Applied Linguistics

(ENG522)

Virtual University of Pakistan

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MIDS

Lesson-01

INTRODUCING APPLIED LINGUISTICS-I

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Topic-001: Introduction to the Course

If you describe yourself as a linguist to other people outside the discipline, chances are that they will ask you, 'How many languages do you speak?' But if you describe yourself as an Applied Linguist, they may well go silent completely, wondering what they should say to you next. If you are lucky, you might get asked, 'Is that how to teach languages?' or 'Is that translation?' These questions are not entirely unreasonable, as Applied Linguistics can mean different things to different people, even among those who would describe themselves as Applied Linguists.

The International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA) proclaims:
Applied Linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of research and practice dealing with practical problems of language and communication that can be identified, analysed or solved by applying available theories, methods or results of Linguistics or by developing new theoretical and methodological frameworks in linguistics to work on these problems.

The AILA definition is both broad in including, potentially, many different areas such as child language acquisition, language and communication disorders, multilingualism, language testing, communication in the workplace, and so on, and narrow in relating Applied Linguistics to linguistics proper.

What is Language and What is Linguistics?

All linguistics work, whatever specific perspective one may adopt, should ultimately have something to say about the question, 'What is this thing called language?' (Nunan, 2013). Ron Macaulay (2011) presents 'Seven Ways of Looking at Language':

- language as meaning
- language as sound
- language as form
- language as communication
- language as identity
- language as history

- language as symbol

These can be summarized in three rather different conceptualizations of language:

1. as a particular representational system based on the biologically rooted language faculty;
2. as complex and historically evolved patterns of structures;
3. as a social practice and a culturally loaded value system.

The different conceptualizations of language lead to very different methodological perspectives which together constitute the field of linguistics today. The following are some of the commonly occurring terms for different branches of linguistics: theoretical linguistics, formal linguistics, descriptive linguistics, historical linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, clinical linguistics, cognitive linguistics, forensic linguistics, educational linguistics, computational linguistics, corpus linguistics and geo-linguistics.
To these we can add sub-branches, i.e., phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, dialectology, discourse analysis, critical discourse analysis, stylistics, genre analysis, second language acquisition and language pathology.

Indeed, the list of sub-braches can go on. It may be useful to look at the differences, but also similarities, between these different kinds of linguistics in terms of the relationship between the linguist who does the studying of language and the evidence he or she uses for the study, paying particular attention to how the evidence is gathered and used in the analysis. The schematization of the various approaches helps to highlight the commonalities as well as differences between the various branches and sub-branches of linguistics.

Applied Linguists may apply one specific approach from these to the problems they wish to solve, or be eclectic and use a combination of approaches. Moreover, Applied Linguists have applied theories and models from other disciplines beyond linguistics. Indeed, contemporary Applied Linguists feel free to draw on almost any field of human knowledge, and use ideas from philosophy, education, sociology, feminism, Marxism and media studies, to name a random few. They have, for example, explored psychological models such as declarative/procedural memory and emergentism, mathematical models such as dynamic systems theory or chaos theory, early Soviet theories of child development such as those of Vygotsky, French thinkers such as Foucault and Bourdieu, and so on.

Ben Rampton (1997, p. 14) described Applied Linguistics as ‘an open field of interest in language’, while David Block (2009) called it ‘an amalgam of research interests’.

Topic-002: The Need and Scope of Applied Linguistics

Applied linguistics is a theoretical term that covers interdisciplinary domain in linguistics to solve real-world problems in the use of language in various contexts such as translation, literacy,

language education and teaching, lexicography, and others which belong to the application of language. The scope of applied linguistics can be summarized as follows:

1. **Language and Teaching:** This scope covers the approaches and methods which are used in teaching second language.
2. **Language and Society:** This scope is also called sociolinguistics which studies the relationship between the society and language. It answers some questions emerge in the use of language in society.
3. **Language and Education/Learning:** There are some activities involve in this scope. They are 1st language education, additional language education, clinical linguistics, and language testing.
4. **Language, Work, and Law:** It covers the studies of workplace communication, language planning, and forensic linguistics.
5. **Language, Information, and Effect:** The other studies such as literary sylistics, CDA (Critical Discourse Analysis), translation and interpretation, and information design belong to this scope.

While specific employers seek individuals with specific skills for specific jobs, all employers want those with the ability to express themselves clearly, to solve novel problems and to present their solutions in a clear and accessible form. These skills are central to the study of Applied Linguistics. Applied Linguistics training prepares students well for employment in government agencies, non-profit organizations, educational institutions and businesses. In a globalizing world today there is a growing demand for people equipped to analyse language and language practice. Graduates with a background in Applied Linguistics also gain an enhanced understanding of how people learn first, second and foreign languages and of how language is used in the community. This knowledge will be relevant to those who are interested in preparing for careers as language teachers, language education and assessment experts, speech pathologists, interpreters and translators, and a variety of jobs in industry where language and communication are issues of concern.

The following list of job titles comes from various databases of recent graduates who did an Applied Linguistics degree or had Applied Linguistics as a major in their degree. There are, of course, many other professions that are concerned with language and communication that Applied Linguistic graduates can enter.

1. Advertising Executive	2. Administrative Assistant	3. Bilingual Assistant
4. Campaign Coordinator	5. Teacher of English as a Foreign Language	6. Teaching Assistant
7. Fund Raiser	8. Customer Relations Manager	9. Data Analyst
10. Dialect Coach	11. Document Processing Specialist	12. Careers Advisor
13. Editor	14. Educational Consultant	15. Translator/Interpreter
16. Event Manager	17. Community Project Manager	18. Grants Manager
19. Lab Manager	20. Human Resources Administrator	21. News Reporter

22. Marketing Consultant	23. Documentation Training Manager	24. Resources Manager
25. Policy Analyst	26. Electronic Lexicographer	27. Student Advisor
28. Publisher	29. Communication Advisor	30. Technical Copy Editor
31. Research Associate	32. Training and Development Manager	33. Technical Writer
34. Test Designer	35. Volunteer Services Coordinator	36. Web Developer
37. Youth Project Manager		

Topic-003: Linguistics and Applied Linguistics: A Difficult Relationship

Linguistics and applied linguistics a difficult relationship… Linguistics: is the academic discipline concerned with the study of language in general. In some degree is bound to represent an abstract idealization of language. One particularly influential type of idealization is that used in the generative linguistics by Noam Chomsky. The representation of language in the mind (competence) the way in which people use language in everyday life (performance)

Chomsky's linguistics is not the only kind, we also have…. Sociolinguistics attempts to find systematic relationships between social groupings and contexts, and the variable ways in which languages are used.

In Functional linguistics the concern is with language as a means of communication, and how people actually use their language. Corpus linguistics looks for the frequencies and combinations in words that are not usually revealed by intuition.

Applied linguistics is not simply a matter of matching up findings about language with pre-existing problems but of using findings to explore how the perception of these might be changed. The methodology of applied linguistics must refer to findings and theories of linguistics, choosing among the different schools and approaches, and making these relevant to the problem in hand. At the same time, it must investigate and take into account the experience and needs of the people involved in the problem itself. It must then seek to relate to these two perspectives to each other, attempting perhaps, in the process, to reformulate each. Moreover, it must undertake investigation and theorizing of its own.

Conceived of this way, applied linguistics is a quest for common ground. It establishes a reciprocal relationship between experience and expertise, between professional concerns with language problems and linguistics.

Topic-004: Applied Linguistics as a Problem-solving Approach

While most Applied Linguists seem happy with the idea that their discipline is concerned, as AILA proclaims, with 'practical problems of language and communication', the term '**problem**' does raise issues of its own. In one sense it means a research question posed in a particular discipline; in another sense it is something that has gone wrong which can be solved.
Calling areas or topics problems fosters the attitude that there is something wrong with them. Applied Linguists have to be clear that they are solving problems within an area of language use, not regarding the area itself as a problem except in the research question sense. Language teaching, for example, is not itself a problem to be solved; it may nevertheless raise problems that Applied Linguists can resolve.

So what problems does Applied Linguistics solve?
If you are worried about your child's speech, you are more likely to go to a speech therapist than to an Applied Linguist. If your country is torn by civil war between people who use two scripts, you ask for a United Nations Peacekeeping Force. If you are drafting a new law, you go to a constitutional lawyer or a civil servant. The problem-solving successes of Applied Linguistics have included devising orthographies for languages that have no written form and inventing simplified languages for mariners; Applied Linguists have played a part in EU projects on translation and on linguistic diversity. Most successes have, however, had to do with language teaching, such as the syllabuses and methods that swept the world from the 1970s onwards, particularly associated with the Council of Europe.

At a general level we can draw three implications from this:

1. ***The Applied Linguist is a Jack of all trades*.** Real-world language problems can seldom be resolved by looking at a single aspect of language. Since Applied Linguistics is interdisciplinary, the Applied Linguist is expected to know a little about many areas, not only of language, but also of philosophy, sociology, computer programming, experimental design, and many more. In a sense, Applied Linguists are not only Jacks of all trades but also master of none as they do not require the in-depth knowledge of the specialist but the ability to filter out ideas relevant to their concerns.
   An Applied Linguist who only does syntax or Discourse Analysis is an applied syntactician or an applied discourse analyst, not a member of the multidisciplinary Applied Linguistics profession. In other words, multidisciplinarity applies not just to the discipline as a whole but also to the individual practitioner.

2. ***The Applied Linguist is a go-between, not an enforcer, a servant, not a master*.** The problems that Applied Linguistics can deal with are complex and multi-faceted. As consultants to other people, Applied Linguists can contribute their own interpretation and advice. But that is all. The client has to weigh in the balance all the other factors and decide on the solution. Rather than saying, 'You should follow this way of language teaching', the Applied Linguist's advice

is, 'You could try this way of language teaching and see whether it works for you'. Alternatively, the Applied Linguist should be responding to problems put forward by language teachers, not predetermining what the problems are; the Applied Linguist is there to serve teachers' needs – a garage mechanic interpreting the customer's vague idea of what is wrong with their car and putting it right, rather than a car designer.

3. ***Sheer description of any area of language is not Applied Linguistics as such but descriptive linguistics.*** Some areas concerned with the description of language are regarded as Applied Linguistics, others are not. Make a corpus analysis of an area or carry out a Conversation Analysis and you're doing Applied Linguistics; describe children's language or vocabulary and it is first language acquisition; make a description of grammar and you are doing syntax. Overall, making a description is not in itself solving a problem, even if it may contribute to the solution.

As this reminds us, language is at the core of human activity. Applied Linguistics needs to take itself seriously as a central discipline in the language sciences, dealing with real problems. Applied Linguistics has the potential to make a difference. It seems important, therefore, to reassert the focus on language in Applied Linguistics. The unique selling point of Applied Linguistics that distinguishes it from the many domains and sub-domains of sociology, economics, politics, law, management and neuroscience is language. At its core it needs a coherent theory of language – whether this comes from a particular branch of linguistics or from some other discipline – a set of rigorous descriptive tools to handle language, and a body of research relevant to language practice.

Topic-005: Applied Linguistics: Subject to Discipline

The role of Applied Linguistics

Applied linguistics is often said to be concerned with solving or at least ameliorating social problems involving language. This tradition of applied linguistics established itself in part as a response to the narrowing of focus in linguistics with the advent in the late 1950s of generative linguistics, and has always maintained a socially accountable role, demonstrated by its central interest in language problems.

For the most part, those who write about applied linguistics accept that the label "applied linguistics" refers to language teaching (in its widest interpretation, therefore including speech therapy, translation and interpreting studies, language planning, etc.). One important source of that enrichment has been the journal *Language Learning*, published from the University of Michigan, providing a chronicle of the development of applied linguistics over the past 50 years (Catford, 1998).

Corder (1973) was well aware that in limiting the coverage of applied linguistics to language teaching he was open to criticism. There are voices suggesting that applied linguistics can fulfill a role wider than language teaching.

Definitions of Applied Linguistics

- "the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue" (Brumfit, 1997, p. 93);
- "'Applied Linguistics' is using what we know about (a) language, (b) how it is learned, and (c) how it is used, in order to achieve some purpose or solve some problem in the real world" (Schmitt & Celce-Murcia, 2002, p. 1).
- "Traditionally, the primary concerns of Applied Linguistics have been second language acquisition theory, second language pedagogy and the interface between the two" (Schmitt, 2002, p. 2).
- "the focus of applied linguistics is on trying to resolve language-based problems that people encounter in the real world, whether they be learners, teachers, supervisors, academics, lawyers, service providers, those who need social services, test takers, policy developers, dictionary makers, translators, or a whole range of business clients" (Grabe, 2002, p. 9).
- Kaplan suggests that applied linguists "are likely to move toward the analysis of new data, rather than continue to argue new theory" (Kaplan, 2002, p. 514).
- "the term 'applied linguistics' raises fundamental difficulties, if for no other reason than that it is difficult to decide on what counts as 'linguistics'. Given these difficulties within linguistics proper, it is perhaps unfair to expect clean solutions and clear delimitations for defining applied linguistics' " (Kaplan & Grabe, 2000, pp. 5–6).

History of Applied Linguistics

Angelis summarizes this history as follows:

- Applied Linguistics in North America does have identifiable roots in linguistics.
- While North American applied linguistics has evolved over time, in its orientation and scope, so has North American linguistics.
- A significant amount of work directed to real-world issues involving language can be attributed to leading North American linguists, although not characterized as applied linguistics.
- Much of what can now be seen as groundbreaking applied linguistics type activity was carried out prior to the formal appearance of applied linguistics or of linguistics as recognized fields of endeavor. (Angelis, 2001)

McNamara (2001) points to a different tradition for Australian applied linguistics. In contrast to both the UK and the USA, Australian applied linguistics took as its target the applied linguistics of modern languages and the languages of immigrants, rather than of English; this alongside the considerable work in the applications of linguistics to the development of teaching materials and writing systems for aboriginal languages. The Australian tradition of applied linguistics shows a surprisingly strong influence of continental Europe and of the USA rather than of Britain.

Davies (2001) argued that the British tradition represented a deliberate attempt to establish a distinctive applied linguistics which was not linguistics (and therefore, by implication, not

Linguistics-Applied). The British Association of Applied Linguistics (BAAL) was formally established in 1967, with the following aims: "the advancement of education by fostering and promoting, by any lawful charitable means, the study of language use, language acquisition and language teaching and the fostering of inter-disciplinary collaboration in this study" (BAAL, 1994). The British tradition is well represented in the Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics (Allen & Corder, 1973–5; Allen & Davies, 1977), which did not have as a subtitle "in language teaching." It was largely taken for granted in the 1960s and 1970s that applied linguistics was about language teaching.

Applied Linguistics as an Ethical Profession

Unlike "strong" professions, such as medicine and law, applied linguistics (and other "weak" professions) lack sanctions. As such they do not control entry nor do they oversee continuing membership or license members to practice as professionals. However, what they can do is create an ethical milieu and in this way exercise informal control. They can establish a professional association, mount training courses leading to degrees and certificates, they can organize internal discussions, hold conferences and annual meetings of the national associations, and provide regular publications (such as Applied Linguistics, the International Review of Applied Linguistics, the Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, the International Journal of Applied Linguistics). In these ways, in applied linguistics, consensus can be achieved on what is required to become a professional applied linguist.

What is more, a "weak" profession can develop an ethical framework, such as is to be found in a Code of Conduct or Code of Ethics. Increasingly professions have laid claim to their own professional status by demonstrating their concern to be ethical. Indeed, House claims, "ethics are the rules or standards of right conduct or practice, especially the standards of a profession" (1990, p. 91). BAAL has made clear its own commitment to be ethical by publishing its Draft Recommendations on Good Practice in Applied Linguistics (1994). Koehn (1994) considers that what characterizes a profession is that it serves clients rather than makes a customer-type contract. What the professional offers is the service or duty, to be professional, to act professionally, rather than to be successful, since success cannot be guaranteed.

Distinction between Linguistics Applied and Applied Linguistics

Widdowson presents the question in terms of linguistics applied and applied linguistics:

The differences between these modes of intervention is that in the case of linguistics applied the assumption is that the problem can be reformulated by the direct and unilateral application of concepts and terms deriving from linguistic enquiry itself. That is to say, language problems are amenable to linguistics solutions. In the case of applied linguistics, intervention is crucially a matter of mediation . . . applied linguistics . . . has to relate and reconcile different representations of reality, including that of linguistics without excluding others. (Widdowson, 2000, p. 5)

The "linguistics applied" view seems to be derived from the coming together of two traditions:

1. the European philological tradition which was exported to the USA through scholars such as Roman Jakobson,
2. the North American tradition of linguistic-anthropological field-work which required the intensive use of non-literate informants and the linguistic description of indigenous languages for the purposes of cultural analysis.

Bloomfield (1933, p. 509) hoped that "The methods and results of linguistics . . . [and] the study of language may help us toward the understanding and control of human affairs."

Topic-006: Doing Applied Linguistics: Methodological Considerations

If the Applied Linguist is a Jack of all trades, or a go-between across different disciplines and approaches, does Applied Linguistics have a coherent methodology? Does it need one? How would an Applied Linguistics methodology be different from that of, say, formal linguistics, or sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics? To try to answer such questions, it is important to know distinction between method and methodology.

Methods refer to specific techniques of collecting and analysing data. For example, a survey questionnaire is a method, and ethnographic fieldwork is another. Whereas, precisely, ***methodology*** is the principle or principles that determine how specific methods or tools are deployed and interpreted.

In one sense, Applied Linguistics is a methodology in itself, because it is concerned with real-world problems in which language plays a central role. Such a problem-solving approach distinguishes Applied Linguistics from other methodologies where the main concern may be hypothesis testing or theorization. In the meantime, Applied Linguists can employ a wide range of methods in collecting and analyzing data, many of which are commonly used by sociolinguists, psycholinguists, clinical linguists, educational linguists and others.

There are various ways of characterizing different research methodologies. People often think of research methodology in terms of a quantitative versus qualitative dichotomy. In general terms, *quantitative methodology* aims to uncover facts and truths in an objective way by delineating patterns or structures, whereas *qualitative methodology* attempts to interpret meanings of and relationships between objects in context.

For example, a language class could be regarded as an object for investigation. A quantitative approach might focus on how the class is structured, what the key components of the class are, and what role each component plays in the structuring of the class in terms of frequency and regularity. A qualitative perspective, on the other hand, would be most likely to ask what the definition of a class is in comparison with some other event, how the different components of a class (e.g. participants, topic, setting) are related to each other, and why a particular language class takes place in the way it does.

Quantitative methodology is used a great deal in science disciplines, while qualitative methodology is more common in the humanities and arts. The social sciences often use both: there are social scientists who are more interested in the 'what' and 'how' questions and adopt a quantitative perspective, while others are more concerned with the 'how' and 'why' questions and lean towards a qualitative methodology.

Applied Linguistics as a problem-solving approach does, on the surface, seem to lean towards the qualitative perspective, although there are also plenty of Applied Linguists who are interested in facts and figures and therefore adopt a quantitative methodology.

Perhaps a better way to understand the differences in the various methodologies is to look at the objectives of the research. Creswell (2003, p. 6) proposed the classifications listed in Table 1.1, which he terms 'worldviews in research'. Such a classification helps us to think of research methodologies in more practical ways and avoids the quantitative versus qualitative dichotomy and the potential confusions between methodology and methods.

Table 1.1 Four worldviews used in research

Postpositivism	Constructivism	Advocacy and Participatory	Pragmatism
Determination	Understanding	Political	Consequences of actions
Reductionism	Multiple participant meanings	Empowerment and issue oriented	Problem centred
Empirical observation and measurement	Social and historical construction	Collaborative	Pluralistic
Theory verification	Theory generation	Change oriented	Real-world practice oriented

One can use specific quantitative or qualitative methods and techniques, or a combination of the two, within each of these methodological perspectives. Whatever methodology you choose to adopt, there are **certain steps** you need to take in conducting a research project. These typically include:

1. defining the research question or questions
2. collecting evidence
3. analysing and presenting findings

Defining the research question

Defining the research question is a crucial first step. The question has to be researchable, which means that

1. there are potentially different answers to it
2. there is evidence available for you with which to answer the question

The most common ways of finding research questions are through personal experience or reading other people's work. These two ways also often go hand in hand with each other. Many Applied Linguists come into the field because of professional and personal interests. Most of the people entering Applied Linguistics with professional or personal interests tend to have a better idea of the broad area or topic they want to research into than of a specific, researchable question. For example, they may say that they are interested in researching heritage language schools, or intergenerational communication in multilingual families, or attitudes towards certain languages in a particular community. To make the journey from such broad areas of interests to specific research(able) questions is not always an easy or straightforward process. This is where critical reading of the literature comes in. A good literature review serves two closely related purposes:

1. to make the reader understand why you are doing what you are doing in the way you are doing it
2. to prepare your own argument

It should cover the following questions:

- What has been done on the topic or area of interest? Are you interested in exactly the same topic or area, or in something that is similar but different?
- What are the questions asked by the other researchers? Can you ask the questions in a different way? Do you have other questions to ask?
- From what methodological perspective did they ask the questions: postpositivism, constructivism, advocacy and participatory, or pragmatism? What methodology would you use?
- What methods and data did they use in answering the questions? Can you improve on the research design and method? Is there other evidence that you can provide to address the questions?
- How did the researchers interpret their results and what argument did they put forward on the basis of their data analysis? Do you agree with their analysis? Are there other ways of interpreting the data?

In other words, a good, critical review should show that not only have you read extensively the existing work in the field but you have also understood the methodology and arguments, by pointing out the strengths and weaknesses, by comparing the results of different studies and by evaluating them with reference to your own interests. Once you have answered the above questions, you are likely to have a research question or even a set of questions for your own project.

Research design

It is often said that a research project only really begins when one starts to collect evidence or data. Many students are anxious about the amount of data they collect and whether the data they have collected is 'good enough'. To ensure that the data you have is of sufficient quantity and quality, you need to consider carefully a number of design issues. The first and foremost is: 'given this

research question (or theory), what type of evidence is needed to answer the question (or test the theory) *in a convincing way*?' (de Vaus, 2001, P. 9, original emphasis) Using an analogy, de Vaus compares the role and purpose of research design in a project to knowing what sort of building one is planning (such as an office building, a factory for manufacturing machinery, a school, etc.). You can normally get a sense of what kind of evidence or data is appropriate for the research question by reviewing existing studies – what evidence did other researchers use to support their arguments? More specifically, you can ask the following questions:

1. Is the primary aim of the study to compare two or more individuals, situations, behaviours, or to focus on just one? (etic vs. emic)
2. Is the data collected and analysed in numerical form or not? (quantitative vs. qualitative)
3. Is the data collected under controlled conditions or not? (experimental vs. non-experimental)
4. Is the study conducted over a period of time or at one point in time? (longitudinal vs. non-longitudinal)
5. Does the study involve one single participant, a small group of participants or a large number of participants? (case study vs. group study)

The terms in brackets after each of the above questions are different types of research design. An ***etic*** study is often known as a comparative study, which involves comparing one individual, or situation, or behaviour, with another. An ***emic*** study, on the other hand, is one in which researchers try to explore and discover patterns and meanings *in situ*.

The use of numerical data lies behind the difference between ***quantitative*** and ***qualitative*** research design. A quantitative study is essentially about explaining phenomena and identifying trends and patterns by collecting and analysing data numerically, while a qualitative design is an umbrella term that covers a variety of methods which focus on the meaning of the phenomenon being investigated and do not involve numerical data.

Experimental studies collect data under controlled conditions. The purpose of the 'control' is to keep everything, except for the variables under investigation, as similar or comparable as possible so that the experimental results can be reliably attributed to the changes in variables. In a ***non-experimental*** design, researchers do not manipulate the conditions. This design is suitable for research questions that aim to explore the phenomena in a more natural manner, such as spontaneous interaction, to find out opinions, attitudes or facts or to assess current conditions or practice.

Longitudinal design refers to studies in which data are collected from a small number of subjects over a period of time, and is suitable for answering research questions that aim to explore changes and development over time or to evaluate the effectiveness of a training programme or the impact of an experience. ***Cross-sectional*** design, on the other hand, refers to the type of studies in which data is collected at one point in time from a large number of subjects grouped together according

either to age or to other variables such as length of stay in a new country. It can be used to explore the relationship between various variables, for example, the correlation between the degree of appropriateness in use of the speech act by an English-as-a-foreign-language learner and the length of stay in an English-speaking country; or to describe the developmental pattern of a particular feature or skill such as the development of Intercultural Communicative Competence.

Case study design is an in-depth investigation of, usually, a single subject. It can be used to describe the linguistic or communicative behaviour of an individual member of a group, to refute a claim by providing counter-evidence, or alternatively to show what is possible as positive evidence. ***Group study*** involves a group of individuals instead of one subject. Single case study and group study are very often combined with longitudinal and cross-sectional designs. For example, a case study can be conducted longitudinally, and a group study can be done cross-sectionally.

There are two further types of research that are increasingly popular in Applied Linguistics, namely, ***action research*** and ***critical research*****.** Action research belongs to the *pragmatist and the advocacy and participatory methodological perspectives* in Creswell's framework. It is a reflective process of problem solving. Some people think of action research as case studies. It is true that most often action research is done on a case-by-case basis. But the key to action research is that it is aimed at improving the way the individuals involved in the research process address issues and solve problems.

Action research can also be undertaken by larger organizations or institutions, assisted or guided by researchers, with the aim of improving their strategies, practices, and knowledge of the environments within which they practise. Kurt Lewin, who is believed to have coined the term *action research*, described it as 'a comparative research on the conditions and effects of various forms of social action and research leading to social action' that uses 'a spiral of steps, each of which is composed of a circle of planning, action, and fact-finding about the result of the action' (1946). Action research has been particularly popular among language teaching professionals who wish to improve their own as well as their organization's professional practice through the reflective research process.

Critical research: It cuts across the constructivist, the advocacy and participatory as well as the pragmatist methodological perspectives. Critical research has two rather different origins and histories, one originating in *literary criticism* and the other in *sociology*. This has led to the rather literal use of 'critical theory' as an umbrella term to describe theoretical critique. Critical research, in the sociological context, is underpinned by a social theory that is oriented toward critiquing and changing society in its totality, in contrast to traditional theories oriented only to understanding or explaining it.

Critical research has been particularly appealing to some Applied Linguists because of the shared interests in language, symbolism, text and meaning. In the 1970s and 1980s, Jürgen Habermas redefined critical social theory as a theory of communication, that is, communicative competence and communicative rationality on the one hand, distorted communication on the other. Applied Linguists who adopt the critical research perspective have focused on the processes of synthesis, production or construction by which the phenomena and objects of human communication, culture and political consciousness come about. This is reflected in much of the discussion on language ecology, language rights and linguistic imperialism, as well as on gender and ethnicity in language learning and language use (e.g. Pennycook, 2001; Sealey and Carter, 2004).

Data collection

The data that Applied Linguists are interested in can be broadly identified in two categories: interactional and non-interactional data.

Interactional data consist of a continuum with elicited conversation and naturally occurring conversation at each end, according to the degree of naturalness. Conversation can be elicited through a range of methods and techniques such as discourse completion tasks, recall protocols, or role play. The key issue for the interaction obtained through elicitation is its comparability to naturally occurring interaction. For naturally occurring conversation, the key issue is how to capture it (using observation sheet vs. audio-visual recording, for example) and how to strike the balance between details and analytical approach (Interactional or Conversation Analysis). In addition to elicited and recorded conversation, conversation data are also available in a number of other sources such as data banks, the Internet and other mass and social media.

The so-called ***non-interactional data*** are data about language practices rather than samples of language practices themselves. Surveys, questionnaires, interviews, self-reports, standard assessments and laboratory experiments can all be used to collect non-interactional data. They are often used to collect large amounts of information from sizeable populations. With the exception of self-reports, the researcher normally has an expectation of what the responses (i.e. data, findings) will be. They are therefore more often used to test hypotheses or verify existing findings and claims. Some Applied Linguists are also interested in critical analysis of public discourse or media language.

Ethnography is sometimes used as a data collection technique when the researcher is particularly interested in exploring the meaning of a phenomenon. Ethnography is in fact more of a methodology than a method; it is a holistic approach to social phenomena and social practices, including linguistic practices, with specific references to both historical and present contexts. Ethnography requires rich data, often collected through a combination of different means including recordings, interviews and questionnaires. But the key data collection method for ethnography is *in situ* observation. Observation enables the investigator to describe events, actions, behaviours, language use, and so on, in detail and to interpret what has happened in context. During observation, researchers make field notes of what they see in as much detail as possible. There are

different types of observations, depending on the researcher's role and visibility in the event under study.

Researchers can either actively take part in observation and have maximum contact with the people being studied or remain as unobtrusive as possible. The main advantages of ethnographic observation are that it allows the researcher to uncover information previously unknown, to gain an in-depth description, and to capture a series of events and processes over time. The challenges are several: researchers may have biases in selecting what to note down; it is difficult to differentiate describing from interpreting what has happened; documenting an event while observing and participating in activities can be a demanding task. There is a huge amount of published literature on specific techniques and tools for collecting data.

Analysing and presenting findings

Data analysis follows closely from research design. It is advisable to consider how you intend to analyse and present the findings during the design stage of the research process, before you start collecting data.

Quantitative data are most often analysed through statistics and presented in various figures, tables, graphs and diagrams. There are ample guide books for students on how to do quantitative and statistical data analysis. Qualitative data, on the other hand, are usually presented in discursive accounts, with quotations and samples of actual data. For both quantitative and qualitative data analysis, accuracy and accountability are paramount.

We are talking about accountability to the participants, to the situation that has been investigated, to the researcher himself or herself, as well as to the wider audience. The researcher should be truthful and honest not only in describing what they have observed but also in explaining what their ideological stance may be, what they expected to find, and how their identity and relationship with the people they studied impacted on the findings.

If you have collected interactional data, transcription is the key first step towards analysis. There are different techniques of transcribing language in interaction; for example, Conversation Analysis (CA) specifies a set of conventions for sequential analysis. There are also computer software and other new technologies to assist you in transcribing interactional data, including nonverbal communication and multimodality data. However, most people do not follow a specific set of transcription conventions tightly. And most people do not transcribe everything that has been recorded. It could be argued that one cannot transcribe everything after the event has taken place anyway. There are, therefore, certain decisions one has to make in transcribing interactional data: what is to be transcribed and what is to be left out; what gets highlighted or emphasized and how; what should be done to ambiguous elements, for example, when it is not clear who the speaker was, or what was being referred to. As Ochs (1979) remarked over 30 years ago, such decisions in transcription are also theoretical decisions that would affect the way data is interpreted.

Ethical considerations

As Applied Linguistics research often involves human subjects, following ethical considerations are crucial.

Justification: the proposed research will achieve worthwhile objectives and the time and resources needed for the research are justifiable. Participants' welfare and public responsibility are paramount. Where the project may potentially put the participants at risk, either physically or psychologically, care must be taken to ensure that the benefits of the project outweigh the risks. Appropriate support mechanisms need to be provided to minimize any potential risk. Where there is a possible conflict of interest (e.g. the work is to be carried out in the same organization or sponsored by an organization**)**, a case must be made.

Access to participant(s): this includes issues of participants' privacy, the need to reduce invasiveness of the presence of researchers, issues of confidentiality and anonymity, and so on.

Informed consent: when seeking consent, participants need to be fully informed about the aim and nature of the project and any potential risks. They should be made aware of their rights in the project, such as the right to withdraw at any time, the right to refuse to answer any question, the right to ask any question, and so on. With young and school-age children and vulnerable populations such as patients, consent must be sought from their parents, guardians, carers or schools (if the research is carried out on the school premises or with assistance from the school).

Other ethical concerns relevant to studies in Applied Linguistics include:

Participants' language ability: whether participants' language ability is sufficient for them to understand the informed consent form.

Cross-cultural differences in ethics: there may be differences in the ethical considerations between the culture in which the research is carried out and the culture from which participants come. This issue is particularly relevant to studies on Study Abroad and intercultural interactions. It is important to anticipate any potential differences and clarify any misunderstandings.

Most educational institutes have an ethics committee which oversees the ethical approval and a set of ethical approval procedures. Students must check the procedure and seek approval before carrying out data collection. In addition, ethical guidelines are provided by some professional bodies or research journals. For example:

- TESOL Quarterly Research Guidelines are available at: www.tesol.org/.
- British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL) has a set of recommendations for good practice in Applied Linguistics student projects at: www.baal.org.uk/.
- American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL) has passed a range of resolutions that affirm the commitment to promoting diversity, oppose discrimination on the basis of accented speech, support the use of language analysis in relation to questions of national origin in refugee cases, oppose the labelling of English as the national language in the US, and so on: www.aaal.org/.
- Wray and Bloomer (2006) also provide useful information on the differences between confidentiality and anonymity and on data protection laws.

Lesson-02

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

Outline:

- **Language Development**
  - First Language Acquisition
  - Second and Additional Language Acquisition
  - Language and the Brain
  - The Linguistic Schools of Thought
    - Functionalism

- Structuralism
- Generativism
- Cognitivism

Language Development

Language, a system of conventional spoken, manual, or written symbols by means of which human beings, as members of a social group and participants in its culture, express themselves. Henry Sweet, an English phonetician and language scholar, stated: "**Language** is the expression of ideas by means of speech-sounds combined into words. Words are combined into sentences, this combination answering to that of ideas into thoughts." Language development is the process by which children come to understand and communicate language during early childhood.

Topic-007: First Language Acquisition

The acquisition of language starts when children learn their first words, usually at around ten to twelve months of age. However, children show that they have communicational abilities as soon as they are born. At first, children cry to be noticed.

The crying is different depending on whether the child is hungry, tired or in pain.

While an outsider solely hears crying, the child's parents are often able to distinguish between cries and attend to the child's need in accordance to that. This is not a linguistic ability but rather a first sign of communication. Infants as young as a few weeks old show the ability to distinguish between the most intricate and accurate sounds, showing that they are ready to adapt any language of the world as their native language (Gleason & Bernstein, 1993). Children lose this ability when they have started to apply the language in their environment as their native language. Lenneberg (2004, p. 106-107) collected the very first steps of language in children in his article *Language in the Context of Growth and Maturation*. These are the steps that make children 'ready' for language.

At around twelve weeks children begin smiling when talked to and the first signs of cooing emerge. At sixteen weeks, children start paying attention to human sounds, turning their heads in the direction of the sound. At the same time, the cooing makes way for chuckling sounds.

A twenty-week-old child begins using consonant sounds but their cooing and chuckling is still very different from the sounds of the language in their environment. It sounds as though children are realizing that they can produce different sounds. The cooing and chuckling gradually take a turn into a more intricate babbling that appears at around six months of age.

The babbling often resembles one-syllable utterances of languages. The babbling stage is essential in a child's language learning process and children who do not babble usually take a longer time to learn languages (Gleason & Bernstein, 1993).

However, when children who skip the babbling stage acquire language, they are just as fluent as any other speaking child.

At ten months of age children begin to imitate activities and utterances from the people around them but they are usually not very successful in their imitation and they do not show much comprehension of the language spoken around them.
However, they begin showing the ability to differentiate between words heard as if they are trying to find meaning to the language in their environment. The first words that carry understanding and meaning usually appear at around twelve months of age. From this onwards, children learn language more progressively.
They gradually acquire new words into their vocabulary until they reach approximately eighteen months of age. The eighteenth month level seems to mark a turning point in a child's language learning process.

The child seems to be on a spurt and acquires about one word per waking hour until they reach five years of age when they will have a vocabulary of around 2,000 words and grammatical abilities not too different from that of an adult (Jackendoff, 1994).

Grammar Acquisition

The earliest level of a child's language happens between the ages of twelve to eighteen months when they are still acquiring their first words. This stage in the language learning process is often called the holophrastic stage since children only use one word as a way to communicate and there is not much to go on. Despite the 'lack' of language during the holophrastic stage, a grammar begins to emerge in a child's language. There is no syntax since only one word is used to describe the child's meaning but children use this one word as a whole sentence.

Children choose the words they use carefully and use the most informative and descriptive words they can find. For example, words such as down can have more than one or two meaning such as put me down or let's go downstairs etc.
A child enters a two-word stage of language at around eighteen months of age. That happens when a child starts combining words into sentences and beginning to use inflections.

While the two-word stage is yet not very complex grammatically, children have a much better way of being understood than at the holographic stage. Sentences, like 'baby chair' meaning the baby is sitting on the chair or 'doggy bark' meaning the dog is barking, occur and the children show frustration when they are not understood (O'Grady, p. 377).

Children will most likely not have acquired syntactic categories but it is hard to determine whether they have since their utterances are normally very short and targeted.
Comprehension exceeds production considerably at the one- and two-word stages of language. If, for example, a child would sit in front of a screen with two pictures, one of a woman kissing an apple and another of the same woman kissing keys, and the sentence the woman is kissing the keys is uttered the child will linger longer at the picture where the woman kisses keys.

This accounts for simple irreversible sentences. However, an experiment was run to test whether children knew the difference between subjects and objects in reversible sentences like Cookie Monster is tickling Big Bird (O'Grady, 2008).
In order to figure that out the experimenter had to learn whether children learn a 'big rule' or a 'little rule' at each stage. If a child knows the 'big rule', he or she knows that the subject precedes the verb and that the object follows the verb. If, however, the child has only learnt the 'little rule', they make a rule out of the action verb.

The children in the experiment were made watch funny actions like one toy animal pushing another one down a chute (O'Grady, 2008, p. 119). The action, they were told, was called blicking. Then they were asked to 'make Cookie Monster blick Big Bird'.
It turned out that it was not until children became three and half years old that they started to comprehend the difference between the subject and object in reversible sentences.

Children younger than that tended to make Big Bird blick Cookie Monster as much as the other way around. It also became clear that children on the first two levels of language tend to rather make a 'little rule' out of sentences than the 'big rule'. Children begin showing that they have developed grammar into their speech as they enter the telegraphic stage of language. This happens when a child's utterances become longer and more complex, usually around the time they reach two years of age. It is called the telegraphic stage because children will not yet have acquired bound morphemes in their speech, making their utterances resemble telegrams. At this point a child's sentence will involve a phrase structure with a head and a complement. They will utter sentences carrying full meaning like I good boy, What her name? and Me wanna show mommy (O'Grady, p. 378).

The sentences are simple grammatically but are understandable. The child's abilities at syntactic order are remarkably good at the telegraphic stage. Although they do not raise bound morphemes, determiners or even the right verb, they will most likely get the syntactic order correctly.
Children still show greater comprehension than production at the telegraphic stage. For example, they do not use determiners but they will be surprised when their parents leave those words out of their speech or if they speak in a distorted manner. In order to get a better picture of to what extent the comprehension holds, an experiment was run by Katz, Baker and Macnamara to test children's comprehension over production regarding common and proper names (1974, p., 469-473).

The experiment was done with both genders, and the children averaged at 23 months old. The children were asked to play with dolls and blocks. The dolls and blocks were identical in almost every aspect except for the dolls differing in hair color and the blocks in color. Half of the dolls and blocks were given nonsense names (zav for example) and the names were divided into common (a zav) and proper names (Zav). Then the children were asked to pick up either a zav or

Zav (depending on which noun they were experimenting) and do something with it. For example, they were asked to feed Zav, hug a Zav or stack the blocks in this way or another. When the proper name was used for the dolls, the children picked a particular doll with the name Zav about 65% of the time. When it came to choosing a zav however, they usually picked a random doll from the group. The results differed considerably between boys and girls but both genders showed better comprehension to some extent.

The experiment showed that despite children not necessarily using the difference between common and proper nouns in their own speech, they still show some awareness of the difference grammatically.
A child stays at the telegraphic stage for about half a year followed by a time when they constantly acquire more complex grammar into their speech along with a remarkable growth of vocabulary. In a three-year-old child "grammatical complexity of utterances is roughly that of colloquial adult language, although mistakes occur"(Lenneberg, 2004, p. 107) and a five-year-old child's language resembles that of an adult, with a complex grammar structure and syntax, and a large vocabulary. At later stages, children eventually acquire the ability to use the Merge operation in their language. It can therefore be said that when children can use the ability to merge and have knowledge of generative grammar consisting of transformations, the grammar of language is fully acquired.

Although children still make grammatical mistakes in their speech until they reach around nine or ten years of age, they have language figured out completely long before that time. It is important to note that while all this knowledge is acquired during a remarkably short amount of time, children are constantly exposed to imperfect language and they receive little help from their environment.

Innateness

Chomsky's claim

Grammar is a mental system that allows people to form and interpret both familiar and novel utterances (O'Grady et al., 2011).

After a child reaches eighteen months of age, a grammar begins to emerge in his or her language. When that happens, the child rapidly acquires most of the grammatical rules and syntactic structure without any help but from the language they are exposed to in their environment. All normal children master their native language and most children have the grammar of an adult's colloquial language by their fifth birthday. It is certain that children must be exposed to language in order to acquire it but they do not learn language by imitating or from corrections alone.

For example, the language learning process it too complex to be obtained through imitation, and children are also not very successful at imitating sentences that contain novel words or sentences. Children only imitate 5- 40% (depending on each child) of the time when they converse with adults (O'Grady, 2008, p. 167).

Children are not taught language either. Studies show that parents do not often correct children when they make grammatical errors in their speech and they much rather correct their child when it comes to factual errors (O'Grady, 2008).
When the parents decide to correct their child's grammatical mistakes it turns out to be almost impossible and children must acquire the rules of language independent from parental stimuli.

Children are therefore deprived of direct teaching until they start school at the age of five or six and by that time they have become fairly fluent speakers of their native language. Furthermore, studies show that adults all over the world change the way they speak when they speak directly to children. They speak with a higher pitch, they simplify grammar and they reduplicate (Ferguson, 2004, p.183).

Children are exposed to imperfect language from the adults around them and yet they learn language perfectly, independent of intelligence or IQ.
All children manage to learn language themselves and they do so with remarkably little trouble, given the complexity of the system they are learning. A three-year-old child can speak to an adult about nearly any commonplace or day-to-day subject without trouble. Yet, that same child has still not learnt general etiquette or the ability to tie his or her shoes.
It turns out that language involves subconscious knowledge and children might not be aware of all the knowledge they possess when it comes to knowledge of language.

Every child learns language. Children with an immensely low IQ and even children that are way behind in most other aspects of the maturation period usually manage to acquire languages perfectly and often they manage to do that in line with normal children. There are examples of children who cannot draw a circle or build from blocks that master their native tongue the same way and at the same speed as normal children. This clearly shows that it is natural for humans to acquire language and that language is not simply a general capacity based on general intelligence.

With the innateness hypothesis Chomsky came to the conclusion that the only way children can acquire the intricate rules of grammar and syntax, when they are still yet to mature on many other levels, is if they are born with knowledge of the fundamental organizing principles of grammar. He called this knowledge of grammar Universal Grammar. Children use Universal Grammar to get a grasp of the language in their environment and apply it in their native language.
It is based on the idea that all languages have the same ancestor and that the grammars of all natural languages share the basic aspects of grammar, i.e. the basics of syntax (O'Grady et al, 2011).
This is likely to be true, as it is believed that all languages evolved from one parent language and therefore Universal Grammar is what twines the languages of the world together (Putnam, 1967).
By hypothesis it is a priori in some sense and present in children before linguistic experience begins.

The inborn grammar helps making first language acquisition a relatively simple process for children. It helps children figure out the fundamental generative grammar of their native language. Generative grammar represents what one knows when one knows a language. What constitutes knowing a language is made up of the things that are learnt and the general principles that are inborn.

Generative grammar is made up of a set of transformations or syntactic rules that can move an element from one position to another. According to Chomsky, a person knows language fluently when they have reached full comprehension of the generative grammar of their native language.

The innateness hypothesis is the hypothesis that children's brains are 'programmed' to learn language. It is important to note that while children seem to have the ability to acquire language easily, adults acquiring a second language find it a much more difficult process.

This makes Universal Grammar available only to children acquiring their first language. In order to apply the inborn 'awareness of language' and experience of language into knowledge that a child can use, there must be some sort of a drive within a child's brain that pushes this comprehension forth.

Chomsky explains this drive as a language faculty or a language acquisition device (LAD). The language faculty is allegedly located within a person's brain and converts experience and inborn knowledge into knowledge of language. It helps children make use of the knowledge they possess.

Ever since Chomsky presented his theory, it has become an influential view among linguists that children are born with prior knowledge of the type of categories, operations and principles that are found in the grammar of a human language (O'Grady et al., 2011, p. 387).

Children, therefore, know that the words in the language they are acquiring will belong to a small set of syntactic categories and that they can be combined in particular ways to create larger phrases, while they have to learn the words they later divide into categories.

Topic-008: Second and Additional Language Acquisition

Second language acquisition and learning is defined as learning and acquisition of a language once the mother tongue or first language acquisition is established.

The additional language, which can be a second language (L2) or a foreign language (FL) is usually defined as a language acquired after the native language(s) (L1s), typically after the age of three.

Proficiency in the interlanguage can range from minimal to highly advanced, and in some cases, it can be indistinguishable from the speech produced by native speakers of a similar socio-economic background.

A good learner

In SLA, a puzzling question arises that why and how some learners manage to become indistinguishable from native speakers in the foreign language while others are identified as non-native speakers from the moment they open their mouth, even after spending years in the target language environment.

Interestingly, the parable of the tortoise and the hare also applies to SLA: those who make quick progress early on in the learning process are not always the ones who end up being most proficient in the foreign language.
Is it possible then to draw a profile of the prototypical "good language learner"? This has been attempted by a team of Canadian researchers (Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern & Todesco, 1978) who looked at a group of 72 Canadian high school students learning French as an L2.
The authors looked at "good language learners", i.e., the participants who had any distinctive psychological profile and scored highest on the Listening Test of French Achievement and an Imitation Test. Naiman and his colleagues found nothing conclusive, but that has not stopped further research in this direction (Griffiths, 2008).
Since the difference between individuals with an apparent talent for learning foreign languages and those who lack such a talent originates in the brain, some researchers have looked to see whether pathological language talent was related to increased growth of particular brain areas (Geschwind & Galaburda, 1985).
The findings of such studies are often disappointing, as no clear and straightforward conclusions can be drawn from the observations.
The fact that the neurological basis for language talent or ability cannot be identified does not alter the fact that some individuals seem to possess higher levels of "ability" (both intelligence and language aptitude) and motivation which together seem to constitute the primary individual difference variables involved in language learning (Gardner, 2006).

Topic-009: Language and the Brain

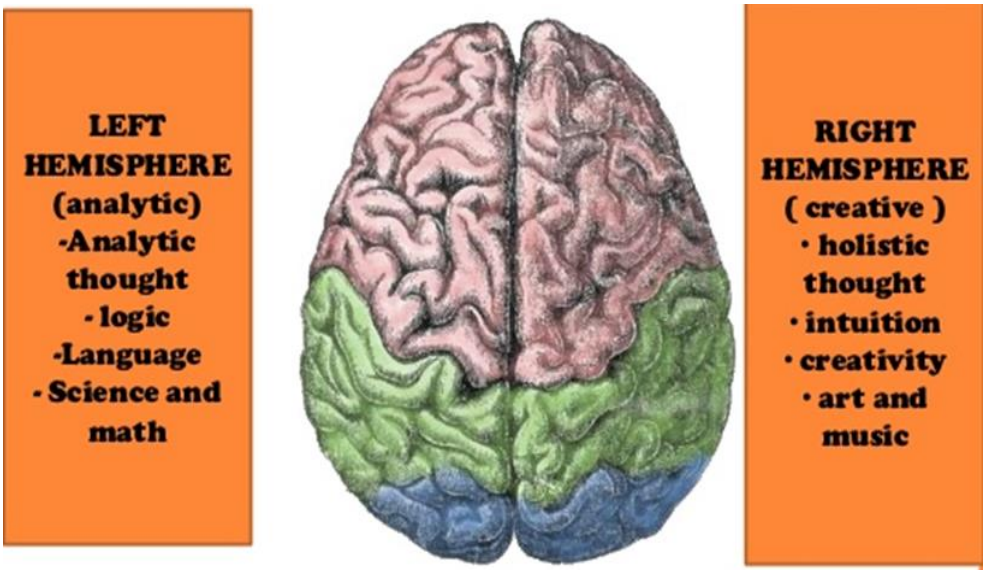
The objects of study that must be linked in neurolinguistics are language and neural components.
Approaches to neurolinguistic studies are the localization of speech relevant areas of the human brain and to find out about the connection how these areas work together.
The human nervous system is composed of the central and the peripheral system.
The peripheral nervous system is responsible for the regulation of vital body functions such as breathing and temperature maintenance, etc.
The central nervous system consists of the brain and the spinal cord.
Most crucial for neurolinguists is the brain itself, or more precisely, the outer surface of the cerebral hemispheres, the cortex.
The center of human speech and language processing has been localized in the cortex.

Localization of Language

The human brain is split into two hemispheres. The left hemisphere controls any muscular activity on the right side of the human body and the right hemisphere operates vice versa. But how to localize the representation of brain centers for speech and language?

This search dates back to the early nineteenth century. Some physicians observed that brain injured patients with damage on the left hemisphere often lost speech or linguistic abilities while people

with a lesion on the right side did not lose this ability. From the vantage point of the present, the dominance of the left hemisphere for language is largely uncontroversial.
Recent studies estimate that 97% of the population has language represented in the left hemisphere (Obler and Gjerlow, 28).



How the human brain is able to process and store information, especially language relevant data like the meaning of words and grammatical rules!
The topic is also remarkably interesting for computer scientists and closely related to artificial intelligence topics.
Considering linguistic topics, simulated neural networks are often used to represent grammatical rules in computers. They might even be the key to genuine synthetic speech, both understanding as well as producing.

Topic-010: The Linguistics Schools of Thought

- Functionalism
- Structuralism
- Generativism
- Cognitivism

Functionalism

In linguistics, functionalism can refer to any one of various approaches to the study of grammatical descriptions and processes that consider the purposes to which language is put and the contexts in which language occurs, also called functional linguistics which contrasts with Chomskyan linguistics.

Christopher Butler notes that "there is a strong consensus among functionalists that the linguistic system is not self-contained, and so autonomous from external factors, but is shaped by them" (The Dynamics of Language Use, 2005). For functionalists, the language is first and foremost an

instrument for communication between human beings, and this fact is central in explaining why languages are as they are.

This orientation certainly corresponds to the layperson's view of what language is. Ask any beginner in linguistics, who has not yet been exposed to formal approaches, what a language is, and you are likely to be told that it is something that allows human beings to communicate with one another.

There are many functionalist approaches which have been put forward, and they are often very different from one another. Two prominent ones are Role-and-Reference Grammar (RRG), developed by William Foley and Robert Van Valin, and Systemic Linguistics (SL), developed by Michael Halliday.

RRG approaches linguistic description by asking what communicative purposes need to be served and what grammatical devices are available to serve them.

SL is chiefly interested in examining the structure of a large linguistic unit--a text or a discourse--and it attempts to integrate a great deal of structural information with other information (social information, for example) in the hope of constructing a coherent account of what speakers are doing.

Functionalist approaches have proved fruitful, but they are usually hard to formalize, and they often work with 'patterns,' 'preferences,' 'tendencies,' and 'choices,' in place of the explicit rules preferred by non-functional linguists.

Structuralism

Structuralism posits that things cannot be understood outside of the context in which they appear. While at first glance this might seem self-evident, structuralism goes beyond mere historical insight and argues that context creates meaning.

This is a notion that has its roots in structural linguistics. Saussure's insight was that words are arbitrary; they have no direct connection to the thing they refer to. More than that, their meaning is determined by context. Meaning in language is created by difference—the relationship of one word to all the other words around it. There is a certain kind of negativity in all this. We understand things by what they are not.

In his book titled 'Beginning Theory', Peter Barry lays out three principles that Saussure used to develop this idea.

The meaning of words is arbitrary; the connection between the letters that form "DOG" and the actual animal is not inherent in the word itself. Rather, it is something that speakers of English agree on.

The meaning of words is relational and dependent on the meaning of other words. Barry's example uses the words "hut" and "shed." Although they are similar in meaning, if there was no word for "shed," then the meaning of "hut" (or some other word) would change to include and signify a small building used for storage.

Language constitutes our understanding of the world, which is to say that words mediate our ability to know reality. Barry mentions the difference between “terrorists” and “freedom fighters.” Each word has an arbitrary relationship to the actual person being referred to, but the political content of each term frames our understanding of that person.

Another way to think about structural linguistics is to understand Saussure’s terms “langue” and “parole.” “Parole“ refers to a particular utterance in a language, and “langue” refers to the entire system of language which that utterance belongs. The utterance only makes sense if you are able to place it in the larger linguistic structure it belongs to.

Structuralism: Methodological Principles

To understand the major methodological principles of structuralism, one must first understand what structuralism is.

Structuralism, as a linguistic theory, is that words "have to be seen in the context of the larger structure they are part of” (Beginning Theory by Peter Barry). This means that a word is only a word because of the words that surround it.

According to Saussure

the meanings we give to words are arbitrary. The physicality, or structure of a word, holds no bearing to its connotation nor denotation. (The only exceptions may be onomatopoeia, however, because even these vary by language, it is not necessarily correct.)

the meanings of words are relational. "No word can be defined in isolation from other words" (Barry). It is necessary to have other words frame a context to understand one word. There are no intrinsic, or fixed meanings in words. If a group of people were asked to think of "dog," some people may mentally conjure a border collie, others a beagle, and others a labrador, etc. While these are all dogs, and would correctly fit under the category of "dog," this word would not accomplish simultaneous thought, or a fixed meaning.

language constitutes our world. Because language exists, thought exists (think 1984 and the removal of words from the dictionary). Because the word "freedom" exists, we understand the concept; however, if no such word existed, the thought would be vague or unclear, at the very least.

Generativism

In 1957 Noam Chomsky published Syntactic Structures, a statement of the principles of transformational generative grammar (TG). This grammar had a profound effect on the study of all languages, including English.

Generativism is ordinarily demonstrated as having developed out of, and in reaction to the earlier influenced school of post Bloomfieldian American descriptivism which is particularly an edition of structuralism.

Generativism is the term used to refer a theory of language which has been developed over the last two decades, by Chomsky and his companions. Generativism not only influenced the branch of linguistics but it became an important discipline in philosophy and psychology of language.
A grammatical model of a language is an attempt to represent systematically and overtly what the native speaker of that language intuitively knows. A model is thus a system of rules that relates patterned sounds to predictable meanings and which reflects a speaker's ability of to make infinite use of finite means.

Generativism describes its concern with the essential and feasible features of human language by means of generative grammar of one type or other. Generative grammar stresses on the biological grounds for acquisition and use of human language, and the universal principles that constrain the characteristics of all languages.
Transformational generative grammarians set themselves the task of creating an explicit model of what an ideal speaker of the language intuitively knows. Their model must assign a structure, therefore, to all the sentences of the language concerned and only to these sentences.

As a first step towards this, Chomsky distinguished between competence (which defines as the ideal speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and performance (which is „the actual use of language in concrete situations).

Chomsky assumes that every sentence has an inner hidden deep structure and an outer manifest surface structure. The grammar of English will generate, for each sentence, a deep structure, and will contain rules showing how this deep structure is related to a surface structure. The rules expressing the relation of deep and surface structure are called "grammatical transformations".

According to Chomsky, language and human cognition develop at the same time.
Language is innate; its characteristics are universal among humankind. This phenomenon is same like child's normal development, in spite of a skill learned by some and not by others, such as operating a computer or riding a horse.

Children must ensure the specific sound meaning combinations and parameter setting used in their surroundings.
According to this theory language is set of syntactic rules which are universal for all humans and implicit the grammars of all human languages. This feature of language termed as Universal Grammar by Chomsky.
Chomsky introduces a term in his research i.e., I-language & E-language. By I-language he means to say that systems are productive, in the sense that they permit to construct and understand the meaning of indefinitely many utterances that have never occurred before in user's experience.

Actually from the supposition that human languages have the characteristic of recursion and this reflects to be logical assumption it says that the set of possible utterances in any language is infinite in number (Chomsky, 1957).

The competence-performance distinction is at very heart of Generativism.

Linguistic competence is the set of rules which speaker has constructed in his mind. The theory of generative grammar can be detected as linguists construct a model for, that part of linguistic competence which is universal and considered to be innate.

This aspect of generativism, with its new interpretation brings the revival of the traditional belief of universal grammar, which has awakened the attention of psychologists and philosophers.

A child, according to Chomsky, is constructing an internalized grammar as; he looks for regularities in the speech he hears going on around him, then make guess as to the rules which underlie the patterns.

His first guess will be a simple one. His second amended hypothesis will be more complex, his third, more elaborates still. Gradually his mental grammar will become more sophisticated. Eventually his internalized rules will cover all the possible utterances of his language.

According to Chomsky, then, a hypothesis-making device, linguistic universals, and (perhaps) an evaluation procedure constitute an innately endowed Language Acquisition Device (LAD). This rich innate schema contrasts strongly with the point of view popularly held earlier in the century that children are born with blank slates as far as language is concerned.

Recently, Chomsky has spoken of "a system of universal grammar with highly restrictive principles that narrowly constrain the category of attainable grammars" (Chomsky, 1980), in which he uses the term "universal grammar" to refer to properties of human, biological endowment".

Language universals, Chomsky suggests (1965), are of two basic types, substantive and formal. Substantive universals represent the fundamental 'building blocks' of language, the substance out of which it is made, while formal universals are concerned with the form or shape of a grammar.

The substantive universals of human language, a child might know instinctively the possible set of sounds to be found in speech. He would automatically reject sneezes, belches, hand- clapping and foot-stamping as possible sounds, but accept B, O, G, L, and so on.

For a long time linguists have assumed that all languages have nouns, verbs and sentence even though the exact definitions of these terms in dispute. And for a long time linguists have been trying to identify a 'universal phonetic alphabet' which defines the set of possible signals from which signals of a particular language are drawn (Chomsky, 1972).

To conclude, according to Chomsky, children would 'know' in advance how their internalized grammar must be organized. It must have a set of phonological rules for characterizing sound patterns and a set of semantic rules for dealing with meaning, linked by a set of syntactic rules

dealing with word arrangement. Furthermore, children would instinctively realize that in its rules language makes use of structure-dependent operations.

Cognitivism

Cognitivism as a theory of learning studies about the mental process that occurs inside the learner's mind has its own history about its origin and development.

The development of cognitivist theory is famous with the term "cognitive revolution".

According to asia university (2012:106), cognitive revolution is the name for an intellectual movement of 1950s that began with the cognitive sciences.

Cognitivism: History

It began in the modern context of greater interdisciplinary communication and research. Although cognitive psychology emerged in the late 1950s and began to take over as the dominant theory of learning. It wasn't until the late 1970s that cognitive science began to have its influence on instructional design (Mergel,1998).

It can be inferred that the development of cognitivism happened in the 1950s as the dominant theory of learning, but, unfortunately, the impact of it in the language learning occurred in 1970s. One of the real impacts is its influence on the instructional design. In this case, the development of cognitive theory in psychology is a response to behaviorism.

Cognitivism replaced behaviorism–the theory of language learning which talks about observable behavior and does not give any importance to the internal mental processes (the key concept of cognitivism).

Cognitivism: Development

Factors that influenced the development of Cognitivism

According to Jordan, Carlite & Stack (2008: 36-37), four factors influenced the development of cognitivism:

- The development of experimental psychology
- Transfer of interest from external observable behaviors to internal brain process
- The inadequacy of computer
- an interest in artificial intelligence

Cognitivism involves the study of mental processes such as sensation, perception, attention, encoding, and memory that behaviorists were reluctant to study because cognition occurs inside the" black box" of the brain (Jordan, Carlite & Stack, 2008:36).

Cognitivism: Principles

Sensation: how the stimuli derived from external stimuli is registered in senses before being sent for further processing.

Perception: the process to interpret and make sense something which can be seen through our sense.

Attention: stresses in the concentrating to one thing, that the most importance than the others. It is important to determine the conscious awareness.

Encoding: the way to encode the information can be done through organizing and then converting it in the form of schema. Encoding of information in the form of experience can be conducted through two ways: bottom up and top down.
Memory: the ability to keep and remind the information in our mind. It consists of sensory memory, short term memory, long term memory, and sensory.

The strengths of problem based learning are:

- focuses on the meaningfulness not the facts
- improves the students' initiative, learning achievement etc.

The weakness of cognitivism is the learners learn the way to finish the task, but it is not a good way. The strength is the students are trained to do the task in the same way thus, develops the students with consistency behavior (Schuman,1996 in Mergel, 1998).
A language teacher who wants to apply cognitivism in his or her classroom must consider the strengths and weaknesses of the paradigm.

Lesson-03

TEACHING AND LEARNING LANGUAGE: APPROACHES, METHODS AND PRACTICES-I

Outline:

- **Teaching and Learning Language: Approaches, Methods and Practices**
  - Descriptive Linguistics
  - Transformational-Generative Grammar
  - Traditional Prescriptive Grammar
  - Description versus Prescription: An Applied Linguistics Perspective

Topic-011: Descriptive Linguistics

A Long History of Language Description: The earliest known attempts to describe a language in a systematic way originated in ancient northwestern India, where the desire for a faithful transmission of the sacred scriptures known as the Vedas brought about the need to describe Sanskrit. The best known member of that grammatical tradition, commonly dated 5th century BCE, is Pānini—arguably the first descriptive linguist. Similar grammatical traditions were later established in other civilizations and gave birth to the first grammars of Greek, Latin, Tamil, Chinese, Hebrew, and Arabic. Due to the dominance of Latin in medieval Europe, most modern languages had to wait until the Renaissance to be described for the first time— for example, Spanish in 1492, French in 1532, and English in 1586—whether in the form of grammars or lexicons. At the same time, the languages spoken in the newly discovered Americas also became objects of description—often as a result of missionaries' religious agendas. Nahuatl, the language of the Aztecs, had its first grammar written in 1547 and Quechua, the language of the Inca Empire, in 1560.

As more and more languages of the world were explored and as the new discipline of linguistics started to develop in the mid-19th century—following the groundbreaking work of Alexander von Humboldt and the Brothers Grimm—a new approach to language description became necessary.

Descriptive Linguistics

Descriptive linguistics (henceforth DL) is the scientific endeavor to systematically describe the languages of the world in their diversity, based on the empirical observation of regular patterns in natural speech.

In the 20th century the structural or descriptive linguistics school emerged. It dealt with languages at particular points in time (synchronic) rather than throughout their historical development (diachronic). The father of modern structural linguistics was Ferdinand de Saussure , who believed in language as a systematic structure serving as a link between thought and sound; he thought of language sounds as a series of linguistic signs that are purely arbitrary, as can be seen in the linguistic signs or words for horse: German Pferd, Turkish at, French cheval, and Russian loshad'.

In America, a structural approach was continued through the efforts of Franz Boas and Edward Sapir, who worked primarily with Native American languages, and Leonard Bloomfield, whose methodology required that nonlinguistic criteria must not enter a structural description. Rigorous procedures for determining language structure were developed by Kenneth Pike, Bernard Bloch, Charles Hockett, and others.

The **core principle** of DL is that each language constitutes an autonomous system, which must be described in its own terms. Modern descriptive linguists carry out detailed empirical surveys on a language. After collecting language samples from speakers, they analyze the data so as to identify the components of the system and the principles that underlie its organization.

Through its commitment to the empirical description of speakers' actual practices and to the diversity of languages as creations of linguistic communities, DL is closely allied with the social sciences.

The research agenda of DL can be contrasted with a number of related yet distinct approaches to language. Anthropological linguistics and sociolinguistics study, each in its own way, the interaction between cultural or social factors and language use; by contrast, DL focuses on the structural properties of the languages themselves.

Historical linguistics studies the diachronic processes of language change, whereas DL focuses on the synchronic forms taken by a particular language at a given point in its development. The endeavor to compare individual languages, and the search for potential universals, is known as linguistic typology.

DL may be understood as the preliminary step in the typological effort, the stage during which the facts of each individual language are established, before comparison can take place.

These subdisciplines of linguistics differ in their scientific goals, yet they essentially share with DL the same fundamental principles, including the emphasis on a bottom-up, empirical approach: All these approaches are complementary components of a single scientific agenda.

By contrast, the principles of DL conflict more frontally with those of formal linguistics. Formal linguists—particularly proponents of generative grammar—claim that the facts of language are best explained by resorting to an apparatus of theoretical principles that are defined a priori, independently of the facts of particular languages. Descriptivists reject these aprioristic assumptions and require that all results be derived from the observable structures of the languages themselves.

Topic-012: Transformational Generative Grammar

The revolutionary attempt of Chomsky in linguistics actually started from his concept of Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG.) or simply Transformational Grammar (TG).

Transformational grammar is an approach to the use of grammar in communications that involves a logical and analytical process to fully grasp the meaning behind the words selected. From this perspective, it goes beyond the process of structural grammar, which tends to focus on the proper construction of sentences as the device for communication. Along with sentence structure, this type of grammar will also attempt to explore the thought behind the words.

TG, transformational grammar attempts to apply logic to the task of looking into the deeper meanings of the structure of sentences, and to analyze both the surface and the underlying intent of the words used. This means employing more than just a visual approach to the words that make up the sentence. Syntax also plays a role in the logical process of transformational grammar, as

will context. To a degree, this type of grammar calls upon most of the tools of linguistics in an attempt to fully analyze the spoken or written word.

One of the main proponents of the idea of transformational grammar was Noam Chomsky. During the middle of the 20th century, Chomsky worked to develop a logical approach to analyzing the syntax of structural grammar within the setting of the English language. As a result of his efforts, Chomsky developed and promoted the concept of grammar as being a broader theory regarding language structure, rather than simply defining a method for developing the structure for sentences. This approach had been inherent for centuries in the broader concepts of universal grammar. But due to the work of Chomsky, linguists and grammarians began to understand transformational grammar as a discipline all its own.

Why the so-called grammar is said to be transformational and generative?

This concept is best explained by considering the two key words in the string. There are: transformational and generative. It is necessary to do this because our knowledge of their meanings will go a long way to provide a quick and through understanding of the concept. Transformational is an adjectival derivation from the noun transformation. Transformation in this sense refers to a device or a process of changing the form of one linguistic structure to another. For instance, active sentence can be changed to a passive one while a simple declarative can be changed into a question through the use of transformation (Lamidi 2000). Generative on the other hand is an adjective formed from the verb 'generate'.

And according to Tomori (1997), generate in this sense (as used in generative grammar) does not mean to produce. It means to describe. When it is said that a rule generates a sentence, what this means in transformational grammar is that, a particular rule or set of rules describe how a particular linguistic element or string is formed. Combining the explanations on the above two key words, therefore, transformational generative grammar implies the type of grammar that seeks to explain the rules governing structural changes and the formation of utterances. "An attempt to make explicit that knowledge which is implicit in the native speaker of any language" (Tomori 1997).

Traditional grammar refers to the type of grammar study done prior to the beginnings of modern linguistics. Grammar, in this traditional sense, is the study of the structure and formation of words and sentences, usually without much reference to sound and meaning. In the more modern linguistic sense, grammar is the study of the entire interrelated system of structures— sounds, words, meanings, sentences—within a language.

According to Chomsky the syntactic description of sentences has two aspects: viz., Surface Structure and Deep Structure. Surface structure is the aspect of description that determines the phonetic form of sentences; while deep structure determines semantic interpretation. The rules that express the relation of Deep and Surface structures in sentences are called Grammatical Transformation and hence the terms Transformational Generative Grammar. But what is a

grammar? "A Grammar", Chomsky says "consists of syntactic rules that generate certain underlying abstract objects, and rules of semantic and phonological interpretation that assign an intrinsic meaning and an ideal phonetic representation to these abstract object." A grammar of a language is supposed to be a set of rules operating upon certain data for certain purposes.

Topic-013: Traditional Prescriptive Grammar

Traditional grammar refers to the type of grammar study done prior to the beginnings of modern linguistics. Grammar, in this traditional sense, is the study of the structure and formation of words and sentences, usually without much reference to sound and meaning.

Traditional grammar can be traced back over 2,000 years and includes grammars from the classical period of Greece, India, and Rome; the Middle Ages; the Renaissance; the eighteenth and nineteenth century; and more modern times. The grammars created in this tradition reflect the prescriptive view that one dialect or variety of a language is to be valued more highly than others and should be the norm for all speakers of the language.

Traditional grammars include prescriptive rules that are to be followed and proscriptive rules of usage to be avoided. 'When describing an emotion, use of an English word descended from Latin is preferred over an Anglo-Saxon word' is an example of a prescriptive rule, and 'Never split an infinitive' is an example of a proscriptive rule.

The analytical study of language began around 500 BC in Greece and India. The work of Greek scholar Dionysius Thrax is the model for all grammars of European languages that follow. His He¯ grammátike¯ tékhne¯ (c. 100 BC; The Art of Letters) was the first widely recognized text to provide a curriculum for learning proper Greek. His lessons included an introduction to the alphabet, lessons on how to join syllables together properly, and instruction in the appreciation of word arrangement (syntax). To Thrax, grammar was the technical knowledge necessary to produce the prestige language of poets, orators, and writers.

Around the same time, the Roman scholar Marcus Terentius Varro produced the 25 volumes of his De lingua latina (c. 100, About the Latin Language). Varro contrasted Latin with Greek, changed Greek grammatical terms into Latin, and formed his grammar of Latin by adapting Greek rules.

Other Latin grammars, influenced by the works of Thrax and Varro, were produced in the Middle Ages. Aelius Donatus published Ars Grammatica (c. fourth century, Art of Letters), and Donat Priscianus Caesariensis (Priscian) wrote Institutiones grammaticae(c. sixth century, Grammatical Foundations), which is the only complete surviving Latin grammar.

As printing became more widely available in the Renaissance, European grammarians began the mass production of grammars of their languages by mirroring the Latin grammars of Varro, Donatus, and that the grammatical descriptions of Latin could be routinely applied to their

own languages; this perception, however, was not accurate and resulted in many artificial prescriptive and proscriptive rules. Many of these false assumptions still carry over to attitudes about English today.

Continuing with this tradition, grammarians in the eighteenth century studied English, along with many other European languages, by using the prescriptive approach in traditional grammar; during this time alone, over 270 grammars of English were published. During most of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, grammar was viewed as the art or science of correct language in both speech and writing. By pointing out common mistakes in usage, these early grammarians created grammars and dictionaries to help settle usage arguments, and to encourage the improvement of English.

One of the most influential grammars of the eighteenth century was Lindley Murray's English grammar (1794), which was updated in new editions for decades. Murray's rules were taught for many years throughout school systems in England and the United States and helped to create modern attitudes about the existence of a correct or standard variety of English. Murray's grammar represents a practice that continued to develop throughout the nineteenth century and was still dominant in the 1960s when linguistics began to focus more on generative and transformational grammar due to Noam Chomsky's groundbreaking and influential ideas.

Even though linguists today view traditional grammar as an unscientific way to study language and grammar, many of the basic Latin-based notions of grammar can still be found in all levels of the classroom and in textbooks and usage guides available to educators and the public. Traditional grammar books usually provide lists of grammatical terms, definitions of those terms, and advice on using so-called 'standard' grammar, including suggested correct usage of punctuation, spelling, and word choice. This advice is usually based on the prescriptive rules of prestige varieties of English, varieties often only able to be used by those in power either economically or politically.

Linguists, along with English faculty, would rather have students study language with a descriptive approach that includes the analysis of real samples of a mixture of English dialect varieties, not just the prescribed, and sometimes inconsistent, prestige forms. Linguists or teachers using a descriptive approach say that it allows students to investigate language on a deeper level, enabling students to see the system at work, instead of teaching them isolated prescriptive and proscriptive rules based on Latin, a dead language no longer in flux as English constantly is.

Linguists also believe that the rules of traditional grammar are inadequate because many of the rules are oversimplified, inconsistent, or not consistently conformed to. The grammars of classical Greece and Rome were based on the best orators or poets of the day. However, the best poets or speakers of our day are lauded for their poetic use of language that breaks prescriptive rules. For example, a traditional grammar rule of modern English, often found in usage guides and student handbooks, forbids the use of fragment sentences like 'The train running up the hill.'

However, E.E. Cummings or Maya Angelou could use this sentence for poetic effect without question. Many teachers themselves want to be trained in traditional grammar, even though its inconsistencies may not help them when they have to explain grammatical points to their students.

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) requires that teachers in training take linguistics or language courses to teach them to examine the differences between traditional grammar and more modern grammars. However, many English teachers view traditional grammar as necessary and newer grammars as little help to them. And even though more modern types of grammatical analysis exist, many students, future teachers, and the general public still believe grammar means the traditional Latin-based grammar of old.

Topic-014: Description versus Prescription:An Applied Linguistic Perspective

Linguistics takes a descriptive approach to language: it tries to explain things as they actually are, not as we wish them to be. When we study language descriptively, we try to find the unconscious rules that people follow when they say things like sentence (1). The schoolbook approach to language is typically prescriptive. It tries to tell you how you *should* speak and write.

Notice that there is a place for both description and prescription in language study. For example, when adults learn a foreign language, they typically want someone to tell them how to speak, in other words to prescribe a particular set of rules to follow, and expect a teacher or book to set forth those rules. But how do teachers know what rules to prescribe? At some point in time, someone had to describe the language and infer those rules. Prescription, in other words, can only occur after the language has been described, and good prescription depends on adequate description. We obviously don't want to be teaching people the wrong things about language.

In an ideal world, descriptive and prescriptive approaches to language would follow this harmonious relationship: linguists would describe the rules of a language, and pedagogues would use those descriptions to make textbooks to teach language learners. In the real world, however, practitioners of the two approaches often separate themselves into hostile camps. Prescriptivists accuse descriptivists of being anarchists who want to do away with all rules of language. Descriptivists accuse prescriptivists of uninformed bigotry. With each side posting guards at the ramparts to repel the enemy, both tend to ignore the work and concerns of the other. Grammar textbooks used in K-12 education often neglect the findings of linguistics and instead copy outdated, factually incorrect material from older textbooks. For their part, linguists frequently treat *prescriptivism* as a bad word but fail (with some honorable exceptions) to show how their abstract theorizing is relevant to language teaching.

The conflicts between prescriptivism and descriptivism originate in a difference in focus: scientific study versus teaching. But that difference hardly explains why the two groups are so hostile. Other disciplines don't have a similar divide. High school physics teachers don't scorn

the abstruse theorizing of university professors in quantum mechanics or string theory, even if those theories are far beyond the level of high school physics. They take it for granted that there is continuity between the basic—and simplified—principles taught in introductory classes and the work that cutting-edge research scientists perform. Why is the study of language different?

One reason may be the emotional investment we all have in language. Language is more than a neutral medium for transmitting a message. It has washed over us like a river continually since birth. We use it constantly. It shapes who we are. Think back to your earliest memories. Can you ever remember a time when you were without language? Identity and language twine about each other so tightly that they are impossible to separate. Children of immigrant families, for example, often associate the language of their home with warmth and strong personal connections, with the deepest, private sense of who they are, in contrast to the formal public language of school and the outside world.

Language serves as a symbol of group identity. With the words we use and the way we pronounce them, we send signals to others—conscious and unconscious—about where we come from and how we see ourselves. Children, and adults for that matter, will adopt slang terms to show that they are hip, part of the in crowd. Some people view English as the unifying force of America. According to this perspective, the major thread holding a diverse society together is language. Those who stress this point emphasize the need for immigrants to master English, and sometimes insist that English should be the only language used in public life in the United States.

You don't have to accept this conclusion yourself to see that the choice of language involves deep questions of who we are and how we envision our relationship with society at large. For that reason, pronouncements about language can provoke strong reactions. When someone tells us that the way we use or understand language is inadequate, it's only natural to bristle. A challenge to our language can be tantamount to a challenge to our inner selves. So when disagreements arise over how we use language, the emotional stakes are higher.

Over the years, we have developed a strong intuitive sense of what language is. Most of us probably find ourselves much more detached from questions such as, "How did the universe begin?" or "What happens if you travel at the speed of light?" If our assumptions about physics are wrong, we don't take it personally.

Lesson-04

TEACHING AND LEARNING LANGUAGE: APPROACHES, METHODS AND PRACTICES-II

Outline:

- Teaching of Communication Skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing)
- Approaches, Methods and Practices
  - Grammar Translation Method
  - Direct Method
  - The Audio Lingual Method
  - Communicative Language Teaching
  - The Natural Approach
  - Eclectic Approach
  - Total physical Response

Topic-015:Teaching of Communication Skills

Academics at Cambridge University created a framework for describing good communication skills in different contexts. It divides these skills into four distinct but interlinked strands:

- *Physical:* How a speaker uses their body language, facial expressions, and voice.
- *Linguistic:* The speaker's use of language, including their understanding of formality and rhetorical devices.
- *Cognitive:* The content of what a speaker says and their ability to build on, challenge, question, and summarize others' ideas.
- *Social and emotional:* How well a speaker listens, includes others, and responds to their audience.

Teaching of Language Skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing)

Listening

Listening is a language modality. It is one of the four skills of a language i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing. It involves an active involvement of an individual. Listening involves a sender, a message and a receiver. It is the psychological process of receiving, attending to constructing meaning from and responding to spoken and/or nonverbal messages. Listening comprises of some key components, they are:

- **discriminating** between sounds
- **recognizing** words and **understanding** their meaning
- **identifying** grammatical groupings of words,
- identifying expressions and sets of utterances that act to create meaning,
- **connecting** linguistic cues to non-linguistic and paralinguistic cues,
- **using background knowledge** to predict and to confirm meaning and
- **recalling** important words and ideas.

The position of listening in second or foreign language programs has undergone a substantial change in recent years (Richards, 2005). The most fundamental change is in understanding of the role of listening in L2 acquisition. Listening had been considered a passive skill and its main purpose was to extract meaning from texts; however, listening is now also considered a skill that can support the growth of other aspects of language knowledge, such as speaking or reading speed (Chang & Millett, 2015). Some empirical studies have also shown that linguistic elements can be acquired through listening (Vidal, 2011; van Zeeland & Schmitt,2013). This change is important because to acquire a language, a learner normally learns both written and spoken forms unless the language has only one form, with some dialects. If a learner knows one language form, s/he may not learn the language as efficiently as one who knows both forms because reading the written form and listening to the spoken form are equally important input channels and they can work complimentarily. More importantly, students spend more time on listening than reading, speaking or writing.

Approaches to Listening Practice

A number of listening difficulties have been revealed by researchers and many suggestions have been made to improve listening instruction efficiency; however, simply relying on teachers' instruction in the classroom is not sufficient to improve one's **listening competence**. Therefore, teachers should give their students guidance on doing listening practice outside class. Three approaches: narrow listening, repeated listening, and reading while listening, are suggested for developing this competence in listening.

Narrow Listening

Narrow listening originates from narrow reading, and has been found to be helpful for language acquisition (Krashen, 1981). Narrow listening means that learners focus on one topic, e.g., weather or sports, or one author, like Conan Doyle or Agatha Christie, and do a great deal of listening in the area they choose. This approach is suitable for learners across all proficiencies and is definitely interesting for the L2 learner because the learners themselves choose the topics. In 1996, Krashen provided some guidelines for doing narrow listening; however, over the years, advancing technology has made this learning approach much easier than previously.

Repeated Listening

Repeated listening also derives from an L1 source, repeated reading. Repeated reading is one of the most common methods for developing reading fluency. It was developed by Samuels (1979) as a pedagogical application to use with L1 readers who have reading difficulties. The theory underlying repeated reading is to make word decoding more efficient through repeatedly practicing the same text. It is assumed that if much attention is paid to decoding word meanings, then little time is left for comprehending text meaning. Repeated reading is used as a means to assist unskilled readers to practice a very basic skill (word recognition) and help them move from the non-accurate to the accurate stage and eventually to the automatic stage (Samuels, 1979). By the same token, if a listener listens to a text many times, then she or he may require very little time for word recognition, so more time can be allotted to comprehending the message.

Simultaneous Reading and Listening

Simultaneous reading and listening is also termed "reading while listening" if the focus is on listening. Reading and listening at the same time can help beginner learners to develop awareness of form-meaning relationships and word recognition skills. However, it has to be noted that the post-listening phase in a listening lesson also involves reading while listening, but their purposes are different. Reading while listening at the post-listening stage is to confirm or clarify what one hears during the listening stage. Reading while listening after class is to enjoy reading and listening to all sorts of materials. Some empirical studies have also found that reading while listening improves students' comprehension (Chang, 2009; Chang & Millett, 2014).

Speaking

Taking the pedagogical landscape for speaking instruction into consideration, a comprehensive and holistic approach which integrates the combined strengths of direct and indirect instruction with the power of learners' metacognition is proposed. This approach is further proposed by recent research findings on pedagogical processes that can scaffold the development of L2 speaking. So, the construct of speaking highlights pedagogical procedures that can contribute positively to speaking performance and the implications of such understandings suggest pedagogical principles that can enhance current practices to facilitate second language speaking development in and outside the language classroom.

Understanding the speaking skill a good speaker is the person who speaks L2 confidently and fluently with grammatical correctness. In some learning contexts, a person may be considered a good speaker if he or she sounds like a native-speaker countries of UK or USA. Some people may say that a good speaker is someone who is able to influence others with his or her words. While 'good' speaking may seem a self-evident phenomenon, the construct of speaking is simple. Let us examine L2 speaking by discussing the concept of speaking competence and the processes involved in speech production. There are research highlights that offer pedagogical procedures for enhancing L2 learners' speaking performance.

Speaking Competence

Speaking involves dynamic interactions of mental, articulatory and social processes. To express a message, speakers need to decide what to say and use their linguistic knowledge to construct utterances and encode messages in sounds and sound patterns which can be recognised and understood by their listeners. They also need to consider the context of interaction and engage their listeners in socially appropriate ways through various linguistic choices and forms. For example, speakers may choose to use certain vocabulary or register when speaking with people with whom they have shared knowledge and experience. Speaking is also influenced by varied cognitive and affective factors, such as the ability to process speech quickly and feelings of anxiety. It is instructive to examine a description of L2 oral communication by Johnson (1981) that is still relevant today.

Enabling Skills

An important characteristic of competence is the ability to produce utterances that are grammatically accurate. Accuracy alone, however, is insufficient; competent speakers need to use language for myriads functions to achieve a range of communication goals. They use various sub skills that enable them to navigate the social elements at work in any interaction. So what is said should not only be cleared but should be appropriate to the context and acceptable to their listeners. They need to determine what type and amount of information is needed, as well as effective ways to express their meaning, organize their speech and articulate the sounds that accompany their speech intelligibly.

Pronunciation Skills

The articulatory and phonological skills enable speakers to produce sounds at the segmental and suprasegmental levels. At the segmental level, learners need to articulate discrete sounds such as vowels, consonants and diphthongs, and clusters of these sounds through movement with and inside of their mouths to produce intelligible sounds through the articulatory tract. The suprasegmental level concerns overall sound patterns of utterances or parts of an utterance and are realized mainly but not exclusively through prominence (stress of selected syllables in key words) and tones (pitch movements in selected key words).

Speech Function Skills

There are basic language functions that learners need to show, for example, inform, accept, decline, request, explain and describe. Individual learners' functional repertoire will depend largely on their contexts of interaction and the purposes for which speech can fulfil. Compared to young learners, adult learners in academic or professional situations would need to convey more complex functions such as negotiate, advise and argue.

Interaction Management Skills

Some speech functions are directly related to the ability to manage an interaction or regulate the flow of conversations. Just as children learning their first language need to learn how to initiate and sustain face-to-face interactions, language learners need to develop skills to do so in another language. These include but are not limited to initiating an interaction or conversation, taking turns, giving turns, asking for clarification, changing topics and closing an interaction.

Discourse Organization Skills

Most spoken interactions occur in the contexts where participants have equal or similar opportunities to talk. Very often, however, language learners may have longer turns and are required to produce extended pieces of discourse, for example, when giving a presentation, explaining or describing procedures and narrating an event or a story. They will therefore need skills to construct these spoken texts in ways that are consistent with the sociocultural conventions for the respective genres in the language being learnt.

Communication Strategies

Communication strategies are special techniques that learners need to employ during oral communication. They can have a social function for enhancing interaction or a psycholinguistic function that compensates inadequate vocabulary and other language-related problems (Nakatani and Goh 2007). Given the constraints of time and inadequate language mastery, learners also often need to employ communication strategies to keep the conversation going or to prevent flagging (Dörnyei, 1995).

Florez (1999) highlights/sums up these skills underlying speaking:

- using grammar structures accurately;
- assessing characteristics of the target audience, including shared knowledge, status and power relations, or differences in perspectives;
- selecting vocabulary that is understandable and appropriate for the audience, the topic being discussed, and the setting in which the speech act occurs;
- applying strategies to enhance comprehensibility, such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing, or checking for listener's comprehension;
- paying attention to the success of the interaction and adjusting components of speech such as vocabulary, rate of speech, and complexity of grammar structures to maximize listener's comprehension and involvement.

Reading

Reading is a commonly offered in many second and foreign language curricula for different age groups, yet it is not a skill easily acquired by the learners (Nuttall, 1996). Keeping in mind the significance of reading and viewing in real life and in the curriculum for assisting the development of other language skills (speaking, listening, vocabulary, and writing), teachers' instruction is crucial for students' success. In traditional reading lessons, teachers seldom consider blending reading into viewing and viewing into reading to make the lesson dynamic and interactive.

Classroom Activities

Top-Down and Bottom-Up Models

Reading can be regarded as a process where the centrality of meaning is almost axiomatic (Goodman, 1996), or as a process where the primacy of decoding is emphasized (Samuels, 2004; Stanovich, 2000). Viewing can also be theorized in a similar fashion. The former is known as taking a 'top-down' approach, where the meaning-driven or reader-driven nature is explicit. As Goodman (1996) states, reading is 'a psycholinguistic guessing game,' where much of the meaning resides in the reader, who needs to interpret the text to derive it. He argues that readers' top-down processing is essential to successful reading, and that in many instances, reading involves readers' existing schematic knowledge. Such a view is also widely shared among L2 researchers on bilingual readers because there are non-decoding factors that contribute to reading success (Yorio, 1971; Zhang, Gu, and Hu, 2008).

Interactive Models

In his 'interactive-compensatory model' Stanovich (2000) argues that, although top-down processing is necessary, bottom-up processes play a significant role in reading, especially for beginning readers. In fact, both processes are very important in learning how to read. He points the reason why poor readers do not guess as accurately as skilled readers. The skilled readers

possess accurate and automatic perceptual abilities in word recognition that they do not usually need to guess; whereas poor readers usually guess, and their guessing is frequently short circuited by their limited linguistic proficiency. Following this line of explication, one can see clearly that learning to read becomes a matter of developing highly accurate decoding skills. This means that there is a 'short-circuit' effect for L2 learners whose linguistic proficiency is too low to make efficient reading activity (Yorio, 1971). Interactive models of reading in their broad sense have also been advocated for L2 reading instruction (Carrell, 1988) despite controversies over their practicality and their technical nature that detaches them from practical applications.

Teaching Reading in the Classroom

Many useful strategies have been informed by researches and successfully used in the reading classroom (Grabe 2009). Some of them are more useful in the pre-reading stage; some are more relevant to the during-reading stage; and others are more suitable for post-reading stage. Teachers are encouraged to organize their teaching by engaging students to approach texts with reference to this non-exhaustive list of strategies of teaching reading.

Writing

Writing is a complex, multifaceted, and purposeful act of communication that is accomplished in a variety of environments, under various constraints of time, and with a variety of language resources and technological tools.

In order to teach writing effectively, teachers must be explicitly aware of the skills and processes involved. This view treats writing as a profession, a qualification to be attained with discipline and hard work, rather than an innate ability or subconscious habit. Indeed, "even in one's native language, learning to write is something like learning a second language. No one is born with writing proficiency. Everyone learns to write at school (Leki, 1992). If students want to write well, they need to learn the skills explicitly and adopt deliberate strategies to enhance their writing competence. There are some basic skills for writing competence. First we will discuss the non-linear process of academic writing that teachers can introduce to students in writing classrooms to raise their awareness then explain the practical methods for enhancing students' writing performance in second language classes.

Writing Competence

Writing competence is composing an effective piece of written work to fulfill a specific purpose. For example, when writing an entertaining and engaging story, students adopt a narrative style and rhetorical moves in order to fulfill the requirements of that genre. If students get aware of the importance of the purpose, audience, and context of the writing, they can employ the following academic discourse skills to achieve effective implementation.

Writing competencies are scored as follows:

BASIC denotes partial mastery of prerequisite knowledge and skills that are fundamental for proficient work at a given grade.
PROFICIENT represents solid academic performance. Students reaching this level have demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter.
ADVANCED represents superior performance.

Pedagogical Principles of the Socio-Cognitive Approach to Academic Writing

(a) Teachers need to explain the purpose of writing to the students

• Make sure students understand that establishing the macro rhetorical goal and purposes of writing is an essential part of the writing process.
• Ensure that students recognize the functions of academic writing. After that, they may begin to appreciate its importance in writing.
• Plan activities that require students to identify the purpose of writing at the modelling, joint construction, and independent writing stages.

(b) Writing lessons would address the knowledge-transformation approach to writing

• Teach the knowledge-transformation approach to writing with a focus of establishing the macro-rhetorical goal of the essay.
• Explicitly teach students the thinking processes in planning, organizing, writing, and revising the essay using the knowledge-transformation approach to writing.
• Create class activities that raise students' awareness of the differences between the information-focused approach and the knowledge- transformation approach to writing.

(c) Second language writers' writing performance can be enhanced by understanding coherence in a broader sense

• Teach the features of a coherent text at a discourse level and highlight the differences in meaning between meta-discourse markers and cohesive devices in writing.
• Encourage students to self-edit their texts by reading aloud and self-evaluating their writing using a coherence checklist.
• Plan peer review activities, focusing on the development of coherence in writing. Peer reviewers can also comment on the macro-rhetorical goal of their peer's essays.

(d) Writing is a complex activity

• Teach students that writing is a non-linear process involving many stages, not limited to conceptualizing, formulating, reading and revising.
• Recognize that students will encounter difficulties during the writing processes such as 'setting the macro rhetorical goal,' 'establishing writer identity,' and 'considering the reader.'
• Plan group activities that heighten students' awareness of the nature of writing.

Topic-016:Approaches, Methods and Practices

Approach

It refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning and teaching that serves as the source of principles, methods and practice in LT. It is the level in which a whole theory and its beliefs are reflected regarding a language and its learning. It is a much wider concept than a method and technique. It is the source of the principles and practices of language teaching. It describes how people acquire and their knowledge of the language and makes statements about the conditions which will promote successful language learning. It offers a model of language competence. An approach describes how language is used and how its constituent parts interlock.

Method

It is considered the practical realization of an approach. It is understood as a group of procedures, a system that clearly explains how to teach a language (syllabus organization -contents & and skills to be taught-, roles of teachers and learners, kinds of materials to use). It is understood as a group of procedures, a system that clearly explains how to teach a language (contents and skills to be taught). The method is based on a specific approach. The approach is axiomatic whereas the method is procedural.

When a method has fixed procedures, informed by clearly articulated approach, it is easy to describe. However, if a method takes procedures and techniques from a wide variety of sources, that is that they are used in other methods or are mentioned by other beliefs, it will be very hard to continue describing it as a method.

Practices

Practices or techniques are the specific strategies that we use in the classroom. These are the tools to be employed in the classroom and must be coherent with the teaching method and therefore, must be in harmony with the approach. Techniques or practices can be method specific as well as general.

GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

Methods and approaches may differ in their theoretical background, their focus and goals, views on teacher and learner roles, typical techniques and forms of interaction, attitude to errors and use of mother tongue, role of instructional materials, etc. Each of them has its own strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT).

Goals and Strengths of Grammar Translation Method

There are two main goals to grammar–translation classes. One is to develop students' reading ability to a level where they can read literature in the target language. The other is to develop students' general mental discipline.

The users of foreign language wanted simply to note things of their interest in the literature of foreign languages. Therefore, this method focuses on reading and writing and has developed techniques which facilitate more or less the learning of reading and writing only.

Strengths of Grammar Translation Method include:

- Forming good academic knowledge of the target language
- Training grammar accuracy
- Developing students‘ memory

Weaknesses of Grammar Translation Method

- Grammar–translation classes are usually conducted in the students' native language.
- Grammar rules are learned deductively.
- Students learn grammar rules by rote.
- Then practice the rules by doing grammar drills and translating sentences to and from the target language.
- As a result, speaking and listening are overlooked.
- More attention is paid to the form of the sentences being translated than to their content.
- Tests often consist of the translation of classical texts.
- There is no usual listening or speaking practice, and very little attention is placed on pronunciation.
- There is usually no practice in communicative activities.
- Communicative aspects of the language are ignored.
- The skill exercised is reading, and then only in the context of translation.
- The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use language for communication.

Weakness of GTM lies in:

- the lack of using language for communicative purposes
- lack of development of communicative skills
- little, if any, experience of speaking and listening

THE DIRECT METHOD

By the end of the 19th century, the GTM as a method had failed to meet the requirements of time and society and the reaction to the failure was the creation of the Direct Method, which more stressed the ability to use rather than to analyze language as the goal of language instruction.

Aims of the Direct Method

- DMT aims to build a direct way into the world of the target language making a relation between experience and language, word and idea, thought and expression, and rule and performance.
- It intends for students to learn how to communicate in the target language.

- DMT believes that learners should experience the new language in the same way as he/she experienced his/her mother tongue without considering the existence of his/her mother tongue.

So DMT believes in:

- No translation
- Concepts are to be taught by means of objects or contexts.
- Oral training helps in reading and writing, listening and speaking simultaneously.
- Grammar is to be taught indirectly.

Ways to achieve all this includes the following:

- Question/answer exercises – the teacher asks questions of any type and the student answers.
- Dictation – the teacher chooses a grade-appropriate passage and reads it aloud.
- Reading aloud – the students take turn reading sections of a passage, play or a dialogue aloud.
- Self-correction – when a student makes a mistake, the teacher offers him/her a second chance by giving a choice.
- Conversation practice – the students are given an opportunity to ask questions to the other students.
- Paragraph writing – the students are asked to write a passage in their own words.

Strengths and Weaknesses of the Direct Method

Practical goals and immersion into foreign environment, together with focus on speaking and listening practice are the major strengths of the Direct Method. The greatest weaknesses are connected with an underestimated role of reading and writing and counterproductive prohibition of using mother tongue.

In the Direct method, there is a:

- Wide use of authentic materials.
- Presenting language items in dialogues rather than in isolation.
- Introducing natural order of skills presentation: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
- Both speech and listening comprehensions are taught.
- Correct pronunciation and grammar are emphasized.
- Students are taught from inception to ask questions as well as to answer them.

As far as Weaknesses of the method are concerned, they include:

- Underestimated role of reading and writing.
- Counterproductive prohibition of using mother tongue.
- Overestimated role of mechanical drilling where meaning is often irrelevant.
- Lack of flexibility.

Direct Method and Pakistani Context

The direct method was an answer to the dissatisfaction with the older grammar translation method, which teaches students grammar and vocabulary through direct translations and thus focuses on the written language. However, in Pakistan, GMT is still widely used. The Direct Method is used in a very restricted sense. However, we need to consider the nature and degree of practices in different streams of education in Pakistan so the case of the use of DTM is different in public sector and private sector.

As far as the future use or way forward is concerned, possibilities of using Direct Method are there, but there is a need for proper teacher training in this regard.

AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD

The emergence of the Audiolingual Method resulted from the increased attention given to foreign language teaching in the United States toward the end of the 1950s. The need for a radical change and rethinking of foreign language teaching methodology (most of which was still linked to the Reading Method) was prompted by the launch of the first Russian satellite in 1957.

Learner roles

Learners are viewed as organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses. In accordance with behaviorist learning theory, teaching focuses on the external manifestations of learning rather than on the internal processes. Learners play a reactive role by responding to stimuli, and thus have little control over the content, pace, or style of learning. They are not encouraged to initiate interaction, because this may lead to mistakes. The fact that in the early stages learners do not always understand the meaning of what they are repeating is not perceived as a drawback, for by listening to the teacher, imitating accurately, and responding to and performing controlled tasks, they are learning a new form of verbal behavior.

Teacher's role

In Audiolingualism, as in Situational Language Teaching, the teacher's role is central and active; it is a teacher-dominated method. The teacher models the target language, controls the direction and pace of learning, and monitors and corrects the learners' performance. The teacher must keep the learners attentive by varying drills and tasks and choosing relevant situations to practice structures. Language learning is seen to result from active verbal interaction between the teacher and the learners. Brooks argues that the teacher must be trained to do the following:

- Introduce, sustain, and harmonize the learning of the four skills in this order:
- Hearing, speaking, reading and writing.
- Use - and not use - English in the language classroom.
- Model the various types of language behavior that the student is to learn. Teach spoken language in dialogue form.
- Direct choral response by all or parts of the class.
- Teach the use of structure through pattern practice.
- Guide the student in choosing and learning vocabulary.

- Show how words relate to meaning in the target language. Get the individual student to talk.
- Reward trials by the student in such a way that learning is reinforced. Teach a short story and other literary forms.

The role of instructional materials

Instructional materials in the Audiolingual Method assist the teacher to develop language mastery in the learner. They are primarily teacher-oriented. A student textbook is often not used in the elementary phase of a course where students are primarily listening, repeating, and responding. At this stage in learning, exposure to the printed word may not be considered desirable, because it distracts attention from the aural input. The teacher, however, will have access to a teacher's book that contains the structured sequence of lessons to be followed and the dialogues, drills, and other practice activities. When textbooks and printed materials are introduced to the student, they provide the texts of dialogues and cues needed for drills and exercises.

COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

The notional/functional syllabus, as it was known, provided a new way of exploiting the situational dialogue inherited from the past by indicating that formal and functional properties can after all be integrated. Thus began a language teaching movement which later became known as communicative method or communicative approach or simply communicative language teaching. It should be kept in mind that communicative language teaching is not a monolithic entity; different teachers and teacher educators offered different interpretations of the method within a set of broadly accepted theoretical principles, so much so that it makes sense to talk about not one but several communicative methods. In what follows, we will look at, in detail, the theoretical principles and classroom procedures associated with communicative language teaching, treating it as a prototypical example of a learner centered pedagogy.

Classroom Procedures in Communicative Language Teaching Approach

The content specifications of learner-centered pedagogy are a clear and qualitative extension of those pertaining to language-centered pedagogy, an extension that can make a huge difference in the instructional design.

But from a classroom procedural point of view, there is no fundamental difference between language-centered pedagogy and learner-centered pedagogy. The rationale behind this rather brisk observation will become apparent as we take a closer look at the input modifications and interactional activities recommended by learner-centered pedagogists.

Input Modifications

Unlike the language-centered pedagogist, who adopted an almost exclusive form-based approach to input modifications, learner-centered pedagogists pursued a form- and meaning-based approach. Recognizing that successful communication entails more than structures, they attempted to

connect form and meaning. In a sense, this connection is indeed the underlying practice of any method of language teaching for, as Brumfit and Johnson (1979) correctly pointed out, no teacher introduces "shall" and "will" (for example) without relating recourse to the concepts of countableness and uncountableness. (p. 1)

What learner-centered pedagogists did, and did successfully, was to make this connection explicit at the levels of syllabus design, textbook production, and classroom input and interaction. Notice how, for example, the mini curriculum cited (section 6.1.4) focuses on the communicative function of "apologizing," while at the same time, identifying grammatical structures and vocabulary items needed to perform that function.

Interactional Activities

To operationalize their input modifications in the classroom, learner-centered pedagogists followed the same presentation–practice–production sequence popularized by language-centered pedagogists but with one important distinction: Whereas the language-centered pedagogists presented and helped learners practice and produce grammatical items, learner-centered pedagogists presented and helped learners practice and produce grammatical as well as notional/functional categories of language. It must, however, be acknowledged that learner-centered pedagogists came out with a wide variety of innovative classroom procedures such as pair work, group work, role-play, simulation games, scenarios and debates that ensured a communicative flavor to their interactional activities.

Pooling Information to Solve a Problem

Learner A has a train timetable showing the times of trains from X to Y. Learner B has a timetable of trains from Y to Z. For example:

Learner A's information:

Newtown dep. : 11.34 13.31 15.18 16.45

Shrewsbury arr. : 12.22 14.18 16.08 18.25

Learner B's information:

Shrewsbury dep. : 13.02 15.41 16.39 18.46

Swansea arr. : 17.02 19.19 20.37 22.32

Together, the learners must work out the quickest possible journey from Newtown to Swansea. Again, of course, it is important that they should not be able to see each other's information. (Littlewood, 1981, pp. 34–35)

These two examples illustrate functional communication activities. The idea behind them is that "the teacher structures the situation so that learners have to overcome an information gap or solve a problem. Both the stimulus for communication and the yardstick for success are thus contained within the situation itself: learners must work towards a definite solution or decision" (Littlewood, 1981, p. 22). The activities are intended to help the learner find the language necessary to convey an intended message effectively in a specific context. The two sample activities show how two

learners in a paired-activity are required to interact with each other, ask questions, seek information, and pool the information together in order to carry out the activities successfully.

NATURAL APPROACH

The natural approach developed by Tracy Terrell and supported by Stephen Krashen is a language teaching approach which claims that language learning is a reproduction of the way humans naturally acquire their native language. The approach adheres to a communicative approach to language teaching and rejects earlier methods such as the audiolingual method and the situational language teaching approach which Krashen and Terrell (1983) believe are not based on "actual theories of language acquisition but theories of the structure of language."

Objectives

The Natural Approach "is for beginners and is designed to help them become intermediates." It has the expectation that students will be able to function adequately in the target situation. They will understand the speaker of the target language (perhaps with requests for clarification), and will be able to convey (in a non-insulting. manner) their requests and ideas. They need not know every word in a particular semantic domain, nor is it necessary that the syntax and vocabulary be flawless, but their production does need to be understood. They should be able to make the meaning clear but not necessarily be accurate in all details of grammar. (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 71) However, since the Natural Approach is offered as a general set of principles applicable to a wide variety of situations, as in Communicative Language Teaching, specific objectives depend on learner needs and the skill (reading, writing, listening, or speaking) and level being taught. Krashen and Terrell believe that it is important to communicate to learners what they can expect of a course as well as what they should not expect. They offer as an example, a possible goal and non-goal statement for a beginning Natural Approach Spanish class:

After 100-150 hours of Natural Approach Spanish, you will be able to: "get around" in Spanish; you will be able to communicate with a monolingual native speaker of Spanish without difficulty; read most ordinary texts in Spanish with some use of a dictionary; know enough Spanish to continue to improve on your own.

After 100-150 hours of Natural Approach Spanish you will not be able to: pass for a native speaker; use Spanish as easily as you use English; understand native speakers when they talk to each other (you will probably not be able to eavesdrop successfully); use Spanish on the telephone with great comfort; participate easily in a conversation with several other native speakers on unfamiliar topics. (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 74)

The syllabus

Krashen and Terrell (1983) approach course organization from two points of view. First, they list some typical goals for language courses and suggest which of these goals are the ones at which the Natural Approach aims. They list such goals under four areas:

1. Basic personal communication skills: oral (e.g., listening to announcements in public places)

2. Basic personal communication skills: written (e.g., reading and writing personal letters)
3. Academic learning skills: oral (e.g., listening to a lecture)
4. Academic learning skills: written (e.g., taking notes in class).

Of these, they note that the Natural Approach is primarily "designed to develop basic communication skills - both oral and written" (1983: 67). They then observe that communication goals "may be expressed in terms of situations, functions and topics" and proceed to order four pages of topics and situations "which are likely to be most useful to beginning students" (1983: 67). The functions are not specified or suggested but are felt to derive naturally from the topics and situations. This approach to syllabus design would appear to derive to some extent from threshold level specifications.

The second point of view holds that "the purpose of a language course will vary according to the needs of the students and their particular interests" (Krashen and Terrell (1983: 65): The goals of a Natural Approach class are based on an assessment of student needs. We determine the situations in which they will use the target language and the sort of topics they will have to communicate the information about. In setting communication goals, we do not expect the students at the end of a particular course to have acquired a certain group of structures or forms. Instead, we expect them to deal with a particular set of topics in a given situation. We do not organize the activities of the class about a grammatical syllabus. (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 71) From this point of view; it is difficult to specify communicative goals that necessarily fit the needs of all students. Thus, any list of topics and situations must be understood as syllabus suggestions rather than as specifications.

Types of Learning and Teaching Activities

From the beginning of a class taught according to the Natural Approach, emphasis is on presenting comprehensible input in the target language. Teacher talk focuses on objects in the classroom and on the content of pictures, as with the Direct Method. To minimize stress, learners are not required to say anything until they feel ready, but they are expected to respond to teacher commands and questions in other ways.

When learners are ready to begin talking in the new language, the teacher provides comprehensible language and simple response opportunities. The teacher talks slowly and distinctly, asking questions and eliciting one-word answers. There is a gradual progression from Yes/No questions, through either-or questions, to questions that students can answer using words they have heard the teacher use. Students are not expected to use a word actively until they have heard it many times. Charts, pictures, advertisements, and other realia serve as the focal point for questions, and when the students' competence permits, talk moves to class members. "Acquisition activities" - those that focus on meaningful communication rather than language form - are emphasized. Pair or group work may be employed, followed by whole-class discussion led by the teacher.

Role of Leaners, Teachers and Materials in the Natural Approach

Learner roles

There is a basic assumption in the Natural Approach that learners should not try to learn a language in the usual sense. The extent to which they can lose themselves in activities involving meaningful communication will determine the amount and kind of acquisition they will experience and the fluency they will ultimately demonstrate. The language acquirer is seen as a processor of comprehensible input. The acquirer is challenged by input that is slightly beyond his or her current level of competence and is able to assign meaning to this input through active use of context and extralinguistic information.

Learners' roles are seen to change according to their stage of linguistic development. Central to these changing roles are learner decisions on when to speak, what to speak about, and what linguistic expressions to use in speaking.

In the pre-production stage, students "participate in the language activity without having to respond in the target language" (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 76). For example, students can act out physical commands; identify student colleagues from teacher description, point to pictures, and so forth. In the early-production stage, students respond to either-or questions, use single words and short phrases, fill in charts, and use fixed conversational patterns (e.g., How are you? What's your name?).

In the speech-emergent phase, students involve themselves in role play and games, contribute personal information and opinions, and participate in group problem solving. Learners have four kinds of responsibilities in the Natural Approach classroom:

1. Provide information about their specific goals so that acquisition activities can focus on the topics and situations most relevant to their needs.
2. Take an active role in ensuring comprehensible input. They should learn and use conversational management techniques to regulate input.
3. Decide when to start producing speech and when to upgrade it.
4. Where learning exercises (i.e., grammar study) are to be a part of the program, decide with the teacher the relative amount of time to be devoted to them and perhaps even complete and correct them independently.

Learners are expected to participate in communication activities with other learners. Although communication activities are seen to provide naturalistic practice and to create a sense of camaraderie, which lowers the affective filter, they may fail to provide learners with well-formed and comprehensible input at the I + 1 level. Krashen and Terrell warn of these shortcomings but do not suggest means for their amelioration.

Teacher roles

The Natural Approach demands a much more center-stage role for the teacher than do many contemporary communicative methods. Second, the Natural Approach teacher creates a classroom atmosphere that is interesting, friendly, and in which there is a low affective filter for learning. This is achieved in part, through such Natural Approach techniques as not demanding

speech from the students before they are ready for it, not correcting student errors, and providing subject matter of high interest to students.

Finally, the teacher must choose and orchestrate a rich mix of classroom activities, involving a variety of group sizes, content, and contexts. The teacher is seen as responsible for collecting materials and designing their use. These materials, according to Krashen and Terrell, are based not just on teacher perceptions but on elicited student needs and interests. As with other non-orthodox teaching systems, the Natural Approach teacher has a particular responsibility to communicate clearly and compellingly to students the assumptions, organization, and expectations of the method, since in many cases these will violate student views of what language learning and teaching are supposed to be.

The Role of Instructional Materials

The primary aim of materials is to promote comprehension and communication. Pictures and other visual aids are essential, because they supply the content for communication. They facilitate the acquisition of a large vocabulary within the classroom. Other recommended materials include schedules, brochures, advertisements, maps, and books at levels appropriate to the students, if a reading component is included in the course. Games, in general, are seen as useful classroom materials, since "games by their very nature, focus the students on what it is they are doing and use the language as a tool for reaching the goal rather than as a goal in itself" (Terrell 1982: 121). The selection, reproduction, and collection of materials place a considerable burden on the Natural Approach teacher. Since Krashen and Terrell suggest a syllabus of topics and situations, it is likely that at some point collections of materials to supplement teacher presentations will be published, built around the "syllabus" of topics and situations recommended by the Natural Approach.

ECLECTIC APPROACH

The eclectic approach is the label given to a teacher's use of techniques and activities from a range of language teaching approaches and methodologies. The teacher decides what methodology or approach to use depending on the aims of the lesson and the learners in the group. Eclectic approach for teaching foreign language is commendable when circumstances do not allow for the adoption of a single method. Learners of foreign languages nowadays are prepared to invest less time than before in learning a foreign language. However, they expect to become sufficiently competent in that language in order to be able to perform well under particular circumstances. It is neither a teaching tool for the teacher nor a learning method for the learners. It is a whole way of doing things such as listening coordinated speaking with subsidiary elements like pronunciation and form of the language.

The eclectic method provides a third option for teachers because it fuses elements from traditional and cognitive methods to deliver on the strengths of both. It includes content integration, knowledge construction, prejudice reduction, equity pedagogy, and empowerment of competitive aptitudes. To accommodate these changes, teachers need a new way of thinking. The

concept of bilingual knowledge learning has evolved towards a vision based more on management and creation rather than one based on learning only. Still, how to apply them to bilingual learning is a new concept and continually inspires teachers to move forward. Teachers should help children learn by thinking about controlling, and effectively using their own mental process. Cognitive learning helps children process new information by taking advantage of knowledge and attitudes that children already have. Under the principles of cognitive theory, knowledge that makes sense and has significance to children is more meaningful than inert knowledge and knowledge learned by rote. Knowledge to solve problems and to use skills in situations like those they are likely to encounter in real life or in other senses in which teachers expect learning to transfer to.

Teaching a foreign language must be simple for both teacher and learner and must be within the capabilities of all teachers. Also, the teacher must feel that pupils are progressing satisfactorily. It must bring about a balance between the spoken and written word. It must overcome the conflict between fluency and accuracy. It must increase the rate and amount of learning which takes place in the classroom. Testing must be part of the method, and not separate entity. It must reflect the linguistic habits the child has already acquired by learning his/ her mother tongue and their ability to assimilate a new language. Since our aim is to have our learners master the foreign language, no matter what approach we adopt. We should adopt an approach which makes our teachers master the foreign language in listening, speaking, reading and writing with understanding. Such approach is not only structural or only functional but co-joins both. Each approach has advantages as well as disadvantages. The use of eclecticism does not mean to mix up different approaches randomly. There must have some philosophical backgrounds and some systematic relation among different activities. Usually it is recommended to mix structural approaches with communicative use of language. The kind of eclecticism we tried to implement here is a mixture of traditional reading based approach and some conversational practice for students. Language is based on structures which are used to convey meanings, which perform functions. We see language learning as combined process of structural and communicative activities.

The eclectic theory of language was advocated during the year 1990's and because important for the educational theory of language learning. It is popular because it has the impact of good results without much pressure on the learner. The advantage of this theory is learners have clear vision what they are learning. Multiple tasks, high interaction, lively learning, objective correlative, and fast results are the salient features of this method. Some learners go by their own ways of communicating strategy, they will become more confident in writing but most often they fail in speaking. The purpose of advocating elective method is to connect life experiences to the ideas presented in learning of the language. The types of learning activities teachers select are often directly related to their experiences in the real world.

Language must be put together and learnt concurrently. The spoken language allows one to locate the appropriate way to get a particular objective. The importance of introducing cultural product is as crucial to such learning of the language as capturing and enhancing knowledge or expressing one's feelings. The problem of speaking ranges from creating a story which has to anticipate events. Elective way of speaking is a wonderful way of achieving objective of learning.

Teachers of English need to focus on the special teaching techniques. There are many methods of teaching English out of which Eclectic way of teaching include positive objectives of known methods and principles of Eclectic method. Eclectic method is a popular method these days because students are heterogeneous and versatile level intelligent in the classroom. However, some teachers are very sensitive of using various methods; they find particular method as comfortable using in the classroom without taking much trouble. Teacher ought to use all the principles of language teaching including cognition and linguistic objectives. A technique of teaching through electric ways is a rich combination of multiple activities. The salient features of approach include the low level grammar and oriental context of culture texts which may not bring out whole linguistic competence of the students if they are to be trained for global market leaders. If teacher does not pay attention to the need of respective student, the whole teaching practice is useless.

Some people advocate Eclectic method greatly and some criticize it harshly. Of course, it has its own advantages and disadvantages. The advantages lay in general understanding aspects. Firstly, with this theory, it becomes easier and more possible for the learners to understand the language of the text with the context of culture. Secondly, it blends the practice of listening, speaking, reading and writing into an organic whole. It is obvious that any one method does not serve the right purpose of teaching English. This is how teaching English by combination of various methods and approaches will help the teacher to teach English effectively. Teaching of English should be made easy by brining into realistic situation, the best way of teaching English is by creating situations. The situation makes the language easily comprehensible. It connects a closer link between an expressions and usage by coordinating meaning. It is also important that creating situations should be appropriate to students 'level and their context of culture. Teachers of English themselves are not very efficient in many cases. This is why Eclectic method may be appropriate in many situations. It advocates that number of methods can be used based on the selection of particular method which depends on level of students. However, basic principle learning is simplicity. Eclectic method of learning is an integral part of the total learning process.

Larsen-Freeman (2000) and Mellow (2000) both have used the term principled eclecticism to describe a desirable, coherent, pluralistic approach to language teaching. Eclecticism involves the use of variety of language learning activities, each of which may have very different characteristics and may be motivated by different underlying assumption. The use eclecticism is due to the fact that there are strengths and weaknesses of single theory based methods. Reliance upon a single theory of teaching has been criticized because the use of a limited number of techniques can become mechanic. The students thus cannot get benefits of learning.

Experience has shown time and again that sticking blindly to a single ' pure' method or approach to ELT leads to marginal results and short-lived competencies in restricted areas of the foreign language practice. Eclecticism has a very strong advantage to recommend it under various constrained circumstances. It involves a philosophy of local solutions to local problems. It is a very democratic approach to language allowing for a freedom of choice. (Tarone & Yule 1989:10). Wills (1990) sees an eclectic approach as a response to the conflict between syllabus and methodology, which are not discrete options." Brumfit (1984) recommends that a language

learning program should provide a balance of activities. Some of which focus on accuracy and some on fluency. Accuracy presupposes a focus on form and fluency-on exchanging meaning accomplishing tasks and reaching outcomes. Crombie points out a recent tendency -syllabus designers accept eclecticism as offering better opportunities for better teaching. Increasingly, syllabus designers seem to be adopting the view that the best syllabus will in many cases, be one which is based on eclecticism: one which emerges from a combination of approaches rather than from a single approach. (Crombie 1985:10)

The real issue is not which syllabus to put first: it is how to integrate eight or so syllabuses (functional, notional, situational, topic, phonological, lexical, structural, skills) into a sensible teaching program (Swan 1990:89).An eclectic approach based on the structural, functional notional and communicative approaches to language teaching could keep a balance of accuracy and fluency.

TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE

Total Physical Response (TPR) is a language teaching method built around the coordination of speech and action; it attempts to teach language through physical (motor) activity. Developed by James Asher, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University, California, it draws on several traditions, including developmental psychology, and humanistic pedagogy, as well as on language teaching procedures proposed by Harold and Dorothy Palmer in 1925. In a developmental sense, Asher sees successful adult second language learning as a parallel process to child's first language acquisition. He claims that speech directed to young children consists primarily of commands, which children respond to physically before they begin to produce verbal responses. He feels that adults should recapitulate the processes by which children acquire their native language. Asher shares with the school of humanistic psychology a concern for the role of affective (emotional) factors in language learning. A method that is undemanding in terms of linguistic production and that involves game-like movements reduces learner stress, he believes, and creates a positive mood in the learner, which facilitates learning.

Objectives Syllabus and in Total Physical Response Method

The general objectives of Total Physical Response are to teach oral proficiency at a beginning level. Comprehension is a means to an end, and the ultimate aim is to teach basic speaking skills. A TPR course aims to produce learners who are capable, of an uninhibited communication that is intelligible to a native speaker. Specific instructional objectives are not elaborated, for these will, depend on the particular needs of the learners. Whatever goals are set, however, must be attainable through the use of action-based drills in the imperative form.

Syllabus

The type of syllabus Asher uses can be inferred from an analysis of the exercise types employed in TPR classes. This analysis reveals the use of a sentence-based syllable with grammatical and lexical criteria being primary in selecting teaching items. Unlike methods that

operate from a grammar-based or structural view of the core elements of language, Total Physical Response requires initial attention to meaning rather than to the form of items. Grammar is thus taught inductively.

Asher also suggests that a fixed number of items be introduced at a time, to facilitate ease of differentiation and assimilation. "In an hour, it is possible for students to assimilate 12 to 36 new lexical items depending upon the size of the group and the stage of training" (Asher 1977: 42). A course designed around Total Physical Response principles, however, would not be expected to follow a TPR syllabus exclusively.

Role of Learners Teachers and Material in Total Physical Response Method

Learners in Total Physical Response have the primary roles of listener and performer. They listen attentively and respond physically to commands given by the teacher. Learners are also expected to recognize and respond to novel combinations of previously taught items. They are required to produce novel combinations of their own. Learners monitor and evaluate their own progress. They are encouraged to speak when they feel ready to speak - that is, when a sufficient basis in the language has been internalized. The teacher plays an active and direct role in Total Physical Response. It is the teacher who decides what to teach, who models and presents the new materials, and who selects supporting materials for classroom use. Asher recommends detailed lesson plans: "It is wise to write out the exact utterances you will be using and especially the novel commands because the action is so fast-moving there is usually not time for you to create spontaneously" (1977: 47).

Lesson-05

ERROR ANALYSIS: NATURE OF ERRORS AND MISTAKES

Outline:

- **Error Analysis: Nature of Errors and Mistakes**
  - Error Analysis
  - Contrast between Behavioristic and Mentalistic attitude to errors
  - What is Error Analysis?
  - Nature and purpose
  - Stages of errors analysis
  - Causes of errors
    - Inter-lingual errors
    - Intra-lingual errors
  - Overgeneralization

Topic-017: Error Analysis

What is an Error?

An error is a learner language form that deviates from, or violates, a target language rule. An error according to Corder, takes place when the deviation arises due to lack of knowledge. An error cannot be self-corrected.(Ellis,1994) In linguistics, according to J. Richard an error is the use of a word, a speech act and/ or grammatical items in such a way it seems imperfect and significant of an incomplete learning. According to James (1998:77) an error arises "only when there was no intention to commit one".

Errors are typically produced by learners who do not yet fully command some institutionalized language system; they arise due to the imperfect competence in the target language.

Mistakes and Errors

In order to analyze learner language in an appropriate perspective, it is crucial to make a distinction between mistakes and errors, technically two very different phenomena.

Mistake –refers to a performance error that is either a random guess or a "slip", in that is a failure to utilize a known system correctly. Native speakers make mistakes. When attention is called to them, they can be self-corrected.

Error –a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflects the competence of the learner

Topic-018: Contrast between Behavioristic and Mentalistic Attitude to Errors

Behaviorists' View: People learn language by responding to an external stimuli and receiving proper reinforcement. By this repetition, a proper habit is formed and language learning takes place. Therefore, errors were deemed as a sign of failure on the part of the learners as well as teachers.

Mentalists' View: The conviction is that error is inevitable. It is integral part of learning process and developing competence. It should not be regarded as a sign of failure but as an evidence that student is heading his way towards the correct rules.

Topic-019: What is Error Analysis?

Corder (1974) defines Error Analysis (EA) as what has come to be known as error analysis has to do with the investigation of the language of second language learners. Error analysis is linguistic analysis that focuses on the errors learners make by comparing between the errors made in the target language (TL) and that TL itself. The first step in Error Analysis (EA) requires the determination of elements in the sample of learner language which deviate from the TL in some way. EA is important as errors determine whether those errors are systematic, and (if possible) explain what caused them. EA is an important source of information to teachers:

- It provides information on students' errors
- Helps teachers to correct students' errors
- Improves the effectiveness of teachers, students and researchers (Michaelides, 1990, p. 30)
- Assess the remedial work necessary for English as a Second Language (ESL) students preparing for an English Language test and to help students avoid the most common errors.

EA in SLA was established in the 1960s by Stephen Pit Corder and his colleagues. Pit Corder (1967) 'Father' of Error Analysis through his article 'The significance of Learner Errors' that Error Analysis took a new turn. Error Analysis (EA) was an alternative to contrastive analysis, an approach influenced by behaviorism through which applied linguists sought to use the formal distinctions between the learners' first and second languages to predict errors. Error analysis showed that contrastive analysis was unable to predict a great majority of errors, although its more valuable aspects have been incorporated into the study of language transfer. A key finding of error analysis has been that many learner errors are produced by learners making faulty inferences about the rules of the new language.

Topic-020: Nature and Purpose of Error Analysis

The first step in Error Analysis (EA) requires the determination of elements in the sample of learner language which deviate from the TL in some way. For this purpose, distinction should be made between error and mistake. According to James (1998) an error arises "only when there

was no intention to commit one". Errors are systematic, consistent deviance which is characteristic of the learning produced by learner' linguistics system at given stage of learning. Errors are typically produced by learners who do not yet fully command some institutionalized language system; they arise due to the imperfect competence in the target language. Whereas, according to Fauziati (2009) the mistakes are deviations due to performance factors such as memory limitation, fatigue and emotional strain. They are typically irregular and can be readily corrected by the learners themselves when their attention is drawn to them.

Two Main Approaches:

There are two main approaches to study learner's errors.

1. Contrastive approach
2. Error analysis

The main difference between these two approaches is that the first one believes that native language interference is the major source of error in second language learning that behaviorist theory suggested. But, on the other hand Error analysis is related to pedagogical strategies to tackle the errors in second language learning. "Error analysis main concerns are organizing remedial courses and devising appropriate materials and teaching starategies based on the findings of theoretical error analysis" (Erdogan 2005)

Error analysis is consists of a comparison between the errors made in the target language and the target language itself. Error analysis is closely related to the study of error treatment in language teaching. Today, the study of errors is particularly relevant for focus on form teaching methodology.Error analysis is one of the major topics in the field of second language acquisition research. Errors are an integral part of language learning. The learners Errors have long been interested for second and foreign language researches. The basic task of error analysis is to describe how learning occurs by examining the learner's output and this includes his/her correct and incorrect utterances.

Aims of Error analysis:

The primary aims of error analysis were:

1. To identify types and patterns of errors
2. To establish error taxonomies
3. Common difficulties in second language acquisition are to be identified. —
4. On this basis, error analysis is supposed to contribute to a comprehensive knowledge and processes of second language acquisition.
5. In addition, results are to be used for the revision of theories of language learning and it also helps to evaluate and improve language teaching.

These were supposed to be used to describe interlanguage and its development, i.e., the learner's internal syllabus common difficulties in second language acquisition were to be identified. On this basis Error analysis was to supposed to contribute to a comprehensive knowledge about processes of second language acquisition always assuming with Chomsky that there is something like a language acquisition device.

Justifications of EA

Corder, (1981:112) suggests that there are two justifications for studying learners' errors:

- its relevance to language teaching.

- the study of the language acquisition process.

Objects of EA

According to Corder (1974) error analysis has two objects:

- The **theoretical** object deals with what and how a learner learns when he studies a second language.'
- The **applied** object enables the learner 'to learn more efficiently by manipulating knowledge of his vernacular for academic purposes'.

Why is EA Done?

Sercombe, (2000) explains that EA serves three purposes.

1. Firstly, to find out the level of language proficiency the learner has reached.
2. Secondly, to obtain information about common difficulties in language learning.
3. Thirdly, to find out how people learn a language.

Corder's Explanation of Error

Corder(1974) distinguishes between systematic and non-systematic errors: non-systematic errors occur in one's native language whereas, second language (L2) errors are systemic errors.

Topic-021: Stages of Error Analysis

According to Cordor (1974) there are five stages of error analysis, they are:

1. Collection of data
2. Identification of errors
3. Description of errors
4. Explanation of errors
5. Evaluation of errors

1. Collection of Data:

The first stage of error analysis is 'collection of data'. We have to collect the relevant data at this stage. Data may be written or spoken, general or specific. Researchers have identified three broad types of error analysis according to the size of the sample. These types are: massive, specific and incidental samples.

A **massive** sample involves collecting several samples of language use from a large number of learners in order to compile a comprehensive list of errors, representative of the entire population.

A **specific** sample consists of one sample of language use collected from a limited number of learners.

An **incidental** sample involves only one sample of language use produced by a single learner.

All of them are relevant in the corpus collection but the relative utility and proficiency of each varies in relation to the main goal. In other words, in this first step, the researcher has to be aware of his research, and the main objective of this stage is selecting a proper data collection system.

2. Identification of Errors:

After data collection it is identified. It means distinguishing errors. For this, errors are distinguished from mistakes in general.

An error is made when the deviation arises as a result of lack of knowledge while a mistake or slip occurs when learners fail to perform to their competence in the target language. Indeed, the identification of errors depends on four crucial questions.

The first question is to set up what target language should be used as the point of evaluation for the study.

The second is related to the differences between "errors" and "mistakes or slips". An error is made when the deviation arises as a result of lack of knowledge while a mistake or slip occurs when learners fail to perform to their competence in the target language. Normally, a mistake or slip is immediately corrected by the learner.

The third question is about interpretation. There are two kinds of interpretation: overt and covert. An overt error is easy to identify because there is a clear deviation in form (She selled her car). A covert error occurs in utterances that are syntactically and semantically well-formed but pragmatically odd. A covert error occurs in utterances that are superficially well-formed but which do not mean what the learner intended them to mean. For example, the utterance from (Corder, 1971 a):"It was stopped." is apparently grammatical until it becomes clear that "it" refers to "the wind".

The fourth question is focused on deviations. There are two kinds of deviation: correctness and appropriateness. Their difference is very simple: the first is a deviation of the rules of the language usage (I did ate with her) and the other is a deviation of the language use (she can to do whatever she wants).

3. Description of Errors:

The description of learner errors involves a comparison of the learner's idiosyncratic utterances with a reconstruction of those utterances in the target language. Trying to identify general ways in which the learners utterances differ from target-language utterances.

Once all the errors have been identified, they can be described. Ellis says, "One way is to classify errors into four grammatical categories:

1. **Omission** (leaving out an item that is required for correct grammatical constructions)

For example: He cooking

Ellis (1997, p. 23) points out that "classifying errors in these ways can help us to diagnose learners' learning problems at any stage of their development and to plot how changes in error patterns occur over time".

Common Types of Omissions

Erdogan (2005, p. 264) makes the aforementioned categories very clear by providing some common types of omissions:

- Morphological omission (Hand I the pliers.)
- Syntactical omission (I hungry.)

2. Addition (addition of unnecessary elements) Addition is defined as the presence of an item that should not appear in well-formed utterance. For Example:

She doesn't works at hospital.

3. Substitution (use of one element in the place of another or wrong form of morpheme)

4. Misinformation and Mis-ordering (incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance)

Misinformation is the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure.

For Example: The chair was maked by the carpenter.

Mis-ordering is regarded as the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance.
For Example: What is doing my mother?
Further, Corder distinguishes three types of errors according to their systematicity:
Pre-systematic errors occur when the learner is unaware of the existence of a particular rule in the target language. These are random.
Systematic errors occur when the learner has discovered a rule but it is the wrong one.
Post-systematic errors occur when the learner knows the correct target language rule but uses it inconsistently (i.e. makes a mistake).

4. Explanation of Errors:

Explanation is concerned with establishing the source of the error, i.e. accounting for why it was made. This stage is the most important for SLA research as it involves an attempt to establish the processes responsible for L2 acquisition. Taylor (1986), points out that, the error source may be psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, or may reside in the discourse structure.
Psycholinguistic sources concern the nature of the L2 knowledge system and the difficulties learners have in using it in production.
Sociolinguistic sources involve such matters as the learners' ability to adjust their language in accordance with the social context.
Discourse sources involve problems in the organization of information into a coherent 'text'.
Task of Tracing the Source of Error: While explaining the error we try to find out different sources of errors. The sources of errors can be:
'Inter-lingual' (i.e. due to L1 or L2 interference)

- Transfer Errors: L2 learners attempt to make use of their L1

'**Intra-lingual':** Sometimes errors can be committed because of overgeneralization of rules and inherent difficulties within the same language.

- Systematic Errors: L2 learners create rules on their own, different to the rules of the target language.
- Universal Errors: L2 learners commit the same grammatical errors.
- Overgeneralized Errors: L2 learners overgeneralize form that they find easy to learn and process.

The errors can be explained by referring to the faulty methods and techniques of teaching.
Because of difficulties with error analysis, some researchers (Krashen & Pon, 1975) have abandoned altogether the attempt to find sources of errors. Assuming, however, that analysis by source is still possible, it would be interesting to find out how adults perform as regards error production

5. Evaluation of Errors:

At this stage the teachers correct the errors. There are mainly two opposing views regarding the correction of errors. The first view holds that there is no need to correct the learners' errors. The teacher should correct only what is essential and make the students to correct the errors themselves. For this, just re-teaching of the items rather than correction endures the better acquisition and language use.

The evaluation of learner error poses a great number of problems. It is not clear what criteria judges have used when asked to assess the categories of an error. Indeed, error evaluation is influenced by the context in which the errors occurred. Various Techniques of Correcting Errors:

- Teacher correction techniques,

- Self-correction techniques and
- Pair correction techniques

Topic-022: Causes of Error Analysis

The following factors have been identified by various error analysis:

1) Mother Tongue Interface:

Learning a language is a matter of habit formation when someone tries to learn new habits .the old ones will interfere the new one. The cause of error is called first language interface.

2) Carelessness:

Carelessness is often closely related to lack of motivation .many teachers will admit that it is not always the student's fault if he loses interest perhaps the material do not suit them.

3) Translation:

Translation is one of the causes of error. This happens because a student translates his first language sentence into the target language word by word. This is the most common cause of error.

4) Loan words:

Student find easier to remember the spelling of the loan word rather than the spelling of original English words.

For Example: Every one who's taking part is given nombors (number).

It is a mistri (mystery).

5) Inherent difficulties of Target Language:

English is a rich complex language. In grammar we have preached and reached in simple past tense .

But we cannot say teached. The plural of tooth is teeth but for booth is not beeth.

Interlingual and Intralingual Errors:

One of the first and the most important studies conducted in the field of error analysis was done by Richerd (1974). Error analysis can be considered as a fundamental tool in language teaching in order to reorganize teachers' point of view and his methodology for full filling the students gaps. Richerd distinguishes two types of errors

1. Interlingual Errors

2. Intralingual Errors

Interlingual errors are caused by mother tongue interference.

Intralingual errors are occurred during the learning process of the second language at the stage when the learners have not really acquired the knowledge.

Interlingual errors are also subdivided into the following categories

Over generalization errors the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of other structures in the target language.

Example: He can sing

Correction: He sings

Ignorance of rule restrictions: the learner applies rules to context where they are not applicable.

Example: He made me to go rest through the extension of the pattern he asked me to go.

Incomplete application of rules: the learner fails to use a fully develop structure for example you like to sing? In place of do you like to sing?

False Hypothesis: The learners do not fully understand a distinction in target language for example the use of was as a marker of past tense.

Example: In one day it was happened.

Correction: One day it happened.

Topic-023: Overgenralization

In linguistics, *overgeneralization* is the application of a grammatical rule in cases where it doesn't apply. The term *overgeneralization* is most often used in connection with language acquisition by children. For example, a young child may say "foots" instead of "feet," overgeneralizing the morphological rule for making plural nouns.

Examples and Observations:

- "'If I *knowed* the last bug I *eated* would be the last bug I *eated*, I woulda *eated* it slower,' Phil said sadly."(Cathy East Dubowski, *Rugrats Go Wild*. Simon Spotlight, 2003)
- "I'm not scared of Dan, Mama, he was nice to me. He *gived* me drinks of water, and covered me up with his coat. and when he *goed* away, he said a prayer *at*me." (Anne Hassett, *The Sojourn*. Trafford, 2009)
- "Most of you have probably heard a child say a word that you would never say. For example, children acquiring English routinely produce verbs like *bringed* and *goed* or nouns like *mouses* and *foots*, and they certainly haven't learned these forms from the adults around them.

  So they aren't imitating adult speech, but they are figuring out grammatical rules, in this case the way to form past tense verbs and plural nouns. This process of figuring out a grammatical rule and applying it generally is called **overgeneralization**. They will later modify their natural rules of past tense and plural formation to accommodate the exceptions, including *brought, went, mice*, and *feet.*

Three Phases of Overgeneralization

Children **overgeneralize** in the early phases of acquisition, meaning that they apply the regular rules of grammar to irregular nouns and verbs. Overgeneralization leads to forms which we sometimes hear in the speech of young children such as *goed*, *eated*, *foots*, and *fishes*. This process is often described as consisting of three phases:

Phase 1: The child uses the correct past tense of *go*, for instance, but does not relate this past-tense *went* to present-tense *go*. Rather, *went* is treated as a separate lexical item. ***Phase 2:*** The child constructs a rule for forming the past tense and begins to overgeneralize this rule to irregular forms such as *go* (resulting in forms such as *goed*). ***Phase 3:*** The child learns that there are (many) exceptions to this rule and acquires the ability to apply this rule selectively.

Lesson-06

SYLLABUS DESIGNING

Outline:

- **Syllabus Designing**
  - Definition and scope of syllabus
  - Considerations common to all syllabuses
  - Dichotomies of Syllabuses
    - Analytical & Synthetic Syllabuses
    - Product vs. Process-oriented syllabuses
- Product-oriented Syllabuses
    - Grammatical syllabus
    - Notional functional syllabus
- Process-oriented Syllabuses
    - Procedural Syllabus
    - Process Syllabus
  - Language Syllabus
  - Types of Language Syllabus
      1. The Situational Syllabus
      2. The Functional-Notional Syllabus
      3. The Task-Based Syllabus
  - Needs analysis for syllabus designing

Topic-024: Definition and scope of syllabus

A clarification of terms: within the literature, there is some confusion over the terms 'syllabus' and 'curriculum'. The terms curriculum and syllabus are sometimes used interchangeably, sometimes differentiated, and sometimes misused and misunderstood.

What is a curriculum?

Curriculum refers to all those activities in which children engage under the auspices of the school. This includes not only what pupils learn, but how they learn it, how teachers help them learn, using what supporting materials, styles and methods of assessment, and in what kind of facilities. Curriculum is a theoretical document and refers to the programme of studies in an educational system or institution.

Curriculum deals with the abstract general goals of education which reflect the overall educational and cultural philosophy of a country, national and political trends as well as a theoretical orientation to language and language learning. A curriculum provides the overall rationale for educating students. It addresses the questions like:

- What is the purpose of educating students in this particular institution/ educational level?
- What kinds of knowledge should students be taught?
- What kinds of learning experiences do the students need to go through in order to acquire the knowledge and achieve our purposes?
- What kinds of teaching methods should be used to help students acquire the knowledge and achieve our purposes?
- How should these learning experiences be organised?
- How should we assess learners in order to see whether the purposes have been achieved?

By answering these questions, a curriculum provides information on:

- the goals of education,
- subjects to be taught,
- activities learners should be engaged in (how)
- methods and materials,
- allocation of time and resources and
- assessment of students and of the curriculum itself.

Curriculum vs. Syllabus

Candlin (1984) suggests that curricula are concerned with:

- Making general statements about language learning, learning purpose and experience.
- Evaluation and the role relationships of teachers and learners.

Syllabuses, on the other hand, are More localized, based on accounts and records of what actually happens at the classroom level as teachers and learners apply a given curriculum to their own situation.

What is a Syllabus?

A syllabus is a statement of content which is used as the basis for planning courses of various kinds, and that the task of the syllabus designer is to select and grade this content. Syllabuses are specifications of the content of language teaching which have been submitted to some degree of structuring or ordering with the aim of making teaching and learning a more effective process. At its simplest level a syllabus can be described as a statement of what is to be learnt.

Syllabus refers to the content or subject matter of an individual subject . It is a detailed and operational document which specifies the content of a particular subject. It is a kind of plan which translates the abstract goals of the curriculum into concrete learning objectives. While a curriculum is a theoretical, policy document, a syllabus is a guide for teachers and learners that indicates what is to be achieved through the process of teaching and learning.

Definitions of Syllabus

"A plan or what is to be achieved through our teaching and our student's learning."(Breen, 1984)

Function of a syllabus is "to specify what is to be taught and in what order." (Prabhu, 1984)

"A summary of the content to which learners will be exposed."(Yalden, 1987)

Defining Syllabus Design

To begin with, then, we shall define syllabus design, which is concerned with the 'what' of a language. Some language specialists believe that syllabus (the selection and grading of content) and methodology should be kept separate; others think otherwise.

Syllabuses should be defined solely in terms of the selection and grading of content, or whether they should also attempt to specify and grade learning tasks and activities.

Narrow view of syllabus design: a syllabus is only concerned with the specification of learning objectives and the selection and grading of content.

The **broader view** argues that a syllabus is not only concerned with the selection and grading of content but also with the selection of learning tasks and activities. In other words, syllabus design is also concerned with methodology.

Defining Syllabus Design

a. Specific Practical Aspects

(Particular examples, specific cases within the topic)

1. ***Description:*** Who, what, where? What persons, materials, equipment, items, settings?
2. ***Sequence:*** What happens? What happens next? What is the plot? What are the processes, procedures, or routines?
3. ***Choice:*** What are the choices, conflicts, alternatives, dilemmas, decisions

b. General Theoretical Aspects

(What are the general concepts, principles, and values in the topic material?)

1. ***Classification:*** What concepts apply? How are they related to each other?
2. ***Principles:*** What principles are there? (cause-effect, means-end, methods and techniques, rules, norms, strategies?)
3. ***Evaluation:*** What values and standards are appropriate? What counts as good or bad? *(Adapted from Mohan 1986: 36—7)*

Requirements of a syllabus

The course plan should provide an accessible framework of the knowledge and skills on which teachers and learners will work. It should:

- offer a sense of continuity and direction in the teacher's and learners' work.
- represent a retrospective account of what has been achieved.
- provide a basis on which learner progress may be evaluated.
- be sufficiently precise so that it may be assessed through implementation as being more or less appropriate for its purposes and users.

It is a document of administrative convenience and will only be partly justified on theoretical grounds, and so is negotiable and adjustable. It must harmonize the three contexts within which it is located:

- the wider language curriculum,

- the language classroom and the participants within it,

the educational and social reality that the course-plan is supposed to serve.

Scope of Syllabus Designing

Within the literature, there is some confusion over the terms 'syllabus' and 'curriculum'. It would, therefore, be as well to give some indication at the outset of what is meant here by syllabus, and also how syllabus design is related to curriculum development. In particular, there have been few attempts to apply, in any systematic fashion, principles of curriculum development to the planning, implementation, and evaluation of language programs.

Topic-025: Considerations Common to all Syllabuses

- Needs analysis
- Goals and objectives
- Content specification
- Learning tasks and activities
- Resources and materials
- Curriculum implementation
- Curriculum management
- Learner assessment
- Programme evaluation
- Teacher development

Topic-026: Dichotomies of Syllabus

A. Analytic and Synthetic Syllabus

B. Product-oriented and Process-oriented Syllabus

A. **Analytic and Synthetic Syllabus**

There are many different ways in which syllabus proposals of one sort or another might be analyzed. One dimension of analysis which has been the subject of a great deal of discussion and comment is the synthetic/analytic dimension.

1. Analytic Syllabus

Analytic syllabus is organized in terms of the purposes for which the learner is learning the language and the kind of performance that are necessary to meet these purposes. The starting point for syllabus design is not the grammatical system of the language but the communicative purpose for which language is used. The language and content are drawn from the input and are selected

and graded primarily according to what the learner's need to do the real world communicative task. In the task, linguistic knowledge that is built through the unit is applied to the solving of a communicative problem. The content in the analytic syllabus is defined in terms of situation, topics, items and other academic or school subjects.

2. Synthetic Syllabus

Synthetic syllabus is the one in which the different parts of language is taught separately and step by step in additive fashion. So, that the learner's acquisition face a process of gradual accumulation of parts until, the whole structure of the language has been built up. Grammatical criteria are used to break the language into discrete units. These items are graded according to their

(1) Grammatical contexts

(2) Fluency of occurrence

(3) Contrastive difficulty in relation to L1

(4) Situation need and

(5) Pedagogic convenience.

Some applied linguists assume that the synthetic syllabuses should not be restricted to only grammatical syllabus rather it can be applied to any syllabus whose content is product-oriented.

Distinction between the Synthetic and Analytic Syllabus

It was Wilkins (1976) who first drew attention to the distinction between synthetic and analytic syllabuses. He described the synthetic approach in the following terms:

- A synthetic language teaching strategy is one in which the different parts of language are taught separately and step by step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of parts until the whole structure of language has been built up.
- The distinction between the synthetic and analytic syllabus is that the former views that nature of learning is additive while later views that the nature of learning is holistic (having regard to the whole of something rather than just to parts of it.)

Analytic syllabuses	Synthetic syllabuses
Tasked-based	Structural
Procedural	Situational
Notional-functional [According to Wilkins (1976)]	Notional-functional [(According to Long & Crooks (1992))
Content-based	
Negotiated	

Analytic/Synthetic-oriented syllabi

B. **Product and Process Oriented Syllabus**

A **product-oriented syllabus** focuses on things learnt at the end of the learning process (outcomes) rather than the process itself. It can be compared with a **process-oriented syllabus**, which focuses on the processes of learning.

A **process-oriented syllabus** focuses on the skills and **processes** involved in learning language. It can be compared with a product-**oriented syllabus**, which focuses on completed acts of communication, the outputs.

Product-oriented Syllabus

As product-oriented syllabus focuses on the product therefore, many people have questioned the validity of separating syllabi into process- and product-oriented and argue that most syllabi are, and must be, a combination of processes and outcomes.

Example:
Grammatical and functional-notional are product-oriented as they focus on grammatical, functional and lexical outcomes.

In the Classroom

Learners working with a product-oriented syllabus can be supported with other approaches and techniques. For example, teachers can incorporate elements of learner training and development from learner-centered syllabi, or use activities from process-oriented syllabi such as task-based learning.

Grammatical Syllabus

Grammatical Syllabus is a synthetic syllabus and its contents are product-oriented. It is the most common syllabus type in which syllabus input is selected and graded according to grammatical notions of simplicity and complexity.

Criticism

The most rigid grammatical syllabus introduces one item at a time to the learners and requires mastery of that item before moving on to the next. The transmission from lesson to lesson is intended to enable material in one lesson to prepare the ground for the next and conversely for material in the next to appear to grow out of the previous one.One difficulty the grammatical designers pointed out that, it is difficult to isolate and present one discrete item at a time, particularly if one wants to provide some sort of context for the language.

The Notional-Functional Syllabus

It is the best known of contemporary language teaching syllabus types. A **notional-functional syllabus** is an approach where the organization of the material is determined with notions or ideas that learners expect to be able to express through the target language and the functions acts learners expect to be able to accomplish.

Notional-functional Approach

The **notional-functional approach** in ESL is a way of structuring a **syllabus** around "notions," real-life situations in which people communicate, which are further broken down into "functions," specific aims of communication. It is important to note that notional/functionalism was initially associated with a cognitive type of learning theory that called for explicit presentation of language material, conscious recognition, and practice. More recently, it has begun to incorporate experiential learning theory, similar to Krashen's acquisition theory, and to use techniques such as creating information gaps and problem-solving tasks as classroom activities (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

Process Oriented Syllabus

A process oriented syllabus focuses on the skills and processes involved in learning language. It focuses on the processes of learning. Process-oriented syllabuses are developed as a result of a sense of failure in product-oriented syllabuses to enhance communicative language skills.

Example: **Process syllabus and procedural syllabus** are examples of process oriented syllabus.

Process Syllabus

Rather focusing on the features of the products of writing, such as letters, compositions, notes, reports etc, a process-writing syllabus would focus on the processes writers use to complete

their tasks, such as: collecting information, —organizing ideas, drafting and revising. Learners working with a product-oriented syllabus can be supported with other approaches and techniques. **For Example**: Teachers can incorporate elements of learner training and development from learner-centered syllabi or use activities from process-oriented syllabi such as task-based learning.

Working on the language processes (writing, speaking) is hard work for learners. It involves thinking, organizing and planning. If time is well-invested in skills that will enable the learner to become an autonomous writer, speaker.

Product-oriented Evaluation

Product-oriented evaluation seeks to assess performance through a finalized product that should meet specific requirements. The teacher may or may not choose to engage in the process that will bring about the final product, because that is not what is being considered. Rather than through interaction, the product-oriented evaluation is often accompanied by a rubric that the student evaluates himself to see if the expectations of the final product are being met. It is a summative, and not a formative type of evaluation that could work as a short-term solution, for specific projects.

An example of a product-oriented evaluation is, for instance, a writing homework due the next day that must include certain things to achieve a good score.

Process-oriented Evaluation

Process-oriented evaluations are based on observing the development of the learning processes as they occur in the student throughout the lesson. It is a step-by-step interaction where there is input and output at all times between the teacher and the student. During a process-oriented evaluation the student is allowed to make mistakes, as they constitute an important part of the entire exercise.

An example of a process-oriented evaluation is the teaching of writing. Time and patience are worth the investment in this type of evaluation because the teacher can really see how much the student is actually learning.

Difference between the Two Approaches

The **product approach** focuses on writing tasks in which the learner imitates, copies and transforms teacher supplied models, the **process approach** focuses on the steps involved in creating a piece of work. The primary goal of **product** writing is an error-free coherent text.

Comparison

Product Oriented Syllabus

- Focus is on knowledge and skills.

- Skills that learnt at the end of learning session
- Focuses on completed acts of communication (outputs)
- Emphasis on the output

Process oriented Syllabus

- Focuses on the process of learning
- Skills that involved in language learning process
- Emphasis is on the process
- Series of action is important

Product oriented	Process oriented
—Functional-notional syllabus I. Function: communicative purpose for which we use language. II. Notion: conceptual meanings expressed through language.(objects, entities, logical relationships, etc.) III. In this syllabus language contents is arranged according to learners communicational needs. IV. It sets realistic learning tasks V. It provides for the teaching of real world language VI. It provides for the widespread promotion of foreign language courses	—Content based syllabus: I. An approach to language teaching in which the focus is on the development of language through classroom activities II. Designed to promote cognitive skills III. Involves the integration of subject matter(what to talk about) and linguistic matter (how to talk about) IV. Theme based teaching V. Language class activities are specific to the subject matter being taught VI. Teaching elements/course is structured around certain themes VII. Such as: Cooperative learning, task base/experiential learning, project work, whole language approach

Procedural Syllabus

The syllabus type designed by Prabhu and his colleagues is called the procedural syllabus, which consisted of a set of pedagogic tasks. The structure can be best learned when attention is concentrated on meaning. In this type of syllabus design the focus is on the learner. Tasks and activities are designed but not the linguistic content. Learner focuses on trying to solve the meaning behind the text. The procedural syllabus is often confused with the task syllabus, another recent development in language teaching.

Despite some differences in practice, the principles underlying procedural and task-based syllabuses are very similar. In fact, they are seen as synonymous by Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985), who describe them both as follows:

. . . a syllabus which is organised around tasks, rather than in terms of grammar or vocabulary. For example the syllabus may suggest a variety of different kinds of tasks which the learners are expected to carry out in the language, such as using the telephone to obtain information; drawing maps based on oral instructions; performing actions based on commands given in the target language; giving orders and instructions to others, etc.

Topic-027: Language Syllabus

Components of Language Syllabus

Van Ek lists the following as necessary components of a language syllabus:

1. The situations in which the foreign language will be used, including the topics which will be dealt with.
2. The language activities in which the learner will engage.
3. The language functions which the learner will fulfil.
4. What the learner will be able to do with respect to each topic.
5. The general notions which the learner will be able to handle.
6. The specific (topic-related) notions which the learner will be able to handle.
7. The language forms which the learner will be able to use
8. The degree of skill with which the learner will be able to perform.

Topic-028: Types of Language syllabus

Until recently, one syllabus type, i.e. structural or grammatical syllabus has dominated in language teaching. This type of syllabus reflects a synthetic approach to language teaching and learning (Yalden, 1987:21). The synthetic approach to syllabus design is one in which the different language items are taught step-by-step. However, in the synthetic approach to syllabus, meaning (other than lexical meaning) didn't play a very important role in language. This shortcoming paved the way for a new approach to syllabus design- the analytic approach.

According to Yalden (1987:28), "within such an approach a semantic, meaning-based syllabus is produced which leads (again via various pedagogical strategies) to a somewhat wider goal: that of communicative competence". This type of syllabus is then also known as the "semantic syllabus" (Yalden, 1987:33).

From the analytic approach, an approach evolved which had the "goal of communication and interaction from the first day of study - at whatever age or learning level" (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983:1 0). This new approach is called the Communicative Approach. Many teaching syllabi and methods have been based on the Communicative Approach. According to Richards and Rodgers (1994:66), syllabi and teaching methods based on the Communicative Approach aims to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. According to Richards and Rodgers (1994:68), the focus of these syllabi would

be on "communicative and contextual factors in language use". Such a syllabus would be "learner-centred and experience-based" (Richards & Rodgers, 1994:69).

All of these syllabi will start "from a communicative model of language and language use" and will seek to "translate this into a design for an instructional system, for materials, for teacher and learner roles and behaviors, and for classroom activities and techniques" (Richards & Rodgers, 1994:69). The following three types (dichotomies0 of syllabi based on the Communicative Approach will be discussed:

1. The Situational Syllabus

2. The Functional-Notional Syllabus

3. The Task-Based Syllabus

1. The Situational Syllabus

The situational syllabus is closely related to the topical syllabus. According to Yalden (1987:35), the situational model will comprise units indicating specific situations, such as 'At the Post Office', 'Buying an Airline Ticket', or 'The Job Interview'. The topical or thematic syllabus is similar, but generally employs the procedure of grouping modules or lessons around a topic, something like barnacles clinging to the hull of a ship.

In this approach, the use of dialogues is very common as these form the basis of communication within a specific situation. However, the use of dialogues in the situational syllabus is quite different from the use of dialogues in a structural syllabus such as the Audio-lingual Method. Yalden (198 7:3 6) describes examples of situational syllabi in which students are initially presented with a "problem situation" or "illustrative situation". The dialogues used in the situational syllabus, don't have language structures as their main focus, but rather their communicative effectiveness within a given situation.

Benefits

The benefits of a situational context are as follows:

1. It provides for concrete contexts within which to learn notions, functions, and structures, thus making it easier for most learners to envisage.
2. It may motivate learners to see that they are learning to meet their most pressing everyday communication needs.

Criticism

Yalden (198 7:36) describes examples of situational syllabi in which students are initially presented with a "problem situation" or "illustrative situation". This "problem situation" is then followed by drills and inventions and then by "practice situations". It is thus evident that the

different situations created in Situational Syllabi determine the language structures to be learnt which is, however, a drawback in situational language syllabi. While the aim of the Situational Syllabus is communicative competence, the nature of its contents will not necessarily lead to total communicative competence. This shortcoming led to the development of the Functional-Notional syllabus.

2. The Functional-notional Syllabus

It is the best known of contemporary language teaching syllabus types. When dealing with this type of syllabus, it is important to first clarify the definitions of the terms used in the name. The term '**function'** refers to the communicative purpose of the speaker. These functions can be personal, interpersonal, directive, referential or imaginative and they can either be expressed through fixed formulae in the language or communicative expressions (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983 :28). Thus, the functions to be expressed depend solely on the speaker.

'Notions' can be defined as the words following the functional expression. "Notions" are thus "meaning elements which my be expressed through nouns, pronouns, verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, adjectives, or adverbs"(Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983:14). Thus, notions will depend basically on three factors: the functions, the elements in the situation and the topic which is being discussed (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983 : 15).

The researchers also make use of another term **"exponents"** in order to indicate the relationship between the above-mentioned elements: exponents are the language utterances or statements which stem from the function, the situation, and the topic. They are the language forms a speaker uses to express (to complete or realize) a message; to indicate an awareness of elements in the situation (social roles, for example, which will influence the formality or informality of the conversation); and to "keep to" the topic when it is important to do so, as in an interview. The syllabus is based on functional-notional approach that has been explained above under the head of product-oriented syllabuses.

3. **Task-based Syllabuses**

A task-based syllabus is based on task-based learning, an approach where learners carry out tasks such as solving a problem or planning an activity. The language learnt comes out of the linguistic demands of the activity. A task-based syllabus is structured around a series of these tasks.

Task-based syllabuses are constructed with varieties of tasks as the basic blocks, focusing on using the target language in real world rather than drilling on the isolate grammatical items. In making practical decisions about task-based syllabus design, one must consider all the possible factors that might affect the teachability of the syllabus. Adjusting the choice and integrating the different types according to learners' needs.

According to Skehan (1998:268), a **task** is an activity that should adhere to the following criteria:

- Meaning is primary.
- There is a goal which needs to be worked towards.
- The activity is outcome-evaluated.
- There is a real-world relationship.

In this type of syllabus, activities are not chosen in order to teach a specific lexical form, but that meaning is far more important. Further, activities focused on language itself are not tasks, as they need to have a real-world relationship. According to Skehan (1998:268), "What counts, in task-based approaches, is the way meaning is brought into prominence by the emphasis on goals and activities".

Skehan (1996:39) distinguishes between two forms of the task-based approach:

The **strong form** of task-based syllabus regards the task as the unit of instruction. This means that everything else that forms part of instruction are secondary.

On the other hand, in the **weak form** "tasks are a vital part of language instruction, but that they are embedded in a more complex pedagogic context". This means that tasks form an equal part with other teaching components in the whole process of focused instruction. In its weak form, then (as in the case of a functional-notional syllabus), the task based syllabus allows the teacher to adopt an eclectic approach.

The task-based syllabus can also be divided into two categories, determined by the person or people who choose the task. In a procedural task-based syllabus, the teacher or syllabus designer is the decision-maker. When, however, the students choose the tasks as well as the way in which they approach these tasks, a process task-based syllabus is referred to (Skehan, 1998:269).

The **drawback** of task -based syllabi seems to be the same as that of the situational syllabi, namely that "processing language to extract meaning does not guarantee automatic sensitivity to form" (Skehan, 1996:41). Further, there are many ways to implement the task based syllabus in the classroom. It would be very difficult within the context of a process task based syllabus where the students choose the activities and the way in which they are going to approach the tasks. However, in the case of a procedural task-based syllabus, the teacher has some control over the choice of activities and should therefore aim for communicative competence with the focus on meaning, and a sensitivity for the form of the language.

Difference between Procedural and Task based Syllabus

The procedural syllabus seems to be more suitable to learners in English as a second language (ESL) context where learners have ample opportunity to be exposed to English outside

the classroom. The goal of instruction is also another determining factor. The procedural syllabus with little emphasis on systematic error correction and focus on form seems to be more suitable for those who want to learn English for survival purposes, while the task-based syllabus seems more ideal for those who wish to pursue academic goals.

Finally, it seems that the procedural syllabus works better with elementary and pre-intermediate students, while the task-based syllabus is more compatible with intermediate students and above. This is mostly because beginning students need a course in which they can freely communicate removed from any form issues, while more advanced students need courses where there is a degree of focus on form through which they can produce accurate language.

There was relatively little information on this project, but this has changed with the publication of Prabhu's *Second Language Pedagogy*. Prabhu provides the following three task 'types' which are as follows:

1. *Information-gap activity*, which involves a transfer of given information from one person to another — or from one form or another, or from one place to another — generally calling for the decoding or encoding of information from or into language.

2. *Reasoning-gap activity*, which involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns.

3. *Opinion-gap activity*, which involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude in response to a given situation.

Criteria for Judging the Worth of Tasks

Candlin offers the following criteria for judging the worth of tasks. Good tasks, he suggests, should:

- Promote attention to meaning, purpose, negotiation
- Encourage attention to relevant data
- Draw objectives from the communicative needs of learners
- Allow for flexible approaches to the task, offering different routes, media, modes of participation, procedures
- Allow for different solutions depending on the skills and strategies drawn on by learners

A similar, though more comprehensive set of elements, is proposed by Shavelson and Stern (1981) who suggest that in planning instructional tasks, teachers need to consider:

- The subject matter to be taught
- Materials, i.e. those things the learner will observe/manipulate

- The activities the teacher and learners will be carrying out
- The goals for the task
- The abilities, needs and interests of the students
- The social and cultural context of instruction

Syllabus Design: Needs Analysis

Needs analysis is directed mainly at the goals and content of a course. It examines what the learners know already and what they need to know. Needs analysis makes sure that the course will contain relevant and useful things to learn. Good needs analysis involves asking the right questions and finding the answers in the most effective way.

The first step of every syllabus design should be needs analysis, i.e. a set of techniques and procedures used for obtaining information about the learners and situations and purposes for which they want to learn the language. Actually, it was not until the early 1980s that needs analysis became a recognised stage in the process of syllabus design. First restricted to ESP courses only, its use later gradually extended to cover general courses as well. Today the overwhelming majority of language courses is based on needs analysis.

Need Analysis: Steps Involved

1. Deciding the purpose of a need analysis
2. The users of need analysis
3. The target population
4. Procedures for conducting needs analysis
5. Procedures for collecting information

Topic-029: Needs Analysis as the First Step in Syllabus Design

'What is good for everything is good for nothing.' This is one of the maxims each of us ought to bear in mind, and it is applicable to all spheres of life, not excluding language pedagogy. Any foreign language program follows certain guidelines, be they the general curriculum of a state school, the language philosophy of a language teaching institution, or even the outline of private tuition for a single student. The guidelines should not, however, be formulated in an ad hoc and haphazard manner, resulting from the school's vague preferences, the instructor's favorite teaching techniques and activities, his/her methodological ignorance, or the uncritical following of the current vogue. Conversely, every language course (any course, in fact), be it general or restricted, ought to be consciously designed taking three points into consideration:

- who we teach
- how to teach and, most importantly
- what to teach.

Going for the first textbook available, even when it has been widely recommended and highly appraised, may soon result in a pedagogical failure if the course book has been intended for a different age and occupation group (not to mention the language proficiency level) than our students, is based on a different language philosophy and theoretical framework and its teaching objectives and goals are divergent from ours. A notional-functional foreign language syllabus intended for secondary-school students cannot be deemed suitable for an executive demanding an intensive course in Business English or Wirtschaftdeutsch.

The first step of every syllabus design should therefore be needs analysis, i.e. a set of techniques and procedures used for obtaining information about the learners and situations and purposes for which they want to learn the language. Actually, it was not until the early 1980s that needs analysis became a recognised stage in the process of syllabus design. First restricted to ESP courses only, its use later gradually extended to cover general courses as well. Today the overwhelming majority of language courses is based on needs analysis.

Needs assessment requires the specific examining of both **(a) the present situation and (b) the target situation**. The former includes finding out the prospective or current learner's:

- social background (pair- or group work with students of a higher social status may be considered intimidating by some learners)
- educational background
- age and occupation
- former experience of and the present proficiency in the foreign language, but even more importantly the deficiencies and knowledge gaps between the target proficiency and the current proficiency of the learner
- preferred learning activities, methods, styles, and strategies
- availability (time constraints)
- aptitude for learning
- motivation.

The latter includes the learner's:

- immediate communicative needs
- learning goals; these may be considered on up to three levels which, if divergent or conflicting, should be successfully reconciled:
    - learner's wants and preferences (what the learner thinks s/he needs)
    - the expectations of the user institution (the university, employing company, etc.)
    - the general curriculum of the teaching institution (state/language school, university, etc.); this may also call for the need for a broader educational context analysis: the place of the FL in the school syllabus (in the case of state education), the duration and intensity of the course, the final exams (if present), classroom size, the resources available, etc.
- the expected standard of performance and linguistic correctness.

Needs Analysis: Data Collection

When going about the data collection, the following methods are usually used:

- questioning the learner himself/herself directly (by means of an oral interview or a written questionnaire); one must remember at this point, however, that an interview is highly subjective in the sense that the needs declared by the learners may be
- incongruous with the expectations of the future user institutions; moreover, many learners (young learners and teenagers in particular) lack clearly specified needs;
- consulting the learner's employer and colleagues;
- collecting and analysing data such as bulletins or manuals that the learners will have to read;
- investigation and observation of the situations in which the language will be used;
- discussion with teachers who have experience in handling similar courses;
- in order to assess the learner's current command of the language the teacher may also administer a placement test, interview the learner, or confine himself/herself to a review of the textbooks covered by the learner so far.

The data collected in this way will serve as the cornerstone, the starting point of designing a syllabus framework: formulating the goals of the course, determining its duration, intensity, and the teaching method (philosophy) applied (structural/situational/notional-functional/skills-based/combined), specifying the course objectives (defining the range of language tasks which the course graduates should be able to perform as a result of instruction) and standards of performance, and the selection, sequencing, and gradation of course content (i.e. situations/topics/themes/skills/functions/notions/language forms/tasks, etc.). This will eventually lead to the choice (or self-design) of suitable materials.

With this initial stage, which helps ensure that the course will be appropriate, effective, practical, and realistic, a course stands a good chance of being a success. The rest largely lies with the teacher.

Needs Analysis: Conclusion

Needs analysis is directed mainly at the goals and content of a course. It examines what the learners know already and what they need to know. Needs analysis makes sure that the course will contain relevant and useful things to learn. Good needs analysis involves asking the right questions and finding the answers in the most effective way.

Lesson-07

LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT: TESTING AND EVALUATION

Outline:

- **Language Assessment: Testing and Evaluation**
  - What is Testing and Evaluation?
  - Kinds of Tests
    - Proficiency test
    - Achievement tests
    - Diagnostics tests
    - Placement tests
    - Direct Vs. Indirect tests
    - Discreet Point Vs. Criterion referenced Testing
    - Objective Vs. Subjective testing
    - Communicative language testing
  - Characteristics of a good test
  - Testing Communication Skills
    - Reading tests
    - Writing tests
    - Speaking tests
    - Listening tests
  - Testing language sub-skills
    - Vocabulary tests
    - Grammar tests
    - Pronunciation tests
  - Using Web for Language Testing

Topic-030: What is Testing and Evaluation?

Tests are any instruments of evaluation which measure ability, knowledge or performance by eliciting observable behavior from the test taker (Richards, 1999; Allan, 1995; Genesee & Apshur, 1996) as they try to make accurate predictions about small samples of performance in a complex structure like language (Allan, 1995).

In language context, a test is designed to measure and evaluate students' language proficiency according to different qualities (Hughes, 2003). Bachman and Palmer (1996) mention

the benefits of tests by stating that a test is useful when it has authenticity, interactiveness and practicality in addition to measurement qualities which are reliability and validity.

Difference between Testing and Evaluation

Education professionals make distinctions between evaluation and testing. However, all you really need to understand is that these are two different terms for referring to the process of figuring out how much you know about a given topic and that each term has a different meaning.

Testing is used to examine someone's knowledge of something to determine what he or she knows or has learned. Testing measures the level of skill or knowledge that has been reached.

Evaluation is the process of making judgments based on criteria and evidence.

Reliability: An important aspect of test is being reliable. Reliability is defined as the extent to which a questionnaire, test, observation or any measurement tool produces the same results on repeated trials. In short, it is the stability or consistency of scores over time or across raters.

Three Aspects of Reliability: The degree to which an individual‘s responses (i.e., their scores) on a survey would stay the same over time is also a sign of reliability. There are three aspects of reliability, namely:

1. Equivalence
2. Stability and
3. Internal consistency (Miller, 2005).

Validity: Validity is also an important term related to tests and it is defined as the extent to which the instrument measures what it purports to measure. For example, in a test that is used to test students' listening ability, grammar should not be scored to preserve validity.

Types of Validity: There are many different types of validity:

1. Content validity
2. Face validity
3. Criterion-related validity(or predictive validity) construct validity
4. Factorial validity
5. Concurrent validity
6. Convergent validity and
7. Divergent validity (Hughes, 2003; Bachman, 2011)

Validity Criteria: to Review an EFL Exam

According to Fowler (2002), there are six guidelines to review the EFL exam for content validity criteria:

(1) Clarity in wording
(2) Relevance of the items
(3) Use of Standard English
(4) Absence of biased words and phrases
(5) Formatting of items

(6) Clarity of the instructions

It should be kept in mind that reliability is necessary but not sufficient for validity. That is, for something to be valid it must be reliable but it must also measure what it is intended to measure (Miller, 2005).

Topic-031: Kinds of Tests

1. Proficiency test
2. Achievement tests
3. Diagnostics tests
4. Placement tests
5. Direct Vs. Indirect tests
6. Discreet Point Vs. Criterion referenced Testing
7. Objective Vs. Subjective testing
8. Communicative language testing

1. Proficiency Testing

Proficient means having sufficient command of the language for a particular purpose. Proficiency testing determines the performance of individual laboratories for specific tests or measurements and is used to monitor laboratories' continuing performance. Proficiency testing is also called inter laboratory comparison. The content of a proficiency test is based on a specification of what candidates have to be able to do in the language in order to be considered proficient. There are other proficiency tests which do not have an occupation or course of study in mind.

For instance, Cambridge examinations and the Oxford EFL examinations, the function of these tests is to show whether candidates have reached a certain standard with respect to certain specified abilities. Though there is no particular purpose in mind for the language, these general proficiency tests should have detailed specifications saying just what it is that successful candidates will have demonstrated that they can do. All users of a test can then judge whether the test is suitable for them, and can interpret test results.

2. Achievement Test

An achievement test is a test of developed skill or knowledge. The most common type of achievement test is a standardized test developed to measure skills and knowledge learned in a given grade level, usually through planned instruction, such as training or classroom instruction.

Achievement tests are directly related to language courses, their purpose being to establish how successful individual students, groups of students, or the courses themselves have been in achieving objectives.

Kinds of Achievement Tests

There are two kinds of achievement tests:

- Final achievement test
- Progress achievement test

a. Final Achievement Tests

Final achievement tests are those administered at the end of a course of study. They may be written and administered by ministries of education, official examining boards, or by members of teaching institutions. The content of these tests must be related to the courses with which they are concerned, and should be based directly on a detailed course syllabus or on the books and other materials used.

b. Progress Achievement Tests

Progress achievement tests are intended to measure the progress that students are making. Since progress is towards the achievement of course objectives, these tests too should relate to objectives. One way of measuring progress would be repeatedly to administer final achievement tests, the increasing scores indicating the progress made.

3. Diagnostic Test

A diagnostic test is a test given at the beginning of a course which aims to discover exactly what the learners know or don't know already and where their strengths and weaknesses lie. Diagnostic tests are used:

- To identify students' strengths and weaknesses.
- They are intended primarily to ascertain what further teaching is necessary.

By this, teachers can be fairly confident of their ability to create tests that will tell them that a student is particularly weak in a certain subject.

4. Placement Tests

A placement test is a test used to determine which course a learner should attend. It would be used in a private language school to assign newly-arrived learners to a class at an appropriate level. Placement tests are intended to provide information which will help to place students at the stage of the teaching program most appropriate to their abilities. Typically they are used to assign students to classes at different levels. The placement tests which are most successful are those constructed for particular situations. They depend on the identification of the key features at different levels of teaching in the institution.

Four Constructions of Placement Tests

In addition, there are four test constructions:

- Direct versus indirect testing
- Discrete point versus integrative testing

- Norm-referenced versus criterion- referenced testing
- Objective versus subjective testing

a. Direct Testing

Testing is said to be direct when it requires the candidate to perform precisely the skill which we wish to measure. For example, if we want to know how well candidates can write compositions, we get them to write compositions. Direct testing is easier to carry out when it is intended to measure the productive skills.

Direct testing has a number of attractions:

- Provided that we are clear about just what abilities we want to assess
- In the case of productive skills, the assessment and interpretation of students' performance is also quite straightforward.
- Since practice for the test involves practice of the skills that we wish to foster, there is likely to be a helpful backwash effect.

b. Indirect Testing

Indirect testing attempts to measure the abilities which underlie the skills in which we are interested. The main appeal of indirect testing is that it seems to offer the possibility of testing a representative sample of a finite number of abilities which underlie a potentially indefinitely large number of manifestations of them.

The main problem with indirect tests is that the relationship between performance on them and performance of the skills in which we are usually more interested tends to be rather weak in strength and uncertain in nature. Example: Grammatical knowledge contributes to writing ability, then a grammar test may be used as an indirect test of writing.

c. Norm-referenced Test

Norm-referenced test is a test which is designed to give information about how the student performed on the test. It relates one candidate's performance to that of other candidates. We are not told directly what the student is capable of doing in the language.

d. Criterion-Referenced Test

Criterion-referenced test is a test which is designed to provide information about what the candidate can actually do in the language directly. The purpose of criterion-referenced tests is to classify people according to whether or not they are able to perform some task or set of tasks satisfactorily.

Criterion-referenced assessment compares students not against each other, but with success in performing a task. The results of a criterion-referenced test can be expressed by continuing the sentence "he/she is able to….." where the ability may refer to some small **or** larger integrative language task.

Criterion-referenced tests have two positive virtues:

- They set standards meaningful in terms of what people can do, which do not change with different groups of candidates.
- They motivate students to attain those standards.

e. Discrete Point Testing

Discrete point testing refers to the testing of one element at a time, item by item. This might involve, for example, a series of items each testing a particular grammatical structure. Discrete point tests will almost always be indirect.

f. Integrative Testing

Integrative testing requires the candidate to combine many language elements in the completion of a task. This might involve writing a composition, making notes while listening to a lecture, taking a dictation, or completing a cloze passage. Discrete point tests will almost always be indirect, while integrative tests will tend to be direct.

g. Objective & Subjective Testing

An **objective test** is a test that has right or wrong answers and so can be marked objectively. It can be compared with a subjective test.

A **subjective test** is evaluated by giving an opinion. It can be compared with an objective test, which has right or wrong answers and so can be marked objectively**.**

Objective vs. Subjective Testing

The distinction here is between methods of scoring, and nothing else. If no judgment is required on the part of the scorer, then the scoring is objective. Example is a multiple choice test, with the correct responses unambiguously identified, would be a case in point.

If judgment is called for, the scoring is said to be subjective. For example, the scoring of a composition is the type of subjective testing. In general, the less subjective the scoring, the greater agreement there will be between two different scorers.

Subjective tests are more challenging and expensive to prepare, administer and evaluate correctly, but they can be more valid.

5. Communicative Language Testing

Communicative language testing is intended to provide the teacher with information about the learners' ability to perform in the target language in certain context-specific tasks. It has to be recognized that given the constrains of time and practicality, only a small sample of the tester-test-takers' language can be collected. However realistic the tasks may be intended to be, the students' performance will inevitably reflect the fact the s/he was performing under tests condition.

Topic-032: Characteristics of a Good Test

- Objectivity

- Basedness
- Comprehensiveness
- Validity
- Reliability
- Comparability
- Practicability
- Simplicity
- Scorability

Objectivity

Objectivity represents the agreement of two or more raters or a test administrator concerning the score of a student. Not influenced by emotion or personal prejudice. Objectivity means that if the test is marked by different people, the score will be the same. In other words, marking process should not be affected by the marking person's personality.

A test is said to be objective if it is free from personal biases in interpreting its scope as well as in scoring the responses. Objectivity of a test can be increased by using more objective type test items and the answers are scored according to model answers provided. Lack of objectivity reduces test validity in the same way that lack reliability influence validity.

Objective Basedness

The test should be based on pre-determined objectives. The test setter should have definite idea about the objective behind each item.

Comprehensiveness

A test is said to have comprehensiveness if it encompasses all aspects of a particular subject of study. The test should cover the whole syllabus. A good test should include items from different areas of material assigned for the test. e.g. (dialogue - composition - comprehension - grammar - vocabulary - orthography - dictation - handwriting). Due importance should be given all the relevant learning materials. Test should be cover all the anticipated objectives.

Validity

A test is said to be valid if it measures what it intends to measure and nothing else. Validity is a more test-dependent concept but reliability is a purely statistical parameter.

Four Types of Validity

- Operational Validity
- Predictive Validity
- Content Validity
- Construct Validity

a. Operational Validity

A test will have operational validity if the tasks required by the test are sufficient to evaluate the definite activities or qualities.

b. Predictive Validity

A test has predictive validity if scores on it predict future performance.

c. Content Validity

If the items in the test constitute a representative sample of the total course content to be tested, the test can be said to have content validity.

d. Construct Validity

Construct validity involves explaining the test scores psychologically. A test is interpreted in terms of numerous research findings.

Reliability

Reliability of a test refers to the degree of consistency with which it measures what it indented to measure. A test is considered reliable if it is taken again by the same students under the same circumstances and the score average is almost the constant, taking into consideration that the time between the test and the retest is of reasonable length.

A test may be reliable but need not be valid. This is because it may yield consistent scores, but these scores need not be representing what exactly we want to measure. A test with high validity has to be reliable also. (the scores will be consistent in both cases). Valid test is also a reliable test, but a reliable test may not be a valid one.

Factors Influencing Reliability: To have a reliability estimate, one or two sets of scores should be obtained from the same group of testees. Thus, two factors contribute to test reliability:

- The testee and
- The test itself

Different Method for Determining Reliability

a. Test-retest Method:

A test is administrated to the same group with short interval. The scores are tabulated and correlation is calculated. The higher the correlation, the more the reliability will be.

b. Split-half Method

The scores of the odd and even items are taken and the correlation between the two sets of scores determined.

c. Parallel form Method

Reliability is determined using two equivalent forms of the same test content. These prepared tests are administrated to the same group one after the other. The test forms should be identical with respect to the number of items, content, difficult level. The correlation between the two sets of

scores is obtained by the group in the two tests. If higher the correlation, the more the reliability will be.

d. Discriminating Power

Discriminating power of the test is its power to discriminate between the upper and lower groups who took the test. The test should contain different difficulty level of questions.

Practicability

Practicality refers to the ease of administration and scoring of a test. Practicability of the test depends up on:

1. Administrative ease
2. Scoring ease
3. Interpretative ease
4. Economy

Comparability

A test possesses comparability when scores resulting from its use can be interpreted in terms of a common base that has a natural or accepted meaning. There are two methods for establishing comparability:

– Availability of equivalent (parallel) form of test
– Availability of adequate norms

Simplicity

A test is said to be simple if it is easy to understand along with the instructions and other details. Simplicity means that the test should be written in a clear, correct and simple language, it is important to keep the method of testing as simple as possible while still testing the skill you intend to test. (Avoid ambiguous questions and ambiguous instructions).

Scorability

Scorability means that the test should be easy to score, directions for scoring is clear, provide the answer sheet and the answer key. Scorability also means that each item in the test has its own mark related to the distribution of marks given by The Ministry of Education.

Topic-033: Testing Communication Skills

The testing of communication skills involve the:

1. Reading tests
2. Writing tests
3. Speaking tests
4. Listening tests

1. Reading Test

Texts for reading tests should be authentic and tests must be taken from books, journals, magazines and newspapers. Reading tests involves the students' ability to process text, understand its meaning, and to integrate with what the reader already knows.

1. Writing Test

The written test is a comprehensive exam that assesses the examinee's knowledge of basic concepts based on criterion-referenced testing. Examinees will be measured against the skill and knowledge represented by each test item.

2. Speaking Test

A speaking or oral test is defined as a test in which a person is encouraged to speak, and then assessed on the basis of that speech. The examiner will mark the speaking test of English language on the basis of four things:

a. Fluency and coherence
b. Lexical resource
c. Grammatical range and accuracy
d. Pronunciation

3. Listening Tests

Testing listening involves a variety of skills. At the lowest level, it involves discrimination among sounds, discrimination among intonation and stress patterns, and comprehension of short and long listening texts.

Topic-034: Testing Language Sub-skills

1. Vocabulary tests
2. Grammar tests
3. Pronunciation tests
4. Using Web for language testing

1. Vocabulary Test

A test for knowledge (as of meaning or use) of a selected list of words that is often used as part of an intelligence test is known as vocabulary test.

2. Grammar Tests

This test contains grammar and vocabulary questions and the test result will help the student to choose a level to practice at.

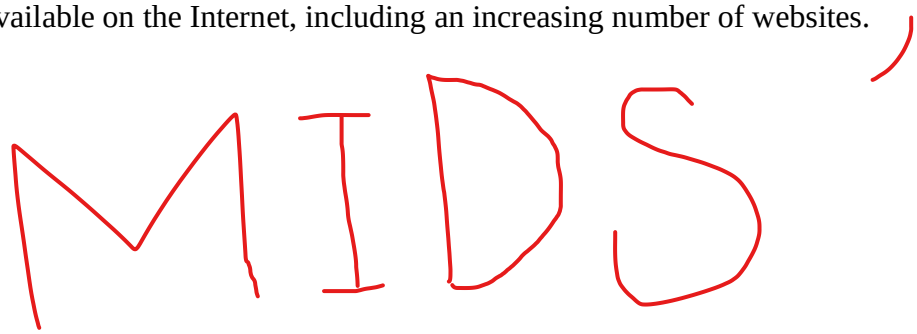
3. Pronunciation Tests

Pronunciation is the way in which a word or a language is spoken. The purpose of testing pronunciation is not only to evaluate knowledge and award grades, but also, and probably more importantly, to motivate students to be sensitive to this aspect of English.

The ideal way of testing pronunciation is to actually listen to the learner. But since this is not always possible or suitable, the alternatives can be used for testing segments and word stress.

Using Web for Language Teaching

The use of Information and Communication Technologies is widespread in the field of education nowadays. In the case of foreign language teaching, a wide range of digital resources is available on the Internet, including an increasing number of websites.



Finals

Lesson-08

LANGUAGE IN SOCIETY

Outline:

- **Language in Society**
  - Language and society
  - Language Diversity and Contact
  - Language and Gender
  - Language and Identity
  - Language and Power
  - Language and Law

Topic-035: Language and Society

It is the descriptive study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used, and the effects of language use on society. Sociolinguistics differs from sociology of language in that the focus of sociolinguistics is the effect of the society on the language, while the sociology of language focuses on language's effect on the society.

Sociolinguistics overlaps to a considerable degree with pragmatics. It is historically closely related to linguistic anthropology and the distinction recently.

It also studies how language varieties differ between groups separated by certain social variables, e.g., ethnicity, religion, status, gender, level of education, age, etc., and how creation and adherence to these rules is used to categorize individuals in social or socioeconomic classes. As the usage of a language varies from place to place, language usage also varies among social classes, and these sociolects are studied in sociolinguistics.

Linguistic structure and/or behavior may either influence or determine social structure. This is the view that is behind the Whorfian hypothesis. The claim that the structure of a language influences how its speakers view the world is today most usually associated with the linguist E.Sapir and his studentB.L.Whorf. However, it can be traced back to others, particularly to W. vonHumboldt. Today the claim usually referred to as the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis or the Whorfian hypothesis.

Sapir acknowledged the close relationship between language and culture maintaining that they were inextricably related so that you could not understand or appreciate the one without knowledge of the other. “Human beings do not live in the objective world alone or alone in the world of social activity as ordinarily understood, but are very much at the mercy of the particular language which has become the medium of expression for their society. It is quite an illusion to imagine that one adjusts to reality essentially without the use of language and that language is merely an incidental means of solving specific problems of communication or reflection.

The fact of the matter is that “the real world” is to a large extent unconsciously built up on the language habits of the of the group… "Words carrying them a myriad possibilities for connecting us to other human beings." (Duranti)

In short, language and society have strong influence on each other. Both are part and parcel of each other so we cannot strongly oppose the influence of one on another.

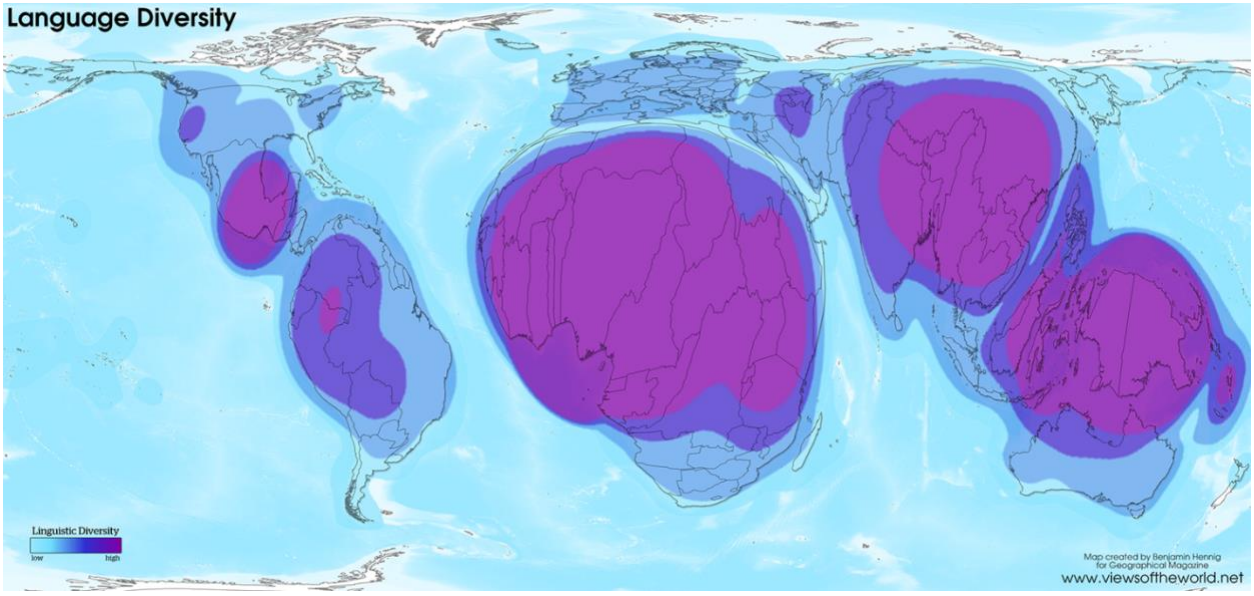
Topic-036: Language Diversity and Contact

We live in a multilingual world. Approximately seven thousand spoken languages and innumerable spoken dialects and sign languages are in use around the world, some with millions of speakers and others with only a few. No matter how "big" or "small," each language is capable of expressing infinitely generative concepts and ideas. Linguistic diversity is an inherently enabling condition to its speakers and humankind—a resource to be protected and promoted—as each language is the repository of immense knowledge built over centuries of development and use. Linguistic diversity is unevenly distributed across populations and regions. As noted in Austin 2008 (cited under General Overviews), 96 percent of the world's languages are spoken by just 4 percent of the world's people. Papua New Guinea, for example, has a population of about 6.4 million but is home to more than 830 spoken languages—17 percent of the world's total—making it one of the most linguistically diverse countries on earth. At the same time, 96 percent of the world's people speak at least one of the world's "major" languages—about 275 in all—which constitute 4 percent of all languages spoken. Among the most spoken languages, Chinese Mandarin has more than a billion speakers, English has 760 million, Hindi has 490 million, Spanish has 400 million, and Arabic has 200 million speakers. There are abundant varieties of all of these languages. Even when a language is numerically dominant in its autochthonous region, it may have a subordinate status. This foregrounds a key issue in linguistic diversity in education: the status of a language mirrors the social, economic, and political standing of its speakers. Thus, official policies specifying the medium-of-instruction in schools are not necessarily or even primarily based on linguistic considerations, but are tied to larger power relations. Many children are denied an education in their mother tongue because they are members of socially repressed groups, despite conclusive international research showing the educational benefits of mother tongue schooling. Moreover, through policies that marginalize nondominant tongues and their speakers, and via processes of globalization, nondominant languages are rapidly becoming displaced by dominant ones. A 2003 report by the United Nations, for example (cited under International Reports on Linguistic Diversity), predicts the loss of 95 percent of all languages spoken by century's end. The study of linguistic diversity encompasses all of these processes, including how languages are acquired; language pedagogy; individual and societal impacts of bi/multilingualism; policy and political issues; and language maintenance, revitalization, and loss. Addressing these issues requires multidisciplinary perspectives, and the references here reflect that multidisciplinarity.

There are many attempts to understand and map this diversity of languages around the world. The Ethnologue database as one of the most comprehensive projects lists exactly 7,099 individual languages in a comprehensive geographic database that many of the above-mentioned statistics are based upon. An even more detailed account when looking at the real diversity of language provides Glottolog of the Max Planck Institute for the Science of Human History in Germany. Glottolog "aims to provide complete references on the world's languages". It also looks at the

distribution of dialects and consists of almost 8,500 entries. Besides detailed linguistic information, this database includes basic geographic information about the origins of languages, their families and their dialects.

Language diversity map



The Glottolog database was used in this cartogram feature to highlight the geographic distribution of language diversity around the world. The main locations of each entry from the database were used to calculate the density (and diversity) of languages in their spatial distribution. The cartogram therefore shows larger areas where there is a relatively higher diversity of languages. This is also reflected in the differently shaded colours that are overlaid.

The highest language diversity in the world can be found in Africa and Asia, both with more than 2,000 living languages. On the other end of the geographic spectrum lies Europe with only around 250 living languages and dialects spoken there.

How vulnerable languages are can be seen even in Europe with its relatively low language diversity. UNESCO's Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger as a tool to monitor the status of endangered languages and the trends in linguistic diversity at the global level lists 11 languages in the United Kingdom alone that have a certain degree of endangerment. Most critically endangered are Cornish and Manx on the Isle of Man, two of 14 languages in Europe with this most severe status. Both languages are now subject to a certain extent of revival efforts.

The authors of the Handbook of Endangered Languages estimate that by the end of the century 50 to 90 per cent of the currently spoken languages could be extinct. First affected will be the approximately 500 nearly extinct languages that often only have a few (sometimes even only one) known speakers left. Endangered languages face similar fates as endangered species in nature.

Such highly endangered languages include the Bishuo language in Cameroon for which there was only one known native speaker left in the last records. In North America, many of the nearly extinct languages are to be found among the native populations along the west coast. One example is the Klallam language, for which there were still 5 speakers recorded in the 1990 Census. It now is

regarded as extinct with its last native speaker having died in 2014, although a few second language speakers remain.

Projects like the Endangered Languages Project aim to utilise the internet in their efforts to raise awareness for endangered languages and work towards the future preservation of today's language diversity.

Language diversity in Pakistan

The linguistic situation of Pakistan is very complex. There are various regional languages but Urdu has a unique status. It is the language of majority province and dominant ethnic group so it enjoys supremacy. But, at the same time Punjabis are dominated linguistically and culturally by Urdu and English speaking communities. We also need to take into consideration the accommodating and eclectic nature of Punjabi, the 'soft' boundaries of Punjabi and Urdu, and the element of mutual intelligibility is instrumental in the spread of Urdu. During the recent years children of Punjabis do not have Punjabi as their first language. And, Urdu has taken its place. As far as Sindhi, Baluchi, Pashto are concerned according to Saigol (1993):

- Sindhis makeup 26.6%,
- Baluchis 5.1%
- Pathans 13.1%of the population

The linguistic picture is quite complex as in Sindh, Sindhi is spoken in rural Sindh whereas Urdu in urban Sindh, and Gujrati in influential minorities. In N.W.F.P. Pashto is the language of majority, though one district Hazara uses Hindko. Despite the smallest population Baluchistan has multiple languages: Baluchi, Pashto, Brohi and a sprinkling of Sraiki and Punjabi. Regional and ethnic sentiments in the form of Sindhi and Baluchi nationalism have close links with Sindhi and Baluchi languages as one source of identity. Also, in this regard the issues of identity and ideology and the issues of power play a vital role.

Topic-037: Language and Gender

Sex Versus Gender: Sex refers to biological differences while gender refers to the cultural construction of male and female characteristics.

"The ways members of the two sexes are perceived, evaluated and expected to behave." (what different cultures make of sex.)

Gender Boundaries: We demand that the categories of male and female be discrete. Since gender is culturally constructed the boundaries are conceptual rather than physical. The boundaries are dynamic, e.g. now it is acceptable for men to wear earrings. Boundaries require markers to indicate gender such as: Voice Physique Dress Behaviour Hair style Kinetics Language use

Gender roles: These are asks and activities a culture assigns to the sexes – expected ways of behaving based on society's definition of masculine and feminine

Gender stereotypes: Oversimplified but strongly held ideas of the characteristics of men and women.

Gender stratification: An unequal distribution of rewards (socially valued resources, power, prestige, and personal freedom) between men and women, reflecting their different positions in

social hierarchy – a division in society where all members are hierarchically ranked according to gender

Gender ideology: A system of thoughts and values that legitimizes sex roles, statuses and customary behavior.

Gender is an important dimension of social inequality. Gender stratification frequently takes the form of patriarchy whereby men dominate women:

- Do women in our society have a second class status relative to men?
- If so How?
- How do we measure gender stratification?

Men and women are socialized to express themselves in different ways in accordance with cultural norms that teach and reinforce different gender roles.

Three issues to be considered here are:

1. Do women and men speak a different language - genderlect? – Do they speak differently?
2. Do women and men behave differently in conversations? – Use language differently
3. Gender bias in English

Genderlects: Men often use socially disfavored variants of sociolinguistic variables while women tend to avoid these in favor of socially more favored variants.

Men	Women
What a terrific idea!	What a divine idea!
Shit! You've put the peanut butter in the fridge again!	Oh dear! You've put the peanut butter in the fridge again!

Phonological variations

What motivates boys to choose /in/ and girls /ing/ /in/ form is used in informal settings and /ing/ in more formal contexts. The /ing/ variant therefore carries social meaning – i.e. it symbolizes formality, so/ing/may also be associated with compliance and politeness formality, politeness, etc.

Men	Women
Less use of post-vocalic /-r/	greater use of post-vocalic /-r/
dis and dat	this and that
Double negation	single negation

Grammatical Variants: Boys used non-standard form more than girls.

Grammatical Variants

1. non-standard -s	They calls me all the names under the sun
2. non-standard has	You just has to do what the teachers tell you.
3. non-standard was	You was with me, wasn't you?
4. negative concord	It ain't got no pedigree or nothing.
5. non-standard never	I never went to school today.
6. non-standard what	Are you the little bastards what hit my son over the head?
7. non-standard do	She cadges, she do.
8. non-standard come	I come down here yesterday.
9. ain't = auxiliary have	I ain't seen my Nan for nearly seven years.
10. ain't = auxiliary be	Course I ain't going to the Avenue.
11. ain't = copula	You ain't no boss.

Jenny Cheshire – adventure playground use. Boys used non-standard form more than girls

Intonation: Intonation refers to the combination of rhythm, volume and pitch overlaying entire utterances.

- In general women use wider range of pitches and more rapid shift in volume and velocity.
- In other words women talk melodically and faster than men who are more monotone and slower.

What does talking melodically and faster imply? (emotionality and natural impulses)
What does talking in a monotone and slower imply? (control and restraint)
Masculine speech melodies can be heard to be metaphors for control female speech melodies as uncontrolled women's speech behaviour is negatively evaluated in relation to male norms.
Women's frequent changes in pitch and volume may serve the function of attracting and holding the listeners attention.
Because rising pitch is an indicator of questions some linguists believe that when women use rising pitches they are interpreted as hesitant, uncertain, and lacking assertiveness.
Tag questions: Women use more tag questions than men. Affective tags "are used not to signal uncertainty on the part of the speaker, but to indicate concern for the addressee":

1) Open the door for me, could you?
2) His portraits are quite static by comparison, aren't they?

Affective tags are further subdivided into two kinds:

1) Softeners like the first example above, which conventionally mitigate the force of what would otherwise be an impolite demand.
2) Facilitative tags like the second example, which invite the listener to take a conversational turn to comment on the speaker's assertion.

Explanation for differences: Following points express the causes behind these differences:

1) Subordinate groups must be polite
2) Woman's role as guardian of society's values
3) Vernacular forms express machismo - men who act like women are strongly criticized, men consciously or unconsciously strive toward speech norms that reject styles associated with women ``Covert prestige`` (speaking white) • because women model their behaviour on middle class styles men covertly prefer "working class" speech
4) Women have less access to power and status: they 'make up' for this by their preferences for the prestige (standard) linguistic forms. This is thought to give them respect and some status.
5) Women are more conscious of prestige norms and strive to use them because they are judged by their social self-presentation and are aware of strong social sanction if they do not conform – linguistic insecurity
6) Women and men are socialized in different ways which is reflected in their language use patterns.
7) Women may be more status conscious than men because: – society sets more standards for women and – Women's typical activities do not confer status itself. – Women don`t want to use lower class language because of the associations made with lower class people
8) Women and men have different networks which lead to women and men using different ways of speaking.
9) Many of the jobs available to women require standard form Explanations for differences.

Gender Identity and Language in Pakistan

The study of gender and language in sociolinguistics started with Robin Lakoff's 1975 book named 'Language and Woman's Place'. Prominent scholars in this regard include Deborah Tannen, Penelope Eckert, Janet Holmes, Mary Bucholtz, Kira Hall and Deborah Cameron. Robin Lakoff identified a "women's register", that is used to maintain women's (inferior) role in society. She argued that women tend to use linguistic forms that reflect and reinforce a subordinate role. Examples in this regard include minimal responses, 'mm' and 'yeah' etc. Another example is of the use of questions. For instance, for men a question is a genuine request for information and for women it can often be a rhetorical means of engaging the other's conversational contribution or of acquiring attention. There can also be examples of turn-taking. Women's desire for turn-taking gives rise to complex forms of interaction in relation to the more regimented form of turn-taking commonly exhibited by men. Another example can be of 'tag questions'. In Pakistani context women use more tag questions which shows the social positioning of women in our society.

Topic-038: Language and Identity

If we take the position that linguistic communities are not homogeneous and consensual, rather they are heterogeneous and conflicted, we need to understand how power is implicated in relationships between individuals, communities, and nations. This is directly relevant to our understanding of the relationship between language and identity. Bourdieu (1977) notes, the value

ascribed to speech cannot be understood apart from the person who speaks, and the person who speaks cannot be understood apart from larger networks of social relationships.

Every time we speak, we are negotiating and renegotiating our sense of self in relation to the larger social world, and reorganizing that relationship across time and space. What is implicated in this negotiation of identity?

- gender
- race
- class
- ethnicity
- sexual orientation
- age

Weedon (1997) states that, it is through language that a person negotiates a sense of self within and across a range of sites at different points in time, and it is through language that a person gains access to or is denied access to powerful social networks that give learners the opportunity to speak. Linguistic identities as double-edged swords: They function in a positive and productive way to give people a sense of belonging. They define an "us" in opposition to a "them". As a means of communicating values, beliefs and customs, language has an important social function and fosters feelings of group identity and solidarity. It is the means by which culture and its traditions and shared values may be conveyed and preserved.

Notions of language and dialect are closely related to the issues of identity. There are social dialects and regional dialects which relate to the idea of identity in various ways. Dyer's (2000, 2002) and Wassink and Dyer's (2004) studies of communities in Corby, UK, Kingston, and Jamaica, utilize language ideology model in two very different dialect contact contexts.

Dyer's (2000) study of Corby investigated changes occurring in the local English dialect due to the immigration of large numbers of Scots to work in a newly built steelworks in the town. (Corby is around100 miles north of London and 300 miles south of Glasgow, Scotland.) A major point of study was the social significance or meaning of the identity projected by young Corby people who sounded Scottish but had no Scottish ancestry. It is interesting since Scottish, and more particularly Glaswegian English (from whence many of the Corby migrants hailed) is often viewed as a stigmatized variety (Macaulay, 1977). Wassink and Dyer (2004) further examined how phonological features in Kingston and Corby, considered stigmatized by some speakers because of their association with either a rural Jamaican or a Scottish background, were apparently being used as symbols of local pride by the younger generations.

A variationist analysis of the data from these studies might have concluded that speakers were indexing a Scottish identity in using Scottish variants, or a rural identity in the use of traditionally rural variants in the Jamaican context. However, an analysis of speaker ideologies showed that the salient social categories for speakers had changed over time. The opposition between Scottish and English that was salient for the oldest speakers in the Corby study had apparently been replaced by an opposition between Corby and the neighbouring town of Kettering for the youngest speakers.

The perception of identity that sociolinguists have now is more complex than at the outset. But, also undoubtedly it is more satisfying and more explanatory of variation.

Topic-039: Language and Power

As always, when "power" is spoken of, the first association is that of the power of man over man, of power as suppression of the free will by "commands" and "obedience". Power can easily appear in this connection as the root of all evil in human societies and as the opposite of freedom as such. Yet the problem of power is in truth more complex. And especially in the case of the "power of language", the problem is multi-layered. The "power of language" not only means language in the service of power; language can also undermine power. And above all, as language, it possesses itself power of a very special kind. The relation of language and power is ambivalent.

We have spoken in the first place of the "power of language" as the "language of power". What is here meant in general is that all power must finally use language, be conveyed through it and manifested in it, to command, that is, to speak, where others must only hear and obey. In a more narrow sense, this understanding of the "power of language" is a matter of the instrumentalisation of language for the purpose of exercising power. The command of language itself becomes a means of power: as political rhetoric and demagogy, as ideology and bedazzlement, as seduction through words, as "persuasion". This power of language extends from large political contexts, from the manner of speaking and thus also of thinking that dictatorships and totalitarian orders force upon dominated people, to the small scenes of everyday life, to the arts of seduction of advertising, the sales tricks of telephone marketing, or the menacing undertones at the workplace or in the family. This first interpretation of the "power of language" already shows two things. On the one hand, that language and speaking must be distinguished in the exercise of power. The possibilities of language from the way in which language is actually used in spoken words. On the other hand, the interpretation also gives a presentiment that the power which is exercised through language always already bears within itself the germ of its counter-power. For the language of political demagogues and tyrants can be seen through as language. And by means of language itself. So that language conveys the power of violence or domination and at the same time undermines it.

For everyone can take possession of the power of language and in this way see through and unmask the power exercised through language.

Seen clearly, the "power of language" is thus not the fraternisation of language with command and obedience; this uses language for goals other than those which are inherent in it. The genuine, inner power of language is rather to undermine this other kind of power. Since ursurpatious and violent rule as well as legitimate rule must ultimately rely on the power of language in order to be exercised, to command and to assert itself, precisely language is the vulnerable spot of the commanding power. For the concealed intentions of a command can be seen through. The command can be obeyed, but it can also be refused; above all, it can be understood and so interpreted or re-interpreted quite as those might like who are supposed to obey it, but who for their part possess the infinitely divisible and epidemically disseminating power of language.

This mechanism can be generalised beyond the political sphere. Without a doubt, the power of language consists in the fact that it can be used for rhetorical persuasion. But its own authentic

power consists at least equally in the fact that every "putting into language" already harbours within itself the kernel of doubt. Every attempt to persuade others with and through language is always also an effort to make oneself understood. And regardless of how rhetorically skilled the speaker may be, in the end he inevitably places his words, as language, under discussion.

Whoever speaks, depends on language. And even the most skilful speaker cannot monopolise the power of language. Ultimately the "power of language" lies not with the speaker, but with language itself. The power of language belongs to language itself. And so this power belongs to everyone who possesses language. Whoever has a command of language has part in its power!

Language is not merely an instrument in the hands of power, but also always a counter-power which cannot be restricted and repressed. Power can rest on many factors; for instance, on the possession of weapons or money. These are in short supply; some possess them and others do not. This scarcity establishes the power of man over man. And it shows the ubiquitous social connection of power and inequality.

This connection, however, does not obtain for the power of language. As with knowledge generally, so with language and the power that proceeds from it: it is illimitably divisible and multiple. Whoever shares knowledge loses nothing of his own share or possession. Everyone can gain knowledge without taking it away from anyone else. Similarly, everyone can attain the power of language without disputing anyone else's right to it.

At exactly this point begins the empowerment through language that marks the work of the Goethe Institute. It is an empowerment through the genuine power of language, not through a specific content or body of knowledge which is conveyed through language. And it is within this frame that the decentralised, world-wide projects of the Goethe Institute are to be understood.

Topic-040: Language and Law

The use of language is crucial to any legal system, not only in the same way that it is crucial to politics in general, but also in two special respects.

Definition: ''Legal language is the type of language used by lawyers and other legal professionals in the course of their work''.

Spoken language is just as indispensable to the legal process. The legal implications of language continue to extend far beyond the courtroom – to interactions between police and suspects, to conversations between lawyers and their clients, etc. A little reflection is enough to notice how essential language is to the legal enterprise.

To know how this 'special dialect' came about and how it differs from 'ordinary English', researchers have turned to the language of the law as a linguistic phenomenon in its own right.0 In fact, one of the first scholarly publications about law and language was David Mellinkoff's monumental work, The Language of the Law, published in 1963.

Example Controlling Law Statutory Law: *New Columbia Code § 22-2401. Murder in the first degree - Purposeful killing; Whoever, being of sound memory and discretion, kills another purposely, either of deliberate and premeditated malice or by means of poison...is guilty of murder in the first degree. New Columbia Code § 22-2403. Murder in the second degree.(a) Whoever with malice aforethought, except as provided in Sec. 22-2401, kills another, is guilty of murder in*

the second degree.(b) In the District of Columbia, second degree murder is a lesser included offense of first degree murder, and under an indictment charging first degree murder, the defendant may be found guilty of the necessarily included offense of second degree murder. Punishment New Columbia Code § 22-2404. Penalty for murder in first and second degrees.(a) A person convicted of murder in the first degree shall be sentenced to a minimum of 30 years from the date of the commencement of the sentence.(b) Whoever is guilty of murder in the second degree shall be sentenced to a period of incarceration of not more than life, except that the court may impose a prison sentence in excess of 40 years only in accordance with § 24-203.1(b-2)._____Developed by Georgetown University Law Center, D.C. Street Law Clinic page 5New Columbia Code § 22-2405. Penalty for manslaughter.Whoever is guilty of manslaughter shall be sentenced to a period of imprisonment not exceeding 30 years.

- We can find a lot of legal terms in this example such as **Murder in the first degree. When someone is accused of murder in first degree it means that he** or she kills another purposely, either of deliberate and premeditated malice or by means of poison.
- If we look closely we can see that there's a special code when you refer to a specific law. You must use a key symbol, similar to a G key on music. For example, New Columbia Code § 22-2401.
- New Columbia Code § 22-2403. Murder in the seconddegree.
    - Whoever with malice aforethought, except as provided in Sec. 22-2401, kills another, is guilty of murder in the second degree.

The use of technical words can be seen below:

Manslaughter: The unlawful killing of one human by another without express or implied intent to do injury.

Legislature: An officially elected or otherwise selected body of people vested with the responsibility and power to make laws for a political unit, such as a state or nation.

Prosecution Attorney: A lawyer empowered to prosecute cases on behalf of a government and its people. Also called prosecution, prosecutor.

Law and signs

Bentham (1782) suggests that a law is an assemblage of signs. There are insurmountable objections to Bentham's idea that a law is an assemblage of signs. Law (in the sense that is relevant here) is the systematic regulation of the life of a community by standards treated as binding the members of the community and its institutions. A law is a standard that is part of such a systematic form of regulation. Many such standards have no canonical linguistic formulation (that is, no form of words which, according to law, determines the content of the standard). Lawyers in common law systems are familiar with such norms: murder may be a criminal offence (or slander may be a tort, or certain agreements may be enforceable as contracts…), not because of the expression by any person or institution of a rule that it should be so, but because the institutions of the legal system customarily treat murder as an offence (or slander as a tort...).

Language and legal interpretation

What is the relationship between the language that is used to make legal standards, and the law itself? If the law provides that a form of words determines the content of a standard (such as a term of a contract, or a criminal offence, or a duty of the executor of a will), what is the effect of the use of the words? The question seems to demand general theories of the meaning of language and of the interpretation of communicative acts. If there are no general theories to be had, then there is no general answer to the question. A theory of meaning and interpretation of legal language would not be very much less general than a theory of meaning and interpretation of language.

The pragmatics of legal language

The pragmatics of legal language is a vast field, because the term 'pragmatics' could be used as a heading for much of what modern legal scholars and theorists have described as grounds for interpretation (and also as a heading for much that they have described as the theory of interpretation -since 'pragmatics' is a term not only for effects of communication, but also for the study of those effects). For example, the work of the judges in Garner v Burr can be described as an exercise in pragmatic inference. The technical sound of the word 'pragmatics' may suggest that it is a term for the theoretical study of its object; in fact, the field of study is what might be inferred from the fact that someone said what they said in the context in which they said it. No object of study is less apt for theorising.

The Semantic Sting

Discussions of the pragmatics of legal language are expressly or implicitly premised on a view of the relation between a law-making use of language, and the law that is made. It is the view that if a body or person is authorised to make law, it makes the law that it communicates by its use of language. This can be called 'the communication model'. It must be qualified in at least four ways, because the law itself regulates the making of law:

1. the law that is made will be limited by any limit on the power of the law maker (as to the substance of the law that it can make, or as to the process by which it can lawfully make law), and
2. rules of law may qualify the law that is made, in a variety of ways that are not susceptible of any general characterisation[4] (see Solum 2013 for an extensive discussion of ways in which the law that is made by a communicative act may be qualified), and
3. courts may resolve indeterminacies in the effect of an act of law making, and where they do so, their decisions may have conclusive legal effect, and
4. if a court departs from what the law maker communicated (for good reasons or bad), the decision of the court may have conclusive legal effect (for the parties, and also for the future if the decision is treated as a precedent).

Lesson-09

ICT AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

Outline:

- **ICT and Language Teaching**

- Literacy and Multimodality
- Language and ICT
- Introduction to CALL
  - Types of CALL Programs
  - Types of CALL Activities
- ICT Translation and Interpreting

Topic-041: ICT and Language Teaching

ICT is generally defined as technology functioning to support the process of conveying information and communication. With the development of ICT, the communicator and communicant can communicate through telephone, internet, email, satelite, television, video conference, and the like.

The information and communication technologies encompass of hardware and software. It includes storing, retrieving, modifying, controlling and transmitting and receiving information or data (Moursund, 2005). For the integration of information and communication technologies in language teaching certain conditions have to be met. These include computer facilities, high speed internet connection, ICT professional and good infrastructures needed (prani, 2004). We need to apply the technology in language classroom in order to get result. We also need utilize different approaches to tackle the problems. With the help of technological tools, teacher can send, store, process and receive education information from one place to another (Buseni, 2013).

Topic-042: Literacy and Multimodality

A multimodal text conveys meaning through a combination of two or more modes, for example, a poster conveys meaning through a combination of written language, still image, and spatial design. Each mode has its own specific task and function (Kress, 2010, p. 28) in the meaning making process, and usually carries only a part of the message in a multimodal text. In a picture book, the print and the image both contribute to the overall telling of the story but do so in different ways.

Images may simply illustrate or expand on the written story, or can be used to tell different aspects of the story, even contradicting the written words (Guijarro and Sanz, 2009, p. 107). Effective multimodal authors creatively integrate modes in various configurations to coherently convey the meaning required, ‘moving the emphasis backwards and forwards between the various modes' (Cope and Kalantzis, 2009. p. 423) throughout the text.

The complexity of the relationships between the various meaning or semiotic systems in a text increases proportionately with the number of modes involved. For example, a film text is a more complex multimodal text than a poster as it dynamically combines the semiotic systems of moving image, audio, spoken language, written language, space, and gesture (acting) to convey meaning.

Modes

The following overview of how meaning can be composed through different semiotic resources for each mode (spoken language, written language, visual, audio, gestural, and spatial) is

informed by The New London Group (2000), Cope and Kalantzis, (2009), and Kalantzis, Cope, Chan, and Dalley-Trim (2016).

Currently, there is extensive pedagogic support for teaching meaning making through spoken and written language, and some resources developed to support teaching meaning making in the visual mode, through 'viewing'. However, as yet there are few resources available for teaching young students how to comprehend and compose meaning in the other modes.

Written meaning

Conveyed through written language via handwriting, the printed page, and the screen. Choices of words, phrases, and sentences are organised through linguistic grammar conventions, register (where language is varied according to context), and genre (knowledge of how a text type is organised and staged to meet a specific purpose).

Spoken (oral) meaning

Conveyed through spoken language via live or recorded speech and can be monologic or dialogic. Choice of words, phrases, and sentences are organised through linguistic grammar conventions, register, and genre. Composing oral meaning includes choices around mood, emotion, emphasis, fluency, speed, volume, tempo, pitch, rhythm, pronunciation, intonation, and dialect.

Visual meaning

Conveyed through choices of visual resources and includes both still image and moving images. Visual resources include: framing, vectors, symbols, perspective, gaze, point of view, colour, texture, line, shape, casting, saliency, distance, angles, form, power, involvement/detachment, contrast, lighting, naturalistic/non-naturalistic, camera movement, and subject movement.

Audio meaning

Conveyed through sound, including choices of music, ambient sounds, noises, alerts, silence, natural/unnatural sounds, and use of volume, beat, tempo, pitch, and rhythm.

Spatial meaning

Conveyed through design of spaces, using choices of spatial resources including: scale, proximity, boundaries, direction, layout, and organisation of objects in the space. Space extends from design of the page in a book, a page in a graphic novel or comic, a webpage on the screen, framing of shots in moving image, to the design of a room, architecture, streetscapes, and landscapes.

Gestural meaning

Conveyed through choices of body movement; facial expression, eye movements and gaze, demeanour, gait, dance, acting, action sequences. It also includes use of rhythm, speed, stillness and angles, including 'timing, frequency, ceremony and ritual' (Cope and Kalantzis, 2009. p. 362).

Types of multimodal texts

Multimodality does not necessarily mean use of technology, and multimodal texts can be paper-based, live, or digital.

- Paper-based multimodal texts include picture books, text books, graphic novels, comics, and posters.
- Live multimodal texts, for example, dance, performance, and oral storytelling, convey meaning through combinations of various modes such as gestural, spatial, audio, and oral language.
- Digital multimodal texts include film, animation, slide shows, e-posters, digital stories, podcasts, and web pages.

Why teaching multimodal literacy is important?

Effective contemporary communication requires young people to be able to comprehend, respond to, and compose meaning through multimodal texts in diverse forms.

To do this, students need to know how each mode uses unique semiotic resources to convey meaning (Kress, 2010) and this needs to be taught explicitly. In a visual text, for example, representation of people, objects, and places can be conveyed using choices of visual semiotic resources such as line, shape, size, line and symbols, while written language would convey this meaning through sentences using noun groups and adjectives (Callow, 2013) written or typed on paper or a screen.

Students also need to be taught how authors juggle the different modes to determine the most apt way to tell their story, and how meaning in a multimodal text is 'orchestrated' through the selection and use of different modes in various combinations (Jewitt, 2009. p.15).

Modes and meaning making: three sub-strands

Students need to understand how authors can control and use the unique semiotic resources available in each different mode used in a multimodal text. Currently, the Victorian Curriculum organises teaching about language around three types of meaning organised as sub-stands: Expressing and developing ideas; Language for interaction; and Text structure and organisation. Similarly, teaching meaning making in other modes can be approached through three sub-strands.

1. ***Expressing and developing ideas***

What is happening in the text? Students learn how the different meaning making resources can be used to: construct the nature of the events, the objects and participants involved, and the setting and circumstances in which they occur – who, what, where and when, and to express actions and ideas.

2. ***Interacting and relating with others***

How do we interact with and relate to others? How do we feel? Students learn how design of interactive meaning in a multimodal text includes consideration of the social setting, how interactions between the viewer/reader/listener and the subject can be established, and how to build and maintain relationships. Students need to learn how to express knowledge, skills, feelings, attitudes and opinions, credibility, and power through different modes.

3. ***Text structure and organisation***

How do design and layout build meaning and guide the reader/viewer/listener through the text? Students learn how different modes are used to structure a text in a particular way to create

cohesive and coherent texts, with varying levels of complexity. For example, students learn how the image maker guides the viewer through the text through the deliberate choices of visual design at the level of the whole text, and components within the text. In examining how the image or text is organised, students learn how visual design choices can prioritise some meanings and background others (Painter, Martin, & Unsworth, 2013).

Topic-043: Language and ICT

Present trends in the teaching of foreign languages attempt to react to new challenges and changes in education. The principal most recent trends in the teaching of foreign languages include:

- The teaching focuses on the student. The teacher is becoming a co-learner. This trend is influenced by humanistic pedagogy and psychology with an emphasis on the creative potential of each individual and his or her ability to change himself/ herself. This understanding is undoubtedly influencing the changing roles of teacher and student in education. One of the most powerful drivers of this trend is social constructivist theory. In a social constructivist perspective, learners construct knowledge from their experiences, both positive and negative. Learning is an active social process, which means that learning occurs when individuals are actively engaged in social activities. Moreover, constructivism regards each learner as a unique individual, considers his/ her cultural background, and nurtures the responsibility and motivation for learning. Constructivism is often associated with activity theory which understands human activities as complex, socially situated phenomena.
- The concept of autonomous learning is being implemented. Learners are seen as individuals who can and should be autonomous, i.e. be responsible for their own learning climate. Moreover, autonomous education helps students to develop their self-awareness, vision, practicality and freedom of discussion. These attributes serve to aid a student in his/her independent learning.
- Collaborative or cooperative learning is being advocated. Cooperative/ collaborative learning, consists of a range of concepts and techniques for enhancing the value of student-student interaction. However, this type of learning requires the mastering of collaborative communication skills, e.g. agreeing politely, making compromises, explaining. If learners succeed in their acquisition, then they are well equipped not only for language learning but for their future career. Moreover, the teacher might participate in students' collaborative learning by encouraging them to create a pleasant and friendly atmosphere for working together. One of the common examples of collaborative learning in the learning of foreign languages is project work, which enables students to learn together for a purpose other than to get a high score on an exam.
- Curricula subjects are being integrated. That means that students use not only their acquired knowledge but also their skills across curricula. In practice students use English medium to study subjects such as geography, history or mathematics that were originally taught in the native language, in this case in Czech. This type of learning is exploited in

the so-called Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), which involves teaching a curricular subject through the medium of a foreign language.

- Diversity. This aspect might be understood as the mix of students a teacher has in his/ her classrooms in terms of student background, e.g., ethnic, religious, social class and their first language, sex, achievement levels, learning styles, intelligences and learning strategies. Moreover, the boundaries between the directed learning process and the individual processes of learning a foreign language are vanishing. Foreign language teaching does not represent one teaching method anymore and only one textbook, but a learner is exposed to a number of interactive incentives and teaching methods, such as project teaching or teaching with the help of new information and communication technologies.
- Teaching methods are closely interconnected with the latest scientific knowledge from the field of neurolinguistics and psycholinguistics. An example might be an interest in one's self in connection with the research of motivation (for details see Dornyei [4, 5]).
- The concept of multiculturalism is being promoted. Its aim is to make students more sensitive and open to other nationalities and their culture and consequently to make them aware of their own culture, values and beliefs.
- The concept of multilingualism is being implemented. This means that besides the native language, each EU citizen should master another two foreign languages. In practice such a concept requires new teaching methods and wider content teaching.
- The learning of foreign languages is perceived as a lifelong process. Such a process should already involve pre-school learning and extend right through to learning in later life, but it should also cover various professional and personal needs.

All the above mentioned trends/ concepts arise from the Common European Reference Framework for Languages, whose aim is to increase the quality of communication among European citizens with different language and cultural backgrounds and to provide a wide range of recommendations as to how to achieve this. In sum, the main trend in the teaching of foreign languages seems to be a focus on the humanistic aspect of the aims of foreign language teaching, i.e. to perceive the teaching of foreign languages primarily as a means of education towards deep humanity.

Blended learning

There is a prime focus on the fields of knowledge in which citizens acquire the skills and knowledge necessary for effective communication, i.e. on the teaching of foreign languages and ICT. Thus, one might combine and exploit both fields in the so-called blended learning. The term blended learning has become extremely fashionable nowadays, particularly in corporate and higher education settings. In this paper, following Littlejohn & Pegler, blended learning is perceived as an integration of face-to-face teaching and learning methods with on-line approaches. In general, blended learning is about a mixture of instructional modalities (i.e. onsite, web-based and self-paced learning), delivery media (e.g. the Internet, classroom sessions, web-based courses, CD-ROMs, video, books, or PowerPoint slides), instructional methods (i.e.

face-to-face or technology-based sessions), and web-based technologies, both synchronous and asynchronous (e.g. chat rooms, wikis, virtual classrooms, conferencing tools, blogs, textbooks or on-line courses). The choice of a blend is usually determined by several factors: the nature of the course content and instructional goals, student characteristics and learning preferences, instructor experience and teaching style, online resources and others. And as Graham states, learners and teachers work together to improve the quality of learning and teaching; the ultimate aim of blended learning being to provide realistic practical opportunities for learners and teachers to make learning independent, useful, sustainable and ever growing.

In this sense, blended learning has become one of the successful learning tools in second language acquisition (SLA). In fact, blended learning has been a major growth point in the English Language Teaching (ELT) industry over the last ten years.

Blended learning in the EFL setting can be defined as a pedagogical approach that combines the effectiveness and socialization opportunities of the classroom with the technologically enhanced active learning possibilities of the online environment. According to De Praeter, a classic example of using the blended learning approach is a course of English as a second language where the instructor decides that all audio-based activities (listening comprehension and oral comprehension) will take place in the classroom while all written text-based activities will take place online (reading comprehension and essay writing).

However, if the EFL course is designed purposefully and meaningfully, and with cultural understanding of students' backgrounds, there are even further benefits of the blended learning approach to the teaching of foreign languages:

- Firstly, eLearning can allow access to the target language culture through the use of Youtube videos, meaningful situational videos, chat rooms or videoconferencing. These tools not only give EFL students greater access to native speakers, but also enable learners to interact and collaborate with their foreign peers.
- Secondly, language is about communication and through exploiting the above mentioned tools students get more exposure to the target language than in traditional language classes. And if learners are appropriately motivated, they might become even more enthusiastic to practise the language frequently outside the more traditional formal instruction settings.
- Thirdly, using wikis, for example, can help students to improve their academic skills of reading and writing. In addition, they can also learn how to conduct basic research and collaborate with fellow students. Yet another advantage of the eLearning component is that the blended course gives students a chance to revisit lectures or seminars.
- Finally, the more frequent tutor feedback means that students are able to practise the language more often and are able to avoid repeating their previous errors.

Autonomous learning

The BL approach inevitably on the one side requires and on the other side supports an independent, autonomous learner. Generally, autonomous learning consists in the need to make the teaching more effective and to exploit a student's potential and particularly his/ her

creativity. To be autonomous, learners need to be able to have some choice in what, where, when and how to study. At the same time, they should feel responsible for their own learning and for the learning of those with whom they interact. Learner autonomy involves learners being aware of their own ways of learning, so as to utilize their strengths and work on their weaknesses. Intrinsic and social motivation plays a central role in learner's autonomy.

The teacher becomes a partner in such learning process. A form of democratization takes place with students taking on more rights and responsibilities for their own learning. However, autonomous learning does not only mean that learners work alone. In fact, they learn even more if they collaborate with their peers, independently on their teacher. Furthermore, autonomous learning tries to make learners responsible for their learning achievements and consequently, for their own assessment of their work.

Moreover, autonomous learning requires students to think independently. Admittedly, creative teachers tend to promote thinking skills with their students while teaching the content. There are two phases to the learning of content. The first is the so-called internalization. Learners try to construct in their minds the basic ideas, principles, and theories that are inherent in content. The second phase is a process of application. This is when learners use those ideas, principles, and theories as they become relevant in learners' lives. Teachers should strive to cultivate critical thinking at every stage of learning, including initial learning since critical thinking represents a liberating force in education and a powerful resource in one's personal and civic life. Furthermore, it motivates learners to acquire new knowledge or skills in any field of study they choose.

Both theory and practice prove that learning is a complex process, dependent on the understanding and expertise of the individual teacher faced with the individual students with his/ her different learning needs and strategies. And knowledge construction with the aim of allowing learners to develop greater flexibility and awareness of communicative, linguistic, and learning levels needs to be part of any good language course.

Topic-044: Introduction to CALL

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) was the expression agreed upon at the 1983 TESOL convention in a meeting of all interested participants. This term is widely used to refer to the area of technology and second language teaching and learning despite the fact that revisions for the term are suggested regularly.

Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) may be defined as the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning (Levy, 1997, p.1).

CALL has come to encompass issues of materials design, technologies, pedagogical theories and modes of instruction. Materials for CALL can include those which are purpose-made for language learning and those which adapt existing computer-based materials, video and other materials (Beatty, 2003, pp. 7-8).

Types of CALL Programs

CALL programs/materials include:

- CALL-specific software: applications designed to develop and facilitate language learning, such as CD-ROMs, web-based interactive language learning exercises/quizzes (see CD-ROM examples for language learning)
- Generic software: applications designed for general purposes, such as word-processors (Word), presentation software (PowerPoint, see an e-book made by students "Many Moons"), and spreadsheet (Excel), that can be used to support language learning (see examples of using Excel for language learning & teaching)
- Web-based learning programs: online dictionaries, online encyclopedias, online concordancers, news/magazine sites, e-texts, web-quests, web publishing, blog, wiki, etc.
- Computer-mediated communication (CMC) programs: synchronous - online chat; asynchronous - email, discussion forum, message board

Types of CALL Activities

- multiple-choice & true/false quizzes
- gap-filling exercise/cloze
- matching
- re-ordering/sequencing
- crossword puzzles
- games
- simulations
- writing & word-processing
- concordancing
- web quests/searching
- web publishing
- online communication (synchronous and asynchronous)

Roles of the computer in language learning and teaching

The following roles can be seen:

- computer as tutor for language drills or skill practice
- computer as a tool for writing, presenting, and researching
- computer as a medium of global communication

How computers can be used in the language class

1. Teaching with one computer in the class
    - Delivery of content (PowerPoint, word-processor, Webpages, etc.)
    - Classroom activities/discussions mediated by the computer
    - Interactive whiteboard
2. Teaching in the computer network room (network-based language teaching)
    - Task-based group work /activities
    - Computer-mediated communication (CMC): asynchronous/synchronous
    - Tandem learning

3. Self-access learning (independent learning) - drills and exercises - word processing - resource searching
4. Distance learning (i.e. individual learners working by themselves, at a place and time of their choice and, to some extent, at a pace and in an order also chosen by themselves.) - delivering online course content - CMC activities: email, discussion forum, chat rooms - tandem learning - community building.

Teaching Learning Advantages and disadvantages

Advantages

- Self-paced or learner-centered
- An active process CALL material is consistent within individual courses.
- Getting to know the students' individual
- Problems and successes with the learning material.
- Working with a group of disciplined students.
- Focusing on the important or more difficult material during class time or tutoring sessions.

Disadvantages

- Quite a few students feel they learn better when guided step by step through a concept.
- The student must be motivated and disciplined to complete a learning program on his own
- A good CALL program, as with all CBE programs, is very expensive to develop.
- Development requires teacher input, but, a great number of teachers see programs
- There is also a lack of suitable software available for CALL today.

To conclude we can say that using Computers to assist language learning and teaching is the certainty and necessity of technological development. However, CALL is not always better than traditional language learning and teaching method.

Topic-045: ICT in Translation and Interpreting

Instrumental skills constitute an indispensible subcomponent of the general translation competence as information and computer technologies have become a vital element of the translator workstation. □e ability to use state-of-the-art translation-dedicated tools, programs and applications facilitates the translation process and is crucial for those who want to comply with the contemporary market requirements. The significance of technical skills is corroborated in numerous works by translation scholars and reflected in market needs and translator competence models (PACTE 2011; European Committee for Standardization; Gambier (ed.) 2009; Kelly 2005). As Gouadec (2007) observes, the ability to use various computer, communication and translation-specific technologies constitutes a competitive advantage for those who are willing to make full use of the available resources, increases their employability on the market and the remuneration level in comparison to those who prefer to work in the traditional way (without translation memory and terminology management system at least). Actually, Gouadec goes even further and differentiates between two categories of translation technology users: those who are

satisfied with the basic version of a translator's workstation – the combination of "word processor + translation memory + terminology management system + Internet" and those who are able to use more sophisticated translation tools – e.g. subtitling and localisation software, translation project management systems – stating that the second group is slowly gaining advantage over the first "in terms of added value and remuneration" (Gouadec 2007: 280).

As mentioned above, various models present translation competence as a multi-componential construct and list instrumental, technical and information mining skills as its subcomponents. For example, the EMT project enumerates information mining competence and technological competence (Gam-bier (ed.) 2009) while the European norm EN-15038 lists research competence, information acquisition and processing and technical competence (European Committee for Standardization 2006). The model developed by the PACTE group includes instrumental sub-competence (PACTE 2011), whereas Dorothy Kelly mentions professional and instrumental skills (Kelly 2005).

On the basis of the above-mentioned models, we can say that "instrumental competence" requires mastering skills in five areas:

- efficient use of CAT (Computer Aided Translation) tools (including "general" and "specialised" translation technologies),
- ability to use the Internet and communication technologies,
- efficient information mining and terminology management skills,
- document production skills,
- ability to use documentation resources.

These skills have become an inherent and inseparable part of the translation profession and those who want to become efficient and professional providers of translation services should acquire them in the course of their education (at both the BA and MA levels) and professional practice, which is what we aim at in the translation training discussed in the further sections hereof.

Modern translation and interpreting industry cannot function properly, offering high quality services, without computers, the Internet and technology. It is generally believed that the Internet and CAT tools facilitate the translation process, make it more efficient and manageable and help translators provide translations of decent quality at a relatively fast pace. Therefore, the competent use of translation technologies has become a prerequisite for anyone wishing to join the translator's profession. CAT tools literacy seems to increase translators' chances to find employment, as more and more translation agencies outsource to translators or project managers under the condition that they are able to use a specific CAT tool.

As demonstrated above, CAT tools, software and Internet resources can be used to develop both the translator's and interpreter's competence. The degree in which CAT tools speed up translation process may depend on various factors, however further research on how the incorporation of CAT tools into translator training influences the development of translator competence would be required.

Moreover, in the era of strong competition nearly in all spheres of business activity, the institutions of higher education offering translation and interpreting training have the competitive

advantage if they provide courses in CAT tools and their translation and interpreting courses rely on the use of ICT. Not only are they attractive for prospective students who nowadays seem to select their higher education more consciously, also paying attention to the facilities that a given university has at its disposal, but they also offer the opportunity to acquire indispensable hands-on skills which are relevant to the market reality. Indeed, the familiarity with CAT tools is at present a translation market requirement, since those tools may accelerate the translation process and make it more efficient in terms of terminological consistency and terminology management. The speed of translating is important since the translation and interpreting service sector – as virtually each business segment – works according to the principle "time is money." That is why we believe that mainstreaming CAT tools and ICT into the translation and interpreting training is very desirable and beneficial. This is also in line with the general idea of business English studies – combining different fields creates new quality. The fact that merging translation and interpreting practice with translation technology practice was a successful step was confirmed by business English students who expressed their satisfaction with such manner of teaching translation and interpreting. This allows us to hope that such approach to the education of translators and interpreters will help them develop multifaceted skills and knowledge and thanks to this they will be able to better respond to the needs of the translation and interpreting sector.

Lesson-10

LANGUAGE AND IDENTITY

Outline:

- **Language and Identity**
  - Introduction

- Social Identity
- Agency, identity and language use
    - Giddens's theory of structuration
    - Bourdieu's notion of habitus
- Research on Language Use and Identity
    - Interactional sociolinguistics
    - Co-construction of identity
- Conclusion

Topic-046: Language and Identity: Introduction

What do we mean by linguistic identity? How you talk, dress, behave is an important way of displaying who you are – indicates your social identity. Identity is something we are constantly building and negotiating all our lives through our interaction with others. Identity is also multifaceted - people switch into different roles at different times in different situations.

On the individual level: where we grew up, went to school, wealthy (or not) your family were, will be displayed through the variety of the language you use. Accent can indicate regional origin, social class and to some extent, the kind of education they had.

Accent as a label of identity: language speakers most frequently change, either to disguise their membership of, or distance themselves from, a particular social group, or to move closer to a group they want to belong to.

Examples:

1) Western cultures: first name (given) and last name= family name (traditionally the father's family name). Some cultures, for example, Russia people are identified as "son of x" or "daughter of y"(patronymics).

2) In Iceland, the patronymic name is used as the family name (f. ex. Hildur Jansdottir or Ragnar Jansson).

3) Names can sometimes carry important meanings for individual identity, for example, Felly Nkweto Simmonds

Once you have a name, how people use it becomes very important. Introductions can be symmetrical = the same type and status or belonging to the same group, for example, 'Jim, this is Alice', or as asymmetrical, for example, 'Jim, this is Dr. Jones'. This choice of names by the person doing the introduction can have an effect on how the rest of the conversation proceeds.

It´s not the name you have, but the way people use it in different contexts. Susan Ervin-Tripp describes a famous triple insult based on the choice of address terms by a white American policeman in addressing a black American doctor: "What's your name, boy?" "Dr Poussaint. I'm a physician." What your first name, boy?" "Alvin."

The way second person pronoun (you) is used in many languages can also be a linguistic indicator of social identity, used to construct social relations of solidarity, intimacy or distance. The words you choose to address people by are important ways of showing how you situate yourself in a relation to others.

People can construct their social identity by categorising themselves (or being categorised by others) as belonging to a social group through particular types of representation. Also how speakers choice of linguistic code plays an important role in establishing their group identity. Sacks (1995) is making the point that social categories, or labels of identity, are frequently imposed on some groups by others, who may be in a more social judgement about them.
Example: A teenage group in America (1960) used the term " hotrodders " to describe themselves, and not teenager because it's a category owned by adults (one way of establishing independence from adults).
Often, language use fits in with other indicators of social identity and group membership, such as style of clothes, types of haircut and taste in music. The process can also work the other way: speakers adopt the speech patterns of a group they do not belong to, but which they see as prestigious , or they aspire to belong to. For example, **Short-term strategy (crossing by Ben Rampton) vs. Long time strategy**
People do not always talk in exactly the same way, and they don't always use the same grammatical forms (for example: you was rather than you were).
Audience design: people are mainly seeking to show solidarity and approval in their dealings with others. One way is through convergence, by changing their patterns of speech to fit more closely with those of the person they happen to be talking to (Giles and Powesland 1975).
In some situations, speakers may choose not to converge, but instead either to maintain their own variety (linguistic maintenance), or move to a more extreme variety of their dialect (linguistic divergence).
The question of group affiliation and identity can determine the choices a speaker makes out how to speak, and for the bilinguals or multilinguals, which language to use.
Language rights and recognition are often important issues in socio-political conflicts all around the world. Maintenance of a minority language within a majority culture (such as Spanish in United States) is often associated with the maintenance of a minority's values and with the continuation of its unique cultural identity.
Loss of a language can also be associated with a loss of cultural identity. Languages can be lost for a variety of reasons. As social conditions change, may be imposed and another suppressed by a dominant power.
To conclude we can say that relationship between language and identity will always involve a complex mix of individual, social and political factors which work to construct people as belonging to a social group, or to exclude them from it.

Topic-047: Social Identity

When we use language, we do so as individuals with social histories. Our histories are defined in part by our membership in a range of social groups into which we are born such as gender, social class, religion and race. For example, we are born as female or male and into a distinct income level that defines us as poor, middle class or well-to-do. Likewise, we may be born as Christians, Jews, Muslims or with some other religious affiliation, and thus take on individual identities ascribed to us by our particular religious association. Even the geographical region in which we

are born provides us with a particular group membership and upon our birth we assume specific identities, for example, Italian, Chinese, Canadian, or South African, and so on. Within national boundaries, we are defined by membership in regional groups, and we take on identities, for example, northerners or southerners.

In addition to the assorted group memberships we acquire by virtue of our birth, we appropriate a second layer of group memberships developed through our involvement in the various activities of the social institutions that comprise our communities, such as school, church, family and the workplace. These institutions give shape to the kinds of groups to which we have access and to the role-relationships we can establish with others. When we approach activities associated with the family, for example, we take on roles as parents, children, siblings or cousins and through these roles fashion particular relationships with others such as mother and daughter, brother and sister, and husband and wife. Likewise, in our workplace, we assume roles as supervisors, managers, subordinates or colleagues. These roles afford us access to particular activities and to particular role-defined relationships. As company executives, for example, we have access to and can participate in board meetings, business deals and job interviews that are closed to other company employees, and thus are able to establish role relationships that are unique to these positions.

Our various group memberships, along with the values, beliefs and attitudes associated with them, are significant to the development of our social identities in that they define in part the kinds of communicative activities and the particular linguistic resources for realizing them to which we have access. That is to say, as with the linguistic resources we use in our activities, our various social identities are not simply labels that we fill with our own intentions. Rather, they embody particular histories that have been developed over time by other group members enacting similar roles. In their histories of enactments, these identities become associated with particular sets of linguistic actions for realizing the activities, and with attitudes and beliefs about them.

The sociocultural activities constituting the public world of a white male born into a working-class family in a rural area in northeastern United States, for example, will present different opportunities for group identification and language use from those constituting the community of a white male born into an affluent family residing in the same geographical region. Likewise, the kinds of identity enactments afforded to middle-class women in one region of the world, for example, China, will be quite different from those available to women of a similar socioeconomic class in other geographical regions of the world such as Italy or Russia (Cameron, 2005).

The historically grounded, socially constituted knowledge, skills, beliefs and attitudes comprising our various social identities – predisposing us to act, think and feel in particular ways and to perceive the involvement of others in certain ways – constitute what social theorist Pierre Bourdieu calls our habitus (Bourdieu, 1977). We approach our activities with the perceptions and evaluations we have come to associate with both our ascribed and appropriated social identities and those of our interlocutors, and we use them to make sense of each other's involvement in our

encounters. That is to say, when we come together in a communicative event we perceive ourselves and others in the manner in which we have been socialised. We carry expectations, built up over time through socialisation into our own social groups, about what we can and cannot do as members of our various groups. We hold similar expectations about what others are likely to do and not do as members of their particular groups. The linguistic resources we use to communicate, and our interpretations of those used by others, are shaped by these mutually held perceptions. In short, who we are, who we think others are, and who others think we are, mediate in important ways our individual uses and evaluations of our linguistic actions in any communicative encounter.

Topic-048: Agency, Identity and Language Use

While our social identities and roles are to a great extent shaped by the groups and communities to which we belong, we as individual agents also play a role in shaping them. However, unlike the more traditional 'linguistics applied' view, which views agency as an inherent motivation of individuals, a sociocultural perspective views it as the 'socioculturally mediated capacity to act' (Ahearn, 2001: 112), and thus locates it in the discursive spaces between individual users and the conditions of the moment. In our use of language we represent a particular identity at the same time that we construct it. The degree of individual effort we can exert in shaping our identities, however, is not always equal. Rather, it is 'an aspect of the action' (Altieri, 1994: 4) negotiable in and arising from specific social and cultural circumstances constituting local contexts of action.

From this perspective, individual identity is always in production, an outcome of agentive moves rather than a given. When we enter a communicative event, we do so as individuals with particular constellations of historically laden social identities. While these social identities influence our linguistic actions, they do not determine them. Rather, they predispose us to participate in our activities and perceive the involvement of others in certain ways. At any communicative moment there exists the possibility of taking up a unique stance towards our own identity and those of others, and of using language in unexpected ways towards unexpected goals.

As with the meanings of our linguistic actions, however, how linguistically pliable our identities are depends to a large extent on the historical and sociopolitical forces embodied in them. Thus, while we have some choice in the ways we choose to create ourselves, our every action takes place within a social context, and thus can never be understood apart from it. Therefore individual agency is neither inherent in nor separate from individual action. Rather 'it exists through routinized action that includes the material (and physical) conditions as well as the social actors' experience in using their bodies while moving through a familiar space' (Duranti, 1997: 45).

Giddens's theory of structuration

While current conceptualisations of agency and language use in applied linguistics draw from several sources, one of the more significant is Anthony Giddens's (1984) theory of structuration. According to Giddens, individual agency is a semiotic activity, a social construction, 'something

that has to be routinely created and sustained in the refl exive activities of the individual' (Giddens, 1991: 52). In our locally occasioned social actions, we, as individual agents, shape and at the same time are given shape by what Giddens refers to as social structures – conventionalised, established ways of doing things. In our actions we draw on these structures and in so doing recreate them and ourselves as social actors. Our social structures do not, indeed cannot, exist outside action but rather can only exist in their continued reproduction across time and space. Their repeated use in recurring social practices, in turn, leads to the development of larger social systems, 'patterns of relations in groupings of all kinds, from small, intimate groups, to social networks, to large organizations' (ibid.). The mutually constituted act of 'going on' in the contexts of our everyday experiences – the process of creating and being created by our social structures – is what Giddens refers to as the process of structuration.

While Giddens is not particularly concerned with identity and language use per se, his ideas are useful in that, by locating individual action in the mutually constituted, continual production of our everyday lives – the dialogue (Bakhtin, 1986) between structure and action – Giddens's social theory provides us with a framework for understanding the inextricable link between human agency and social institutions.

Bourdieu's notion of habitus

Also influential to current understandings is the notion of habitus, as popularized by social theorist Pierre Bourdieu. According to Bourdieu (1977, 2000), habitus is a set of bodily dispositions acquired through extended engagement in our everyday activities that dispose us to act in certain ways. We bring them with us to our social experiences, and are inclined to make sense of our experiences, and coordinate our actions with others in particular ways. It is through our lived experiences as individual actors that our habitus is continually being reconstituted.

For both Giddens and Bourdieu, individual identity is not a precondition of social action but rather arises from it. Moreover, in the recursive process of identity production, individuals are constituted 'neither free agents nor completely socially determined products' (Ahearn, 2000: 120). How free or constrained we are by our habitus depends on 'the historically and socially situated conditions of its production' (Bourdieu, 1977: 95). The empirical concern is then to identify the actions that individual actors take in their lived experiences that lead, on the one hand, to the reproduction of their larger social worlds and, on the other, to their transformation.

Topic-049: Research on Language Use And Identity

Interactional sociolinguistics

One approach to the study of language use and identity that has had great impact on much research in applied linguistics is interactional sociolinguistics (IS), an approach that, to a large extent, is based on the work of linguistic anthropologist John Gumperz (1981, 1982a, 1982b). At the heart of IS is the notion of contextualisation cues. Gumperz (1999: 461) defines these cues as any verbal sign which when processed in co-occurrence with symbolic grammatical and lexical signs serves to construct the contextual ground for situated interpretations, and thereby affects how constituent messages are understood.

The cues encompass various forms of speech production including the lexical, syntactic, pragmatic and paralinguistic. They also include turn-taking patterns, and even the language code itself. The cues provide individual interlocutors with recognisable markers for signalling and interpreting contextual presuppositions. Such signals, in turn, allow for the mutual adjustment of perspectives as the communicative event unfolds.

This approach to the study of language use assumes that individuals enter into communicative activities with others as cooperative agents, that is, as individuals interested in working towards a common end. The specific analytic focus is on the particular cues these individuals use to index or signal an aspect of the situational context in which the sign is being used. Any misuse or misinterpretation of cues is assumed to be due to a lack of shared knowledge of cue meanings.

Early studies investigated intercultural and interethnic communicative events, with the aim of uncovering differences in use of cues to signal and interpret meaning and revealing the subtle but signifi cant communicative outcomes resulting from these differences. Gumperz (1982b), for example, examined the misunderstanding resulting from the particular use of cues by a Filipino English-speaking doctor while being interrogated by FBI agents. While the cues the doctor used were familiar to Filipino English speakers, they were not familiar to the American English-speaking FBI agents. Thus, Gumperz argued, the use of the cues by the doctor led to the agents' misreading of his motives. Similarly, in their study of counselling sessions at two community advice centres in the UK, Gumperz and Roberts (1991) found that differences in cue use between British and Punjabi participants in intercultural counselling sessions led to misunderstandings and ultimately negative evaluations of the Punjabi participants. As a final example, Erickson and Shultz (1982) looked at how differences in the rhythmic organisation of discourse, including, for example, the timing of turns, between counsellors and individual students in advising interviews affected the counsellors' evaluation of the students' abilities.

As noted earlier, a basic assumption of much of this early research is that participants are mutually interested in the successful accomplishment of the interaction and that their success is basically a matter of shared understandings on the use of cues. Thus, any miscommunication occurring in interactions is explainable in terms of differences in this knowledge. Several critiques, however, point to the overly simplistic view on communication embedded in this assumption.

Kandiah (1991), for example, noted that such a view could not account fully for those cases of miscommunication between participants who share knowledge of the use and interpretation of cues. Nor could it account for those interactions occurring between participants who do not share cue knowledge but do not break down. He argued that something other than shared knowledge of cues must account for these kinds of communicative interactions. To make his case, Kandiah examined a job interview from the film Crosstalk, developed by Gumperz and his colleagues (1979) to illustrate difficulties in cross-cultural communication. In the fi lm, communication difficulties arising between an English interviewer and the interviewee, an Indian immigrant to England, were attributed to differences in the individuals' communicative styles. One difference, for example, was found in the individuals' use of prosodic cues used to draw attention to

particular bits of information in their presentation of the information. Kandiah argued that attributing the difficulties to a lack of shared knowledge ignores several crucial factors such as the length of time and experience the interviewee had, had in the country before the interview and thus is inadequate for explaining the miscommunication. Instead, there are other possible explanations not accounted for in an analysis of cue use, such as each participant's degree of willingness to accommodate to the other. For example, individuals can knowingly use different cues or misunderstand those used by others to create a lack of shared knowledge and thereby distance themselves from each other. Kandiah further contended that research on intercultural communication needed to do more than simply mention these matters; it is, he stated, 'necessary to draw out with care and sophistication the highly complex issues they involve and to examine their close and integral interaction with the communicative behavior under investigation' (Kandiah, 1991: 371). Kandiah concluded that by focusing only on differences in cue use to explain troubles in interaction, interactional sociolinguistics runs the risk of divert[ing] attention away from the real, underlying issues that often render communicative exchanges at these points of contact unsuccessful in a fundamental sense to surface issues . . . the diversion of attention from the real issues has the unwelcome effect of legitimizing the behavior that is so destructive of real communicative interaction. (ibid.: 372)

Shea's (1994) study is a compelling example of how lack of interactional cooperation rather than lack of shared knowledge can lead to communication difficulties. Shea examined the interactions occurring in two advising sessions in which a non-native English-speaking student requested a letter of recommendation from two native English-speaking academic advisers. With one, his request was successful; with the other it was not. Shea argued that the different outcomes resulted not from a difference in shared knowledge of contextualisation cue use between the advisers and the student, but rather from the advisers' use of different structuring strategies. In the successful session, the adviser attempted to move past communicative difficulties with the student to construct a shared understanding of what the student was requesting by using affiliating strategies like amplification, requests for clarification and agreement markers. In the unsuccessful interaction, the adviser treated the different cues as obstacles to achieving understanding, using distancing strategies such as interruptions, and exclusions to control the interaction and thereby position the student as 'a disfluent, inappropriate outsider' (Shea, 1994: 25). The different strategies used by the advisers, Shea argued, are rooted not in communicative styles, but in ideological orientations towards the non-native speaker of English. Roberts and her colleagues (Roberts et al., 1992; Roberts and Sarangi, 1999; Roberts and Sayers, 1998) have made similar arguments about ideological influences on judgements about cue use in intercultural interactions.

A related criticism has to do with the view of culture embodied in many of the earlier studies in IS. It is argued that by focusing only on cultural cue use, the studies treat individuals as cultural dupes who reside in well-defined cultural worlds separated by immutable, clear boundaries, and within which they are compelled to act in particular ways. Sarangi (1994: 414) notes the analytic burden of such a view: If we define, prior to analysis, an intercultural context in terms of cultural

attributes of the participants, then it is very likely that any miscommunication which takes place in the discourse is identifi ed and subsequently explained on the basis of 'cultural differences'. Locating communication difficulties in cultural norms then ascribes a deterministic role to culture, and thus renders invisible the role of individual agency in shaping social action. Alongside this deterministic view of culture is the assumption of culture as a one-dimensional, stable, homogeneous and consensual entity, with easily identifiable markers, and whose members share equally in the knowledge of and ability to use its norms. Such a view, it is argued, renders invisible the varied lived experiences of individuals within groups. We can only see in our analyses how culture is reflected in communicative encounters. What we cannot see is how it can also be a 'site of social struggle or producer of social relations' (Pratt, 1987: 56). These criticisms notwithstanding, most agree that IS approaches to the study of language use have made significant contributions to a sociocultural perspective on human action. The concept of contextualisation cues, for example, draws our attention to detailed ways in which language use is tied to individual identities and provides a window into the microprocesses by which such cues are used in the accomplishment of communicative events.

Relatedly, in focusing on the moment-to-moment unfolding of interaction, this approach draws our attention to the reflexive nature of context. Context is not a prior condition of interaction, but it is something that is 'both brought along and brought about in a situated encounter' (Sarangi and Roberts, 1999: 30; emphasis in the original).

Co-construction of identity

Drawing on the strengths of interactional sociolinguistics and incorporating insights from such social theorists as Bourdieu (1977, 1980, 2000), Giddens (1984, 1991) and others (e.g. Butler, 2006; de Certeau, 1984; Foucault, 1972; Weedon, 1999), current research on language, culture and identity is concerned with the ways in which individuals use language to co-construct their everyday worlds and, in particular, their own social roles and identities and those of others. The studies assume that identity is multiple and varied, individual representations of which embody particular social histories that are built up through and continually recreated in one's everyday experiences (Bucholtz and Hall, 2005). Moreover, it is acknowledged that individuals belong to varied groups and so take on a variety of identities defi ned by their memberships in these groups. These identities, however, are not fixed but rather are 'multifaceted in complex and contradictory ways; tied to social practice and interaction as fl exible and contextually contingent resources; and tied to processes of differentiation from other identifi ed groups' (Miller, 2000: 72). These studies often draw on a variety of data sources such as fi eld notes, interviews, written documents and observations in the analysis in addition to taped versions of naturally occurring talk to uncover more macro patterns, including institutional and other ideologies, exerting infl uence on the processes of identity construction.

One particularly productive area of focus has been on identity construction of second language learners. One early infl uential study is that by Norton (Norton, 2000; Pierce, 1995) on immigrant women learning English in Canada. Using data sources such as personal diaries and interviews, Norton illustrates how these women's identities were differentially constructed in

their interactions with others in and out of the classroom. She argues that these different constructions had a signifi cant infl uence on the women's interest in language learning, making some more willing than others to invest the time and effort needed to learn English.

Another study (Roberts and Sarangi, 1995) takes a more micro-analytic perspective, examining how learner identities are differentially constructed in the interactional strategies employed by teachers in their interactions with the learners. As one example, Roberts and Sarangi examined a teacher's use of 'hyper-questioning' in her interactions with students she perceived to be problematic. Hyper-questioning is repeated questioning within a turn, leaving no opportunity for student response, and an intense rate of questioning across turns. They showed how the teacher's repeated use of this interactional strategy served to create increasingly disengaged learners. Such strategies, they argued, 'appear to disrupt learning not in any creative way but by contribution to the formation of social conditions which are a barrier to learning (p. 373). Similar fi ndings emerged from the study by McKay and Wong (1996), in which they examined the identity construction of four Mandarin-speaking adolescents in the contexts of their schools. Their specifi c focus was on documenting the many ways in which the learners attempted to negotiate the shaping of their identities as English language learners and users, and the consequences of their attempts relative to the development of their academic skills in English. They concluded that learners' historically specifi c needs, desires, and negotiations are not simply distractions from the proper task of language learning or accidental deviations from a 'pure' or 'ideal' language learning situation. Rather, they must be regarded as constituting the very fabric of students' lives and as determining their investment in learning the target language. (McKay and Wong, 1996: 603)

In a more recent study, Nguyen and Kellogg (2005) investigated the postings of a group of adult L2 learners of English to an electronic bulletin board and found that the course topics infl uenced the kinds of identities the learners constructed in their postings and ultimately, the kinds of social relationships they developed among themselves. Those learners whose postings highlighted their personal, negative feelings and experiences on the assigned topics were found to participate less frequently in the online discussions, and this limited not only their language learning opportunities but also their opportunities to develop social relationships with their peers.

In terms of teacher–student relationships, a study by Richards (2006) shows how even slight changes to interactions between teachers and students can afford opportunities for classroom members to construct other identities and role relationships in addition to institutional identities as teachers and students. One example provided by Richards shows how a discussion about the meaning of an English idiom provided multiple opportunities for a teacher and her group of Japanese learners of English to create informal, interpersonal relationships among themselves that differed quite substantially from the standard teacher–student relationship.

Also garnering a great deal of research attention is the examination of professional, social and personal identity construction in other institutional settings such as the workplace. In such settings, individuals have been shown to construct and manage a number of different aspects of their professional and social roles and role relationships. As one example, Holmes (2005)

examined workplace narratives and, specifi cally, the linguistic and interactional resources used by individuals to negotiate aspects of their professional and personal identities in the stories they told each other.

Other studies have been concerned with the interactional construction of professional competence or expertise in health care and other institutional settings. Candlin (2002), for example, compared interactions between two nurses, one trained and one untrained, and a patient and found that the more expert nurse used specific strategies such as topic expansion to gather enough pertinent information from the patient so that health advice could be given. The untrained nurse, in contrast, exerted more control over the topic and thus limited opportunities to gather useful information. Also taking place in a health care setting, a study by Sarangi and Clarke (2002) examined the complex interactional strategies used by a counselor in a genetic counselling session to negotiate the delicate balance between meeting the client's desire for a defi nitive risk assessment in an area defi ned by uncertainty while maintaining the counsellor's authority as expert adviser and, at the same time, her nondirective stance towards the advicegiving. Together, these and other studies exemplify in compelling ways the dynamic, contingent and co-constructed character of a range of identities including culture and ethnicity (e.g. Bucholtz, 2004; Day, 1998; Kiesling, 2005), educational identities (e.g. Dagenais et al., 2006; Higgins, 2009), gender (e.g. Huffaker and Calvert, 2005; Ford, 2008), geographical identity (e.g. Johnstone, 1999, 2007; Waugh, 2010), non-native-speaking status (e.g. Wong, 2000a, 2000b; Park, 2007), professional roles and role relationships (e.g. Campbell and Roberts, 2007; Clarke, 2008; Cotter and Marschall, 2006), interpersonal associations such as friendship (e.g. Goodwin, 2006; Kyratzis, 2004), and other more locally contingent identities such as by standers and law-breakers (e.g. Smith, 2010; Woolard, 2007).

A related, and growing, focus of attention in research on language use and identity is on the creative formation of hybrid social identities through speech stylization and language crossing. This emerging focus is due in part to the rise in global migration, which has brought individuals and groups from different homelands into sustained contact with each other. As defined by Rampton (2009: 149), stylisation involves 'reflexive communicative action in which speakers produce specially marked and often exaggerated representations of languages, dialects, and styles that lie outside their own habitual repertoire. . . . Crossing . . . involves a stronger sense of social or ethnic boundary transgression'.

Rampton's (2005) study is a compelling example of these phenomena. His central concern was with the ways in which youths from mixed-race peer groups in Britain used language to construct hybrid identities. The groups were ethnically mixed, and included not only Anglos but also youths from Caribbean, Indian and Pakistani descent. Using observations and interviews in addition to audio-tapes as his primary sources of data, Rampton found that the youngsters often used the languages associated with each other's ethnic and racial identities in creative, unexpected ways. For example, Afro-Caribbean youths often made use of Punjabi in their interactions with others. Rampton calls such uses 'crossing' and found that they occurred most often when individuals wanted to mark their stances towards particular social relationships.

Asian adolescents, for example, often used stylised Asian English with teachers in their schools to feign a minimal level of English language competence and thus playfully resist teacher attempts to involve them in class activities. The youths also 'crossed' when playing games with their peers, or when they interacted with members of the opposite sex.

Chun (2001) revealed similar language stylizations and crossings in her analysis of Korean American discourse. Specifically, she found that in a discussion among young adult Korean Americans, one frequently incorporated lexical elements of African American English (AAE) into his otherwise mainstream American English speech. Chun argues that through his use of AAE, and his interlocutors' appreciative responses, the young men projected a male identity for themselves that challenged the dominant view of Korean American men as 'passive, feminine, and desirous of whiteness' (p. 61). Findings from these and other such studies (e.g. Auer, 2007; Rajadurai, 2007; Stroud and Wee, 2007; Tetreault, 2009), make visible the multiple, permeable, hybrid and contextualised nature of identity, and thereby 'subvert essentialist preconceptions of linguistic ownership' (Bucholtz and Hall, 2005: 588).

Topic-050: Conclusion

A sociocultural perspective on identity and language use is based on several key premises. One of the more significant premises replaces the traditional understanding of language users as unitary, unique and internally motivated individuals with a view of language users as social actors whose identities are multiple, varied and emergent from their everyday lived experiences. Through involvement in their socioculturally significant activities, individuals take on or inhabit particular social identities, and use their understandings of their social roles and relationships to others to mediate their involvement and the involvement of others in their practices. These identities are not stable or held constant across contexts, but rather are emergent, locally situated and at the same time historically constituted, and thus are 'precarious, contradictory and in process, constantly being reconstituted in discourse each time we think or speak' (Weedon, 1997: 32).

In the contexts of our experience we use language not as solitary, isolated individuals giving voice to personal intentions. Rather, we 'take up a position in a social fi eld in which all positions are moving and defined relative to one another' (Hanks, 1996: 201). Social action becomes a site of dialogue, in some cases of consensus, in others of struggle where, in choosing among the various linguistic resources available (and not so available) to us in our roles, we attempt to mould them for our own purposes, and thereby become authors of those moments.

Finally, this view recognises that culture does not exist apart from language or apart from us, as language users. It sees culture, instead, as reflexive, made and remade in our language games, our lived experiences, and 'exist[ing] through routinized action that includes the material (and physical) conditions as well as the social actors' experience in using their bodies while moving through a familiar space' (Duranti, 1997: 45). On this view, no use of language, no individual language user, is considered to be 'culture-free'. Rather, in our every communicative encounter we are always at the same time carriers and agents of culture.

Such a view of language, culture and identity leads to concerns with articulating 'the relationship between the structures of society and culture on the one hand and the nature of human action on the other' (Ortner, 1989: 11); a central focus of research becomes the identification of ways we as individuals use the cues available to us in our communicative encounters in the (re)constitution of our social identities and those of others.

Lesson-11

LANGUAGE, THOUGHT AND CULTURE

Outline:

- **Language, Thought and Culture**
  - Introduction
  - Linguistic Relativity
  - Rethinking linguistic relativity

- Linguistic Relativity, or How Speakers of Different Languages Think Differently When Speaking
- Language Relativity in Applied Linguistic Research
- Language Relativity in Educational Practice

Topic-051: Language, Thought and Culture: Introduction

Language is both unique and autonomous

- There are similarities between language and other phenomena rather than the differences.
- There are close connection between phenomena rather than their independence.
- Many of the properties of language are also properties of culture in general.

To avoid confusion we must start with some matter of terminology:

Culture is something that everybody has. The term used differently by different anthropologists , but it always refers to some characteristics shared by a community, especially those which can be distinguished from other communities. So it refers to all that human beings learn to do, to use, to produce, to know, and to believe as they grow to maturity and live out their lives in the social groups to which they belong.

Ward Goodenough takes culture as socially acquired knowledge:

"…a society's culture consist of whatever it is one has to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members…culture, being what people have to learn as distinct from their biological heritage, must consist of the end-product of learning: knowledge, in a most general … sense of term."

- If culture is knowledge, it can exist only inside people's heads so there is a problem in studying it!
- The solutions are much the same whether one is interested in culture or language.

Methods used in both cultural anthropology and linguistics:

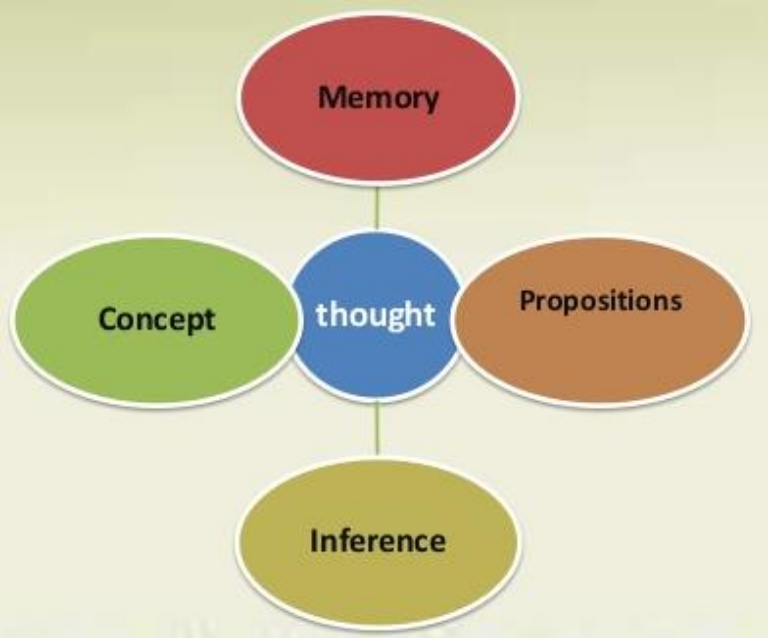
Firstly, we can observe people's natural behavior and draw our conclusion about the knowledge that must underlie it.

Secondly, we can arrange interviews & ask people more or less direct questions about their knowledge, taking their answers with a pinch of salt if need be.

Thirdly, we can use ourselves as informants.

Fourthly, we can conduct psychological experiments of one kind or another, such as measuring the length of time; it take people to perform certain tasks in order to develop a measure of the relative complexity of the knowledge involved.

Thought covers a number of different types of mental activity, and lies in the province of cognitive psychology.



Memory is the process in which information is encoded, stored)

Inference is a mental process by which we reach a conclusion based on specific evidence.

Propositions may be either remembered (already stored in memory) or inferred (worked out) it may be either something we know or something we discover add to our memory so that next time it will be there as knowledge.

Concepts may either exist in our memory as a category used in thinking, or may be created as a new category which could then be stored away in memory. as general categories in term of which propositions are formulated and experience is processed.

What is the relation between thought & culture?

Culture, if defined as socially acquired knowledge, it can be taken as one part of memory, namely the part which is acquired socially; it can be distinguished from propositions which are known to be true from one's own experience and those which have been learned from other people.

Non culture concept is one which we build without reference to other people, as a convenient way of interpreting our experience.

Kinds of knowledge

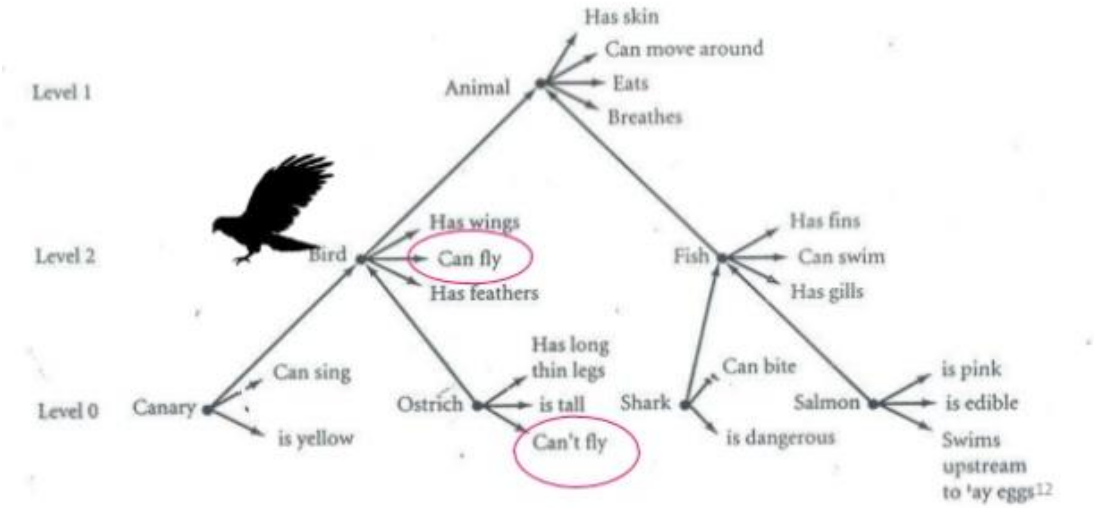
Cultural knowledge is learned from other people.

Shared non-cultural knowledge is shared by people within the same community or the world over, but is not learned from each other.

Non-shared non-cultural knowledge is unique to the individual.

The classical theory of **concept** is that each one consists of a set of features (criterial features) which are necessary and sufficient for something to count as an instance of that concept. (For example, see the diagram on the concept of 'bird.)

"What kind of bird are you, if you cannot fly", said the little bird to the duck. "What kind of bird are you, if you cannot swim", said the duck and dived. (Prokofiér, *Peter und der Wolf*)



The most promising approach is based on the work of psychologist Eleanor Rosch, who showed that at least some concepts are organized around clear cases or prototypes.

The first attraction of the prototype theory is that it is not too hard to understand how people can learn such concepts from each other.

Second attraction is that it allows for the kind of creative flexibility in the application of concepts which we find in real life (it predicts that the boundaries of concepts will be fuzzy as they in fact are), as: (fruit & vegetable).

The third attraction is the possibility of using the theory in explaining how people categorize the social variable to which they relate language- variable such as the kind of person who is speaking & circumstances in which they are doing so.

Thus, culture can be taken as the kind of knowledge which we learn from other people, either by direct instruction or by watching their behavior, since we learn our culture from those around us. We may assume that we share it with them; so this kind of knowledge is likely to play a major role when we communicate with them & in particular when we use language.

The same will be true for any knowledge that we share with other people, regardless whether we learned it from them or not. Our knowledge consists of a vast network of concepts interrelated by propositions.

Topic-052: Linguistic Relativity

First discussed by Sapir in 1929, the he hypothesis of linguistic relativity became popular in the 1950s following posthumous publication of Whorf's writings on the subject. Linguistics

relativity was developed by Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf, also known as the Sapir-Whorf.

The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis can be explained in the following points:

- Every single language is structurally unique.
- Linguistic relativity opens the window to the realization that all languages do not translate to each other.
- Language has a strong relationship with thought. Language and thought are affecting each other.

Language is not only to determine the pattern of culture, but also determine the manner and the way the human mind thinks. A nation, whose language is different from other nations, will have a unique cultural style and way of thinking.

The languages we speak influence the way we think. • Language simply reflects our thoughts. For example, racist terms exist because people have racist attitudes. • The Sapir Wharf Hypothesis very transparently presents a view of reality being expressed in language and thus forming in thought. • The question is still debatable: thought then language or language then thought?

One language cannot be translated to other languages. For example, the Punjabi word “joot.” This word in its most literal translation to English means the “unclean,” “not pure,” or “with-germs” (as in half eaten food). • No matter how many definitions one tries to convey the exact meaning of the word, “joot” cannot be translated in its full meaning. • This brings to mind that notion that language is relative, thus the same word can have different meanings for different people and these subjective meanings let rise varying cognitions.

In order to speak any language, you have to pay attention to the meanings that are grammatically marked in that language. For example, in English, it is necessary to mark the verb to indicate the time of occurrence of an event you are speaking about: It's raining; It rained; and so forth. Every language is unique. If you regularly speak a language in which you must pick a form of second-person address (you) that marks your social relationship to your interlocutor. Such as Spanish ‘tu’ ('you' for friends and family and for those socially subordinate), ‘usted’ ('you' for those socially above in status or for those with whom you have no close connection).

Some language teaching theorists have recognized that learning a language means not just learning the language but also the way of life that goes with it. The implementation of linguistics relativity in language class is mostly needed in translation class.

Learning and translating a foreign language into a mother tongue or the other way would prove to be problematic, or virtually impossible, as students would need to completely alter their thought processes. Pinker (2007) states that the ability to learn languages of other cultures is associated with the understanding of words and grammatical problems and not to different ways of thinking.

To conclude, we can say that we cannot think without language; language affects perception; and language affects patterns of thinking.

Topic-053: Re-Thinking Linguistic Relativity

Since the late eighties, the notion of linguistic relativity has re-appeared in various, more sophisticated forms. In a recent state-of-the-art article on "Language and worldview" (1992), anthropologists Jane Hill and Bruce Mannheim argue that the hypothesis was never a hypothesis, but an axiom that was formulated at the time against "a naive and racist universalism in grammar, and an equally vulgar evolutionism in anthropology and history" (1992, p. 384). The resurgence of the concept in applied linguistics is due to a variety of developments in several related fields in the last 30 years. The first two come from work done in the twenties and thirties by Vygotsky and Bakhtin in the then Soviet Union. Vygotsky's work, translated in the west in 1962 and 1978, became particularly influential in applied linguistics through the neo-Vygotskyian research of psychologist James Wertsch (1985) and linguist James Lantolf (2000). It has foregrounded the role of the sociocultural in translated in the west in the early eighties (1981, 1986), became influential in all areas of western intellectual life through the work of American literary scholars Michael Holquist (1990) and Gary Morson and Caryl Emerson (1990). Bakhtin's thought has ushered in a period of postmodernism that questions the stable truths on which modern rationalism is based and gives a new meaning to the notion of linguistic relativity within a dialogic perspective.

The other developments come from the emergence of new fields within the established disciplines of the social sciences. Innovative research in cognitive semantics (Lakoff, 1987, Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), cross-cultural semantics (Wierzbicka, 1992), cognitive linguistics (Slobin, 1996; Levinson, 1997; Turner, 1996; Fauconnier, 1985), and gesture and thought (McNeill, 1992) has provided new insights into the relation of language and thought. The social psychological study of talk and interaction as it is explored through discourse and conversation analysis (see Jaworski & Coupland, 1999; Moerman, 1988), discursive psychology (see Edwards & Potter, 1992), cultural psychology (Stigler, Shweder, & Herdt, 1990), and language socialization research (Schieffelin and Ochs, 1986; Jacoby & Ochs, 1995) has opened up new ways of relating thought and action. Advances in linguistic anthropology (e.g., Silverstein, 1976: Gumperz, 1982a and b; Friedrich, 1986; Hanks, 1996; Hymes, 1996; Becker, 2000) have placed discourse at the core of the nexus of language, thought, and culture. Finally, there is a growing body of research on bi- and multilingualism that counteracts the monolingual bias prevalent until now in applied linguistics (e.g., Romaine, 1995: Cook, 2000; Pavlenko, in press).

This research is enabling us to consider the conceptual and cultural make-up of people who use more than one language in their daily lives (Pavlenko, 1999).

Topic-054: Linguistic Relativity, or How Speakers of Different Languages Think Differently When Speaking

The linguistic relativity hypothesis has recently been revisited in a different form on the typological/grammatical and on the lexical/semantic levels.

The grammatical level has been investigated recently by Dan Slobin and his associates in a large-scale cross-cultural project in cognitive linguistics (Berman & Slobin, 1994; Slobin, 1996, 2000). Slobin builds on Boas' insight that "in each language, only a part of the complete concept that we have in mind is expressed," and that "each language has a peculiar tendency to select this or that aspect of the mental image which is conveyed by the expression of the thought" (Boas [1911] 1966, pp. 38–9). But he replaces Sapir/Whorf's static nominal phrase "thought-and-language," with the more dynamic phrase "thinking-for-speaking." We cannot prove, he notes, that language and thought are co-extensive, nor that language determines our worldview, but we can show that, in order to speak at all, speakers have to attend to those dimensions of experience that are enshrined in the grammatical categories of the language they speak. In order to utter the English sentence "The man is sick," a Siouan would have to indicate grammatically whether the man is moving or at rest, a Kwakiutl speaker would have to specify whether the man is visible or non-visible to the speaker, a Spanish speaker would need to know whether the man is temporarily or chronically sick (Slobin, 1996, p. 71). Slobin compares the stories told by children 3–11 years of age in different countries about the same sequence of 24 pictures without words, *Frog where are you?* He focuses on expressions of temporal and spatial orientation in the narrations of speakers of English, German, Spanish, Hebrew, and Turkish. (2000, p. 111). His findings reveal, for all age groups, "a different online organization of the flow of information and attention to the particular details that receive linguistic expression" (p. 78).
Here are examples from three of the pictures:
Picture 1: A boy climbs a tree to look in a hole while a dog stands next to a beehive.
Picture 2: An owl flies out of the tree and knocks the boy down, and the dog is pursued by the bees.
Picture 3: A deer takes the boy on his antlers and throws him into the river.

To encode temporal relations in the first two pictures and their sequel, both English and Spanish speakers have a perfective aspect to express a punctual, completed event in the past ("the owl flew away"), but English speakers only have a gerund to express a non-punctual, durative event ("the wasps were chasing him"), whereas Spanish speakers have both an imperfective aspect (*le perseguian al perro las avispas* 'the dog was being chased by the wasps') and a gerundive expression (*el perro salio corriendo* 'the dog came out running') to encode that same event.

To encode spatial relations, English speakers tend to express the path taken by a motion in space through particles and prepositions added to one singlethrew him over the cliff into a pond." Speakers of German do the same, e.g., *Der Hirsch nahm den Jungen auf sein Geweih und schmiB ihn den Abhang hinunter genau ins Wasser* 'The deer took the boy on his antlers and hurled him down from the cliff right into the water'. By contrast, Spanish speakers tend to express directionality through syntactic constructions like relative clauses, as in *El ciervo le llevo hasta un sitio, donde debajo habia un rio* 'the deer took him until a place, where below there was a river', or a combination of several verbs: *el pajaro salio del agujero del arbol volando hacia*

abajo 'the bird exited of the hole of the tree, flying towards below' (Slobin, 2000, p. 112). Slobin calls languages like English, German, or Dutch, satellite-framed languages (or S-languages), because motion path is given by a satellite to the verb – in English, a verb particle – while manner is bundled up with the verb. For example: English *an owl flew out of the hole in the tree*, German *da kam ne Eule rausgeflattert*, Dutch *dan springt er een uil uit het gat*. In these examples the particles give the path "out of" – *raus* 'out' – and the main verb depicts manner of motion "fly" – *flattert* 'flaps', s*pringt* 'jump'. By contrast, languages like French, Spanish, or Turkish are verb framed (or V-languages) because motion path is indicated by the main verb in a clause – verbs like 'enter', 'exit', 'cross' (e.g., Fr. *le hibou il sort de son trou* 'the owl exits its hole', Sp. *sale un buho* 'exits an owl'), and manner is expressed by adding an element or phrase to the sentence (Slobin, 2000, p. 112).

What does this tell us about the way these speakers think? Slobin (2000) claims that users of V-languages build mental images of physical scenes with minimal focus on manner of movement, and with rather different conceptualizations of manner when it is in focus. Thus, when they hear or read stories, or newspaper reports, or gossip, they might end up with quite different mental representations than users of S-languages.

These differences are exceptionally difficult to pin down, but the considerable range of evidence examined here is at least suggestive of rather divergent mental worlds of speakers of the two language types. He is careful however, to restrain his claims "to what Sapir called 'the relativity of concepts' at the interface between experience and its expression in language" (Slobin, 2000, p. 133), and not to extend them to all the other thought processes that may occur beyond this interface. And indeed, not all thought is encoded linguistically, and Whorf was the first to admit it. However, as Pavlenko comments, the fact that "speakers of satellite-framed languages represent manner and directed motion as a single conceptual event, while users of verb-framed languages build mental images of physical scenes with minimal focus on the manner of movement" has important consequences for research on the interaction of language and thought in bi-and multilingual individuals (Pavlenko, in press). Research in gestural communication lends support to Slobin's findings. David McNeill, who researches the role of hand gestures as windows to the mind (McNeill, 1992), found clear correlations between the storytelling gestures and the linguistic structures used by speakers of various languages (McNeill & Duncan, 2000), thus supporting Slobin's claim that speakers of V- and Slanguages differ in their conceptualization of motion events. It should be interesting to study the relation of thought and gestures in multilingual speakers.

Topic-055: Discursive Relativity, or How Speakers of Different Discourses (Across Languages or in The Same Language) Have Different Cultural Worldviews

The idea that "verbal discursive practices affect some aspects of thinking either by modulating structural influences or by directly influencing the interpretation of the interactional context" (Lucy, 2000, p. x) underlies much recent research in linguistic anthropology, language socialization studies, and cultural psychology. This kind of research draws not on rationalist

theories of mind, but on theories that account for the interaction of mind, language, and social/cultural action in communicative practices of everyday life. We'll focus here on the work of three linguistic anthropologists who have had a particularly great influence on bringing discursive relativity to the attention of applied linguists. All three could subscribe to Joel Scherzer's remark that "[discourse] is the nexus, the actual and concrete expression of the language-culture-society relationship. It is discourse which creates, recreates, modifies, and fine tunes both culture and language and their intersection" (Scherzer, 1987, p. 296). Parallel to the work of Lakoff and Johnson in cognitive linguistics, and following along the lines of Malinowski and Boas, John Gumperz has shown the importance of contextualization cues to make sense of what is going on in conversation (Gumperz, 1992, p. 231). Contextualization cues are those features of speech that "relate what is said at any one time and in any one place to knowledge acquired through past experience, in order to retrieve thepresuppositions [participants] must rely on to maintain conversational involvement and assess what is intended" (1992, p. 230). Such cues may be phonological (choice of intonation, stress, and pitch), paralinguistic (gestures, facial expressions), or linguistic (choice of code, choice of lexical forms or formulaic expressions). They link what is said to what is thought and to how the world is perceived by the participants. Gumperz gives an example of miscommunication between a graduate student and his informant in an ethnographic survey, due to the inability of the student to pick up the relevant contextualization cues:

The graduate student has been sent to interview a black housewife in a low income, inner city neighborhood. The contact has been made over the phone by someone in the office. The student arrives, rings the bell, and is met by the husband, who opens the door, smiles and steps towards him:

Husband: So y're gonna check out ma ol lady, hah?

Interviewer: Ah no. I only came to get some information. They called from the office.

(Husband, dropping his smile, disappears without a word and calls his wife.)

The student reports that the interview that followed was stiff and quite unsatisfactory. Being black himself, he knew that he had "blown it" by failing to recognize the significance of the husband's speech style in this particular case.

Contextualization cues are part of a larger class of discourse elements called "indexicals" that indirectly refer to, or "index," the personal, social, cultural, and ideological subject position of the speaker and require interpretation on the part of the participants (Gumperz, 1996). Indexicality is a powerful way of researching the intersection of patterns of language use and concomittant patterns of thought and culture. Hanks (1996) gives evidence of the way linguistic structures index both thought processes and social alignments in speech events. His analyses of Mayan communicative practices in Yucatan show how linguistic forms derive their meaning not only from their selection among the many forms provided by the code, but from the way members combine and engage these forms in the course of their social conduct. For example, when Yuum comes to the house of the shaman Don Chabo to get a blessing, the following

dialogue ensues between Yuum, standing outside, and Don Chabo's daughter-in-law Margot, standing inside her kitchen, through the open window:

Yuum: *Is Don Chabo seated?*
Margot: *Go over there. He's drinking. Go over there inside*. (Hanks, 1996, p. 157)

Hanks shows in exquisite detail how each of the indexicals in these two utterances – deictics like *over there*, *you*, *he*, *inside*, *go*, and verbs with indexical value-like *seated* (meaning: 'in session') or *drinking* (meaning: 'having dinner') – refer to the social, economic, gender divisions between Margot's kitchen and her father-in-law's house, to the power relationships between shamans and their clients, and to the whole spatial and temporal organization of social life in Yucatan Mayan communities (1996, pp. 155–66).
Thus, language as communicative practice is tied to a person's position in time, space, social and historical relations, and his/her social and emotional identity. How do children learn language as communicative practice? In a programmatic article titled "Linguistic resources for socializing humanity" (1996), Elinor Ochs examines what it takes to become "a speaker of culture" (see Ochs, 2002). Drawing on her fieldwork on child language socialization in a Samoan village and her extensive research in developmental pragmatics, she found that, through language and other symbolic tools, children and adults construct the culture they live in by publicly signalling the actions they are performing, the stances they are displaying, i.e., their evaluation of their own and others' feelings and beliefs, the social identities they put forward, and the sequence of actions, or activities, in which they are engaged. Language acquisition is, in part, a process of socialization, "a process of assigning situational, i.e., indexical, meaning . . . to particular forms (e.g., interrogative forms, diminutive affixes, raised pitch and the like)" (1996, pp. 410–11; see also Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984). Ochs' work brings together insights from Deacon, Lakoff, Johnson, and Slobin by showing how language, as both symbolic system and communicative practice, is intimately linked to spatial and temporal orientation, to the speakers' subject positioning vis-à-vis these events, and to the actions taken. By focusing on activity, rather than on speaker utterance, as the unit of analysis, Ochs is able to closely connect the linguistic, the cognitive, and the social in children's development.

Topic-056: Language Relativity in Applied Linguistic Research

Research on all three forms of language relativity has been carried out pretty much independently of research on second language acquisition (SLA), which forms a large area of the field called "applied linguistics." The brief survey that follows recapitulates the history of SLA research from the perspective of language relativity. Prior to the emergence of applied linguistics in the late fifties/early sixties, the combination of structural linguistics and behavioral psychology led to contrastive analysis approaches in language acquisition study and to behavioristic methods of language teaching (repetition, habit formation, translation).

The first cognitive revolution in educational psychology brought about by Jerome Bruner and his colleagues in the fifties reinstated the autonomy of the thinking subject (Bruner, Goodnow, & Austin, 1956), at the same time as the linguistic revolution brought about by Noam Chomsky (1957) reinstated the autonomy of the speaking-hearing subject, thus liberating the learner from behavioral conditioning and political manipulation. Both western psychology and linguistics have implicitly adopted the rationalist, Cartesian view that language reflects thought and thought is expressed through language, but also that psychological processes exist independently of language and of the social activities in which language is used.

Through the eighties, SLA research was not interested in linguistic relativity. The classical texts in the field (Ellis, 1986; Spolsky, 1989; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Lightbown & Spada, 1993; V. Cook, 1993) don't even mention the concept. Researchers within the formal linguistic tradition sought to discover universal aspects of second language (L2) acquisition based on the principles of Universal Grammar and its language-specific parameters, or on universally valid psycholinguistic processes of L2 development. Researchers within the functionalist tradition of SLA sought to discover L2-specific rules of communicative competence including the deployment of communicative strategies and the management of conversations in social contexts. Researchers within the pragmatics strand of SLA explored the realization of speech acts across languages.

In neither of these cases was language relativity on the agenda. Although SLA research was concerned with the social context of language learning (see e.g., Ellis, 1987), it viewed the social as a stable, pre-existing fixture, existing outside the individual, not constructed by an individual's psychological and linguistic processes. By relying on the standard (national) native speaker as a benchmark for language acquisition, it seemed to equate, like Herder and von Humboldt, one language with one national community and one national culture. This is particularly noticeable in interlanguage pragmatics (Kasper & Rose, 2001), which investigates the realization of speech acts across "cultures." For researchers in this area of applied linguistics, a speaker of Japanese or Hebrew is seen as a representative of "the" Japanese or Israeli national culture. "Culture" is most of the time essentialized into monolithic national cultures on the model of monolithic standard national languages. Such a synchronic mapping of language onto culture seems unduly deterministic, even though it is explained by its different research tradition. It is also noticeable in the area of contrastive rhetoric, that still influences much of ELT today.

The overwhelming focus of SLA research on the (standard) linguistic aspects of communicative competence and the (universal) cognitive aspects of learning, as well as its inability to deal satisfactorily with social and cultural variation, foreclosed any possibility of taking into consideration semiotic, linguistic, and discursive relativity in language development. What has been missing is a consideration of the historical dimension of the relation of language, thought, and culture – a dimension that sociocultural approaches to SLA have brought back into the equation by taking a historically and socially relativistic perspective on language development. The social and cultural turn in SLA within the last ten years (e.g., Kramsch, 1993; Lantolf, 2000)

has made the language relativity principle more relevant in applied linguistics. It is implicit in recent environmental or ecological theories of SLA (e.g., Larsen-Freeman, 2002; Lemke, 2002; van Lier, 2000), and in the return of a phenomenological tradition of inquiry (Kramsch, 2002a). It can be seen in language socialization research, in sociolinguistic strands of applied linguistics (e.g., Rampton, 1997), and in neo-Whorfian perspectives on bi- and multilingualism.

The seeds are now there to deal with individual, social, and cultural variation within SLA research. Efforts to eschew rigid dichotomies like input vs. output, acquisition vs. learning, and to replace them by more holistic concepts like affordances, collaborative dialogue, or mediated activity leave open the possibility of placing language relativity at the core of language acquisition and use (Lantolf, 2000). So does the recent emphasis on creativity and play in language development (Cook, 2000), ritual and symbolic interaction (Rampton, 2002) and on the conceptual and subjective make up of multilingual speakers and learners (Pavlenko, 1999; Kramsch, forthcoming).

Interest in language relativity can also be found in the increased attention devoted in linguistic anthropology to verbal art, poetic patterning, and the "poetic imagination." All these recent developments focus on the way individual and collective thoughts and sensibilities are co-constructed, shaped, and subverted through language as communicative and representational practice.

From a methodological perspective, the principle of language relativity suggests adopting an ecological/phenomenological approach to research in applied linguistics (Kramsch, 2002b). As such it is both inspirational and risky. Because it enables applied linguists to recapture the early holistic view of language, thought, and culture envisaged by Boas and Sapir, it feels more valid than positivistically oriented research approaches that have to reduce the evidence to what is rationally researchable. On the other hand, it might be much less reliable, if by reliable we mean evidence that can be replicated to support universal claims to truth. However, the research reviewed above shows that it is possible to relate language to thought and culture in ways that adhere to the criteria of sound and rigorous research in the social sciences, especially in cognitive linguistics and linguistic anthropology. Taking into account language relativity will require taking into account phenomena that have remained too long under the radar of applied linguistic research, i.e., cultural knowledge and its reproduction, and "the more chaotic and inchoate sides of language and social life" (Hill & Mannheim, 1992, p. 398). It will require greater use of long-term longitudinal studies, ethnographic methods of data collection, cross-linguistic discourse analyses, and a willingness to draw on social and cultural theories to illuminate the relationship between macroand micro-level phenomena (for an example of a research agenda for the study of bilingualism and thought from a relativistic perspective, see Pavlenko, in press).

Topic-057: Language Relativity in Educational Practice

The critical test of applied linguistics as a research field is, of course, education, in the broadest sense of the bringing about of social and cultural change. Henry Widdowson pointed to this

problem when he wrote: "It is the responsibility of applied linguists to consider the criteria for an educationally relevant approach to language" (1980, p. 86).
But what do we mean by "educationally relevant"?

Jerome Bruner answers:
[Education] is not simply a technical business of well-managed information processing, nor even simply a matter of applying "learning theories" to the classroom or using the results of subject-centered "achievement testing." It is a complex pursuit of fitting a culture to the needs of its members and their ways of knowing to the needs of the culture.

The needs of the culture, as perceived and formulated by teachers, school administrators, and textbook writers and publishers may not be the same as those formulated by researchers, nor is the discourse of all practitioners or of all researchers homogeneous. Culture, in an individual, as in society at large, is plural, changing, and often conflictual. The problem here is the conflict between the desire of the practitioner and the constraints of the institution, e.g., between the culture of teaching and the culture of testing, or between the culture of the students and the culture of native speakers.

The conflict is expressed in three questions that can be raised by the principle of language relativity in educational linguistics.

First, isn't applied linguistic theory itself subjected to the principle of language relativity? The case has been made for the teaching of English around the world that is supported by an applied linguistic theory very often born out of an Anglo-Saxon view of communication and interaction (e.g., Pennycook, 1994; Canagarajah, 1999; and others). Yet such a view is only partially true, for applied linguistic theory is multiple, even though not all theories are equal before the laws of demand and supply on the economic textbook market. Moreover if applied linguistic theory is both universally valid and contingent upon the cultural conditions of its enunciation, so is educational theory.

Second, isn't educational culture inherently inhospitable to the principle of language relativity, since its ultimate goal is to discriminate between educated and non-educated segments of the population through the imposition of the same formal norms to everyone? The reason why (non-relativistic) grammar is taught as a formal system, apart from the fact that it is more easily "testable," is precisely because of a positivistic, information-processing educational culture that imposes its own rationalistic frames on what is acceptable teaching at what level for what age group, and what is not. It is this educational culture that has trained the teachers and the teacher-trainers. Its rationale is to be found in the historical, cultural, political traditions of the institution. It is oftenassociated with noble goals of educational equity, objectivity, fairness, etc. in a mass education system, but this only exacerbates the dilemma. Since the principle of language

relativity acknowledges the presence of both universal and culture-specific forms of knowledge, the question is really: How can an educational system make explicit what is universal and what is cultures pecific in the knowledge it dispenses?

Third, can language relativity be taught directly or can it only be modeled? This is the key question. Suggestions have been made to make teachers and students aware of the relevance of the linguistic relativity principle in its Vygotskyan, diachronic form, both with regard to their L1 and the L2 (Kramsch, 1993, 1998). Teachers can show their students, for example, how the English grammar encourages its speakers to attend to reality in a certain way when they speak. They can explain the multiple ways in which "culture" is constructed through language, and how else it could be constructed through that same language. They can make their syllabus, teaching methods, and teaching goals more transparent, by telling students what "culture" they have learned by learning to talk and write in a foreign language. They can take every opportunity to link language use to a speaker's or writer's thought, i.e., stance and point of view, and to link that point of view to that of other speakers and writers of the same national, social, or cultural discourse community.

Lesson-12

LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

Outline:

- **Language and Communication**
  - Knowing a language
  - Linguistic competence
  - Linguistic Competence - One of the Central Concepts in Applied Linguistics
  - Communicative competence Implications of linguistic and communicative for foreign language teaching and testing
  - Influence of communicative competence

Topic-058: Knowing a Language

What does it mean to know a language? For the moment let's compare it with learning to ride a bicycle. When you learned that skill as a child there were at least three things involved. You needed some actual information, such as how the brakes worked. Then there were the skills, such as not losing your balance. The third part had to do with your attitude, especially when you felt you were not making progress. In both riding a bicycle and learning a language you are building on what has gone before, whether that was keeping your balance while riding a tricycle or climbing a tree or, in the case of languages, speaking and understanding your own language already.

What do you Actually Need to Know?

The knowledge you need can be summarized under these headings:

- Knowledge about the form of the language
- Knowledge about how the language is used in different situations
- Knowledge about putting the language together in speech and writing words to describe what you know

Some courses concentrate mainly on the form of the language (pronouncing and spelling words properly), forgetting that the social rules are also important. So, too, is the business of making sure what you say or write fits in with everything else that is being said and written.

Topic-059: Linguistic Competence

The notion of 'competence' has its basis outside linguistics. It plays an important role both in professional life and in disciplines concerned with the professional personality such as sociology, pedagogy, psychology, personnel management. According to Chomsky, competence is the ideal speaker/hearer, i.e., an idealized but not a real person who would have a complete knowledge of language. This means a person's ability to create and understand sentences, including sentences they have never heard before.

Linguistic competence is to know how to use:

- The grammar
- Syntax and
- Vocabulary of a language

Linguistic competence asks:

- What words do I use?
- How do I put them into phrases and sentences?

Components of Linguistics Competence

Linguistic competence includes components such as:

- Phonetics
- Phonology
- Syntax
- Semantics
- Morphology

Competence and Native Speakers

Competence enables native speaker to recognize ambiguous sentences or accept even apparently meaningless sentences as syntactically correct (and even making some sense). Even if you've never heard these before, you know which one is "English" and which one isn't.

Example:

- Eight very lazy elephants drank brandy.
- Eight elephants very lazy brandy drank.

How do Competence Apply to the Language Classroom?

The assumption used in many language instruction programs is that once the learners have 'learned' the information they will be able to use it through reading, writing, listening and speaking. The disadvantage of this approach is that having been trained to learn the language through "knowing" (competence), learners have difficulty actually "doing"(performance) something with the language.

Criticisms

Linguistic theories based on the notion of competence have been criticized for being too idealistic. However, Chomsky dismissed criticisms of delimiting the study of performance in favor of the study of underlying competence, as unwarranted and completely misdirected. This led to a broadening of the original concept to communicative competence, introduced by Hymes (1974). This is now generally defined as "the socially appropriate use of language".

A competence is a bundle of cognitively controlled abilities or skills in some particular domain. It implies both knowledge and the ability and disposition to solve problems in that domain. Relevant domains are often occupational areas; and a set of problems in such a domain is often called, for short, a job. The solution of problems presupposes the ability to make informed and responsible choices. Competence is essentially acquired through practice and experience. It is assessed according to some established standard.

Personal and Professional Competencies

A distinction is made between personal and professional competencies. Since we are concerned with linguistic competence, we may say that from a general point of view, a person's linguistic competence is first and foremost part of his personality. On the other

hand, it is certainly one of those personal competencies that are highly relevant to professional life.

Topic-060: Linguistic Competence - One of The Central Concepts in Applied Linguistics

Linguistic competence is one of the central concepts in applied linguistics. There it has always been construed in such a way as to be applicable to professional life. It is the aim of the linguistics is to assemble the multifarious aspects of linguistic competence into a comprehensive notion. Many of the issues have been addressed by applied linguistics, especially by that branch which is devoted to foreign language teaching and learning. There is, however, to this date no unified theory that would be equally applicable to competence in native and foreign languages, to monolingual and plurilingual competence.

Some Questions to Consider…

We need answers to questions such as the following:

- What does a speech community consider linguistic competence?
- As for the concepts of a competent speaker formed by different speech communities: where do they differ, so that the concept of linguistic competence is culture-bound; where do they overlap, so that there is a universal core to the concept?
- Can the notion of linguistic competence relevant in a society be operationalized in the form of a test by which the competence of a person in some language can be assessed?
- How do the various factors making up linguistic competence correlate? For instance, does lexical competence correlate with grammatical competence? Does procedural competence correlate with reflective competence?
- Can a correlation between competence in one's native language and aptitude in foreign languages be ascertained empirically?
- Is there a unified concept of language aptitude in the sense that a person apt for languages is apt both for his native and for foreign languages?

First of all, answers to such questions have an intrinsic scientific interest.

Quite in general, if the notion of competence in a language can be turned into an empirical concept, then a number of issues become empirical issues. Relevant research may have a number of results, among them importantly the following three:

- We find a close correlation among the competencies relating to the components of the language system, while there is no correlation among competence in the language system and variational/pragmatic/communicative competencies. Then we may feel entitled to conclude that there is, after all, a competence in the language system that is separate from other cognitive and social abilities.
- We find, on the contrary, lack of correlation among the abilities concerning the language system, while there may be correlations between some of these and other cognitive or communicative abilities, e.g. between grammatical

competence and analytic intelligence. Then we may conclude that linguistic competence is constituted as the intersection of a heterogeneous set of abilities.

- We find a significant correlation among all the abilities constituting linguistic competence in the wide sense. That would seem to argue that there is a unified and comprehensive linguistic competence.

Apart from their theoretical significance, the questions posed above have considerable practical import.

Answers to above Questions…

Answers to some of these questions will be attempted; In particular, the following will be proposed:

- There is a unified concept of language competence, applicable to all the languages that an individual knows, i.e. to native and foreign languages alike.
- Language competence is similar to other human abilities in that individuals differ in the extent to which they possess it.
- Language competence can be operationalized in the form of language tests that determine the extent to which an individual possesses it.
- For each individual, ability in a particular language depends on his universal linguistic ability. This is true both for his mother tongue and for other languages.
- Ability in one's native language and ability in foreign languages, although normally differing in extent, are objects of the same kind i.e. there is no empirical correlate to the construct of a unique 'native speaker's competence'.

Topic-061: Communicative Competence

In a set of publications starting with Hymes 1971 and 1972, Dell Hymes draws attention to the fact that grammatical competence as defined (theretofore) by Chomsky is insufficient for the individual to lead a useful linguistic life. The following is an oft-quoted passage:

"…..there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless. Just as rules of syntax can control aspects of phonology, and just as rules of semantics perhaps control aspects of syntax, so rules of speech acts enter as a controlling factor for linguistic form as a whole."

Definition

Hymes postulates a communicative competence that relates "to speaking as a whole" (1971:16) and that embraces not only grammatical, but also pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence. Hymes coins a term communicative competence and defines it as knowledge of the rules for understanding and producing both the referential and social meaning of language."

It is a term in linguistics which refers to a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology and the like, as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately

According to Widdowson:

"Knowing a language is more than how to understand, speak, read, and write sentences, but how sentences are used to communicate. Communicative abilities have to be developed at the same time as the linguistic skills; otherwise the mere acquisition of the linguistic skills may inhibit the development of communicative abilities."

Usage and Use:

"Usage" makes evident the extent to which the language user demonstrates his knowledge of linguistic rules.

"Use" makes evident the extent to which the language user demonstrates his ability to use his knowledge of linguistic rules for effective communication. (Widdowson, 1978)

Teachers should provide linguistic and communicative contexts. Linguistic context focuses on usage to enable the students to select which form of sentence is contextually appropriate. Communicative context focuses on use to enable the students to recognize the type of communicative function their sentences fulfill.

Components of Communicative Competence

Canale & Swain 1980, articulate the concept of communicative competence into components as follows:

1. Grammatical Competence
2. Sociolinguistic Competence
3. Strategic competence
4. Discourse competence

1. Grammatical Competence

Grammatical competence is the ability to recognize and produce the distinctive grammatical structures of a language and to use them effectively in communication. Grammatical competence includes knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence—grammar semantics, and phonology.

2. Sociolinguistic Competence

Sociolinguistic competence is the ability to interpret the social meaning of the choice of linguistic varieties and to use language with the appropriate social meaning for the communication situation. It involves:

- Sociocultural Rules of Use: Appropriateness
- Rules of Discourse: Coherence and cohesion of groups of utterances.

3. Strategic Competence

It is the manner of manipulating language in order to meet communicative goals and is used to compensate communication disruption caused by lack of communicative competence and to strengthen communicative effects.

Strategic competence is made up of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient grammatical competence.

4. Discourse Competence

Discourse competence is the ability we have to connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances. Discourse competence asks:
How are words, phrases and sentences put together to create conversations, speeches, email messages, newspaper articles?

Why is Communicative Competence Important?

Knowing the dimensions of competence is an important first step toward developing competence. Communication competence is needed in order to understand communication ethics, to develop cultural awareness, to use computer-mediated communication, and to think critically.

Difference between Communicative Competence and Linguistic Competence

The main difference between the Communicative competence and the Linguistic one is that the linguistic competence belongs to the whole Communicative Competence or Language Knowledge that the students or native speakers have. So, Linguistic is a component from Communicative competence in other words.

"Communicative competence is made up of four competence areas: linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic.

Linguistic competence is to know how to use the grammar, syntax, and vocabulary of a language. Linguistic competence asks: What words do I use? How do I put them into phrases and sentences?

Sociolinguistic competence is to know how to use and respond to language appropriately, given the setting, the topic, and the relationships among the people communicating. Sociolinguistic competence asks: Which words and phrases fits this setting and this topic? How can I express a specific attitude (courtesy, authority, friendliness, respect) when I need to? How do I know what attitude another person is expressing?

Discourse competence is to know how to interpret the larger context and how to construct longer stretches of language so that the parts make up a coherent whole. Discourse competence asks: How words, phrases and sentences are put together to create conversations, speeches, email messages, newspaper articles?

Strategic competence is to know how to recognize and repair communication breakdowns, how to work around gaps in one's knowledge of the language, and how to learn more about the language and in an specific context. Strategic competence asks: How do I know when I've misunderstood or when someone has misunderstood me? What do I say then? How can I express my ideas if I don't know the name of something or the right verb form to use?"

Topic-062: Implications of Linguistic and Communicative for Foreign Language Teaching and Testing

Although for methodological reasons the literature on language teaching and language testing gives the impression that linguistic competence and communicative competence (or for that matter pragmatic competence) are fundamentally distinct theoretical constructs with few features in common, our view is that linguistic and communicative competence are complementary and neither can occur without the other. As Gunterman and Phillips (1980) put

it "one cannot communicate without the grammar and at the same time the communicative use of language appears to be essential to the acquisition of linguistic features". Linguistic and communicative competencies are not separate concepts with nothing in common, they are both part of the language or as Davies (1978) put it "linguistic competence and communicative competence represent different points along a single language learning continuum". (p. 215). Canale and Swain (1979) would refer to this combined, overall proficiency as one's true communicative competence. However, the distinction has to be maintained only for second or foreign language teaching of testing purposes, since foreign language instructional materials, methods and tests are often geared to elicit one rather than the other. In this context Palmer (1979) claims that second language learners can experience either compartmentalized or integrated control of the two components of language. In the former case (compartmentalised situation), the foreign language learner will have a good control of the formal aspect of the language (phonology, vocabulary and grammar); but be unable to get his meaning across with ease. In the second case (integrated situation), a foreign language learner is willing to communicate or to get his message across while never controlling the grammar adequately. Therefore, linguistic and communicative competence must combine to produce, general, overall, language proficiency which we will refer to as integration. We believe that integration is the ultimate goal of a foreign language class.

Topic-063: Influence of Communicative Competence

Howes (1983) suggested that complex social interaction skills are learned best in stable dyads and that social skill is develop within a friendship relationship. If this is the case then, securing and maintaining mutual friendships early in a child's life is important.

Bachman's View

Bachman's view the communicative competence is divided into grammatical competence and textual competence. Bachman's grammatical competence is consonant with Canale and Swain's grammatical competence.

The textual competence pertains to the knowledge of conventions for cohesion and coherence and rhetorical organization. It also includes conventions for language use in conversations, involving starting, maintaining, and closing conversations. Bachman's textual competence has both the part of Canale and Swain's discourse competence and the part of their strategic competence. Bachman's pragmatic competence mainly focuses on the relationship between what one says in his or her communicative acts and what functions he or she intends to perform through his or her utterances.

Communicative Competence and Social Interactions

According to Howes (1983) during preschool years, children begin to differentiate between friends and playmates (Howes, 1988). Preschool friends, as compared to playmates, become more responsive in conversation and begin to exchange more positive and less negative behaviors during interactions. However, the friendship will not mature if one child is not accepted by another. There are various reasons why children are not accepted by their peers.

One reason may be that they are unable to use language effectively. Preschoolers use their communicative competence to make friends. Thus, if children exhibit poor communicative competence, they will often be denied access to their peer group (Howes, 1988).

It has also been found that these children tend to become less positive in their affect with peers over time (Howes, 1988). There is growing recognition that young children with language impairment are at special risk for failure to develop social interactions with their peers.

Association between Children's Linguistic Competence and their Patterns of Peer Interaction

The close association between children's linguistic competence and their patterns of peer interaction is demonstrated in a series of studies carried out in preschool classrooms (Hadley & Rice, 1991; Rice, 1993; Rice, Sell, & Hadley, 1991).

There is growing recognition that young children with language impairment are at special risk for failure to develop social interactions with their peers (cf. Brinton & Fujiki, 1993; Craig, 1993; Gallagher, 1991, 1993). The close association between children's linguistic competence and their patterns of peer interaction is demonstrated in a series of studies carried out in preschool classrooms (Hadley & Rice, 1991; Rice, 1993; Rice, Sell, & Hadley, 1991).

Rice and her colleagues demonstrated that the children who were sought out as preferred conversational partners in an integrated preschool setting were generally those with normally developing language skills rather than children with speech and language impairments or those learning English as a second language. In addition, the children with limited language abilities were more likely to initiate verbal interactions with adults than with normally developing peers.

Rice (1993) argues that children with limited language abilities encounter a number of social consequences. One consequence is that they are not fully incorporated into peer interactions, a conclusion supported by converging evidence from a number of studies (e.g., Craig & Washington, 1993). Extending this perspective, it is reasonable to predict that adjustments in conversational interactions could also be associated with social status in the peer group. Children who are less able to engage peers in conversational interactions are less well-equipped with the crucial skills necessary to transform social relationships into friendships.

A connection between children's discourse abilities and their peer popularity has been established for normally developing children (Black & Hazen, 1990; Hazen & Black, 1989; Place & Becker, 1991). This connection has yet to be demonstrated for children whose only developmental deficit is speech and/or language impairment(s). The multiplicity of their limitations does not allow for a clear connection between social status and communication limitations.

Social Status and Discourse Skills in Normally Developing Children

Hazen and Black (1989) investigated the relationship between social status and discourse skills in normally developing preschool children. Each child in the classroom received a Liked or Disliked score based on the combination of positive and negative nominations he or she received.

Results indicated that socially accepted children had better skills than less accepted children for initiating, maintaining, and reinitiating coherent discourse across interaction contexts. In a similar study, Black and Hazen (1990) studied the responsiveness of liked and disliked preschoolers to familiar and unfamiliar peers. The results of this study indicated that disliked children made more irrelevant comments, were less responsive, and were less likely to clearly direct their initiations to both familiar and unfamiliar peers as compared to their liked counterparts.

Similarly, Place and Becker (1991) conducted a study using a rating scale methodology that examined the impact of pragmatic skills on likability. Pragmatic skills refer to the appropriate use of language in social contexts.

In this study, third and fourth grade girls were asked to listen to four tape recordings of a 10-year-old girl simulating an interaction episode with a librarian. In each recorded scenario, the girl appropriately or inappropriately used four different pragmatic skills. The girl was judged as more likeable and described more positively when she displayed pragmatic competence than when she displayed inappropriate pragmatic behaviors such as requesting inappropriately, interrupting, or failing to maintain the logic of the conversation.

Communicative Competence and Popularity Status in Children with Cognitive Deficits

Studies assessing communicative competence and popularity status have also been conducted with children with various handicapping conditions (Guralnick, 1981; Hemphill & Siperstein, 1990). These studies support the notion that communication handicaps parallel limited socioverbal interactions and judgments of social immaturity. For example, Guralnick (1981) studied the peer relations in mainstreamed playgroups of preschoolers with and without cognitive deficits. Results of this study indicated that the children with cognitive deficits communicated less effectively and were not as well accepted as their peers without such deficits. Not surprisingly then, it was found that the children with cognitive limitations and the children without such limitations tended to form polarized social networks. Guralnick (1981) concluded that "handicapped children were perceived as being of lower status and are treated accordingly" (p. 287). Exactly why the children with cognitive deficits had difficulty with social skills is unclear. The social interaction differences may be related to these children's cognitive or social skills deficits, physical appearance, and/or their particular limitations with interactive speech and language skills. Hemphill and Siperstein (1990) investigated the relationship between the conversational competence of children with mild cognitive limitations and their acceptance by regular education students. The regularly educated elementary school students were asked to watch a videotape in which children with mild cognitive deficits displayed either skill or lack of skill at conversational management. The students responded more favorably as measured by a descriptive questionnaire and two bipolar scales when the children with cognitive deficits displayed skilled conversational management.

Lesson-13

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS, SOCIOLINGUISTICS AND EDUCATIONAL ASPECTS

Outline:

- Language and cognition
  - Approaches to Language and Cognition

Language Transfer and cross-linguistic influence

Language attrition and language loss

  - Individual differences
- Sociolinguistic Aspects
  - Multilingualism and L3
  - Language shift
  - Language identity
  - The spread of English and English as a lingua franca
  - Variation and Variability
- Educational Aspects
  - Vocabulary acquisition
  - Task based language teaching
  - Teacher education

Topic-064: Language and Cognition

What is the relationship between language and cognition? Do people who speak different languages think differently? Is a certain level of cognitive development required for language ac-question? These questions were of keen interest to thinkers in the early twentieth century and remain important in anthropology, linguistics and psych-ology. However, the cognitive revolution of the 1950s brought a new question about the relation-ship between language and cognition: is language the same type of mental entity as other cognitive abilities, or is it fundamentally different?

Approaches to Language and Cognition

A hallmark of modern cognitive science is the goal of developing a theory of cognition powerful enough to encompass all human mental abilities, including language abilities. A long-standing controversy concerns two ways of conceptualizing the architecture (or basic design) of cognition. One approach proposes that general-purpose processes and mechanisms provide a foundation for all varieties of human intelligence. We can refer to this as 'general purpose' cognition. Examples of possible universal processes are:

-The ability to induce a category from exposure to examples (category induction), and;

-The ability to mentally complete a known pattern when confronted with a piece of it (pattern completion).

Cognitive scientists frequently attempt to precisely specify their proposed mechanisms by implementing them as computer algorithms which can be tested in artificial intelligence (AI) programs. Researchers have tried to use AI programs to show that the same principles that can explain general problem-solving can also explain aspects of language acquisition and processing. The second way of conceptualizing human cognition emphasizes the differences between language and other abilities. A key idea is that many distinct domains of cognition exist and must be learned separately, using different mental mechanisms. This approach is referred to as the

'modularity of cognition' or 'mental modules' approach. At first glance it may seem contrary to the interdisciplinary spirit of cognitive science and to the possibility of a unified theory of cognition. However, the unifying theory is the thesis of distinct mental modules, which are believed to have evolved to accomplish specific tasks relevant to mammalian evolution, such as visual exploration, or relevant to human evolution, such as language use. Much of the appeal of this approach comes from findings in neuropsychology showing that distinct areas of the brain serve distinct functions such as vision, language processing, motor coordination, memory, and face recognition. The interdisciplinary spirit is maintained because advocates of this approach reach out to biological scientists and evolutionary theorists. Those favoring modularity embrace the principle of converging methodologies: a theory must have explanatory power in the distinct academic disciplines that compose the cognitive sciences. These two approaches to the architecture of cognition developed out of different philosophical traditions, and have evolved considerably during the half-century history of cognitive science.

Topic-065: Language Transfer and Cross Linguistic Influence (CLI)

Language transfer (also known as L1 interference, linguistic interference, and cross linguistic influence) refers to speakers or writers applying knowledge from one language to another language.

Cross Linguistic Influence (CLI)

Cross linguistic influence (often referred to as 'CLI') has been an important factor to consider in the study of foreign language acquisition in general. In foreign language acquisition, the learner starts off with at least one fully acquired linguistic system.

Cross linguistic influence is intended as a more comprehensive term as it considers the interaction between all existing linguistic system(s) during the process of third (or subsequent) language acquisition rather than assuming the L1 as the only potential source of transfer. Studies have shown that an existing second language, even if not acquired completely, can interfere in the performance of the L3.

Types of Linguistic Transfer

- **Inter-language Transfer (lexical or morphological)**

The interaction of a non- primary language with a third or subsequent one

- **Cross Linguistic Influence**

All existing linguistic systems play an equally important role in the acquisition process of a target language.

- **Transfer in Second Language Acquisition (SLA)**

Only the primary language plays a role in the acquisition process of a foreign one.

- **Transfer in Target Language Acquisition (TLA)**

Transfer in TLA considers all of the previously known languages to play an equally important role when it comes to possible interactions between the target language and the existing one(s). The presence of more linguistic systems in the mind of an L3 learner will not only increase the number of potential interactions that can take place, but also alter the course of these interactions.

Importance of Cross Linguistic Influence (CLI) in TLA

It motivates a more inclusive theory of transfer as it carefully considers all existing systems in the learner's mind. It imposes a re-evaluation of the already existing theories and the relevance of their claims.

Why does Transfer Occur?

Two possible points can be considered in this regard:

- Learning is facilitated if the learner is able to relate a new item or task to existing previous knowledge.
- Learner will constantly seek to facilitate the language-learning task by making use of previously acquired linguistic knowledge.

Factors that Determine CLI

Following are the factors that trigger one language to be activated over another when it comes to learning a foreign language:

1. The role of typology: The role of typology is considered to be one of the most influential factors when it comes to transfer. It is intuitive to assume that when it comes to CLI; speakers will borrow more from a language that is typologically closer to the target language.
2. The role of L2: Learners tend to use the L2 (or languages other than the L1) as the source of cross- linguistic influence, for example studies on non-Europeans who acquire their second European language support this idea. Also, Hindi and Chinese speakers with knowledge of English who acquire German as their third language will transfer mainly from their L2 English onto their L3 (Chandrasekhar, 1978; Vogel, 1992).
3. The role of proficiency level: In TLA proficiency must be considered, not only in the target language, but also in the other non-native language(s) known by the speaker. High proficiency in a background language would make this language more likely to play a role in the acquisition of a new one. However, low proficiency in a background language is also a factor to be considered in CLI (De Angelis, 2005).

Topic-066: Language Attrition & Language Loss

Language attrition is the process of losing a native, or first, language. This process is generally caused by both isolation from speakers of the first language ("L1") and the acquisition and use of a second language ("L2"), which interferes with the correct production and comprehension of the first.

Such interference from a second language is likely experienced to some extent by all bilinguals, but is most evident among speakers for whom a language other than their first has started to play an important, if not dominant, role in everyday life; these speakers are more likely to experience language attrition. It is common among immigrants that travel to countries where languages foreign to them are used.

Types of Language Attrition

1. Lexical attrition

2. Grammatical attrition
3. Phonological attrition

1. Lexical Attrition

The first linguistic system to be affected by first language attrition is the lexicon.

The lexical-semantic relationship usually starts to deteriorate first and most quickly, driven by Cross Linguistic Interference (CLI) from the speaker's L2, and it is believed to be exacerbated by continued exposure to, and frequent use of, the L2.

2. Grammatical Attrition

Grammatical attrition can be defined as "the disintegration of the structure of a first language (L1) in contact situations with a second language (L2)".

3. Phonological Attrition

Phonological attrition is a form of language loss that affects the speaker's ability to produce their native language with their native accent.

Possible Causes of Language Attrition

1. Assimilation

Assimilation is a process in which a group gradually gives up its own language, culture and system of values and takes on those of another group with a different language, culture and system of value through a period of interaction (Crystal, 1991) Paharis at Khopasi came to unending interaction with Brahmins and Chhetris and they needed to use Nepali language while talking to Newars and Tamangs. They assimilated the language first then their culture gradually. As a result, they lost their language.

In Nepalese society, we mostly observe linguistic assimilation, the process of interaction between different group of behavior of the majority. Despite being a multi-lingual nation. Nepali language has been given power, recognition while the remains minority languages and their communities are impoverished and marginalized. As a result linguistic minorities have remained socially excluded from harnessing national benefits in fields such as politics, economy, education, employment and so on. Promotion of one language, one religion, one dress and mono-cultural nationalism by the state not only hurt the culture of these people but it effectively marginalized them in economic political and social realms(Bhattachan, 1995).

2. Acculturation

It is a process in which changes in language, culture and system of value of a group happen through interaction with a different language, culture and system of values.(Crystal, 1991) Paharis at Khopasi acculturate Brahmins language and culture. They called Brahmin purohit to perform rites and rituals that changed their cultural values and system. It led them to abandon their native language.

3. Social distance

The feeling a person has that his or her social position is relatively similar to or relatively different from the social position of someone else. The social distance between two different group or communities influence communication between them and may affect the way one group

learns the language of another(for example, an immigrant group learning the language of the dominant group in a country). Social distance may depend on such factors as differences in the size, ethnic orgin, political status, social status of two groups (Crystal, 1991). For the case of Pahari they found themselves far from their own language as they were surrounded by Nepali native speakers. They could not use their own language in interaction and gradually they forgot their own language.

4. Linguistic and cultural hegemony

Linguistic hegemony is achieved when dominant groups create a consensus by convincing others to accept their language norms and usage as standard or model. Hegemony is ensured when they can convince those who fail to meet those standards to view their own language. Schools have been the principle instruments in promoting a consensus regarding the alleged superiority of standardized language (Wiley, in Mckay and Hornberger, 2007, p.113).

Similarly cultural hegemony is a philosophic and sociological concept, originated by the Marxist philosopher Antonia Gramsci, that a culturally diverse society can be ruled or dominated by one of its social classes. It is the dominance of one social group over another e.g. The ruling class over all other classes. The ideas of the ruling class to be seen as the norm, they are seen as universal ideologies, perceived to benefit everyone whilst only really benefiting the ruling class. (wikipedia.com). For the case of Paharis, they failed to meet the standards to view their own language and school going children found/realized the superiority of Nepali language in the past. As a result, they abandoned their native language. Nepali, as national language and dominance of Hindu culture gave them way out to abandon their culture as well. As a result, they lost their native language.

5. World system theory

World system model and Neo-Marxist divides the world into three parts viz core, semi-periphery and periphery. Standard variety i.e. Nepali lies in core and other ethnic language lies in semi-periphery and language of minorities lies in periphery. Pahari people at Khopasi were in minority and their language was dominated by Nepali language. A.G. Frank's bi-polar division as Metropolis and Satellite also matches in the case. Pahari language was in Satellite and standard variety i.e. Nepali was in Metropolis.

6. Sociobiology (Reproductive fitness)

According to sociobiology when one loses its reproductive fitness it ultimately dies out. Similarly, Pahari language lost its reproductive fitness and the speakers gradually abandoned the language. Those Paharis who could speak Pahari language felt that they could not express them full with the help of their own language and they might have adopted words from Nepali language. During the study, old people speaking Pahari told that they did not have many words to address nature and happenings. It shows that this language lost its productive fitness and its speakers felt disadvantaged. So they did not practice it and gradually lost their own language.

Consequences of the loss of the native language

The consequences of the loss of native language are as follows:

1. Collapse of culture

They no longer use their language in rites and rituals and their culture is in verge of extinction. They started calling Brahmin Purohitas to perform religious rites and rituals and they no longer celebrated their own festivals on their own. With the loss of language, they lost their own culture and 80% Paharis do not know their culture.

2. The Pahari language as moribund language

Krauss defines language as moribund language if children are not speaking them now, endangered if children will probably not speaking the in 100 years. Pahari language in the study area is going to be moribund language as Pahari children do not have any interest in learning their language and even the Paharis over 50 years of age can not speak Pahari language. Krauss has suggested three main criteria that can be used to identify language as endangered. They are:

i. The number of speakers currently living

ii. The mean age of native and/or fluent speakers

iii. The percentage of the youngest generation acquiring fluency with the language in question

3. Language death

Language death is a process that affects speech communities where the level of language variety is decreased, eventually resulting no native or fluent speakers.

Similarly the most common process leading to language death is one in which a community of speakers of one language becomes bilingual in another language and gradually shifts allegiance language the second language until they cause to use their original(heritage) language. This is a process of assimilation which may be voluntary or may be forced upon a population. Speakers of some languages particularly regional or minority languages may decide to abandon them based on economic or utilitarian grounds, in favor of language regarded as having greater utility or prestige.

A language is often declared to dead even before the last native speakers of the language die. If there are only a few elderly speakers of a language remains and they no longer use that language for communication then the language is effectively dead.

4. Blockage for privileges due to loss of linguistic identity

They are not speaking their language and it has been a half-century since they abandoned their culture. They have changed their surname also. If they speak their language, it will be their ethnic identity but they are now unknown to their own language. As a result, special provision announced by the government for minorities' will be blocked for them. Sudden setback to Pahari from Harisharan and Shrestha in the last six or seven months have shown that they wanted to get the privilege but remarkably they are still hesitating to revitalize their own culture and language. For them surname may help to deserve the privileges announced by the government.

Topic-067: Sociolinguistic Aspects

- Multilingualism and L3
- Language shift
- Language identity
- The spread of English and English as a lingua franca
- Variation and Variability

Multilingualism and L3

Multilingualism is the situation in which a person has command of, or a community uses, two or more languages.

Accordingly, one has to distinguish between multilingualism on the micro-level (individual multilingualism) and multilingualism on the macro-level (societal multilingualism).

Multilingualism on the Macro-Level

Multilingualism is a worldwide phenomenon and, perhaps surprisingly, monolingual persons or societies are exceptional. The misbelief that mono-lingualism is the rule is due to the fact that there are only few countries where more than one official language is spoken.

Not even a quarter of the world's nations recognize two official languages (e.g. India, Canada), and only six nations have three or more languages as official languages (e.g. Switzerland, South Africa). Even in those cases there might be other vernaculars and regional languages which are not officially recognized. But this is unavoidable in administrative and bureaucratic respects (Edwards 1995, 33; Edwards 2007, 448).

Another problem with multilingualism is one of measurement, i.e. the assessment of the extent of multilingualism in a country and, connected with that, the assessment of the proficiency level that is required for a person to count as multilingual.

Reasons for Multilingualism

Multilingualism arises when languages get into contact. The reason for language contact is the simple need of communication between human beings with different linguistic backgrounds. Further reasons for multilingualism are trade, religion, multilingual federations and political union (Edwards 2007, 449/450). Canada, for instance, incorporates English and a French 'charter' group. There is often cultural and educational motivation that prompts people to consider second-or-third language acquisition (Matras 1009, 48).

Language Shift

Language death is the culmination of a process whereby a speech community moves from primary use of one language to another in a process that is known as language shift.

Fishman (1991) defines it as a "process whereby intergenerational continuity of the heritage language is proceeding negatively, with fewer 'speakers, readers, writers" (Fishman 1991:1).

In many cases, however, the shift may be more abrupt than Fishman's definition implies, and the number of speakers can drop off considerably from one generation to the next. Often, studies that fall under the category of language shift may be distinguished from those that focus on language death in that they tend to examine the structural changes from the receding language (L1) as opposed to examining the structural changes in the receding language itself.

Language Identity

Consistent with its view of language as universal, abstract systems, the more traditional 'linguistics applied' approach to the study of language use views individual language users as stable, coherent, internally uniform beings in whose heads the systems reside.

How you talk, dress, behave is an important way of displaying who you are – indicates your social identity.

Identity is something we are constantly building and negotiating all our lives through our interaction with others. Identity is also multifaceted - people switch into different roles at different times in different situations. Language not only expresses identities but also constructs them. Language and Identity examines the inter-relationships between language and identities. It finds that they are so closely interwoven, that words themselves are inscribed with ideological meanings. When someone changes their way of speaking because they feel they are being looked upon by others, it means that they are changing their identity. Speaking is an identity and it differs from person to person because each has slang and talks different. This set their identity based on language. Language use and identity are conceptualized rather differently in a sociocultural perspective on human action. Here, identity is not seen as singular, fixed, and intrinsic to the individual. Rather, it is viewed as socially constituted, a reflexive, dynamic product of the social, historical and political contexts of an individual's lived experiences.

The relationship between language and identity will always involve a complex mix of individual, social and political factors which work to construct people as belonging to a social group, or to exclude them from it.

In his *Language and Identity: National, Ethnic, Religious* John Joseph (2004) attempts to show that language and identity are ultimately inseparable.

Thinking about language and identity ought to improve our understanding of who we are in our own eyes and in other people's, and consequently it should deepen our comprehension of social interaction. Each of us, after all, is engaged with language in a lifelong project of constructing who we are, and who everyone is that we meet, or whose utterances we simply hear or read. (Joseph 2004a: 13, 14)

Variation and Variability

Human behavior is characterized by variation i .e. each human individual has a large repertoire of motor, cognitive, and social actions that can be arranged in virtually endless combinations. This repertoire allows for a flexible adjustment to changing conditions, including the creation of new solutions. The term linguistic variation (or simply variation) refers to regional, social, or contextual differences in the ways that a particular language is used. Variation between languages, dialects, and speakers is known as inter-speaker variation.

In some situations, speakers may choose not to converge, but instead either to maintain their own variety (linguistic maintenance), or move to a more extreme variety of their dialect (linguistic divergence). The question of group affiliation and identity can determine the choices a speaker makes out how to speak, and for the bilinguals or multilinguals, which language to use.

English as a Lingua Franca

The term lingua Franca was originally formed, by Arabic, Lisan-al-farang, the Arabic speakers used it to communicate with the European travelers. A lingua franca also known as a bridge language and common language used to make communication possible between people who do not share a native language in particular when it is a third language, distinct from both native languages. The term lingua franca usually means "any lingual medium of communication between people of different mother tongues, for whom it is a second language.

English as a lingua franca is a "contact language" between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common culture, and for whom English is the chosen as language of communication. The way English is used as a lingua franca is heavily dependent on the specific situation of use. Speakers accommodate to each other's cultural backgrounds and may also use a common language understandable for both. Speakers accommodate to each other's cultural backgrounds and may also use a common language understandable for both.

Topic-068: Educational Aspects

1. Vocabulary Acquisition
2. Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT)
3. Teacher Education

1. **Vocabulary Acquisition**

Acquiring wider and deeper vocabulary knowledge is paramount in the pursuit of becoming a proficient foreign language speaker. Shaw and McMillion (2008, p, 141) show that vocabulary is related to reading speed by comparing native speakers of English with Swedish English as a foreign language (EFL) students.

2. Receptive and Productive Vocabularies

Receptive and productive vocabularies are two terms important for a more global understanding of vocabulary learning. Receptive vocabulary, in broad terms, implies the understanding of the meaning of a word encountered in speech or writing.

Productive vocabulary, in the same broad strokes, is the portfolio of words available within a learner's inter-language for production.

Vocabulary Hierarchy

These concepts have been made more detailed and precise by Laufer and Goldstein (2004) who defined vocabulary into a hierarchy of four levels:

- Active recall (being able to use the target word)
- passive recall (understanding the meaning of the target word)
- Active recognition (recognizing the word when given its meaning)
- Passive recognition (the ability to recognize meaning when given options)

It can be argued that lack of vocabulary knowledge often has a more severe impact on clarity and fluency of spoken and written language than insufficient grammatical knowledge or poor pronunciation (Hedge, 2000).

2. Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is an approach which offers students opportunities to actively engage in communication in order to achieve a goal or complete a task. TBLT seeks to develop students' inter-language through providing task and then using language to solve it. It was first developed by N. Prabhu in Bangalore, Southern India. According to Prabhu students may learn more effectively when their minds are focused on the task, rather than on the language they are using. (Prabhu, 1987; as cited in Littlewood, 2004)

Benefits of TBLT

- TBLT makes the performance of meaningful tasks central to the learning process.

- Instead of a language structure or function to be learnt, students are presented with a task they have to perform or a problem they have to solve.

Why do we Use a Task-based Approach

- Tasks can be easily related to students' real-life language needs.
- They create contexts that facilitate second language acquisition.
- Tasks create opportunities for focusing on form.
- Students are more likely to develop intrinsic motivation in a task-based approach.
- A task-based approach enables teachers to see if students are developing the ability to communicate in an L2

3. Teacher Education

It is well known that the quality and extent of learner achievement are determined primarily by teacher competence, sensitivity and teacher motivation. According to Goods Dictionary of Education Teacher education means, ―all the formal and non-formal activities and experiences that help to qualify a person to assume responsibilities of a member of the educational profession or to discharge his responsibilities more effectively.

The perspective of teacher education was therefore very narrow and its scope was limited. As W.H. Kilpatric put it, ―Training is given to animals and circus performers, while education is to human beings.

- Teacher education encompasses:
- Teaching skills
- Pedagogical theory and
- Professional skills

Teacher Education = Teaching Skills + Pedagogical theory + Professional skills.

Teaching Skills

Teaching skills would include:

- Providing training and practice in the different techniques.
- Approaches and strategies that would help the teachers to plan and impart instruction.
- Provide appropriate reinforcement and conduct effective assessment.
- It includes effective classroom management skills, preparation and use of instructional materials and communication skills.
- Pedagogical theory includes the philosophical, sociological and psychological considerations that would enable the teachers to have a sound basis for practicing the teaching skills in the classroom.
- Professional skills include the techniques, strategies and approaches that would help teachers to grow in the profession and also work towards the growth of the profession.

Lesson-14

LANGUAGE PLANNING AND LANGUAGE POLICY (LPP)

Outline:

Language Planning and Language Policy

- Understanding the Term Planning
- Defining Language Planning
- Language Planning Vs. Language Policy
- History of Language Planning

- Approaches to Language Planning
- Language Planning: Haugen's Model
- Language Planning: Critical Issues
- Language Planning and Postcoloniality
- Conclusion

Topic-069: Understanding the Term Planning

It is important to clarify the term planning because as a concept it cuts across disciplines and occupies an important place in subjects like architecture, economics, human resources management, sociology, tourism, and urban planning. Since planning is basically societal (see below for discussion), language planning cannot be discussed in isolation from its social context, and since planning, in Faludi's words, is associated with organizations, one must draw upon social sciences to understand the very concept (Faludi, 1973). In her discussion of language planning, Joan Rubin (1971) deals with the very notion of planning itself before defining language planning. She acknowledges the role of management sciences.1 "The definition of planning", according to Rubin,

"… has ranged from one specifying an activity that includes the broadest kind of human problem-solving or decision-making to a more limited one specifying an activity that is initiated and supported by some formal body. The more limited definition (of what is still a very complex activity) views planning as an activity whereby goals are established, means are selected, and outcomes predicted in a systematic and explicit manner." (Rubin, 1971: 217-218).

Other disciplines have taken a similar approach to defining planning. For example, Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn understand planning as a "process of setting objectives" (Schermerhorn et al, 1997: G-3) in which "rules and procedures" are developed (Dressler, 2000:2) to achieve those objectives. There are a few more relevant definitions of planning taken from various disciplines. For example, David (1997) regards planning as plotting of a course of action. Hilgert and Leonard (1997), Robbins, Bergman, and Stagg (1997), and (Fletcher, 1998) unanimously view planning to be about what should be done in the future: it consists of setting goals or objectives and establishing an overall strategy for achieving these goals.

All the above citations have one thing in common: whatever the field of investigation, planning is about formulating a future/futuristic strategic course of action to deal with a given problem. This point seems relevant and valid. However, beyond this point, these definitions suffer, just like the definitions found in specialist dictionaries, encyclopedias, and textbooks, from what Basin in his discussion of the nature of definitions calls "the general epistemological semantic idealism" (Basin, 1979: 228). By this expression Basin seems to mean that understanding of a concept is often conditioned by "formalist essence" which diminishes its contextual-social significance (Basin, 1979, especially his concluding chapter). It may be argued that 'planning' is not a neutral, hygienic concept, but a practice aimed at changing or affecting states of affairs or a course of action. The above definitions are semantically descriptive and imply developmental organicity, but they do not seem to define

what new realities the working of planning creates (or tries to create), and the role of politics and ideology that underlie planning. Understanding planning without understanding socio-political-economic realities and agendas behind it causes confusion and reduces it to an ambiguous "meta-narrative" (Allmendinger and Chapman, 1999: 3). Planners deal with issues that affect organizations and societies (or polities) in which human beings interact. It is but natural that at times planners have their own views, self-interest or bias, or are ideologically motivated: What they plan 'for the people' can actually run counter to the interests of those whose lives are supposed to be improved through planning. For example, government-backed urban planners can acquire a piece of land in the name of progress and development, but in reality their purpose is to grab prime land by driving away squatters or indigenous people. Tollefson narrates such an incident in which urban planning and language planning based upon hidden micro-capitalist agenda are subtly interwoven.

Planning purports to change a state of affairs, and since change brings about consequences, it always affects people either favorably or unfavorably. This brings in the dynamics of power. Change and power dynamics are so closely interrelated that one can define power the way one defines change: Power, argues Luke, is about "bringing about consequences" (Luke, 1978: 634). Hence, planning serves and protects the interests of the powerful. Planners, whether working on behalf of the powerful or on their own, wield a lot of "political-economic power" (Eastman, 1991: 135) because of different resources at their disposal, and their power to effect changes in a polity, organization, or system. It is this fact that has led scholars like M.J. Minett to assert that planning is concerned with "manipulating things, not only understanding them" (cited by Faludi, 1973: 14). The role of planners and ideologues becomes indistinguishable given the political (or manipulative) nature of their jobs: Planning is no different from ideology because both serve interests of the powerful. Allmendinger and Chapman (1999: 4) have also noted this fact, Planning now encompasses such a variety of issues that one could include everything from saving the planet to where swings should go in a children's playground. . . . Planners themselves are having their technical and apolitical stance challenged by the increasingly political and inclusive nature of the subject. (Emphasis added.) The bottom line of the above discussion is that while examining the very term planning one must not just be content with its given meaning(s), but try to understand its consequences too, and also the hidden agenda, power relations, conflicts, and ideological interests behind those consequences. Lovejoy's approach to understanding the world we live in supports this view: "In the whole series of creeds and movements going under one name, and in each of them separately, it is needful to go behind the superficial appearance of the singleness and identity, to crack the shell which holds the mass together, if we are to see the real units [of meaning]" (Lovejoy, 1964: 6).

Topic-070: Defining Language Planning

As mentioned above, planning is an issue that plays an important part in a number of disciplines and subjects, but the modus operandi of planning may differ when applied in different contexts. Rubin and Jernudd's definition of language planning is not very different from

Weinstein's (see the footnote below); they call language planning a deliberate change in a language by an organization set up to bring about the change. They argue that language planning in all cases is "future-oriented; that is, the outcomes of policies and strategies must be specified in advance of action taken" (Rubin and Jernudd, 1971: xvi). Wardhaugh (1986: 336) defines language planning as "an attempt to interfere deliberately with a language or one its varieties". In Wiley's opinion, "language planning entails the formation and implementation of a policy designed to prescribe, or influence, the language(s) and varieties of language that will be used and the purposes for which they will be used" (Wiley, 1996: 107-108). For Fasold, "Language planning is usually seen as an explicit choice among alternatives. This, in turn, implies that there has been an evaluation of alternatives with the one that is chosen having been evaluated as the best" (Fasold, 1987: 246). Fishman says that language planning is done at the national level and defines it as "the organized pursuit of solutions to language problems" (Fishman 1974: 79). All the above definitions of language planning imply de jure legitimacy behind language planning. A democratic government that does language planning is authorized to legislate through popular will and consent. Hence, the Galbally Report (1978), the Senate Committee Report on National Language Policy (1984), and the Lo Bianco Report (1987) in Australia, and the Bullock Report (1975) and the Swan Report (1985) in the UK had government authorization and political legitimacy.
As it has been discussed in the case of planning, language planning too is not a straightforward practice: Governments are guided by their own assumptions and ideologies in planning language. Language planning can create as many problems as it intends or claims to solve. More often than not, it is seldom that language policies affecting minorities are welcomed by them, and in the case of Pakistan it would be interesting to note that language planning has seldom been friendly to the majority (in fact, majorities) of the population (for details, see Rahman, 1999 and 2002; Mansoor, 2005; Zaidi 2011). Although some linguists like Putz (1997) have argued that an adequate language policy program must take account of the various opinions and beliefs of the speakers belonging to a social or ethnic group, many sociolinguists have shown that language planning which is supposed to benefit minorities actually makes them feel being discriminated against

Topic-071: Language Planning VS Language Policy

Cooper (1989), Schiffman (1996), and Kaplan and Baldauf (2003) argue that language policy and language planning are two different concepts: language policy is about decision-making and goal-setting; language planning is about implementing policies to obtain results. On the contrary, Rubin (1971) argues that language policy is a part of language planning. According to her, language planning is comprised of four phases: fact-finding, policy determination, implementation, and evaluation. Fishman, Das Gupta, Jernudd, and Rubin (1971) support Rubin's preference for the term language planning. They argue that the process of

language planning has four major divisions: "policy formulation, codification, elaboration, and implementation" (Fishman, et al, 1971: 293). Many linguists prefer the term language planning to language policy or language planning and language policy because they take 'planning' to be inclusive of policy. For example, Ashworth (1985), Wardhaugh (1986), Fasold (1987), and Ferguson (2006) prefer language planning. In Sociolinguistics: A reader and coursebook (Coupland and Jaworski, 1997), there is not a single entry on "language policy"; the term language planning is used in the chapter that deals with language planning and language policy. Mansoor (2005) too subsumes language policy under language planning in her discussion of the history of language education in Pakistan. Carroll (2001) sums up her discussion of the issue by saying the term language planning is the most widely accepted "umbrella term for the broad range of activities seeking to change language and its use" (Carroll, 2001: 13).

Topic-072: History of Language Planning

Language planning is a phenomenon that can be called post-colonial (Pakistan, India, Malaysia, Algeria after World War II), post-revolutionary (the Soviet Union in 1917, socialist Ethiopia in the 1980s), or post-independence (Norway in the early 19th century, Central Asia republics after the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991). Not all language planners of these "post" countries had the same objectives: some of the newly independent countries decided to continue to use the language of their erstwhile colonial masters (e.g., English in Singapore, India, the Philippines, and Papua New Guinea). They had their reasons: the colonial language meant administrative continuity; it was extremely helpful in functioning on the international scene also, and it could keep a lid on ethnic divisiveness that the introduction of new local languages (at the perceived cost of other languages) could have brought on. In the case of many newly independent countries, a new national language was synonymous with a new nation. It has been claimed that LP is an official/governmental long-term, sustained attempt to solve the communication problems of a community by studying the various languages and dialects it uses (see, e.g., Ashraf, 1994; Davis, 1994; Amienyi, 2005; Simpson, 2007). Most sociolinguists agree that in the postcolonialworld, newly independent nation-states feel need to unify their peoples, often a set of ethnicities, for the purpose of nation building (Holmes 1992; Williams 1992; Daoust 1997; Wiley 1996). Since LP is held to be an instrument towards achieving destiny of a nation, policies that have been adopted at national or territorial levels claim to be geared towards contributing to nation-building (Ingram, 1994). Thus, since language policies are part of national agenda of development and "entry into the modern world" (Eastman 1983: 31), they are goal-oriented and involve decision-making (Cobarrubias 1983; Cooper 1989), and since LP involves "an explicit choice among alternatives" (Fasold 1987: 246), language planners are supposed to be mindful of the choices they make. Selection of one language or dialect, known as status planning, can be perceived as a threat to other languages and/or dialects if the speakers of the latter come to see the selected language/dialect to be thriving at the cost of their own. Tollefson (1991) calls it language hegemony. Minority languages, in Williams' words, are supposed to be at risk because one important feature of "minority languages is that they tend

to be systematically separated from those domains which are crucial for social reproduction, domains such as work, administration, etc." (Williams 1992: 147).

Topic-073: Approaches to Language Planning

Understanding an issue depends upon how people approach it. "What language planners," says Williams, "seek to do will derive largely from how they perceive language change" (Williams, 1992: 123). Tollefson (1991) identifies two approaches to LP: neoclassical and historical-structural by which he means methods employed to do LP. His discussion of the approaches can be summarized thus: The neoclassical approach puts emphasis on individual choices where "the rational calculus of individuals is considered to be the proper focus of research" (Tollefson, 1991: 27). He also says that the neoclassical approach is synchronic as it deals with current language circumstances. Also, it is a-historical and amoral, and assumes that people involved in LP are apolitical.

The historical-structural approach, on the contrary, emphasizes centrality of socio-historical factors in LP, takes into account past relationships between the groups who will be affected by LP, and claims that people have strong political views. Tollefson distinguishes the historical-structural approach from the neoclassical approach by arguing that while "the neoclassical approach emphasizes the rational decisions of individuals, the historical-structural approach emphasizes the origins of the costs and benefits confronting individuals and groups" (Tollefson, 1991: 31-32). The neoclassical approach cannot not be ignored, however. Given that it focuses on formal properties of language and on the importance of an individual's motivation in learning a language, the neoclassical approach can guard scholars against putting too much emphasis on the macro factors in LP. The historical-structural approach is not perfect, and behind its claimed critical stance may lurk ideologies and group interests. A good challenge for a researcher is to combine both factors, individual and political-societal, in dealing with an LP scenario in hand. To a question like which of the two approaches is better, one can only say that it would be difficult to altogether reject one approach in favor of the other. However, a few observations can be made. For example, despite its seemingly scholarly dispassionateness, the neoclassical approach has a few problems. If we look at the societies/countries where LP was done, we find a lot of controversy and protests followed in the wake of LP. India's example, a huge mosaic of languages and ethnicities, is instructive. Shortly after independence, India wanted to realize its pre-independence nationalist dream of having "an Indian language" in place of English which was supposed to be "a symbol of slavery" (Nayar, 1967: 12). The government decided to make Hindi the official language India which led to extreme violence in the Southern states, especially in Tamil Nadu. Das Gupta (1970) details how a Madras State Anti-Hindi Conference on January 17, 1965, a week before the January 26 date scheduled for Hindi's ascent to the role of sole official language of India, was organized to protest against "Hindi imperialism".

The campaign against Hindi cost sixty-six lives, which included two persons who committed suicide. The result was that the government had to devise the Three Language Formula of education which stipulated that non-Hindi speakers would study their regional languages,

Hindi, and English (or another European language), and Hindi speakers would study Hindi, English, and another language. According to Sridhar, the Three Language Formula was "a compromise between the demands of the various pressure groups and has been hailed as a masterly—if imperfect—solution to a complicated problem. It seeks to accommodate the interests of group identity (mother tongues and regional languages), national pride and unity (Hindi), and administrative efficiency and technological progress (English)" (Sridhar, 1989: 22).

Topic-074: Language Planning: Haugen's Model

There are more than one LP models available to researchers. For example, in his discussion of what he calls language development with reference to language planning, Ferguson (1968) comes up with his three-category model: graphization (choice of an alphabetic system, spelling, punctuation, and capitalization), standardization (developing the so-called 'best' variety that will be the language of a speech community), and modernization (expansion of the lexis of a chosen variety so that it can keep up with the ever-increasing needs of society). For Cobarrubias (1983), there are four ideologies which can have great impact on decision-making in language planning in a particular society: linguistic assimilation (everyone in society should learn its dominant language), linguistic pluralism (the recognition that more than one language can be given its due status), vernacularisation (restoration or revival of an indigenous language for national or official purposes), and internationalism (implementation of a non-indigenous language as official language). Ferguson's and Cobarrubias' models have received good attention from scholars researching LP. However, it is the Haugen Model that has dominated discussions on LP since it was first enunciated by Einar Haugen in the mid 1960s. Haugen is a pioneer in the field of LP. In one of his earliest works on LP, Haugen deals with what he calls the "taxonomy of linguistic description" which is "greatly hampered by the ambiguities and obscurities attaching to the terms 'language' and 'dialect'" (Haugen, 1997 [1966]: 341). After clarifying the difference between language anddialect,4 he almost imperceptibly introduces his model of standardization by saying that a so-called "underdeveloped" language is the one which "has not been employed in all the functions that a language can perform in a society larger than that of the local tribe or peasant village (1997 [1966]: 344). After giving examples of the development of different languages, he defines his model: (1) selection of norm, (2) codification of form, (3) elaboration of function, and (4) acceptance by the community. Selection refers to a language or a variety, which will be developed for broader communication. Codification (also known as corpus planning) refers to "developing the form of a language, i.e. its linguistic structure, including phonology, grammar, and lexicon" (1997 [1966]: 348). Elaboration refers to the scale of the utilization in writing. Both codification and elaboration are distinct. Haugen gives the distinction thus: "As the ideal goal of a standard language, codification may be defined as minimal variation in form, elaboration as maximal variation in function" (1997 [1966]: 348; italics in the original). Because the codification of form is inherently delimiting, Haugen argues that the elaboration of function counterbalances it. Expanding on selection of norm, Haugen claims that it is very important because the success of codification or elaboration is dependent upon it. He is

careful enough not to lose sight of conflict, politics, power, and ideology in the selection of a language as norm. In his own words, Where a new norm is to be established, the problem will be as complex as the sociolinguistic structure of the people involved. There will be little difficulty where everyone speaks virtually alike, a situation rarely found. . . . To choose any one vernacular as a norm means to favor the group of people speaking that variety. It gives them prestige as norm-bearers and a head start in the race for power and position. (1997 [1966]: 349).

The last part of Haugen's model, acceptance, is "part of the life of a language" (1997 [1966]: 350). A norm must be accepted by a "body of users", and the most important factor in the acceptance is that it (the norm) "must somehow contribute to the well-being of the learners" and also "offer its users material rewards in the form of power and position" (1997 [1966]: 350). Haugen concludes his essay by saying that selection of norm and codification "refer primarily to form" and elaboration of function and acceptance by community to "the function of language" (1997: 350). Selection of norm and acceptance by community "are concerned with society", and codification and elaboration of function are concerned "with language" (1997 [1966]: 350-351). Haugen believes in the validity and strength of his model that he presented in 1966. Writing in 1983 he claimed that he had seen "nothing in the literature [on language planning] to make me reject the model as a framework for the starting point of language planners everywhere" (Haugen, 1983: 269). The strength of Haugen's model is that it tries to combine the neoclassic model with the historical-structural model. He brings in the neoclassic model when he claims that LP is about systematizing a language in which the written word, which is taught, has complete precedence over the spoken word; to him a language must be based on its literary form (Haugen, 1972 [1962]). But he is aware of the importance of norms of society and their influence on language and language planning when he says that if "dialects are to be tolerated, the teaching of tolerance must begin with other and more basic features of inequality in society than the purely linguistic one" (Haugen, 1972 [1962]: 253). In another place Haugen says, "Wherever language problems have appeared, there has been some form of what we have chosen to call 'language planning', a form of social planning" (Haugen, 1985: 7).

Topic-075: Language Planning: Critical Issues

Who plans language? Why? For who? Is LP cement that binds people (nation-building)? Is it divisive? Are there hidden ideologies in LP? Is LP hegemonic? Does it create a class of subalterns? Is LP only a macro phenomenon (affecting society, country, or state), or is there a micro dimension to it too (the family as a language planner)? Is there such a thing as family/home LP enforced by those members of the family who wield power (e.g., parents)? Is LP is a result of ideology? Does it have anything to do with, say, language attitudes and diglossia? Does LP empower anyone? If yes, who?

Language, says Terdiman, is "always engaged with the realities of power" (Terdiman, 1985: 38). In the post-World War I scenario, German in the United States was almost wiped out from schools: between 1915 and 1948, students studying German dropped from 25 to 1 percent (Leibowitz cited by Wiley, 1996: 132). Commenting on this, Wiley says that in order to

understand this event "a historical-structural analysis is necessary" (Wiley, 1996: 132). The nexus between LMLS and language planning is very strong. David (2008) has put it thus, There are several reasons for language shift and death. Apart from natural disasters resulting in the death of a speech community, many man-made factors can cause such disasters. One of these man-made factors that can cause language shift and death is language policies. (David, 2008: 79). The issue of identity and social standing of who plans language for who is also an important one. At times LP is done by those who have very few stakes in a language and its speakers. Harlech-Jones, for example, says that in Africa language planning, is done by people who have been thoroughly unrepresentative of the polity on whose behalf they have affected to speak. They have been the unelected decision-takers and politicians of one- and no-party states, relying for power at first on a brief and vacuous populism following decades of repression, dedicated to nothing more noble than the enhancement of their personal positions and the enrichments of their own pockets. (Harlech-Jones: 1997: 224; also see, Kaplan and Baldauf). Many linguists view LP to be an instrument through which inequality and powerlessness are bred. This is because LP works with, and not against, prevailing "social currents" (Romaine, 2002: 19), an argument anticipated by Haugen who called LP "a form of social planning" (Haugen, 1985: 7). Tollefson perceptively argues that language policies are both the outcome and arena of power struggle (Tollefson, 1995). Pennycook, Garcia, and Watson-Gegeo and Gegeo in their respective studies in Power and Inequality in Language Education (1995) try to unravel the hidden agenda in language policies. English, says Pennycook, has become a very powerful means of inclusion and exclusion. He gives the example of Kenya where despite Swahili's status as the official national language, the dominance of English in Kenya's "economic and legal spheres. . . has sought more to prepare an elite for higher education than to educate a citizenry capable of maintaining a policy of socialist self-reliance" (Pennycook, 1995: 41). The situation seems even worse in the Solomon Islands where Watson-Gegeo and Gegeo found that English is spoken by no more than 10 to 15 percent of the population, and yet it is required for all middle to higher jobs in private and public sectors, which in the words of these scholars contributes to "the undermining of traditional sources of knowledge, growing inequalities between urban and rural areas, and the emergence of social classes" (Watson-Gegeo and Gegeo, 1995: 66). Scholars like Auerbach and Martin-Jones and Saxena have drawn attention to the micro-sites of the ideologies as they are played out in the name of ESL or bilingualism: the classroom. Auerbach (1995) claims that an ESL classroom is one place where powerlessness is reinforced through the exclusion of the learners' knowledge, life experience, and language resources. Martin-Jones and Saxena (1995) argue that in England, despite all the rhetoric about the benefits of supporting bilingualism, the very marginalization and inferior status of bilingual support teachers greatly reduced learning opportunities for bilingual children: policies, power asymmetries and pedagogical practices led to containing rather than supporting bilinguals. In his study of schools in Australia, Bullivant has found that the classroom reproduces the interests of the ruling class, and the result

is that the working class students' life chances are reduced because they end up in "low-paid, repetitive, and unrewarding jobs" (Bullivant, 1995: 61).

Tollefson's Planning language, planning inequality (1991) also supports this view of the planning as a term, concept, and practice. On the use of descriptive terms and definitions in the area of language planning, his remark is worth quoting, It is the language research itself that dehumanizes and depersonalizes. . . . Thus research investigates the impact of 'plans' which are 'formulated' and 'implemented' upon 'subjects' and 'populations' by means of 'empirical' research involving 'studies', 'data', and 'generalizations'. . . . In the impersonal language of research, people do not exist as living, breathing, feeling human beings. . . . these terms are not characteristic of people at all: they are fictions that limit, restrict, determine, and disempower. (Tollefson, 1991: 205) Last, a realistic research on LP must take into account the LP done in the home domain. Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas have argued, "Language policy is a super-ordinate category, within which fall operational concerns such as language planning and, as one form of normative regulation, language legislation" (Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas, 1997: 116). This is true in terms of the macro view of LP, but there is another, micro, aspect of LP. Kaplan and Baldauf call it "micro-planning" (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997: 88). Omoniyi uses the term "microlanguage literacy planning" for it (Omoniyi, forthcoming). The home is a quintessential site for micro-language planning; it is the last bastion of language maintenance. What happens if, say, parents do LP in the home forbidding use of one language and making sure that another language is spoken? For instance, the Urhobo of the Niger-delta part of Nigeria are ashamed of Urhobo, their mother tongue, and generally are not willing to speak it to their children. They prefer the English pigeon spoken in their area (for details, see Ojaide and Aziza, 2007). Implications of such LP in the home can be extremely destructive for the language, which has been forbidden.

Topic-076: Language Planning and Postcoloniality

LP is a postcolonial phenomenon as most of the nations who implemented LP were former colonies of various Western powers. Post-independence linguistic fervor in countries like Tanzania, Namibia, Malaysia, and Somalia can be cited where new national identity-seeking slogans aimed at building new nations argued in favor of local languages at the expense of the languages of the colonizers (Fierman 1991: Chapter 1). One could hardly distinguish between language planners and politicians; hence the validity of Fierman's contention that language planners are politicians who do not always reveal the motivations or goals which underlie their actions; their "actions frequently produce unexpected results and the environment in which their policies are implemented may include factors which they did not adequately anticipate" (Fierman, 1991: 5). However, it may be pointed out here that this phenomenon is not a matter of being able to "anticipate" or not. New-nation-new-language can be a manipulative move by the ruling elites (the beneficiaries of the former colonial master's legacies and policies) to continue to hold on to power. The people, the masses, are given a (new) national language in which they are educated in government schools, but the colonial language remains the truly important language through its official status. Thus despite

Swahili's promotion as Kenya's national language, Tagalong in the Philippines, and Malay in Malaysia, English has remained the language of prestige and political-economic mobility in which the ruling elite educate their children (Watson 1983; Zuengler 1985; Tollefson 1986). Walker (1984) observes that the elite in newly independent countries realize that a status reduction of the former colonial language will ultimately undermine their own status and "put them much more on a par with other speakers" (Walker, 1984: 172). Scotton (1982) too makes more or less the same observation when he says, "The fostering of the colonial language is held in check because it best serves the elite's socio-economic interests, and they do not mind even if the national-official language divide is brought about at the cost of limiting national integration" (Scotton, 1982: 69).

Topic-077: Conclusion

It may be argued that planning language is planning inequality in socio-linguistic-economic terms if one language is elevated at the cost of another language(s). LP is done on certain so-called nationalist principles. Thus, the French language is supported and promoted because it stands for being French, Breton, Provencal, and as a result, many immigrant languages such as Arabic and Vietnamese are causalities. The problem is that a national language is more than an official language because it is "the symbol of people's identity" (Fasold, 1987: 247). However, identity is per se frictional, indeed conflictual, aspect of social functioning. Language standardization is an instance of invasion on and exclusion of minority and/or native languages in the name of national unity. This is why, LP has not been a smooth sailing for language planners in most of the countries of the world because it is, in Wardhaugh's words, a deliberate "human intervention into natural processes of language change, diffusion and erosion" (Wardhaugh, 2010: 379). One might add to Wardhaugh's claim by saying that LP often results in subalternization of certain languages and privileging of the language spoken by powerful elites even if it is done with the best of intentions. Jomo Kenyatta promoted Swahili at the cost of his own Kikuyu and many other languages. Now all these languages are slowly becoming extinct. It is certainly the case that in our world where there is a scramble for ever-shrinking resources, sociolinguistic Darwinism is an unpleasant fact. Nevertheless, this does not have to lead to the flourishing of some languages and the others going the way of extinction. In any polity, possibilities exit to promote minority and native languages on communal, if not national, levels. In order to do so, the communities themselves have to take the initiative. However, how far minority communities are independent and powerful is a moot point. Sociolinguistic situations often hide histories of hegemony, power struggle, and suppression.

Lesson-15

CRITICAL APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Outline:

- Introduction
- Major Concerns of Critical Applied Linguistics
- Domains of Critical Applied Linguistics
- Critical Discourse Analysis and Critical Literacy
- Critical Approaches to Translation
- Critical Approaches to Language Education
- Critical Language Testing
- Critical Approaches to Language Planning and Language Rights
- Critical Approaches to Language, Literacy, and Workplace Settings
- Critical Frameworks

- Conclusion

Topic-078: Introduction

Before we move in to the discussion of critical applied linguistics, it is better first to have a brief look at what the root subject applied linguistic really mean. So applied linguistics is the branch of linguistics (language science) that deals with the foreign and second language education and the study of application of linguistics theories in language related problems. The first concept was the oldest explanation assigned to the subject when the discipline was introduce and coined by the American linguists in 1940. So that, even most applied linguists to day prefer to relate the meaning of the discipline to the old concept. But the new approach defines applied linguistics as the application of language theories in diverse linguistic related contexts. These may include the speech pathology, translation, langue pedagogy, and other aspects of applied linguists.

But, when we come to critical applied linguistics, we are dealing with the critical study of the aspects of applied linguistics. It is not a mere addition of criticality to applied linguistics but continuous and sustainable, uninterrupted, skeptics and critical investigation in to the diverse fields of applied linguistics. Critical applied linguistics actually take the strong version of the new definition of applied linguistics, the application of linguist theory in applied contexts like translation, speech disorder, critical pedagogy and others.

Critical applied linguistics is an emergent approach to language use and education that seeks to connect the local conditions of language to broader social formations, drawing connections between classrooms, conversations, textbooks, tests, or translations and issues of gender, class, sexuality, race, ethnicity, culture, identity, politics, ideology or discourse.

The emergence of various "critical" perspectives in applied linguistics since the mid-1980s has been welcomed by some and rejected by others. Some of these perspectives have emerged under overt banners of criticality:

First, critical applied linguistics needs to be understood as far more than just a critique of normative applied linguistics.

Second, although the notion of *critical* is one that is greatly struggled over, critical applied linguistics needs both to avoid a normative politics, and to promote a particular political vision of what is meant by critical.

Third, critical applied linguistics is more than just the sum of related critical approaches to language domains (CDA, critical literacy, and critical pedagogy).

Fourth, critical applied linguistics is also more than just the addition of a political/critical approach to applied linguistics; rather, it raises a host of different questions to be addressed, such as identity, sexuality, power, and performativity.

And **fifth**, it therefore not only suggests a broad conception of applied linguistics, but it also pushes those boundaries further by drawing on a range of theoretical and empirical domains.

For some, critical applied linguistics is little more than a critique of other orientations to applied linguistics.

In the glossary of his introduction to applied linguistics, Davies (1999) provides the following definition: "a judgmental approach by some applied linguists to 'normal' applied linguistics on the grounds that it is not concerned with the transformation of society".

For some applied linguists, critical applied linguistics probably does appear to be little more than a critique of mainstream work. But if it were indeed limited to such a role, it would surely be of only marginal interest.

Topic-079: Major Concerns of Critical Applied Linguistics

Praxis refers to the integration and cooperation of desire and action or theory and practices. In the traditional view, theory or action is superior and highly respected than practices or desire. The relationship between the two was unequal. The role of practice and desire were suppressed with stereotyped vision. But critical applied linguistic pays due focus on both theory and practice and desire and action. So the unequal power relation between theory and practice as well as desire and action were abolished in the case of critical applied linguistics.

Criticality: Critical applied linguistics is the most critical discipline in dazzling things from diverse angles. Criticality is concerned with critical study of social problems. In fact criticality refers to the logical and examined reflection of things. It is systematic, critical, objective analysis of facts and problems from various angles. As to the beliefs of critical applied linguistics, criticality can be taught in classroom situation. Critical reading, listening, speaking and writing can be taught in language classes. Thus the concept of criticality in applied linguistics also works with the subject itself. Criticality is not just a matter of mapping micro applied linguistics in to the macro social relation, but sustainable critical study of the areas of critical applied linguistics and all social relations and problems.

Critical social study refers to the careful examination of social relation. Critical applied linguistics was based on the assumption that social relation is full of pains and suffrages. So it needs critical examination. The power imbalance, difference, injustice, hegemony, suppuration, colonization, subduing and etc. are some of the critical cases that critical applied linguistic majorly deals with. Thus using critical approaches, critical applied linguists studies the social problems. The study describes, explains, expresses and interprets the social problem. Then it calls for the political interventions. In studying the painful social relation, critical applied linguistics sides the victimized group in the social relations.

Critical school theory: The basic foundation of critical applied linguistic lies on the philosophies of school of critical social theories. The schools were established in Frankfurt, Germany and founded by the famous German scholars, Marxist and neo Marxist thinkers. The theory was based on the existence of pains in social life and concerned with the study of those problems and sought solutions for the same. Frankfurt critical school theory was emanated with sympathy for the people victimized in the social relations. The school deals with detailed study of the society and describe, present and interpret the social problems. The school then calls for the political measures to be taken to solve the problems. A number of fields were based on the assumptions of critical school theory including critical applied linguistics, history, anthropology, sociology, political sciences culture studies, communication studies, medial studies and others.

Self-reflexivity refers to the self-introspection quality of the subjects, critical applied linguistics. In the cases of human being, self-reflexivity deals with an act of listening deep in to our own soul, evaluate ourselves in multiple perspectives as our lives, our success, failure, performances and relations with others. Critical applied linguistics does not only concern with the study of other social and related issues in a critical way. It also critically evaluates itself whether it is well doing its roles or not. So, critical study of the discipline works with itself as well.

Preferred future refers to one of the concerns of critical applied linguistics. Critical applied linguistics deals with critical social studies. In so doing it does not only study the problem plainly just for the sake of studying. But through description, expression, explanation and interpretation of the problems, it works on how to establish harmonious life among individuals, groups, societies and the nations. Thus, the preferred future for all was the main concern and dream of critical applied linguistics. The subject believes that humans are created equally irrespective of nothing else, and life is too short so that everyone needs to entertain life equally, peacefully, richly, abundantly and harmoniously.

Micro-macro relations refer to the application of critical applied linguistics in the study of the larger social problems. Here, micro stands for conceptual and methodological narrowness of applied linguistics in studying the wider, macro social relations and problems. The concept of the relation is to entail the incompleteness of critical applied linguistics in studying the society. It claims that the social problems are intricate so that it needs collaboration with related disciplines including feminism, subalterns, American dreams, post colonialism, gender studies, culture studies, media studies and so forth. Moreover, it needs to work with more autonomous and independent disciplines including sociology, anthropology, history, communication and literature studies and so forth.

Hetrosis refers to the autonomy and ideological approaches. The concept was that critical applied linguistics is a sovereign field of study in its own right, but it needs to be integrated with other fields which were based on critical theory. Feminism, postmodernism, colonialism, subaltern studies and others. On top, it needs to be integrated with independent fields as sociology, anthropology, sociolinguistics, culture studies, media and communication studies and other related fields. Therefore, the complex social matters could be explained so further.

Problematizing the givens: The approach here deals with constant questioning of the givens. Some practices which lasted for so long within the community seem as if they have divine role and supernatural origins. Thus, critical applied linguistics deals with these practices, beliefs, attitudes, rituals and all very critically. For instance the relation between men and women pertaining to social relation seems as if it is divine and natural. But in reality not, for it is just a social practice that has sent its root deep in the society and looked as if it is from heavenly father. Thus, such issues are critically dealt in critical applied linguistics. In critical applied linguistics, nothing resists critical scrutiny related to social relations. The socio-economic, political, cultural; the power relation, injustice, right and wrongs, subjugation, suppuration, segregation, subdued acts in terms of sex, disability, religious, economic and cultural issues are critically studded.

Comprehensively, critical applied linguistics deals with critical study of all the aspects of applied linguistics. In so doing, the subject has been stratified in to concerns which may contain nine basic elements praxis, criticality, and critical social study, self-reflexivity, preferred future, heterosis, critical

school theory and so forth. In addition to the concerns, critical applied linguistics does have fundamental domains which will be the major issues of discussion in the next sections.

Topic-080: Domains of Critical Applied Linguistics

Domains in the context of critical applied linguistics refer to the major sub-fields of the discipline of critical applied linguistics. The foremost domains of critical applied linguistics subsumes the proceeding major domains: CDA and Critical Literacy, Critical Approach to Translation, Critical Approach to Language Teaching, Critical Approach to Language Testing, Language Planning, Policy and Right, Language, Literacy and Work Place Language Use. Therefore, for the sake of clarification and elaboration purpose, we better have a deep look in to the domains:

CDA AND CRITICAL LITERACY: CDA stands for Critical Discourse Analysis. CDA deals with the study of the text in relation to the context. Critical discourse analysis deals with the study of how language or text is used in a context holding discursive social relation, power, domination, hegemony, control, sexual, racial, subjugation and cultural discriminations are being perpetuated with in the community. As CDA relies on the critical social theory, identifying, describing, explaining and interpreting the problem, it calls for the political intervention standing in the sides of the victimized people in the social relations. CDA and critical literacy often put under critical language awareness (CLA) which contains text analysis, critical pedagogy and critical translations. Critical literacy deals with the reshaping of literacy education for those who were marginalized from literacy education, reading and writing in their own mother tongue. Critical literacy deals with reading and writing in vernacular languages. But because of multiple reasons, peoples could be relegated from the rights to learn to read and write in their own language because of their culture, religion, cast, political affiliation, economic status, gender, sex, physical disabilities and others. Critical literacy does have broader social foundations as do CDA. There are diverse orientations to literacy counting critical pedagogy, feminist and post structural approaches and text analytic approaches. CDA would generally fall in to the last category aimed as it is providing tools for the critical analysis of texts in a context. So critical discourse analysis and critical literacy, stands in the sides of people protected from their own vernacular language. CDA has larger political aim of putting the forms of texts, the processes of production of texts, the process of reading, together with the structure of power that have given rise to them in to crisis. CDA aims to show how linguistic discursive practices are linked to the wider sociopolitical structure of power and domination. It focuses on the role of discourse in the production and challenges of dominance and hegemony.

CRITICAL TRANSLATION: the other most important domain of textual analysis related to critical applied linguistics is translation. Here, the concern of critical applied linguistics is not to study or make critical comments on certain translation works. It is not concerned with the correction of technical problems that occurred as a result of lack of knowledge or experience in translation work. But it is much concerned with the politics of translation, the ways in which translation and interpretation of the original texts of the target languages were related to concerns such as class, gender, difference, ideology, and social context. Translation holds a number of discursive practices and social relations. Moreover, the politics of translation extends to translation from one target language to the others all

the time, the translation of texts from English to other languages and not the other way round; the devaluation of native values, culture, norms and ethics; and the use of standard accent, the power relation between the source and target culture and etc. were sign posts for political nature of translation. Most translation works in the colonial and post-colonial period exactly reflects the political nature of translation. We used to translate from English to other languages and not the reverse. We observe the dominant power relation between the English source language to other target languages.

Thus, translation needs careful observation of what the translation is claiming in conveying meaning, in transferring codes from source to target language. Most translation works of the postcolonial period contains distorted conceptions of the indigenous culture, identity, language, history, politics, ethics, morals and local resources.

CRITICAL APPROACH TO TEACHING: Here, this concept deals with critical observation of language teaching practices. It was based on the assumption that language teaching is not free from political conceptions. This is because schools are social institutions where people can interact and learn from one another. Classroom learning is a talk. So what is there in the society is there in the school. Language pedagogical contexts are mainly associated with class difference-the way in which the target language teachers treat her foreign students, the way foreign students in the target classes evaluate themselves in relation to their identity is the major indication of the language classes. Gender is also an aspect of critical aspect of language teaching. It mainly refers to how females are being treated in the classroom, the due respect they have, the extent to which their sound, needs and interests in a class is considered. Sexuality and sexual identity is also another significant aspect of political nature of language teaching. The ways in which homo, hero, transgender, gays, and lesbians are treated in a class by the curriculum, syllabus, school principals, teachers, students, and related stakeholders were the major focuses of critical language teaching.

The curriculum, syllabus, materials, methods, assessment, feedback provision etc. have political agenda at their deep back. Moreover, the way teachers teach and students learn, the ways in which texts were designed, the syllabus were presented, the way students communicate with teachers, and the style in which students interact together and etc. were never free from the dominant belief in social life. Thus critical applied linguistic dictates critical study of language teaching practices in the school and classroom context in critical and perilous manners.

CRITICAL APPROACH TO TESTING: Language testing has been resistant to critical challenges for long ago. But, since recently, scholars reported what they saw as crucial features of critical language testing. Critical language testing (CLT) starts with the assumption that the act of language testing is not neutral. Rather it is a product of cultural, social, political, educational and ideological agenda that shape the life of individual participants, teachers and students. Thus several features of CLT were mentioned: test takers are seen as political subjects in political context, tests are deeply embodied in cultural, educational, and political arena where different ideological and social forms are in straggle making it difficult to consider that a test is just a test. CLT asks whose agendas are used through tests; it demands that what vision of the society tests presupposes, it asks whose knowledge the test is based on, and whether this knowledge is negotiable; it considers the meaning of test scores and the extent to which this is open to interpretation; and it challenges psychometric tradition of language testing.

The conception also introduced an important paradigms shift and put many new criteria for understanding validity in to play: consequential, systemic, interpretive and ethical all of which have more to do with the effects of test than what criteria of internal validity. The argument is that language testing is always political that we need to become aware of the effects of tests and that the way forward is to develop more domestic tests in which test takers and other local bodies are given greater involvement in planning, construction, administration, correction and noticing. Thus, there is a demand to see the domains of applied linguistics from classroom to text and tests, as naturally bound with larger social, cultural and political context.

As teaching, testing is not free from conveying the dominant beliefs, philosophies, hegemony and others in a society. Critical applied linguistics looks in to how tests are planned, designed, administered, corrected, notified and interpreted. Behind each steps, there is political agenda to run with. The way in which test are planned and conducted may not just to evaluate students' academic performance alone, but also there is a secret to run. Similarly planning, administration, correction and notification were associated political agenda. For instance, if the test constructor, administer, corrector and the potential students are from the same social, cultural, political, economic background, the students could benefit much form it. But the other side of the students would be victimized. So, testing needs care as to the views of critical applied linguistics. Thus the contents, administration, correction, notification of tests must be critically studded.

The argument claims that language tests must be indigenous, locally constructed; culture free, corrected through psychometric and none psychometric means, serve the interest of the minority, and needs to fulfill validity, reliability, practicality, backwash effects criteria. If the test fails to do so the results would not be valid.

LANGUAGE POLICY AND RIGHT: Language policy and rights are close elements. Language policy always favors the rights of one language and at the same time disfavors the others. Both policy and rights are political in concept. Language policy making is the duty of the politicians, so that the way they decide how to use one language either in the office, community, or educational context are all a matter of politics. Currently, mono-legalism is under threat, while multilingualism is prospering. Similarly the extension of alien language in a local context is a hazard for local language. For instance, the global status of English is a deadly threat for most local languages as it causes power imbalance and raise a question of right which is called language imperialism. Language colonialism is the state where local languages are under the threat and control of a foreign language. Scholars are warning the world to take care of the effect of multilingualism over the monolinguals and the mother tongue before severe risks to come.

LANGUAGE, LITERACE AND WORKPLACE: It refers to the use of language in work places. The ways on which different professionals use language to communicate in the workplace reflects discursive relation.

Dominance, power, suppression and other forms of discursive relations were reproduced in professional workplace. Study shows that the communication among the prosecutor and the suspect, the doctor and the patient, the boss and subordinate were in most cases associated with power imbalance, hegemony, suppression and subjugations. Moreover, some empirical studies also indicate

that women often suppressed in workplace not because of the soundness of her ideas, but just because she is a woman, feminine. So, workplace language use needs critical studies.

Generally, critical applied linguistics contains five major domains: CDA and language literacy, critical approaches to translation, teaching, testing, and language planning and policy and language, literacy and work place language use. These are only some of the common domains of critical applied linguistics and these are not complete enumerations. To windup, critical applied linguistics contains major concerns and domains. The concerns are the basic premises for critical applied linguistics; while, the domains contain subdivisions under the subject.

Topic-081: Critical Discourse Analysis and Critical Literacy

There are clearly major affinities and overlaps between critical applied linguistics and other, named, critical areas such as critical literacy and critical discourse analysis. It is possible, however, to see critical literacy in terms of the pedagogical application of CDA, and therefore a quite central concern for critical applied linguistics.

Critical approaches to literacy, according to Luke (1997), "are characterized by a commitment to reshape literacy education in the interests of marginalized groups of learners, who on the basis of gender,

Luke and Freebody (1997) explain that "although critical literacy does not stand for a unitary approach, it marks out a coalition of educational interests committed to engaging with the possibilities that the technologies of writing and other modes of inscription offer for social change, cultural diversity, economic equity, and political enfranchisement".

Orientations to Critical Literacy

Thus, as Luke (1997) goes on to argue, although critical approaches to literacy share an orientation toward understanding literacy (or literacies) as social practices related to broader social and political concerns, There are a number of different orientations to critical literacy, including Freirean-based critical pedagogy, feminist and poststructuralist approaches, and text analytic approaches. Critical discourse analysis would generally fall into this last category, aimed as it is at providing tools for the critical analysis of texts in context.).

Already, then, we can see a clear set of concerns across approaches to critical literacy and CDA: all are governed by a concern to understand texts and practices of reading. Writing is seen in relationship to questions of social change, cultural diversity, economic equity, and political enfranchisement. These approaches are concerned with questions of power and of change. There remain a number of unresolved concerns in this domain. These include the status of textual readings when no account is made of their interpretation by a wider audience; and the relationship between forms of linguistic and political analysis. They also need to avoid forms of socially over-determined meaning.

The amalgam of discourse analysis and theory has clearly produced a considerable body of interesting work. There is a need to explore the implications of poststructuralist frameworks for the status of both the linguistics and the politics.

Topic-082: Critical Approaches to Translation

Other domains of textual analysis related to critical applied linguistics include critical approaches to translation. Such approaches would not be concerned so much with issues such as "mistranslation" in itself, but rather the politics of translation, the ways in which translating and interpreting are related to concerns such as class, gender, difference, ideology, and social context.

Hatim and Mason's (1997, pp. 153–9) analysis of a parallel Spanish and English text published in the UNESCO Courier is a good example of how a form of CDA across two texts reveals the ideological underpinnings of the translation.

In this case, as they argue, the English translation of a Spanish text on ancient indigenous Mexican cultures reveals in many of its aspects a very different orientation toward other cultures, literacy, and colonialism. Work on translation and colonial and postcolonial studies is also of interest for critical applied linguistics. Niranjana (1991), for example, argues that Translation as a practice shapes, and takes shape within, the asymmetrical relations of power that operate under colonialism.

Postcolonial translation studies, then, are able to shed light on the processes by which translation, and the massive body of Orientalist, Aboriginalist and other studies and translations of the Other, were, and still are, so clearly complicit with the larger colonial project. Once again, such work has an important role to play in the development of critical applied linguistics. It is indeed a shame that the monolingual biases of much mainstream applied linguistics have meant that translation has been marginalized as an applied linguistic domain. Critical approaches to translation might pose some very interesting challenges for applied linguistics.

Topic-083: Critical Approaches to Language Education

Language teaching has been a domain that has often been considered the principal concern of applied linguistics. Pennycook, 1999 suggested that we can identify three main features that define critical work in language teaching:

1. The domain or area of interest – to what extent do particular domains define a critical approach?
2. A self-reflexive stance on critical theory – to what extent does the work constantly question common assumptions, including its own? And transformative
3. Pedagogy – how does the particular approach to education hope to change things?

Thus, in trying to define critical applied linguistic work in language education, it is important to focus on the contextual concerns, be they issues of class, race, gender and so on, the ways in which the underlying framework relates to critical theory, and the ways in which the research or pedagogy is aiming to change what is going on. Again, we can see close parallels with the background concerns of critical literacy and CDA. There are also parallels with the distinction between research that turns a critical eye on an aspect of language education, and reports of critical practice.

Critical applied linguistic work in language education, then, may take as its central interest an attempt to relate aspects of language education to a broader critical analysis of social relations. Class is the principal concern addressed by Lin (1999) in her argument that particular ways of teaching English in

Hong Kong (or elsewhere) may lead either to the reproduction or the transformation of class-based inequality.

It is the inequalities in the relationship between the constructs of the native and non-native speaker that need to be addressed, a concern that has become a major topic of discussion in recent years.

Topic-084: Critical Language Testing

The main response to challenges about the "fairness" of language assessment has generally been to turn inward to questions of test validity rather than outward to the social, cultural, and political context of assessment. Spolsky (1995), however, in his history of the development of the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) exam, is clear on the context in which this needs to be seen, suggesting that;

"….from its beginnings, testing has been exploited also as a method of control and power – as a way to select, to motivate, to punish."

As he goes on to argue, the history of the TOEFL exam "best demonstrates the tendency for economic and commercial and political ends to play such crucial roles that the assertion of authority and power becomes ultimately more important than issues of testing theory or technology"

While such an approach locates assessment within a broader critical analysis of its relation to authority and power, it still lacks a way of suggesting what critical applied linguistic practice might emerge in response.

Kunnan (2000) goes some way toward this by considering not only questions of validity, but also issues of *access* (equitable financial, geographical, personal, and educational access to tests) and *justice*.

Shohamy (2000) pursues similar concerns when she insists that language testers need to take responsibility not only for their tests but also for the uses to which their tests are put:

"Language testers cannot remove themselves from the consequences and uses of tests and therefore must also reject the notion of neutral language testing."

Topic-085: Critical Approaches to Language Planning and Language Rights

One domain of applied linguistics that might be assumed to fall easily into the scope of critical applied linguistics is work such as language policy and planning, since it would appear from the outset to operate with a political view of language. It is not enough merely to draw connections between language and the social world; a critical approach to social relations is also required.

There is nothing inherently critical about language policy; indeed, part of the problem, as Tollefson (1991) observes, has been precisely the way in which language policy has been uncritically developed and implemented. Ricento (2000) has similarly taken much of the earlier work in language policy and planning to account for its apolitical naivety.

More generally, the whole domain of sociolinguistics has been severely critiqued by critical social theorists for its use of a static, liberal view of society, and thus its inability to deal with questions of social justice.

Sociolinguistics says that how you act depends on who you are; critical theory says that who you are (and are taken to be) depends on how you act. Taking up Mey's (1985) call for a "critical

sociolinguistics" (p. 342), therefore, critical applied linguistics would need to incorporate views of language, society, and power that are capable of dealing with questions of access, power, disparity, and difference, and which see language as playing a crucial role in the construction of difference.
Questions about the dominance of certain languages over others have been raised most tellingly by Phillipson (1992) through his notion of (English) linguistic imperialism, and his argument that English has been spread for economic and political purposes, and poses a major threat to other languages.

Topic-086: Critical Approaches to Language, Literacy and Workplace Settings

Another domain of work in applied linguistics that has been taken up with a critical focus has focused on language and literacy in various workplace and professional settings. Such approaches also attempt to move toward active engagement with, and change in, these contexts.
Examples of this sort of work would include Wodak's (1996) study of hospital encounters:
"In doctor– patient interaction in the outpatient clinics we have investigated, discursive disorders establish certain routines and justify the actions of the powerful. Doctors exercise power over their patients, they ask the questions, they interrupt and introduce new topics, they control the conversation."
An important aspect of this work has been to draw connections between workplace uses of language and relations of power at the institutional and broader social levels. Recently, the rapid changes in workplace practices and the changing needs of new forms of literacy have attracted considerable attention.
Poynton goes on to discuss a project designed to change these workplace naming practices. One thing that emerges here is the way in which critical concerns are intertwined.

Topic-087: Critical Frameworks

Critical thinking is used to describe a way of bringing more rigorous analysis to problem solving or textual understanding, a way of developing more "critical distance" as it is sometimes called.
This form of "skilled critical questioning" (Brookfield, 1987, p. 92), which has recently gained some currency in applied linguistics (see Atkinson, 1997), can be broken down into a set of thinking skills, a set of rules for thinking that can be taught to students.
Similarly, while the sense of critical reading in literary criticism usually adds an aesthetic dimension of "textual appreciation," many versions of literary criticism have attempted to create the same sort of "critical distance" by developing "objective" methods of textual analysis.
According to Widdowson (2001), applied linguistics, as a discipline that mediates between linguistics and language teaching, "is of its nature a critical enterprise."
In this sense, "to be critical means the appraisal of alternative versions of reality, the recognition of competing claims and perspectives, and the need to reconcile them." This means "taking a plurality of perspectives into account so as to mediate between them, seeking points of reciprocity, and correspondence as a basis for accommodation."
For Widdowson, then, being critical is a process of evaluating different perspectives on a topic.

Critical applied linguistics can be seen as an attempt to make applied linguistics matter, to remake the connections between discourse, language learning, language use, and the social and political contexts in which these occur.

One of the key challenges for critical applied linguistics, therefore, is to find ways of mapping micro and macro-relations (but also to go beyond this micro/macro formulation), ways of understanding a relationship between concepts of society, ideology, global capitalism, colonialism, education, gender, racism, sexuality, and class, on the one hand, and classroom utterances, translations, conversations, genres, second language acquisition, or media texts, on the other.

It is not enough, therefore, merely to draw connections between micro-relations of language in context and macro-relations of social inquiry. Rather, such connections need to be drawn within a critical approach to social relations. That is to say, critical applied linguistics is concerned not merely with relating language contexts to social contexts, but rather does so from a point of view that views social relations as problematic.

Critical sociolinguistics is concerned with a critique of ways in which language perpetuates inequitable social relations. From the point of view of studies of language and gender, the issue is not merely to describe how language is used differently along gendered lines, but to use such an analysis as part of social critique and transformation.

A central element of critical applied linguistics, therefore, is a way of exploring language in social contexts that goes beyond mere corr elations between language and society, and instead raises more critical questions to do with access, power, disparity, desire, difference, and resistance. It also insists on a historical understanding of how social relations came to be the way they are. Looking more broadly at the implications of this line of thinking, we might say that critical here means taking social inequality and social transformation as central to one's work.

Taking up Poster's (1989) comment that "critical theory springs from an assumption that we live amid a world of pain, that much can be done to alleviate that pain, and that theory has a crucial role to play in that process".

Topic-088: Conclusion

The arrival of critical applied linguistics on the applied linguistic scene has, not surprisingly, caused some concern. Davies (1999) argues that "the influence of CAL is pervasive and can be unhelpful".

Critical applied linguistics not only opens up the intellectual framework to many divers influences, but also makes debates over "linguistics applied" versus "applied linguistics" at best of peripheral interest. Critical applied linguistics as a constantly shifting and dynamic approach to questions of language in multiple contexts, rather than a method, a set of techniques, or a fixed body of knowledge.

Rather than viewing critical applied linguistics as a new form of interdisciplinary knowledge, it should be prefered to view it as a form of *anti*-disciplinary knowledge, as a way of thinking and doing that is always problematizing. This means not only that critical applied linguistics implies a hybrid model of research and praxis, but also that it generates something that is far more dynamic.

Critical applied linguistics is far more than the addition of a critical dimension to applied linguistics, but rather opens up a whole new array of questions and concerns, issues such as identity, sexuality,

access, ethics, disparity, difference, desire, or the reproduction of Otherness that have hitherto not been considered as concerns related to applied linguistics.