
Trends and Development in English Language Teaching (ELT): Review

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This concept review consists of different sections. The first section deals with the meanings of bilingualism from different perspectives. The second part presents critical review on dimensions of bilingualism. The third section presents types of bilingualism and the differences among bilingualism. The fourth part discusses cognitive factors that affect bilingualism and how they affect bilingualism. The conclusion comes at the end with the summary of what has been discussed in the body parts.

Keywords: Bilingualism, Compound Bilingualism, Co-ordinate Bilingualism and Subordinate Bilingualism.

Concept Review on the Meanings of Bilingualism

It is not easy to formulate a generally accepted definition of bilingualism. Bilingualism means different things to different people. The definitions of bilingualism are based up on different approaches. These are maximalist approach, minimalist approach, permissive approach, functional approach, fractional approach and holistic approach. Bloomfield (1933:56) defined bilingualism as 'native-like control of two languages'. However, this definition excludes many people who speak more than one language but do not have 'native-like' control of one or both of their languages. A large number of people who use two languages regularly may not have 'native-like' control of one of their languages. It is clear that Bloomfield's definition of bilingualism needs to be modified if it is to reflect accurately the reality of people's ability to use languages.

The existence of large numbers of people who speak more than one language, but who do not exhibit native-like control in both languages raises the question of how proficient a person must be to be classed as bilingual. Haugen (1953:7) suggests that bilingualism begins 'at the point where a speaker of one language can produce complete, meaningful utterances in the other language'. Diebold (1961) has even suggested that bilingualism has commenced when a person begins to understand utterances in a second language but is unable to produce utterances.

Bilingualism may be defined as having some ability to use two (or even more) languages. There can, therefore, be degrees of bilingualism at one extreme there are those people who have native-like control over two languages and at the other extreme are those people who have just begun to

acquire a second language. Bilingualism is the situation in which an individual is able to understand two languages very easily and to use both of them like a native speaker of the same social and cultural origin in all the communicative situations of his/her social milieu, because he/she knows the second culture which has become like his/her second nature (Philip Riley, 1990).

British pedagogue Deshays Elizabeth (2002) stated that bilingualism means the possession of two languages, the collocation of someone within two linguistic worlds. The same definition is also adopted by Kurt Egger, when he writes that bilingualism means the knowledge of two languages. Bilingualism is the situation in which a person is able to use two languages like a native speaker of the same social and cultural origin in all the communicative situations of his/her social milieu, because he/she knows the second culture which has become like his/her second nature (Philip Riley, 1990). Bilingualism is also contact with possible models in the second language and the ability to use these in the environment of the native language (Diebold, 1961). Further, bilingualism is the practice of alternately using two languages (Weinreich, 1979).

Degrees of bilingualism can be assessed in the individual's command of the four skills of listening comprehension, speaking, reading comprehension and writing in each language. Some children in immigrant communities, for example, have all four skills only in the official language of their country of residence while in their parents' language they have only the oral skills of listening comprehension and speaking. In addition, people who are bilingual in all four skills can have different levels of skill in each language.

For example, a Vietnamese speaking child educated in English may have a better command of written English than of written Vietnamese, even if the child's spoken Vietnamese is better than his/her spoken English. Finally, bilinguals have different characteristic linguistic features, especially relating acquisition, thinking or interconnections of languages (Baker, 2011).

The Summary on Meanings of Bilingualisms are presented in table form as follows:

<i>Approaches of Bilingualism</i>	<i>Who is bilingual? What is bilingualism?</i>	<i>Definitions</i>	<i>Author</i>	<i>Date/year</i>
<i>Maximalist</i>	Bilingualism is the	Native like control of two languages	Bloomfield	1933
<i>Minimalist</i>	A Bilingual can	Produce complete meaningful utterances in other languages	Haugen	1953

<i>Permissive</i>	<i>Bilingualism is the</i>	<i>Contact with possible models in the second language and the ability to use these in the environment of the native language</i>	<i>Diebold</i>	<i>1961</i>
<i>Functional</i>	Bilingualism is	The practice of alternatively using two languages	Weinreich	1979
<i>Functional</i>	Bilinguals are	Those who use two (or more) languages (or dialects) in their everyday lives	Grosjean	1994
<i>Fractional</i>	Bilinguals are	Two monolinguals in one person	Baker	2011
<i>Holistic</i>	Bilinguals have	Different characteristic linguistic features, especially relating acquisition. Thinking or interconnections of languages	Baker	2011

Review on Dimensions of Bilingualism

Bilinguals can be analyzed along the following over-lapping and interacting dimensions. The first is the ability. Some bilinguals actively speak and write in both languages (productive competence). Others are more passive bilinguals and may have receptive ability (understanding or reading). The second is the use of language.

The domains where each language is acquired and used are varied (home, school, street, phone, TV). The third is the balance of two languages. Bilinguals are rarely equal in their ability or use of two languages. The fourth is the age of a child. When a child learns two languages from birth, this is often called simultaneous or infant bilingualism. If a child learns a second language after about three years of age, it is termed consecutive or sequential bilingualism.

The fifth is development. Incipient bilinguals have one well developed language, and the other is in the early stage of development. When a second language is developing, this is Ascendant Bilingualism. Culture is another dimension of bilingualism. Bilinguals become more or less bicultural or multicultural. It is almost possible for someone (e.g. a foreign language graduate) to have high proficiency in two languages but be relatively monoculture. In comparison, some monolinguals move towards biculturalism.

Context is also another dimension of bilingualism. Some bilinguals live in bilingual and multilingual endogenous communities that use more than language in everyday basis. Other bilinguals live in more monolingual and monoculture regions and network with other bilinguals by vacations, phone, and email, for example where there is an absence of a second language community, the context is exogenous. The last dimension is elective bilingualism. Elective bilingualism is a characteristic of individuals who choose to learn a language, for example in the classroom.

Review on Types of Bilingualism

Bilingualism can be classified in to different types based on factors like age, sociocultural environment, competence and level of language command, origin, extension, effectiveness and nature of language acquisition, context of acquisition, sociocultural environment, social context and cultural identity. The study of bilingualism has tended to develop dichotomies. Among the more commonly used dichotomies are the distinctions between early and late bilingualism, compound, co-ordinate and subordinate bilingualism, additive and subtractive bilingualism, elite and folk bilingualism and balanced and dominant bilingualism. These distinctions have had an important function in drawing attention to various aspects of bilingualism but at the same time they represent different approaches to the question of bilingualism. Hence, in this section I will present different types of bilingualism and the difference between each.

Early bilingualism

Early bilingualism there are two types' simultaneous early bilingualism and consecutive (or successive) early bilingualism. Simultaneous early bilingualism refers to a child who learns two languages at the same time, from birth. This generally produces a strong bilingualism, called additive bilingualism. This also implies that the child's language development is bilingual whereas successive early bilingualism refers to a child who has already partially acquired a first language and then learns a second language early in childhood (for example, when a child moves to an environment where the dominant language is not his native language). This generally produces a strong bilingualism (or additive bilingualism), but the child must be given time to learn the second language, because the second language is learned at the same time as the child learns to speak. This implies that the language development of the child is partly bilingual.

Late bilingualism

Late bilingualism refers to bilingualism when the second language is learned after the age of six or seven; especially when it is learned in adolescence or adulthood. Late bilingualism is a consecutive bilingualism which occurs after the acquisition of the first language (after the

childhood language development period). This is what also distinguishes it from early bilingualism. With the first language already acquired, the late bilingual uses their experience to learn the second language.

Additive bilingualism and subtractive bilingualism

Additive bilingualism and subtractive bilingualism refer to the situation where a person has acquired the two languages in a balanced manner. It is a strong bilingualism. Subtractive bilingualism refers to the situation where a person learns the second language to the detriment of the first language, especially if the first language is a minority language. In this case, mastery of the first language decreases, while mastery of the other language (usually the dominant language) increases.

Supporting this, Lambert (1974) depicts that depending on how one's L2 influences the retention of one's L1, bilinguals can be classified into additive bilinguals and subtractive bilinguals. Bilinguals who can improve their L2 without losing their L1 proficiency are called additive bilinguals, on the contrary, those whose L2 is acquired or learned at the cost of losing their L1 can be called as subtractive bilinguals.

For being additive bilinguals, both of the languages learned by individuals should be valued in the society in which they live. In other words, when learning a L2 does not interfere with the L1 learning, both languages develop, which is considered as an additive bilingualism. While subtractive bilingualism occurs when learning a L2 interferes the L1 learning and consequently the L1 is replaced by L2. In other words, subtractive bilingualism occurs when an individual learns the L2 to the detriment of L1.

Balanced and Dominant Bilinguals

The distinction between balanced and dominant (or unbalanced) bilinguals (Peal and Lambert, 1962) is based on the relationship between the fluency and proficiencies of the respective languages which bilinguals master. Those who acquire similar degrees of proficiency and mastery in both languages are defined as balanced bilinguals, while on the contrary; dominant bilinguals are those individuals whom their proficiency in one language is higher than that in the other languages. In other words, in dominant bilingualism, the individual is more proficient and competent in one of the two languages, while a balanced bilingual is more or less equally competent and proficient in both languages.

Compound, Coordinate and Subordinate Bilinguals

According to Weinreich (1953), compound, coordinate, and subordinate distinctions deal with the properties of how two or more linguistic codes are organized and stored by individuals. In compound bilinguals, two sets of linguistic codes (e.g. 'Dog' and 'Sag') are stored in one meaning unit; in other words, have one system of meaning for words which is used for both L1 and L2, while on the contrary, in coordinate bilinguals, each linguistic code is stored and organized separately in two meaning units and the bilinguals have two systems of meanings for words; i.e. one system of meaning is for words that the individuals know in the L1 and the other is for words they know in L2.

Furthermore, in subordinate bilinguals, linguistic codes of Bilinguals' second language (L2) are assumed to be understood and interpreted through their first language (L1). Specifically, they are considered to possess two sets of linguistic codes, however, only one meaning unit, which is accessible merely through their L1.

Folk and Elite Bilinguals

There are still several other classifications of bilinguals which are dependent on variables such as cultural identity and language usage. Besides these types of individual variables, bilinguals can be classified depending on various social variables.

Concentrating on the social status of language, Fishman (1977) states that depending on the social status of language, bilinguals can be classified into 'folk' and 'elite' bilinguals where folk bilinguals are often language minority community whose own language does not have a high status in the predominant language society in which they dwell. In contrast to folk bilinguals, elite bilinguals are those who speak a dominant language in a given society and also those who can speak another language which provides them additional value and benefit within the society. Based on the dimensions similar to Fishman (1997), Valdes and Figueroa's (1994) differentiate between circumstantial and elective bilinguals.

The Summary on Types of Bilingualism are presented in table form as follows:

Factors	Types	Meanings
Age	1. Early 2. Late	Early bilingualism refers a child learns two languages at the same time (Simultaneous). Late bilingualism refers to the second language is learned after the age of six or seven
Competence	1. Balanced 2. Dominant	It suggests the level of proficiency in the different languages. Balanced bilingualism refers bilinguals who acquire similar degrees of proficiency in both languages. Dominant-those whom their proficiency in one language is higher than that in other language
Level of language command	1. Perfect 2. Partial	It always refers to age-appropriate language command.

Origin	1. Natural/ spontaneous 2. Artificial/ cultural	Natural bilinguals acquire the languages from speakers around them in childhood (e.g. one-parent-one-language method) while Artificial bilingualism can be achieved in a systematically structured way (e.g. at school).
Extension	1. Bilateral 2. Unilateral	In terms of societal bilingualism, it is important which language community has learnt the other's language. If acquisition is mutual, bilingualism is bilateral. If not, unilateral.
Effectiveness	1. Active/ productive 2. Passive/ receptive	It refers to productive (speaking & writing) and receptive (reading & listening) language skills.
Nature of Language Acquisition	1. Ethnic 2. Elite	Ethnic bilingualism is characteristic of co-habiting communities, while elite bilingualism is more voluntary and depends on individual choice.
Context of Acquisition	1. Coordinate 2. Subordinate	The linguistic concepts are learnt either in the same or in different settings. In coordinate bilingualism concepts are recognized in two languages, while in subordinate bilingualism one of the languages is dependent on or secondary to the other.
Socio-cultural environment	1. Additive 2. Subtractive	In the first case L2 is added to L1 While in the second case L2 displaces L1.
Social context	1. Societal 2. Individual	The terms refer to the languages acquired in a community and languages that are learnt on a personal basis.
Cultural identity	1. Monoculture 2. Bicultural	It depends on how many cultures the individual identifies him-/ herself with.

Review on Cognitive Factors that Affect Bilingualism

English language has become a very dominant language. In this review, I will discuss some of the factors that affect bilingualism. The factors such as: age, the “quality” and “quantity” of the interaction, personality, the child’s cognitive ability, and learners’ knowledge of L1 could be affected in the process of acquiring the two languages.

Chin and Wigglesworth (2007) believe that “language is not neutral”. In other words, they report that there are some styles which are affecting the child’s attitude toward the two languages negatively and/or positively.

The most important factor that will absolutely affect the success of the process of bilingualism is the age factor. “Age is considered an important factor because there is a strong association between age of acquisition and ultimate attainment of proficiency” (Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007).

This factor in particular has always been a controversial issue among researchers and linguists such as Bialystok, E. (2001), cited in Chin and Wigglesworth (2007). Lennenberg’s critical period hypothesis about age factor suggests that it is hard for adults to acquire a new language and therefore become bilinguals, because when people get older, learning a new language would not be as easy as it is to children.

In contrast, it has been discussed by Birdsong (1992) that age is not causing any problem in the process of acquiring the new language. Birdsong also went further and discussed that in fact one cannot tell the exact age in which a person can acquire the language and master it with native-like proficiency.

Early childhood bilingualism is a reality for millions of children throughout the world. Some children learn multiple languages from earliest childhood; others acquire additional languages when they go to school. The acquisition and maintenance of more than one language can open doors to many personal, social, and economic opportunities (Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007).

Secondly, the two most important factors which definitely affect bilingualism in children are “quality” and “quantity” of the “interaction” (Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007). These factors notice parents who mainly speak one language at home more than the other. Their children are often not quite dealing with the less-used language at home. This may affect the children ability of using the second language. To mitigate the above problems parents must encourage their children to engage with the less commonly used language at home (Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007).

In contrast, Lambert (1987) disagrees with what other researchers believe and names this kind of “language-loss” “subtractive bilingualism”. He explains the case of a child who is speaking one language at school, and a completely different language at home. He asserts that this may cause the child to forget the language that is spoken at home among the family members. When the child forgets the language, it affects them in a negative way. The child might even feel less-confident about himself.

Furthermore, through looking back again to previous definitions; it seems that most linguists define bilingualism according to language competence only, ignoring the socio-cultural, psychology, and cognitive ability factors which are as important and related when discussing the performance of bilinguals (Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007). Clearly, it is certain that linguists who understand bilingualism from only one perspective should undoubtedly bear in mind that it's not only about how competent a child is, but also understanding what factors might help him or her to reach this level of perfection in both two languages are very important.

Thirdly, so far, I have not found some evidence which shows that a child's personality might be affected if he is brought up in a bilingual environment. However, in second language learning, there is some valid evidence which affects the issue of a child's personality relating to second language learning, and believes that the child's personality might be an important factor that could affect the success of the learning process (Patkowski, M. S. 2004). For example, comparing two persons with completely different personalities one is the social person "extroverted" is more likely to acquire a new language easily. On the other hand, any person who is "introverted", in other words, a person who is shy around people and afraid of making mistakes while using the new acquired language might actually face some problems in acquiring the new language, or it could slow the learning process of a new language.

However, as far as my knowledge is concerned, in certain language learning situations, the quiet observant learner may have greater success. So, I draw my attention to the fact that the child's personality is the third factor that might affect excelling in the process of bilingualism.

Fourthly, bilingualism is affected by language learner ability. Two aspects of learner ability will be discussed in this category. The first aspect is learner ability to use an L2. The learner's ability to use a second language will be discussed in relation to aspects of the learner's cognitive structures. The second aspect is a biological ability. Age is consistently referred to as a biological factor having some influences in learning a second language.

Some researchers (Patkowski, M. S. 2004) for example, have found that learners of a second language who start learning while they are young learn better and faster than those who start when they are much older. The learner's linguistic competence in an L2 plays a central role in the learner's ability to use it in any performance, be it functionally or communicatively.

Learners' knowledge of L1 is the fifth factor which affects bilingualism. Second language learners have already acquired a linguistic system that is their first language (L1), the role L1 plays in the acquisition or learning of a second language no doubt contributes to achievement in L2 learning. According to the behaviorist learning theory, old habits get in the way of new habits. In cases where the structures of the learner's L1 and L2 are the same, the learning of L2 is facilitated because all the learner has to do is to transfer L1 habits. This is referred to as positive transfer. Whereas when the structures of learners L1 and L2 are different, 'negative transfer' or interference takes place which means that L1 habits hinder or interfere with L2 learning thus resulting in learning difficulties and errors.

In behaviorist accounts of SLA, therefore, all errors are caused by L1 interference and the errors are taken to be signs of non-learning. And also, the errors are as considered undesirable and must be avoided at all costs. With regard to this, "Contrastive Analysis" has been employed as a

means of attempting to predict areas of potential errors by comparing the learner's L1 with the target language so as to identify the differences between them.

Review on Bilingual Education in Ethiopia

The majority of Ethiopians speak more than one language, even if they are not fluent in every language they speak. Many Ethiopians need to use more than one language in order to pursue their livelihoods and to access economic opportunities and services in the State, since particularly occupations are tied to the use of certain languages. Languages in Ethiopia adopt a variety of roles and lead to different opportunities and these vary greatly according to individual Ethiopian's situations, including their areas of origin, economic and educational status.

The language that Ethiopians speak in the home may not be the language used in nearby markets or on transport routes. The language profiles of men are often broadly different from those of the women in the same community. In rural areas levels of bilingualism and multilingualism amongst boys and men are much higher than amongst girls and women, as males travel more widely and need to use languages of wider communication. This reflects the economic uses of languages that lead to opportunities, including trade, transport sector employment and migrant labor that are inherently linked to gender.

The language profile of the Ethiopian population has changed over time as bilingualism, with Amharic as a second language has become an accepted norm for many non- Amharic mother tongue speakers. Urban populations from all language backgrounds also demonstrate a marked tendency to shift to Amharic, often losing the language spoken by their parents. In order to access even the most basic primary education, prior to the period of the present Government, it was necessary to learn Amharic (and to learn in Amharic).

The Amharic language was the only vehicle for accessing wider economic and educational opportunities in the Ethiopian State. To some extent this is still true as the hegemonic societal position of Amharic remains unassailable, even though, since 1991, other Ethiopian languages have been employed for official purposes, including primary education. Recently developed languages are extending the range of their uses, in response to and as a result of the development of written forms, but the use of local languages remains restricted and is arguably somewhat artificial or imposed.

The diversity of languages in Ethiopia and their respective societal roles is now framed within a new context of State sponsored language development where several regional, zonal and local languages are employed for official purposes. The use of these newly introduced languages as media of instruction in the primary education system has been the most visible manifestation of the changes in language use or use of more than one language.

The Education and Training Policy (1994) promote the use of regional and local languages for two stated reasons. The first reason is the claim that learning in the mother tongue has clear pedagogical advantages for the child, who feels comfortable and reassured by their ability to understand and analyze information in their own language. The second reason is the claim that the use of local languages in education accords with the rights of nationalities to self-expression

that are enshrined in the Constitution of Ethiopia. The Ministry of Education, therefore, presents both pedagogical and ideological justifications for promoting the use of more than one language.

Conclusion

This concept review has commenced to provide awareness on bilingualism, types of bilingualism, dimensions of bilingualism, cognitive factors that affect bilingualism and bilingual education in Ethiopia. As it was discussed in the review bilingualism is a person with a native-like control of two languages (narrow definition). Bilingualism is also defined broadly as a speaker of one language who can speak in another language. In line with the definition, the degree of bilingualism was also addressed in the review. Especially in children, bilingualism is a very varied reality, characterized by deep individual differentiation. Every child explores reality in different ways and has a different psychological and familiar background influencing his/her second language acquisition within his/her linguistic community. Language is always part of the child's lebensraum, and there are many different forms of living that produce various linguistic uses.

Bilingualism is expressed with dimensions like age, competence, level of language command, origin and nature of language acquisition, context of acquisition, social context and cultural identity. Based on the aforementioned dimensions bilingualism is classified as early, late, balanced, dominant, perfect, partial, natural, artificial, bilateral and unilateral etc. Cognitive factors like age, quality and quantity of interaction, child's personality, and language learner ability and learner's knowledge of L1 affect bilingualism and the last part provides bilingual education in Ethiopia.

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