PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF ALGERIA
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
Belhadj Bouchaib University - Ain Temouchent
Faculty of Letters, Languages and Social Sciences
Department of Letters and English Language

Lectures in Language and Education: Some Reflections for Master Two Students of English

Elaborated by: **Dr. Chahrazed HAMZAOUI**

Senior Lecturer (MCA)

Chahrazed.hamzaoui@univ-temouchent.edu.dz

Academic Year: 2022-2023

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Introduction

Lectures in Language and Education: Some Thoughts and Suggestions is a course reader that provides an innovative and wide-ranging introduction to the scope of language and education. Practically oriented and ideally suited to students new to the subject area, each part demonstrates how applied linguists can investigate the role of language in the educational sphere and the potential solutions available. Providing a dynamic and an overview of the rapidly growing field of language and education, this course reader will be essential reading for students studying didactics, applied linguistics and education at the advanced undergraduate or master's degree level. It is also a sort of gateway for students and teachers alike to better understand the wider scope of their work.

Course Objectives

The main objectives of this course reader consist in:
- Providing the students with an overview of language and its relation to home, education and community as a whole.
- Familiarizing them with the nature of the relationship between language and education, language testing and evaluation as well as how to educate learners with special needs.
- Enhancing their level to show their knowledge of the principles taught.
- To be aware of the importance of language at home, in the education sector and the community in general. Awareness should be raised with regard to the ways teachers assess their students/pupils inside the classroom. This will facilitate them the task as teachers in their professional career.
Having mentioned that, students should have been acquainted with the definition of some basic concepts such as 'language' and 'education', and being able to differentiate between theoretical linguistics (micro linguistics) and applied linguistics (macro linguistics.

Course Description

This course reader covers a wide range of topics that are of interest to students of didactics applied languages. It offers some thoughts and reflections of the fundamentals of a number of basic concepts and areas related to language and education. This course reader is also intended to provide students with a sound, basic coverage of most of the topics dealt with in courses described as 'language and education'. It is obvious that a work of this kind draws on a variety of sources. The breadth of the published sources can be seen in the bibliographic information that is included. I owe a considerable debt to the sources mentioned there. During the many years I taught, my students also provided me with numerous insights into what works in the classroom and what does not. The course book provides coverage of:

-What is meant by language and education;

-The relationship between language and education;

-The philosophy of education;

-The definition of some basic concepts of education;

-What kind of language is used in either home, community or school;

-The difference between home language and school language;

-A synopsis of language as a medium in educational institutions;

-A bird's eye view on language as an object in educational institutions;

- A bird's eye view on language as a subject in educational institutions

-How to educate linguistic minorities and learners with special needs;

-Some reflections on language testing and assessment and finally, demystifying some roles for applied Linguists.

Lecture One: What is Language?

Introduction

For many of us, speaking is as natural as waking up each day: it is an unconscious action that we rarely notice we are even doing. As a result, we usually do not imagine our language as something that might wield power, fuel debate or even cause conflict. In truth, however, language can operate in all of these ways. As these stories illustrate, language affects many facets of human culture: religious, political, social, and economic. Many of these situations described are provocative. The banning of certain languages or mandating the use of one over another have produced tension and anxiety, charges of isolationism, and even allegations of racism and discrimination.

1. The Way we Define Language

Language is human speech; it is the ability to communicate by this means; it is also a system of vocal sounds and combinations of such sounds to which meaning is attributed, used for the expression or communication of thoughts and feelings; it can be viewed as the written representation of such a system. (*Webster's New World Dictionary*). Language is any means of expressing or communicating, as gestures, signs, or animal sounds; it is a special set of symbols, letters, numerals, rules, etc. used for transmission of information.

For Sapir (1921, p. 8) " Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols". Bloch & Trager (1942, p. 5) consider language as "a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group cooperates". Hall (1968, p. 158) defines language as "the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols. Chomsky (1957, p. 13) on his part sees language as "a set of (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements. Robins (1965, p. 12) explains that "Language is a form of human

communication by means of a system of symbols principally transmitted by vocal sounds. Unfortunately, a perfect and satisfactory definition has yet to come. However, most linguists have come to a general agreement about the following important features that are typical of the nature of human language.

Language is Systematic: People can learn and use a language. That is, language is rule-governed. Two basic systems: a system of sounds; a system of meanings.

Language is Symbolic: People use signs to communicate. Thus, language is a system of signs. *The working of signs is called by Ferdinand de Saussure semiology and by Charles S. Pierce semiotics.* The relationship between an object and the sign that stands for the object signified vs. signifier.

Language is Arbitrary: which means that there is no logical connection between meaning and sounds; e.g. *skin* not *skni* which has nothing to do with the nature of skin. The sound of the word "house" signifies the concept "a building for people to live in"; if you know French the same meaning is represented by *maison*; in Spanish, the same meaning is represented by *casa*. These different words show that the sounds of words are only given meaning by the language in which they occur.

Language is Primarily Vocal: This means that all language use sounds. Writing is based on speaking, to capture sounds and meanings on paper. The primary medium of language is sound because,

1. Children learn to speak before they learn to read and write.

2. Children automatically learn a language as they grow up.18 months -12 years : sufficient exposure to writing: not natural, needs teachers

3. The spoken form came earlier than written form in history.

4. Writing is based on speech.

5. Spoken language is used more often than writing.

Language is Human Specific: Human language is different from animal communications in the following aspects.

1. the ability to refer to things far removed in time and space.

2. the ability to produce the understand an indefinite number of novel sentences.

3. learning -a more important factor in human language than in animal communication.

4. Animal communication system is closed, whereas human language is open.

Language is used for Communication (instrumental): We use more words than gestures when we communicate with others.

Although those who study language may disagree over a precise definition because they dispute some concepts, such as whether or not language must have a written and/or oral component, they all agree that language is a system of 'vocal signs' with an 'internal structure' and used for the purpose of 'human communication'. They also agree that language is a rule-based system of signs. Saying that language is rule-based, usually, makes people think of other kinds of situations where rules are enforced by a particular authority. For example, think about classroom behaviour. Students are expected to sit still, be quiet, pay attention, and so on; typically, there are consequences if they do not follow these rules.

Language rules, however, are not enforced by any authority figure; language police do not exist. Instead, language rules are conventions. This means that they come into existence through common practice by users of the language rather than through the imposition of an authority figure. As a result, members who use the language conventions of their particular community may not even be conscious of following them.

We talk about language as a system of rules or conventions because a single language convention, for example, a single word, a pause, or an alphabet letter, does not tell us much beyond its immediate meaning. Thus, we usually combine these conventions together to convey larger meanings.

2. Language and Communication

Language is foremost a means of communication, and communication almost always takes place within some sort of social context. This is why effective communication requires an understanding and recognition of the connections between a language and the people who use it. These connections are complex: for example, they tell you when to use slang with a friend or formal language with a boss, how to judge a candidate's campaign speeches, and whether to abbreviate an email. All of these acts require knowledge of the language, as well as the cultural and social forces acting on that language.

Social context is a major factor that drives our language choices. For example, consider the language you might have used in an interview situation, perhaps with a prospective employer or college admissions officer. If you are like many other people, in the interview you probably were as much concerned with how you spoke as with what you actually said. You may have even practiced sounding confident, for instance, or intelligent, so that you would make a good impression during the interview.

We make decisions every day, or have decisions made about us by other people, based on the language we use. We frequently evaluate a person's education, socioeconomic level, background, honesty, friendliness, and numerous other qualities by how that person speaks. And when we want to make a particular impression on someone else, we consciously choose our language, just as we choose our hair styles or clothing. Language is integrally intertwined with our notions of who we are on both the personal and the broader, societal levels. When we use language, we communicate our individual thoughts, as well as the cultural beliefs and practices of the communities of which we are a part: our families, social groups, and other associations.

3. Fluency in a Language

When you were a child, you might have had fun with your friends or family inventing a special language to be used just by your circle. May be it was a code - signs or made-up words that you substituted for real words. Or may be you created a made-up language by transposing sounds in some way: idday ouyay vereay seuay igpay atinlay? (Vause and Amberg, 2010). No matter what the structure of your language, it probably took a lot of work for you to produce it, remembering those words or sounds that substituted for others and the special flourishes that made it unique. To have any kind of conversation, you would have had to really think before you spoke and then wait a while for your friend to formulate his or her answer.

We bring up these childhood games to contrast this scenario with what we usually do when we use our native languages. If you are like most people, you probably never even think about how you produce language, but merely accept as a given that you know it. But, what does it really mean to "know" a language?

In fact, most of us have very little knowledge about the complex processes we go through just to produce sound and construct meaningful sentences. Do we think about, for instance, how air must leave our diaphragms, enter our mouths, and vibrate behind our closed lips to produce the sound "m"? Do most of us know that when we state a sentence, such as "I gave her the book," that "her" is the indirect object and in this sentence must occupy the position following the verb and no other? In actuality, very few people have this kind of language knowledge, and yet they possess fluency. They are able to comprehend and to produce language easily, aware of the many subtleties of its use. So "knowing" a language or being fluent in a language is very different from "having knowledge".

Today, most linguists agree that the knowledge speakers have of the language or languages they speak is knowledge of something quite abstract. It is a knowledge of rules and principles and of the ways of saying and doing things with

sounds, words, and sentences, rather than just knowledge of specific sounds, words, and sentences. It is knowing what is in the language and what is not; it is knowing the possibilities the language offers and what is impossible. This knowledge explains how it is we can understand sentences we have not heard before and reject others as being ungrammatical, in the sense of not being possible in the language. Being fluent means being able to use language in appropriate ways within particular social contexts. Our ability to use language in this way is called our communicative competence. To be more explicit, Wardaugh (2006) says,

> Knowing a language also means knowing how to use that language since speakers know not only how to form sentences but also how to use them appropriately. There is therefore another kind of competence, sometimes called communicative competence, When we respond appropriately to questions, tell jokes, use polite forms, give directions, and so on, we reveal our competence in language (p.3).

To test your inherent knowledge of well-formed English words, sentences, sounds, and communicative responses, look at the following list of words and phrases. Decide if each item conforms to your idea of what is appropriate or well-formed language. Explain why you find some items inappropriate.

1. The lawyer had went to Spain before.
2. He slept through the night.
3. He slept the train for eleven hours.
4. A new product name: Goutez-la.
5. Will you sleep over at my office?
6. Will you drive over at my office?
7. Will at my office you come?
8. Singular: loaf; plural: loafs.
9. A woman asks a man, "Where do you live?" The man answers, "More than 60 percent of the time."

Considering the complexity of language systems, you can see that being fluent is an amazing ability; even more amazing is the speed and age at which we acquire this ability. If you have ever been around young children, you probably will have noted that they gain communicative competence in their native languages quite

early, long before their brains and bodies mature, and do so without making a conscious effort. The fact that we become fluent within the first few years of our lives seems remarkable given the many, many elements and nuances of language use. What can account for our acquiring this broad knowledge in such a short space of time?

Lecture Two: What is Education?

Introduction

There is no agreement among teachers, psychologists, politicians, and philosophers as to what constitutes education, nor is there any agreement as to purpose of education. If the purpose is to train good citizens, we are faced with the fact that conceptions of good citizens differ in different countries. Can be an attempt done by the adult members of a human society to shape the development of the coming generation in accordance with its own ideals of life. This seems an unsatisfactory definition because: a-It is a definition of training rather than of education, and b-The rising generation will live in the world of tomorrow.

Whatever definition we accept of education and of the purpose of education, it will be coloured by our own philosophy of life. There appears to be a need for each one of us to define our own ideals and purposes. We may then hope for the good fortune to be able to realize them in part. The attainment by each child of his maximum potential intellectual efficiency through the cultivation of good mental habits would result in an increased measure of human happiness. There is perhaps nothing new in this, for many will see in this belief merely a variation of a Greek conception of happiness.

1. A Proposed Definition of Education

The discussion of diverse meanings of education can be very fruitful because it helps us see the world through different lenses and, particularly, enables us to think about and consider diverse meanings and practices of the dynamics of education. At the same time, since education is believe to be a practice, and in practice we need some very specific tools and toolkits to help us proceed. Ultimately, the definition that is regarded as the most useful was shaped by Lawrence Cremin, who is regarded as the most distinguished historian of twentieth-century education: Education is the deliberate, systematic, and sustained effort to transmit, provoke or

acquire knowledge, values, attitudes, skills or sensibilities as well as any learning that results from the effort (Cremin, *Public Education*, p. 27).

This broad-based definition indicates that education is a purposeful activity. The word "education" is reserved for frameworks created with the considered and conscious intent to educate. This definition also understands education as a process and not a place. It is a purposeful activity that can happen within a wide range of frameworks and not only in buildings called schools. Moreover, this intentional activity does not only transmit knowledge, but it also is concerned with values, attitudes, skills, and sensibilities.

Education is an activity that takes place in many diverse venues and is intended to develop knowledge, understanding, valuing, growing, caring, and behaving. It can happen when you sit in your house, and when you go on the way, and when you lie down and when you rise. While contemporary societies have denoted schools as the agency responsible for education, in fact, education far transcends the certificates of achievement received from pre-school, elementary, secondary, and collegiate frameworks.

2. Aims, Goals and Objectives

The concept of education invites the question "Education for what?" What is the purpose of education? While the terms, "aims", "goals", and "objectives" of education are sometimes used interchangeably, philosophers of education describe three distinct activities related to "purpose": Aims, Goals, Objectives = AGO (Noddings, 2007).

"Aims" refer to the most general ideals, values, or principles, which a person, institution, or society regards as the ultimate desideratum of education. Aims are value statements which designate certain principles or values as the ultimate aspiration. Aims describe both the ideal target of an educational institution as well at its ultimate desired outcomes or achievements.

Educational aims ultimately frame the overall direction of an educational system or institution.

"Goals" refer to a second stage, which is derivative from aims and focuses on contents and topics that should be studied to enable students to understand and actualize core ideals explicit in aims. Goals translate aims into specific contents or stepping-stones that should be part of the educational process. If one of the aims of Algerian schooling was to teach a set of shared values for its diverse populations in order to socialize them into a core of an Algerian society, then its goal was to provide them with skillsets such as language, science, and mathematics, which were then regarded as contents to enable realization of the larger shared Algerian persuasion.

The word "objectives" refers to the most practical stage, which is the actual teaching materials-books textbooks, maps, videos, and visual aids-used in the classroom each day, week, and month in a year. These are the infamous "lesson plans" which are an hour by hour mapping out of how teachers will spend every single day in the classroom.

3. Ways to analyse the Term "Education"

There are three types of definitions of "education" (Scheffler 1960). The first type is called *the descriptive*. It is a statement that proposes to denote or explain the nature of the meaning of the word called "education" by using a variety of words to explain either what the phenomenon is or how the term is to be understood. This type of definition claims to describe precisely how the word denoted as "education" is most prominently used.

The second type of definition of "education" is *the programmatic,* which comes to advocate for or prescribe a belief of what education *should be* or *should do.* A programmatic definition is less preoccupied with what the phenomenon or language of education is and more concerned with promulgating a particular practice of

education that is regarded as desirable. Sometimes prescriptive definitions are expressed in short, clipped sentences such as Pink Floyd's "We don't need no education". Programmatic definitions are ultimately short slogans or deeply felt preaching about the way education *should be.*

The third type of definition is *the stipulative* and its purpose is technical and utilitarian. It is basically a linguistic agreement or pact that enables a discussion to proceed smoothly without forcing a person to each time state. It is essentially a linguistic shortcut, in which one person's explanation of the word "education" is called Version 1; a second person's explanation is Version 2, and the third interpretation is called Version 3. This is a kind of a shortcut that enables the discussion to precede at a decent pace.

4. Some Contemporary Meanings

Let us now look at some diverse definitions of "education". One understanding of the term is the conscious effort to equip the unequipped youth with facts, knowledge, and skills that will enable them to function as adults in a specific society. This is often called the *socialization* model. A second usage of the word "education" understands it as exposure to, understanding of, and practice in skillsets that a person needs to be able to function in contemporary culture. This notion is sometimes called the *acculturation* model. A third notion of education focuses on the development of reflective thinking and feeling abilities so that the youth will be able to carve out how they wish to exist. This model is sometimes known as the *liberal* or *person-centered* model of education.

Lecture Three: Language and Education: What Relationship?

Introduction

In discussions of language and education, language is usually defined as a shared set of verbal codes, such as English, Arabic, Spanish, Mandarin, French, and Swahili. However, language can also be defined as a generic, communicative phenomenon, especially in descriptions of instruction. Teachers and students use spoken and written language to communicate with each other–to present tasks, engage in learning processes, present academic content, assess learning, display knowledge and skill, and build classroom life.

In addition, much of what students learn is language. They learn to read and write (academic written language), and they learn the discourse of academic disciplines (sometimes called academic languages and literacies). Both definitions of language are important to understanding the relationship between language and education. As suggested by Halliday (2007), the relationship between language and education can be divided into three heuristic categories: (1) learning language, (2) learning through language, and(3) learning about language.

1. Learning Language

In their early years, children are learning both spoken and written language. They are developing use of complex grammatical structures and vocabulary; communicative competence (rules for the appropriate and effective use of language in a variety of social situations); comprehension of spoken and written language; and ways to express themselves. Educational programmes for young children often emphasize curriculum and instruction to facilitate language learning. With regard to spoken language, instructional programs may emphasize opportunities to

comprehend a variety of genres from directions to narratives and opportunities to experiment with modes of expression. With regard to written language, classrooms for young children provide opportunities to learn alphabetic symbols, grapho-phonemic relationships (letter-sound relationships), basic sight vocabulary, and comprehension strategies; and also feature the reading of stories designed for young children.

There is debate about the extent to which classrooms for young children's language learning should provide didactic, teacher-centered instruction or student-centered instruction. Those who support a didactic approach argue that children whose language performance is below that of their peers need explicit instruction to catch up. These advocates argue that the home and community environments do not provide all children with the experiences needed to be proficient and effective users of language and that direct instruction with grammatical forms, vocabulary, and pronunciation can help certain students catch up with their peers.

A similar argument is made for the didactic instruction of written language. Written language, it is argued, is sufficiently different from spoken language as to require explicit instruction. Research noting the importance of phonological awareness to reading development is cited as rationale for a part (letters and sounds) to whole (fluent oral reading) curriculum.

2. Learning through Language

Research over the last decade has increasingly shown that language is a fundamental, if not *the* fundamental aspect of effective teaching and learning. For example it is known that the interaction between parents/carers and their children is fundamental to children's future development; similarly that teacher-pupil interaction is fundamental to pupil's progress in early years settings and schools. Language and interaction is also a pre-requisite for successful progress in literacy, which is necessary to access all school subjects. This research on the importance of

language comes from many disciplines including education, psychology, neuroscience, and linguistics, to name but a few.

One of the intellectual giants whose presence links language and multidisciplinarity is Vygotsky. Vygotsky's subjects of investigation were culture and consciousness, as the editor's introduction to one of his most well-known books explains:

> Vygotsky argued that psychology cannot limit itself to direct evidence, be it observable behaviour or accounts of introspection. Psychological inquiry is *investigation*, and like the criminal investigator, the psychologist must take into account indirect evidence and circumstantial clues – which in practice means that works of art, philosophical arguments, and anthropological data are no less important for psychology than direct evidence. (Vygotsky, 1986, p. xvi).

Learning, and language are interrelated. Learning in classrooms is primarily accomplished through language. Teachers lecture, ask questions, orchestrate discussions, and assign reading and writing tasks. Students engage in academic tasks through reading, writing, exploring the Internet, giving verbal answers to teacher questions, listening to teacher lectures and student presentations, participating in whole-class and instructional peer group discussions, memorizing written text and vocabulary, and so on.

Language enables students to play an active role in various communities of learners within and beyond the classroom. As students speak, write, and represent, they also listen to, read, and view the ideas and experiences of others. Critical and creative thinking and learning through language occur when students reflect, speculate, create, analyze, and synthesize. In addition, language enables students to develop metacognition; that is, it enables them to reflect upon and control their own thinking and learning processes. Language helps students develop an awareness of the skills and strategies they need to complete learning tasks successfully and to communicate about themselves as learners.

3. Learning about Language

Perhaps the most obvious classroom practice for learning about language is through the study of grammar and spelling. Another typical classroom practice for learning about language is the instruction of a second language. Learning a second language can mean one of two things: the learning of a foreign language (such as the learning of Latin, French, and Spanish in the United States) or the learning of English by those in the United States whose native language is not English. It is often the case that the teaching of a second language includes coverage of the grammar, vocabulary structures, and history of the language. Learning about language makes explicit the systems and conventions within a language to learn about.

These may be nuggets of knowledge, skills or strategies, from which big ideas and conceptual understandings are drawn and investigated over a period of time. These understandings engage students' thinking about viewing, presenting, speaking, listening, reading and writing. The "stuff" students learn about language is intentional. Meaning might be co-constructed through shared dialogue, or a genre, for example, might be deconstructed to identify its organization and language features. Learning about language occurs at the word, sentence and text level. Regardless of the level, it is important that students make personal connections between this language and their own lives through the use of literature, conversation, environmental print and building on students' interests.

Learning about the language also involves the history of that language, the etymology of words in the target language as well as the formation of words over time and the changes in the language. For instance, if one studies English, one learns the story of English, the story of migrations, settling, etc. And at the word level, students might find patterns with verb endings and test their theories, explore the different letters that can make a particular sound or experiment with the prefixes and suffixes that can be added to change base words. At the sentence level, students

might read and write metaphors, explore saying the same sentence with different voices or investigate how and why capital letters are used. At the text level, students might critique a cartoon, go through the writing process to craft a persuasive letter, participate in a debate or go on a concept walk in the local area to find examples of procedural texts.

Lecture Four: Philosophy of Education

Introduction

The history of philosophy of education is an important source of concerns and issues-as is the history of education itself-for setting the *intellectual* agenda of contemporary philosophers of education. Philosophy of education is the branch of applied or practical philosophy concerned with the nature and aims of education and the philosophical problems arising from educational theory and practice. Because that practice is ubiquitous in and across human societies, its social and individual manifestations so varied, and its influence so profound, the subject is wide-ranging, involving issues in ethics and social/political philosophy, epistemology, metaphysics, philosophy of mind and language, and other areas of philosophy.

Because it looks both inward to the parent discipline and outward to educational practice and the social, legal, and institutional contexts in which it takes place, philosophy of education concerns itself with both sides of the traditional theory/practice divide. Its subject matter includes both basic philosophical issues (e.g., the nature of the knowledge worth teaching, the character of educational equality and justice, etc.) and problems concerning specific educational policies and practices (e.g., the desirability of standardized curricula and testing, the social, economic, legal and moral dimensions of specific funding arrangements, the justification of curriculum decisions, etc.).

In all this the philosopher of education prizes conceptual clarity, argumentative rigor, the fair-minded consideration of the interests of all involved in or affected by educational efforts and arrangements, and informed and well-reasoned valuation of educational aims and interventions. The Western philosophical tradition began in *ancient Greece*, and philosophy of education began with it.

1. Purposes of Education as Philosophical Bases

Education as a process is a deliberate conscious undertaking organised by human beings. As such, it is goal-directed. It has purposes or goals it is designed to

attain. Such purposes form the principles to guide the process of education. A study of the purposes behind human engagements is a philosophical study. Philosophy poses questions on the meanings of human activities and engagements. A question such as "What is the purpose of crop production?" is a philosophical question demanding the fundamental or ultimate "*raison d'être*", that is, reason for existing. The question is on why people engage in growing crops. Similarly, the question "What is the purpose of education?" seeks an answer that tell us why education exists, or what education attempts to achieve, or what education was instituted to achieve.

Education in all societies is instituted to pursue predetermined ends in society. Plato who is renowned Ancient Greek philosopher set up an academy in Athens. One of Plato's major concerns, at that academy, was how to bring up a generation that was sensitive to the service of society; -which he called "The Republic". In that society everyone was supposed to be usefully deployed according to their abilities for achieving the good of society. Plato believed that the character and survival of any state depended on the quality of its people and their rulers. It was education that was to raise the quality of the people in the state. Each individual was to cultivate excellence in his abilities to render service to the Republic. The end or itycapable state to ensure its survival.

Thus in Plato's Republic education was to be instituted to meet the needs of the Republic- a well ordered and highly capable state. This purpose of education is reflected even today in most societies all over the world. The purpose of education for liberation according to Paul Freire (1970) is the liberation of oppressed people from the oppressive plight they live in. One may generalise that the purpose of all forms of education in the whole history of mankind has always been the attainment of some human good. Education is instituted in all societies to achieve what is good for mankind (Hirst 2005).

2. The Relevance of Philosophical Thoughts in Education

Principles of education are a sub-division of the discipline of education. They are part of "Philosophy of Education". Philosophy of education is the application of philosophy to issues in education. Philosophy of education applies the four major branches of philosophy to problems, goals and objectives, contents, methods outcomes of the practices in education.

The "philosophy of education" may be regarded as a 'systematic body of principles and assumptions that underline the field of education. It is often defined as the application of philosophy in education. Philosophy of education is geared at applying philosophical concepts, principles, theories and methods in analysing, clarifying and finding solutions to issues in education.

This is the reason why a course on "Principles of Education" is essentially a study of the philosophical bases or foundations of education. Philosophy of education focuses on the main branches of philosophy which, are philosophy as contents. It entails applying such branches to educational policies and practices. The main branches of philosophy are metaphysics, epistemology, axiology and logic. Metaphysics deal with questions on reality, epistemology deals with questions on truth, axiology deals with questions on value and logic deals with questions on correct reasoning or rationality.

3. Principal Historical Figures

Philosophy of education has a long and distinguished history in the Western philosophical tradition, from Socrates' battles with the sophists to the present day. The introduction by *Socrates* of the "Socratic method" of questioning began a tradition in which *reasoning* and the search for reasons that might justify beliefs, judgments, and actions was (and remains) fundamental; such questioning in turn eventually gave rise to the view that education should encourage in all students and persons, to the greatest extent possible, the pursuit of the life of reason.

Many of the most distinguished figures in that tradition incorporated educational concerns into their broader philosophical agendas (Curren 2000, 2018; Rorty 1998). Socrates' student *Plato* endorsed that view and held that a fundamental task of education is that of helping students to value reason and to be reasonable, which for him involved valuing wisdom above pleasure, honour.

In his *dialogue Republic* he set out a vision of education in which different groups of students would receive different sorts of education. Millennia later, the American pragmatist philosopher *Dewey* (1859-1952) argued that education should be tailored to the individual child, though he rejected Plato's hierarchical sorting of students into categories. Plato's student *Aristotle* also took the highest aim of education to be the fostering of good judgment or wisdom, but he was more optimistic than Plato about the ability of the typical student to achieve it. He also emphasized the fostering of moral virtue and the development of character.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712–78) famously insisted that formal education, like society itself, is inevitably corrupting; he argued that education should enable the "natural" and "free" development of children, a view that eventually led to the modern movement known as "open education." These ideas are in some ways reflected in 20th-century "progressivism."

Jean Jacques Rousseau contended that the child should be brought up alone and away from society, which was the source of evil in every child. The child was born naturally good. All the evil one finds in a child cannot have come from within him. It must have come from society Jean Jacques Rousseau contended that the child should be brought up alone and away from society, which was the source of evil in every child. The child was born naturally good. "Everything is good as it leaves the hands of the Author of things; everything degenerates in the hands of man" (Emile Book One)

God made the child. God is good. The child is good by nature. Whatever we find wrong in the child, he learnt it from his interactions with evil people. The teacher should guide the child according to his nature. "Let him know nothing

because you have told him, but because he has learnt it on his own. Let him not be taught science, let him discovery it" The purpose of education was to foster the good nature of the child and to protect him from being contaminated with evil. The child was to learn naturally by following his natural dispositions. "The child is not a miniature adult." (Jean Jacques Rousseau: *Emile*)

While that history is not the focus here, it is worth noting that the ideals of reasoned inquiry championed by Socrates and his descendants have long informed the view that education should foster in all students, to the extent possible, the disposition to seek reasons and the ability to evaluate them cogently, and to be guided by their evaluations in matters of belief, action and judgment. This view, that education centrally involves the fostering of reason or rationality, has with varying articulations and qualifications been embraced by most of those historical figures; it continues to be defended by contemporary philosophers of education as well (Scheffler, 1973,1989; Siegel, 1988, 1997, 2007, 2017).

Pestalozzi was a Swiss educator who established a school at Burgdoff in 1799 to put Rousseau's ideas and methods into practice. He conducted a number of pedagogical experiments, from which he concluded as working "splendidly". He used a method of instruction that he called "intuitive practice" to encourage the child to discover knowledge under the guidance and close supervision of his teacher. He also encouraged the pupils to learn through a series of activities that their teachers had carefully arranged, a procedure called learning by doing.

4. **Aims of Education**

The most basic problem of philosophy of education is that concerning aims: what are the proper aims and guiding ideals of education? What are the proper criteria for evaluating educational efforts, institutions, practices, and products? Many aims have been proposed by philosophers and other educational theorists; they include the cultivation of curiosity and the disposition to inquire; the fostering of creativity; the production of knowledge and of knowledgeable students; the enhancement of understanding; the promotion of moral thinking, feeling, and

action, etc. The great range of aims that have been proposed makes vivid the philosopher of education's need to appeal to other areas of philosophy, to other disciplines (e.g., psychology, anthropology, sociology, and the physical sciences), and to educational practice itself. Given that consideration of education's proper aims is of fundamental importance for the intelligent guidance of educational activities, it is unfortunate that contemporary discussions of educational policy rarely address the matter.

5. Clarification of Educational Concepts

A perennial conception of the nature of philosophy is that it is chiefly concerned with the clarification of concepts, such as knowledge, truth, justice, beauty, mind, meaning, and existence. One of the tasks of the philosophy of education, accordingly, has been the elucidation of key educational concepts, including the concept of education itself, as well as related concepts such as teaching, learning, schooling, child rearing, and indoctrination.

Although this clarificatory task has sometimes been pursued overzealously-especially during the period of so-called ordinary language analysis in the 1960s and 1970s, when much work in the field seemed to lose sight of the basic normative issues to which these concepts were relevant-it remains the case that work in the philosophy of education, as in other areas of philosophy, must rely at least in part on conceptual clarification. Such analysis seeks not necessarily, or only, to identify the particular meanings of charged or contested concepts but also to identify alternative meanings, render ambiguities explicit, reveal hidden metaphysical, normative, or cultural assumptions, illuminate the consequences of alternative interpretations, explore the semantic connections between related concepts, and elucidate the inferential relationships obtaining among the philosophical claims and theses in which they are embedded.

Lecture Five: Basic Concepts of Education

Introduction

This lecture introduces the concepts of education, formal and non-formal education, teaching, learning and curriculum. It gives a detailed analysis of what each concept involves.

1. Contexts or Forms of Education

As a process, education is a lifelong engagement. It is an endless acquisition of knowledge, competences attitudes. The individual is involved in continuous learning as long as he lives because he goes on experiencing new and continuous encounters with his environment. According to John Dewey, a prominent educational philosopher states: "every learning situation is new and unique" (Dewey, 1938). The environment keeps on presenting new and unique situations to the individual, demanding his acquiring additional knowledge, competences and attitudes to enable him deal effectively with emerging new unique situations in his surroundings. There are three contexts in which the process of education occurs: - That is (i) Formal Education (ii) informal Education and (iii) Non-formal Education.

2. Formal Education

Formal education (Ngaka, Openjuru and Mazur, 2012) denotes a "hierarchically structured and chronologically graded educational system", which starts at pre-school and continues through university and includes "academic studies, a variety of specialized programs and institutions for full-time technical and professional training" (p. 110).

Children, families, and adults voluntarily participate in formal education because they believe that formal education will provide a certificate or diploma for their children, and these official documents will help them receive a higher level of education and to build a better professional career. If unemployment is high and

there is high competition for employment, then there will be a higher demand for formal education.

It might be speculated that governments are pleased to see that people demand more formal education and people to see that they get better employment opportunities at the end of formal education. Contrarily, if people cannot get better opportunities and positions when they graduate, they may lose their desire to continue with and participate in formal education. This may cause crucial problems in society.

Formal education is an officially instituted and highly controlled education set up. It is in most countries instituted by law or parliamentary acts. Thus, formal education is highly systematic and orderly in terms of who is to enroll in it, to teach, the objectives and contents as well as methods of the curriculum and the awards to bestow the learners that achieve and merit such educational rewards. Formal education is systematically designed, organised and run according to precise curriculum prescriptions. The key features of formal education include:

 (a) Normally, formal education is designed to achieve a set of predetermined goals and objectives through the teaching of syllabus contents and adherence to laid-down pedagogical arrangements as prescribed in a curriculum.

(b) Formal education is confined in terms of when, during in each calendar year, and in terms of where, to conduct classes.

(c) Formal education provides awards to individuals who attain the set standards in learning achievement through officially accredited and legally recognised certification institutions that confer such awards. These awards signify the learners' attainment of officially recognised educational qualifications.

(d) Formal education normally uses face-to-face instructions, rather than, distance instructions and machine-based individualised instruction. Formal education is

conducted in schools and other formal education institutions, which are registered as legitimate providers of education.

 (e) Formal education is conducted in schools and other formal education institutions, which are registered as legitimate providers of education.

3. Informal Education

Informal education is a natural spontaneous process of acquiring knowledge, skills and attitudes from day-to-day experiences as the individual interacts with stimuli in his environment. According to Skinner (1960), the organism learns by emitting spontaneous operant responses on its environment. Dewey (1938) proposed that because the world around us keeps on changing we need to keep on learning how to deal with it at every point in time. A human individual cannot stop learning. He must go on learning in order to keep abreast with continuously changing conditions around him. This in essence is informal learning, which happens spontaneously all the time. This is an organised set of educational activities provided outside the school or the formal educational system. Some of the basic features of informal education are as under:

(a) Informal education is a natural spontaneous acquisition of knowledge, competences and attitudes. It is an opportunity that arises incidentally in the course of other prearranged activities of an individual. Thus, informal education is not deliberately planned or organised in advance.

(b) Informal education has no pre-determined goals, objectives, methods or procedures learning experiences, teachers and places or points in time where and when learners are to engage in the learning endeavour.

(c) Agencies providing informal education are not social organisations especially set up for that. They are incidental providers of education in the course of their other engagements. They include the family members and relations, neighbours,

peer groups and acquaintances, religious leaders and elders, supervisors and colleagues at work, and even well-wishers and friends of the individual learner.

(d) Informal education merely provides indirect learning opportunities. It is up to the learner to pay attention to such learning opportunities, if he feels he needs to acquire the knowledge competences, or attitudes offered by such incidental learning opportunities.

(e) Informal education is therefore characterised by lack of formality in the individual's acquisition of knowledge, skills of attitudes that would lead to his meriting recognised and standard qualifications on the discipline he is engaged in. Feedback to the learner is through his success or lack of success in meeting his needs adequately is the only award he gets from this kind of education.

(f) Learning achievement in informal education is neither assessed nor graded for any awards of certificates or diplomas. Its accomplishments are only rewarded by feedback to the learner through his success or lack of success in meeting his needs adequately.

(g) Informal education occurs continuously through the dissemination of information in the form news or reports of events as well as campaigns and publicity of current issues in society. (Publicity is the attention someone or something gets through newspapers, radio, or television etc.).

Campaigns are series of publicity activities including demonstrations aimed at airing and publicising a cause. The mass communication media are the chief disseminators of such a feature of informal education. Campaigners of certain causes such as women suffrage are the agencies of this form of informal education. Suffrage is the right to vote in an election. Before the campaigns for women suffrage, women were not allowed to vote in elections. It is informal education in the form of campaigns that brought about the restitution of women suffrage.

4. Non-Formal Education

The concept of non-formal education arises from the distinction made between education and schooling. In considering the right of mankind to education, educationists realised that people who had had no opportunity to enrol in the school system ought not be ignored or denied of organised education. Educational planners saw the chance of providing education outside the school or formal official system. The provision of non-formal education is conceived as a complementary provision to formal education.

Non-formal education (Ngaka, Openjuru and Mazur, 2012) refers to that type of education which does not take place in formally structured schools "such as adult literacy and continuing education programs for adults and out of school youth which does not necessarily emphasize certification" (p. 111). Non-formal education may cause children to develop desirable or undesirable behaviours. The environment plays a crucial part in this point. Even if it is impossible to monitor students out of school, parents should know where their children play and with whom they spend time. On the other hand, children may develop some unexpected behaviours even in a formally organized school while playing with friends at breaks.

Non-formal education is intended for citizens who have never entered the formal educational system to develop their skills, e.g. in order to have a better professional career. Additionally, non- formal education may accompany formal education and may appear in many different forms. For example, improving reading and writing skills of citizens, professional development in a specific field, learning about a healthy life style, teaching socialization processes to immigrants and acquiring the habit of spending time productively is non-formal education. The differences between formal and non-formal education can be seen in terms of the purpose, timing, content, delivery system and level of control (p.111). Some of the key-features of non-formal education are:

(a) Non-formal education is based on the individual's needs for and interests in learning, rather than being based on institutional needs and goals such as the need to satisfy manpower requirements in a country or in an institution.. The goals and objectives for non-formal education are derived from the individual's lack of knowledge, competences or desirable attitudes.

(b) Non-formal Education tends to be provided to meet immediate needs of learners in their day-to-day lives. Mothers with children suffering from severe malnutrition require knowledge and skills for providing their babies with balanced diet.

(c) Non-formal education is a continuous process; it allows learners to go back to the formal education set up, time and again, for additional education.

(d) Non-formal education is a compensational and remedial provision of education for those who did not have opportunity to go to school or those who dropped out of school before completing. It thus caters for the needs of a wide range of learners in society.

Table 1. Ideal Type/Models of Formal and Non-formal Education (Adapted from Simkins, 1977, p 12–15, cited in Fordham, 1993)

Differences	Formal Education	Non-formal Education
Purpose	- Long-term and general – Certified	- Short-term and specific - Certificate not necessarily the main purpose
Timing	- Long cycle/preparatory/full-time	- Short cycle/recurrent/part-time
Content	- Standardized/inputcentred-Academic - Entry requirements determine clientele	- Individualized/outputcentred - Practical - Clientele determine the entry requirements
Delivery system	-Institution-based, isolated from environment -Rigidly structured, teacher-centred and resource intensive	-Environment-based and embedded in the community -Flexible, learner-centred and resource efficient
Control	External/hierarchical	-Self- governing/democratic

5. Learning, Teaching and the Teacher

What is a "learning experience"? Nyagah (2010) expresses that learning refers to the encountering interaction between the external conditions and the learner in the

environment. Students have various interactions and are involved in some activities where learning takes place (UNESCO-IBE, 2013). What is learning? How do we learn? Learning is not only a complex process, but also some kind of a long-term psychosocial process. Learning includes individual acquisition of competencies, behaviours, skills, values, and knowledge. Children acquire these attributes though instruction or experience. The learning process is explained with psychological and physiological approaches. The learning process can be described with three important models.

These models are behaviourism, cognitivism, and constructivism. Briefly, behaviourism underlines a measurable change of behaviours in the learning process. Environmental factors are very important for children and affect their behaviours. Cognitive theories focus on the internal mental structure of the knowledge that shapes children's behaviours. Acquisition of knowledge and the processing of information happen through internal mental organization. The last model is constructivism which views the learning process as the addition of concepts and new ideas to existing knowledge and experiences (Kridel, 2010).

These learning theories highlight the changes in knowledge, understanding, skills, competencies and behaviours through environmental factors, internal mental actions or construction of new ideas. Learning is to feel different and to motivate individuals to explore new knowledge and ideas.When we learn something, we behave differently using the acquired knowledge and skills. Note that changes brought about by learning may not always result in improvement in mental disposition. Sometimes certain undesirable habits, such as immoral conduct, faulty attitudes are also learnt. Although many teachers and psychologists would disagree as to the exact nature of the learning process, there are certain principles of learning upon which most educationists would agree. Alvin Eurich (1962) of the Ford foundation summarises these as follows:

☐ Whatever a student learns, he must himself, no one can learn for him.

☐ Each student learns at his own pace.

☐ A student learns more when each step is immediately strengthened or reinforced.

☐ Full, rather than partial mastery of each step makes total learning more meaningful

☐ When given responsibility in his own learning the student is more highly motivated. He learns and retains more.

-Conditions necessary for efficient learning

Kisirikoi,Wachira, & Malusa. (2008) highlighted conditions for efficient learning as:

☐ Specific objective of what is to be learned should be articulated. This helps the student to attend to the right stimuli without delay.

☐ Readiness of the learners in the intellectual ability and physical, emotional and social maturation

☐ Use of communication method appropriate for the age of learners-language code of the learners

☐Careful guidance throughout the learning process

☐ Preliminary recall of previously acquired knowledge relevant to the material being learned to form association and links

☐ Strong motivation to learn.

☐ Active involvement of the learners in the learning process

☐ Feedback the learner to indicate success made in learning.

6. Teaching as a Profession

There are diverse approaches to teaching which also implicitly reflect the approach to learning. The didactic approach mainly entails lecturing and is typically teacher-centered and content-oriented, i.e. teaching as transmission where the learners are considered to be passive recipients of information transmitted. Teaching can also be seen as supporting the process of learners' knowledge construction and understanding, building on what is already known by the learner and involving a learner-centered approach (i.e. teaching as facilitation). Another approach emphasizes the development of learners' cognitive processes and awareness and control of thinking and learning" (UNESCO-UNICEF 2014, p. 222).

Teaching is a professional job. Individuals spend most of their time in teaching activities either at school or at home. Teaching is a full-time job even if they spend 4-8 hours at school because teachers make preparations before going in class, evaluate students' performances, assess exam papers and so on. Teaching covers all educational activities and teachers are responsible for children's education. Teachers manage the teaching process and provide students information, knowledge and skills, and they teach students how to attain information, knowledge, and skills (Kadi, Beytekin and Arslan, 2015).

They direct students' activities over class time (Nyagah, 2010). All educational systems focus on the importance of teaching. The question is how we can offer good teaching in class. This question reminds us of teacher education programs and the quality of education. Who can be a teacher? What kind of skills should be taught to them? According to Nyagah (2010), the following qualities make a good teacher:

- spending most of his/her time with students,

- increasing their skills by learning new ideas continuously increasing their knowledge,

- being a good model for students and conducting their personal life with good character,

- having appropriate and adequate knowledge of his/her specialization,

- adapting to new circumstances and managing crises successfully at school.

Durkheim (1956) describes a teacher as "the interpreter of the great moral ideas of his time and of his country" (p. 89). Teachers should have willpower and demonstrate confidence in their authority to transmit information. A teacher should be able to establish his authority without an external influence.

In relation to the quality of teachers and teacher programs, Motivans, Smith and Bruneforth, (2006) state that specific training is very important in teacher education if we desire to offer a good quality of education to students. Teacher quality requires "a range of motivation, competencies, and skills" (p. 49).

In consideration of teaching as a profession, a teacher-training program should include at least three aspects: general studies, subject-specific knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. Additionally, holding a knowledge of psychology, sociology, educational psychology, educational administration, curriculum knowledge, the education system, educational history, motivation theories, class management and school administration helps preservice teachers be "good" teachers. Preservice teachers need these various skills to develop themselves in order to answer students' different questions because students ask questions not only in a teacher's field but also in different subjects. That is why teacher training programs are very important to train individuals to be "good" teachers.

-*Characteristics of Good Teaching*

In order to ensure that you are teaching well, therefore, structure your teaching in relation to:

a) Your students

Be sensitive to your students' abilities, interests and needs. This motivates them to learn better.

b) The curriculum

Ensure that you:

☐ Are thoroughly familiar with what you are required to teach.

☐ Help your pupils to make sense of what they are learning.

☐ Encourage the creative ability of each pupil.

☐ Help children or pupils develop emotionally and socially.

c) Teaching methods. You should develop teaching methods that:

☐ Build on foundation of knowledge already possessed by your pupils.

☐ Encourage children learn by doing.

☐ Ensure that learning grows out of useful experience and experimentation

☐ Use teaching aids effectively.

☐ Create in the classroom, a conducive environment.

☐ Stimulate appreciation as well as cognitive development

☐ Vary groupings of pupils so as to get the most efficient learning.

Remember that you can achieve such structuring of teaching when you have sound knowledge of your students' cognitive development and of the teaching skills that you need.
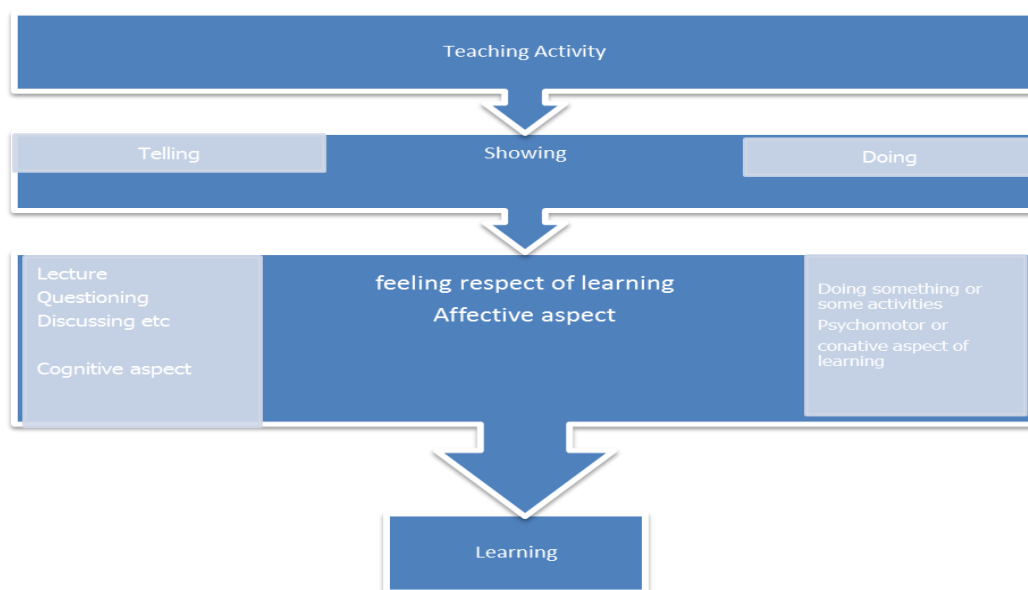
Figure 1: Teaching activity and learning

7. Curriculum

The term 'curriculum' comes from the Latin word 'curere' that means "to run a course". Therefore, the word denotes a subject which should have some special goals and produce outputs for learners. There are various kinds of courses in varying scopes. If there is a formal course, there should be a curriculum, too. Formal education cannot be established without a structured curriculum. There are different types of curricula and different types of descriptions in a curriculum (Nyagah, 2010). The definitions of curriculum can be grouped into two: narrow definition and broad definition.

The narrow definition of curriculum is a plan and program. Learners follow a course and by the end of the course they have learned what the course is supposed to teach. The other definition is a broad one which sees curriculum as an educational process. This is a more comprehensive and longer process. The course reflects learners' social needs. The broader concepts consist of behaviours, values, attitudes, and experiences of students both in and out of school. Pratt (1994) states

that the broad definition looks like a blueprint for instruction and incorporates teaching and learning processes.

Curriculum describes each detail of teaching and learning process and attempts to answer what, why, and how questions. A good curriculum fosters quality of learning in schools. This is a systematic and intentional way to have expected results at the educational system (UNESCO, 2011). A school tries to help students gain all learning experiences through the curriculum. Experiences are planned for children through their educational curriculum (Scottish Government, 2009 as cited in Hasan, 2018). Learning outcomes and some learning experiences are designed in order to teach children at school.

Educational systems are intended to improve children's knowledge and skills. To do so, they need a plan of action and curriculum, and the plan consists of teaching methods, learning objectives, assessments, learning content and educational materials. The system implements formal and non-formal education programmes.

Learning content consists of subject areas. These subject areas have no limitation. There might be on any subject. Learning objectives are targets for curriculum process. At the end of the process, students are supposed to develop attitudes and behaviours and to acquire skills and knowledge. Emotional, social, and cognitive development is promoted by educational activities.

Teaching methods are tools to improve knowledge and skills. There are various teaching methods and techniques and teachers prefer these methods and techniques in terms of their teaching abilities and course targets and contents. Instructional materials help learners better understand courses. There are various teaching and learning materials such as books, maps, teacher's guides, toys and supplementary resources. Assessment refers to a measurement tool in order to understand what has been learned from the course (knowledge, skills, attitudes, etc).

Assessment helps teachers and learners understand how much course goal has been reached at the end of educational program (UNESCO, 2016).

Lecture Six: The Language of Home, Community and School

Introduction

At the age of five or six, children come to their initial school experiences with oral language competences that are nearly fully formed. With an increasingly sophisticated grammatical competence and a burgeoning lexicon; they already understand and speak the language(s) they have been exposed to and raised in at home. Depending on the extent of their contact and relationships with family members and people in and outside the home, young children will also have developed the ability to communicate beyond their immediate families. In multilingual communities, children's linguistic repertoires are thus likely to include knowledge of the other languages and language varieties they hear and see.

Here are some of the pressing questions about the home-to-school transition that are important for teachers to consider and that we take up in the remainder of this lecture.

If homes are the places in which children develop their initial language abilities, what sorts of contexts do they provide for language use and development?

What is the nature of language socialization in homes and families, and what aspects of language do children develop in these most intimate domains?

What aspects of language and literacy development are not well supported in the home and would need to be promoted in school?

Once children are in school and receiving formal instruction, do their teachers view their ways of speaking as resources to be built upon or as barriers to their academic success?

How can educators build upon what children already know about language in order to support their language and literacy development in school?

1.   Language at Home and in the Community

In trying to understand why working class and immigrant children did poorly in, for example, British schools, Bernstein developed the notion that some working-class children entered school speaking what he described as restricted code, a tendency to speak in a way that takes knowledge of the specific topic and context of the talk for granted. Middle-class children, on the other hand, began school having already been socialized into the elaborated codes through which meanings are expressed more explicitly and with less context-specific language. Specific features of elaborated code were said to include more sophisticated use of adjectives and adverbs; grammatically complex and 'accurate' sentence-level syntax; conjunctions and prepositions indicating 'logical' relationships.

To be more specific, restricted and elaborated code are terms Bernstein developed to refer to two ways of using language: the former in situations in which interlocutors share knowledge, beliefs and assumptions, communicating much in few words (e.g. between farmers talking informally in a village pub); the latter in situations in which common ground is more limited and everything needs to be spelled out (e.g. between a farmer and bank manager discussing a loan in the bank manager's office.

Bernstein emphasized that these codes were social, rather than linguistic: 'Because a code is restricted it does not mean that a child is nonverbal, nor is he in the technical sense linguistically deprived, for he possesses the same tacit understanding of the linguistic rule system as any child' (Bernstein, 2003,1972, p. 197). There has been much discussion of what Bernstein meant by these divisions (Halliday, 2007 [1988]; Hasan, 1999). Bernstein (2003 [1975]) himself said that his two-code concept has been misinterpreted to mean that working-class speech is somehow linguistically deficient, its speakers linguistically deprived, and to argue that working-class children should be taught 'standard' grammar and to avoid using their 'non-standard' home dialect.

Nevertheless, language differences - among students from different backgrounds and between students and their teachers - can be observed in many contexts. Where teachers belong to more prestigious class, ethnic and linguistic groups than their students, these differences are also cited as barriers to learning for students from certain groups. The exact nature of a cultural and linguistic mismatch (and thus its potential implications) depends, of course, on the backgrounds of the students and teachers and the languages and varieties they (don't) speak.

Although educators by themselves cannot solve problems of child poverty or the structural inequalities that many immigrant and working-class families struggle against, teachers can use their applied linguistics expertise (analysing the discourse of classroom talk and student writing, for example, or having students compare the features of texts written in different languages, dialects or registers) to develop materials and propose instructional strategies aimed at building upon children's language resources rather than treating them as problems to be eradicated.

Although most attention has been paid to the home and school language of young children, high school leaving, or drop-out, rates are leading educators and researchers to look more closely at language among the factors involved in access to education for adolescents and young adults (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Oketch and Rolleston, 2007). Higher education, because it often involves moving to urban areas to study or find work in one's chosen field, tends to pull people away from their communities of origin and does not do much to send them back, especially to rural areas.

This is often the case in indigenous and other language minority communities, where education authorities place newly trained teachers with little regard for their language background. Although conditions vary across and within regions and countries, many teachers find themselves teaching in areas where they don't or won't speak the languages or language varieties spoken by their students. For example, in an ethnographic study of home and community language use among African American and white students in the south-eastern US, Heath (2006, 1983)

found that urban teachers in a teacher preparation programme struggled to see their students' ways of speaking as legitimate for use in school.

2. Language at School

When children begin formal schooling, are they greeted with a radically different language environment or is the experience more of a friendly transition to new forms and new conventions for language use? Is the linguistic knowledge that children have already developed and which they bring with them respected and built upon by their teachers, or is it disregarded or even rejected in favour of other forms of speaking, writing or signing? As we consider language at school, it is important to bear in mind that teacher attitudes, beliefs and knowledge about language are not homogeneous and may vary even within a single school, and that local conditions mean that every school is unique in this regard.

In his work on language vitality in bilingual communities, Fishman (2001, 1965) asked, 'Who speaks what language to whom and when?', a question which applies equally to language varieties, and is central to the issue of language use in school. The division of students into same-age groups, a common practice in contemporary education, virtually guarantees that children will have as their primary interlocutors classmates of the same age and approximate level of cognitive development.

A compelling example of children's early awareness and development of register comes from a study by Andersen (1990). Using puppets to role-play with children between the ages of four and seven, Andersen asked participants to act out the parts of child and adult characters in three distinct settings: family (with mother, father and child); a doctor's office (doctor, nurse and patient); and school (a teacher and two students). In the school setting, children first played the part of the teacher and one student and then were invited to play the two children, one of them an immigrant child new to the school. The researcher set up the scene as follows:

Why don't I be the teacher now, and you can be the two children. Only this time, let's pretend that one of the children just came to this country from somewhere far away where they don't speak English. So she doesn't speak English very well. This is her first day at school, and she doesn't know what to do at school. So why don't you tell her what we do here, and may be explain to her about a field trip we're going to go on. But remember, she only speaks a little bit of English (Andersen, 1990, p. 11).

Using discourse analysis to examine the transcribed role-plays, Andersen found that across the three settings even the youngest participants were sensitive to differences in register and modified their use of language depending on the age, gender and occupation of their interlocutors. Degrees of familiarity (speaking differently within the family than at school) and hierarchy (doctors, teachers and parents in superordinate positions) were also reflected in the children's talk. In the school setting, children used more directive [1] speech acts as 'teachers' than as 'students', and the frequency of directives by 'teachers' increased with the age of the children.

Children come to schools and classrooms from a range of differing social and cultural settings. The speech communities from which they come, may have very different patterns of language (discourse) for:

• interacting between members;

• conveying information and discussing ideas; from those practised in classrooms.

Children whose experiences include using language and literacy in ways that are similar to classroom-based routines, have a head start in building on their knowledge and experience to do well at school. Some children's prior-to-school experience may not serve them well in the new social setting of the classroom. That is not to say that their prior lived experiences are less powerful and valid than those of other children's. Since all children have mastered their first language before the

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[1] A directive is a speech act performed in order to make the addressee take some action. Examples include commands (Shut the door behind you!), requests (Could you shut the door when you leave?) and pieces of advice (You should shut the door!)

age of five, there can be little that is wrong with their language learning, thinking or reasoning processes. Rather, they need time and opportunity and a supportive, well-informed teacher to help them learn what they need to know to succeed at school.

3.   The Classroom as a Sociocultural Setting

"School is not simply a new location where the child learns new activities. It is, or it may be, a new social setting where unfamiliar people are using unfamiliar speech events according to unknown rules in an unfamiliar dialect" (Malcolm, 1982, p.168). What does it mean to say that the classroom school is a new social setting? We need to spend some time reflecting on the idea that each classroom represents a specific sociocultural setting.

• The "culture" consists of behaviours, rules, information and interaction patterns including language, that members come to know and share.

• The culture of each classroom has an effect on the students, just as the students have an effect on the classroom culture.

• It is a 'social setting' because communication takes place between participants. This communication includes sharing experience, showing social solidarity, making decisions and planning for events, a system of control and carrying out orders.

4.   The Classroom as the Site for School Learning and Language Learning

When babies are born into a social group, they have much to learn. They have to learn, for example:

• How to interact with other members of the group,
• How to interpret the world of their group
• How to think about the world in the ways of the group.

Adults use specific routines and practices to "socialise" their junior members into the appropriate and acceptable behaviours toward other members, both older and younger. Therefore, we could say that children learn the acceptable patterns for

social interaction, along with its values, beliefs and attitudes from the moment of birth. Furthermore, the 'apprentice' members learn what to pay attention to in their environment, how to pay attention in the ways of the group, and how to show that they are paying attention.

As well, they have learned how to think, act, believe and value in the ways of their group. They have learned what is essential information they need to know, and how to talk about that information. In all of these learning processes, language plays a crucial role. As children and adults share information relevant to the group, they also learn shared views and beliefs, and shared attitudes about their world and the people in it. As they share information, they learn how to 'do things with words', i.e.

• to talk about experiences in the past, present and future
• how to persuade someone to their point of view
• how to argue, discuss, disagree, agree
• how to predict
• to inform someone of something
• how to tell stories
• how to clarify meanings
• how to compare and contrast different things
• to command someone to do something and much more, in the ways of using talk shared by the group members.

All of this powerful learning is made possible through language, and most children by the time they reach school age, have largely mastered the interrelated systems of meaning of their first language. Further, they have learned the particular 'world view' common to them all, how to learn about their world, and how to talk about it. They have learned powerful strategies for thinking, and have developed the higher order thinking skills, such as reasoning, weighing up evidence, inquiry etc. necessary for their survival. They have accomplished a huge amount of learning before they go near a classroom, and while they are, relatively speaking, quite immature intellectually.

5. Talk and Literacy in the Classroom

Most classroom business takes place in language. Various activities including teaching the curriculum or managing groups of students are mediated through dialogue or turn-taking which can be called Initiation–Response–Feedback (IRF) according to Sinclair and Coulthard 1975. In this way, teachers and students construct a body of shared knowledge about the topic.

The Russian psychologist Vygotsky (1962) saw language as both a cultural tool, which inducts children into the shared knowledge and understandings of their society, and a psychological tool, which extends their learning and development. The ways in which they take part in classroom talk and literacy activities, are shaped by their sense of gender, social class, or ethnic identity and the ways in which they feel positioned within classroom discourse. Right from the beginning of schooling, students are shifted by teachers towards using more literate forms of language. Psychologists like David Olson have argued that the acquisition of literacy is enormously important for children and for society; it leads to more abstract, explicit, rational, scientific thinking.

Lecture Seven: Home Language vs. School Language

Introduction

Language is primarily a means of communication. The signals used to transmit telegraphic messages etc., are all communication systems and they are interpreted in language. Language is used by human beings to communicate ideas, to transmit messages and to express emotions, desires and feelings. It is intimately related to human beings since it is the universal and exclusive characteristic of man alone. It is the product of the human mind and the vocal apparatus which the human being possesses. It is the most important. It is the tool which enables to make living, build home, and fashion life etc. It is the instrument which gives order and organization to thinking.

In countries where only one language is spoken, there is no problem for the child, because he has to develop proficiency only in one language. But, in a country like Algeria where there is multiplicity of languages, there is the problem of intercommunication. This is the reason why in Algeria normally a child knows two or three languages, from here, come the notions of home and school language. Home language is the language spoken in the home. School language is the language spoken in the school. A child who starts school knowing only a home language that is different from the school language.

1. Language in and out of School

Many children experience striking differences between language and literacy practices at home and school. In multilingual communities they may be educated through a second or third language. When it comes to monolingual children, the language variety they speak, and the ways in which they use language, do not fit well with expectations in the classroom. For example, in the 1960s and 1970s the British sociologist Basil Bernstein (1971, 1977, see also 1996) suggested that the

reason why so many working-class children were failing in the British educational system was that they grew up learning what he called a restricted code, in contrast to the elaborated code also acquired by middle-class children. These different codes provided contrasting ways of taking meaning from the world. Bernstein describes how working-class children learn a restricted code in position-oriented families where social control is exercised through the authority of parents and fixed-role relationships.

There is an emphasis on solidarity and shared communal meanings, and children learn to use language in relatively implicit ways, with short sentences containing few adjectives and adverbs, linked by repetitive conjunctions like 'and' or 'then'. In contrast, in middle-class, person-oriented families, communication is more open and roles are less fixed. Social control is exercised through explanation and appeals to the child as a person, and children are encouraged to express their own ideas and viewpoints. Children brought up with an elaborated code, Bernstein argued, are used to drawing on a wider range of syntactic and semantic linguistic forms and are able to use language explicitly, organize experience conceptually and articulate decontextualized ideas much more easily than children from working class.

2. Language Use and Academic Achievement

Academic performance depends not only on a student's ability to learn the material, but on their ability to understand spoken and written language is their ability to convey their knowledge both verbally and written, as well as their literacy skills such as reading, writing, and spelling. Kids start developing the precursor skills needed to read, write, and spell. If those skills are later developing or do not develop, students' performance will suffer. Academic language is defined in general as the language that is used in schools that helps students acquire many systematic form of rule on context to use in a formative knowledge. The school language is findings indicate that students in urban secondary school performed better than students at the rural school because of sharing of resources material available.

3. How Can School Help Language Better?

Speech-language pathologists are highly trained in the areas of

1. Language development

2. Language comprehension

3. Expressive language (spoken and written)

4. Social Interactions

These areas underlie every topic in every class at every grade level; therefore, difficulty with language can result in poor academic performance. Remediating underlying concepts such as understanding vocabulary or grammatical concepts like plurals, verb and tenses will help a child's performance in the classroom. This narrow conception of language as a subject is no longer tenable. Language as a subject is one dimension of the language of schooling, which also includes language in other subjects. The languages of education perspective are even wider and it includes the importance of regional, minority and migrant languages

Table 2: Differences between Home and School Language

	Home Language	School Language
1	Begins with telegraphic speech	Can begin with full sentences
2	Is a natural part of daily life	Is a new aspect in the learner's life
3	It started no basis in grammar	It has a basis in grammar
4	Does not require conscious effort	Requires conscious effort
5	Is based in listening as a first resource	Involves technical knowledge of the language
6	Does not require instruction	It requires instruction

First language acquisition is not dependent on intelligence or special ability for languages. Everyone acquires their native language fully and properly. What is true is that some people have a greater stylistic range and larger vocabulary in their native language but that is not connected with first language acquisition. You learn style in school when you learn how to write the standard of your language and you learn specialized words consciously after childhood. There are certain phases in first language acquisition: one-word, two-word and multiword stages. Furthermore, in early childhood children make maximally simpler generalisations about language, e.g. that all verbs are weak. After a while they correct themselves (when they just hear the adult forms). Once they have acquired the latter, they remember them.

4. Seeking a Solution Language

Academic language (school language) provides the basic building blocks and material for learning in school. Academic language can be organized into two main categories:

1. Specific content language and

2. General academic language.

Specific content language serves as the building blocks of learning, while general academic language serves as the mortar or glue of learning. Students who try to build knowledge without a firm grasp of general academic language may struggle to learn specific subject matter content. When teachers help their students build the formal academic language of school, then students can begin to bridge the gaps in their language, literacy, and achievement.

5. Children Learn better in their Mother or Home Language?

UNESCO has encouraged mother tongue (home language) instruction in primary education since 1953 and UNESCO highlights the advantages of mother tongue education right from the start: children are more likely to enrol and succeed in school, parents are more likely to communicate with teachers and participate in

their children's learning, and children in mother tongue education tend to develop better thinking skills. Firstly learning does not begin in school. Learning starts at home in the learners' home language. Although the start of school is a continuation of this learning, it also presents significant changes in the mode of education. However, when learners start school in a language that is still new to them, it leads to a teacher approach and reinforces passiveness in classrooms. When learners speak or understand the language used to instruct them, they develop reading and writing skills faster and in a more meaningful way.

Language is an essential part of our existence in society, as much as breathing is necessary for our survival. It ceaselessly marks its presence in every domain of our lives. The language used at home is an important determiner of students' overall academic success. Fluency in the vernacular language does not impede academic success. It may, in fact, contribute to it. Language is not merely the medium of instruction at all levels of education; it is the medium of growth.

It provides capacity for preservation and communication of intellectual life. At higher level, language provides the medium of fresh and free thinking. In education it is supposed to communicate knowledge, and in general life it is the instrument to pick up information. We need language to learn, to retain and to recall our knowledge. It is the primary need of the child also a constituent element of civilization. It raised man from a savage state to the plane which he was capable of reaching.

Lecture Eight: Language as a Medium in Educational Institutions

Introduction

Language and education are two inseparable concepts because education is disseminated via language. As Dube and Ncube (2013, p. 250) put it, "education and language are dependent on each other. If education is to be attained, language has to be used and for language to endure, survive and be respected, it has to be taught in schools". However, Wolff (2005, p. 3) is of the opinion that "language is not everything in education, but without language, everything is nothing in education". Though language is not everything in education, the language of education has always been a bone of contention, especially in multilingual societies because of the effect it has on educational success. Opinion is divided on whether to use the first language (L1) as medium of instruction or a foreign language (English, French, etc). Algeria, like many African countries has problem selecting a language for education and ensuring its successful implementation because of her multilingual nature.

1. The Role of Language at School

Language also rules as a tool in school, as it does in other human endeavours and spheres of interaction. Try to envision, if you can, a school without the medium of language. Imagine, for example, a teacher's lecture on gender relations in the absence of speech. Obviously, very little of what we recognize as learning or teaching could take place. Although weary teachers of adolescents might welcome the occasional absence of 'off-task' language behaviour such as 'teasing, showing off, competing, putting others down, duelling with the opposite sex' (Halliday, 2007 [1998], p. 52), they would also be hard pressed to develop their academic counterparts, forms of language such as debate, parody and satire.

In the real world, of course, language is the primary medium of instruction and learning. The language and discourses we encounter in school have profound consequences for social justice. These meanings will depend on the language(s) or

variety(ies) used in instruction, those that students are best able to comprehend and express themselves in, and how students understand and are understood by their teachers and peers. This problem is hinted at by the school rules which suggest that 'respect' is expressed universally and that 'quiet' is the default for school behaviour. It is perhaps especially evident in situations where instruction is not offered in the student's first or home language, such as for students who cannot hear and so need sign interpreters, and for hearing students who are still learning their teachers' language(s).

Figure 1: Our school rules': an example of the ubiquity of language in school (Adapted from Whinney Banks Infant School, Middlesbrough, UK)

2. Language Policy and Planning

Language is a key element in the construction of human groups. All children are socialized into their respective language groups. Adults teach children the structures and lexis. Thus, they protect and promote language to a certain degree, and forms of language policy and language planning (LPLP) occur in all societies.

Language policies are formulated in multilingual societies to solve communication problems. Language policy according to Bamgbose (1991, p. 1) is "a program of action on the role or status of a language in a given community". In almost a parallel situation, Schiffman (1990) sees language policy as what governments officially do through legislation, executive actions or other means to determine how languages are to be used in public contexts, cultivate language skills needed to meet national priorities or establish rights of individuals or groups to learn, use and maintain languages in a multilingual setup.

Nationalism is based on culturally and linguistically homogeneous people differentiated from neighbours. Nationalism is one type of political setting in which LPLP has been undertaken in a particularly rigorous and systematic way. The role of LPLP in nation building is quite significant. 1970s was a time of intense LPLP activity as the governing classes of newly independent states considered how to manage language matters in the new polities, and Western-trained linguists proposed themselves as researchers and consultants. This led to the classic division of LPLP into: status planning, corpus planning and acquisition planning (Cooper, 1989).

Status Planning

• Made at the highest levels of a polity
• Enshrined in law
• This is the case when a language is formally adopted as a national language.

Corpus Planning

• Corpus planning is an attempt to change the forms and structures of the language itself.

• This task is often undertaken by national language planning agencies.

• It involves processes of codification and standardization.

Acquisition Planning

• It concerns the implementation of status and corpus policy.

• Educationists organise how it will be acquired.

Applied linguistic research has also been invoked in debates over language as a medium of instruction, including cases where teachers and learners arguably share the same first language but not the same variety. For example, in the USA, in 1979 Martin Luther King Junior Elementary School, African American parents contended that their children were receiving an inferior education because the members of the primarily white teaching staff could not communicate with them. Although teachers claimed to be unable to understand students (and thus unable to teach them effectively), testimony provided by linguists demonstrated that the students, being "bidialectal"**,** had little trouble understanding teachers (Labov, 1982). These expert witnesses convinced the court that the varieties of English spoken by students at the school were structurally comparable to the 'standard' variety of American English used in instruction.

3. Status of Languages in the Algerian Educational Institutions

In Algeria, different languages are used in people's daily life, each with its different varieties at play:

1. Mother tongue – Native language- meaning Algerian Arabic

2. National language (also mother tongue of certain populations) – Tamazight (Berber which recently acquired official status (article 4, 2016 as cited in Hamzaoui, 2017).

3. National and official language – Arabic (meaning Modern Standard Arabic).

4. First foreign language (second language sociolinguistically) – French.

In this complex situation, language choice in Algeria is of crucial importance in its economic, educational and social development. It requires a review of language policy and appropriate language planning to promote national development in the age of information and communication. In multilingual societies, in particular, there exists too much controversy over which language to be used in schools, especially at the lower primary level. Indeed, there is a general agreement among Arab education experts and practitioners that MSA is the medium of instruction in all Arab institutions.

However, there is a growing body of awareness among scholars that language education confronts so many barriers which may contribute to shortcomings on the results of the education process. One of the central obstacles lies essentially in both teachers' and learners' linguistic knowledge, i.e., the kind of language teachers and learners need to be acquainted with and the kind of training experience that may aid teachers develop this knowledge. Such issue is clearly manifested in all Arab educational institutions, since most teachers lack the adequate knowledge in the language of instruction, which in turn affects learners' competence.

Moreover, teaching in a language which is unfamiliar to a learner is often too demanding for a learner to cope with, particularly for pre-school and primary-school learners. In other words, if learners' first language is not used for learning and teaching processes, this may lead to negative impact on their school achievement in general. Pinnock (2009, p. 8) explains this issue by stating that "The language used to deliver the school curriculum pulls down the educational performance of many of those who do not use it at home, particularly those who do not have access to it outside school." Therefore, our own view regarding issues in relation to language diversity in various Algerian educational settings, and whether we consider them as 'problems' or 'resources' is going to be essential to provide an understanding of Algerian education in particular, because what is at stake is the role of Arabic in this field.

4. Language Policy in Education

In multilingual countries where the official language is different from the indigenous languages and where there is no indigenous national language, it is a daunting task for most governments to initiate a far-reaching language policy of education which will have positive effect on children's learning. This has made some multilingual countries take short-cut policies which have detrimental effects on children's academic success. They resort to using the official language of the nation which is not an indigenous language.

They use a second language (a language of wider communication) as the medium of instruction. This violates UNESCO Committee Report of 2008a that the child's language should be used as medium of instruction because it is cognitively, psychologically and linguistically beneficial to learners. Research has shown that the language of instruction has repercussion on students' academic success (Bamgbose, 1991).

There is positive and significant correlation between language performance and performance in other academic subjects (Owu-Ewie, 2012). This implies that students who are proficient in the language of instruction generally perform well in subjects taught in that language. The corollary of this, according to Qorro (2009) is that students who are not proficient in the language of instruction generally perform poorly in subjects taught in that language. The language of instruction plays a major role in ensuring effective communication in the classroom.

5. Bilingual Classrooms

In bilingual classrooms, the frequent switch between two or more languages is customary (Baker, 2001). The use of two languages in a bilingual classroom is regularly practiced sometimes without any official backing from the policy makers. Teachers integrate the two languages concerned to achieve their teaching tasks. Jacobson (1990) argues that the integration of both L1 and L2 in a lesson is of great

value. He indicates four ways L1 is used in L2 medium of instruction classroom when in actuality they are not supposed to do so.

These include randomly switching languages, translating, previewing and reviewing, and purposeful concurrent use of the two languages. Baker (2001, p. 280) stipulates that a variety of cues can trigger a switch from one language to another in the teaching-learning process. Among such cues are reinforcement of concepts, reviewing, capturing students' attention, and change of topic. Others are gaining rapport, changing from formality to informality and praising or reprimanding students. Translanguaging in the classroom has some potential advantages which encapsulate the promotion of deeper understanding of the subject matter, the development of skills in the weaker language and the facilitation of home-school cooperation (Baker, 2001).

Lecture Nine: Language as an Object in Educational Institutions

Introduction

The content of this lecture brings into focus the use of language as an object of school study. Instruction focusing on language in this way is known by many different names, and programmes vary according to individual factors, including the learners' age, home background and learning aptitudes. In the UK, for example, under the National Curriculum adopted in the early 1990s all students between the ages of five and sixteen study 'English' as a compulsory subject, and this general convention is reflected in the national education schemes of Commonwealth countries and others influenced by the UK.

9. Knowledge about language and language learning strategies

In addition to the four communication skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing, learning a foreign language also has a major impact on developing learners' generic awareness of the importance of recognising language patterns and grammatical structures. Children increase their understanding of how language works, explore differences and similarities between the new language and English or another language and this reinforces their understanding of their own language.

They become aware of the rules or patterns in language and apply this knowledge when generating new language. When learning a new language, children reinforce and reinterpret knowledge and understanding gained in learning their first language. In the early years children should develop insights into the sounds and some of the structures of the new language and compare them with their own language. As they increase their understanding of the rules of sounds, spellings and grammar, they should begin to apply these rules when creating new language, both spoken and written. As they progress, children should have frequent opportunities to apply previously learned knowledge and rules in English and the new language.

10. Language and Learning

The insight that language has functions beyond communication, particularly that use of language is intricately related to the development of thought, has had important consequences for teaching, Theorists have differed on the precise relationship between language and thinking and in the past have perhaps overemphasised the degree to which language actually determines thought. It is perhaps more accurate to see language and thought as interdependent rather than to assert that they are identical or to try to say whether one determines the other but acknowledgement of the way they are intricately connected has underpinned important pedagogical considerations.

Realisation of the nature of the relationship between language and learning meant that more stress was placed on the use of exploratory talk in the classroom in order to allow the expression and development of concepts. It is through language that learners can bring to explicit awareness what formerly they only had a sense of. If language use is seen as a primary means of learning, the learner needs to be seen as an active participant, using language to explore, develop and refine concepts not just to communicate them. This of course is true within all subjects of the curriculum and provides a theoretical foundation for the concept of language across the curriculum. If, in contrast, language is considered solely as a system of communication this tends to relegate the learner to a mere passive role as a receiver of knowledge. Language also has a key role in personal development, in exploring and defining responses and feelings. This leads to the view that one key aim of language as school subject is the personal growth of the learner.

This approach has often been related to what is referred to as the *more creative or expressive uses of language*; e.g. writing stories, poems, personal reminiscences often in response to literature. The different aims of language as school subject can lead to unhelpful polarisation, with advocates of a personal growth view opposed by those who see the primary aim of language as school subject the development of functional literacy so that the learner can meet the demands of adult society. These

polarised views can be avoided to some degree by placing theoretical perspectives on language at the fore; language is inextricably connected with the growth of learning of all kinds and this needs to be acknowledged in the way language as school subject is conceived.

Children will have experience of learning about and using simple grammatical terms such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and pronouns. They will need to apply this knowledge in the context of learning about languages which are new to them. This knowledge can be taught in the new language or in English. In the Key Stage 2 Framework for Languages the objectives for developing children's knowledge about language are integrated into the learning objectives and teaching activities for oracy, literacy and intercultural understanding. Children are expected to:

• identify phonemes, letters and words which are similar to, and different from, English in spoken and written forms
• recognise commonly used rhyming sounds and learn how they are written
• understand and use a range of common words from all word classes, especially verbs • recognise that languages use different writing systems, have different ways of expressing social relationships (for example, politeness), borrow words and describe concepts and ideas differently
• apply their knowledge of language rules and conventions when building short sentences and texts, spoken and written
• understand and use question forms and negatives in spoken and written language
 • understand that rules and conventions are respected by native speakers and are important for learners
• recognise some basic aspects of agreement where relevant, for example, gender, singular/plural, pronoun/verb, adjectives
 • recognise the importance and significance of intonation and punctuation.

Learning about language is most meaningful when it occurs in the context of actual language use. In order to make their meaning clear, learners need to consider clarity of expression and the grammar involved. Thus they become aware of such

concepts as word order, number, gender, negatives, pluralisation, verb and adjective agreement, intensifiers, tense and simple and compound sentences. Children have regular opportunities to think about the best way for them to learn a new language, and they employ a range of strategies to help them do this. These can also be applied to any language that they might learn later in life. Children are expected to:

• discuss language learning

• discuss and try out different learning strategies

• plan and prepare themselves for a language activity

• analyse what they need to know in order to carry out a task

• use knowledge of English or other languages to help learning and understanding

• direct all their attention to what they need in order to understand a spoken or written text

• refer appropriately to sources of support both in books and online, dictionaries and so on

• use gesture and mime to show understanding and help make themselves understood

• improve their ability to memorise

• apply prior knowledge of language structures to understand or create new language.

11. Theory and Pedagogy

There is unlikely to be a simple causal relationship between theory and practice in the classroom or the formation of policy. Many question about the teaching of language as school subject are inextricably tied with questions of value and priorities. It is important, however, to have some understanding of the different debates and how theoretical perspectives have influenced them to ensure that thinking is broadened and judgements are appropriately informed. There is no one correct way of describing general approaches to the teaching of language as school subject. Broad summaries will inevitably oversimplify but may be useful in identifying patterns of practice.

What might be termed a 'progressive' approach recognised the importance of emotion and subjectivity in learning but to some critics erred in its overemphasis on undisciplined self-expression. Many traditional approaches which identified the importance of tradition, criticism and the public element in learning could be said to have placed insufficient emphasis on the importance of subjectivity and creativity. Approaches to the teaching of language as school subject which have been highly influenced by sociolinguistics recognised the importance of the active use of language and of allowing pupils to formulate their own responses but have been criticised for reducing the content of lessons to a form of social studies and neglecting the aesthetic dimensions of language. A Framework for Language Education would help users to evaluate the type of emphasis in their own approach.

12. Some Issues Related to Language as an Object in Educational Settings

Languages and varieties of power, almost always those that are written, are fostered and sometimes imposed in schools. Throughout the world, schoolchildren are expected to master arbitrary conventions of usage in unfamiliar and often disconcerting languages and language varieties, including preferred pronunciation, pragmatic features like appropriate forms for requests, written language conventions such as spelling and punctuation, and *metalinguistic[2] skills* like naming the parts of speech or diagramming the structure of sentences.

Some issues surrounding language as an object of education apply to both first (L1) and additional language (L2) teaching. One of the main questions regarding how languages are taught is whether they are presented to learners with emphasis on the components of the linguistic code and their manipulation (for example naming the parts of speech, conjugating verb tenses, learning vocabulary lists, writing sentences with key words) or with more of an emphasis on interaction with whole texts (reading or listening to stories, singing along with songs, writing poems, etc.).

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[2] Metalinguistic skills are those things that learners and other language users can do with language that are not strictly linguistic, for example knowing how to begin a speech or, in writing, when to capitalize certain letters or use end punctuation. Since these abilities are often highly visible, they sometimes are used, inappropriately, as proxies for gauging linguistic knowledge.

Language occupies a crucial position in national development priorities, and language choice remains a key policy issue in many societies, be they monolingual or multilingual. Language plays an important role in providing access to knowledge and learning, and its mastery contributes to educational success. Hornberger (1996) sums up the relationship between language and education in the following terms:

Education is the site where, on the one hand, larger social and political forces are reflected in the kinds of educational opportunities offered to speakers of different language varieties and, on the other, language use mediates their participation on other opportunities and ultimately, their potential contributions to the larger society. (Hornberger, 1996, p.461).

13. Relevance of First Language Development

Research in monolingual settings has found that children come to school with approximately 3000-word vocabularies (Boyer, 1991) and with almost complete control of basic syntax (Brown, 1973; Chomsky, 1969). Infants have learned to distinguish the sounds of language by the age of six months (Proceedings of the White House Conference on Early Childhood Development and Learning, 1997). By kindergarten, most children have developed an intricate linguistic system. They progress from discriminating relevant sounds to expressing simple meanings in two-word utterances, to expressing abstract and complex ideas in multi-word sentences. The language is learned primarily through interaction with adult caretakers who elaborate and extend initial one- and two-word utterances until the children's language approximates that of adults.

14. Which Language Should Be Used in School?

When talking about the English language, most parents want their children to succeed in the English-speaking global community as well as in their vernacular language and home culture. Some believe that the more children are exposed to English, the better and quicker they will acquire the language. Parents may, therefore, speak to their children in English rather than in the vernacular. These

parents may believe that using the vernacular will result in "insufficient exposure" to English.

They may believe that exposure to the vernacular language will endanger the development of English and that childhood bilingualism will confuse children, linguistically and cognitively. Both parents and educators often fear that the use of the vernacular language, at home and at school, will have negative educational consequences for children (Odo, 1987). Wong-Fillmore (1991) explained what occurs in homes where parents use their weaker language (for example, English) to communicate. Parents are less able to elaborate and extend the language and thinking of their children. They may not be able to communicate complex ideas. Their relatively weaker ability to speak in English may cause them to speak less to their children. Some may avoid interaction entirely. Consequently, children will go to school with inadequate development in both their first language and English.

15. Knowledge about language and language learning strategies at Primary Education

In addition to the four communication skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing, learning a foreign language also has a major impact on developing learners' generic awareness of the importance of recognising language patterns and grammatical structures. Children increase their understanding of how language works, explore differences and similarities between the new language and English or another language and this reinforces their understanding of their own language. They become aware of the rules or patterns in language and apply this knowledge when generating new language.

When learning a new language, children reinforce and reinterpret knowledge and understanding gained in learning their first language. In the early years children should develop insights into the sounds and some of the structures of the new language and compare them with their own language. As they increase their understanding of the rules of sounds, spellings and grammar, they should begin to apply these rules when creating new language, both spoken and written. As they

progress, children should have frequent opportunities to apply previously learned knowledge and rules in English and the new language.

Children will have experience of learning about and using simple grammatical terms such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and pronouns. They will need to apply this knowledge in the context of learning about languages which are new to them. This knowledge can be taught in the new language or in English. In the Key Stage 2 Framework for Languages the objectives for developing children's knowledge about language are integrated into the learning objectives and teaching activities for oracy, literacy and intercultural understanding. Children are expected to:

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• recognise that languages use different writing systems, have different ways of expressing social relationships (for example, politeness), borrow words and describe concepts and ideas differently

• apply their knowledge of language rules and conventions when building short sentences and texts, spoken and written

• understand and use question forms and negatives in spoken and written language

• understand that rules and conventions are respected by native speakers and are important for learners

• recognise some basic aspects of agreement where relevant, for example, gender, singular/plural, pronoun/verb, adjectives

• recognise the importance and significance of intonation and punctuation. Learning about language is most meaningful when it occurs in the context of actual language

use. In order to make their meaning clear, learners need to consider clarity of expression and the grammar involved.

Thus, they become aware of such concepts as word order, number, gender, negatives, pluralisation, verb and adjective agreement, intensifiers, tense and simple and compound sentences. Children have regular opportunities to think about the best way for them to learn a new language, and they employ a range of strategies to help them do this. These can also be applied to any language that they might learn later in life. Children are expected to:

• discuss language learning

• discuss and try out different learning strategies

• plan and prepare themselves for a language activity

• analyse what they need to know in order to carry out a task

• use knowledge of English or other languages to help learning and understanding

• direct all their attention to what they need in order to understand a spoken or written text

• refer appropriately to sources of support both in books and online, dictionaries and so on

• use gesture and mime to show understanding and help make themselves understood • improve their ability to memorise

• apply prior knowledge of language structures to understand or create new language.

16. Language Use and Academic Achievement

The academic achievement of children whose first language is not English has long been a major educational concern. Those who come from cultural and linguistic minority backgrounds have been shown to fall short in school achievement. Measured through grading, retention in grade level, teachers'

judgments of student ability, and standardized tests, the academic performance of limited English proficient students generally lags behind other elementary school students (Moss and Puma, 1995). Many students are not on solid footing in English reading and writing or in mathematics and science by the time they enter high school (National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity). Youth from non-English language backgrounds are one and a half times (Vaznaugh, 1995) to four times (McArthur, 1993) more likely to drop out of high school than those from English language backgrounds.

Lecture Ten: Educating Linguistic Minorities and Learners with Special Needs

1. Minorities Key-Groups

Clients of applied linguistics are almost always members of multiple groups, each with distinct yet overlapping strengths and needs. Nowhere is this truer than in the field of education, where pupils are typically described, grouped and educated in same-age groups but simultaneously characterized by salient features, including gender, ability, previous schooling, parents' level of formal education, class, language background, immigration status, etc. Key groups here include:

✓ Migrants and refugees from countries where different languages are used at home and in education;
✓ language minority students whose home language(s) are different from the language(s) of instruction;
✓ students with learning difficulties, such as autism spectrum disorders;
✓ students with language impairments, such as dyslexia;
✓ deaf and blind students.

Within schools, as rural to urban migration and immigration bring new languages to many communities, and as acknowledgement and acceptance of language rights (we hope) continue to increase, there is a pressing need for subject area assessment tools that are appropriate for linguistically diverse learners. International trends in the development of programmes to fit the needs of special populations are less effective if language differences are allowed to become a barrier to sensible identification and correct placement of learners who need these services. Similarly, there is a need to avoid the incorrect placement of learners who do not need them, as in the historic over-representation of Spanish speakers and other English language learners in special education programmes in the US (Reynolds and Fletcher-Janzen, 2007). Applied linguistics can help educators differentiate between students with genuine special needs and those whose low

scores on assessments are more likely to be a result of their still-developing linguistic competence in the home or additional language.

2. Ability Sets

It is the provision of dedicated arrangements for students with an enduring disability which prevents or restricts them participating fully in, and benefiting fully from, the educational process. Children with language-related disabilities will be particularly challenged. Bashir, Conte and Heerde (1998, pp. 4-13) identify four ability sets that they might struggle with:

- interacting socially;
- learning through instructional discourse exchanges;
- acquiring knowledge and language;
- developing literacy skills.

Historically, of course, most children who have struggled in one or more of these areas were unlikely to receive any special treatment or accommodation at all, a condition that continues to be true in many places. Even in contexts where national education policy specifies the rights of differently disabled learners, actual practice – whether due to attitudes towards people with language disabilities or a lack of resources and training – may result in children being left to get along as best they can within the confines of the 'regular' classroom and without the benefit of special instruction, or considered 'uneducable' and thus excluded from school altogether.

3. Inclusion vs. Exclusion Approaches

Although the methods and frequency of diagnosis vary greatly, children with language impairments are increasingly taught under a specialized curriculum often referred to as special needs education (McConkey, 2001). Generally speaking, educators take one of two approaches in teaching learners who have been identified as needing some form of specialized instruction, depending on the severity of the impairment and the school's resources and ability to provide what is needed:

■ inclusion approaches: children with language impairments are educated in the mainstream classroom along with their age-peers;

■ exclusion approaches: children with language impairments are grouped together and taught separately from other learners.

In other words, inclusion approaches and exclusion approaches to working with children with special needs refer to the practices of integrating such learners into the regular classroom (e.g. with non-special needs learners) or segregating them in separate classes.

Deaf and blind children face particular challenges in gaining equal access to instruction. Increasingly, governments and educators recognize the ethical and pedagogical importance of providing specialized instruction to meet their particular language needs by taking steps to ensure, for example, that all deaf people have access to education in the sign language used in their country or region. An inclusion approach to education is now greatly preferred, following international proclamations such as UNESCO's Salamanca Statement (1994, p. ix) recommending that all children attend their local community mainstream school 'unless there are compelling reasons for [them] doing otherwise'.

One such reason, of course, would be having a teacher who has not been prepared to work with linguistically impaired learners. Teachers involved in first language education will likely find themselves teaching children with a variety of language impairments and language-related needs. This may require them to work closely, individually or in teams, with special needs educators, sign interpreters, dyslexia specialists, speech language pathologists and others; another reason for advocating a broad training in applied linguistics for all language professionals.

Lecture Eleven: Language Testing and Assessment

Introduction

Assessment and testing are two different concepts with a number of differences between them starting from the objectives and focus. Before we go into details about these differences that set assessment and testing apart, let us first pay attention to the two words themselves. According to the Webster Dictionary (2017), assessment means appraisal. Then, according to the same dictionary, testing is something (such as a series of questions or exercises) for measuring the skill, knowledge, intelligence, capacities, or aptitudes of an individual or group. So, these processes are used in the field of education very often to test the quality of teaching and learning processes. Their aim is to let the educational institutes find out what more can be done to improve the education offered by those educational institutes.

There is the field of testing and assessment, one of the most complex aspects of the nexus between language and formal schooling. The convergence of increased linguistic diversity in school populations, coupled with the standards movement that has become dominant in educational contexts in the English speaking world and is spreading globally (Alexander, 2008), has produced an unprecedented demand for tests and measures in school. Testing and assessment are part of modern life. Schoolchildren and students around the world are constantly assessed, whether to monitor their educational progress, or for governments to evaluate the quality of school and university systems. The practice of language testing draws upon, and contributes to all disciplines within applied linguistics.

1. What is testing?

It is a technique of obtaining information needed for evaluation purposes. (Tests, quizzes, measuring instruments are devices used to obtain such information). In educational terms, a test can be defined as „any procedure for measuring ability, knowledge and performance‟ (Richards et al., 1985, p. 291), while Brown (1994, p. 252) notes that a test is „a method of measuring a person's ability or knowledge in a

given area‟. In very practical terms, tests yield scores that mirror attributes or charcteristics of individuals (Allan, 1995). Brown's definition seems to be more comprehensive in the sense that it covers all the main components of a test. A test is a method of measuring a person's ability on knowledge in a given area. In other terms, "The overall purpose of any form of language testing is to sample the language abilities of candidates in such a way that a realistic representation of their degree of skill in using language in non-test situations is provided." (Milanovic, 2002, p. 2).

To fulfill faithfully the functions that are assigned to testing, teachers should turn their attention towards the following basic principles of testing:

a- To assess learners' performance in the target language the teacher should not give a task that the learner cannot perform. The task should be authentic, realistic and appropriate to their linguistic level.

b- Even when assessing the learners' performance, at any level, the learners should be given clear instructions well. They should know what they are expected to do in a given task. The ideas, feelings and emotions that the learners want to express cannot be limited to their insufficient linguistic input.

c- Teachers should test the outcomes or products of what they have taught their learners, not what their colleagues know.

d- Teachers should not use a technique not used in the teaching process as a test technique to have a positive washback affect of testing on language learning and teaching.

e-Teachers should test learners‟ writing skills by having them write and their speaking by having them speak. This is what is known as „construct validity.

f- We teach people and we evaluate language ability but we do not evaluate people (Adapted from Korsal, 2006).

2. Can we Do without Teaching or Testing?

Probably *yes* because:

− learning can occur in spite of teaching and/or testing, despite any kind of *formal evaluation.*
− The outcomes of teaching can be assessed without any form of testing.
− Testing may be used to measure what people already know.
−

3. Is testing synonymous with the Evaluation or Measurement?

-Evaluation: It is the process of making overall judgment about one's work or a whole school's work. Evaluation is typically a broader concept than assessment as it focuses on the overall, or summative experience. Evaluation may focus on the effectiveness or impact of a programme of instruction, examination or project. Students are usually not asked to evaluate while teachers carry out or take part in evaluation only in some contexts. 'Experts' or the authorities are most commonly legitimized to carry out formal evaluation. When we *ASSESS* our students, we commonly are interested in 'how and how much our students have learnt', but when we *EVALUATE* them, we are concerned with 'how the learning process is developing'.

-Measurement: Measurement is the process of determining the amount or length of something when compared with a fixed unit (e.g. using a ruler to measure length). In language teaching, measurement constitutes the quantification of language proficiency. Aspects of language knowledge, specific abilities and skills are measurable when there are transparent criteria and precise analysis of data.

4. Is Assessment Synonymous with Testing?

No, it is not. Assessment can be defined as the systematic collection, interpretation and use of information about learning. It gives teachers a better

awareness of what pupils know and understand, what their learning experiences enable them to do and what their skills and personal capabilities are. Assessment is a more encompassing term than testing. It is the process of gathering, interpreting, and sometimes recording and using information about students' responses to an educational task in order to provide the next learning step. Assessment is primarily concerned with providing teachers and/or students with feedback information. In language teaching, it is a local or global procedure though which one can appraise one or more aspects of language proficiency. As Brown (1990) maintains, two major functions can be pointed out for classroom assessment: One is to show whether or not the learning has been successful, and the other one is to clarify the expectations of the teachers from the students (Brown, 1990). Assessment is a process that includes four basic components:

1) Measuring improvement over time.
2) Motivating students to study.
3) Evaluating the teaching methods.
4) Ranking the students' capabilities in relation to the whole group evaluation.

5. Forms of Assessment

There are different forms of assessment, including:
• Formative assessment.
• Summative assessment.
• Self-assessment.
• Peer assessment.
The most common forms of assessment are:

• **Continuous assessment** refers to the activities required by students during the conduct of a course. It takes place within the normal teaching period and contributes to the final assessment.

• **Formative assessment** refers to observations which allow one to determine the degree to which students know or are able to perform a given task. It involves all

those activities (assigned by teachers and performed by students) which provide information used as feedback so that teaching may meet students' needs.

• **Summative assessment** is usually carried out at the conclusion of a unit or units of instruction, activity or plan, in order to assess acquired knowledge and skills at that particular point in time. It usually serves the purpose of giving a grade or making a judgment about the students' achievements in the course. In addition to providing the basis for grade assignment, summative assessment is used to communicate students' abilities to external stakeholders, e.g., administrators and employers (Darling-Hammond, 2006).

Less frequent but increasingly important forms are:

• **Self-assessment** occurs when an appraisal instrument is self-administered for the specific purpose of providing performance feedback, diagnosis and prescription recommendations rather than a pass/fail decision. Students engage in a systematic review of their progress and achievement, usually for the purpose of improvement. It may involve comparison with an exemplar, success criteria, or other criteria. It may also involve commenting on one's own work or a description of the achievement obtained.

• **Peer assessment** occurs when students judge one another's work on the basis of reference criteria. This can occur using a range of strategies. The peer assessment process needs to be taught and students need to be supported by opportunities to practice it regularly in a supportive and safe (classroom) environment.

Assessment also includes testing; it does since testing is a particular kind of assessment which focuses on eliciting a specific sample of performance. The implication of this is that in designing a test, we construct specific tasks that will elicit performance from which we can make the inferences we want to make about the characteristics of students, groups or individuals.

6. How Do We Test?

There are different sorts of testing, including:

• Achievement testing.

• Communicative testing.

- Competence testing.
- Diagnostic testing.
- Integrative testing.
- Performance testing.
- Progress testing.
- Proficiency testing.
- Psychometric testing.

The most common types of testing are:

- **Achievement testing**. It is used to determine whether or not students have mastered the course content and how they should proceed. The content of achievement tests, which are commonly given at the end of the course, is generally based on the course syllabus or the course textbook.

- **Progress testing.** It is used at various stages throughout a language course to determine learners' progress up to that point and to see what they have learnt.

- **Proficiency testing**. It is used to measure learners' general linguistic knowledge, abilities or skills without reference to any specific course.

– Some proficiency tests are intended to show whether students or people outside the formal educational system have reached a given level of general language ability.

– Others are designed to show whether candidates have sufficient ability to be able to use a language in some specific area such as medicine, tourism etc. Such tests are often called Specific Purposes tests. The least common types of testing are:

- **Diagnostic testing**, which seeks to identify those areas in which a student needs further help. These tests can be fairly general, and show, for example, whether a student needs particular help with one of the four language skills; or they can be more specific, seeking to identify weaknesses in a student's use of grammar.

- **Psychometric testing,** which is aimed at measuring psychological traits such as personality, intelligence, aptitude, ability, knowledge, skills which makes specific assumptions about the nature of the ability tested (e.g. that it is unidimensional and normally distributed). It includes many discrete point items.

7. What Do Tests Do?

What a test will appraise or measure depends on what testers wish to know and what the testers believe a test to be. There is indeed a difference between:

• **Competence testing**, which is used to measure candidates' acquired capability to understand and produce a certain level of foreign language, defined by phonological, lexical grammatical, sociolinguistic and discourse constituents. In order to make test-takers' competence measurable and visible, testers turn of necessity to their actual performance which may indicate their competence.

• **Performance testing,** which includes direct, systematic observation of an actual student performance or examples of student performances and rating of that performance according to pre-established performance criteria. Students are assessed on the result as well as the process engaged in a complex task or creation of a product. / A performance test measures performance on tasks requiring the application of learning in an actual or simulated setting.

Tests are important for almost all people involved in the education process:

• a **learner** who wants to know how well s/he is doing, and also wants the 'piece of paper for professional and education purposes,

• a **teacher** wants to know how the learner is progressing and whether and how well he/she him/ herself is succeeding in his/ her job,

• **parents**, who want to make sure that they're getting their money's worth,

• **educational authorities** and others who have some interest in the learner's progress or his/her proficiency level,

• a **potential employer** who relies heavily on what tests tell him/her about learner proficiency levels.

8. Key Considerations when Constructing a Test

There are two basic considerations when constructing a test. It must be **valid** and **reliable**.

-**Validity** is commonly defined as whether a test "measures accurately what it is intended to measure" (Hughes, 1989, p. 22). If a test is valid, the outsider who looks

at an individual's score knows that it is a true reflection of the individual's skill in the area the test claims to have covered.

-Reliability refers to the consistency of a test. That is, if every time the test is administered, it will have the same outcome. However, reliability does not have to do with the content of the test alone; it has to do with marking in two ways:

–   ensuring that different raters give comparable marks to the same script,

–   the same raters give the same marks on two different occasions to the same script.

"If a program does not achieve the intended goals. Then it is redesigned until it does. There are no learner failures only program failures" (Fantini, 1986).

10. Key Differences between Assessment and Evaluation

The significant differences between assessment and evaluation are discussed in the points given below summarized from (Weir & Roberts, 1994; Howard & Donaghue 2015; Kellaghan & Stufflebean, 2003).

1. The process of collecting, reviewing and using data, for the purpose of improvement in the current performance, is called assessment. A process of passing judgment, based on defined criteria and evidence is called evaluation.

2. Assessment is diagnostic in nature as it tends to identify areas of improvement. On the other hand, evaluation is judgemental, because it aims at providing an overall grade.

3. The assessment provides feedback on performance and ways to enhance performance in future. As against this, evaluation ascertains whether the standards are met or not.

4. The purpose of assessment is formative, i.e. to increase quality whereas evaluation is all about judging quality, therefore the purpose is summative.

5. Assessment is concerned with process, while evaluation focuses on product.

6. In an assessment, the feedback is based on observation and positive & negative points. In contrast to evaluation, in which the feedback relies on the level of quality as per set standard.

7. In an assessment, the relationship between assessor and assessee is reflective, i.e. the criteria are defined internally. On the contrary, the evaluator and evaluatee share a prescriptive relationship, wherein the standards are imposed externally.

8. The criteria for assessment are set by both the parties jointly. As opposed to evaluation, wherein the criteria are set by the evaluator.

Lecture Twelve: Bilingual and Multilingual Education

Introduction

This lecture is concerned with education in multiple languages, a pressing issue in many communities around the world. In previous lectures we saw that the choice of which language(s) to use in school settings can be complex, so it is not surprising that the practice of bilingual or multilingual education is well accepted in some contexts and controversial in others. Although instruction in two or more languages is increasingly common, the term 'bilingual education' is often poorly understood, as the following quotation from a primary school teacher from Smith (2000) illustrates:

> 'Bilingual ed' is a term that has such a negative connotation, which is partly the reason we've decided to call our model 'dual language'. It's helped a lot. When people think of bilingual education, the general opinion is, 'Oh, you're teaching Spanish to the Spanish kids, English to the English kids.' It's almost the opposite with dual language. These kids are receiving not just one education, they're receiving two. And if you explain this to parents, it's like, 'Wow! That's really great!' Whereas before if you had said it's bilingual ed, people didn't want to hear about it (Smith, 2000, p. 118).

One source of misunderstanding is the fact that supporters and detractors seldom share the same definitions of bilingual and multilingual schooling or agree about its goals. A related problem is that until quite recently much of the available research and information about bilingual education has described practices in English speaking contexts, particularly in the UK, the US and Canada, and may therefore seem inappropriate or irrelevant to educators working in other multilingual contexts. For example, a recent report on bilingual education in sub-Saharan Africa observed that (mis)use of the term bilingual education in North America 'has been transported to many countries in Africa where people label programmes bilingual where there is very little L1 medium in place' (Alidou et al., 2006, p. 5).

Students and practitioners of applied linguistics will no doubt find irony in the fact that research in this area has been dominated by some of the very nations in which education in multiple languages has been unpopular with large and powerful segments of the population. However, with the impetus of globalization, international migration, and increasing awareness and concern for the rights of Indigenous groups and other ethnic and cultural minorities, the study and practice of bilingual and multilingual education are beginning to acquire a much needed international flavour (Creese and Martin, 2003).

Bilingual and multilingual education mean different things in different places. In Chinese schools, for example, bilingual education refers to the rapidly growing number of Mandarin/English programmes for the Han majority, as well as to programmes that use a combination of Mandarin and a regional language such as Yi in Hunnan and neighbouring regions in the south of the country (Feng, 2005). The purposes of bilingual and multilingual education programmes are similarly diverse, ranging from development of advanced levels of proficiency and academic achievement in both target languages to the promotion of academic skills in a dominant language but not in the pupils' home language. Similarly, some programmes aim to help learners develop knowledge about a particular cultural group in addition to their own, while others have as their primary orientation and mission the promotion of assimilation and acculturation of linguistically diverse learners into a mainstream or dominant culture.

We present here a three-part framework for understanding how education in multiple languages is commonly organized. We begin by distinguishing between frames that are (1) language-based, (2) content-based and (3) context- based. These ways of looking at programmes are not mutually exclusive, of course. To some extent, all programmes must take into account the language and subject matter learning needs of their students, as well as the contextual features and constraints of the larger context in which they are based. We argue that much more can be learned about particular schools and programmes by examining them from all three frames.

1. Language-Based Frames

One key-way of looking at bilingual and multilingual programmes is in terms of language use and language outcomes. A clear example of a focus on use is the distinction between 'strong' forms – in which two or more languages are used systematically for academic purposes, including reading and writing in subject areas such as maths, science and history – and 'weak' forms, where the non-dominant languages are used sparingly, typically to clarify instructions or for interpersonal communication only (Baker, 2006).

Despite its apparent simplicity, the *strong-weak dichotomy* reminds us to pay close attention to the manner in which and the extent to which bilingual and multilingual programmes actually use each of the target languages. Asymmetry in the use of the dominant and non-dominant languages is problematic for many programmes, and human, material and technological resources tend to be concentrated in the dominant language unless special steps are taken to address this imbalance. This is especially true for combinations that include a language of wider communication, such as English, French or Mandarin, with less prestigious or less widely spoken languages.

The *strong–weak dichotomy* in bilingual education refers to the balance in classroom usage between the two languages involved. Strong bilingual education involves balanced usage of both languages across all subject areas, in order to reinforce the minority language in its role as a medium of instruction. In weaker forms, the minority language is used for less central curricular functions.

A second type of language-based frame concerns the linguistic outcomes of schooling in multiple languages. This perspective compels us to ask about the changes in pupils' abilities to use their first and additional languages after completing a bilingual or multilingual programme of study. *Subtractive* programmes are those in which the student's home language is not used at all as a

medium of instruction or its use is progressively diminished as early as the first year of school.

Although students in such programmes may learn new vocabulary, develop stronger reading and writing skills, and be introduced to new genres in the mother tongue, these gains are often the result of out-of-school learning and experiences. In more extreme cases, where schools actively discourage or even ban the use of non-dominant languages outright, interpersonal and even intergenerational communication can suffer, with children eventually becoming unable or unwilling to communicate in the home language with older family members (Fillmore, 1991).

In contrast, *additive* bilingual and multilingual programmes aim to support and extend the student's home language and additional language(s) through the systematic and sustained use of both/all as languages of instruction. Such programmes typically have as a goal that learners will leave the programme as more fully developed speakers, readers and writers of their home language across a variety of genres, discourses and contexts. Thus, learners in additive programmes are expected to add a new language without the expectation that they will give up their home language.

2.   Content-Based Frames

There is also growing awareness that the forms of knowledge that linguistically diverse learners bring to school are a valuable resource to be tapped in bilingual and multilingual programmes. Implicit use of students' existing conceptual and content knowledge has been described as *de facto* bilingual education (Krashen, 1998), in recognition of the fact that students with a strong educational background in their first language are better able to transfer or apply the conceptual knowledge developed through L1-medium education to learning in additional languages. In the following sections we describe the most common forms of bilingual and multilingual schooling.

Submersion education: also known as sink-or-swim, submersion programmes make little or no effort to acknowledge or accommodate the special needs of second language learners

Figure 2: Sink-or-Swim submersion programmes

(Figure 2). Pupils are placed in classes with students who are native/proficient speakers of the dominant language, and their academic progress is evaluated using measures designed to assess the performance of native speakers and for comparison with the norms established for them. Whether the pupils' home languages are relatively recent arrivals (as in the case of children who have recently migrated across linguistic borders) or have been long present and historically undervalued (the case of most Indigenous and sign languages), submersion education remains the most common form of schooling for language minority students (García, 2009).

Transitional bilingual education*:* Transitional bilingual education programmes, known in some contexts by the acronym TBE feature the temporary use of the students' L1 or another regional language as an academic bridge to highly proficient users of the dominant language. Unlike submersion programmes, transitional

programmes often feature at least some content instruction in the home language and may also include initial literacy instruction in the students' L1.

An important factor in the organization of TBE programmes is the length of time that students are permitted to study in their L1 before being moved into classes designed for native speakers of the dominant language. In many cases, this decision is based on political expediency rather than evidence from second language acquisition research. Typically, emphasis is placed on literacy skills and achievement in the dominant language, and the development of academic skills in the students' L1 receives less attention.

Maintenance bilingual education: Maintenance bilingual education refers to upkeep of the non-dominant language. The maintenance bilingual education model is intended for immigrant pupils thought likely to return to their home countries and whose successful return would ideally include being able to participate in schools there.

An early example of Transitional bilingual education is subtractive, using the first language as a temporary medium for gaining proficiency in the (dominant) second language; whereas maintenance bilingual education is additive, aiming to complement and strengthen, rather than replace, the (minority) first Language education for language maintenance was developed in the (now) very multilingual city of Miami when Cubans who fled their country in the early 1960s created private schools to provide Spanish language instruction so that their children would still be able to speak Spanish upon their planned return to schools in Cuba (Mackey and Beebe, 1977).

Immersion: The term immersion refers to programmes designed to teach content in the target language, but in a way that does not (intentionally) harm the learner's L1. The target language may be the dominant language or a minority language which has become economically viable and/or socially prestigious, as was the case of Spanish in Miami following the arrival of a large elite and highly educated Cuban

population. Support for children's other languages is often available. Key variables in immersion programmes include the language(s) of instruction and the home language(s) of the students, with *one-way and two-way* immersion programmes being common variations.

Perhaps the best-known examples of one-way immersion are the French language programmes for children of English-speaking homes first developed in Montreal in the early 1960s and now common across Canada (Heller, 2006). In immersion bilingual education programmes, pioneered in Canada, learners are immersed in the second language. In one-way immersion, the pupils typically share an L1, whereas in two-way immersion, speakers of both languages study content together, and the language of instruction for a particular subject may be either language.

3. Macro and Micro- Level Frames

The third frame for considering bilingual and multilingual education is based on the nature of the contexts in which programmes are designed, enacted and evaluated. This frame can be further divided into macro- and micro-level contexts.

3.1. Macro-Level Contexts

At the national level, ideological stance leads to considerable diversity in public and official attitudes to bilingual and multilingual education. We would take issue with the assessment that 'the rest of the world considers ability in . . . two languages to be the mark of a good education': historically, there has been considerable resistance to bilingual schooling by authorities in Britain and China (Feng, 2005), for example, and many primary schools in Europe still feature a 'monolingual habitus' (Extra and Yagˆmur, 2005). But the ideological misunderstandings in the US contrasts sharply with more pragmatic approaches of other nations. In Malawi, for instance:

It is clear […] that the introduction of indigenous languages in the primary school curriculum makes a lot of academic sense and has, ideally, some benefits for the pupils, the ethnolinguistic groups whose languages are used in the schools, and the education system as a whole (Matiki, 2006, p. 245–246).

Therefore, although national-level characterizations may have some value in their own contexts, in many instances they unhelpfully oversimplify the complexity of regional and local situations.

3.2. Micro-Level Contexts

Perhaps a more helpful way of thinking about the importance of context in bilingual and multilingual education is by examining conditions at more micro levels. Applied linguists can accomplish this by examining local conditions in which specific programmes operate. To do this, we borrow Suzanne Romaine's distinction between *elite* and *folk bilingualism* in children. According to Romaine (1999, p. 61), much of what linguists know about the development of childhood bilingualism is based on studies of 'middle-class and relatively privileged populations', whereas much less is known about the more numerous cases of bilingual and multilingual development in 'folk' contexts.

Adapting this distinction to our consideration of education, we find that, in elite contexts, bilingual and multilingual programmes involve at least one major European language, or another language of wider communication such as Mandarin, and that such programmes are commonly sought out by families who recognize the prestige of knowing multiple languages and who are able and willing to devote considerable financial and personal resources to raising bilingual or multilingual children.

Lecture Thirteen: Some Roles for Applied Linguistics

Applied linguistics knowledge can also inform the development of measures to assess learners' abilities to integrate and apply knowledge to concrete problems and tasks. For example, under England's National Curriculum, teachers of 'English' at Key Stage 2 (ages seven to ten) are expected to help pupils learn how to 'talk effectively as members of a group' through use of the following language functions:

-mak[ing] contributions relevant to the topic and tak[ing] turns in discussion;

-vary[ing] contributions to suit the activity and purpose, including exploratory and tentative comments where ideas are being collected together, and reasoned, evaluative comments as discussion moves to conclusions or actions;

-qualify[ing] or justify[ing] what they think after listening to others' questions or accounts;

-deal[ing] politely with opposing points of view and enabl[ing] discussion to move on;

-tak[ing] up and sustain[ing] different roles, adapting them to suit the situation, including chair, scribe and spokesperson;

-us[ing] different ways to help the group move forward, including summarising the main points, reviewing what has been said, clarifying, drawing others in, reaching agreement, considering alternatives and anticipating consequences.

(QCA, 2009)

These examples reveal the opportunities for students and practitioners trained in applied linguistics. Drawing on their understanding of discourse analysis for example, they could:

-help students develop and practise the linguistic and pragmatic features to support brainstorming in a group (turn-taking, eliciting contributions from 'quiet' students);

 -offer exploratory and tentative comments where ideas are being collected together;

-acknowledge and accommodate opposing points of view;

-shift between different roles in the resolution of a group task (chair, scribe and spokesperson).

With cultural and linguistic diversity on the increase in many schools, the ability to identify and foster these desirable forms of language use and practice in learners from diverse backgrounds is indeed a benefit of applied linguistics education. Applied linguists also shape the ways languages are used in educational domains beyond the classroom.

Although the exact phrase 'applied linguist wanted' is rarely found in actual job postings, knowledge of applied linguistics is extremely useful to professionals engaged in developing and evaluating textbooks, test instruments, websites and other educational materials. Consider the following example, from an advertisement seeking an editor to oversee development of an early literacy curriculum for children between five and nine years old. The position called for candidates prepared to:

-edit manuscript of teacher materials for content, accuracy, grammar, style and length;

-provide innovative content input for manuscript preparation;

-review manuscript for editorial quality in preparation for production.

While some of these functions might be within the skill set of applicants without training in applied linguistics (for example editing manuscripts for style), knowledge of the range of children's cognitive and linguistic abilities in the target age group, knowledge of early literacy development and experience with how materials translate into actual use in real-life classrooms are all areas in which a background in applied linguistics would presumably confer an advantage.

Finally, a good number of applied linguists devote at least part of their professional practice to preparing future and practising teachers to work in classrooms and schools at different levels and with learners from diverse groups. Teacher education[3] is a very broad field, and includes, among other areas: bilingual education, early childhood education, special education and literacy education. Not all teacher educators working in these fields view themselves as engaging in applied linguistics, but certainly many teacher preparation activities draw on applied linguistics as an important part of the professional knowledge base.

Applied linguists can also contribute to the area of additional language education by doing any or all of the following:

-maintaining a critical stance, involving an awareness of the social, political, economic and commercial contexts of additional language learning, and how these might affect why, how and what students learn;

- keeping up to date with major trends and new ideas in the theory of second language acquisition;

-collaborating with applied linguists in other fields and developing an awareness of their aims and methods, especially language pathologists, educators working in literacy and bilingual environments, translators and lexicographers;

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[3] **Teacher education** is the teaching of teachers. It takes place pre-service, most often at the undergraduate level, and continues in professional development throughout a teacher's career.

- keeping up to date with changes in language use around the world and in different modalities, as well as (but with a critical eye for) developments in language teaching methods and educational technology;

-advocating for fair access to, and assessment of, additional language learning;

-being active researchers in their own classrooms, generating and testing hypotheses, and assessing outcomes (something language teachers have in common with other applied linguists, for example the speech and language pathologists).

Finally, a good number of applied linguists devote at least part of their professional practice to preparing future and practising teachers to work in classrooms and schools at different levels and with learners from diverse groups. Teacher education is a very broad field, and includes, among other areas: bilingual education, early childhood education, special education and literacy education. Not all teacher educators working in these fields view themselves as engaging in applied linguistics, but certainly many teacher preparation activities draw on applied linguistics as an important part of the professional knowledge base.

Lecture Fourteen: Future Perspectives: Lifelong Education

1. The Nature and Necessity of Lifelong Learning

We are living in a changing world. We need to go on learning in order to keep abreast with the changes that keep on emerging around us. What we learnt earlier tends to become obsolete. This is phenomenon that every one of us encounters I life all the time. Learning is however viewed in a different manner in traditional thinking.

2. Layman's View and Traditional Thinking on Learning

Traditional thinking on learning has basically three misconception on learning:

(i) Learning is confined to school-going children alone. (ii) Education is preparation for future life. (iii) Education is terminal.

(i) Traditional thinking has always regarded ***learning as confined to just the school going children in society.*** The layman holds the notion that "you can't teach an old dog new tricks". His assumption is that ability to learn declines with age; and that there is an age in one's lifespan, which ranges from 6 to 18 years, when one's ability to learn is at its peak. It is commonly called the "plastic age". It is the age that is most suited for going to school and pursue all the learning he will ever need in life. These notions of confining learning in the life span of an individual only to his plastic age when his learning ability are at its peak is questionable. There has been no empirical evidence to support the existence of a "plastic age' in the individual's lifespan. On the contrary there is plenty of empirical data to support the proposition that substantial portion of ability to learn, or intelligence, tends to increase with age. Baltes and Reese, (1980),

Life-span Developmental Psychology" in Annual Review of Psychology) for example discovered in a series of studies found that "crystallised intelligence" tends

to increase with age from the lowest level at the age of six to the oldest age of over seventy. John L. Horn and Donaldson G. (1980), "Cognitive Development II Adulthood Development of Human Abilities" in O.G. Brim and J. Kagan; (eds.), *Constancy and Change in Human Development*; Cambridge MASS; Harvard University Press.) too collected data showing that "crystallised intelligence increased with age. Many studies on lifespan development have found the same trends. In a series of longitudinal studies McClusky,(1970) found those most outstanding discoveries in chemistry and other natural sciences as well as in the creative arts were invented or produced by people, whose ages ranged from fifty to over seventy.

Baltes and Staudinger (2000, p. 112-136) in American Psychologist conducted studies on wisdom as an important aspect of intelligence. Wisdom was defined as expert knowledge on the practical aspects of life, which permits excellent judgement, and which involves exceptional insights and understanding in coping with difficulties in life. Wisdom focuses on more than what standard conception of intelligence deals with. Wisdom deals with life pragmatic concerns. McClusky's finding were confirmed in Baltes and his colleagues' studies, that wisdom tends to increase with age due to their of life experiences.

(ii) Traditional thinking on learning tends to regard education as a preparation for future life. Many laymen while considering issues in education, moreover, assume that schooling is concerned with the mere transmission of information and facts from the adults to their children. Such information is passed on to the pupils in order to prepare them for meeting their needs in future. They regard schooling as a mere preparation for future life. They assign education the role traditional initiation ceremonies fulfill in primitive societies, that of getting the youth ready to take up adult responsibilities in future when such youth are of age. Pupils are expected to receive knowledge and competences as well as adopt attitudes they will need in future during their adult life.

This assumption has tended to divorce the school curricula from current day-to-day events and situation in the pupils' lives. The laymen ignore the fact that science and technology are revolving and coming up with new ideas and discoveries that tend change life, and challenge every individual in society to relearn new ways of adjusting himself to such changes.

(iii) Traditional thinking on learning tends to regard education as terminal. This is the third misconception in traditional thinking on learning. The layman tends to look on education as a mere stage of growing up, similar to going through initiation ceremonies. In this manner education and learning is considered to have reach the end of its being required by the individual who over grows such a need. Education stops affecting the individual since he is now beyond its sphere of influence. According to G. Dohmen (1996).

Any school system that strives to prepare the youth for future life or for making them accomplished after going through an education programme is attempting to accomplish a futile it task. At the end of their programme of study the graduates will discover that they have merely been preparing to learn more about life and the occupations they are now taking up. John Dewey's pragmatic philosophy points out that we should be prepared to consider false any thing we current regard as true. New discoveries are likely to come up with evidence that our current notions are based on false beliefs. Learning and inquiring into the truth is essentially endless, not terminal because of the continual changes occurring around us. It goes on throughout the lifespan of the individual. It can never be terminal or confined to a small portion of our life. It not a mere preparation for future living either.

3. The Purposes and Functions of Lifelong Learning

Lifelong Learning enables people of all ages to cope with, or adopt themselves to ever changing environmental conditions in their lives. It enables them to acquire new understanding and insights about the world around and to apply such insights in meeting emerging needs and adequately confront new problems in their lives.

Lifelong learning has the following functions:

- (i) It remedies the defects or inadequacies of schooling;

(ii) It also compensate those who have not had a chance of or those who missed the opportunities of entering any schools and those who dropped out of the school system prematurely. (iii) It integrates the process of educating learners holistically and it thus complements the formal education system.

(iv) It also promotes the democratic principle of according all members in society access to education. Societies all over the world are facing rapid changes under the influence of science and technology quickening the pace of life in all social spheres including most fields of human occupation. There is hardly a new innovation that is not accompanied by a chain of other changes in the lives of people. Every innovation tends to be accompanied by structural changes in previously accumulated knowledge. What we learnt at school tends to become obsolete in just a few years. We have to learn and accommodate new innovations that keep on emerging from time to time.

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