

Psychological and Linguistic Perspectives on ELT: Implications of Learning Theories on Language Acquisition

Lavanya Sivapurapu¹

¹ Department of English, Koneru Lakshmaiah Education Foundation, Guntur, AP, India-522302.

E Madhavi^{1,2}

² Department of English, CMR College of Engineering & Technology, Hyderabad, Telangana, India-501401

Abstract:

English language teaching can be described as a means of control that applies hypotheses or useful territories of work established in bigger hypothetical directions. These hypothetical directions or the profound structures of ELT must be comprehended. This causes us to be better educated as teachers regarding the kind of choices we, and other stakeholders in education, settle on.

We have options in all that we do in the teaching-learning cycle, and we need to fully comprehend what our decisions involve, from where our decisions are established, and what presumptions we hold when we settle on our decisions. As such, we will perceive how hypotheses and practice are connected.

This paper concerns the hypothetical contemplations that have dominated ELT in its development as an order of study. It acquaints us with the directions or points of view fundamental to its examination, psychological linguistics, and sociological and historical orientations. These conversations are directed at two levels; 1) the worldwide or Western level, from where many ELT hypotheses originate, and 2) the particular degree of the Indian setting, where improvements are applied in useful terms.

Keywords: Psychological Linguistics, Language Learning, Classical Conditioning, Operant Conditioning

1. Introduction

Linguistics and psychology are firmly interlaced, so the conversation of one essentially includes the other. This is because language acquisition normally includes the individual student, inspirations for learning, or non-learning, memory, etc. Language learning focuses, in a very rural context, on the real learning processes taking place in the minds of individuals. Since the theories of linguistics and psychology are so closely intertwined, we aim to concentrate on the psychological aspects of linguistics, where possible, to see how these perspectives apply to learning and language learning.

As a discipline, there are several schools of thought and developments in the field of psychology. After all, psychology only attempts to explain how people think and act. These explanations themselves are theoretical as well as conceptual, and subject to falsification. Certainly, they are not gospel truths about the mind. Indeed, language development ideas on language learning show how hypotheses describing phenomena alter.

They even show how attitudes toward people, the mind, the learner, language, and language learning can lead to changes in psychological theory. This means, in other words, that improvements in thought have been small or gradual, yet radical and revolutionary, transforming our understanding of people and their cognitive, intellectual, and linguistic powers.

Within psychology itself, there are several different ways of perceiving the mind and understanding how learning takes place. There are different schools of thought and contrasting explanations in the field of psychology. The language teacher must consider these schools of thought and then try to extrapolate and apply what is important for practical purposes.

2. Major schools of the psychology of learning

The basic schools of psychology are 1) Behaviourism 2) Cognitivism 3) Developmental psychology (e.g., Piaget and Vygotsky's theories of learning), and 4) Affective psychology (e.g., Carl Roger's psychology) which have influenced many language teaching methodologies, such as TPR (total physical response), Gattegno's Silent Way, Curran's Community Centred Learning and Lozonov's (De)Suggestopedia. These methodologies concentrate on the emotions and feelings associated with learning and language, aiming to promote confidence and create anxiety-free, enjoyable learning environments [2].

2.1 The Behaviourist School of Psychology

The Behavioural School of Psychology based its hypotheses on empirical data derived from experiments with living organisms and laboratory animals. Experiments on learning were based on how the amoeba, the dog, the pigeon, and other such animals responded to primary drives such as hunger strike them. Scientists noticed, for example, that amoeba can shift in the direction that food can be found. However, the range of actions that simple organisms possess is limited; they are capable of reacting only to a small set of stimuli (e.g., temperature, food, etc.) and in each case, the response to the given stimulus is fixed and predictable. Amoeba, for example, always behaves in the same way when environmental conditions are modified. There is never any change of behavior and in such a situation it can be said that no learning is possible because learning is a change in the behaviour or state of knowledge, of the learner, induced by exposure to experience [7].

In more complex organisms (higher forms of life), however, there is the possibility, behaviourists say, of changes occurring in the pattern of behaviour. The organism is capable of responding to a much wider range of stimuli, and even if an unfamiliar or unusual stimulus is provided, the organism is capable of developing a response to it. Furthermore, the relationship between stimulus and response is not always seen to be fixed and unchanging as it is in the lower organisms. The higher the organism is, the greater its possible range of behaviour, and the greater the possibility of learning [3].

Learning (as a change in behaviour pattern) is seen in most animals. In many ways, learning seems to be, to behaviourists, an associative process a result of what psychologists call Conditioning. What does this term mean? The term behaviour is to be deciphered regarding upgrade and reaction. At the point when a dog sees a bit of meat (boost), it salivates (response) when it hears a bell (stimulus), on the other hand, it does not salivate (response). We may say that the dog exhibits a certain pattern of behaviour in the former situation, but not in the latter [7]. However, if we ring the chime each time a dog is given food, it starts to relate the ringing with the presence of food. Before long, the dog starts to salivate (reaction) when it hears the bell (improvement), even when there is no meat. That is, the dog is conditioned to salivate when it hears the bell; it has developed a new pattern of behaviour which it did not originally possess and which, in a sense, is not natural to it. This type of change of pattern from one behaviour to another is called conditioned learning [9].

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This, in fact, forms the basis for the famous experiments performed by Pavlov, the Russian psychologist.

The stages involved in conditioning may be schematised as; (S= Stimulus) (R = Response)

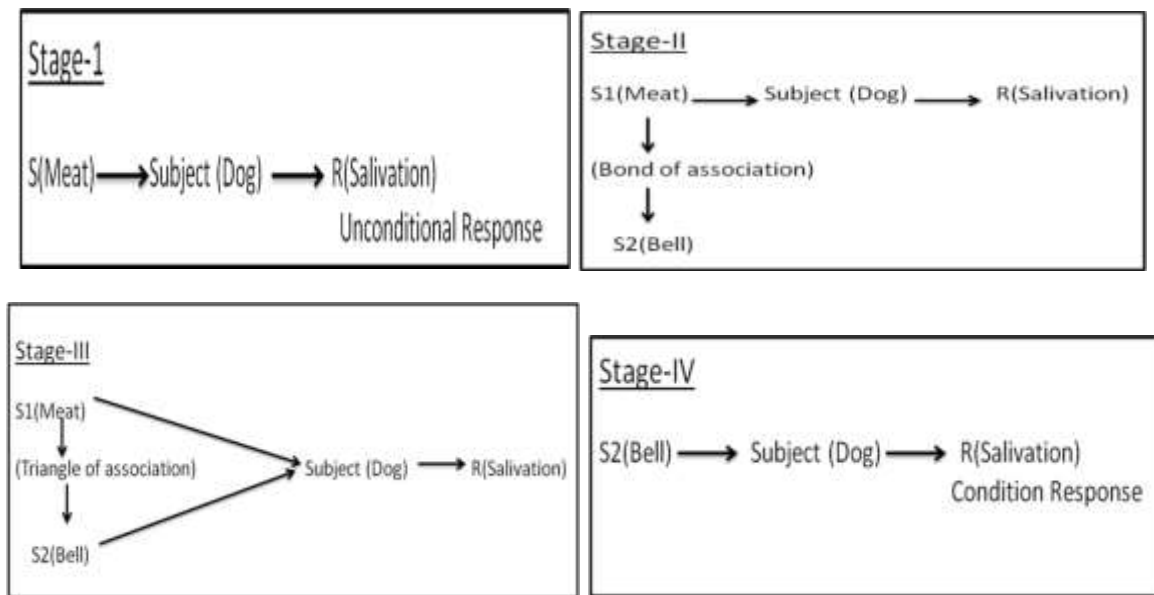


Figure 1. Stages in Classical Conditioning

This type of conditioning has been termed classical conditioning. The characteristic features of classical conditioning are the following (as shown in Figure 1).

1) There is a natural or pre-existent bond between a stimulus (S1) and a response (R) which is exploited subsequently for conditioning (Stage-1).

2) A bond of association is formed between (S1) and a new stimulus (S2) - (Stage II)

At the point when the cooperative connection between S1 and S2 is sufficient, S2, without any support, can deliver the reaction. This connection between S1 and S2 is fortified by reiteration and debilitated by the nonappearance of redundancies (the dog will stop salivating if it hears the bell on numerous occasions without getting any meat). The net outcome is that in a set-up, personal conduct standard traditional moulding substitutes a boost S1 by another S2 (stages III and IV).

4. The organism plays a passive role in classical conditioning - salivation is not a voluntary response [4].

3. Two- requirements are seen to be important for this conditioning

a) The new stimulus (S2) must be presented together with the original stimulus (S1) For

example, the ringing of the bell must be simultaneous with the appearance of meat; if there is too great an interval between S1 and S2, conditioning will not take place [1].

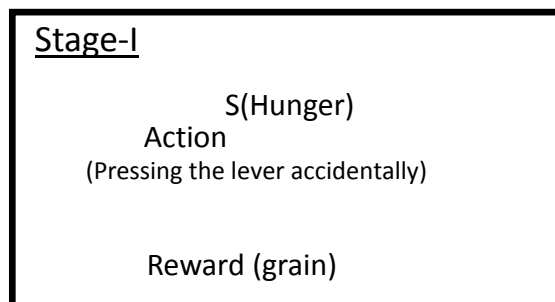
The two stimuli are otherwise unrelated i.e., the only thing which brings them together is contiguity or nearness of time. The formation of the associative bonds depends on this contiguity.

b) For the bond to be formed, the two stimuli must be represented repeatedly. The amount of repetition seems to be crucial; the more frequent the repetition, the greater the strength of the bond.

Behaviourists discuss a different type of conditioning (as described in Figure 2). A pigeon is shut in a cage to which a mechanical lever that ejects a pellet of grain whenever it is pressed is attached. The bird keeps fluttering about, presses the lever accidentally, and receives a pellet of grain.

“It gets a pellet of grain every time it presses the lever”. Now it presses the lever whenever it wants to have a pellet of grain. In this stage, the bird learned to handle the lever. This type of conditioning is called “Operant Conditioning”[1].

We may schematize the stages in the second type of conditioning as follows:



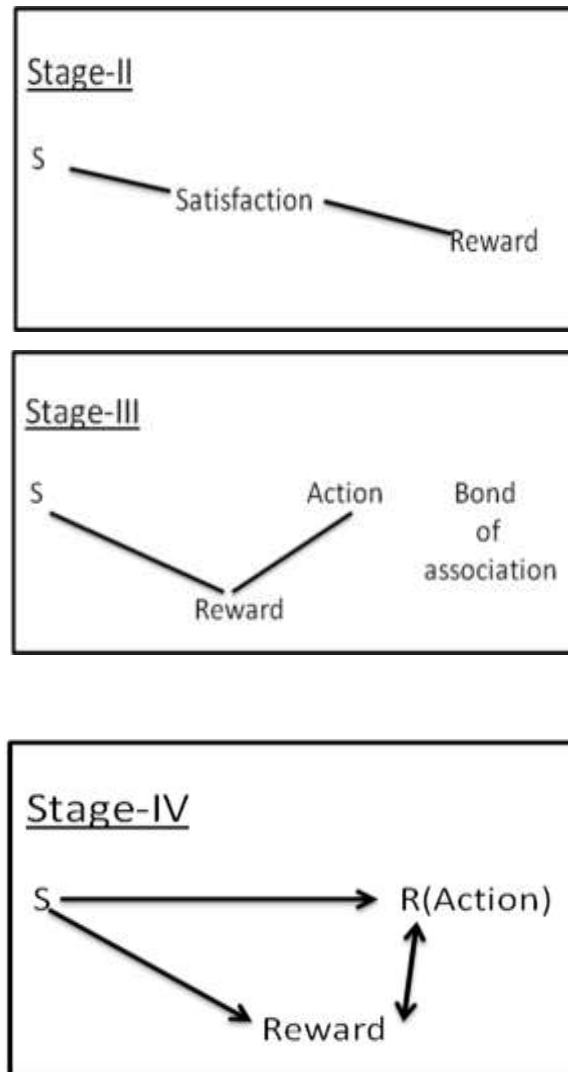


Figure 2. Stages in Operant Conditioning

The characteristic features of operant conditioning are:

- 1) There is no prior upgrade – reaction bond. The inner boost (hunger) the activity of pressing the switch, and the reward are detached at the underlying stage (S1).
- 2) The reward is satisfying to the organism and hence the repetition of the action reward sequence forms a bond of association between action and reward (S2 and S3)
- 3) A bond is shaped between the upgrade (hunger) and the activity of pressing the switch, which presently turns into a moulded reaction. The activity is strengthened by remuneration and debilitated by its nonattendance (S4)[4].
- 4) The organism plays an active role in operant conditioning. In other words, it operates

upon the environment to bring about the desired result.

An important difference to be observed between the two different types of conditioning (or conditioned learning) is that operant conditioning emphasizes the effect or result of conditioning, while classical conditioning ignores this aspect of the learning process completely.

According to the exponents of the former theory, learning takes place effectively only when it is associated with an experience that is pleasant or satisfying to the learner. This factor is much more vital than the frequency of the learning experience, which is emphasized by classical conditioning[7].

4. Implications of conditioned learning: Thorndike

The major implications of the two models of conditioned learning are effectively summed up in the three famous laws of learning, formulated by the American psychologist, Thorndike.

a) The Law of Effect: This law implies that “the most effective learning is that which is most satisfying”. Two conditions must be fulfilled if an experience is to be “satisfying”. What is taught must relate to the needs of the learner.

In general, there is a relationship between behaviour and “need”. Needs are products of external or internal stimuli, which manifest themselves as “DRIVERS”. Most forms of behaviour are directed towards the satisfaction of needs, one could even say that behaviour results when there is a tension, or imbalance, between a need and its satisfaction [1].

Once a pattern of behaviour is established, it tends to remain fixed, and a new pattern of behaviour can replace it only if it is more “satisfying” – that is, if it relates more directly and completely to the satisfaction of a need or needs. When one aims at inducing a change of behaviour (which by definition, is learning) this factor can be taken into account. No one can acquire new behaviour unless there is an incentive or motivation [5].

b) The process of learning must be rewarding.

A word or gesture of appreciation, used as a reward for producing proper behaviour, can be a powerful motivator, even if the learning does not obviously relate to any need.

Learning can be self-rewarding too. The sense of achievement which comes from success in learning can itself be an incentive, even if there is no other form of reward.

The Law of Exercise: This law makes it clear that learning results from activity by its learner. One learns, basically, by doing. The more frequent the learning activity, the more potent the

learning. The amount of practice that can be provided to the learner determines how well they retain what has been learnt [4].

3) The Law of Readiness: If we want the learner to learn something, they must be motivated to do so.

Motivation has two aspects: The first follows from the Law of Readiness and the second from the Law of Effect.

The former law implies that the learner must be brought to a state of readiness to learn, before learning can begin; or, as a psychologist might put it, there must be the proper learning set [2].

In a race, the starter gives the signal “Get set” before the signal “Go”. It is a warning that the race is about to begin. It allows the runner to get their nerves and muscles “tuned” for the explosive start.

Teachers use different methods to achieve this set: telling a story, asking a question, cracking a joke etc. The purpose is to capture the attention of the student, and to set the stage for the learning process. In other words, the teacher has to “prime” the student, bringing them to a stage where they are impatient to find out what comes next. Here “motivation” takes the form of an initial or preparatory activity [2].

The second aspect of motivation is concerned with the content of teaching itself, and the manner in which content is presented to the learner.

Motivation is said to be internal or “intrinsic” when the act of learning provides its reward. But when learning is related to the satisfaction of some need lying outside the learning experience, motivation is said to be external, or “extrinsic”. Thus, working through a crossword puzzle because one enjoys solving puzzles is an example of intrinsic motivation. On the other hand, learning a language to be able to get a job is an example of extrinsic motivation [4].

Extrinsic motivation is something the competent teacher can provide by manipulating the process. But intrinsic behaviour is motivated by socio-economic or socio-cultural factors and, usually, the teacher cannot have much influence on it [5].

5. THE BEHAVIOURIST VIEW OF LANGUAGE LEARNING AND THE LANGUAGE TEACHER

What behaviourists believe is the typical pattern of language acquisition, finding that the instructor of the language should endeavor to fortify the process. For the instructor, the

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repercussions of the behaviourist model, of adapting clearly, were particularly appropriate. Language is discovered simply through use; more practice prompts more use of language. The production of language depends upon the situation, which makes its usage fundamental [6]. Language cannot be isolated from the situation; the instructor needs to introduce each new illustration of a language in a critical condition. Conveying the phonetic reaction to support language use requires effort. If the understudy is not called upon to advance this endeavor then there will not be any learning. Reacting correctly requires thought. Thought will, without a doubt, decline after a period, so drawn-out preparation is less useful than scattered practice [3]. Communication in language comes sooner than the composed structure. The open (inactive) experience of language is essential before beneficial (dynamic) use can start. Learning happens quicker when the correct reaction to an improvement is instantly provided; the understudy should know quickly whether the effort made is right or wrong. Learning is quicker if the student is put in a circumstance in which they can deliver only the right reaction. Each mistaken reaction develops a defective personal conduct standard which meddles with the development of moulding. Each new thing learnt should be strengthened by additional training before additional learning starts [7].

6. Montessori Cognitive view of Teaching Approach and Learning Language

At a psychological centre at the College of Rome, Montessori showed troublesome children things to peruse at typical stages. Instructors commonly teach reading in two ways. The first sees a sentence or some portion of it read by the educator and rehashed in tune by the whole class and this cycle proceeds until the section or page is finished. The second involves students reading a sentence in sequence at a time. Montessori, in exploring methodology at the facility, investigated other options; drawing in the students with the content. She had the option to teach reading by applying this method to deal with her "troublesome children". If successful, then ordinary students would without a doubt find this method powerful in being taught reading. If instructors need youngsters to learn, they should be keen to teach reading, as per cognitive psychology. Montessori showed that, at the end of the day, students, by being completely associated with the reading process, can easily figure out how to read [3].

In 1906, she was approached to begin a reformist school for ghetto kids in Italy. The school was established as the "Casa Dei Bambini" or "Children's House". There she taught ghetto children well, purposely captivating them during the time spent in learning. They were ghetto children and they had never been to class, yet she managed her responsibility competently by

embracing active learning and carried this present reality to the study halls. Therefore, it seems active learning is an extraordinary way to deal with instructing.

7. Piaget's Cognitive Development Theory and Language Teaching

Piaget managed the association between language headway and its utilitarian use and the mental improvement of the adolescent. He divided the scholarly improvement of adolescents into four stages: the Sensorimotor (birth to 02 years), the Computational stage (02-07 years), the Definite-Implementation stage (07-11 years), and the Formal-Operational (12-adulthood). For the satisfaction of the scholarly improvement pattern of an individual, all of these stages are mandatory. The usage of his speculation in language instructing is: During the Sensorimotor level, the child uses their five senses to develop his creative skills and upgrade aptitudes [5].

To discover the world, the child begins utilizing language to impersonate and mirror the world. At this point, the child is narcissistic and adapts either by assimilation (consolidating new ideas in a current model) or by methods for convenience (to make another idea by changing the bygone one). A language teacher should manipulate this, with Piaget asserting that in the underlying stage doing what the youngster needs to do as a result of the egocentric nature is likely. So, the teacher needs to open the child to comparative things before absorption or oblige speech acquisition at a preschool or Kindergarten level [10]. At the computational stage, the child's memory and creative mind grow all the more, so the child begins suggesting conversation starters to the teacher, and it is the obligation of the teacher to react appropriately and make suitable circumstances to frame words and pick-up vocabulary. In the following level, the definite implementation stage, the child will not be egocentric anymore, beginning instead to have thoughts of other things and considering genuine concrete things, starting to break down the circumstances and logical results. That is why this is the correct period for the language instructor to present the child with simple grammar. Finally, at the Formal-operational stage, the child will begin utilizing rationale and unique reasoning and begin posing inquiries on the recently acknowledged musings and thoughts [3].

8. Conclusion

English assumes a significant function in all circles of life as the 'most widely used language', 'information bank', 'official language', and 'installment visa', and so on. Each language is a

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mechanism of correspondence to comprehend the way of life of separate human culture. However, the motivation behind the English language is not just to comprehend a specific culture, since it serves the individuals as identification to live in the 'global village' too. Along these lines, Indians should also study this lingua franca as a subsequent language. Etymologists, clinicians, and logicians have made different methods, techniques, methodologies, and frameworks to show "Lingua Franca" as an ensuing language. Regardless, this article has focused on the specialists of two schools of intellectual examination: "Behaviourism" and "Cognitivism". Their responsibilities for indicating an ensuing language have been detailed, and an explanation provided as to how these schools are helping to form procedures for language learning. In behaviourism, there is no strong arrangement toward first language acquisition, yet the musings of behaviourism have a great deal of relevance to second language acquisition. On the other hand, the cognitive school states that their thoughts and musings are material and gainful for demonstrating any language, whether it is the principal language/first language or a resulting language. A Behaviouristic Speculation of learning sees speech acquisition as an absent and customized measure. By taking musings from behaviourism, the ensuing speech teaching frameworks that a teacher can use in the classroom are Pavlov's 'training by moulding' and 'repetition and exercise', Watson's 'supporting', Skinner's 'fortification' and 'progressive estimation', and Bandura's 'perception and demonstrating', etc. All of these frameworks advance the possibility of 'propensity development' for language instructing. The part of a behaviourist educator is to provoke improvements to accomplish the points and targets of language instructing learning measures [8]. In opposition to Behaviourism, an Intellectual Hypothesis of swotting sees additional language acquisition as a cognizant and contemplated concept, including the conscious utilization of study procedures. Language educational systems as indicated by the intellectual school are Montessori's 'dynamic schooling', Piaget's 'hierarchal schooling', Vygotsky's 'social schooling', 'study hall connections', 'guided support', and 'platform', and Bruner's 'association and innovation', and so on. Learning procedures are uncommon methods of preparing data that upgrade appreciation, learning, or maintenance of data. The procedures of psychological clinicians guarantee the 'psychological capacity' for language learning. As per this hypothesis, the function of a psychological educator is 'to ready the climate' for making their instruction/learning measure fruitful. Numerous language-showing strategies approaches, and procedures, like 'Network Language Educating',

‘Informative Language Instructing’, ‘Dr. West's Technique’, and ‘Underlying Situational Strategy’ are generally founded on intellectual systems.

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