal national language;
- The dominant position of English;
- The convenience of using English as Nigeria"s official national language;
- English as the only language that for now unites Nigeria as one indivisible entity,
- English as the one language of wider communication.

3.5 The Challenges for Government and Its Agencies

The failure of Nigeria"s Language Policy is similar to the failure of the Universal Primary Education of the 1970s and 1980s. There was nothing wrong with the Universal Primary Education in Nigeria had candidates for the expanded educational programme before it had the personnel and the infrastructure with which to execute it. It was like putting the cart before the horse. Although the Federal Government of Nigeria did mention that primers would be developed for mother tongue instruction, it had no idea of the logistics involved in developing the necessary orthography and primers for the about 521 or so languages. The machinery to raise a corps of linguists, technical personnel and other experts to handle orthography of the numerous languages were not on ground when the policy was pronounced.

Although the three major languages represent a trial at trilingualism, the three languages cannot be said to be representative of all the other languages. This has been recognised in politics and so such socio-economic machinery as the quota system, the national character commission and the geopolitical zones have been put in place to cater for the various imbalances

observed in the internal set up of Nigeria. The same provision has not been made to cater linguistically for Nigeria.

4.0 Summary

In Unit One, we tried to discuss the linguistic situation of Nigeria. You read that Nigeria is a multilingual nation having within her boarders over 500 languages and that out of these, three languages representing three dominant language and tribal groups, have been officially selected. These languages are Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá. You also read that Nigeria has no single indigenous language of wider communication, a single indigenous language uniting all Nigerians together as one. English, the official national language which currently does this is inherited from the colonial administration. Officially, English is the national language used for all official functions at the federal, state and local government levels. In addition, it performs a function no other language has been able to, and that is, acting as a bridge language, English links all Nigerians together irrespective of tribe, language and culture.

5.0 Conclusion

You also read that as a matter of policy, the Federal Government of Nigeria wants every Nigeria school child to speak at least one of the three major languages as a complement to English. This step, generally regarded as *a trilingual approach* is the Federal Government"s steps in resolving the complex issue of the national language question. You also read about the dominance of the three major languages in the areas of politics, finance, administration, and so on.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignments

1. Make a list of all Nigerian languages that are written and can, therefore, be called literate languages and state the significance of their being written languages.
2. Choose a minority language of yours and develop for it an alphabet.
3. Systematically answer this one-multiple question as one: Is your language a language of education? If it is, explain what it means. If it is not, explain why it is not and what you could do to make it a language of education.

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UNIT TWO: GUIDELINES FOR THE TEACHING OF HÁÚSÁ, ÌGBÒ AND YORÙBÁ AS SECOND LANGUAGES IN NIGERIA

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Unit Objectives
3.0 Main Contents
      3.1 The Factors Affecting Second Language Learning
      3.2 The Human Articulatory Organs and the Teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá
           Sound Systems
      3.3 The Specifics of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá Sound Systems
      3.3.1 Háúsá Phonemes
      3.3.2 Ìgbò Phonemes
      3.3.3 Yorùbá Phonemes
4.0 Summary
5.0 Conclusion
6.0 Tutor"s Marked Assignment
7.0 References and other Sources

1.0 Introduction

Here, you are going to read the general guidelines for the teaching of the three major languages. The guidelines cover the general academic and professional resources that should enable you handle with facility the teaching of Nigerian languages to Nigerian children learning the three Nigerian languages. I am saying that the guidelines are part of what you are expected to be familiar with to be able to teach with relative ease, any of the three languages as a second language to Nigerian students whose mother tongue is not any of the three languages. Such requirements include familiarity with the articulatory organs, represented by the cross section of the human head, segmental phonemes (vowels and consonants), and other aspects of the second language sound system. The contexts for teaching them are discussed.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
- state factors affecting second language learning;
- draw and label the human articulatory organs;
- explain the use of one articulatory organs drawing for three different languages;
- list the segmental phonemes and graphemes of each of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá;
- list the differences among the segments of Ìgbò and Háúsá Yorùbá;

- list the similarities and differences between the acquisition of English as a second language and the acquisition of any one of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as a second language in Nigeria, and
- explain why Háúsá and Ìgbò have a higher inventory of consonants than Yorùbá.

3.0 Main Contents

3.1 The Factors Affecting Second Language Learning

The guidelines are discussed from a general point of view. A lot of emphasis is placed on the spoken language on the conviction that speech is primary and the only natural level of human language. Aspects that are language-specific are treated separately for each of the three major languages. One cross section of the head showing the articulators involved in the production of sounds is used for the three languages because articulators are the same for all humans, and therefore, the same for each of the three Nigerian languages. The phonemes of each language (consonants and vowels) are, however, identified separately for each language.

The guidelines for the teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Háúsá as second languages in Nigeria are discussed here very briefly. The guidelines cover the teaching of the sound units and orthography, lexis and structure. Your reading will begin with a very brief account of the teaching/acquisition of English in Nigeria.

I hope you remember that English in Nigeria is learned formally as a second language. The Háúsá or Ìgbò or Yorùbá which you teach to Nigerians students who do not speak any of the languages will also be taught and acquired formally as a second language. You must remember as well that the students to whom you teach the language has, before your introduction of the major language to him, begun learning English as a subject from the primary grades and later, has been using English as a medium for learning other subjects while still learning it as a subject. Your student is, therefore, saddled with two languages, the native language and English. The introduction of a major Nigerian language makes the language burden on him three. He has the mother tongue, English and one of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá. The communicative environment of these three languages is going to be plagued by various factors:

- Various shades of English (pidgin, Standard English, the so-called educated variety of Nigerian English)
- The intruding effect of the learner"s mother tongue on English
- The intruding effect of the learner"s mother tongue on the major Nigerian language.

You must, therefore, be prepared for the mother tongue intrusion into the patterns of English and of the major Nigerian language. What I am telling you in short is that the major language you teach is going to be plagued by problems similar to those involved in the teaching and learning of English as a second language. Your students will be faced with interference errors from English due to bilingual tendency, the students" mother tongue, intrastructural errors and the teaching process. In other words, errors will manifest in the language output of your students learning any of the major Nigerian language as a second language. Your duty as a teacher will be to recognize the errors, trace their source and cause and rectify them within the contexts of their occurrence. You have to your advantage, your native speaker"s intuition and competence **w**hich are superior to the competence of most teachers of English as second language. So, as a native speaker, you must deliberately strive to make your second language output and teaching standards higher than those of the teacher of English as a second language.

Factors to bear in mind include those of transfer of learners" mother tongue into those of the major language you teach and the resultant first language interference, intralingual and developmental error phenomenon, learning and communication strategies. In all these, you must have a positive attitude that is overtly convincing to the students.

Other factors are the method of acquisition and the chronological age at acquisition. Going by the provision of the national language policy, each of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá is to be taught and learned as a second language by Nigerian students within the educational system of Nigeria. In other words, each of these languages is to be taught the way English is being taught in Nigeria- as a second language. The only difference is that within Nigeria, there are native speakers of these languages. So as second languages, the problems encountered in the teaching of English are to be expected in the teaching of each of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as a second language. For the sake of emphasis, we"ll repeat for you factors (mentioned above) to bear in mind in the teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as a second language in Nigeria: your students" unconscious preference for and transfer of their native language structure into those of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá leading to first language interference, intrastructural or intralingual interference and the accompanying learning and mastery strategies and communication strategies are some of the features to expect in your teaching. Your duty as a teacher will be to **recognize** second language errors trace their source and cause and rectify them within their contexts of occurrence.

3.2 The Human Articulatory Organs and the Teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá Sound
   Systems

We begin the discussion of the teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as second language with their sound system. We begin with the articulatory organs in the head. You should, please, note that even though we are dealing with the three Nigerian languages, we are using one cross section of the human head to represent human articulators for the three languages. The drawing taken from McCarthy (1978) shows the articulators used in the production of the segmental phonemes of the three languages. The organs of speech are the same for all human languages but the sounds they produce vary from language to language. So, there will be different charts to show the different sounds attested in each of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá.

A cross section of the human head marks for you the beginning of the teaching of second language sound systems and you will proceed this way:

1. Make your students list one at a time, the organs of human speech. They should begin from the external ones. As they do so, encourage them to identify them by touching and feeling which ever lend themselves to touching and feeling for texture and structure.
2. You should then begin the discussion of the articulators by discussing the primary functions of the articulators.

I am encouraging you to, please, make the learning of second language sounds a pleasure to your students. Students don"t generally like phonetics. They simply forget that the organs of speech they hate in phonetics are the same organs they love to use in eating, caressing each other in private, beatify themselves, feel, taste touch and so on. So, make them make a list of them:

- the lips,
- the nose
- the teeth, especially, the two pairs of incisors,
- the alveolar, the palate- hard and soft, identifying the uvula
- the tongue
- the larynx, especially, the glottis and the epiglottis etc.

Having listed these, go to teach their primary or ordinary functions. I hope that you remember that in phonetics we refer to the ordinary functions of these organs as primary functions. By the time you teach them the primary functions of these organs, you will have succeeded in reminding them of biology lessons. This captures their attention from the beginning. A discussion of the primary functions of articulatory organs will have made the teaching of phonetics so ordinary that the mention of these organs in relation to sound production will not sound farfetched. The adaptation of the organs for speech production follows thereafter. By the time

you begin to teach the articulatory functions of these organs, they will sound very familiar and ordinary; they will only now be learning their articulatory functions as an added function from another perspective of knowledge.

The discussion of articulators should be made as lively as possible by constantly making the students „see" articulators as regular parts their body. Encourage them to touch, feel, and fiddle with them for as much as it is practicable to do so. Of course, you must remember that these parts have their names in the second language and in English. Resorting to English and the students" first language to identify the parts where necessary, could assist you in the teaching and learning the language.

Diagram 1 The organs of speech

B	Back of tongue	BL	Blade of tongue	E	Epiglottis
F	Front of tongue	FP	Food passage	H	Hard palate
L	Lip	P	Pharynx	R	Root of tongue
S	Soft palate	T	Teeth	TR	Teeth ridge
U	Uvula	V	Position of vocal cords	W	Windpipe
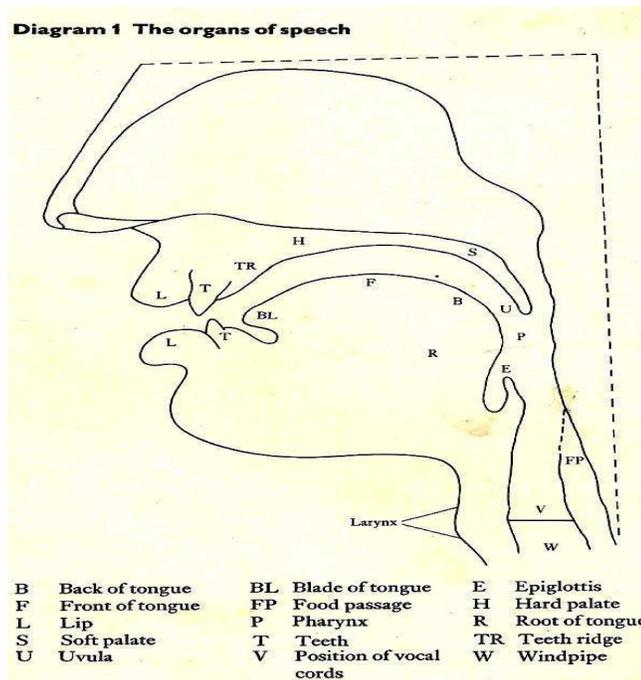
A Cross Section of the Human Head and Throat Showing Articulatory Organs (MacCarthy 1978)

3.3 The Specifics of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá Phonemes

Here, you will very briefly be going through the phonemes of each of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá.

3.3.1 Háúsá Segmental Phonemes

Considered under Háúsá phonemes are the Háúsá segmental sounds, the vowels and consonants and tones. We will very briefly consider them in that order.

3.3.1.1 Háúsá Vowel

Háúsá has a total of 12 vowels in three sets as follows:

   a) five monophthongs made up of two front vowels /i/ and /e/, two
      back vowels /u/ and /o/ and one low central vowel /a/ and
   b) five long vowels made up of two long front vowels /i:/ and
      /e:/, two long back vowels /u:/ and /o:/ and one long central
      vowel /a:/. These are shown phonetically in the chart below.
      (The diphthongs are, however, not shown).

c) Hoffman and Schachter (1969) grouped Háúsá vowels into
   monophthongs and diphthongs. (Pulleyblank, 1991, p. 710)
   identified two diphthongs /ai/ and /au/.
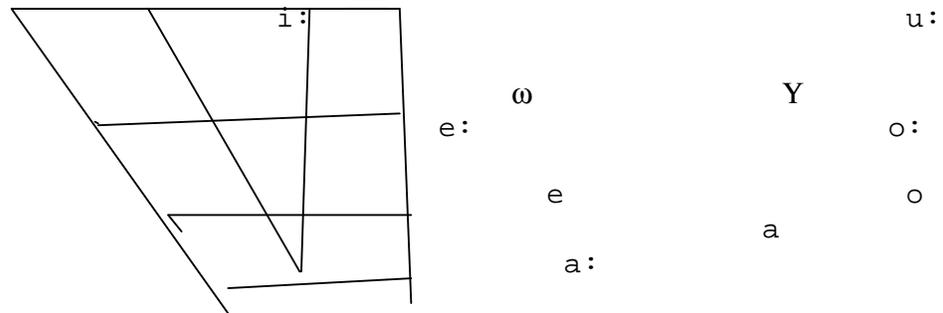
Three main features characterise Háúsá vowels and they are:
   1) Háúsá attests a remarkable dichotomy between long and short
      vowels and between monophthongs and diphthongs. These are
      being repeated here for you as follows:

High front long vowel [i:] contrasting with its high front short
vowel form [ω]
High back long vowel [u:] contrasting with its high back short
vowel form [ ].
Front mid-high long vowel [e:] contrasting with its front mid low
short vowel form[e].
Back mid-high vowel [o:] contrasting with its back mid-low short
vowel variant [o].
Low central [a:] contrasting with its mid-low vowel [a].

   2) The Háúsá diphthongs are a front diphthong [ai] and a back
      diphthong [au].
Besides the distribution of the Háúsá vowels above, the feature of
length characterises Háúsá only. Long and short vowel distinction
is not found in Ìgbò and Yorùbá. Háúsá does not have nasalised
vowels. Yorùbá does attest nasalised vowels.

Hausa vowels are here being listed for you:

Short vowels: **Long Vowels**
Front –   i   Front   i:
          e   e:
Back–   u   Back   u:
          o
Central - a   Central   a:
 Diphthongs
  Front ai   Back au.

3.3.1.2 Háúsá Consonants:

Háúsá has between 32 and 36 consonants and are distributed according to their articulatory features of stop, fricatives, affricate, and so on. The consonants (Pulleyblank 1991) and Hoffman and Schachter 1969) are shown on the chart below.

	bilabial	Labio –dental	Aveolar	retrofl ex	Palato –alveolar	palatal	Palatalised	velar Velar	Labialised	velar glottal	Palatalised	glottal
Plosive	b		t d				kj gj	k g	kw gw	♣	♣j	
Implosive/Glottalised Plosive	Û						Ýj	Ý	Ýw			
Fricative	÷	Fj	s z	Σ						h		
Implosive or Glottalised Fricative			s ♣									
Affricate				tΣ dZ								
Nasal	m		n									
Flap/Tap			r	}								
Lateral			l									
Approximant						j			w			

                              (Schachter   and   Hofmann   1969   and
Newman 1991)
Stop Sounds
Háúsá Bilabial Stops:
the voiced bilabial plosive stop: /b/
the voiced implosive or glottalised bilabial stop /û/
the voiced bilabial nasal stop /m/

Velar Stops
Voiceless and voiced velar stops /k g/
Implosive/glottalised velar stop /Ý/
Labialised implosive velar /Ýw/

Palatalised velars /kj gj/
Palatalised implosive voiceless velar /Ýj/
Labialised velars / kw gw/

Alveolar Sounds
Alveolar stops /t d/

Alveo-nasal /n/
Velar nasal   [N]

Fricatives
Alveolar fricatives /s z/.
Implosive alveolar fricative /s♣/
Palatal fricative /Σ/
Alveolar fricatives /s z/
Voiceless bilabial fricative /÷/
The Voiceless alveolar fricative [sj] **and initial cluster** [tsj]
Voiceless implosive glottal fricative /s♣/
Affricates /tΣ dZ/

Approximants
Alveolar approximant /r/
Lateral approximant /l/
Bilabial approximant /w/
Palatal approximant /j/

Retroflex /}/

Glottal Sounds:
The glottal stop /♣/
The glottal fricative /h/

Palatalised Glottal Sound
The palatalised glottal sound attested is /♣j/

High Inventory of Háúsá Consonants
      Háúsá is very rich in consonants because:
   a) Háúsá has a set of glottalised consonants alongside the voiced
      and voiceless ones e.g., /ä/ versus /t/ and /d/.
   b) Palatalised and labialised consonants alongside simple ones
      e.g., /k^j/ and /k^w/ versus the simple /k/.
The letters û ä represent implosive stops while y [j] represents
the semi-vowel or approximant with the hooked Ý, Ý^y, Ý^w and ts
represent ejectives. However, the standard [ts] is pronounced [s].

3.3.2 Háúsá Phonemes and Orthography Alphabets/Graphemes
      Orthography, the graphemes with which words are written, is
derived from segmental phonemes –vowels and consonants. Háúsá
orthography/graphemes are listed below beginning with the vowels.

You should note that they are derived from the phonemes attested in Háúsá.

Vowels:
Háúsá vowels are listed as follows:

/i:/ / ω/, /e:/ /e//u:/ / //a:/ / a/ /o//Y//ai//au/.

Consonants/Phonemes

/b/, /û/, /t/, /d/, /ä/, /÷/, /±/, /d∞/, /m/, /n/, [Š], /s/,
/z/, [s♣/ [ts♣], /k/, /g/, /gw/, /gj/, /Ý/, /Ýj/, /kw/, /Ýw/,
/h/
/j/, /r/, /}/, /P/, /w/, /♣/, /♣j/.

3.3.2.1 Háúsá Alphabet/Grapheme

Here you will find listed the Háúsá graphemes or letters which are used in writing Háúsá. They are derived from Háúsá phonemes. You will notice that the Háúsá Alphabet is not as long as the Háúsá phonemes. This is because it is not all the phonemes attested in Háúsá that are used in writing Háúsá. The graphemes are listed here for you as follows:

> Aa, Bb, üû, Cc, Dd, åä, Ee, Ff, Gg, Gw gw, Hh, Ii, Jj,
> Kk, ÞÝ, ÞW Ýw, KY ky

> Ll, Mm, Nn, Oo, Rr, Ss, Tt, Ts[ts], Uu, Ww, Yy Zz (Newman
> 1991, p. 710)
> and Omniglot writing systems & languages of the world
> http://www.omniglot.comwriting/hausa.html

In the next Unit, Unit Four, the graphemes for each of the three major languages will be listed consecutively with their phonemic sources to enable you see the graphemes at a glance.

3.4 The Specifics of Ìgbò Phonemes

By Ìgbò segmental phonemes is meant Ìgbò sound units that are meaning bearing. Just as we did for H   s , we"ll list Ìgb phonemes on charts for you to see and compare with the similar data on Háúsá. You will use the drawing of articulatory organs used for Háúsá for our discussion of Ìgbò articulatory organs. Again, we say that Ìgbò segmental phonemes refer to Ìgbò vowels, consonants and tones. From the vowels and consonants, you can extract the alphabet for the writing of Ìgbò and the tone will help you in the handling of Ìgbò idiophones. You will go with me very briefly. We will begin with the vowels.

3.4.1 Ìgbò Vowels

Ìgbò operates a 7-vowel system, 4 front vowels and 3 back vowels, all monophthongs.
Ìgbò is a tone language with two level tones, the high tone and the low tone. A down-step high tone is recognised. Ìgbò has a vowel harmony scheme with two sets of vowels distinguished by pharyngeal cavity size described in terms of the advanced tongue root ATR.

The Ìgbò 7-vowel system, all monophthongs, (Williamson 1969) is put on a chart for you to see. They are distributed at 4 front vowels and 4 back vowels.
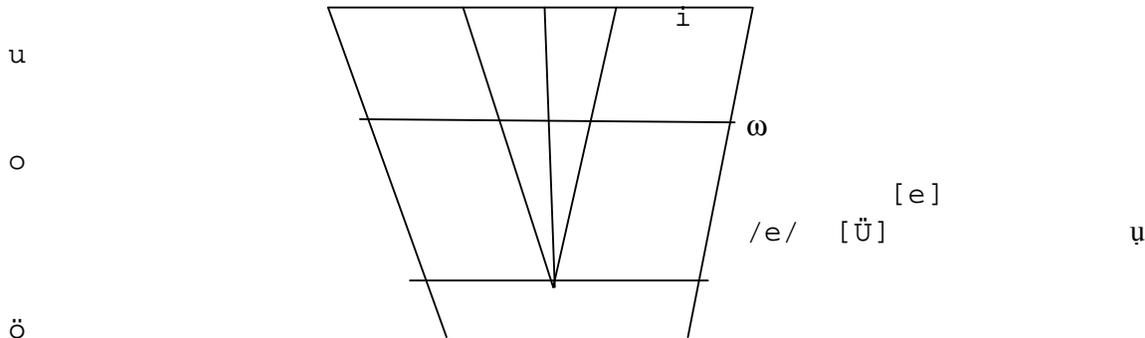

Fig. iv: Ìgbò Vowel Chart

Front Vowels   **Back Vowels**

Front high /ѡ /   High back /u/
Mid high /i/   [e]   Mid high /o/
Mid low /e/   Mid low /ụ/
                        [Ü]   Low back /ö/
The mid low mid-high vowel /e/ has two possible variants [e] and [Ü].

3.4.1.2 Ìgbò Consonants

Ìgbò consonants are shown on the consonant chart below. This is followed by a listing of the consonants as shown below.

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Implosive velar	Labio-velar	Glottal Velar
Nasal	m			N			ŋ̆		ŋ̆ʷ	
Plosive	p b			t d			k g	kʷ gʷkp	gb	
Affricate					tΣ dZ					
Fricative		F		s z	Σ		⊗			σ

82

Central Approx.					♦	j		w	
Lateral Approx.					l				

From the Ìgbò consonant chart above, Ìgbò phonemes should be obvious to you. You will notice that like Háúsá, Ìgbò too is rich in consonants, due exactly to the same reasons as Háúsá. The consonants are listed below according to articulatory features:

Ìgbò Plosive Stops

The following consonants are attested:

Bilabial Plosive stops /p b/
Alveolar plosive stops /t d/
Velaric stops /k g/
Labio-velar stops /kp gb/
Implosive/labialised velaric stop /kʷ gʷ/

Nasals

Bilabial nasal /m/
Alveo-nasal /n/
Palatal nasal / /
Velar nasal /N/
Labialized velaric nasal /Nw/
Affricates
Palato-alveolar affricate /tΣ dZ/

Fricatives
Labio-dental /f/
Alveolar fricatives /s z/
Palatal fricative /Σ/
Velar fricative /⊗/
Glottal fricative /σ/

Approximants

Central approximants /♦/, /j/, /w/
Lateral approximant /l/.

High inventory of Ìgbò consonants

Ìgbò has the next higher number of consonants due to labialization of the velar phonemes /k g/, the occurrence of palatal nasal / /, the labialization of the velaric nasal stop /N/ as /Nw/ and the existence of the voiceless velaric fricative /⊗/. You should note these for the Yorùbá-speaking child learning Ìgbò as a second language.

3.4.2 Listing of Ìgbò Phonemes and Graphemes

We may now list formally the Ìgbò phonemes and the graphemes derived from them. Remember we did the same too for Háúsá? We will, like we did for Háúsá, begin with the vowels. Ìgbò vowels are as listed.

Ìgbò Vowels

The Ìgbò seven vowels are listed as follows:
/i/, /ɷ/, /e/, /a/, /u/, /ụ/, /o/, / ö/

Ìgbò Consonants

Ìgbò consonants are listed as follows:
/p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/, /kʷ/, /gʷ/, /kp/, /gb/, /tΣ/, /dZ/, /m/, /n/, / /, /N/, /Nw/, /f/,
/s/, /z/, /Σ/, /⊗/, /σ/, /♦/, /j/, /w/, /l/ (Ìgbò language-Wikipedia free encyclopaedia, p. 1).

3.4.2.1 Ìgbò Alphabet/Grapheme

You will by now have realised that orthography is derived from the phoneme or that the basis for orthography is the phoneme. We all know from practice and experience that not all phonemes can be represented in orthography. What follows is the listing of Ìgbò phonemes and the alphabet derived from them. The alphabet is given in upper and lower case letters as follows below:

3.5 The Specifics of Yoruba Segmental Phonemes

Yorùbá phonemes consist of its vowels and consonants. The cross section of the human head showing the articulators in the head given above as visual aid in the discussion that follows. The

phones are set out the same way they have been done in respect of Háúsá and Ìgbò.

Hausa, if you remember, we said is a West Chadic wing of the Afro-asiatic family of languages while Ìgbò and Yorùbá are Kwa. This difference in genetic source of Háúsá and the Ìgbò-Yorùbá to some extent is attested in the structure of Háúsá and Ìgbò and Yorùbá. For example, Ìgbò and Yorùbá characteristically share the Kwa feature of co-articulated labio-velar consonant stops, the voiceless labio-velar stop /kp/ and its voiced counterpart /gb/. These sounds are represented as digraphs on the Ìgbò and Yorùbá consonant charts.

3.5.1 Yorùbá Segmental Phonemes

Yorùbá operates a 7-vowel system, 4 front vowels and 3 back vowels, all monophthongs and 4 nasalise vowels. There are three front vowels, one low central vowel and three back vowels. These are shown on the Yorùbá vowel chart below for you to see (Bámgbóýé 1969).

Front Vowels	Back Vowels
Front high /i /	High back /u/
Mid high /e/	Mid high /o/
Mid low /ç/	Mid low /ö/

Central: /a/
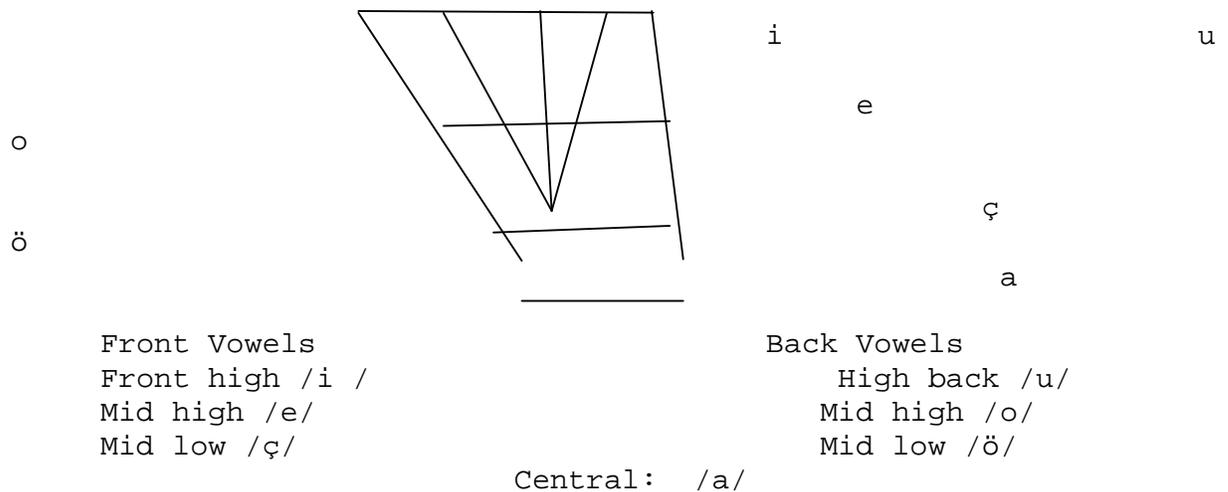
3.5.1.1 Yorùbá Nasalised Vowels:

Yorùbá has seven monophthongs: /a/, /e/, /ç/, or /Ü/ /i/, /o/, /ö/, /u/ and four nasalised vowels: in, çn, un, ön. To indicate nasality phonetically, each of the vowels is written with the superscript glide ~ on it: ↑,   ⊕, ☉ ❧.

3.5.1.2 Yorùbá Consonants

Yorùbá consonants are shown on the consonant chart below. You will notice that Yorùbá has the least number of consonants among the three major languages.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

85

What reason or reasons can you adduce for the comparatively small number of Yorùbá alphabet?

	bilabial	Labio-dental	Aveolar	retrofl	palato-alveola r	palatal	velar	Labialised velar	glottal	Palatalised glottal
Plosive	B		t d				k g	kp gb		
Fricative			s		Σ				h	
Affricate					dZ					
Nasal	M		n [N]				k [N]			
Flap/Tap			r							
Lateral			l							
Approximant						j		w		

Plosives Stops

Bilabial plosive /b/
Nasal plosive /m/

Alveolar Plosives /t/d/
Velar plosives /k g/
Labiovelar plosives kw, gw

Fricatives
Alveolar fricative /s/
Palato- alveolar fricative /Σ/
Glottal fricative /h/

Affricate
Palato-alveolar affricate /dZ/

Nasals
Bilabial nasal /m/
Alveolar nasal /n/
Velaric nasal /Š/

Lateral /l/

86

Approximants
Bilabial approximant /w/
Palatal approximant /j/

3.5.2 Yorùbá Phonemes and Orthography/Alphabets

Consonants: /b/, /d/, /f/, /g/, /gb/, /h/, /j/, /k/, /l/, /m/, /n/, /kp/, /r/, /s/, /Σ/, /t/, /w/, /y/.
Vowels: /a/, /e/, /ç/, or /Ü/ /i/, /o/, /ö/, /u/
Nasalised Vowels /in/, /çn/, /un/, /ön/.

3.5.2.1 Yorùbá Alphabets/Grapheme

Here, just as we did for Háúsá and Ìgbò, we identify for you Yorùbá alphabet or orthography, that is, all the letters that are used for writing Yorùbá language.

 Aa, Bb Dd, Ee, Çç Ff, Gg, GBgb, Hh, Ii, Jj, Kk, Ll,

 Mm, Nn, Oo, Öö, Pp, Rr, Ss, þý, Tt, Uu, Ww, Yy.

The Yorùbá consonants are fairly common on the IPA chart. The exceptions are the labio-velars kp and gb which are characteristic of Kwa languages. Velaric nasal is observed. The Yorùbá velaric nasal is environmentally determined as [n] + [k [Š] as in
1) Ška .... is reading,
2) Šg f .... is belching.

This is the same way the bilabial nasal stop [m] occurs only before bilabial consonants [m p   b] and the alveolar nasal [n] occurs in all other environments.

3.6 Strategies for Teaching Strategies Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá Phonemes and Graphemes

From the listing of the phonemes and the graphemes, we have seen that not all phonemes are necessary in writing. You should encourage a great deal of writing through dictation, the writing and placement of bills, memos and notices on the board, writing short stories and songs in the Nigerian language should help the students to internalise the graphemes of any of the three major languages. Writing is speaking on paper. Speaking and writing should complement each other. The phoneme should form the basis for speaking or speech, the same way it is for the morphology of individual words, spelling and writing. You should encourage oral use of the language through systematically planned group and individual work. The school can as a matter of policy encourage the

use of the language in the school generally in addition to using it during lesson hours. Actual teaching should include the use of minimal pairs using lexical items within the language, focusing on possible confusing forms, sue of drills and pattern practice, such as substitution, deletion, and expansion of words, and phrase to generate sentences. Other activities to encourage the use of the language are debates, conversations, oral and written news reporting in the language, listening to model chunks of the language from native speakers, excursions and so on.

4.0 Summary

The phoneme is the beginning point to identify the significant sounds of a language. Because alphabet or graphemes are phoneme based, only those phonemes that are significant enough or those that are minimally contrastive are useful in determining the alphabet or graphemes of a language.

5.0 Conclusion

Phonemes are central to the phonology of any language it helps to identify significant sounds which form the basis of orthography. Orthography is the basis for mother tongue literacy.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignments

Compare the sounds of the three languages and state the implications of the differences in the teaching of each of the languages as a second language to Nigerian students.

7.0 References and Other Sources

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UNIT THREE   THE MAIN FEATURES OF ASPECTS OF HÁÚSÁ, ÌGBÒ AND YORÙBÁ PHONEMES

CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Unit Objectives
3.0 Main Contents
3.1 The Plosive Stops

3.1.1 Bilabial Plosive Stops
3.1.1.1 Teaching the Bilabials
3.1.1.2 Aspirations
3.2.2 Alveolar Plosive Stops
3.2.3 Velaric Plosive Stops
3.2 Fricatives
3.2.1 Bilabial Fricatives
3.2.2 Alveolar Fricatives
3.2.3 Palatal fricatives
3.2.4 Labio-dental Fricatives
3.3 Nasals
3.3.1 Bilabial Nasal
3.3.2 Alveolar Nasal
3.2.2.1 Teaching Implosives to Ìgbò and Yorùbá Students
3.3.3 Velaric Nasal
3.4 Affricates
3.5 Implication of features for the orthography of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá
4.0 Summary
5.0 Conclusion
6.0 Tutor Marked Assignments
7.0 References /Other Sources

1.0 Introduction

We give you the main features of the consonant sounds of the three languages Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá, beginning with the plosives. The vowels are so straightforward that they should not be a problem. The consonant are the **plosives, the fricatives, the affricates** and the **approximants.** You are to compare them for similarities and differences.

2.0 Objectives

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

- recall the consonants listed for comparison;
- identify what language attests a different phone;
- locate the different phone or phones on a consonant chart;
- describe the articulatory characteristics of phoneme;
- identify what is unique to each language;
- identify phonemes that are problematic for non-speakers, and
- identify non-essential phonemes.

Main Contents

3.1 The Plosive Stops

Stops are so described because there is a closure or a very temporary stop or closure of the air passage in the process of articulation before the sound is actually articulated. The articulation of the sound is accompanied by a release puff of air

which is described by the term plosive. The air puff/plosion can be tested by holding a piece of   paper close to the lips on the articulation of any plosive stop sound. This is so for all plosive sounds.

3.1.1 Bilabial Plosive Stops

The bilabial plosive sounds are produced at the two lips.

Plosive Stops	Háúsá	Ìgbò	Yorùbá
Bilabial	÷ b	p b	
Implosive bilabial	û		
Aspirated Bilabial		p^n b^h	

From the bilabial plosive stops on the table, above, you can easily see where the languages share the plosives as universals. It is only Ìgbò that has the two bilabial sounds [p b]. In place of the voiceless bilabial stop, Háúsá attests the voiceless bilabial fricative [÷]. In Yorùbá, there is no form of the voiceless bilabiality.

3.1.1.1 Teaching the Bilabials

The implication is that the voiceless bilabial plosive consonant will constitute a learning difficulty for both the Háúsá and Yorùbá students learning Ìgbò. While you may watch out for the Háúsá student rendering what he has of the voiceless bilabial consonant, you simply be on the watch out for what the Yorùbá-speaking child will make out of [p] in his learning Igbo as a second language. The implication is that based on the differences, the Ìgbò-speaking Nigerian student will always use the voiceless bilabial plosive consonant /p/ in situations where it should not be used in Háúsá and Yorùbá. Háúsá is the only language that attests the voiced bilabial implosive stop /û/. This should prove a little difficult for Ìgbò and Yorùbá student whose languages do not attest this sound.

The teaching of the sounds in real life situations should move from the mechanical drill of recognition and production of the sounds to putting the sounds meaningful and communicative language contexts. This is important became mechanical drills alone will not make the students proficient users of the sounds in real-life communication.

3.1.1.2 Aspirations

91

Ìgbò attests aspiration in the bilabial stops, [pʰbʰ], the alveolar stops [tʰ dʰ], and velars [kʰ gʰ]. Aspiration is a variation of the same sound in a different environment. Because aspirated sounds are phonological variants or allophones of the same sound, aspiration in second language learning not seriously impede your teaching and your students" learning of any of H úsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá, especially as a second language because aspiration is not phonemic, but allophonic. So, aspiration should not be a problem for Háúsá and Yorùbá students learning Ìgbò as a second language.

3.2.2 Alveolar Plosive Stops

A comparison of the alveolar stops shows that all the languages share the alveolar stop sounds. In addition, Háúsá attests the voiced implosive alveolar not attested in Ìgbò and Yorùbá while Ìgbò only attests its aspirated variant forms or allophones. As mentioned above, because allophones are mere variants of the same sound or set of sounds and not phonemes, the learning of the aspirated forms of the alveolar in Ìgbò should not constitute any impediment to Háúsá and Yoruba learners of Ìgbò.

	Háúsá	**Ìgbò**	**Yorùbá**
Alveolar Stops	t d		t d
Implosive alveolar	ä		
Aspirated		tʰdʰ	

3.2.2.1 Teaching Implosives to Ìgbò and Yorùbá Students

Implosive consonants are attested in Háúsá and they are attested as voiced bilabial stop /û/ and voiced alveolar stop /ä/. They are not attested in Ìgbò and Yorùbá. Because they are phonemic, extra care and attention should be taken by the teacher of Háúsá as second language to Yorùbá and Ìgbò students learning Háúsá a second language. The sounds can be drilled for recognition and production separately   and   in   contrast.   Drilling   should   also   move   from mechanical to meaningful and communicatively levels.

3.2.3 Velaric Plosive Stops

The three major languages Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá share the regular velars. Their distribution is as follows:
- Yorùbá and Ìgbò attest the labio-velar stops /kp gb/;
- only Igbo attests laryngealised/aspirated velars [kʰ gʰ] in addition to the regular velars;
- Háúsá only attests the palatalised velars /kj gj/;
- Háúsá and Ìgbò attest the labialised velars /Ýʷ/;

92

Velar Stops			
Regular velar stops		/k g/	/k g /
Labio-velars			
Aspirated velars		/kʰ gʰ/	
Laryngealised/ Palatalised velar	/Ýj gj		
Labialised velar			
Laryngealised and labialised velar	/Ý/		

Going by the contrastive linguistic concept of differences and difficulty, the following observations are made.

1. The labio-velar stops should be difficult for the Háúsá-speaking students;
2. Teachers of Háúsá to Ìgbò and Yorùbá students should watch out for the possibility of palatalised velars /kj gj/ being difficult for Ìgbò and Yorùbá students learning Háúsá as a second language;
3. Because the labialised velars are totally absent in Yorùbá, the teacher of Háúsá and Ìgbò should watch out for the tendency for the Yorùbá-speaking student to delabialise labialised velars /kʷ gʷ/;
4. The laryngealised and labialised voiceless velars /Ý Ýʷ/ are not attested in Ìgbò and Yorùbá. The teacher of Háúsá to Igbo and Yorùbá students should watch out for these.
5. The fact that a sound is clearly different in the two languages may not pose much problem as when the sounds are partially similar in the two languages.

3.3.3 Velaric Nasal

The regular nasals, the bilabial, alveolar and velaric nasals /m, n Š/ are common to all the three languages. Ìgbò attests the regular palatal nasal⎮ and its labialized counterpart, /Šʷ/. The velaric nasal is attested only as a phonological process. The general rules are as follows:

Nasals	Háúsá	Ìgbò	Yorùbá
Bilabial nasal stop		m	M
Alveolar nasal		N	N

93

Velaric nasal		Š	Š
Palatal nasal		|	|
Labio-velar nasal		Šʷ	

[m] before the bilabials p b
[n] before any other consonants
[Š] before the velars k g

In writing or orthography, the velaric nasal phoneme /Š/ is not reflected because it is treated as a variant of /n/ and, therefore, written as letter or grapheme „n" in both Ìgbò and Yorùbá. The palatal nasal /|/ is realized in regular alphabet as a sequence of „ny" in Ìgbò in Yorùbá.

3.2 Fricatives

The fricatives show the characteristics stated in this section:

- It is only Háúsá that attests the voiceless bilabial fricative /÷/. The voiced counterpart is not attested the same way the voiced palatal fricative /Z/ is not attested.
- It is only Ìgbò that attests the velar fricative /⊗/.
- Háúsá does not attest the labio-dentals /f v/.
- Yorùbá attests only the voiceless labio-dental fricative /f/.
- It is only Ìgbò that attests the two labio-dentals /gb kp/ and the voiced velar fricative /⊗/ and all the labiodental /f v/.

The three languages share the glottal fricative /h/, the voiceless alveo-palatal fricative /Σ/, the voiceless alveolar fricative /s/. It is only Yorùbá that does not attest the voiced alveolar fricative /z/.

Fricatives			Yorùbá
	Háúsá	**Ìgbò**	
Bilabial fricatives	÷		
Alveolar fricatives	s z		s
Glottal fricatives	h	H	h
Palatal fricative	Σ	Σ	Σ
Labio-dental		f v	f

Velar fricative		$\otimes$	

3.2.1 Teaching the Fricatives

As noted above, then three languages share the following fricatives in common:
  1. the voiceless alveolar fricative /s/;
  1. the glottal fricative/h/, and
  2. the palatal fricative /Σ/.
The teacher of the alveolar fricative will have to be mindful of the voiced alveolar fricative/z/, the same way the teacher of the three languages will have to be mindful of the voiced palatal fricative /Z/, not attested in any of the three languages. In teaching Háúsá to Ìgbò and Yorùbá, the Háúsá voiceless bilabial fricative is perceived to be close enough to the labio-dental fricative /f/. The two sounds, /f/ and /÷/ may be regarded as free variants with /÷/and taught as /f/ to Ìgbò and Yorùbá students.

    The partial similarity may pose some articulatory problems. The teaching of the sounds should progressively move from drills in recognition of the sounds, accurate production of the sounds, production of the sounds in contrasting minimal pairs and using the sounds in larger combinative contexts, for example, to produce a talk, dialogue or conversation.

The velar fricative is gradually creeping into Yorùbá. It is likely that the present generation of Yorùbá-speaking Nigeria children may find the velar fricative /⊗/ easy to learn.

3.3 Affricates

The affricates are fairly well shared by three Nigerian languages except that Yorùbá does not attest the voiceless palate-alveolar affricate /tΣ/. The attestation of affricates in Háúsá is interesting the same way the absence of the voiceless palate-alveolar is in Yorùbá. Háúsá does not attest the voiced palato-alveolar in isolation, it does attest the voiced affricate /dZ/, consisting of the voiced alveolar stop /d/ which it attests and the

voiceless palate-alveolar fricative /Ʒ/ it does not attest. The voiced palato-alveolar fricative should not be problematic because, firstly, it is not needed in isolation in any of the three languages and secondly, where the need arises, the learners could be encouraged to add voicing to the palatal fricative /Σ/ to produce the voiced /Ʒ/. The voiceless palato-alveolar fricative /tΣ/ occurs in some dialects of Yorùbá. You may expect a performance deficiency by Yorùbá-speaking students" rendition of the voiceless palate-alveolar affricate.

The Affricates	Háúsá		Ìgbò
Palato-alveolar affricate	± dƷ	± dƷ	dƷ

4.1 Implications of Features in the Orthography of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá

Some of the principles of orthography are ease, economy and convenience of using the phonemes attested in a language to turn the language to writing. It is the case world over that it is not all the phonemes attested that are used in writing. Although Háúsá attests as many as 32 consonants and ten vowels, not all the 42 phonemes are used in writing Háúsá. For example the following are not used in writing Háúsá.

1. Although the glottal stop /ʔ/ is very common in Háúsá, it is hardly ever used in writing Háúsá..
2. Sometimes in the orthography /û/ /ä/ /Ý/ are written as regular b d k with the dot subscript (Hoffman 1969, p. 76).
3. /kj /, / j/ and /gj/ are written „k", „ " and „g" before „o" or „u" (Hoffman 1969, 76).
4. The retroflex /}/ is attested but not reflected in writing Háúsá orthography.
5. The Ìgbò voiced glottal fricative /⊗/ may be difficult for the Háúsá and Yorùbá learners of Ìgbò.

In Háúsá and Yorùbá, the bilabial plosive consonant /p/ is generally not attested. You should watch out for the tendency for the Háúsá speaking student to substitute the voiceless bilabial fricative /÷/ represented in orthography as „f" in places where the letter p is expected in writing. This is specially so as the voiceless bilabial fricative /÷/ is not represented in writing. The same way also, you should watch out for the Háúsá and the Ìgbò students" tendency to write or substitute in writing the letter „b" for „kp" on the argument that it is „kp" that is attested in Yor b . In Yor b , the „kp" attested is not used in Yor b orthography. Instead, the phone /p/ not attested is exchanged in

writing for „kp" which is attested, for the reason of *ease, economy* and *convenience* of writing.

4.0 Summary

You have read through the guidelines for the teaching of Nigeria"s major languages. Although tagged Nigeria"s major languages, the guidelines can be adapted to teach any Nigerian languages. The phonemes of each of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá and their graphemes are identified to make you see the importance or relationship of phonemes and graphemes. The differences between Chadic languages and Kwa languages are clearly indicated by the labio-velar stops in Ìgbò and Yorùbá and its absence in Háúsá. The presentation of the phonetic features of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá show that the velars, the nasals and the fricatives are the source of major differences among Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá. Intensive and extensive practices activities of these are needed to make the teaching of the sounds highly communicative.

5.0 Conclusion

Attempts have been made to compare the phonemes of Ìgbò, Háúsá and Yorùbá with a view to highlighting and explaining their implications. Such notable phonemes as the Háúsá bilabial fricative /÷/, the glottal stop /♣/, the Ìgbò velar fricative /π/ and the labio-velars /kp gb/ of Ìgbò and Yorùbá remain major differences among Ìgbò, Háúsá and Yorùbá. The implications of the distribution pattern of these and other phonemes across Ìgbò, Háúsá and Yorùbá should be noted by the Nigerian language teacher, especially, their recognition, perception and production implications in the teaching of the phonemes and orthography of Nigerian languages.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

1. Compare the phonemes of the three languages and state very clearly where they differ from one another.
2. List the phonemes of one non-majority Nigerian language and state how they differ from the phonemes of the Nigerian language which you teach.

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UNIT FOUR: **Orthography of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá**
CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Unit Objectives
3.0 Main Content
      3.1 The Significance of Orthography

1.0 Introduction

By orthography of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá is meant the Alphabet or the graphemes or the letters that are used to write each of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá languages. These have been listed for you in the preceding Unit. What will be done here is to list them again, this time showing the phonemes from which each is derived. The phoneme is the brickwork of orthography. Every phoneme that distinguishes between any two apparently similar words is a potential alphabet for orthography. We say „potential" because not every phoneme can or grapheme may be used in orthography development. That is the reason we have to list the phonemes of each of the three languages for you to see which phones are used in the orthography of each language and which are not.

2.0 Unit Objectives

At the end of the unit, you should be able to:
- define and distinguish between the phoneme and orthography;
- explain the use of the phoneme and alphabet in syllabic writing;
- identify and list the phonemes peculiar to each of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá;
- state the significance and function of the phoneme and orthography;
- give at least two examples of co-articulated sounds in Háúsá, Ìgbò, and Yorùbá;
- construct at the least three different sentence types;
- tone mark words and tone mark idiophones to disambiguate them, and
- recognize word/morpheme boundaries.

3.0 Main Contents

3.1 The Significance of Orthography

By orthography here is meant the letters of the second language alphabet. Segmental phonemes provide the best avenue to extracting the letters of any language that has not been written. Therefore, segmental phonemes should be the starting point of the orthography of the three major languages. Firstly, it will help you, the teacher, to handle articulatory phonetics better by getting the students to identify and produce the significant sounds of each of the three major languages and from the phonemes, extract a list of alphabet of the second language.

Segmental phonemes are important in second language teaching. As you read above, segmental phonemes represent the significant sound units of a language because they are **minimally contrastive** or **minimally meaning bearing**. Usually, a list of segmental phonemes of a language should provide us all the individual phonetic alphabets required to write the language in question. Because phonemes help in distinguishing between words of similar sounds, they are useful in orthography development.

Orthography may be defined as "*the symbols* and *rules* that are followed in writing a language," (Williamson, 1984, p. 7). The symbols are called alphabet, that is, all the letters of a language that are necessary to reduce the speech of a language into its written form. These letters usually represent the phonemes of the language and as may you remember reading above, they are the sounds of a language that are minimally contrastive and meaning bearing. Orthography, therefore, consists of the alphabet of a language plus all rules and conventions guiding writing. Such rules, for example, include when and how to use punctuations, sentence length and so on. These rule and conventions are commonly referred to as mechanical skills in writing. In the context of this course, orthography should be understood as *language alphabet and rules and conventions of writing.* Orthography refers to the graphemes used in writing while the **rules and conventions** refer to the knowledge of how to use of these letters. This knowledge includes the use of the UPPER case in writing, the use of full stops, spellings and so on. Orthography is part of the competence the second language learner must have to be considered proficient in the second language. Generally, orthography must be acceptable by conforming to at least five general principles of acceptability, accuracy, consistency, convenience, harmonisation and familiarity (Williamson 1984, p. 7). The letters, that is, the alphabet of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá are given below on page 82.

Of importance, however, is that in teaching any of the three major languages, you must intensely practise the differences between the phonetic alphabet (the IPA notation) and its adaptation to meet the writing needs of each of these languages. Some of these are the use

of the superscript and subscript, diacritics or digraphs, especially, labio-velar digraphs in Ìgbò and Yorùbá- /gb/ and /kp/ sounds that are not present in Háúsá and the ejective [ts] variant of the voiceless fricative /s/ found only in Háúsá. Others are the labialisation, velarisation, glottalisation of consonants and the ejectives that characterise Háúsá, and labial aspiration, alveolar aspiration and velar aspiration that characterise Ìgbò. These are shown in the consonant chart of each language. Yorùbá seems to have by far, the least complicated sound system.

3.2 The Significance of Segmental Phonemes in Orthography Development.

Segmental phonemes and graphemes are meaning bearing or they are minimally contrastive. This means that the phoneme will help you to make out the difference in meaning between two words that may appear superficially/deceptively similar. Once a speech sound enables you to recognise that there is a difference between any two words (no matter how superficially similar they be), such a speech sound is a phoneme. In orthography, it is not all the phonemes identified in a language that are used in writing the language. Orthography is, indeed, an *economic way of adapting the phonemes of a language for writing purposes*. A lot of the phonemes are modified by using the very minimum number of letters to maximize writing and make for convenience, economy, and ease of writing.

The phoneme is the core of phonology and it is the first stage in the teaching of the orthography of a language. To teach orthography, you"ll have to list all the phonemes (vowels and consonants) on charts (the way it has been for each of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá).

Having pointed out the essential elements of the phonology of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá and having listed the phonemes of each language, you can now turn your attention to the alphabet of the three major languages. The alphabet of each language is given to enable you to visualise and link the alphabet with its phoneme. This is to enhance in you and the students you teach the three factors in the teaching of sound system and these are perception, recognition and production. This is important because unlike English whose segmental phonemes do not bear a one to one correspondence with its alphabet, as you saw in the course of discussion, in Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá, and in fact, many Nigerian tone languages, there a high degree of correspondence between the segmental phonemes and the graphemes or the alphabet or the letters of the phonemes used in writing the language. It is hoped that whatever exceptions there are to this general statement, you will see from the listing and identify them.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Why is it that it is not all the alphabets identified in each of
the three languages are used in its orthography?

3.3 Recognition of the Orthography of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá

You will recall that in the preceding Unit, we identified for you
the graphemes of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá and said thereafter that we
would list the graphemes of the three languages so that you could
see them at a glance. This is now being done here. We will extract
the alphabet or graphemes from the phonemes of each language. We
will begin with Háúsá.

. The essence is to encourage your recognition and identification
of them, especially, the phonemes and letters that are peculiar to
each language. The phonemic source of each alphabet is also being
shown you for you to see the relationship and significance between
the phoneme and the alphabet. While teaching these, you will do
well to compare the three alphabets together to see areas of
similarities and differences.

3.3.1 Háúsá Alphabet with its Phonemic Representation
**Aa, Bb, Cc, Dd, åä,   Ee, Ff,   Gg. Hh, Ii,   Jj   Kk,
ÞÝ,**
/a/   /b/ /±/   /d/ /ä/   /e/   /÷/   /g/   /h/   /i/
/d∞/   /k/   /k"/

/l/   /m/   /n/   /o/ /r/   /s/   /t/   /s/ or [ts]   /u/
/w/   /y/   /z/ (Newman 1991, p. 710).

3.3.2 Ìgbò Alphabet with its Phonemic Representation
**Aa,   Bb   CH, ch, Dd, Ee   Ff ,   Gg GB,   gb GH, GW gw
Hh,   Ii**
/a/   /b/   tΣ/   /d/   /e/   /f/   /g/   /û/ or /gû/
/θ/   /g˝/   /⊗/   /σ/   /i, \/

** Jj,   Kk,   KP kp   KW kw Ll,   Mm,   Nn,   NW nw Oo
Öö**
/dZ/   /k/   /kp/   /k˝/   /l/   /m/
/n/   /Š˝/   /]/   /o/

**Pp, KP, kp, Rr,   Ss,   SHsh, Tt, Uu,   , Vv,
Ww, Yy   Z**
/p/,   /kp/,   / /,   /s/,   /Σ/,   /t/,
/u/ /ṳ/,   /v/, /w/,   /j/,   /z/.

3.3.3 Yorùbá Alphabet with its Phonemic Representation

102

Aa, Bb, Dd, Ee, Çç, Ff, Gg, GB gb, Hh, Ii, Jj, Kk,
/a/, /b/, /d/ /e/ /ɛ
/h/ /i/ /dƷ/ /k/

Ll, Mm, Nn O o, Öö, P, Rr, Ss, þý, Tt, Uu, Ww, Yy.
/l/ /m/ /n/ /o/ /]/ /kp/ /r/ /s/ /Σ/ /t/ /u/ /w/ /y/.

Note: The listing of the alphabet and phonemes of each language enables you to trace the relationship of between the two. Doing so too will enable you in actual teaching to direct your students" attention to the alphabet and phonemes of their language or languages, using an appropriate object to show each letter. By so doing, you will make them learn phoneme recognition as a basis for alphabet writing. For you, it will assist you to trace interlingual interference between your students" language and the second language you"re teaching them. You should assist to identify interfering items, paying attention to the necessary distinguishing features of each phoneme and letter. These interfering items are t be singled out for practice activities, using drills, for example, minimal pairs and the contrasting forms.

3.4 Students' Recognition of Háúsá, Igbo and Yorùbá Graphemes

Recognition of the second language grapheme is very important in the teaching of second language orthography. To facilitate learning, you must teach the student to recognize the regular alphabet or letter across his first should correspond in his native language and the major language being learnt. The student runs into difficulty only when an entirely different symbol is used to represent a particular sound in the second language. Practice in the recognition of the relevant sound is particularly necessary in the case of Háúsá and Ìgbò where, for example, there are so many consonants due to velarisation. These could make Ìgbò alphabet very confusing. A new learning, a task, you"d say, results whenever there is no correspondence between the major language being learnt and the learner"s first language. Remember that recognition facilitates learning; a great deal of attention should be paid to it during practice. Encourage the students orally and in writing to use the alphabet as a stepping stone to good spelling.

Self Assessment Exercises

Study the graphemes of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá given above to justify the statement "that phonemes are modified by using the very minimum of letters to maximize writing."

4.0 Summary

In this unit, you were introduced to the phonemes and graphemes of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá. It is emphasized that each language is to be taught as a second language. We identified for you the alphabet of each language and their phonemic source. You also read that orthography is an economic way of using limited number of alphabet to write or turn a language to its written form. In other words, it is not all the phonemes attested in a language that are necessarily used in writing the language. You are encouraged to recognize the alphabet of each language and for the students, the alphabet of the language he is learning as a second language.

5.0 Conclusion

The primary focus of this unit is that of demonstrating the relationship between phonemes and graphemes of the three languages and how these can be taught. The teaching of these items should pass through perception of the sounds and the letters, recognition of the various forms and production of these forms through drills in minimal pairs, contrastive forms and in wider communicative activities.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignments

1. How can you account for the Háúsá pronunciation of people as fi:fl?
2. Compare and contrast the segmental phonemes and the official alphabet of your language of interest and explain why there is a discrepancy in the phones identified and the official alphabet adopted in the teaching your language of interest.

3. Yorùbá does not attest the voiceless bilabial /p/ but the labio-velars kp and gb. Why do you think the voiceless bilabial /p/ is used in Yorùbá orthography instead of the voiceless labio-velars kp?

4. What phonetic characteristics do Háúsá and Ìgbò share that Yorùbá does not?

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UNIT FIVE: STRATEGIES AND RESOURCES FOR THE TEACHING OF HÁÚSÁ, ÌGBÒ AND YORÙBÁ

CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Unit Objectives
3.0 Main Contents
     3.1 Objective and Specifics of Second Language Teaching
     3.1.1 Second Language Structure: the Syllable
     3.1.2 Tones Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá

1.0 Introduction

This unit is devoted strategies and resources for the teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá. The Unit is an adaptation of basic second language teaching techniques to meet the requirements for the teaching of Nigeria‟s three major languages. So, make sure that you follow very carefully. The objective for second language teaching is to effect a change in behaviour of your students through proficient speaking, reading and writing of the second language. To attain the objectives, you must lead for them to follow. One good way to lead for the students to follow is to be so proficient in the second language system that they want to be like you. Trying to be like you may invoke a lot of laughter and sometimes, a measure of nuisance in class. This should not discourage you. It‟s an indication that learning, a change of behaviour, is taking place. You must be prepared to be a model for them to replicate. So, it‟s over to you.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

- state the objectives of teaching the three major languages as second languages;
- list the specifics of second language teaching;
- teach second language syllable and morpheme;
- give at least two examples of co-articulated sounds
- construct three different sentence types
- tone mark Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá words
- tone mark idiophones to disambiguate them.
- recognize word/morpheme boundaries

3.0 MAIN CONTENTS

3.1 Objective and Specifics of Second Language Teaching

The overall objective of all language teaching is speaking (MacCarthy 1978). Speaking involves the use of individual sound segments or phonemes in isolation and in connected speech. The ability of your students to recognise second language segmental phonemes is important because language is meant to be spoken. Speaking involves receptive activity or skills of listening and hearing the language and productive activity which producing the sonds, words and utterances of the language speaking and writing it. Speaking is complementary to all the other levels of language system. You must give the model in sound, lexis and sentences for your students to replicate. The learners must hear you speak the language and you must encourage them to speak it. The audio-lingual or the aural-oral method encourages you to pay attention to the spoken language.

Second language teaching begins with teaching the students the second language segmental phonemes, vowels and consonants as you have identified them or may have been identified for you in the chosen textbook. Identify them and produce them for your student to hear and replicate in pairs small groups, as a whole class and as individuals. You must be ready to play the model for them to imitate. You must have phonetic ears, ears that are so tuned to the sounds of your target language that you can identify and isolate every incorrect second language replication by your students. You must be able to detect the difference between any two distinct sounds, no matter how close they may sound. Therefore, your task is to train your students in critical auditory training through systematic practice in listening and comprehension (MacCarthy 1978). This involves a lot of listening to and hearing enough of the second language corpuses and paying attention to sounds heard as well as comprehending what is heard as well as opportunity to listen to various speech sounds and speech forms of the language being taught not only from the teacher but from such other sources as other language experts, tape recorders, CDs, video recordings, language programmes on the radio and television and so on. This is

107

achieved by practice. You must give them sufficient opportunity to listen and exercise personal judgement on the model you give them.

As second language teachers, we also teach the culture of the language as well. You are to get the learner involved by using examples of items from the setting of the language to make the learning real to him or her. Examples of agricultural produce (food items, animals, names, dressing styles, religion, mode of greeting or family set up and the show of social distance and so on, are ways of adding cultural dimensions to second language teaching. Our healthy cultural attributes are a part of our national heritage. Using items and illustrations that reflect the native environment of the second language will enable you add a cultural dimension to the teaching of the major languages (Lado 1957). For example, greeting, an important aspect of our culture varies as you move from one part of Nigeria to another. Greeting varies from squatting to greet to prostrating flat on the ground to kneeling down and hand shake. Food items equally vary as you move from around the country. While some food stuff and menu are common, others are language and culture specific. These must be reflected in language teaching as part of our collective heritage.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISES
Please, read again Unit 4 for the following self assessment exercises.
   a) List the characteristics and features of tones.
   b) Define consonant clusters
   c) Explain the use of the labio-velars /kp gb/ in writing Ìgbò and Yorùbá.

3.1.1 Second Language Structure-the Syllable

     One important objective of teaching Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá syllable is to enable the Nigerian student learning the three major Nigerian languages to use it as guide to morphological make up and aid in pronunciation, spelling and writing. The syllable of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá is fairly regular- either a vowel only, (v), or a consonant-vowel (cv) or vowel-consonant (vc) sequence for monosyllabic words. This can be easily seen in the following monosyllabic words:

     Yorùbá   Gloss

     o-ru-kö   – name

     bê-ï-bë   – drum

     àgáraÂdì   – door

(Háúsá and Yorùbá data from Abíõdún, 2011, p. 46 and Ìgbò data from Iloene, 2011, p. 182).

The monosyllable structure forms the basis for longer or polysyllabic words. No matter their length, the syllables are regular and form a basis for good spelling and pronunciation. You should recognise these basic monosyllable and polysyllable structures and use them as the basis for teaching spelling and pronunciation. Because the morphology of Nigerian words is part isolating and part agglutinating, there may be the tendency to gloss over morpheme/word boundary. You should teach word/morpheme boundaries and also teach the students to recognize and mark syllable, word or morpheme boundary. This will assist them to recognise words in isolation and when they are calqued or agglutinated.

It"s important to note that there are no consonant clusters. Digraphs, e.g., /kp/ and /gb/ that characterise Ìgbò and Yorùbá, for example, are double articulated phonemes; each of them for example, represents a single sound unit or phoneme. The [**ts]** that characterises Háúsá, is also a phoneme, not a consonant cluster. It is an alveolar homorganic phoneme in Háúsá. As a native speaker of the second language you teach, you are expected, in addition to your academic equipping in the linguistics, to will intuitively identify structure such as these and isolate them for intensive practice activities. Students don"t generally find phonetics interesting. Therefore, you should elicit your students" interest from the beginning by assuring them that:
   1) you use diverse means t practise the phonemes , morphemes and syllables;
   2) you use songs, rhymes, games, and other motivating strategies to teach the language items;
   3) you should make the students recognise that it is easy to learn to pronounce the sounds of the second language. This is because articulators (the parts of the body used for sound production) are regular parts of his body and these parts are the same for all humans beings. These parts are merely adopted or modified for oral communication.

   4) Some of these articulators can be touched. You should make them as much as possible, touch, feel and manipulate these articulators. This will remove the phobia of phonetics as an abstract area of language studies.

You should try to make phonology teaching as practical as possible. You should remove all impeding psychological blocks by your readiness to produce the sounds of the second language and speak it to reassure your students. Don"t feel shy to demonstrate practically, the production of the sounds. This may initially or frequently generate fun and laughter in the class but it is a

practical strategy to drive home aspects of the second language
structure.

Of special interest and perhaps difficulty in terms of perception,
recognition and production by Háúsá learners of either Yorùbá or
Ìgbò as a second language at the phonological level are labio-velar
stops /kp/ and /gb/ common in Ìgbò and Yorùbá and the various forms
of velarisation attested in Háúsá and Ìgbò. These linguistic
processes are challenges for the Nigerian teachers of Nigerian
languages as second language, especially, in terms of perception,
recognition, modelling and production. Aside from segmental
phonemes, there are other areas you have to pay attention to and
these are the syllable structure, tone, consonant clusters, double
or multiple articulation, assimilation and deletion, and so on. You
should note these features because they are crucial in teaching and
apply them according to the language you are teaching. Some of
these are examined below.

The Háúsá speaking student learning either Ìgbò or Yorùbá as a
second language must be taught to articulate the labio-velars /gb/
and /kp/. The Ìgbò-speaking and Yorùbá-speaking learners of Háúsá
as a second language must learn to articulate [ts] not as sequence
of [t] and [s] but as a voiceless co-articulated homorganic
alveolar [ts] phoneme in Háúsá. Phonologically, the [ts] is
regularly realised as a variant of the voiceless fricative /s/. The
Yorùbá and Ìgbò learners of Háúsá should not disintegrate the [ts]
into a sequence of [t] and [s]; they must learn to articulate them
as a single phoneme. So also, the Háúsá speaking learners should
not disintegrate [kp] and [gb] into discreet alphabet of [k] and
[p] and [g[and [b] respectively. They must learn to articulate
them as single phonemes. Háúsá is the only one of the three that
attests long vowels.

The syllabic characteristics of each language should be noted and
taught accordingly. In Háúsá, for example, syllable weight is an
important variable because of the role they play in the Háúsá
morphological processes. The syllabic structure of the language
should be useful in the teaching of the pronunciation because the
three Nigerian languages are syllable timed. Long Háúsá vowels
should never be realised in closed syllables.

3.1.2 Tones in Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá

Tones are the equivalent of intonation. Tones characterise most
Niger-Congo languages such as Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá. Tones are the
variations in the pitch of the glottis to make lexical and
grammatical meaning. In tone languages there are three level tones:
the high tone marked ´, the low tone marked ` and the mid tone

marked -. Usually for convenience, the mid tone is usually left unmarked. There are also contour tones.

Tones play a significant role in languages where they are attested. Important as tones are in making lexical and syntactic distinctions, not many people, including linguists, like to mark tones because they are difficult to mark in writing. All first language speakers of tone languages know intuitively how to mark tones in speech, but not all know how to mark them in writing, except they have the training in tone marking.

Tone marking is part of the teaching you have to give to your students learning any of the three languages as a second a language. You must teach your students how tones are marked in the second language. Tones are significant in second language teaching and must be taught to:
1) aid the pronunciation and oral communication in the second language;
2) make meaning distinctions and disambiguate any word with multiple meanings, and
3) use tones as criteria to build minimal pairs in tone languages and to isolate idiophones.

You must remember that tones are easily confused and/taken for minimal pairs. You must teach your students to recognise and mark tones. Tones are not particularly pleasant to mark, even by linguists and language teachers. But as for you, you must teach them and encourage your students to tone mark in order to assist them to perceive, recognise and produce them orally and mark them in writing, especially, to disambiguate idiophones in writing. As you have read, although all first language speakers are able to mark tones in speech, they still have to be taught how to mark tones in their first language. Native speakers and non-native speakers alike have to be taught tone marking in writing. The music notes d. r. m are used to represent tones this way:

- The musical note d: is used to denote low tone this way /`/ as in dòdò, àkàrà (Yorùbá).
- The musical note r: is used to mark the mid tone. Incidentally, the mid tone is regularly unmarked. So, whenever a vowel is unmarked, you should understand or interpret it as a mid tone.
- The musical note m: is used to represent the high tone as in /!/ as in omi (Yorùbá).

Reading relevant and related passages as well as the use of rhymes and songs are some of the ways tones can be taught and practised.

The difficulty involved in tone is not the one-tone or monotone words but in polytonal words or polysyllabic words. Polytonal and polysyllabic words are difficult in terms of pronunciation because

111

of the associated pitch or rhythm variations; but that is where the
beauty of pronunciation of Nigerian words lies, the same way
intonations beautify intonation languages.
One additional reason why you must tone mark is the ambiguity
inherent in idiophones in writing. In speech, idiophones are easily
recognised in context; written in isolation, they are not. This
will be shown for you in the examples below. They are taken from a
number of Nigerian languages. In Yorùbá, for example, you will need
appropriate tone marking to know which of the many possibilities
the sequence of the segments /i/, /gb/ and /a/ really refers to.
Otherwise, it will remain ambiguous:
   1. igbá, a calabash, mid-low;
   2. ìgbà, time or period, low-low;
   3. ìgbá, the locust bean pod, low-high,
   4. igba, two hundred, mid-mid.

The sequence ö+w+ö without tone marking is equally riddled with
ambiguity. Tone marked, it could have any of five possible
meanings:

   1. ôwô, a town in OÃdó State of Nigeria;
   2. öwõ low-high (hand);
   3. öwô mid-low (broom),
   4. ôwõ low-high (unit).
   5.
In Háúsá, we have the following examples:

In Ìgbò, we have the following examples:
   1. óké   male
   2. òké   rat
   3. ókè   boundary
   4. orí   head
   5. òrí   shear butter (Abíõdún, 2011, pp. 53 & 54).

Tone in Háúsá may be illustrated with the following examples:
   6. wááríí, a bad odour
   7. "wáárìì, „one of a pair of shoes"
   8. súúmááa, „hair on a man"s head"
   9. d r   „type of game"
   10.   dár   „red cap" (Àmfàní, 2011, p. 144).

Tones play lexico-semantic functions. i.e., they help to
distinguish meaning in items with identical segmental phonemes as
in the examples above. Tones also play syntactic or grammatical
roles. For example:
   11.   Gíáá nèè   „it is a house."
   12.   Audú néé.   It is Audú.
   13.   Yáárínyàà céé. She is a girl
   14.   Kúúráá cèè. It is a hyena
   15.   She is a girl (Àmfàní, 2011, p. 145).

Igbo examples are illustrated using Ìgbò words   *igwe*   and *aka*   and *akwa*. Notice that the meaning of each of the phone sequences change as the tones change.

    16.   ígwè, iron
    17.   ìgwè, plenty/many
    18.   ígwé, sky/heaven

    19.   áká, hand
    20.   àkà, tick
    21.   ákà, beads

    22.   àkwà, bed
    23.   ákwà, clothes
    24.   ákwá, cry (Iloene, 2011, p. 182).

Tones are lexically and semantically important. "They are used to separate the meaning of words which are otherwise identical in their segmental composition," (Iloene, 2011, p. 182). The teacher of Nigerian languages must teach tone and tone marking to students of Nigerian languages. Minimal pairing may be very useful in teaching second language tones and segmental phonemes. This must be done in *a lively context* through *intensive practice* using *minimal pairing*, sentences *in dialogues*, *conversations,* reading of relevant passages and so.

3.1.3 Idiophones

Idiophones are homophones; a set of lexemes whose meaning can be determined only by contexts or situations of usage. Idiophones are common features of Nigerian languages. Idiophones are commonly ambiguous. Tones generally help to disambiguate individual words such as in the examples given earlier. Tones change individual word pronunciation and meaning but the spelling remains unchanged. Idiophones have their tones constant, but have more than one meaning. While you need tone marks to disambiguate individual words to effect pronunciation and meaning, in idiophones, you need the context or situation of word usage to know which specific meaning associated with an idiophone. In this sense, tone marks are phonological and syntactic, while idiophones are strictly semantic and syntactic.

Tones are phonemic in Nigerian languages. Depending on where they are placed, a sequence of phonemes may have this meaning or the other. Tone marking, therefore, helps to disambiguate the written word. Idiophones carry their tones naturally in isolation. What is required is their context or situation of usage to pin down their meaning. Contexts or situations help to specify which one of two or more possible meaning an idiophone could have.

Contexts are very important in resolving ambiguity in idiophones, especially, where an intoned word has more than one level of meaning or interpretation. We"ll give you some examples. In Yorùbá, we have the following examples:

      1. ôwô, a town in OÃdó State of Nigeria
        ôwô (mid tone) respect, reverence.

Òró, when used in the sense illustrated here with a low-high tone, is ambiguous. Òró could be the Ìgbómìnà-speaking community in Kwárá State or it could mean to *stand erect*. In Òró town, you can say:

  1. Má tô l"*ró* (Don"t urinate in r community

or you can warn against people standing to piss:
  2. M t l"*òró* (Don"t urinate standing), (Yusuf 1999).

The data given above, *ôwô and òró* are all idiophones and, therefore, ambiguous. You will need the context of occurrence (in a sentence) to disambiguate each of them and having disambiguated the idiophone, encourage the students to make sentences in the second language to ensure that the idiophone has been properly understood. Orthography, used in the sense of punctuation, such as the use of the capitalization of Òró for a community, can help to disambiguate Òró and òró. Your teaching should encourage the students to make sentences in the second language to ensure that idiophones are properly understood.

3.1.4 Handling Confusing Superficial Similarities and Differences

1. Pay attention to superficial similarities, especially, between the regular letters, e.g., k, g, and their glottalised forms and their alphabet representation:

    i). phonemes /kw Ýw kj/, /Ýj/ and /gw gj/   and /gy/ are written respectively in the orthography as k, Ý and g when they are followed by o or u; in the   phonemic variants in Háúsá.

    ii). Phonemes /kj gj/ are respectively written in the orthography as k, Ý and g before i or e, also in Háúsá.

    iii). û, ä, and Ý are sometimes written in the orthography as b, d and g (Hoffman and Schachter 1969, p. 76). Your duty as a teacher of Háúsá as a second language is to define and delineate for your students when it is optional to write as û, ä, and Ý as phonemes and when to write them in their regular forms as b, d and k.

114

2. You must demonstrate in practice, especially in pronunciation and syntax, a proficiency level that is academically and professionally higher than the average Háúsá, or Ìgbò or Yorùbá-speaker teacher by being able to explain linguistic processes which native speakers know and observe but cannot explain. For example, although the voiceless bilabial plosive /p/ which Háúsá has as the voiceless central fricative /÷/ appears to sound as the voiceless labiodental fricative /f/, you know that it is not a labio-dental, even though we advise that you should accept it as such. The second common difficulty is the voiced palate-alveolar affricate /Z/ which Háúsá does not have. Since it does have the voiceless counterpart, /Σ/, you should consciously teach your students to add voicing to /Σ/ to give its voiced counterpart, /Z/.

3. In teaching the voiceless palatal fricative /Σ/ and its alveolar counterpart /s/ to the Háúsá or the Ìgbò student, you as teacher of Yorùbá as a second language must remember that these two phonemes are variants in some dialects of Yorùbá. The teacher of Yorùbá must note these and teach them as distinct phonemes using the harmonized subscripts þ and ý for /Σ/ to make the S and s distinction. Get the students to [practise the sounds first in isolation, then in minimal pairs with words, sentences, larger contexts such as reading passages, dialogues and conversation.

4. The phonemes representing the velaric nasal /Š/, and the palatal nasal /ʲ/ present in Ìgbò may be confusing to the Háúsá and Yorùbá students. To overcome the confusion, all illustrations involving these sounds should be rigorously practical in their phonetic symbols and in graphemes, emphasizing each time the environment.

5. The implosive occurs in Háúsá. These will attract extra attention from you teachers of Háúsá, especially to Yorùbá speakers. Implosives, also described as glottalised sounds, are common in Ìgbò Háúsá. The teacher of Ìgbò or Háúsá to the Yorùbá-speaking students should take note of this. In place of implosives, Ìgbò has aspirated plosives and nasalised fricatives. These may constitute pronunciation difficulty for Háúsá and Yorùbá learners of Ìgbò as a second language. These are at the phonetic level. They may not constitute orthography problem because they are not necessarily used in writing Ìgbò.

3.2 Teaching Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá Lexis and Structure

The hypothetical focus here is principally the Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá lexicon/word and vocabulary, morphology and the sentence.

Part of the psychological and cognitive properties of all native speakers of a language is that they naturally *know* the language and *speak* it without receiving any formal instructions. They *recognise* the words as *the words of their language* whenever they *hear* them. Therefore, the students who speak any of the three major languages as first language will have imbibed the systems of the language before going to school at six. At school they may formally learn the structure of the langrage whose system they have naturally imbibed. The learners of any of the three languages as a second language will bring into the learning situation, only their first language competence and their general learning and problem solving abilities. The problems facing the two sets of learners are, therefore, different. The native speaker has all the competence except the ability to recognise the written words of the language and how they are structured. The second language learner, on the other hand, faces all the problems associated with second language learning- inability to speak the language, inability to recognise the second language words in writing.

Every language utterance consists of *phonemes* to make the word or *lexicon*; words have structure or morphology and are strung together to make sentences. The students must be taught to recognize the second language word or lexicon independently from his own lexicon, the same way he recognizes an English word when he hears or sees it.

Every Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá lexicon consists of a phonemic sequence and/or a morphological sequence such as the syllable. The lexicon, therefore, has a definite and recognisable shape or structure in the form of syllables. The Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá syllable enhances *phonemic sequence* and *pronunciation* and *spelling* and enhances as well, *reading* and *writing*. The Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá lexical item is, therefore, central to the understanding of their lexicon. This is particularly so for Háúsá which is very person, number and gender sensitive. It teaching the three major Nigerian languages, the lexicon should be given the necessary attention. The lexicon in structure should be taught in a dynamic way, beginning from the recognition of the lexical item. The recognition procedure should include the following processes listed below.

1. Writing the word on the board or showing it clearly in a textbook for all to see. This will make it possible for the students to see the phonemes/graphemes or letters that make up the word. When you do this, you are appealing to their visual perception and enhancing their visual memory and promoting their visual memory of the phonemic sequencing of the word and promoting the spelling of the word.

116

2. Giving a model pronunciation of the word. You should do this
   so well that you ensure the auditory discrimination of the
   word so well that the students do not confuse the word with
   others with similar pronunciation.

3. Using the word in sentences. You should ensure that the word
   is used in sentences by as many members of the class as
   possible. The word could be put into a larger context usage by
   reading from relevant passages, storytelling, dialogues and
   conversations and so on.

3.2.1 Lexical Properties and Second Language Morphology

One very important characteristic of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá lexicon
is that it has   *lexical properties*, that is, natural or inherent
features of nominal and verb categories. The lexical properties of
nominal categories are those of person, number and gender and those
of verbal category are tense and aspect. Tense and aspect features
make for agreement and grammaticality in sentence construction.
Lexical   properties   are   central   to   the   lexicon   because   they
„specify" the *linguistic properties* that guide the use of such
lexicons or lexical items. The classification of the lexicon into
lexical categories or what is commonly called *parts of speech* or
word class- the noun, the pronoun, the verb, the adjective, the
adverb, the preposition, article and so on, is in part, determined
by the inherent properties of the lexicon. Lexical properties are
syntactic and so the teaching of lexis and structures is syntactic.
Lexis and structures are word based and have order in sentence
constructions. The lexical categories to which the word may be
grouped are listed above. Because Háúsá explicitly exhibits lexical
properties   of   person,   number   and   gender   we   will   examine   these
features in Háúsá. Ìgbò and Yorùbá, do not explicitly exhibit these
features.
Person, number and *gender* features characterize the nominal group.
The term „person" refers to the order in which the individual is
speaking either as a *first, second* or *third* person. The lexical
feature of number can be singular of plural. Number refers to
whether the relative position of the subject of a sentence and it
either plural or singular.

The features of *person, number* and *gender* are explicitly marked in
Háúsá   while   in   Ìgbò   and   Yorùbá,   they   are   only   notionally   or
contextually marked. Lexical features are syntactic and in Háúsá,
they   account   for   the   grammaticality   of   the   sentence.   In   other
words, while Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá nouns exhibit the features of
person and number, Háúsá explicitly marks gender.   Your duty as a
teacher of a Nigerian language is to ascertain how lexical features
are marked or expressed in the language you teach by constantly
drawing   your   students"   attention   to   them   to   ensure   correct   or

acceptable usage. The following questions may guide the language teacher.

1. What lexical properties do the language I teach exhibit?
2. Are these features explicitly marked?
3. If so, how are they expressed?

Questions such as the above should guide the Nigerian language teacher of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá nominal groups. They will also assist him/her in the teaching of the morphology of Nigerian languages. The various ways and the variant forms these are expressed are important; they should be clearly shown and practised in class. For example, although plurality is generally confined to nominal category, some Nigerian languages including Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá pluralize adjectival category as well. In teaching plurality, all other lexical categories pluralized must be recognized and taught. We will cite a few examples of lexical features Háúsá to show morphologically marked items across number and gender features.

Háúsá marks number and gender. It is, therefore, for that reason, being singled out for illustration. The *explicit Háúsá gender marking* makes it stand out distinct from the *neuter* position of Ìgbò and Yorùbá. It uses various vowels to mark gender at the suffix position and marks plurality also at the suffix position. Examples taken from Àmfàní (2011, p. 146) are used to exemplify these features.

Item	root	gender	Gender marking	number	Number marking	Morphological position	Gloss
wátà	wát-	fem.	-a	singular	-a	suffix	moon/month
wàtànni	wátà	fem.	-a	Plural	-nni	suffix	moons/months
mànzó	manz-	masc.	-o	singular	-o	suffix	messenger
manzanni	Manz-	masc.	-o	plural	-anni	sffix	messenger

Háúsá words wátà and mànzó have been used to show the lexical features of number (plural and singular), gender (masculine/feminine) features and their morphologies-root and morphological positions, suffix formation.

The following example show plural marking in Háúsá

Item sg.
Gloss
gídá
house/houses

118

shéhè
bastard/bastards

white/whites
dógó
long/long ones
(Amfani, 2011. p. 149)

More examples of gender sensitiveness in Háúsá may be seen in the following examples.

gloss

male donkey/female donkey

male visitor/female visitor

The thing to note is the affixation (morphological change) that takes place in Háúsá number and gender. These forms are critical to note in the teaching of Háúsá to non-Háúsá students. They remain two important areas of differences between Háúsá language and Ìgbò and Yorùbá languages.

In teaching second language morphology, you should take note of the *morpho-syntactic and morpho-phonemic effect of word structure*, especially, lexical features of person, number gender and case *on lexical categories and their syntactic structure*. Háúsá exhibits this characteristic and we will discuss this very briefly in terms of person, number and gender. This is because these features, so essential and rigid in Háúsá, are not as rigid in Yorùbá and Ìgbò. This is why we are highlighting them further, using the example of Newman"s (1991) *five number (singular and plural)* categories of *masculine-masculine pronominal distinctions* and *tense* to morphologically illustrate the Háúsá nominal. Using a three-pronoun-paradigm, Newman (1991) demonstrates the five categories of Háúsá object and possessive case as follows:

While

	independent	Object pronoun	Object clitic	Indirect object	Possessive
1	Níi	Ní	-ni	-ni	-(w)a
2 male	Káí	Ká	-kà	-kà	-kà
2 female	Kéé	Kí	-kí	-kí	-kí
3 male	Shíí	Shí	Shí	-sá	-sá
3 female	Ítá	Tá	-tá	-tá	-tá
1 plural	Múu	Mú	-mú	-ná	-mú
2 plural	Kúu	Kú	Kú	- kú	- kú
3 plural	Sú	Sú	-sú	- sú	- sú

119

specific gender distinction makes Háúsá interesting to learn and speak, it has the potential to be difficult because the learner may not be able to continually make such gender distinctions. Therefore, as a reminder to the teacher of Háúsá, you should realise the fact that:

- the independent pronoun sets are used as absolute pronouns: *Káí, yáaròo ne*. **You're a boy**).
- object pronouns are used as direct objects of certain grades of verbs: *Náa kàrantà sù*. (**I read them**).
- the object clitic are used as direct object of other grades of verbs: *Náa tàambáayée sù* (**I asked them**)
- indirect objects are bound to be indirect object markers.
- the possessive sets are used with the gender sensitive linkers such as *na* plural masculine

What functions in Háúsá as the tense to reflect *mood and aspect* is indicated by the genitive marker attached to the preverbal pronoun. While morphologically, some of the markers are clearly segmentable, others cannot because they consist of tone or vowel length modifications of the basic pronoun (Newman, 1991). These morphological complexities of Háúsá are basic to the understanding of Háúsá. Using copious examples, you should, as a teacher of Háúsá as a second language, *bring out* these morphological complexities including various tense/aspect/mood markers indicating pronouns as perfective, negative perfectives, the future, the predictive, habitual, subjunctive continuous and negative continuous.

3.2.2 Second Language Morphology

The morphological type exhibited by a language also affects its structure. For example, Nigerian languages are generally partly isolating and partly agglutinating or calquing. This means in reality that as a result of various morphological or morphophonemic processes involved in the formation of many Nigerian words, the words of Nigerian languages are written either as independent single words or two or more words may be written together as a single word. The situation where two or more words are written together as one word is called agglutination or calquing. These can be seen in words written across lexical categories such as noun-noun word formation, noun-verb word formation, noun-adjective word formation, verb-noun word formation and so on. The major problem of calquing is inability to easily clearly delineate word or morpheme boundaries. Some of these formations make it naturally difficult for people without linguistic training to recognise word or morpheme boundaries. Your second language students may find it difficult to recognise word or morpheme boundaries. Therefore, in teaching Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá lexical items, you have to make your students

- recognize and respect second language *word/morpheme boundaries;*
- learn and correctly reflect in writing second language word building/morphology in general;
- distinguish between single second language lexemes and calqued words;
- properly pronounce second language lexical items, and
- correctly spell of second language lexemes.

These factors are crucial to the teaching of either Ìgbò or Yorùbá to Háúsá speaking students. Yorùbá and Ìgbò names typify isolating and calquing.

3.2.2.1 A Note on Morphological Alternations

Morphological alternations are common across the three languages. You should note environment for alternation and teach them to Nigerians learning Háúsá as a second language. We"ll give some example: whenever a front vowel follows the voiceless alveolar stop /t/, the voiceless alveolar fricatives /s z/ undergo changes as follows:

- /t/ palatalises into /tΣ/, represented in regular Háúsá orthography as c as in sáatàà (stealing), saace (stolen).
- /s/ palatalises into [Σ], represented in Háúsá orthography as in
- /z/ palatalises into [j], represented in regular Hausa orthography (Pulleyblank 1991).

The equivalent of these in Yorùbá is the [l] and [r] alternation. Therefore, the teacher of Yorùbá to Háúsá, Ìgbò students learning Yorùbá as second language must recognise the environment for alternations. Ìgbò and Yorùbá students learning Háúsá as a second language may find the morphophonemic alternation in Háúsá difficult to perceive, recognise and produce. Háúsá and Ìgbò students may find the alternation of the lateral plosive [l] and alveolar roll [r] approximants found in Yorùbá difficult to master while Háúsá students may find the labio-velar /kp/ and /gb/ which are common features shared by Ìgbò and Yorùbá and many Benue-Congo speakers, difficult to perceive, recognise and produce. These linguistic processes are challenges for the Nigerian teachers of Nigerian languages as second.

In Yoruba, the vowel /]/ ö, is an acceptable variant of the phoneme /a/, a. you should note this in your teaching of Yorùbá to Háúsá and or Ìgbò students. In some dialects of Ìgbò, the lateral plosive /l/ and the alveolar roll /r/ are variants in some dialects of Ìgbò. In teaching Ìgbò to Háúsá and or Yorùbá speaking students, you must remember to keep these phonemes distinct. As a matter of

common interest, vowel epenthesis is common as a result of the syllable structure of Niger-Congo languages. These must never be carried across languages. On a final note, you must keep abreast of linguistic, psychological and social evolutions in the language you teach and keep abreast of harmonisations and reflect them in orthography teaching and practice.

Háúsá is the only language among the three major languages that makes a phonemic distinction between long and short vowels. This distinction, however, does not hold in Háúsá orthography. Distinguishing of short vowels is probably not going to be difficult to recognise because of their universal applicability. We may not be able to say the same thing for the long vowels. The students will have come across them in English and their native languages. So, we can say that they have brought into the learning of Háúsá measure of input competence. The examples cited will serve to reinforce that competence.

3.2.4 Inflections

Although the three languages are not inflectional in the tradition of inflectional languages, we have noted that at the least, Háúsá is morphologically explicitly inflectional in number and gender marking. Besides, it also exhibits many case formations. You will remember that genetically, Háúsá is Afro-asiatic with its own peculiar linguistic processes and the elaborate nominal case formation reflecting person, number and gender remain a case in point. Therefore, in teaching Háúsá to Ìgbò and Yorùbá students, you must make be conscious of nominal markings distinctions by recognizing them and teaching them to your Ìgbò, or Yorùbá and/or others learning Háúsá as a second language.

Ìgbò and Yorùbá are Kwa and share genetic features differently from West Chadic Afro-Asiatic Háúsá. Ìgbò and Yorùbá exhibit common and individual morphophonemic and morphosyntactic features which affect their lexis and structure. As a first language speaker and teacher, you have to be aware of them, recognise them and point them out in your teaching. For example, the three major languages are partly agglutinative and partly isolating while Hausa is partly inflectional. This means that some of the words stand out as distinct individual words while others exist as compound or fused words while in Háúsá, we can clearly identify root words and their suffix inflections (pages 95 and 96 above). The following implications should be borne in mind by teacher/teachers of Nigerian languages:
  1. that at the level of writing, it is will be easier to identify individual Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá words in isolation;
  2. relatively difficult to determine word/morpheme boundaries especially in agglutinated Ìgbò and Yorùbá words, and

3. word/morpheme boundary being made more complex by the fact
   that sometimes, the process could be prosodic, noted only in
   speech, not in writing.
Areas of practical difficulty will be found in such word formation
process across lexical categories:
    noun-verb word formation;
    verb-noun words formation;
    noun-noun word formation;
    adjective-noun word formation, and so on.

Perhaps, even more intriguing is the morphological process of
calquing (the compression of a whole sentence into one word that
characterises Yorùbá names). These are some of the common
linguistic features that the teachers must teach while teaching
Nigerian languages.

3.2.5 Second Language Sentence

Sentences identified are the simple sentence, the compound sentence
and the complex sentence. The sentence word order of the three
major languages is essentially the same. The teaching of sentences
should, therefore, include the three major sentence types, focusing
attention on the syntactic characteristic of each type and how to
recognise them syntactically.

You should be guided by the characteristics of each sentence type.
For example, the word order of the simple sentence may be modified
in several ways as follows:
1). a singular subject and a singular verb: subject +a verb;
2). a single subject + a compound verb;
3). a compound subject +a singular verb, and
4). a compound subject with a compound verb.

The second language compound sentence is simply when two simple
sentences are brought together as one sentence using any of
appropriate conjunctions in the second language. The beauty of the
compound sentence is the ability to vary it to avoid monotony. The
complex sentence involves the need to teach them to construct
sentences with two distinct parts, a full clause usually called the
independent clause and the dependent clause or the main clause and
the subordinate clause.

You should teach the second language in accordance to how the
second language sentence is manifested at the surface level. For
example, although the three major languages share/exhibit the same
subject-verb-object (S-V-O) word order, this order is not
necessarily realised the same way at the surface level by the three
languages. The variations should be recognised and taught. For
example, Háúsá permits a noun-pronoun sequence that allows for a
sentence such as

Musa, he is coming. (Musa ina zuwa).
Amina, she is a girl. (Amina ta na zuwa

Sentence types are internalized by your students by:
a) getting them to recognise and analyse them;
b) by speaking, using them in storytelling, conversation, debated, dramatisation;
c) reading them in books, and
d) using them to write essays.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

Identify or list 10 Ìgbò and Yorùbá names each and analyse the morphological make up of such names as evidence of agglutination and calquing.

3.3 Pragmatics, Discourse and Communicative Competence in the Teaching of Háúsá,
Ìgbò and Yorùbá

3.3.1 Pragmatics in the Teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá

The potentials of pragmatics and discourse should be explored in the teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá. So far we have tried to approach lexis and structure from the point of overt meaning of the lexicon in structure. However, it is not all the time that the lexicon has an obvious ordinary meaning in communication. The ability of the learner to understand the intended or applied meaning in a communication situation is pragmatics. According to Yule, 3003:127):

When we read or hear pieces of language, we normally try to understand *what the words mean*, and also *what the writer or speaker intended to convey*. The study of speaker"s intended meaning is called *pragmatics*. One way the Nigerian language teacher can handle a speaker"s or writer"s intended meaning in Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá is to teach lexis and structure in Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá   *beyond the surface meaning*.   The Nigerian language teacher can achieve this by
   a) teaching the lexis of the three major Nigerian languages beyond the surface level;
   b) teaching the students to interpret Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá lexis and structure to discover invisible or hidden meaning;
   c) teaching Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá idioms and figures of speech and proverbs in the three major languages;
   d) teaching Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá lexis and structure within their contexts and situations;
   e) teaching Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá lexis and structure in such a manner that "the physical context of the speaker is known"

(Yule, 2003, p. 12). The Nigerian language teacher can do this by teaching the students of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as second language the strategies of recognising and using the appropriate pragmatics of *deictic expressions* and utterance function and focus. The examples of deictic expressions are

   i.   deixis of place or location – *here, there, this, that*,
  ii.   deixis of time *now, then, yesterday*, *today,*
 iii.   deixis of pronouns, I, you, he, she, *such* and so on.

The implication is that the Nigerian language teacher must teach the learners of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as second language how to recognise and interpret deictic expressions in Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yor b "in terms of what person, place, and time the speaker has in mind" (Yule, 2003, p. 130) and teach them as well, what to look for in their attempt to 1) relate the functions of Nigerian language utterances to the components of communicative events and 2), to distinguish between different functions when different components are in focus (Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson, 1984, p. 40). The objective of doing this will be to enable the students to make out "inferred meaning" from encoded meaning (McGregor, 2009, p. 148). The function and focus of utterance in Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá are listed as follows

Function	**Focus On**
Expressive	Addresser
Directive	Addressee
Referential	Setting
Metalinguistic	Code
Phatic	Contact
Poetic	Message form

(Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson, 1984, p. 41).

The essence of teaching the pragmatic function and focus in second language communication is for the learners of any of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as a second language to be able to bring out hidden meaning when communicating in the second language. We will briefly explain function- focus in second language communication.

The learners of any of the three Nigerian languages should be able to distinguish the various function and foci of utterances such as are listed below:

1. an expressive function when the focus is on the addresser;
2. it performs an directive function if the focus is on the addressee, that is the listener or hearer;
3. it performs a referential function if the focus is the communication/utterance setting;
4. an utterance performs a Metalinguistic function when the focus has to do with the language code;
5. it performs a phatic function if the focus if there is physical contact between the speaker and the hearer, and

6. it performs a poetic function if the focus is on the form of

  the message (Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson, 1984, pp. 41-
  43).

The communication functions and foci listed above should be seen as mere guidelines because there are no sacrosanct rules for the classification of communication functions and foci. The Nigerian language teacher is expected to sensitize Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá students to the contexts and situations of sentences and communication in order for them to make out the hidden meaning in oral and written communication. To make pragmatics effective, the teacher of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá should always try to:
  1. specify the various contexts for communication and give extensive opportunities for the students identify the focus of the utterance or communication;
  2. create opportunity in class for interaction in pairs for the class to identify language function and focus;
  3. provide audiovisual opportunity for the analysis of language communication in any of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá, and
  4. encourage dramatisation in the second language for contextual analysis.

3.3.2 Discourse Analysis in the Teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá

Closely related to pragmatics in Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá teaching is discourse analysis of   Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá texts. Discourse analysis involves the teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá in the context of language/speech as social interaction and it involves the study/ analysis of the written code or speech above the sentence level (Hudson, 2001). The Nigerian language teacher must imbibe in the learners of any of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as a second language, the skills of analysing any of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá language as a text: "the analysis of the structuring principles, other than the grammatical rules   which speakers follow when producing a text within a certain communicative event" (Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson, 1984, pp. 61).   Such structuring principles necessary for interpreting Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá texts are those of cohesion and *cohesive links*, coherence, consisting of cohesive links which make sense and those which do not, speech events, conversational interactions, the cooperative principles in terms of quantity, quality, relation- relevance and manner- brevity, clarity and sequence (Yule 2003).

One way to teach Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá is to expose the Nigerian student learners of any of three languages to a large corpus of texts in the language through reading and analysis of the code. This will enable them to see how the author has put the language of study into writing and what principles of written communication the author has used to effect communication. Therefore, the Nigerian language teacher should make students of Háúsá or Ìgbò or Yorùbá

read, *analyse*, and *interpret* texts based on the author's writing in spite of what he says and how he has said it. Students are expected to be able individually recognise connected discourse as opposed to jumbled or incoherent discourse.

3.3.3 Communicative Competence in the Teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá

Communicative Competence is the learner's ability to use the second language, that is, Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá accurately, appropriately and flexibly (Yule 2003, p. 197). Communicative ability, therefore, represents a shift emphasis away from the rules of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation towards an emphasis on the ability to use language (Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson, 1984, pp. 167). To be communicatively competent, the learner of any of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá has to be able to demonstrate in speech and writing:
1. the *phonology* and *orthography* of any of the three major languages;
2. the grammar of any of the three major languages;
3. the lexicon of any of the three major languages;
4. pragmatics;
5. discourse, and
6. communicative strategies (Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson, 1984).

In the teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá to Nigerian students, therefore, the Nigerian language teacher should strive to:
a) promote a fusion of linguistic competence and communicative competence in the Nigerian student learning any of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as a second language in Nigeria;
b) use pragmatic and discourse knowledge as a meeting point for linguistic competence and actual language use among Nigerian students learning any of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as a second language in Nigeria;
c) promote *pragmatic competence*, that is, make the students *act by means of language* in ways *appropriate* to their communicative intentions, the contexts in which they communicate and to the discourse in which their verbal contributions fit;
d) make learners able to use strategic competence to solve their communicative needs whenever they find themselves unable to activate the necessary linguistic and/or competence to communicate, and
e) *promote fluency in their learning the three major Nigerian languages (Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson 1984).*
At the methodological level, the students would require individual and group work and *attention* in the skills of speaking, reading and writing of the three major languages. The attention could be given through group discussions, debates, oration, dramatisation in any of the three major Nigerian languages.

127

3.4 Resources for Teaching Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá

"Resources" for the teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá refers to everything that is deemed necessary for the teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as second language. The resources may be divided into *human* and *material resources*.

3.4.1 Human Resources

By far, you are the greatest resource in all human endeavours. Human brain force is the resource in every human endeavour. You are the principal human resource in the teaching of Nigerian languages. We will briefly to look at factors/attributes that make you naturally the greatest resource. As a teacher, you are the most useful and dependable resource in the teaching of Nigerian languages. This is because you are endowed with human-specific attributes that make you stand out as a resource. As a human being, you are capable of undergoing academic and professional instruction designed to make you a resource. I"ll cite some of the expectations or resources expected of you as a teacher of a Nigerian language.

1. **Academic Resource**

   To qualify to teach a Nigerian language as a second language to Nigerian students, you will have undergone a formal course of study in linguistics, literature and culture of the language you teach and will have obtained a minimum of first degree in the subject. The course of study could either be here in Nigeria or outside Nigeria.

2. It is expected that as a teacher of a Nigerian language in Nigeria, you will have obtained at the least, NCE, (Nigeria Certificate in Education) in Háúsá, Ìgbò or Yorùbá which is the very minimum academic qualification you require to teach any of these Nigerian languages in a Nigerian secondary school. You normally would have obtained this after a three year of academic and professional instruction in a College of Education in Nigeria. In the alternative, you should hold a first degree in any of the three languages after a formal course of study in the linguistics, literature and culture of the language, plus relevant or cognate courses in such related disciplines as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and related or relevant educational, including practicum either in a University in Nigeria or outside it. These give you, the teacher of a Nigerian language, the necessary equipment for the teaching of any of the three major languages as a second language in Nigeria. The academic training makes you, a resource superior to the native speaker teacher who does not have the necessary academic equipping beyond being a native

speaker to teach a Nigerian language as a second language. You are able to handle the linguistics and structural intricacies which the native speaker knows but which he/she is unequipped to handle. The cognate courses and the practicum equip you with relevant non-linguistic knowledge relating to the learners in terms of how language is acquired and used in the society and how to teach him to acquire the second language.

3. You are a native speaker of the Nigerian language you teach. In addition to the academic and professional competencies you have acquired through formal training, you are expected to bring into the teaching situation an added asset or value, and input competence higher than that of the non-native teacher of the second language teaching situation. Some of such advantages are:

> a) a native speaker intuition and competence- linguistic and communicative competence;

> b) a natural understanding of the sociolinguistic terrain of the language such as traditional modes of greeting, dressings, food items, seasons and times, and so on, and

> c) the natural proficiency, ease and facility in handling linguistic structure, and processes peculiar to the language being taught.

As a first language speaker of the Nigerian language you teach, you are an individual who is academically and professionally equipped to teach your language of specialisation. You are, therefore, expected to display a natural ability for the understanding, processing and explaining of the linguistic richness of your language in terms of the proverbs, idioms and expressions that are commonly available and expressed within the socio-cultural and sociolinguistic terrain of the language. You should do this better than a native speaker who does not have these other attributes.

It is my contention that a native speaker-teacher who has your kind of attributes should be free from the handicap that faces every non-native speaker-teacher of a second language - the absence of natural intuitions about the second language. If you lack natural intuitions about the language you teach, you will become the source of a type of second language teaching difficulty that may be tagged „teacher induced second language learning difficulty." This kind of difficulty is quite different from the regular classroom-induced or pedagogically-induced second language errors. The former may arise from your insufficient understanding of the language you are teaching while the latter may arise from your own teaching process. Although there may not be anything sacrosanct about the non-native speaker teaching a language as a second language, the second

language teacher who acquired the language as a second language himself is usually deficient in such areas as pronunciation and spelling, tones, agreement between one lexical item or category and another and in second language idioms.

Difficulty in second language pronunciation is usually the first deficiency noticed or observed in non-native speakers. The deficiency manifests in the pronunciation of individual items in isolation and in connected speech. Inability to use the correct or expected tone often clearly points out one as deficient in second language. Incidentally, the three languages are all tone languages. The second language speaker may be deficient in the understanding of second language idioms beyond the literal level. I hope you remember that idiomatic expressions have meanings that go beyond the literal to the metaphorical level.

My own personal and general experience as a teacher of English as a second language has shown me that as a non-native speaker teacher of English as a second language, I have not escaped the effect of my native linguistic background in the course of my teaching English as a second language. My assumption, therefore, is that as a teacher of any of Háúsá or Ìgbò and Yorùbá as a second language to Nigerian secondary school students, you are a native speaker and there will, therefore, be no trace of second language learning difficulty arising from your lack of sufficient knowledge or understanding of the language you are teaching. This way, you will not be a source of L_1 to your students.

Your resourcefulness as an individual is essential in the success of the programme EDU 728, the methods of teaching Nigerian languages. The discussion is so general in nature that it requires your resourcefulness to make it a success. A lot of premium is placed on you, for example, to produce the illustrations in your language of interest while teaching segmental phonemes and their alphabet equivalents.

Where you discover that you are resourceful enough, you may solicit the assistance of experts who are better than you.

3.4.2 Material Resources for the Learning and Teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá

Aside from your personal resourcefulness, there are material resources that are inevitable in the teaching of Nigeria"s three major languages. These are listed for your attention. The resources are stated here:
  1. Visuals: the use of phonetic charts of vowels and consonants, drawings the articulatory organs in the head, throat and the chest.
  2. Relevant language maps of Nigeria

3. Print media such as magazines, newspapers and textbooks in the language
4. Audio aids containing model utterances (native speaker models) and laboratory based resources.
5. Radio the television programmes designed for the teaching of Nigeria"s major languages.
6. Audio-Visuals through the television, videos and CD recordings
7. Internet sources for language teaching sites.
8. Virtual sources- the „read only" and the saleable ones.

The following internet sources are available:
1. Háúsá Omniglot writing systems & languages of the world:
2. http://www.omniglot.com/writing/hausa/htm
3. UCLA: http://www.humnet.ucla.edu/humnet/aflang/Hausa/hausa,html
4. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/hausa_language
5. http://hunnet.ucla.edu./humnet/aflang/Hausa/indexframe.html.
6. http://www.britannica.com.com/EBchecked/topic/257101/Hausa-lang
7. Ethnologue report on Háúsá-http://www.ethnologue.com/show

Ìgbò :
1. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/igbo-lanuage
2. http://www.ethnologue.com./show-language.asp?code=ibo)
3. http://www.igboguide.org/index.php)
4. http://.journalofwestafricanlanguages.org/org/igboid.aspx)
5. *Wikipedia, the free encyclopaedia*, pp. 1-5.
6. Ethnologue   report   on   Ìgbò-http://www.ethnologue.com/show_language.asp?code=ibo)
7. *Journal of West African Languages*:Ìgbòid (http://www.journalofwestafricanlanguages.org/Igboasps)

Foreign Aids Programme for the teaching of native languages
Trips and excursions.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

List the general and specific courses you consider relevant in the preparation of the teacher of a Nigerian language as a second language.

3.4.3 Possible Teaching Techniques

The techniques that can be used to teach the three Nigerian languages are diverse and inexhaustive. Some of them are:
1. Getting the students to speak the language through copiously speaking the language, reading diverse materials on the language, writing on diverse topics related to the language and listening to diverse topics being discussed on the radio and/or television;

2. exposing the students to different linguistic items such as the grammatical, vocabulary, idiomatic forms relevant to the students‟ communicative competence in the language;

3. getting the students to engage in act rive participation in active participation through pair/peer group work, whole class task, and individual work on the langrage;

4. Immerging and submerging the stents in the language through profitable immersion programmes (living in the language area, and

5. Getting the students to work on a cooperative and collaborative manner to execute diverse projects in the language.

3.5 Challenges of Teaching Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá

The challenges of teaching Nigeria‟s major languages are basically similar to the challenges of teaching any second language. They include personnel challenges, academic and professional training challenges and psychological block challenges.

3.5.1 Personnel and Numerical Challenges

The most important challenge is the personnel challenge in terms of numerical strength, that is, the number of us, and that includes you, available and qualified to teach Nigerian languages. Generally, the number of teachers available to teach the major languages is very numerically small compared to the teaching needs and demands of the languages.

All non-native speakers who learn to read and write any of the three languages do so only because they live in the environment where each of these languages is spoken as a first language. The major languages are invariably being taught to students who speak them as first language.

Pertinent to the numerical challenges is the need for the second language teacher to be a native speaker of the second language. This adds an edge and value to his teaching because of the *native speaker intuition* brought to the teaching in addition to the academic and professional training. As a native speaker-teacher of the second language, you naturally bring into the teaching situation, a level of *input competence* higher than that brought by the non-native speaker teacher of a second language.

The level of success in second language teaching is a function of native speaker intuition, academic training and training in related

disciplines. Training in related disciplines includes taking
relevant course or courses in:
   a) the psycholinguistics of language acquisition and second
      language learning;
   b) sociolinguistics, the function of language in society and the
      relationship between language and society;
   c) tackling learning difficulties manifesting as errors in actual
      classroom contact with learners- practical tools or techniques
      in handling second language errors - contrastive analysis and
      error analysis techniques;
   d) learner friendly teaching materials and teaching techniques
      for handling the three major Nigerian languages" and
   e) education-based cores such as for the sociology and
      management of education, practicum and so on to complement
      academic training/instructions skills and techniques in second
      language teaching.

The greatest challenge is the availability of teachers generally
and of Nigerian languages in particular. The various governments
and the Universities have to team up on how to encourage Nigerians
to study Nigerian languages. They should also encourage them, on
graduating, to go into the teaching of Nigerian languages. Next to
the availability of personnel is making material resources
available to teach Nigerian languages. Such resources include
creating a conducive learning environment and all that is required
to promote the teaching of the languages.

3.6 Reversing Current trend in the Teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá

Perhaps the greatest challenge of teaching Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá
to Nigerian students is the need to change the current trend that
negates the spirit of the national language policy. These three
languages are generally taught to students who speak them as first
language. In the minority areas where none of the three languages
is a language of wider communication, no major language is taught
at all.

4.0 Summary

In this unit, you were introduced to the phonemes and graphemes of
Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá. It is emphasized that each language is to
be taught as a second language. We identified for you the alphabet
of each language and their phonemic source. You also read that
orthography is an economic way of using limited number of alphabet
to write or turn a language to its written form. In other words, it
is not all the phonemes attested in a language that are necessarily
used in writing the language. You are encouraged to recognize the
alphabet of each language and for the students, the alphabet of the
language he is learning as a second language. The unit ends with

the resources (human and materials) as well as the techniques that you could adopt in the teaching of the three major Nigerian languages.

5.0 Conclusion

Teaching Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as second language in Nigeria is a cooperative venture involving academic, professional, educational and personal qualities and attitude to succeed. You must be prepared to put the personal touch to these other qualities to succeed.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

1. What do you understand by the term strategy?

2. What do you understand by the term reversing the current trend in the teaching of the three major languages?
3. What strategies would you adopt in the teaching of the lexical categories of Háúsá, ìgbá or Yorùbá?
4. Compare and contrast the segmental phonemes and the official alphabet of your language of interest and explain why there is a discrepancy in the phones identified and the official alphabet adopted in the teaching your language of interest.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignments

1. Yorùbá does not attest the voiceless bilabial /p/ but the labio-velars kp and gb. Why do you think the voiceless bilabial /p/ is used in Yorùbá orthography instead of the voiceless labio-velars kp?
2. Give the characteristics of person, number and gender as features of agreement in Háúsá.
3. Discuss the significance of tone and idiophones in Háúsá, Igbo and Yorùbá.
4. Compare the lexical features of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá and their significance in the teaching of the nominal group in each of the three languages.

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MODULE 3   THE HUMAN LANGUAGE

                    As leaves to a tree
                    Wings to the flying
                     insect Feathers to
                    the flying wing Is
                            language to
                    humanity Solomon A.
                              Aje

This module comes to you in five units:
- UNIT I: The Structure of Language
- UNIT II: The Nature of Language
- Theories of Language Acquisition
- UNIT III: The Characteristics of Language.
- UNIT IV: The Psychological and Pedagogical Basis for Language Acquisition
- UNIT V: Psychological Basis For Language Pedagogy

This module discusses a number of issues on language such as its nature and how it is acquired. It also discusses its origin, its natural endowment of humans, and how all humans are born with the ability to acquire and speak Language. The particular language we speak, however, is determined by where we are raised and what language the people who raise us speak to us while we are growing up. The last unit discusses language acquisition from the standpoint of psychological and pedagogical foundations.

UNIT 1: THE STRUCTURE OF LANGUAGE THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Contents
       3.1 the Sound System
       3.1.1 Consonants
       3.1.2 Vowels
       3.2 The Morphology
       3,3 The Syntax
       3.5 Language Skills
4.0 Summary
5.0 Conclusion
6 Tutor"s Marked Assignments
7.0 References and Other Sources

1.0 Introduction

In addition to characteristics, human language is structured. The structure of language may be listed as phonetics/phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, discourse and pragmatics. These are briefly discussed below.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this Unit, I expect that you should be able to:
- list the structural levels of a Nigerian language;
- able to discuss the characteristics of each language level;
- able to identify the four language skills, and
- able to identify between receptive skills and productive skills.

3.0 Main Contents

The four commonly recognized levels of human language phonetics/phonology, morphology, syntax and the semantics.

3.1 Human Sound System

The sounds that are specific to Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá have been discussed in Module II. Human speech sounds are universal, that is, they occur across human languages. Each language makes use of a set of sounds foe vocalised or oral communication. No two languages make use of exactly the same set of sounds and that is why no two languages, even if they are dialects of each other, ever sound exactly the same. It is impossible to list the sounds if individual

sounds of Nigerian languages. We will recognise general patterns or
tendencies and apply them as added general guidelines to the
teaching of Nigeria"s three major languages.

Human speech sound system generally involves phonetics and
phonology. Phonetics refers to the way human speech sounds are
produced. This kind of study of man speech sands is called
articulatory phonetics. Articulatory phonetics deals with human
speech organs and how these oranges produce the speech sounds.
Articulatory phonetics is the most common way of studying
phonetics. It tells what organ produces what sounds and what
features characterise each sound. Items of study in phonetics are
the vowels, consonants, tones, intonation, stress patterns and so
on. Phonology refers to the processes attested generally and for
individual languages when individual sound units combine with each
other to form words or lexical items.

3.1.1 Implications of Articulatory Phonetics for the Teaching of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá

Articulatory phonetics is the science of human speech production.
The various parts of the body used in speech production are regular
parts of the body that perform specific functions. Speech
production is an added function of these organs. Háúsá, Ìgbò and
Yorùbá speech organs and the sounds they produce have been
`identified in Module II. The organs are located in the head, the
throat and the chest. The lungs generate the energy needed in
speech production.

The nose and the lungs per se do not produce any sounds. The nose
serves as *a passage way* or *outlet* for a number of sounds called
nasal sounds; such sounds are the alveolar nasal sound [n], the
bilabial sound [m] and the velaric nasal [Š]. The lungs are listed
equally as articulators because they generate the power with which
we produce sounds. It is the outgoing air, i.e., the
deoxygenated air, called *egressive air* from the lungs into the
atmosphere that is converted into producing speech sounds. You
will agree that without the energy, no air will be available to
produce the sounds. Articulatory organs produce vowels and
consonants.

Because students do not generally like phonetics, especially,
practical phonetics, involving the articulating of the sounds of
another language, there will be the need for the teacher of
Nigerian language or languages to continuously play the role of a
facilitator and encourager by emphasising on the positive side of
articulatory phonetics. He can note, for example, that it is easy
and interesting to speak another language because it is the same
articulators the students use to produce first language sounds that
they will use to produce second language sounds. It is advisable

to for the teacher of a Nigerian language to take note of the various differences between his students" L_1 and the Nigerian L_2 and develop strategies for teaching out such differences. Some of such differences may include the following:

> Regular plosive consonants versus the implosive/glottalised consonants;,
> bilabials stops versus the bilabial fricatives as in Háúsá;
> the dentals, the velaric fricative characterising Ìgbò;
> co-articulated or double articulated sounds, their status and representation
> various nasal sounds aside from the alveolar nasal, and
> many more.

Because different languages attest different sounds, it is the duty of the teacher of a Nigerian language to note these differences between his students" L_1 and the second language develop strategies to teach them. The teacher should ensure intensive and extensive practice in identification, recognition, perception and production of differential sound units in isolation, in pairs and in meaningful contexts or situations.

Vowels are the counterpart to consonants. They are whose production does not involve any obstruction in the vocal tract. There is always a free flow of air in the process of production of vowels. The common characteristics of vowels sounds are that they are voiced. This means a narrowing of the glottis, that is, the passage through the larynx. When the glottis narrows, the air passing through the glottis makes the vocal cords to vibrate. The vibration is so important that it is used to make a distinction between sounds. For example, all consonant sounds in which the hair capillaries vibrate are called *voiced sounds* while those sounds whose production does not involve hair capillaries vibrating are called *voiceless sounds*. For all vowels, the vocal cords vibrate while for consonants, there is a dichotomy; some vibrate while others do not vibrate. In listing consonants in pairs, the voiceless one are listed to the left while the voiced ones are listed to the right.

Two articulators are used in the classification of vowels and they are *the lips* and *the tongue*. The *configuration* or the *shape* of the lips is important. The lips can assume three shapes-*spread out*, *rounded* or *neutral*. Vowels are classified according to whether in producing them, the lips are spread out, rounded or neutral. They second is the height or the degree of the rising of the tongue above its normal resting position. These two form the criteria used to classify vowels. The tongue is known to rise high above its normal resting position in the mouth and so there are high vowels. The position of the rising can also be described according to the part that rises. When the front of the tongue rises, you use the position of the tongue and the shape of the lips to describe the

vowel or vowels produced in such positions. Some vowels exist in
pairs, long versus short, the same way there are voiced versus
voiceless consonants. The colon symbol [:] is used to indicate a
long vowel. Vowels are grouped into two monophthongs and
diphthongs. It is only Háúsá that makes a distinction between long
and short vowels.

The teacher of a Nigerian language should ensure that in teaching
difficult vowel sounds, students" lips assume the correct shape or
configuration for the sound in question and that the tongue attains
the appropriate height too. The teacher should devise different
drill activities to carry to effective teaching. This can be done
through drilling the items in isolation, minimal pairs, and in
contrasts, especially, with other vowels with which confusing
sounds. He must ensure that the exercises are done in meaningful
situational contexts.

<div align="center">SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISES</div>

1. Categorise the consonants under 3.1.1.1 above according to
   state of glottis.

2. Using example in English, make a list showing a contrast
   between short and long vowel sounds and Hausa. (For Háúsá
   vowels, go to Module II Unit 5).
SELF ASSESSMENT TESTS

   a) List the non-articulatory of the following speech organs: the
      teeth, the tongue and list the external function of the lips,
      the nose and the ears.
   b) Identify which sounds correspond to the sounds of the Nigerian
      language you teach as a second language.

3.1.2 Morphology

The next level of language structure is morphology, the pattern of
word building in human language. Morphology is a fairly common term
in human endeavour. It refers to the outward appearance or
structure of a word. The basis for morphology is the morpheme, the
smallest meaningful individual unit of word or grammatical item
that cannot be analysed beyond itself. There are two major morpheme
types, lexical morphemes and grammatical morphemes. Lexical
morphemes are words which give the major contents of a message.
These lexical morphemes specify things, qualities, and events
spoken about. Lexical morphemes are a large set which allows the
addition of new members (McGregor 2009). The morphemes are
continually growing because of the capacity to add and accommodate
new members as a result of inventions and discoveries or as a
result of derivation of new forms from existing ones. Lexical
morphemes are, therefore, usually such lexical categories as nouns,

pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and articles. They change their categories when new morphemes are derived from them. Such morphemes are referred to as derivational morphemes. For example, the English word *beauty* is a noun. When *beauty* becomes *beautiful*, its category changes from being a noun *beauty* to an adjective, *beautiful*. *Beautiful*, therefore, becomes a derivational morpheme, derived from the noun *beauty*.

Lexical morphemes may exist as free morphemes or bound morphemes. In any of these states, they regularly retain their lexical categories. The duty of morphology is to determine the status of words, either as single simple one-meaning form or compound or complex forms which give the meaning beyond one single simple level. For example, in Háúsá, we have the word yárò (boy). It conveys the concept of number, singular, not more than one. In "yaàra," boys, we discover that although the concept of the entity known as "yárò (boy) is involved, it carries a number value that goes beyond the singularity expressed by "y r "boy" to mean yárò plus at least, one other "y r "boy." The word yárò "boy" is a free morpheme while yaàra "boys" is a bound morpheme. Bound morphemes require the addition of another morpheme to make them "bound," to give them an added meaning. The addition of a morpheme to change a free morpheme to a bound morpheme can take place before or after the morpheme. It is a prefix if it precedes a root word and a suffix if it takes place after the root word.

The teacher of a Nigerian language should handle morphology in such a manner that the students can easily identify all forms of affixes in Nigerian languages. Affixes should be identified from roots, stems, agglutinated words where possible or applicable. Morphology teaching should enable the students to "see" n isolation, n connected speech and expressions and so on. For example, in Yorùbá, *olù, (representing the genitive –er)* is a prefix in the root word *kõ* (teach) to give *olùkõ,* (teacher). In Hausa, the term *sójà* (soldier) is a root word while *sójójí,* is the plural, marked by the plural suffix *–ójí*. In the following Ìgbò example, we have the root verb – *dó* (make peace). The prefix *u–* turns it into a derived noun ùdó, *peace maker* (Iloene 2011, p. 191). The nasals (n, m and Š), for example, play a syntactic role in Yor b . To express the progressive aspect in Yorùbá, any of the three nasals preceding the simple verb in a Yorùbá sentence automatically turns it into the progressive. The prefixing is, however, ordered as in the thes following examples:
m precedes bilabials as in
î bô – is coming.
Š precedes all velars as in:
Œ *gun igi* – is climbing (a) tree,
Œ ka w – is "reading (a) book.

The morphological forms of the three major lineages should be taught by getting the students to identify the morphemes in the words and analysing them in words within a larger context that is more than the word. Students should be taught to pay attention to wrong use and omission of morphemes in words in sentences or larger units beyond the word level.

3.1.3 Syntax

Syntax refers to the ordering or sequencing of words to give grammatical and semantic meaning. Syntax involves the acquisition of a set of rules which specify how sentences are made out of phrases and phrases from words by specifying the level of relationship between words in a sentence (Tallerman, 2007 and McGregor, 2009). It is syntax that specifies the level of relationship that exists among words in a sentence. Syntax may be said to consist of the following:

    i.   a set of syntactic rules, which specify how sentences are built up out of phrases, and phrases out of words;

    ii.   a set of morphological rules, which specify how words are built up out of morphemes (grammatical units smaller than the word);

    iii.   a set of phonological rules, which specify how words are pronounced;

    iv.   a set of semantic rules, which specify how words, phrases and sentences are interpreted (Radford, 1989, pp. 18-19).

The sentence is the core of syntax, the same way word order, the relative sequence or ordering of the sentence constituents-subject, verb and object are central to the sentence and syntax. There are six word order types of the human sentence and they are:

The Subject-Object Verb (SOV) word order
The Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) word order
The Verb-Subject-Object (VSO) wordorder
The Verb-Object-Subject (VOS) word order
The Object-Verb-Subject (OVS) word order
The Object-Subject-Verb (OSV) word order (McGregor 2009, p. 266).

Majority of world languages (40.5%) operate the Subject-Object-Verb (SOV) word order while about 35.4% operate the subject-verb-object word order (McGregor 2009, p. 266). Nigeria‟s three major languages operate the subject-verb-object (the SOV) word order.

To teach syntax in three Nigerian languages, students should
be taught to build phrases from words and sentences from phrases
and build paragraphs from sentences.

3.1.4 Meaning Relationships

Language has a semantic structure, a structure that deals with
meaning relationship which we may tag vocabulary. Semantics and
meaning relationships derive from the inherent properties of words
or individual lexical items either naturally as words or as they
are used in sentences. Semantics or meaning relationships allow for
message decoding in communication. Without boring you with the
linguistics of semantics, we just identify the most relevant of
these as follows: reference and sense relations, denotative and
connotative meaning, literal and figurative meanings, sentence and
utterance meaning and lexical semantics and sentence semantics.
Meaning relationships are important because they can very easily
become the sources of confusion due to meaning duplication called
ambiguity. In speaking and writing you should be mindful of meaning
relationship.

3.1.5 Language Skills

Language skills are those areas that are primarily concerned with
communication   skills.   They   are   skills   needed   in   linguistic   or
language   communication- oral   communication- hearing/listening,
speaking, reading and writing. These skills are all embedded in the
linguistic level of language analysis given above.

Whatever language we speak, either as first or second language, we
must   learn   to   use   the   correct   sounds   in   order   to   facilitate
intelligibility between us and our hearers or vice versa. Good
pronunciation is important because it is one of the ingredients of
our *competence* which includes *linguistic competence, communicative
competence   and   strategic   competence* (Faerch,   Haastrup   and
Phillipson (1984). Linguistic competence consists of your ability
to manipulate the linguistic structure of your language to ensure
communication. Communicative competence has to do with your ability
to manipulate the linguistic structure of the second language to
conform to the environment, context and situation of communication.
The strategic competence refers to the strategy in speaking and or
writing   employed   by   you   to   accomplish   effective   communication
between you and your interlocutor. These are important because
whichever way you view it, effective communication is the ease with
which you are able to effect acceptable communication with between
you and your hearer.

At the level of speech, you need good listening skills to monitor
feedback from your audience. At the oral level, you are most likely
going   to   make   a   face   to   face   contact   with   your   hearers   or

listeners. At the level of reading, you need to be clear, distinct and demonstrate good reading skills to make your audience listen to you with a good measure of understanding. Writing is a one way communication involving your written communication and your reader. You cannot get a feedback. You stand the risk of being misunderstood or not being understood at all. So writing calls for good writing skills: spelling, punctuation, appropriate choice of lexical items, good sentence construction, and so on. These are what make you linguistically, communicatively, sociopragmatically and strategically competent. According to Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson (1984), these skills are integrated; phonology, orthography, grammatical and lexical knowledge amount to linguistic competence. Linguistic competence and communicative competence are necessary ability in effective communication: "it is impossible to think of a person being communicatively competent without being linguistically competent," (Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson, 1984, p. 168). Pragmatic knowledge and discourse knowledge provide the link between linguistic competence and actual language in specific situations. Thus, language skills are very important in second language learning.

In teaching the three Nigerian languages, it is important to develop all language skills discussed in this section. These skills listening, hearing, speaking and writing) can be taught in isolation or in an integrative manner. A single task may be given to the student that will make them listen to the language, speak the language and write the language in an integrated manner. For example, a project may be given which requires the students to interview Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá speakers of the language, gather materials from the library, and write a long essay on the topic.

4.0 Summary

Language structure is important. It characterises human language. A typical language consists of the sound system, studied as phonetics and phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics or meaning relationships. All of these linguistic levels are brought to play in language use. Language use is based on the ability to manipulate the linguistic levels identified for effective communication.

5.0 Conclusion

All the levels of linguistic structure are necessary for effective communication. They are integrated in language skills. The ability to manipulate them account for your linguistic competence, communicative competence and strategic competence. This ability must be transferred to the students you teach.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignments

Justify the necessity of structure in second language teaching.

7.0 References and Other Sources

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UNIT TWO: THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

Language is what makes you and me human. We all know intuitively the linguistics of our language without being taught. All we ever do need is to be exposed to it while growing up in the environment of our language. We know what is right or wrong just by the way it is said. We know the structure of our language without being taught. We mist, however, learn the structure of the second language in order to use it. Even then, we never succeed in fully learning it. This then is the major difference between the way we learn our mother tongue and a second language such as English. What you will do in this unit is to read the characteristics of language. While you do so, just imagine in your mind that you are reading the characteristics of your language.

1.0 Unit Objectives

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:
- state and discuss the sources of language;
- list, state and discuss eleven characteristic features of language;

- discuss how you come to speak your language;
- discuss the place of the brain in language;
- explain dexterity, and
- explain lateralisation and localisation.

3.0 MAIN CONTENTS

3.1 Source of Human Language

Familiar as language is, its source to humanity, its acquisition as a native language and its learning as a second or additional language, have remained a mystery to humanity. Philosophers, psychologists, applied medical scientists such as anatomists, physiologists, medical doctors, language and speech pathologists, teachers and linguists have been enthralled with different aspects of language. They have also sought with very little success to discover its source, its nature, acquisition and learning and sometimes, the absence of language. Humans have put forward several theories about the source of language but to no avail. Such include the divine origins, the natural sound source, the oral gesture source, glossogenetical and the physiological adaptations (Yule 2006). Perhaps, what we can safely say about language is that it is one God"s great gift to humanity. Humanity speaks and uses language as a vocalised means of interaction and communication. In other words, no other creature communicates using the vocal system. Language is humankind"s chief means of communication and it is intricately tied to our creative and cognitive ability. The possession of language more than any human attribute, distinguishes humans from other animals. To understand our humanity, one must understand the language that makes us human ". . . it is language that is the source of our power . . . we are human because we know at least one language" (Rodman and Fromkin, 1996, p. 5).

Perhaps, the most plausible is the divine source which is supported by the rationalist-cognitive views of language (Miller, 1966, Chomsky 1965, Steinberg, 1999, McGregor, 2009). The divine source/theory of language, simply put, says that God gave humans language which is expressed in linguistics variously as language acquisition device, language acquisition system, or universal grammar (Chomsky, 1965, 1981). What can be inferred from the divine origin of language is that it is God who gave humans language and provided the means of acquiring and manifesting it. This makes us human to accede to language all its biological attributes- innateness and physiological adaptations of human organs to produce it.

The seat of language is in the cerebral cortex of the human brain. It is developmental in nature and part of our cognitive inheritance. Language is God"s natural equipping of humans for the

complex life patterns we have to live on earth. God reserves language as a genetic prerogative of humans. This is probably why it has never been possible to make animals learn to speak, no matter how hard humans may try to make them (Goodall, 1986, Yule, 2006, McGregor, 2009).

3.2 The Brain is the Seat of Language

The brain which is the seat of language consists of two hemispheres, the left hemisphere and the right hemisphere. The evidence to support the fact that language is located in the left hemisphere of the brain came from an accident in which about three and a half feet long piece of rod pierced the upper left cheek of one Mr. Phineas Gage, a construction foreman in Vermont, USA, and flew out through the top of his forehead. On recovery from the accident, it was discovered that Mr. Phineas Gage had his language intact (Boyle, 1971, Fromkin and Rodman, 1996, Yule, 2006 and McGregor, 2009). Dangerous as the accident was, Mr. Gage did not lose language or speech, proving that the part of his brain that controlled language was not damaged. He was said to show a distortion in personality but not in language.

Language and language related activities are localised in two areas of the left hemisphere and these are the **Broca's area** and **Wernicke's area**. Broca‟s area is responsible for speech production. Damage to this part of the brain may result in speech disability, specifically, difficulty in speech production. Wernicke‟s area is associated with comprehension. Damage to Wernicke‟s area may result in difficulty to comprehend or understand or cognitivise (Fromkin and Rodman 1996, Yule 2003, McGregor 2009).

The brain is contra-lateral, that is, each hemisphere manages the opposite side of the body. The left hemisphere that controls the right half of the body include language while the right hemisphere controls the left half of the body. Although many cognitive functions are located in the cortex, many of such cognitive functions are localised in particular parts of the brain. Thus, it is generally believed that language and handedness,   **dexterity**, for example, are, in most people, localised in the left hemisphere of the brain. For this reason, most people are right handed. The cerebral cortex or hemisphere is generally associated with language (Steinberg 1999).

Neurology is the study of brain and brain cells and their functions. Neurolinguistics refers to the study of the role of the brain in language either in terms of its acquisition and learning. It relates to clinical pathology of patients suffering from brain malfunctioning either as a result of injury or tumours and other nerve related disorders (Boyle 1971, Steinberg, 1999, McGregor 2009).

Dexterity, handedness, refers to hand skills and distribution of the skills of the hand. For most of us, we are right handed because the left hemisphere of our brain controls language and also controls the right half of our body. The right hemisphere controls the left half of the body including, for a minority of us, our left hand. For that minority of us humans, we are left-handed. It is known that even for a much smaller percentage than the left handed individuals, there are the **bidexterous**, that is, the very small number of us who can be said to have two right hands or two left hands. Such individual are capable of using both hands with equal efficiency. Many footballers exhibit this quality of using both legs with equal efficiency. Such players can man any position of play in a football pitch.

In addition to localisation of the language in the left hemisphere, language is also lateralized by the age of six. By lateralization is meant that the brain "has specialized functions in each of the two hemispheres. Those functions which are analytical-tool using are largely confined to the left hemisphere of the brain for most humans," (Yule 2003, p. 5). By the age of six years, brain lateralisation and function localisations will have taken place in most humans. This is the official age the government recommends for children to go to school because at six, the normal child will have attained full cognitive, physical, motor and neural development to embark on the road of formal learning.

3.3 Characteristics of Human Language

From here on to the end of the Unit, you will be reading about various characteristics of human language. The characteristics are the attributes of human languages. You should find them interesting.

3.3.1 Language is Creative and Cognitive

Creativity has to do with your ability to come up with something unplanned, new and unexpected but relevant and useful (Radford, 1989). This is the kind of thing that makes for your humanity and mine, our versatility. It is also a part of our thinking or cognitive process. The underlying process of language creativity and cognitive processes are not yet fully comprehended by us humans. Our ability as humans to put language to new use any time is one feature of language creativity that you can never predict. In other words, you can never predict what someone can say or do with words at any time. Language underlies our ability to think and **creativity is a key feature** of language. Creativity and cognition are usually demonstrated in general and specific learning skills and in problem solving (Boyle 1971, Harris and Coltheart, 1986, Steinberg, 1999, Yule 2003, and McGregor, 2009).

Language makes you and me versatile. Without it, it will be impossible for you and me and indeed, all of humankind to attain the level of intellectual achievement collectively recorded. Language, as an index of cognitive and communicative ability, is exhibited by the child at birth. The baby"s first cry is a positive indication that it is capable of vocalisation and that it will speak language as it grows and develop in a human language environment. Language is generally formal and functional and the role of language in cognition is perceived along formal and functional characteristics. For example, while some modern linguists and psychologists, for example Noam Chomsky and Jerry Fodor, believe that there is a formal difference in terms of rules between language and other domains of human thinking, some others believe that functionally, there is no distinction in the cognitive process employed in language and other domains of thought (McGregor, 2009). In spite of this formal and functional distinction recognized in the cognitive role of language, there is a correlation between the language we speak and the way we perceive or conceptualize our immediate world. Leading in this concept of the nature of language are Wilheim von Humboldt, Francis Boaz, Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf. The concept is generally referred to as the Sapir-Whorfian Hypothesis. For a full account of the Sapir-Whorfian Hypothesis, see Rodman and Fromkin, 1998, Yule, 2006 and McGregor, 2009). The creative use of the three Nigerian languages should be one of the goals of your teaching the languages. The teaching of the languages can also appeal to the cognitive domains of the learners.

3.3.2 Language is Developmental

Language is very important in the life of every normal child. Language is "developmental," that is, it develops gradually in humans. The pattern of development can be traced from stage to stage as the child grows and matures physically and cognitively. It is possible to chart the language development pattern of every normal child from birth to a stage where the acquisition could be said to be complete. The pattern of language development generally coincides with physiological and psychological stages of development. Growth and development pattern in psychology is called developmental psychology and in linguistics it is developmental psycholinguistics. When we examine growth and development from the point of view psychology, it is developmental psychology but when we do so from language point of view, it is developmental psycholinguistics.

Psycholinguists, specialists interested in the kind of psycho-social machinery that moves the grammar and lexicon in humans (Miller, 1968), have identified or recognized patterns of language development in the child: babbling, cooing, syllable formation stage one word stage, and so on. This goes on until the entire language system of the language involved (phonetics, phonology, morphology syntactic and semantics) is internalised or established in the child"s mind. The psycholinguistics of a child"s transition from one stage of language mastery or sophistication to another can be tracked the same way his growth and development can be charted.

Language development is generally complete any time between forty two and sixty months of age. At seventy two months, language development is expected to be complete, cortical lateralisation established. The other stages of growth (anatomical and physiological growth resulting in physical increase in body weight and volume, that is *body size*) and *development*, that is cognitive, neural, sensorial and psychological development, continue much longer. Language is an important psycholinguistics index in child development measurement and it is part of the cognitive input, potentials and natural endowments the child brings into a learning situation. Such potentials and natural endowments are part of what Banathy (1969) refers to as input competence.

Developmental errors are possible in second language situation. The development of the three major Nigerian languages should be systematic, intensive and extensive for communicative effectiveness.

3.3.3 Language Is Acquired

Chomsky argued that language is and should be regarded as one of the cognitive sciences, along with mathematics, philosophy, psychology and so on, because it essentially a creative mental phenomenon. Its acquisition is biological, innate and never acquired by imitation. The acquisition is not any haphazard process but a systematic process which involves the following:

1. a set of syntactic rules, which specify how sentences are built up out of phrases, and phrases out of words;

2. a set of morphological rules, which specify how words are built up out of morphemes (grammatical units smaller than the word);

3. a set of phonological rules, which specify how words are pronounced, and

4. a set of semantic rules, which specify how words, phrases and sentences are interpreted (Radford (1989, pp. 18-19).

The essence of listing the four acquisition processes is to ensure that
1. your teaching consciously recognises these four natural and unconscious processes of human language acquisition, and
2. that in speaking, reading and writing, your students are able to consciously communicate even as they pay unconscious attention to these processes in their attempt to make their language output grammatically, and semantically functional and socially acceptable.

3.3.4 Language is Learned

We all learn a language either intuitively as when we learn to speak our native language or consciously as when the students you teach have to consciously, systematically and formally learn any of Nigeria"s three major languages. The number of vowels and consonants varies from language to language. Whichever way we learn the language, our output is supposed to conform to or reflect the four characteristic features given above- correct acceptable sentence patterns, correct morphology, acceptable pronunciation and meaning, and acceptable usage within the society or environment. These then become the linguistic criteria to judge the degree of perfection of learning and or mastery. Any other language can be learned as an additional language that is after one has acquired one"s first or native language. While acquired language is characterised by the set criteria above (Radford (1989), learned language is characterised by deviations or errors in the four criteria above. This is where errors/contrastive analysis come into play as techniques or tools in dealing with second language difficulty.

By implication, the three major Nigerian languages should be taught using the learner-centred approach that focuses on learner participation in the learning process. Teaching shod also be learner-centred through copious activities and tasks.

3.3.5 Language is Oral

Language is meant to be spoken. All humans, in spite of race, culture and colour, are equipped from birth with the facility or ability to speak language, but not to read and write language. You are not equipped from birth to read and or write language. The ability to read and write language has to do with literacy or the educational level of the individual who speaks a language. The facility to speak is inborn, inherent in humans. Philosophers have maintained that written language is only a poor representation of spoken language. The facility to handle language (speaking, reading and writing, and cognition- language comprehension and interpretation) is a function of the human cerebral cortex.

3.3.6 Language Can Be Written

Although language is essentially an oral phenomenon, humans have succeeded in converting spoken language to writing. Today, you can say that one of the attributes of language is its written form. While it is correct to say that language is written, it is better to say that language can be written. The conversion of spoken language to its written form is a universal cultural feat for humanity. Indeed, the greatest contribution of humanity to communication is the feat in reducing language to writing. Features of this contribution is the use of letters, phonetic symbols, to universally represent human sounds and the study of how these symbols come together to form meaning. Writing has come to complement our aural-oral ability and is used to permanently represent a literacy culture, reading and writing. The ability to speak language is natural or inherent in us whereas literacy is cultural. It is learned. Nobody comes to the world with it, but all humans are equipped from birth to speak language. This all means that it is not enough for you to teach your students how to speak the language. You should also concentrate on how to read and write the language for all rend communicatrive effectiveness.

3.3.7 Language is the Medium for Human Comprehension

Language mirrors the mind (Chomsky 1972). A proper understanding of language is a gateway to the understanding of how the mind works, especially, in terms of the ability of the mind to process data or information to which it is exposed. This is data processing that leads to comprehension (Harris and Coltheart 1986, Steinberg 1999).

Language comprehension/understanding or human language data processing, the preoccupation of applied linguistics, unfortunately, has not achieved very much because the processes involved in comprehension is unavailable for empirical observation. All that we can confidently say for now as language teachers is that applied linguistics depends on the outcome or output of processed data to determine whether a particular set of language processed data conform to the rules that govern a particular language or not. You must state, however, that a mastery of language must meet, on the speakers" part, the criteria that we stated at the beginning of the module.

3.3.8 Language is an Aural-Oral Medium for Communication

Language as an aural-oral medium of communication is meant to be spoken and heard. Language is the medium for human communication and as a medium of oral communication. It is naturally designed to be an oral affair. Oral communication involves the brain and the articulatory organs. When the mind generates information at the

neural level it sends a message to the necessary organs involved to move the speech producing organs to speak it out. The message comes out of the mouth of the speaker and travels as wave impulses from the speaker‟s mouth to the listener‟s ear through the auditory meatus into the tympanic membrane and from there the waves travel through the complex organ of hearing to the relevant part of the brain for interpretation. As speech or oral medium, language normally involves two people a speaker and a hearer. In a conversation, the speaker-hearer role continually changes between any two interlocutors in order to sustain the conversation. This is how and why language is said to have a mouth-to-ear orientation. In short, language as oral communication is said to involve impulses (waves) travelling from a speaker to a hearer. It begins from the speaker‟s mouth and ends up in a listener‟s ears for the listener‟s brain to interpret. This is roughly the natural orientation in animals, including humans.

Speaking is not the only way language is put to use in communication. Reading and writing are also communication. But whereas speaking is natural, reading and writing are not. They are cultural. They are learned consciously. Reading and writing are an index to literacy. You don‟t have to go to school to speak, but you have to go to school to learn to read and write. The four skills involved in communication are listening, hearing, reading and writing. The four skills are integrated (Lawal, 1994). For one who has added the skills of reading and writing, the hearing-listening-speaking skills are inseparable because they are all the non-literate skills every clinically normal individual needs to communicate. The skills of speaking, reading and writing are all language-related and language-related activities are located in the cerebral cortex. The essence of all these is to highlight the importance of activating and utilizing all the four language skills in developing Nigeria languages. Students must listen to the language. They must speak, read and the language copiously to be able to communicate in it.

3.3.9 Language Consists of Universals

The term „universal‟ refers to natural properties or attributes that human languages naturally share in common. The human language is underlain by universals, certain properties that most or all languages share (Trask, 199 and McGregor, 2009). Universals are "shared" by all or most languages. Such universals are lexical categories, nouns, pronoun, the adjective, the adverb and so on which you have just read about above. Sentences and word order are also universals. Other language universals are such constituents as the noun-phrase, the verb-phrase, the articles and demonstratives, and so on. Universals are important in human communication because they allow for intelligibility and translation across languages. This quality of language ensures that what is said in one language

154

can be said in another. This also means that a person who speaks one language can also speak another provided the development is in that language because language provides all the block work of human communication.

It must, however, be noted that although there are universals, these universals are never realised the same way in all languages. This is one reason why languages are structured differently and why no two languages are exactly identical. In language learning and teaching, we often compare and contrast the distribution of universals and it is often believed that some of the difficulties encountered in learning languages other than our own result from the differences in the distribution of universals at the surface levels of our language and the other we try to learn. For example, even though there are sound units across languages the differences in their distribution basically account for differences in the pronunciation there are among languages across the world.

4.0 Summary

In this unit you were introduced to the basic characteristics of language in terms of how it is acquired as a natural language and learned as a second language. You also read about its source and the fact that it was opined that language is God"s gift to humanity. It is the basis for our creativity and cognitive abilities.

5.0 Conclusion

Language is what characterised us human. It is part of our natural endowment as human. Language is biological, creative, learned and structured.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

1. Dexterity or handedness has some socio-cultural significance in some societies. What is your own opinion on handedness especially in terms of your understanding of lateralisation?

2. What is the significance of localization and lateralisation at the age of six when the national policy on education expects the child to begin school?

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UNIT THREE : THEORIES OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

Often, language acquisition refers to the processes involved in the human infant"s learning and mastery of language by the human infants. This is the position being adopted here for ED 728. Second language acquisition and second language learning are used here in respect of the child who at the age of six, goes to school to learn another language as a second language. For us, there are two languages to be learnt by our students, English, the official national language and any of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as a second language. In what follows, you will be reading accounts of the theories of how language is learned as a first language or mother tongue and how it is acquired as a second language.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of the unit, you should be able to
- state the theories of first language acquisition;
- mention characteristics of language acquisition;
- mention characteristics of babbling stage of language acquisition;
- describe the one-word holophrastic stage;
- describe the two-word stage;
- state characteristics of the telegraphic stage, and
- enumerate the contributions of language acquisition to language teaching.

3.0 MAIN CONTENTS

3.1 Theories of First Language Acquisition

The process and time for the child to learn and master his first language are remarkable in terms of the age it begins and the rapidity with which it is accomplished. Characteristically, the acquisition is fast, and informal; fast because by the age of six, the process is complete, the output wonderful because it is faultless or near perfect and informally taught. There are no socio-economic or socio-cultural dimensions to its acquisition. It happens because language is part of the many natural endowments of every normal human child. The predisposition to acquire language is innate, biological and developmental. However, the child must be exposed to a language environment. The environment must also provide language for the child to acquire. The equipment in us that makes it possible for us to acquire language is what Chomsky referred to as the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) or the Language Acquisition System (LAS). The LAD is like sensors; it must have signals to pick up otherwise it simply lies dormant. The LAD, the language sensors, must have a signal to pick up and react to. In humans, the language signal has two sources, the language itself and its users within the child"s living environment. As observed by Yule (2003, p. 177):

> A child growing up in the first two or three years requires interactions with other language users in order to bring out the language-faculty into operation with a particular language.

Language is a universal property of humans. Every child is equipped to speak language, but not a particular language. The language child grows up speaking is usually the language spoken in the child"s immediate environment. For example, a Yorùbá child will grow up speaking Yorùbá, not because his parents are Yorùbá, but because Yorùbá is the language he is exposed in his immediate environment. By his immediate environment we mean the language of the home where he is raised and/or the language he hears around him. If a Yorùbá couple gives birth to a child in London where neither the parents nor the siblings speak Yorùbá but English only, the child will never speak Yorùbá but English, the language he hears being spoken around him. So, nobody is born to speak a particular language, but everybody is born equipped to speak language.

Children raised by animals do not usually speak language. They grunt the sounds of their foster animal parents. On rescue, such individual animal-raised-humans are rehabilitated and put through to acquiring human language within the rehabilitation environment.

To acquire language, the child must be exposed to language and use his articulatory organs to produce human speech sounds. The individual must not suffer hearing impairment. He must hear himself speak and hear others speak to him: "A child who does not hear or is not allowed to use language will learn no language" (Yule, 2003, p. 176).

To be able to acquire language, the child must be clinically normal. He must show an evidence of the ability to receive and transmit linguistic signals such as cooing and babbling. The cooing and babbling are reinforced by the sound of language he hears around him. If the baby is deaf, the cooing and babbling will stop after the age of six months because of the absence of linguistic reinforcement from the immediate environment (Yule, 3003, McGregor 2009).

3.2 First Language Acquisition Programme

Human language acquisition is programmatic. It follows a general pattern that is essentially biological, unfolding with other biologically determined developmental functions and motor-neural skills or functions such as sitting, standing, using the hands and many other physical activities. These activities are tied to the child‟s maturity of the brain and cerebral lateralisation and localisation which continues up to and terminates at about the age of six years or slightly earlier (Yule 2003).

Although the child may be equipped with the capacity to acquire language, the necessary socio-cultural support must be provided for the language faculty to mature and bud out. We could think of the child as having the biological capacity to cope with distinguishing certain aspects of linguistic input at different stages during the early years of life. What this acquisition „capacity‟ then requires is a sufficiently constant input from which the regularities in the particular language can be worked out. In this view the child is seen as actively working out the regularities in what he hears and applying the regularities with what he hears or says (Yule 2003).

It is observed that every clinically normal child goes through a number of distinct stages in the process of first language acquisition/development. We will briefly examine these stages. They are the pre-language stages, the one word or holophrastic stage, the two word stage and the telegraphic stage.

3.2.1 The Pre-Language Stages: 3 - 10 months

The pre-language stages refer to the stages of acquisition in which the child makes a lot of noise without any distinguishable human sound. The most characteristic language outcome here is crying.

3.2.2 Cooing

Cooing with babbling is the most characteristic stage in child language acquisition. Sometimes, cooing and babbling are recognised as two distinct stages of human language development. At the cooing stage, the child begins vocalisation by producing a few human sounds such as the velar stops [k g] and high vowels [i u]. Cooing starts as from about 3 months of age.

3.2.3 Babbling

Babbling is an advanced stage of cooing and it begins anytime from the age of 4 months. Between the age of 5 and 6 months, the child begins to sit down and to make vigorous movement of the limbs. The child advances on the cooing level by babbling more sounds with definite linguistic patterns. As growth and development continue, crying becomes more articulate, focussed and intrinsically geared or directed: crying brings him reward from mother, father and older siblings and or anybody around him. Crying makes room for more or increased social interaction. A spectrographic analysis of babbled sounds produced at this stage shows that generally the child will have uttered all possible human sounds because the babbled sounds or phones are universal sounds. They are sounds of human language and not necessarily the sounds of the language of the immediate environment where the child is being raised (McGregor (2009). As time goes on, however, by a natural process of selection, the babbled phones begin to be restricted to only the phones of the surrounding language. Congenitally deaf children too babble but they very soon cease to babble any time from the age of 6 months, because of absence of self auditory feedback.

Babbled sounds show a morphological consonant-vowel (cv) syllable pattern. The first set of monosyllables uttered is usually the bilabial syllables [*pa, pa, pa: ba, ba ba: ma, ma ma*]. The disyllabic form of these consists of first set of words the child utters and they usually are words relating to those who are closest to the child- *papa, mama baba*.

3.2.4 One Word Holophrastic Stage

The holophrastic stage is observed from 12 months onwards. The holophrastic stage is a stage in the language acquisition process

when the learner uses one-word utterances for sentences. Holophrastic communication serves full-fledged communication intentions for the child.

3.2.5 Two Word Stage 12-24 months

The two-word stage is an advanced development over the one-word holophrastic stage. The child advances over the one-word full-fledged communication structure to making two-word utterances. Two-word utterances are for him full sentences also and are fully communicative. Any attempt at full scale sentences usually ends up as gibberish, having no meaning. Mothers are, at this stage, adept at understanding and interpreting children‟s two word language. At this stage if, for any reason, the child is unable to vocalise his two-word communicative intentions, he may put them into action. To say "I‟m hungry; I need food," he holds you by the hand and „drags‟ you to the kitchen. To express a need for water or a drink, he grabs a cup and holds it before you. The language is symbolic or onomatopoeic. For example, my two-year old grandson uses „kukuyuu‟ an onomatopoeic coinage for the rooster and all domestic birds. His cousin, three years older and raised in the Northern part of Nigeria used „kuluu‟ to refer to the chicken and all birds. **Mççç** is coinage for the bleating of sheep and goats; it is generally used for most four-legged animals and so on.

3.2.6 The Telegraphic Stage

The telegraphic stage generally occurs as from 2-years or slightly before it. This is the stage when the child operates a compressed style of language, a stage when a lot of message is compressed into a few selected words. At the telegraphic stage, more articulate speech pattern is recognised. This stage is characterised by lexical reduction and simplification. The message is also equally highly communicatively simplified and reduced. Because of the extremely economic style of formulation, this stage is called the telegraphic language.

The telegram is a communication device where the communicator maximizes his message by carefully reducing lexical redundancy in message transmission. This stage shows elements of language sophistication and morphological complexification by the child learner. The syntax and phonological processes stand established and from now on, it is a drive toward basic mastery which is achieved anytime from the age of four year. By the age of six, language acquisition is complete and language and cognitive and other motor skills are localised and brain lateralisation complete. This is the stage the child is educationally considered ready to embark on the road of formal education.

3.2.7 Contributions of Language Acquisition Theories to the Teaching of Nigerian Languages

The implications of the first language theories discussed in this unit to the teaching of the three Nigerian languages are as stated in this section.

- The more natural language acquisition processes are into second languages classroom, the better and the more effective second language programmes.
- Exposure is crucial to language acquisition processes. Second language classrooms should intensively and extensively expose stents to the Nigerian languages for communicative effectiveness.
- second language acquisition processes/stages is from the simple to the complex, so also should be the process of teaching Nigerian languages.

Self Assessment Exercises

Give three characteristics of babbling, cooing, and telegraphic stages of language acquisition.

4.0 Summary

First language develops in the normal human child as a matter of course because it is prepared from birth to speak language. The environment in which it grows up must, of course, be a linguistically living human one for it to have language to respond to. Without a living human language environment, a child may only grow to grunt and never produce human speech sounds.

5.0 Conclusion

Language is essential for humans to live and function. Human speech environment gives the language acquisition device, the universal grammar something to respond to. Language follows a defined pattern of development in the human child. Parents should be sensitive to their child"s language development pattern and raise an alarm if the pattern is not unfolding.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

Make a list of first language output of your child or any child under your observation and explain what the output communicates.

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UNIT FOUR: PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Contents
      3.1 The Two Dominant Theories of Language Acquisition
      3.2 Behaviourist Psychology
      3.3 Cognitive Psychology
4.0 Summary
5.0 Conclusion
6.0 Teacher Marked Assignments
7.0 References and Other Sources

3.0 MAIN CONTENTS

Introduction

There two theories of language acquisition. These theories are seen along two similar but parallel schools of thought, the behaviourist school championed by Watson and Skinner and the cognitive theory championed by Chomsky. Having discussed very briefly child language acquisition, I now can direct your attention to the two dominant theories. Both of these theories, incidentally, are not new. They have been in existence from the classical periods of human existence and are two views or ways of assessing human behaviour and learning. Behaviourist theory is emotion and senses based while cognitive theory is based on human mental capacity reasoning as underlying behaviour.

Objectives

At the end of the Unit, you should be able to:
- mention the dominant psychology;
- state the characteristics of the dominant schools of psychology;
- state the relevance of psychological principles in language teaching, and
- explain technical terms empiricist, rational, cognitivist and behaviourist.

3.1 Behaviourist Theory of Language Acquisition

Behaviourist/empiricist theory of language acquisition holds the view that humans have no language at birth. The human mind at birth is comparable to a slate on which nothing is written. So it is with the human mind, it bears no trace of human language at birth. Behaviourist theory of language acquisition holds the view that as the individual child grows, language gradually gets imprinted on the child as he grows and uses the senses to interact with the environment. This way, the environment imprints language on human mind. Characterising the behaviourist view of language, Steinberg (1999, p. 138) says: "all ideas, including those constituting intelligence (logic and reflective thinking) are derived from direct sensory experience." This way, the human mind does not contain any ideas that can be considered as knowledge since the human mind is, in the behaviourist view, an interplay of the senses and the environment. Intelligence is also a product of experiences and the environment (Steinberg 1999). This way, while behaviourism adduces such human activities as walking, standing and running as inherent in humans to natural cases, it holds the view that language cannot be adduced to nature:

> The process of acquiring speech is, in sober
> fact, an utterly different sort of thing
> from the process of learning to walk . . .
> In a very real sense, walking is an inherent
> biological function of man. Not so language
> (Sapir 1970, pp. 3 & 4).

According to Sapir, language is determined by factors that are essentially environmental. He holds the view that without human society, people may never develop language. Some of the views of the behaviourist view of human language are summarised as follows:

- That although the human child is born with mechanisms and procedures for the acquisition of knowledge, the child"s mind is a clean slate (tabula rasa) upon which any language and experiences he is exposed may be impressed or stamped.

- The child lives and grows in an environment that determines his immediate language and from the environment he receives the stimuli for speech and speech acts.

- He has several models from mummy, baby nurse siblings and others to copy from.

- His cooing and babbling is a test of his articulatory equipment and ability to speak. He keeps doing this until he learns to isolate and produce sounds.

- He grows and matures physically and cognitively until he learns to associate human voice to with needs and satisfaction and in response, he imitates ceaselessly.
- He learns by association, reinforcement, hypothesis testing, and imitation. "The child brings to the task of its innate learning ability, its maturing motor mechanism and its needs while the environment does the rest" (Burke 1974, p. 54).

At the practical level, the child"s demonstration of these skills is supposed to be empirically observable as practical evidence and explanation from the point of view of reasoning. These ideas were concerned principally with knowledge and not with language and language learning, were given credence by the dominant structuralist linguistics and behaviourist psychology of the time. They held sway until the emergence of transformational grammar with its far reaching revolutionary thought on language, the human mind and thought. Behaviourism is essentially empirical, deriving from experience, observation, and physical reality. Behaviourism or empiricism believes that the mind at birth is a blank slate which

gets impressed upon by experience, observations and tangible human activities. Thus, experience is the source of knowledge.

Behaviourist theory is an empirical stimulus/response behaviour oriented theory and it is **environment friendly**. It is empirical because it believes in **observation,** the use of the senses (sight, hearing, feeling, taste, smell) and the application of **standard scientific method**. It does not believe that language is biological; rather it is a gift to humans by the environment. Behaviourism is characterised by stimulus, response to stimulus, imitation, controls and so on.

Behaviourist theory is relevant to the teaching of the three Nigerian languages. The theory supplied to the teaching of these languages concepts such as pattern practice drills of the relevant linguistic item, with the language modelled by the teacher acting as the *stimulus* and the students" repetition and/or imitation of the teacher"s linguistic item as the *response.* Aspects such as learning by association, reinforcement of students" correct responses, memorisation, of the linguistic patterns and the automatic production of linguistic patterns are typical of the behaviourist principles applied to the methodology of Nigeria language teaching.

3.2 Cognitive Theory of Language Acquisition

Language and linguistics as a cognitive science is credited to Avram Noam Chomsky, the father of modern linguistics studies. Beginning from *Syntactic Structures* (Chomsky 1957), Chomsky has defended language and linguistics as a cognitive science and as part of cognitive psychology. Cognitive science is a cover term for a body of disciplines comprising of language, linguistics, psychology, sociology, economics, and anthropology and so on, which aim at describing and explaining the ability of humans to think about abstract notions (Carnier 2007). In this sense, cognitive science is mentalist in orientation.

Mentalist concept is characterised by reasoning and the power of the mind in evaluating. It believes that language exists at birth because it is part of the equipment humans are born with. It accepts that language is biological and developmental. That is, although language does not at birth manifest the way such autonomic systems as respiration and blood circulation do, it is there all the same. It only awaits the appropriate stages of maturation to unfold. The tendency to speak is inherent in us humans as demonstrated by the baby"s initial cry. Because language is developmental, vocalised speech usually has to wait until whatever it is that enables us acquire language as humans, grows and matures enough to enable us begin the next stage after crying. The pre-language stages or process of cooing and babbling and the rest

until our language ability grows enough to represent a mature speaker of the language of our speech community.

3.2.1 Cognitive Characteristics of Language

Cognitive psychology characterises human language as innate/biological and developmental. You will read about these qualities in this section to see how they differ from behaviourist views.

3.2.1.1 Biological and Innate Theory

The biological and innate views of language are associated with Lenneberg (1967) and McNeil (1966). Lenneberg (1967) used evidence from human anatomy and physiology to adduce evidence that language is biological and developmental. McNeill (1966) emphasised the innate nature of language, arguing that language cannot be bequeathed on humans by the environment. Language characterises only humans and it is a psychological or cognitive property of humans (Carnier (2007). By a psychological or cognitive property is implied that "there is some set of neurons in our head . . . that allow us to see and read these tiny quibbles as letters and another set that you to comprehend and interpret them as series of messages as "coherent ideas and thoughts" (Carnier, 2007, p. 3). The process that allows communication to take place between a speaker and a hearer is scientifically physical, biological and psychologically cognitive.

3.3 Chomsky and Language

Cognitive views of language consist essentially of the criticisms against empirical behaviourist views of language. The criticisms were first raised by Noam Chomsky (Chomsky, 1957, 1959 and 1965). The criticisms, in a summary, amount to criticisms of the behaviourist or empirical psychology. Chomsky has, consistently defended the view that language is part of the cognitive make up of humans and that linguistics is a cognitive science. He asserted that language is not bequeathed on humans by the environment but that humans are born with the ability to acquire and learn language.

Chomsky"s views of language and the human mind are radically different from those held by the behaviourist psychology. His views have given a different dimension to the notion of grammar and its application to language, the human mind and human thinking. He criticized behaviourist psychology by noting that the behaviourist concept was too narrow and simplistic to have any sustained credence. Chomsky"s criticisms (Chomsky, 1959), modified in 1965 and in subsequent publications, formed the beginning of new thinking in linguistics and cognitive science, especially,

psychology. It gave new valuation to structuralist linguistics and behaviourism, the psychology upon which it was founded. Chomsky attempted to incorporate into one coherent view all that was known about cognitive science and linguistic theory: that language is innate, biological, developmental and specie-specific and that language and linguistics are part of the human cognition and part of human mechanism for thinking and processing information (Harris and Coltheart, 1986).

The Cognitive theory criticism of behaviourist explanation of language acquisition may be summarised as follows:

- That the human child is equipped from birth with the ability to acquire language. He referred to this equipment variously as the Language Acquisition Device (LAD). LAD is humans" universal grammar. This universal grammar enables you as a human to acquire language and to learn language.

- That human language is creative and generative in nature.

- As observed by (Burke, 1974), the standard behaviourist explanation that language is environmentally determined and controlled is vague, superficial and inconsistent. This is because it fails to take into account the creative nature of language use and the complexity of the human language. Behaviourism sees language as a sequence of discreet surface units.

- Significant aspects of language acquisition do not result from mimicry, rote learning, practice and environmental conditioning.

- Language is not an adventitious construct taught by conditioning or drill and explanations or built up by elementary data-processing procedures . . . but relatively independent in its structure of innate mental faculties (Burke, 1974).

Chomsky emphasized that any theory of language acquisition must contain at least four components:

1. a theory of semantic and phonetic representation.
2. a concept of syntactic description.
3. a specification of the class of potential grammars and an account of how these function.
4. an evaluation procedure- a weighting function – to select the appropriate grammar from various possibilities (Burke, 1974, pp. 54-55).

In its true sense, cognitive theory of language acquisition does not discard everything behaviourist. It merely gives them explicit explanations that lift them above the superficial. For example, while the environment does not just impress or stamp language on the human mind, cognitive theory of language acquisition believes that the innate biological component responsible for the acquisition of language must have a human speech environment (where language is spoken) to „pick up" language from. Otherwise, growth, development and maturation may take place and the acquisition machinery may have nothing to pick up from the environment. Language environment in the sense of a speech community, is therefore, very important in language acquisition.

In support of the innateness and biological nature of language, cognitive theory of language acquisition holds the view that the child has a language acquisition device (LAD) (Chomsky, 1965) or Universal Grammar, from birth and that it is this which assists him in the acquisition of language. Evidence from medicine, psycholinguistics and nuerolinguistics has shown that the LAD/Universal Grammar is located on the left hemisphere of the human brain and it is ordered and programmed in some way that is not quite explicable. It accepts and forms the basis of natural language. The incredibly fast rate it takes the human child to acquire the grammar of language as opposed to the near life time inability to learn the grammar of a second language is a factor in support of the naturalness of language.

3.4 Second Language Acquisition

Formal teaching is about the most significant variable between first language acquisition and second language. Second language acquisition is formally done and it results in formal bilingualism. It is consciously done in a formal classroom situation. It is done over a scheduled period of time. It is usually based on a curriculum description. Some people for example, (Corder, 1971) reserve language learning exclusively for second acquisition and restrict language acquisition exclusively to first language acquisition. Others use the terms *second language learning* to mean *second language acquisition*. Here, second language learning and second language acquisition are used *synonymously*. In second language acquisition, there is a teacher of a second language and second language learners in a classroom setting. Therefore, second language acquisition should be seen as language learning that takes place after the first language systems (phonetics/phonology, syntax, semantics and culture of the native language) have been fully established in the mind of the learner. In our context, second language acquisition starts when the Nigerian child steps into the school system and he is being introduced to the English

language. Here, we say that he has begun the learning of English as a second language. Again, we are saying in our context that the instinct for the Nigerian child learning English as a second language begins from the basic education level. It is also at the basic education level that he begins to add to it one of Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá as a Nigerian second language in his learning tenure at the secondary school level. For the Nigerian child, he has his native language, English as a second language and then either Háúsá, or Ìgbò or Yorùbá as a Nigerian second language. This is the language scenario for the average Nigerian school child at the Basic Education level in Nigeria.

The processes of first and second language acquisition is the same up to a point after which differences, some of which last a life time, begin to set in. The differences are built round what is called the fundamental difference hypothesis, a totality of all that account for differences between first and second language acquisition in terms of natural endowments, strategies, attainment level and so on (Bley-Vroman 1989, Steinberg 1999). The fundamental difference hypothesis consists of all the factors that cause the difference between first and second language acquisition. Theoretically, output differences lie in what one has and the other doesn"t. The first language learner and the second language learner have native language in common. It is said, however that while the child learner depends on his language acquisition device or Universal grammar (LAD/UG), the LAD or Universal Grammar is no longer available to the second language learner who as a result of age, has instead, domain-specific learning procedures. These are skills in specific and general problem solving cognitive systems (Bley-Vroman 1989). The LAD/UG in the child is one of the cognitive psychologist arguments for saying that the child"s mind is not a clean slate. To behaviourist psychologists, the LAD/UG in the second language learner is seen as an impediment that limits the second language learner"s ability to successfully acquire the second language. This is the basis for first language interference, a situation where the adult"s L_i knowledge interferes with his second language learning. This is a long standing concept on which SLA in the form of ESL learning was conceived in the 1940s and upon which contrastive analysis principles were based:

> The basic problem of foreign language learning
> arises not out of any essential difficulty in
> the feature of the new language themselves but
> primarily out of the special „set" created by
> the first language habit (Fries, in Lado, 1957,
> iv).

Although L_i Interference actually refers to the basic difference in adult language learning and child language acquisition, it has no explanation for the output differences in the child and adult second language. It also makes no reference to age, motivation that

170

may affect language. Its major shortfall is that there is no real psychological basis. The hypothesis has not presented any sound explanation for the inhibitive effect of L_1 on L_2. It sees L_1 only in terms of interference and ignores its proactive role in second language acquisition.

Characteristically, second language acquisition data are indeterminate, indirect, incomplete and artificially ordered or sequenced. Language is a complicated abstract formal system which the adult copes with only through the general cognitive capacity. Second language acquisition programme is characteristically goal oriented, uses a feed-back mechanism and instruction. It also has a way of understanding explanations, using such mechanisms as *distributional analysis, analogy and hypothesis formation and testing* (Bley-Vroman, 1989, p. 54).

When learners are exposed to second language complexities, they develop *an interim hypothesis* – a kind of *rule of the thumb* or *a set of principles* that enables him to use or cope with the set of second languages corpuses of the language on his hand. He will use many of the ideas and will abandon many. Hypothesis testing is when he is able the data available to him to decide on what to do with the new information. Hypothesis testing offers the second language learner the opportunity to test hypothesis with evidence from the new information and feedback (McDonough 1982 and Krashen, 1982).

Learning and mastery strategies are important in second language acquisition. You read above that both in first and second language acquisition, learners exhibit similar processes. They both exhibit reduction, simplification overgeneralization of the systems of the languages they are learning. This is only up to a point. As the first language learner grows and develops, his language abilities grow and his language output becomes better and better until he brings it naturally to the adult speaker"s level in all aspects of the language structure. On the contrary, the second language learner does not often go beyond certain levels in his second language output. The second language learners" output is often inundated with errors, deviations which represent his proficiency. He usually cannot and does not go beyond that level in speech and writing. Errors for him represent a maximum level of attainment in the second language. Even if you confront him with errors resulting from his performance, he does not recognise them and so he cannot correct them. Some applied linguists feel that he cannot gain from error correction at this stage.

The second language learner also makes mistakes. While errors represent permanent learning landmark, mistakes are only temporary or momentary deviations from the rules and systems of the second language. Mistakes could be due to slips of the tongue, tiredness, sleep, and other temporary psychological and or physical states

which get cleared after. The learner is able to recognise and rectify mistakes when confronted with them.

Contrastive linguistic analysis and error analysis are applied linguistic tools available to the second language teacher to deal with errors in second language learning.

4.0 Summary

You have read from the beginning of this unit, the behaviourist and cognitive views on language. The behaviourist views are championed by such behaviourist psychologists as Watson and Skinner while the cognitive views are expressed by Chomsky. While behaviourists hold the view that language is bequeathed on us by nature, the cognitivists hold the view that language and the ability to acquire it are part of the innate biological heritage of humans.

5.0 Conclusion

First language acquisition is a natural phenomenon and so it takes place when the learner is not even aware about it. It takes place in a living speech environment. The learner must be exposed to the speech community and the language must be spoken, otherwise, there will be no language for the child to acquire. The learner may acquire more than one language at a time, depending on the number the child is exposed to. He is monolingual if he is exposed to one language, bilingual if two and trilingual if three. Language acquisition is unconscious whereas second language acquisition is a consciously and formally acquired in a school environment. acquired

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

Do a longitudinal study of any child under 8 months and compare your observed pattern with the acquisition of child language as given in this unit. Note the points of differences or coincidences of patterns unique to your subject.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Write a critique of behaviourist and cognitive views of language acquisition.
2. Explain hypothesis testing in the process of second language acquisition

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UNIT FIVE: PSYCHOLOGICAL BASIS FOR LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

Language, linguistics and pedagogy have always moved with advances in linguistics and psychological theory or theories. For example, grammar translational method, direct method, reading method, audio-lingual method, audiovisual method, cognitive code learning method are all underlain by prevailing psychological principle and linguist theories (Stern 1984). We will, for the purpose of this course, focus attention on only the two cotemporary ones, audio-lingual method and the cognitive code learning method.

2.0 Unit Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
- name the two theories of language acquisitions;
- name the two language teaching theories;
- explain aural-oral method;
- explain audiolingualism as a teaching method;
- explain cognitive code learning method;

- explain the audiolingual sequence of language learning;
- explain the sequence audiolingual language acquisition;
- mention the theoretical bases for audiolingualism;
- mention the theoretical bases for cognitive code learning;
- explain the weakness of audiolingual teaching method, and
- explain the weakness of cognitive code learning.

3.0 MAIN CONTENTS

3.1 Audio-Lingual Teaching Method

 Audio-lingual teaching method derives from structural linguistics and behaviourist psychology. The strength of this method depends therefore on the strength and/or weakness of behaviourist psychology and structuralist linguistics which derived from it.

Audio-lingual teaching method took roots in the 1960s and it is one of the two dominant language teaching methods of today. The audio-lingual teaching method is based on hearing and speaking. For this reason, it is sometimes referred to as the aural-oral (hearing-speaking) method of language teaching. The principal objective of audio-lingual method is to promote language as a set of skills to be acquired or learned in the order of hearing/listening, speaking, reading and writing. There is a lot emphasis on speaking over all other skills. This is natural because all humans speak and not all read and or write. Audio-lingual teaching method tries to develop second language skills without reference to the learner"s mother tongue. As observed by Stern (1984, p. 464), "while audio-lingualists were not impervious to the cultural aspects of second language instruction, language learning was viewed as the acquisition of practical set of communication skills." In the teaching of the three Nigerian languages, for example, it will attempt to achieve this through the use of dialogues, mimicry-memorisation, drills and pattern practice, the use of language laboratory in the presentation of the Nigerian language materials. For its psycho-pedagogical and psycholinguistic efficacy, audiolingualism was founded on strcturalist linguistics and behaviourist psychology, the leading linguistic theory and psychological theory of the time (Stern 1984).

The objective of audio-lingual teaching method was to develop the fundamental skills in the order of hearing/listening, speaking, reading and writing on the conviction that speech holds a primary position over writing. Therefore, habits to be learned had to be presented in a manner that makes the listener/learner hear the model and speak it out by imitating the model. The list of second language teaching items presented must, therefore, be such that the learner is able to hear, comprehend and discriminate no matter how

near in pronunciation they may sound to the second language ear. To make audio-lingual teaching of second Nigerian languages a success, the teacher is advised to do meaningful minimal pairing of second language items to ensure auditory- discrimination responses and speech responses. For example, the phonemes [ω] and [εχ], often sound so confusing to the English as a second language learner that he often confuses them because of the inability to perceive any difference between them. Very often, he finds them sound so similar and confusing that the learner of English as a second language often sounds the indiscriminately or uses them interchangeably as if they are variants of each other. This is because he lacks auditory discrimination. A lot of times, the second language learner does not perceive the difference. A good set of minimal pairs as set out below can be used to help him out in such situations.

Examples of Háúsá Minimal Pairs based on tone and prefix:
       mayàÝi –warrior, màiyaÝì– *general*
       noma- *to farm,* madìnki- *tailor*
       gyara- *to repair,* màigara- *repairer*
       túwó - *food*   maitwo- *foodseller* (Iloene and Yusuf, 2011, p. 76

Examples of Ìgbò Minimal Pairs based on tone and prefix
       bõ – *scatter (hair*), ïbõ –*comb*
       tú – *stab*   Ãtú - *nail*
       gwú –*dig*   Mgwú – *digger*
       dé -*write*   òdé – (akwụkwö) *reader*

Examples of Yoruba Minimal Pairs based on tone and prefix
       yô – *rejoice*   ayô - *joy*
       jó – *to dance*   jijo - *dance dance (dance)*
       jó – *to dance*   íjó – *dance*
       yç – *to be fitting*   êyç *honour*

A good set of minimal pairs in the Nigerian language being taught should promote auditory discrimination. The audio-lingual teaching method also emphasises that language habits must be so well learnt that replicating them can be done automatically without any conscious attention. It emphasises continuous practice and repetition of Nigerian language items to attain automatic and unconscious recall (Mueller 1975). These principles conform to the principles of behaviourist psychology.

Audiolingualism encourages memorization and manipulation of patterns which bring out partial resemblance or similarities of structure beneath surface variations of vocabulary (Rivers (1964: 15). In audio-lingualism, the learner is moved gradually from oral

speech work into reading and finally into writing. Audio-lingualism does not pay any great attention to meaning on the argument that meaning lies in the realm of the abstract which is too complex to be probed or dabbled into. The sentence was approached from its smallest unit, the morpheme, and up to the sentence level. The learning process is viewed in the audio-lingual world as consisting of **habit formation**, and **conditioning** without the intervention of intellectual analysis. This way, audio-lingualism favours the „implicit learning strategy":

> The intention (of audio-lingualism) is to make language learning less of a mental burden and more of a matter of relatively effortless and frequent repetition and imitation," (Stern 1984, p. 464).

You should develop drills in the Nigerian language you teach as techniques to enrich your audio-lingual presentations because such techniques will offer the possibility of language learning without requiring a strong academic background and inclination (Stern, 1984, p. 465). Audio-lingual techniques bring language to the scope of the ordinary learner, especially, speaking, the most natural of language skills. Oral proficiency is achieved through intensive auditory–discrimination responses and speech responses. Speech habits are achieved through practice and repetition. The learner is made to listen to large corpuses of models of Hausa, Ìgbò and Yorùbá which he replicates through imitation. These tenets of audio-lingualism have led to the following programmes of instruction that are common in today"s practice of foreign/second language teaching:

1. Programmed learning with reinforcing small feedback mechanisms
2. The use of the audio aided learning
3. The use of the language laboratory.
4. Linear and branching programmes.
5. Personalized system of instructions.
6. Computer assisted instruction (Burke, 1974, Biehler, 1978, Stern, 1984

At the level of theory, audio-lingualism reflects the descriptive, structural and descriptive linguistics of the fifties and sixties. Its psychology is both Skinnerian and neo-Skinnerian as expressed the interpreting of "learning in terms of stimulus-response, operant conditioning, reinforcement with an emphasis on successful error-free learning in small well prepared steps and stages," (Stern, 1984, p. 465). Audio-lingual method is characterised by learning by consequence, measurement of observable behaviour, contiguity of learning items, reinforcement or reward strength, stimulus generalization, chaining and shaping. All of these, stage by stage, are characteristic of behaviourist psychology. The

language laboratory, use of audio-visual materials and all the other programmes of instruction stated above are associated with the audio-lingual method. One area where behaviourist psycholinguistics has contributed to theoretical language teaching is contrastive linguistics which dominated second language teaching and learning up till the 1960s prior to the advent of transformational linguistics, cognitive psychology and cognitive psycholinguistics. The contrastive linguistics concept of transfer and interference and the need to combat transfer and interference dominated language teaching between the 1950s and the 1970s and beyond.

The greatest weakness of audio-lingual method is its running shy of meaning, the way behaviourist psychology avoids anything that cannot be empirically observed. Meaning, it argues, resides in the mind and the mind is non-empirical. So audio-lingual method does not encourage anything it cannot observe empirically, no matter how much its potential in the teaching and learning process. As observed by Els, et. 1993), although it is possible by behaviourist principles to identify and describe first and second language differences along differential axis, behaviourist psychology has not been able to give the underlying psycholinguistic explanation of transfer and interference beyond the negative effect of retroactive transfer. Proactive transfer and other factors that promote second language learning have remained largely unexplained by behaviourist psychology. Thus, the unwillingness of behaviourist psychology to dabble into the human mind basically conditions the operation, experimentation and conclusions drawn by behaviourist psychology. This became more prominent by the beginning of 1960 when it came face to face with the challenges of the radical mentalist views of human language expressed in transformational generative psycholinguistics.

3.2 Cognitive Code Learning Method

Cognitive code learning method is a mentalist method of teaching described as a modified and up to date grammar translation theory (Carroll, 19760) or a modified up to date direct method of language teaching (Hester 1970 and Diller 1975 and 1978, Mueller 1975). It is rule – oriented in line with transformational linguistics which sees language as rule governed. Cognitive code learning method came into being as an alternative teaching method to audio-lingual method. The way transformational linguistics is to structuralist linguistics and cognitive psychology, so is structuralist linguistics to behaviourist psychology. Cognitive code learning method is mentalist and its recourse to direct method and grammar translation is a reflection of its mentalist position.

Characteristically, cognitive code learning method emphasises conscious acquisition of language as a meaningful system. It is less concerned about audio-lingual skills but aims at controlling the language systems in a manner that enables the learner to gain meaningful control of the language systems. In the words of Carroll (1966, p. 102):

> The theory attaches more importance to the learner"s understanding of the structure of the foreign language than in the facility in using the structure since it is believed that provided the student has the a proper degree of the cognitive control of the language, facility will automatically develop with the use of the language in meaningful situations

The cognitive code learning technique is not farfetched from its theory of exerting conscious control of the language system:

> Learning a foreign language is a process of acquiring conscious control of the phonological, grammatical and lexical patterns of the second language largely through study and analysis of the these patterns as a body of knowledge (Carroll, 1966, p. 102).

Cognitive code learning accepts conscious control of grammar and language rules. It also accepts reading and writing along with conscious control of grammar and language rules. In teaching the three Nigerian languages, therefore, it expects that your students will exert conscious or automatic control through intellectual control of the three Nigerian language items rather than doing so through habit control or rote learning as advocated and actually practised by audiolingualism.

At the theoretical level, cognitive code learning method is guided by four theoretical principles relevant to the teaching of Nigerian languages. These principles conform to those of cognitive psychology and transformational linguistics. They are listed below, according to Diller (1978, p. 23).

1. A living language is characterised by rule-governed creativity. This means that the teaching of Nigerian languages has to be consciously learned the way mathematical and scientific formulae are consciously learned and applied.

2. The rules of grammar are psychologically real. This suggests that the learning of the three Nigerian languages can be deliberately made so explicit that it becomes automatic through use.

3. Man is equipped specially to learn Language.   Although
   Nigerian languages are biologically founded in Nigerians
   as humans, their learning is not confined to the child
   whose learning capacity seems to have been overrated but
   to adults as well whose learning capacities have been
   underrated. Learning of Nigerian languages can occur in
   meaningful life situations and not by impression by some
   external force.

4. A living language is a language in which we can speak.
   Languages such as Háúsá, Ìgbò and Yorùbá are bound up
   with meaning and thinking. Learners must learn to be able
   to think in the language (Stern. 1984).

Cognitive   code   learning   depends   on   cognitive   psychology   and
transformational   linguistics.   Cognitive   psychology   and
transformational linguistics are both mentalist. They lay emphasis
on creativity and give full value to the mind to emphasise that
language is rule based and creative (Chomsky, 1965 and Radford,
1989). This is the rationale for saying that language must be
taught as "a consciously learned system," (Stern 1984, p. 471).
These conform to Chomsky"s concept that language is creative and
rule governed. The other mentalist index of cognitive psychology
and transformational linguistics is that language and thought are
inseparable Siamese twins. The language user must, therefore, be
taught in such a manner that he can consciously demonstrate his
ability in the language even without paying any conscious attention
to the rules of the language. This is the   only way he can
demonstrate the fact that he knows the rules of the language and
can automatically   apply the rules to communicate using   the
language.

To   achieve   the   above   objectives   in   the   teaching   of   Nigerian
languages, cognitive code learning exercises should generally be
designed   to   encourage   the   learner   to   recognize   patterns   and
relationships,   contrasts,   similarity,   configuration   and/or
sequences in morphological make up of items and sentences of the
languages. Cognitive code learning emphasises structure, discovery
procedure and learning as a field. In a test of the effectiveness
of audio-lingual method and cognitive code learning, Carroll (1966)
discovered that there was no real significant difference in the
achievement recorded in the use of the two methods in foreign
language teaching. The differences between the two methods can be
traced to the differences in the psychological theory on which each
of them is based.

On   structure,   cognitive   code   learning   emphasises   learning
effectiveness and the need to assist learners to grasp the overall
pattern of a field of study in a manner that facilitates the recall

of what they have learned and comprehend principles in a variety of situations. This is in consonance with Gestalt psychology. On discovery approach, for example, cognitive code learning admonishes that errors of performance can be looked upon as interim hypothesis, which can then be employed in enhancing further learning of the Nigerian languages through discovery and problem solving. On learning as a field, cognitive code learning lays emphasis on the need for the learner to develop perceptual ability to recognise new patterns of relationships in morphology, sentences and so on. Cognitive code learning encourages the use of contrasts, questioning/brainstorming, active and conscious participation and awareness as a means of developing in the Nigerian language learner a critical use of his mind in order to encourage the learner in developing inquiring mind by asking questions that facilitate conscious learning of the Nigerian language. Cognitive code learning consists of series of ad-hoc steps and processes which can make Nigerian language learning conform to its mentalist posture and gestalt/cognitive psychology.

At the level of methodology, cognitive psychology and cognitive code learning have not produced anything spectacularly comparably to behaviourist psychology and audio-lingualism. The stand of cognitive psychology and cognitive code learning essentially reflect an array of criticisms against behaviourist psychology and structuralist linguistics and the application of their tenets at the level of language pedagogy. To its credit, however, cognitive code learning recognises language learning as a conscious cognitive process rather than a probabilistic condition and habit formation. It believes that language learning should involve the learner"s conscious ability to exercise control of all the linguistic systems (phonological, syntactic, lexical, semantic, etc.) of the second language through study and analysis. It recognises the need for the learner to understand the target language structure by exercising proper cognitive control of the structure in order to facilitate learning it with a good degree of automaticity and the ability to use it in meaningful contexts (Carroll, 1966: 102-103). In consonance with the principles of Gestalt psychology and transformational linguistics, cognitive code learning emphasizes that:

1. The frequency with which an item is contrasted with other items is more important than the frequency of repetition. This suggests the use of contrasting language items during the teaching of Nigerian languages.

2. The more meaningful the materials with which the student works, the greater the facility in retention. This means the use of more meaningful materials for the teaching of Nigerian languages.

3. Materials presented visually are more easily learned than comparable materials presented orally. This suggests the use of visual materials for the teaching of Nigerian languages.

4. Conscious   attention   to   critical   features   and understanding of them will facilitate learning (Mueller 1975, p, 114). Conscious awareness to diverse linguistic features   of   the   Nigerian   languages   will   facilitate learning of the languages.

3.3 Appraisal of Audiolingual Teaching Method and Cognitive Code-Learning

Although cognitive psychology introduced a revolutionary dimension to the psychology of language acquisition and learning, there has not been an equally revolutionary parallel in the area of language teaching. At the least, here has not the kind that is comparable in terms of depth, breadth and detail to behaviourism and audio-lingualism. However, findings from psycholinguistic and educational researches have long since shown that neither behaviourism/audio-lingualism alone nor mentalist cognitive code learning in isolation is a panacea to the problem of language learning and teaching (Carroll, 1966 and Mueller, 1975, Carroll, 1966 and Sanders (1976). Carroll (1966) and Sanders 1976), for example, have noted that to be effective, both audio-lingual teaching method and cognitive code learning must take cognisance of the body of knowledge available to the language teacher in linguistics, psychology, language pedagogy and research. As acknowledged by Carroll (1966) and Mueller (1975), any successful teaching language of Nigerian languages must take cognisance of the principles stated in this section.

1. The need to contrast Nigerian language items with other items with which it might be confused.

2. That the frequency of repetition of an item is not as crucial as the frequency of contrasting these Nigerian languages items with others with which they might be confused.

3. The need to improve on patterned drills instead of mere repetition.

4. The need for more meaningful learning in order to improve retention, recall and learning generally.

5. Nigerian   language   materials   presented   visually   are generally superior to the same materials presented orally (Carroll 1966 and Mueller 1975).

6. The need for more meaningful learning of Nigerian language items in order to improve retention, recall and learning generally.

7. The need for visual assistance in aural-oral presentation of Nigerian language items (Carroll 1966 and Mueller 1975).

4. 0 Summary

This unit discussed the theoretical foundations of two dominant teaching methods the audiolingual teaching method and the cognitive code learning method. You read that the audiolingual teaching method derived from behaviourist psychology and all its methods are a reflection of empirical features of behaviourism. Cognitive code learning method, on the other hand, is derived from cognitive psychology and its tenets.

5.0 Conclusion

Behaviourist psychology seeks to explain human learning and problem. Where it fell inadequate seems to be in its attempt to explain human language learning by transferring the same facts and processes to explaining human language learning. This is where cognitive psychology excelled over and above behaviourist psychology. However, no true language teacher can afford to overlook either behaviourist psychological principles or cognitive psychological principles in Nigerian second language teaching. Both have to be borne in mind for any meaningful language teaching.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignments

1. Outline the major similarities and differences between behaviourist psychology and cognitive psychology.

2. Compare and contrast audiolingual and cognitive code learning methods. With very argued reasons, state which of the methods you think is more pedagogically applicable.

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