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Article Title

The Business of Words; Whose domain?

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Bio Data

The first submission is by presented by Mr. Thomas Davidson, a lawyer from Hong Kong. Mr. Davidson received his LL.B. from Oxford, and later obtained an Ma in Education from the South Australian University. He has been practicing for 27 years, has appeared before Supreme Courts in Australia, and in the High Court and Old Bailey in London. Currently he is practicing in the field of International Law and Consumer Protection.

Introduction

"Politicians frame words.
Lawyers play with words.
Judges interpret words.
Teachers teach words!"

Both the teaching of English and the practice of law have one thing in common. They both concentrate on 'words.' For the civil lawyer drafting a contract, he looks at each word, and carefully adds or deletes a word such that his contract is not vague or capable of two meanings. He uses words such as, 'may,' 'must,' 'can't,' 'shan't,' 'will,' etc, in deciding what degree of essentially he wants attached such that the other side knows exactly what it is the contract is saying. But this type of law is limited to the written word. Similarly, the law of intestacy (or wills,) is on the whole, written in precise unambiguous wording; though video wills are gaining popularity in some places.

But what of the law where the spoken word is critical. Consider criminal law, the law of defamation, (slander) the rules of corroboration, consider the rules of hearsay, to but mention some areas of law where what has been said is critical. Consider the more unpleasant law of rape, where not only what was said but how it was said may be vital. This area of law is the jealously guarded domain of lawyers. Yet on the whole lawyers know very little about the fundamental workings of their English language, its grammar, syntax, rules, except from their inherent knowledge.

Consider a murder trial where (in Australia, New Zealand and the UK) intention to kill must be proved beyond reasonable doubt to acquire a conviction. But intention in many occasions can come down to just what the spoken word said was. To fail in this burden of proof may see a lesser charge of manslaughter substituted namely a defeat for the prosecution and victory for defense.

In court the lawyers play with words, and the jury must consider the words, the meanings, the way it was said, when and where, the circumstances, in order to reach a decision. At law, in the absence of evidence to the contrary, the legal parties are presumed to have used the words in their ordinary meaning. (Heydon.J. 1996, 265) One may wonder at the boldness of this statement, especially one familiar with TEFL teaching!

Consider the story of Alice in Wonderland. (Dodgson, C.L. 1865) The lovable Humpty Dumpty says to Alice during one oral interlude, "When I say a word it means exactly what I want it to mean." This particular sentence needs careful examination, not only in the field of law, where the meaning of words is grossly ignored, but also by teachers of English, for its story line meaning goes far beyond its original meaning and carries a more modern truth.

The first part of Humpty's sentence is vital. "When I say a word..." At first blush one considers no more than 'a word' emanating from the organs of speech. But it is far more than that. That 'one word' contains unlimited qualities, as any teacher of English as a second language (or another language) will testify to. What if Mr. Dumpty said, "I'm going to kill you." At law these words constitute a crime, irrespective of whether the act was carried out or not. But much rides on the word "going." It may be said with a venomous tongue, a vague or uncertain slowness, a rising manic pitch, a falling non

threatening pitch, even stress on the wrong syllable, or combined with non oral movement such as a body language look that shows frustration, amusement, or even that the exact opposite is in fact what is meaning to be expressed. Maybe Humpty, who we shall assume for this exercise is carrying no weapon, may be expressing, via spoken words and/or non oral communications, one of the following;

- 1- I am really going to kill you and you will die imminently.
- 2- I am thinking about killing you but not imminently.
- 3- I am upset at your behavior only.
- 4- You have done something quite silly or stupid requiring oral admonition.
- 5- Disbelief that Alice could have done something that affects HD.
- 6- You displease me.
- 7- You please me so much suitable words fail me with a nonverbal movement.
- 8- Mr. Humpty is afraid he has been overworking Miss Alice.
- 9- Mr. Humpty is going to inflict pain falling short of death.
- 10- Mr. Humpty is joking.

How the sentence was pronounced, the speed, the rhythm, pitch, if any, are all important in determining the intentions of Mr. Dumpty. But consider the investigating police officer. He is confined to recording the words in print only. He does not attach a possible explanation from 1-10 to the sentence. He arrests our suspect and locks him up. The written word completely fails in its function to indicate the accused's intentions. The police officer is neither trained in linguistics nor the field of pronunciation to be able to competently reenact the scene.

Of course this assumes the police officer heard the words, which in most instances does not happen. Usually the words are recounted by witnesses, who tell the inquiring detective just what Dumpty said, at least what in their opinion and belief they thought was said. But maybe the words were accompanied by non-oral communication, (body language) which were absolutely essential to Dumpty in his conveyance of the message. Maybe one of the following items of body language (non verbal communication) was used;

- 1) a wink
- 2) throwing the head back and closure of the eyes
- 3) a slow shaking of the head
- 4) a wagging of the finger
- 5) an angry screwed up face
- 6) shaking furiously of the arms
- 7) a long hard glare
- 8) a wry smile
- 9) placing the hand on the forehead
- 10) a wave (brush) of the hand

And so the matter goes to court where the prosecutor and defense counsel argue over what was said. But for anyone who has ever been into a courtroom, you do not hear the lawyers argue over the complexities of linguistics, for they are not qualified nor competent. They argue 'the ordinary' meanings, as they see the best interpretation for their client. The body language is 'played down' and rarely is connected effectively to the organs of speech by the counsel, for they generally do not appreciate the significance. The jury then has the delicate function of putting the words into context and deciding someone's fate without the benefit of having the linguistic significance of either the words used or nonverbal communications explained to them!

Consider the jury deliberating a case in the following passage.

A- That's the judge because of his great wig.

And that's the jury box...and those 12 creatures I suppose are the jurors?

The 12 jurors were all busy writing on their slates.

A- "What are they doing? The can't have put anything down yet before the trial's begun."

B- "They're putting down their names for fear they should forget them before the trial ends."

A- "Stupid things!" Alice began in a loud indignant voice.

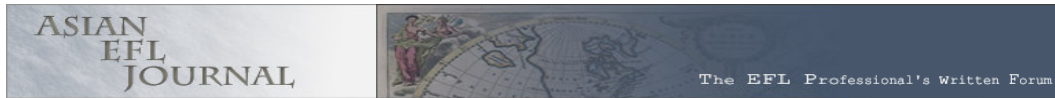
Here we are at the trial of the unlucky knave who stole the Queen of Tarts in Alice in Wonderland. We also have one very doubtful Alice wondering over the ability of the jury. She concludes her speech in an 'indignant' voice. How does 'it' sound? What are the variations of saying "Stupid things," in an indignant voice? For each reader there may be numerous answers! One can plausibly imagine any one of half a dozen scenarios as Alice simultaneously speaks, and it is submitted, if in an indignant vice, then some form of descriptive nonverbal communication must have accompanied her words.

Thus what we have here is an acute problem with pronunciation, not only for the speaker, but also for the listener. All critical elements in the teaching of pronunciation. All critical elements in the law. And many persons have extreme difficulty in determining pitch qualities. The implications for the teacher and especially defense counsel are enormous.

Although the field of TEFL is in its infancy, there surely is the need for experts in the field of linguistics to preside or be called to give evidence at trials where 'words' and their sayings, meanings, intentions, need careful consideration. Lawyers do not pronounce on medical terms, for it is not in their competence. Doctors are called. Similarly, teachers of English, especially those of English as a foreign language, have a useful and often vital place in the legal system! For is it correct to say a lawyer, (who studies only law with maybe a second ordinary degree) can comment on the English language anymore than a lawyer can comment on medical conditions? In a flawed legal system the answer is yes. In a fair and just system the answer is no.

But pronounce the words 'fairness' or 'justice' in a sentence, and what 'images' do they conjure up? The listener hears and imagines an idea, (providing the listener heard correctly) but as Burke, the 18th century philosopher noted, words such as the aforementioned give rise to "...a strange confusion of ideas and affections..." This surely emphasizes the strange yet entangled relationship between pronunciation of a word or words, and the listener's comprehension followed immediately by that listener's imagery attached to the pronounced words and clearly, as we shall discover, the way in which the words were said and accompanied by subtle nonverbal communications...

Heydon. J. (1996). *Cross on Evidence*. 7th Edn. Sydney, Butterworths



Article Title

Courtroom English.

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Bio Data

This submission is by presented by Mr. Thomas Davidson, a lawyer from Hong Kong. Mr. Davidson received his LL.B. from Oxford, and later obtained a Ma in Education from the South Australian University. He has been practicing for 27 years, has appeared before Supreme Courts in Australia, and in the High Court and Old Bailey in London. Currently he is practicing in the field of International Law and Consumer Protection.

Courtroom English.

Consider the following English case recorded in the English law journals. A seaman who was a witness in the case was being cross-examined. He was asked if he knew the plaintiff. The seaman said he did not know what the word 'plaintiff' meant and could not answer the question. The attorney chided his lack of knowledge by saying, "You mean you came into this court and don't know what 'plaintiff' means?" Later in the proceedings, the sailor was asked, "And where were you when the boat lurched?" The sailor replied. "Abaft the binnacle." The questioning attorney, not familiar with nautical terms asked the sailor to rephrase the sentence so he could understand it. The sailor responded, "You mean you came into this court not knowing where abaft the binnacle is?"

The Trade Practices Act. Misrepresentation.

Each country, Australia, New Zealand, United Kingdom, Canada and the United States

has its form of trade practices laws.

Key words in the Acts are;

False and misleading representations

Deceptive practices

Definition sections explain the meanings and the ambit they fall under. That the field of EFL publishing and teaching is covered by similar laws is a nice legal question just waiting to be tested. Most Acts relate to certain type of legally constituted businesses, whether they are state or federally constituted. That some of the practices that fall within the world of second language acquisition are, false, misleading and deceptive is a fact. Clearly some promises are made that can not be kept.

But, "every wrong has a right," according to Lord Wilburforce of Great Britain. How wrong he was. Of course at that stage the international EFL market was not in place where some publishers and private schools deceive clients by making representations that are clearly false. This market is more of a modern occurrence, and is rapidly growing as the EFL/TEFL field grows rapidly across Asia, Europe and the Middle East.

One can wonder about the future of this market. Can it go on as it is making unsubstantiated claims and promises forever?

Does not a wrong need a plaintiff? Who will be the first plaintiff? Indeed, who will be the first defendant? Will it be the international publisher selling his books across the globe? That brings in difficult questions of international law and jurisdiction. Will the plaintiffs be a class action? Thirty years ago no one ever thought that cigarette companies would be the losing defendants in a class action. What will the defendants claim? How were they wronged? How long before publishers start providing warnings on their books like cigarette packets.

Here are some futuristic examples.

Warning.

"Reading and learning the contents of this book does not mean you will be able to speak English."

Warning.

"The contents of this book are false and misleading and make unsubstantiated claims that may cause you to be so confused you will never speak English or pass an English test."

Warning.

"This English school teaches English but makes no representations that you will learn anything, nor that you will be able to utter a word of English, nor that you will ever pass an English exam."

Warning.

"By paying education fees to this school we neither guarantee our teachers are competent to teach English, or if they are, we neither guarantee you any success or advantages."

One wonders where the limits of professional indemnity will end? Doctors, prior to an operation are subject to the rules of 'disclosure and advising the patient of risks inherent, no matter how small, in the operation.'

Consider the following hypothetical teacher's disclaimer.

"I, (insert teachers name) the teacher, hereby advise you, (insert student's name) the student, that I the teacher make absolutely no representation that you the student, by paying fees for the specific purpose of English education and or acquisition, will, either now or at any future time whilst attending my classes,

- i) be able to speak fluent English
- ii) learn any specific number of words
- iii) pass any exam not controlled by this teacher
- iv) be able to write any English words
- v) understand any grammar principles
- vi) have any confidence at English communicating

vii) be able to read English

viii) be able to understand spoken English

and further, you the student, if gaining any knowledge whilst my student, accept unreservedly that that knowledge is beyond that which you were advised you would learn in any event, and that you agree unreservedly to hold me harmless from any and all civil actions for your failures to communicate in the subject that I have taught you.

Signed. (student)

Signed. (teacher)

However, having said all this hypothetically and with tongue in cheek, what I do wish to strongly emphasize is that;

- a) teachers are providing a service.
- b) teachers are making representations.
- c) teachers and academics hold themselves out as professionals.
- d) students have a reasonable belief in that they will receive a service of quality.

This, it is submitted, can only lead to one possible conclusion. Namely that the field of English teaching is of far greater importance than is currently recognized, and that the demands upon professionals in the future will be greater. That teacher's conditions, contracts, salaries, must reflect this and governments must move to control private business's purporting to teach second language acquisition. Groups of teachers, (such as in Korea, KOTESL, Japan JALT) will and must have a greater role to play in conjunction with the government in policing and setting standards. Current laws, whilst possibly being satisfactory within the Korean and Japanese system, are far from satisfactory from an international stand point. China still has a very long way in developing a satisfactory legal system of rules pertaining to education and schools.

However, as has been shown now both in the United Kingdom and the United States, Government education departments are open to be sued in the civil law of negligence (amongst other tort remedies) if they do not provide the service that is clearly within their expertise, namely in our case, the teaching of English to students, such that a student can expect to receive a reasonable level of tuition from a professional teacher,

and expect that input to manifest itself. Similarly, education authorities must give far more thought to the educational books they publish, or this area will be open to litigation too.

Of course, whilst it is apparent that the English teacher's role will become of far more significance in the new millennium than any one has forecast, it is also apparent that as with other professions, e.g. the medical and legal profession, careful note taking of a student's progress and efforts will become vital. {The English teacher shudders at the thought of more paper work!}

But maybe this futuristic thinking will give the authorities the jolt needed to start taking the profession of second language teaching and English education far more seriously than they have till now. For till now, (with the notable exception of the Greek government,) the Korean government and the Czech Government, to name but two prime examples, have not done enough to give recognition to this vitally important developing field of study, yet the countries abound in private language schools. Like medicine and law, where practitioners choose a field of specialty, so it must be in the new millennium that schools and teaching institutions that are providing a service, must have teachers who are specialists in their field.

Some of the areas of law that will rear themselves within an educational litigation context in the next decade are;

Fraudulent Misrepresentation.

Definition. A statement made which is known to be false, or made without a belief in its truth, or recklessly, not caring whether it is true or false.

Remedies. If the innocent party has suffered loss he may claim damages, based on the tort of deceit

Innocent Misrepresentation.

An innocent misrepresentation is a statement that the maker honestly and reasonably believes to be true. The teacher relies on the university to employ qualified professionals, yet recent examples associated with a boom in on line course has shown a few universities to be employing unqualified educators to conduct these courses. Thus the teacher student himself herself receives negligent advice from his source of instruction.

Negligent Misrepresentation.

A negligent misrepresentation is a false statement made by a person who had no reasonable grounds for believing it to be true. The innocent party has a right to damages for misrepresentation if he has suffered loss. However if the maker of the statement proves that he had reasonable grounds for believing, and in fact did believe, up to the time the contract was made that the facts represented were true, then he has a defense. (see for example; S.2 (1) Misrepresentation Act 1967 (U.K.) The boom in EFL publishing where book covers can promise students results that are clearly unachievable also leads to the possibility that publishers must start to consider their responsibility.

Given the above, then one can foresee situations arising where plaintiffs may claim a wrongful misrepresentation, and the defendant may claim innocent misrepresentation. Those in the business of supplying English second language education will undoubtedly come under closer scrutiny in the near future. Just how far that scrutiny goes (compare the rigid rules in Greece for establishing a private language school, and compare that to the lax system in Korea for establishing a language school) is doubtful, for one can't imagine governments interfering in a field in which transgresses the boundary of government control and free enterprise. However, the signs are appearing that the Korean government is starting to at least consider the situation.

Much of the foregoing is future speculation, but it is clear that in some form or shape, the field of law will enter into the area of EFL/TEFL, for law and lawyers have that pervasive ability to discover where future clients are waiting.



Article Title

L1 / L2 Learning in Children: Explicitly Reframed

Author

Peter Dash

1.0 Introduction

Some scholars have tried to frame second language acquisition (SLA) within children as a neat and clean proposition. The question for examination is whether children learn a second language implicitly (rather than explicitly) in the same way they acquire it in L1 (Fromkin et al., 1999, 347). However, the frames of children and their learning implicitly will receive particular attention, at first. The more central question, - traditionally simplified to L1=L2- will be subsequently examined. There will be also attempts, at times to demonstrate where theory may have affected practice so as to inject some pragmatic content into the exercise. A condensed historical overview will help reinforce the importance of the task at hand.

As a non-scholar in linguistic theory, it became particularly clear that the first problem in examining the proposition which Fromkin puts forth, is not so much as to whether implicit or explicit theorists are correct about child learning in the SLA context. But rather, it is whether the two terms have been sufficiently described so that the non-scholar and specialist outside the field understand what is really being investigated.

Having not heretofore done an exhaustive reading on the subject, it would seem that a greater effort at defining what the overall question is, would represent a good start.

In historical terms, the question has a relevancy in regards to its applicability to primary, and to a lesser degree, secondary education programs in the post 1950s. For in this period, the greater awareness of the importance of implicit learning and SLA research in itself began to reshape attitudes towards syllabus and curricular development. This contrasted starkly with the nineteenth century reform movement in education, where there was little concern for differentiating between the two types of learning or in fact, whether L2 learning deserved such a distinctive approach over L1, (Stern et al, 1992, p. 328).

Language teaching for decades-possibly up to the early to post World War II years and beyond- has relied on more traditional and explicit approaches to teaching, including certain grammar-translation methods.. In the 1950s, behavioral theories outlined by B.F. Skinner, provided support for the audio linguistic approach, which emphasizes implicit mimicry and rote learning (Stern et al, 1992, pp 328-329). They were fused with grammar-translation approaches; a fusion that is central core of SLA curriculum in many middle to high-schools within Northeast Asia. Subsequent research by Noam Chomsky (1959, 1965) and Stephen Krashen (1982) with their extensive support for the primacy of implicit learning and innate grammar generation (at the child level) did not seem to resonate loudly within this region. Were practical educators there trying to make a statement?

More focused research efforts into whether L1 and L2 learning were similar and the dynamics of implicit learning have been accelerated since the 1960s, through a broad

though incomplete list of scholars, (Brown, 1980, Chomsky 1959, 1969. Corder 1967, Dulay and Burt 1973-74, Ellis 1984, Krashen 1982). A good number of these works examined learning theory in the context of children. But the survivability of explicit teaching, even into early middle school, may tell us either that explicit learning has its use in late prepubescent children and/or the archaicness of grammar-translation methods in these school systems. This author tends to support the former with qualifications after applying communicative teaching to first year Korean middle school students for almost six years. A subsequent investigation into definitions and theoretical considerations and applications will hopefully provide more insights into these observations.

Scholars such as Krashen have used their views on the dominance of implicit learning not only among children but adults, as well so as to underscore the extensive weighting they place on implicit learning in either L1 or L2, (Krashen 2002 p.1). His emphasis on communicative (notational-functional) learning is an application of an implicit learning hypothesis which has had at least some affect on SLA curriculum development within the school system. For example, the Koreans, Japanese and Hong Kong authorities have over recent years expanded their native speaker programs within the elementary to high school levels so as to encourage communicative learning as supportive of implicit approaches. That is, curriculum in SLA, especially for children needs to emphasize daily and functional types of exposure and usage rather than excessive focus on grammar and lecture based types of explicit learning. However, these program form a small part of the SLA learning picture especially in Chinese and Korean public schools..

2.0 Definitions and Dimensions

First, it may be useful at this juncture to look at definitions and dimensions so that the question can be properly framed in terms of mainstream literature and research. "Implicit" has taken on a number of synonymous concepts, (rightly or wrongly) in SLA. In a recent conference, Stephen Krashen alludes to this when he equates unconscious learning with implicit learning (2002, p.1). He sees explicit learning as peripheral for children. Earlier, by almost twenty years, he stated, "language acquisition is subconscious process" (Krashen 1982, p. 10). For Krashen, language acquisition is more associated with the "spontaneous process of rule internalization" whereas language learning relates to the "development of conscious L2 knowledge through formal study", (Ellis R. 1992, p.292). Ellis refers to acquisition as absorbing a language by way of 'exposure' whereas learning is through conscious study. Ellis, on the other hand, seems less willing to differentiate between the two conceptually and by way of definition when contrasted with Krashen. (Ellis p.6).

Historically, Palmer in his 1922 work on language study seems to have been one of the first to enunciate in a methodological fashion the differences between explicit and implicit learning. (Stern et al, p.348). Respectively, he refers to the terms such as spontaneous and studial. However, he did divide the studial part into learning that required a more intellectual as opposed to less intellectual type. In the first type, he included repetition, memorization and automatization. Today, this might be included in the audio-lingual type of implicit learning, again suggesting that the dimensional conceptualization of explicit vs. implicit may not always be so clear.

Stern et al, graphically portray learning consciously as an intellectual exercise compared with learning without thinking and absorbing language information intuitively,

(p.327). Further on he compartmentalizes various dimensions in language teaching which additionally help one clearly understand the divide in implicit versus explicit, so it would seem. Here is an encapsulation.

Explicit;

rational/formal/intellectual, conscious, monitoring, problem-solving, analysis, abstract, metacognitive, inferencing, and systemic study.

Implicit;

intuitive, automatic, subconscious acquisition, unreflective, behaviorism, mimicry and memory, exposure to language in use.

In terms of framing the question properly, it will be also important to briefly consider how one defines a child and some of the pitfalls involved in the way it has been done across subject areas and even within SLA studies.

According to the United Nations, an individual less than 15 years of age can be categorized as a child.(Unesco 1982) So wholesale worldwide data and research held by United Nations agencies such as UNESCO and UNICEF which gather information on education and young people have generally gone with this definition. In the SLA field, however, because of cognitive studies and views by certain non-cognitive specialist scholars, there is a general acceptance that the child relates to the prepubescent stage, (Mangubhai, F, .2002, p.10).

Without getting too engrossed in semantics, the general reference to child in SLA can be confusing particularly for those not directly in the field such as statisticians,

sociologists and other specialists working in an interdisciplinary manner. So as to facilitate cross-disciplinary sharing of information and to further add clarity, I would use a term of prepubescent child (ppc) and under ideal conditions would also try to more precisely talk about the cognitive/ development stage of the child combined with some reference to approximate age(s). For as Stern's dimensions placed under explicit might imply (e.g.; rational, intellectual, metacognitive, problem solving) combined with Jean Piaget's descriptions of the formal operational stage, (Mangubhai, 2002, p. 14), the appearance of cognitive development -even if partial- might facilitate a late ppc's commencement of explicit learning. While this involves some conjecture, it would seem worthy of further examination. Contrastingly, earlier childhood would seem to involve a heavy reliance on the more implicit aspects such as mimicry, automatism, and absence of reflection as contained in Stern's implicit category.

To reflect the differences of development in explicit learning abilities along the childhood development continuum (more about that later) the author wishes to refer to late elementary school to early middle school level as (ppc3), nursery school to early elementary school as (ppc2) and the infant /toddler stage would be (pcp1) Again, one needs to be transparent and specific as to is what is being described, otherwise the old adage of apples being compared to oranges comes into play-or were they lemons. Post pubescent, pre-adult (pppa) would be referred to as adolescent and would more or less include the approximately 12 to 18 year period but girls often mature earlier than boys, so age quantification may be sometimes perilous. As well, individual variation and affective factors need to be taken into account during this whole process of defining who and what a child is. But that will be saved for another time and is less germane to this paper.

3.0 Theoretical Considerations and Applications

While it has been difficult to avoid some theory till now, a more in depth presentation will follow. Again, it needs to be reiterated that any personal observations from practical experience as applied to theory do not represent a final say but act more as a point of departure for further study. But relating theory to personal practice and observations is what teachers need to do but they cannot always do it with absolute scientific rigor or through structured action research..

I. Reframing the question

Using the above definition and dimensional framework as in section two, relevant theories and models will be examined and where useful, applied to practical experience in facilitating the investigation into the question. Firstly, in support of dividing out childhood into different developmental categories are the theories of Piaget (Mangubhai, 2002 p.15) whose categorizations will be associated with the author's terminology as appear in brackets.

- a sensori-motor stage between the ages of 0 and 2 (ppc1)
- a preoperational stage between ages 2 and 7 (pp2)
- a concrete operational stage around 7 to 11; and (pp3)
- a formal operational stage from around 11 years (pppa)

Clearly, Piaget associates pppa as where cognition begins to more fully develop

and by possible implication, when explicit learning becomes more operative. But prior to that stage, is there not a certain degree of early, so called "pseudo-cognitive" development which can be put to use in basic vocabulary and simple grammar learning. Why would this author find that ppc3 Koreans -at least a significant quantity at an above average level elementary school -can learn the differences of when to use "an" and when to use "a" or even when in some cases to use a plural to describe something you like and when to use it to describe it as a food you like (I like kangaroos versus I like kangaroo)? Albeit the rules of when to use it may be incomplete but they showed a collective improvement. Though certain individuals seemed totally lost -bearing in mind the author was using L2 as the near exclusive teaching medium! Is this an indication that some form of abstract thinking is sufficiently developing that a kind of low level, explicit learning can be productive within some children?

So, this author cannot exclude for ppc3 what Stern refers to as systemic study and Palmer refers to as studial, (Stern et al, p.328). Concrete operational as in Piaget's model implies some ability to deal with the concrete rather than the abstract. But are all grammar rules so abstract and non-concrete that pppa level of cognition is required to absorb a teacher's explicit explanations? It may be that most SLA grammar especially if it is highly different from the L1 of the second language learner may be too abstract for the ppc3. It is difficult to see how deep explicit learning approaches to SLA (complex abstractions, major problem solving, complicated tasks) as this author will refer to them as, can be the only type of explicit learning. It should be recalled that Palmer differentiated the light intellectual one from the heavier kind. Following from this, the author accepts that implicit is the mainstay but that some peripheral to moderate amount

of light explicit learning does occur, particularly in the latter stages of pp3 as consistent with Piaget whose research which shows a continuum of cognitive development. And it seems from having observed high aptitude, elementary school children from upper socioeconomic ranges through three weeks of winter camp in Korea, that certain pp3 individuals may be more able to absorb explicit types of teaching. Explanations might include their being influenced by affective factors which "catapult" them into the type of explicit learning capability more in line with those in the pppa stage.

Individual factors which could contribute to ppa3 partial ability in explicit learning might include the quality of teacher and teaching methods, attitude, degree of and quality of outside school support, linguistic aptitude, general intelligence and to a lesser extent sociopolitical factors. Interestingly, H. Zobel may offer some support to the author's observations, at least in terms of the variation of success in learning past participle grammar by pp3 Korean elementary students. For Zobel sees implicit learning as more effective than explicit forms of language instruction with the latter approach leading to more heterogeneous results, (Mangubhai, p. 4.6.) But again, more systematic and thorough research would have to be done to validate such an interpretation.

Finally, Chomsky would seem to be supportive of a focus on implicit learning during the childhood years. After all, the Chomskian concept of LAD (Language Acquisition Device) is referred to as working at a subconscious level. However there is little concern as to whether it might similarly apply to an L2 that an individual child might be learning, (Chomsky, 1965.) The LAD's dominance, or its extent of importance, re-enforces the argument of implicit approaches to learning by children as the LAD operates in subconscious and intuitive manners; adjectives subsumed under Sterns

implicit dimensions to learning. It is through the LAD that the child internally and implicitly carries out hypothesis testing in a step by step continuum in deciding what grammar is to be adopted and what is to be excluded. According to E.H. Lenneberg, the LAD largely atrophies after pubescence has been reached, (Ellis, p.44.)

Axel Cleeremans and Luis Jimenez collectively wrote, "Learning is implicit as long as the cognitive system is not given enough time to develop high quality representations," (French 2002 p.2). Given the low or lower degrees of cognitive development in children the extent of this type of "interference" with implicit thinking would be significantly less one would think when compared to a mature adult-again reinforcing the importance of implicit learning in a child.

II. SLA vs. L1 Learning

Studies show that the order in which a language is learned by children in terms of syntax and morphemes, for example is highly similar in many cases between L1 and L2, (Dulay and Burt, 1974.) That in fact the so called errors that a child makes in learning English as a second language are similar to those of a child learning English as L1. So negative interference as expressed in the audio-lingual concepts seems to be highly unimportant in affecting the leaning processes between the two types of learners of English if one were to give a high level of importance to this study.

Dulay and Burt (1974) specifically studied children in the ppc2 stage of 6 to 8 years of age. They concluded that "The learners' L1 does not affect the order of development in child SLA, (Ellis 1994, p.57). This again is consistent with the implicit concept of universal grammar as enunciated by Chomsky, (Chomsky 1965.) And as Ellis

states in regards to the LAD, "the idea that there is an independent linguistic faculty which determines SLA is tenable," (Ellis 1994, p.14). The caveat is that L2 learners seem better able to learn core rules as compared with L1 learners who are better capable with acquiring specific rules. (Corder p.168) Possibly indicative that L1=L2 is not such a clean proposition (for children), Dulay's and Burts earlier results for Spanish children seem less conclusive in support of L1=L2.

Corder (1967) does not contest the relevancy of LAD in SLA but rather sees an L2 learner as having a different set of hypotheses to test than a native learner exclusively studying his or her mother tongue (p.168). But can we describe the leaning process as being essentially different between L1 and L2 learning because of Corder's insights? Or can one say that the L1 learning strategy may be somewhat different to an L2 learning strategy, instead. He infers that the SL learner's use of the LAD is largely facilitated by having existing input of his "mother" language. Suffice it to say, the differences between language acquisition and language learning strategy will not be further explored given the significant attention already given to defining and framing the question.

Largely contradictory to Corder's theories is audiolingualism. Though conceptually implicit, audiolingualism includes the concept of SLA as being interfered by the first language, (Baker p.118.) But as seen by the later evidence of Dulay and Burt, this earlier theory is not supported. Or by Corder's contention, SLA is reinforced by previous L1 learning (p.168). As well, Chomsky's research gave very little importance to audiolingualism further limiting support for the hypothesis that SLA is negatively affected by L1 acquisition, (Ellis p.43.)

The process of early bilingualism for example may also reduce the possibility of one language being dominant over the other and causing either interference (if one goes with the audio-lingual approach) or facilitation as expressed by Corder. Saunders brings up this issue of early bilingualism in his study relating to the L1 child vs. the L2 child in examining German and English speaking students (Mangubhai, p. 1.16.) He appears to conclude that the L2 learner at this pp2 stage enjoys many favorable conditions that an L1 learner would generally experience. Again, the stage of childhood would seem to be relevant in reinforcing implicit learning which is seen as being more effective than explicit learning by the likes of Krashen and Lenneberg.

4.0 Conclusion

Facile hypotheses that simply state that all children experience only implicit learning in the context of L1=L2 do a disservice to the inherent complexities of language learning theory and modeling. Definition and dimensional parameters are also important as launch points for further investigation of the question which a short paper as this one can not hope to "fully" answer.

Further, a paper as short as this one can not hope to comprehensively summarize all the main supporting (or contending) models, theories and conceptualizations about L1=L2. It is suffice to say that the more modern and up to date research as supported by the likes of Chomsky,(1959, 1965), Krashen (1982), Lenneberg (1967), Zobl (1995), and French and Axelman (2002) give credibility to the importance of implicit learning processes during the childhood years. Dulay and Burt (1974) underscore the similarities in L1 to L2 learning with Corder (1967) and Ellis (1992) suggesting some differences in

learning strategies between SLA and L1 learning.

However, it would seem that there is a need to more finely define the period within childhood development as to when explicit learning is excluded or very near excluded, when L1 = L2 is particularly heightened and the impact of individual differences and affective factors. Anecdotally, non-linguistic specialists might benefit from having the period of childhood better described up front and that explicit vs. implicit might also be looked at in terms of points on a continuum -such as "deep explicit vs. light explicit." No doubt psycho-linguists will be better able to come up with more technically sound terms and descriptions-if they already have not done so.

With the above references and limitations in mind, combined with observations as a former teacher in elementary to middle school EFL teaching, this author would conclude the following. The evidence to date indicates that for the most part, language learning in L1 and L2 are similar (though not identical) and implicit, especially in pp1 and pp2 development stages. That children in pp3, particularly in the latter years and with certain individual factors in their favor can experience some degree of explicit learning, even if in so called "lighter" forms.

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