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Department of English

A Course in Applied Linguistics for Master Two Students of English

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Introduction

The course of applied linguistics at the Master level is divided between lectures presented by the teacher and students' contributions in terms of research papers, presentations, etc. It is mainly based on the lectures present in this course-book. However, it will always remain open to the possibility of elaboration of certain items, introduction of extra materials (information, examples, tasks, readings, etc.) and adoption of other lectures as a response to the new advances in the area of applied linguistics without, evidently, neglecting students' needs and expectations.

Objectives

Applied linguistics is introduced at this level to enlarge Master two students' knowledge on the field of applied linguistics after having dealt with theoretical linguistics in their undergraduate level, in addition to other branches of linguistics such as descriptive linguistics, general linguistics and micro linguistics. The course seeks to equip students with pertinent information about applied linguistics definitions, historical overview, foundations and scope. More importantly, a focus is placed on the contributions of applied linguistics to language education, particularly second or foreign language teaching/learning

Contents

1. General Introduction: Branches of Linguistics

1.1. Introduction

Linguistics, which is commonly defined as the scientific study of language, is divided into a number of subfields according to the view that is adopted or the angle from which language study is approached. For instance, linguistics can offer the study of languages in general as well as that of a given language. It can trace the development of a language in history or just make an account of it at a given point in time. It can focus its investigation on language as a system in itself and for itself as it can study how language operates in relation to other variables. It can be approached as purely theoretical or as applied in a particular field. Accordingly, Lyons (1981) distinguishes the field of linguistics into general vs. descriptive, diachronic vs. synchronic, micro vs. macro, and theoretical vs. applied.

1.2. General vs. Descriptive Linguistics

The distinction between general and descriptive linguistics "corresponds to the distinction between studying language in general and describing particular languages" (Lyons, 1981, p. 34). This, however, does not imply that the two branches are completely unrelated. Lyons (1981) emphasizes that general and descriptive linguistics depend on each other. While the former provides concepts and categories for languages to be analyzed on their bases, the latter works to provide data to confirm or refute the proposed theories and assumptions. For instance, it might be put forward by general linguistics that all languages have nouns and verbs.

Descriptive linguistics may reject this hypothesis with empirical evidence that in some languages there is no distinction between verbs and nouns. In the process of hypothesis confirming or refuting, the descriptive linguist operates using concepts provided by the general linguist, in this case the concepts of 'verbs' and 'nouns'.

1.3. Diachronic vs. Synchronic Linguistics

The terms 'diachronic' and 'synchronic' have first been coined by the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure in the early twentieth century as technical terms to stand for 'historical' and 'non-historical'. Diachronic has the literal meaning of across-time or what relates "to the changes in something, especially a language, that happen over time" (Diachronic). Eventually, diachronic linguistics is the approach studying the change of languages over time (Richards & Schmidt, p. 2010).

On the other hand, synchronic literally means with-time and generally relates to "a language at a particular point in time, without considering how it developed to that point" (Synchronic). Synchronic linguistics therefore refers to the approach studying language at a particular period of time with no reference to its history or development. In other words, "in a synchronic approach to describing a language, we focus on that language at one moment in time and describe it as we find it at that moment" (Trask, 2007, p. 287). Lyons (1981) summarizes the diachronic-synchronic distinction of linguistics as follows: A diachronic description of a language traces the historical development of the language and records the changes that have taken place in it between successive points in time: 'diachronic' is equivalent, therefore, to 'historical'. A synchronic description of a language is non-historical: it presents an account of the language as it is at some particular point in time. (p. 35)

1.4. Microlinguistics vs. Macrolinguistics

Microlinguistics and macrolinguistics are terms given by Lyons (1981) to stand for the narrower and the broader scopes of linguistics respectively. In this regard, microlinguistics is devoted to the study of language structure without taking anything else into consideration. In short, it is the study of language system in itself and for itself. Macrolinguistics, on the other hand, is concerned with everything pertaining in any way at all to language use in the real world. Typical areas of microlinguistics investigation include the following:

• Phonetics: the study of speech sounds and how they are articulated, transmitted, and received.

• Phonology: the branch of linguistics which studies the sound systems of languages. While phonetics is chiefly concerned with the physical nature of speech sounds, phonology deals with the ways in which sounds behave in languages.

• Morphology: the branch of linguistics which studies word structure. It is the study of morphemes, their different forms, and the ways they combine in word formation.

• Syntax: the branch of linguistics studying sentence structure. Syntax is concerned with the ways in which words combine to form sentences and the rules governing the formation of sentences.

• Semantics: the branch of linguistics interested in meaning. Semantics studies how meaning is structured, and investigates the relation between linguistic expressions or words of a language and what they refer to in the real world (persons, things, events, etc.).

• Pragmatics: the study of language use in communication, particularly the relationships between sentences and the contexts in which they are used.

In macrolinguistics, interest is always placed on the study of language in relation to something in the real world, like 'sociolinguistics' which refers to the study of 'language' and 'society'. The following are some macrolinguistics areas of investigation as defined by Richards & Schmidt (2010):

• Sociolinguistics: the study of language in relation to social factors, that is social class, type and level of education, ethnic origin, etc.

• Psycholinguistics: the study of (a) the mental processes that a person uses in producing and understanding language, and (b) how humans learn language. Psycholinguistics includes the study of speech perception in addition to the role of memory, and other factors (social, psychological, etc.) in language use.

Neurolinguistics: the study of how the brain functions in language learning/use. Neurolinguistics includes research into how the structure of the brain influences language learning, how and in which parts of the brain language is stored, and how brain damage affects the ability to use language.

• Computational Linguistics: the scientific study of language from a computational perspective. Computational linguists are interested in providing computational models of natural language processing (both production and comprehension) and various kinds of linguistic phenomena. The work of computational linguists is incorporated into such practical applications as speech recognition systems, speech synthesis, automated voice response systems, web search engines, text editors, and language instruction materials.

• Anthropological Linguistics: a branch of linguistics which studies the relationship between language and culture in a community, e.g., its traditions, beliefs, and family structure. Sometimes anthropological linguistics investigations interfere with sociolinguistics and the ethnography of communication.

• Cognitive Linguistics: an approach to linguistics which stresses the interaction between language and cognition focusing on language as an instrument for organizing, processing, and conveying information.

1.5. Theoretical vs. Applied Linguistics

Theoretical linguistics aims through studying language and languages to construct "a theory of their structure and functions . . . without regard to any practical applications that the investigation of language and languages might have" (Lyons, 1981, p. 35). Applied linguistics, on the other hand, entails the "study of language and linguistics in relation to practical problems" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 29).

Applied linguistics uses information from a variety of disciplines in addition to linguistics (for instance, sociology, anthropology and information theory) to first develop theoretical models regarding language and language use and then use them in practical areas.
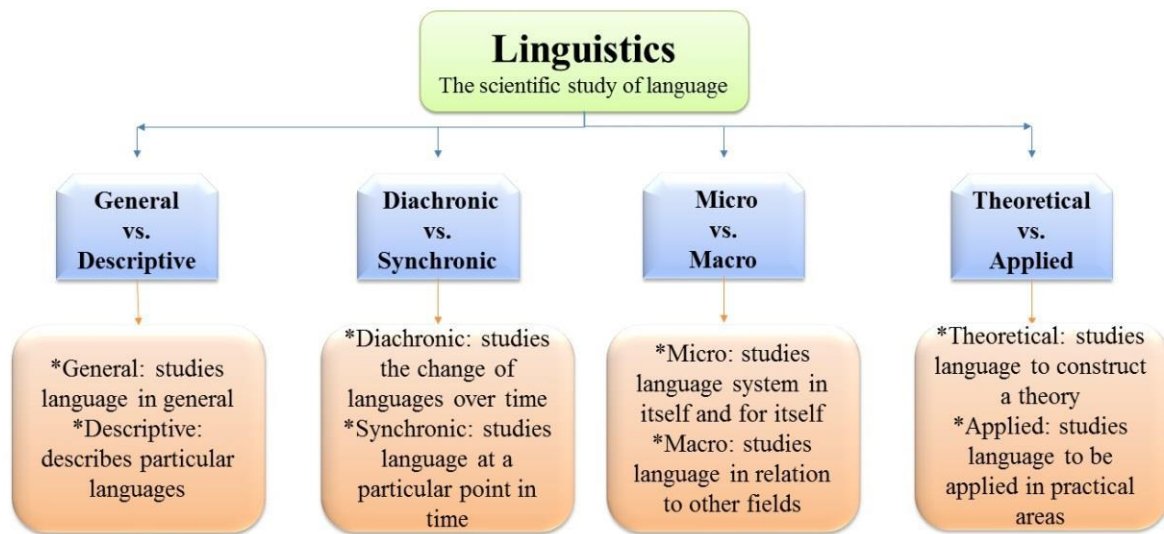
Figure 1: Branches of Linguistics Summarized

1.6. Conclusion

In conclusion, it worth stressing that the aforementioned taxonomies may overlap. Applied linguistics, for instance, is commonly used as opposed to theoretical linguistics. Yet, in any applied linguistics practical investigation, there is always a theoretical model to start from. Some may consider applied linguistics a subfield of macrolinguistics, others see it the other way around. For diachronic, as in synchronic, interest can be placed on language in general (general linguistics) or on particular languages (descriptive linguistics) ending up with labels such as descriptive synchronic and general diachronic.

Self-assessment

Task1:

- Write a short composition to answer the following set of questions:

If we study the differences between classical Arabic poetry (for instance during the pre-Islamic era) and modern poetry (twenty-first century), is it a diachronic or a

synchronic linguistics investigation? Is it general or descriptive? And is it theoretical or applied?

Task2:

- Answer the following question in the form of a composition:

In what sense can the study of linguistics be useful to you? What is the importance of studying linguistics?

Task3:

- Are you familiar with other distinctions of linguistics? If yes, discuss them in relation to what you have studied.

2. A Diachronic Overview on Applied Linguistics

2.1. Introduction

The term Applied linguistics is an Anglo- American coinage which was founded first at the University of Edinburgh School of Applied Linguistics in 1956. Then, at the Centre of Applied Linguistics, in Washington, in 1957. This wide field designates the application of linguistics to the study and improvement of language learning, language teaching, language planning, management of language handicap, communication between groups, lexicography, translation, and many others originates from the US language–teaching programmes during and after the second world war.

2.2. A Historical Perspective on AL

According to Grabe (2002), the field of AL was largely based on Leonard Bloomfield's outline guide for the practical study of Foreign Languages (1942), which was said to be influenced by the early European backers (advocates) of the direct method with special reference to Henry Sweet. The history of Applied Linguistics can be discussed in various countries, as stated by Grabe (2002).

In America, in 1948, a conference was organised by Charles C. Fries at the University of Michigan to disseminate information about work at Fries English Language Institute (founded in 1941). At that conference, a quarterly journal of Applied linguistics appeared and it was entitled; Language Learning.

Then, In Britain, a school of Applied Linguistics was set up by J.C Cartford at the University of Edinburgh in 1956 and the centre for AL was established at Washington under Charles Ferguson. It has been noted that similar institutes have been established in distinct parts of the world. According to Grabe (2002), the national associations of applied linguists came together in 1964 to constitute the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA) which holds a four yearly international congress with published proceedings.

The conference held at the American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL) was commented on by Davies and Elder (2006, p.6) at St Louis in 2001 where the history of applied linguistics was accounted for in four distinct countries. Angelis (2001), proposed a four-fold division of the history of AL since the 1920s, which was summarized in the following points:

- AL in North America has recognizable roots in linguistics,

- North American AL has developed over time in its orientation and scope and North American linguistics has evolved exactly the same as the former,

- An important amount of work directed to real world problems including language can be attributed to prominent North American linguists,

- Much of what can actually be viewed as ground breaking applied linguistics type activity was accomplished prior to the formal presence of AL.

There was a gradual shift from the major focus on linguistics. Angelis (2001) claims that until the 1990s, there were many language activities without much reference to linguistics. It was much later that scholars found it necessary to relate all these language activities to linguistics in terms of their applications. On another front, McNamara (2001) speaks about another tradition for Australian applied linguistics in contrast to those for UK and US. He believes Australian applied linguistics made AL of modern languages its target of immigrants rather than English. The focus was also put on the applications of linguistics to the development of teaching materials and writing systems for ancient languages.

The Australia tradition of AL shows a strong influence of continental Europe and of USA rather than of Britain. English came in the context of mother tongue teaching and teaching of English to immigrants-English as a Second Language (ESL). The English as a Foreign Language (EFL) British tradition came to Australia in the 1980's.

The British Association of Applied Linguistics (BAAL) was set up in 1967 aiming at fostering education, the study of language use, language acquisition and language teaching and the promoting of interdisciplinary collaboration in this study

(BAAL, 1994). Davies (2001) claims that the British tradition represented an intentional trial to establish a distinctive applied linguistics. Furthermore, Davis and Elder (2006: 9) draw on Widdowson's distinction between Linguistics Applied (LA) and Applied linguistics. The discrepancies between these modes of intervention is that,

> in the case of **linguistics applied,** the assumption is that the problem can be reformulated by the direct and unilateral application of concepts and terms deriving from linguistic enquiry itself. That is to say, language problems are amenable to linguistic solutions. In the case of **applied linguistics**, intervention is crucially a matter of mediation…applied linguistics…has to relate and reconcile different representations of reality, including that of linguistics without excluding others.

> (Widdowson, 2000, p. 5).

Prominent figures in linguistics such as Bloomfield (1933) and Robins believe that if teachers understand the use of linguistics as a scientific method in language presentation, their work will be simple and easy. Davis and Elder (2006) think that AL looks outward (externally) beyond language in an attempt to explain and solve social issues while linguistics applied looks inward not to solve language issues in the real world, but to explain and test theories about language itself. They believe that LA uses language data to enhance our linguistic knowledge about language while AL studies a language problem with the intention of correcting them (2006, p. 9).

2.3.   A Brief Overview on the Scope of AL

During the 1960s and 1970s, it was taken for granted that applied linguistics was about language teaching. That was typically Corder's (1973) view and at the time it accounted for because after the Second World War, the expansion of language teaching (especially of English) revealed that many teachers and trainers and even supervisors of teachers lacked knowledge about language. Over the next fifty years, it became more likely that those entering teaching had already studied aspects of linguistics. At the same period, applied linguistics had also been successful. In fact, 'Applied Linguistics … has undergone a significant broadening

of its scope and now contributes its theoretical perspectives to a range of areas' (Baynham 2001, p. 26).

Applied linguistics arose in the 1950s as a postgraduate qualification. Its initial target, largely language teaching, has always been practical, policy-oriented and there is an ongoing tension between theoretical linguistics and applied linguistics. For applied linguistics, there is no conclusiveness: the issues such as how to evaluate language proficiency, what is the optimum (best) age to start a second language, what differentiates native and non-native speakers, how we can treat memory loss, all these flaws may find local and temporary solutions, but the flaws remain. In addition, there is doubt that the same may be claimed of theoretical linguistics: Are all grammars fundamentally one grammar; what relationship exists between the sign and the referent (object referred to); answers are incomplete, never final – the flaws recur.

2.4.   Conclusion

After shedding some light on the history of Al and how it came to be, we have learned, in this course, that in 1948, Language Learning: A quarterly journal of Applied linguistics was initiated at the University of Michigan by Charles C. Fries, supported among others by Kenneth L. Pike and W. Freeman Twaddell, to propagate information about work at Fries English Language Institute, founded in 1941. Moreover, in Britain, a school of Applied Linguistics was set up by J. C. Cartford at the University of Edinburgh in 1956 and the centre for AL was established in Washington, under Charles Ferguson, and The British Association of Applied Linguistics (BAAL) was established in 1967.

References/ Suggested readings

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Self-assessment activities

1. Highlight the differences between the American tradition of AL and the British tradition

2. LA believes that language problems are amenable to linguistic solutions True or False? Why?

3. AL believes that intervention is important and that different representations of reality are important in language description. True or False?

3. Definition of Applied Linguistics

3.1. Introduction

Applied linguistics (AL) is often said to be concerned with solving or at least ameliorating social problems involving language. The problems applied linguistics concerns itself with involve questions like: How can we teach languages better? How can we diagnose speech pathologies better? How can we improve the training of translators and interpreters? How can we write a valid language examination? How can we evaluate a school bilingual programme? How can we determine the literacy levels of a whole population? How can we helpfully discuss the language of a text? What advice can we offer a Ministry of Education on what is linguistics?

3.2. What is interdisciplinary linguistics?

Interdisciplinary studies involve two or more academic disciplines which are considered distinct. The most common interdisciplinary branches of Linguistics are: Historical Linguistics, Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, Ethnolinguistics or Anthropological Linguistics, Computational Linguistics and Neurolinguistics.

3.3. Some definitions of applied linguistics

The field of applied linguistics does not provide an easy definition, perhaps because, as Cook (2006) remarks: 'Applied Linguistics means many things to many people'. This lack of certainty is much complained by those who practice applied linguistics. Many people have tried to define or describe what applied linguistics is; below are some of them.

In the most frequently quoted definition by Brumfit (1977, p.93) "AL is the theoretical and empirical investigation of real world problems in which language is a central issue". Grabe (2000) claims the following:

The focus of AL is on trying to resolve language based problems that people encounter in the real world, whether they be learners, teachers, supervisors, academics, lawyers, service providers, those who need social services, test makers, policy developers, dictionary makers, translators, or a whole range of clients (p.9).

Grabe notes that distinguishing between what linguistics and AL are concerned with, is to distinguish between theory and practice. Davis and Elder (2006, p.11) on their part, mention the following about AL: " AL is in our view, a coherent activity which theorizes through speculative and empirical investigations real world problems in which language is a central issue".

This is the approach by ostensive (apparent) definition: if you want to know what applied linguistics is, just 'look around you'. The ostensive view is defended by Spolsky who says,

the definition of a field can reasonably be explored by looking at the professionals involved in its study … Applied Linguistics [is now] a cover term for a sizeable group of semi-autonomous disciplines, each dividing its parentage and allegiances between the formal study of language and other relevant fields, and each working to develop its own methodologies and principles. (Spolsky 2005, p. 36).

Cook (2003, p.5) defines applied linguistics as 'the academic discipline concerned with the relation of knowledge about language to decision making in the real world'. He (2003) recognizes that 'the scope of applied linguistics remains rather vague' but attempts to delimit its main areas of concern as consisting of language and education; language, work and law; and language information and effect (Cook, 2003, pp.7-8). To this, he (2003, p. 20) adds "the task of applied linguistics is to mediate' between linguistics and language use".

Applied linguistics came about and developed as an area of study and in a survey of some issues that occupy those who engage in the study of language problems that affect the lives of individuals, groups of individuals, or entire societies and cultures. A list of such problems will certainly be wild ranging and potentially endless, but might encompass the following:

1- A speech therapist sets out to investigate why a four-year-old child has failed to develop normal linguistics skills for a child of that age

2- A teacher of English as a foreign language wonders why groups of learners sharing the same first language regularly make a particular grammatical mistake that learners from other language backgrounds do not.

3- An expert witness in a criminal case tries to solve the problem of who exactly instigated a crime, working only with statements made to the police.

4- An advertising copywriter searches for what would be the most effective use of language to target a particular social group in order to sell a product.

5- A dictionary writer ponders over possible alternatives to an alphabetically organized dictionary.

6- A computer programmer wrestles with the goal of trying to get a computer to process human speech or to get it to translate it from one language into another.

7- A group of civil servants is tasked with standardizing language usage in their country, or deciding major aspects of language planning policy that will affect millions of people.

McCarty (2001, pp. 1-2)

The following example by McCarthy (2001) illustrates some potential linguistic questions for the solution of two different problematic situations: one related to teaching a target language's grammar, the other to dictionary making. Example 1: - A teacher trying to understand why learners from the same background are having difficulty with a particular grammatical structure in English.

The list could continue. In fact, what all these professional problems have in common is the possibility of turning to the discipline of linguistics to seek insight

and potential solutions. If they were to do this, the professionals directly involved would become applied linguists.

Making informed decisions affecting language education, for instance, necessitates (among other things) a comprehension of the formal structure of language, its psycholinguistic correlates in individuals, and its sociolinguistic manifestations in groups. This often means that applied linguists need to be involved not only in syntax, phonology, and semantics but also in interdisciplinary areas such as second language acquisition, learning theory, cross-cultural communication and pragmatics.

3.4. Defining the characteristics of applied linguistics

AL is autonomous, multidisciplinary and problem solving. It uses and draws on theory from other related fields concerned with language and generates its own theory in order to find solutions to language related problems and issues in the real world.The practical concerns have an important role in shaping the questions that AL will address, and language related problems concern learners, teachers, academics, lawyers, translators, test takers, service providers, and many others.

3.5. Source and target of applied linguistics

The most relevant question against applied linguistics is this: what is its source, in other words, what exactly is being applied? If applied linguistics is interpreted narrowly so that what is being applied is only linguistics, and because linguistics, like other theoretical disciplines, deals with idealizations, it appears to have very little to say about the language-related problems in what we call the real world. Then, if the interpretation of applied linguistics is very broad, then its main concern must be related to language. Neither position is plausible. Linguistics, it seems, must play a major role in applied linguistics, but by no means the only role. Applied linguistics must also draw on psychology, sociology, education, measurement theory, etc.

If we turn our attention away from the source (what applied linguistics relies on) to its target (what applied linguistics equips you to do). The target clearly cannot be anything and everything related to language. Corder's (1973) solution was to emphasize on language teaching, widely interpreted and, therefore, encompassing, for instance, speech therapy, translation and language planning.

3.6. Linguistics and applied linguistics

Linguistics is primarily concerned with language in itself and in findings ways of analysing language and building theories that describe language. Applied linguistics is concerned with the role of language in peoples' lives and problems associated with language use in peoples' lives. Indeed, Linguistics is essential but not the only feeder discipline.

3.7. Some areas of applied linguistics

Below are the commonly regarded subfields of applied linguistics as presented by Grabe (2002).

• *Second language Acquisition*

Second language Acquisition theory involves the range of variables- in particular, age of immersion, quantity of input and others, which may interactively determine the level of ultimate achievement.

• *Language Assessment and Testing*

Language Assessment plays a crucial role in terms of the functions they serve for institutions and the corresponding preparedness of institutions to invest in their development and validation. It has always dealt with the development and implementation of frameworks for depicting students' progress in language learning over time.

• *Language Policy and Planning*

The practical nature of language planning entails the analysis of policy making in contexts where language is a part. Language problems always emerge, which could entail opposing (rival) interest reflecting relations among ethnic, political, social, bureaucratic and class groupings. Language Policy and Planning research then involves knowledge far beyond linguistics to solve such issues where necessary.

• *Lexicography*

Lexicography is an integral part of applied linguistics in second/foreign language learning and teaching at all ages and levels of education. It is concerned with the writing and study of dictionaries for first/ second/foreign language education. It also entails mono- bi- and multilingual works and general children's school, college, and specialized technical dictionaries.

• *Multilingualism*

The phenomenon refers to the use of more than two languages within a single speech community. Applied linguistics deals with the sociological, psychological, attending flaws and so on, in addition to the implications of these languages on the speech community.

• *Corpus Linguistics*

Its major aim is to improve language description and theory. Stubbs (2006) mentions that the main task of applied linguistics is to evaluate the relevance of the language description to practical applications. Corpus data are essentially for accuracy in the description of language use and have shown how lexis, grammar and semantics interact.

Some other newly sub-fields introduced are in the area of forensic linguistics (language and the law) and computer assisted language learning (CALL).

3.8. Conclusion

By way of conclusion, the present lecture has discussed what applied linguistics is. Indeed, AL focuses on resolving language based problems that people encounter in the real world. The course has also held a bird's eye view on the characteristics of AL, the source and target of AL, in addition to some subfields of AL.

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Self-assessment activities

Task 1:

Read the following definitions and think about the title question.

1. Whenever knowledge about language is used to solve a basic language-related problem, one may say that Applied Linguistics is being practiced. Applied Linguistics is a technology which makes abstract ideas and research findings accessible and relevant to the real world, it mediates between theory and practice (International Encyclopedia of Linguistics, 1992:76).

2. Applied Linguistics is concerned with a) the study of language and linguistics in relation to practical problems such as lexicography, translation etc.; b) the study of second and foreign language learning and teaching. [This discipline] …uses information from sociology, psychology …as well as from linguistics in order to develop its own theoretical models of language and

language use, and then uses this information and theory in practical areas such as syllabus design, language planning etc. (Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics, 1985:15).

3. Applied Linguistics is the application of linguistic theories, descriptions and methods to the solution of language problems which have arisen in a range of human, cultural and social contexts Carter (1993: 3). If linguistics reifies "language" one can say that Applied Linguistics reifies more than language; it reifies "language practices".

Task 2:

1. What is the main concern of AL?

2. If you want to know what applied linguistics is, just 'look around you'. Explain this statement.

3. Why would you say that AL is an important field of study?

4. Applied Linguistics and Linguistic Theory: Hierarchy or Alliance?

4.1. Introduction

The role and relationship of the field of linguistics within applied linguistics has been variously interpreted in large part due to the ambiguity of the term, applied linguistics. AL is essentially a problem driven discipline rather than a theory driven one. Within this course, we will discuss the nature of the relationship between linguistics and Al, and verify whether this relationship is a hierarchy or a partnership.

4.2. Theories of applied linguistics: presence or absence?

The relevant question that can be posed here is as follows: Do theories of applied linguistics exist at all or indeed, can there be a unitary theory of AL? In fact, AL can not only test the applicability and reliability of linguistic theory and description, but also question and challenge them where they are found wanting. In other words, if the relationship between linguistics and its applications is to be a fruitful partnership and neither a top-down imposition of theorists on practitioners, then both sides of the linguistics/ applied linguistics relationship ought to be accountable to and in regular dialogue with each other with regard to theories and practices.

The notion of accountability will centre on a set of responsibilities falling on the shoulders of linguists and applied linguists in turn. These may embrace:

1- The responsibility of linguists to build theories of language that are testable, which connect with perceived realities and which are not contradicted or immediately refuted when they confront those realities.

2- The responsibility of applied linguists not to misrepresent theories, descriptions and models,

3- The responsibility of applied linguists not simply to ' apply linguistics' but to work towards what Widdowson (1980) calls ' relevant models' of language description

(see also Srhidar (1993) who considers applied linguists as generating their own paradigms for studying language).

4- The responsibility of applied linguists to provide an interface between linguists and practitioners where appropriate, and be able to talk on equal terms to both parties.

5- The responsibility on both sides to adopt a critical position vis à vis the work of their peers, both within and across the two communities;

6- The responsibility of both communities to exchange experience with front-end practitioners such as language teachers, psychologists or social workers, who may not have a training in linguistics nor the time or resources to do ' applied linguistics' themselves, but who may be genuinely eager to communicate with both groups.

4.3. The different views concerning the relationship between linguistics and AL

There are three positions that can present answers to the following questions.

-What is applied?

-Is it only linguistics?

-What is it applied to?

-Who is (not) an applied linguist?

-Is a degree in linguistics assumed? Or is it enough to be working with language-related issues?

The first view: Applied linguistics, because linguistics in part of its name, is linked to linguistics, which is sometimes referred to as the 'parent' discipline. The literal interpretation of applied linguistics as 'linguistics applied' reinforces this view. From this perspective, linguistics is the authoritative source for all that is needed to meet the aims of applied linguistics. The description of language and the concepts and terms offered by linguistic inquiry apply directly and unilaterally. The process or activity of applied linguistics is carried out by taking the known research and theory of linguistics and applying a linguistic analysis to specific contexts outside linguistics proper (e.g., language teaching, interpreting and translating, or lexicography). This position is taken by those whose work is influenced by a

functional view of language in the tradition of Roman Jakobson, Michael Halliday, and Dell Hymes. This view assumes that only linguists can participate in applied linguistic work, that practitioners need credentials as linguists before they can apply known research and theory.

The second view: Another view, 'autonomous applied linguistics sees applied linguistics as at least semiautonomous, if not completely autonomous, from linguistics or any source discipline and allows that anyone can be an applied linguist. While acknowledging that linguistics may be part of applied linguistics, practitioners do not rely exclusively on linguistics.

The third view: A third view is known as the 'applied linguistics' position, so called because applied linguists are linguists engaged in application. It is distinguished from other views in its recognition that the knowledge and skills of a linguist are inadequate to the task of solving problems related to the uses and users of language. To address this inadequacy, the applied linguist calls upon the skills and knowledge of other professionals both inside and outside the academic world. Holders of this view more or less agree on what the field is, but the question of who can claim to be an applied linguist remains open.

To sum up, each view, regardless of the role linguistics has within it, excludes much of modern linguistics, particularly that associated with the Chomskyan approach, which deals with language at an abstract, idealized level and largely ignores language as interaction, as performance. In fact, Chomsky does not argue for the relevance of his branch of linguistics to concerns identified with applied linguistics. The linguistics that has relevance and is of utility for applied linguists needs to be broader in aim than a search for universal grammar, and it need not be associated with any canonical school or branch of linguistics. Rather, all understanding and knowledge of language as a means of human communication is relevant and useful in solving language issues of all kinds.

4.4. Conclusion

In fact, linguistic theory has not had as much impact in the solution of practical problems as it could be expected to. The term 'applied linguistics' will remain a misnomer (improper appellation). After all, as the redoubtable Dwight Bolinger (1975, p.550) remarked in his customary solidly common- sensical way, " the practical work of describing languages goes forward- to make dictionaries, assimilate minorities, provide bilingual instruction, train translators – with or without linguistic theories".

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Self-assessment

What is the relationship between Linguistics and Applied Linguistics?

Read the two statements below and answer the title question.

1. A very common perception of Linguistics is that it constitutes a discipline whose purpose is the study of language with a view to understanding of how the linguistic system –disconnected from its social context and its users– is structured into meaningful patterns that reflect the operations of the mind. In case of this or similar conceptions of Linguistics, there is a sharp divide between this discipline, sometimes referred to as Theoretical (less often referred to as Autonomous) Linguistics and the field of Applied Linguistics, which is perceived as the broad field of language study and analysis that provides knowledge and information that may be of "practical value" in that it facilitates understanding of social practices, psychological or cognitive operations and pedagogic processes.

2. Linguistics, viewed as above, does not use the knowledge developed from linguistic study for the solution of problems in human, social and cultural contexts (as does Applied Linguistics). Moreover, it borrows no insights from other disciplines (as does 'Interdisciplinary' Linguistics, including Cognitive Linguistics, Psycholinguistics and Sociolinguistics). This is one

reason why an alternative and perhaps more correct name for Theoretical Linguistics is Autonomous Linguistics. The main characteristic of this school of thought is that language is an autonomous meaning system; i.e. that the meaning of linguistic signs is arbitrary.

5. Contrastive Analysis and Applied Linguistics

5.1. Introduction

Researchers have employed many approaches (Modes inquiry) to the analysis of second language data in order to come to a better understanding of the L2 learning process: Contrastive analysis (CA) and error analysis (EA); performance analysis and discourse analysis(DA); each type replaced by its predecessor. In this course, we will be concerned only with the CA.

5.2. Contrastive analysis- Definition

Contrastive analysis (CA) also called contrastive linguistics emerged in the middle of the 20th century. Its theoretical foundations were formulated in Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures.* Contrastive Analysis, as a method in SLA, involves elaborated description of the native and the target languages of the learner. The goal of CA was to formulate teaching materials that would prevent the learner from acquiring wrong habits making errors. CA is based on a comparison of L1 and L2 to determine linguistic similarities and differences. These differences are the source of difficulty in foreign-language learning, and thus govern the progress of the learner (Crystal, 2008). The goals of Contrastive Analysis can be stated as follows: to make foreign language teaching more effective, to find out the differences between the first language and the target language based on the assumptions that: (1) foreign language learning is based on the mother tongue, (2) similarities facilitate learning (positive transfer), (3) differences cause problems (negative transfer/Interference), (3) via contrastive analysis, problems can be predicted and considered in the curriculum. However, not all problems predicted by contrastive analysis always appear to be difficult for the students. On the other hand, many errors that do turn up are not predicted by contrastive analysis. Larsen, et al (1992, p. 55) states "predictions arising from were subjected to empirical tests. Some errors it did predict failed to materialize, i.e. it overpredicted." This prediction failure leads to the criticism to the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis.

5.3. What is contrastive analysis hypothesis? (CAH)

Based on behaviourist and structuralist theories, the basic assumption for this hypothesis was that the principal barrier to second language acquisition is the interference of the first language system with the second language system … and … that second language learning basically involved the overcoming of the differences between the two linguistic systems – the native and target languages (Brown, 1980, p. 148). The term 'interference' here refers to "any influence from the L1 which would have an effect on the acquisition of L2" (Powell, 1998, p.2).

Lado (1957, p.1) defines CAH as "A scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner". In *Linguistics Across Cultures*, he (1951, p.1) claims that "those elements which are similar to [the learner's] native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult to learn". Dulay et al (1982) list the following on examination of the available empirical data that addresses CAH:

a- In neither child nor adult L2 performance do the majority of the grammatical errors reflect the learners L1.

b- L2 learners make many errors in areas of grammar that are comparable in both L1and L2 errors that should not be made if 'positive transfer' were operating.

c- L2 learners' judgments of the grammatical correctness of L2 sentences are more related to L2 sentence types than to their own L1 structure.

d- phonological errors exhibit more L1 influence than do grammatical errors, although a substantial number of the L2 phonological errors children make are similar to those made by monolingual first language learners, and only a small proportion of phonological errors in reading are traceable to the learners L1. Dulay et al (1982:97-98).

5.4. Major claims of the CAH

The main difficulties in learning a new language are caused by interference from the native language (language transfer). Interference refers to language interactions, such as linguistic borrowing and language switching that occur when two language communities are in contact. The CAH states that 'interference is due to unfamiliarity with L2, that is, the learner not having learned the patterns of the target language very well'. If the two languages were close, transfer would be positive, and learning would be facilitated; if they were far apart, transfer would be negative and we would have interference. The behaviourist theory suggested that the greater the difference between L1 and L2, the more difficult it would be the L1 to learn L2: So, the closer the language, the easier to learn.

These difficulties can be predicted and remedied by the use of CA. considering differences between the L1 and the L2. (use of CA).

Teaching materials can make use of contrastive analysis to reduce the effects of interference. (e.g., focus on what is dissimilar between two languages, in this case, similarities could be ignored).

5.5. Procedure used in CA

Lado was the first to suggest a systematic set of technical procedures for the contrastive study of languages. The procedure, as described by Lado (1957), proposes 'a structure-by-structure comparison of the *sound system, morphological system, syntactic system, and even the cultural system* of two languages for the purpose of discovering similarities and differences'.

This is a brief outline of the procedure used by Ellis (1994, p. 307); it embraces four stages:

1. description (i.e. the two languages were formally described)

2. selection (i.e. certain items or areas were selected for comparison)

3. comparison (i.e. finding similar and different items)

4. prediction (i.e. in which areas the errors will most probably occur).

5.6. Criticism of CA

As Corder (1967) suggests, teachers have not always been impressed by the contrastive linguists' contribution. Hence, CA has been criticized in recent literature for the following reasons.

a- Contrastive studies focus mainly on differences between L1 and L2 and ignore many other factors which affect the second language learners performance; for example, his learning strategies, training procedures, overgeneralization of target language rules.

b- Not all difficulties and errors can be traced back to the influence of the mother tongue and consequently other explanations must be sought.

c- Some of the difficulties predicted by the contrastivist did not in fact, pose any problems to the learner.

d- The basis of contrastive analysis, the theory of interference, has been questioned.

e- The objectivity of contrastive analysis methodology is questionable. The linguist's preference of a model of description often leads to different outputs presenting different predictions.

f- Most contrastive studies deal with theoretical problems like validation of the notion of linguistic universals and not with pedagogical problems. So much so that a distinction has begun to be made between theoretical and applied contrastive linguistics in recent literature

g- Recent contrastive studies are too technical to be of any use to most teachers of English as a second language.

h- Most of the available differential descriptions are so superficial and incomplete as to be misleading.

i-   Learning is viewed as an instantaneous printing process; the role of storage from a prior stage is ignored. CA cannot e.g. predict errors caused by interference from TL materials previously learned.

j-   CA does not take note of some universal learning strategies noticed both in the child and the adult learner; e.g. *go-ed, spend-ed, he com-ed yesterday.*

Thus, CA has been subjected to both great expectations and severe criticism. After a boon in the early 1960's, CA fell in the grip of a serious crisis, but the crisis, if at all there was such a crisis, existed at the level of theoretical discussion only. In the meantime, CA progressed rapidly at various centers of active research.CA has finally given way to more current views: Error Analysis and new ways (Performance analysis and Discourse Analysis (DA) of understanding SLA.

5.7. Conclusion

The Contrastive analysis hypothesis which was a major topic in AL for about two decades, has finally given way to more current and more positive views on first language and second language acquisition. Contrastive analysis CA states that 'where structures in the L1 differed from those in L2, errors that reflected the structures of L1, would be produced'. In neither child nor adult L2 performance do the majority of the grammatical errors reflect the learners of L1. The CA hypothesis states that 'interference is due to unfamiliarity with L2 that is the learner not having learned the patterns of the target language very well'.

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Self-assessment:

-Try to compare between French and English, or French and Arabic using concrete examples.

6.   ERROR ANALYSIS (A)

6.1. Introduction

To overcome the shortcoming of contrastive analysis, it is suggested that teachers accompany contrastive analysis with error analysis. It is carried out by identifying the errors actually made by the students in the classroom. Contrastive Analysis has a useful explanatory role. That is, it can still be said to explain certain errors and mistakes." Schackne (2002) states "research shows that contrastive analysis may be most predictive at the level of phonology and least predictive at the syntactic level."

A counter-theory was error analysis, which treated second language errors as similar to errors encountered in first language acquisition, or what the linguists referred to as "developmental errors." By the early 1970s, this contrastive analysis theory had been to an extent supplanted by error analysis, which examined not only the impact of transfer errors but also those related to the target language, including overgeneralization (Schackne, 2002). In this lecture, we shall deal with error analysis, its place in second language learning and teaching in a second language environment; and we shall deal with types of errors as well. This is a topic that has almost been over flogged in AL but which still has to be tackled. A lot of earlier scholars have worked on error analysis and have made a lot of contributions to teaching and learning procedures in many countries.

6.1. Lapses, mistakes and errors

Corder notes that one of the ways of comparing languages is interlingual comparison which is commonly called contrastive comparison. Another type of comparison is error analysis which will be discussed in this lecture and the next. Corder sees the term 'Error Analysis' as a misleading one because he believes, 'errors' made by the learner may be an important part of the data on which this sort of comparison is made - what is being compared is the language of the learner at some particular point in his/her course with the target language. To Corder, a

learner's errors are 'systematic' and it is precisely this regularity which shows that the learner is following a set of rules which are not those of the target language, but a transitional form of language which is also similar to his mother tongue. The description of the transitional language is based on the errors made.

Selinker (1969) notes that, through the study of learner's utterances, we attempt to describe this transitional language or 'interlanguage'. This description can then be compared with the description of the target language. The differences then become the residual learning tasks of the learner. Contrastive comparison discovers the differences between the first and second languages and predicts that there will be learning problems. Error analysis 'studies the nature of those errors and confirms or refutes the predictions of contrastive analysis.

It is important to note that all learners make mistakes. We all make mistakes when we speak but the ability to correct ourselves is another thing. A learner may recognise his/her mistakes and when his/her attention is drawn to them, he/she may not be able to correct himself/herself or may even commit another error in trying to do so. Corder notes that majority of learner's errors are linguistically different from those made by a native speaker. Foreign and second language learners make mistakes and this differentiates them from native speakers. A foreigner tries to restrict himself to only those linguistic items that he knows so that he will not make too many mistakes. A native speaker may take this for competence in the language behaviour of the foreigner. A speaker cannot be judged on the basis of fluency because it is a quality which varies both in foreigners and native speakers within the speech situation and the topic of conversation.

Corder notes that the quality of mistakes a learner makes cannot be used to measure his/her knowledge of the language. It is the most important source of information about the nature of his/her knowledge. The errors reveal his/her areas of need as they give a full picture of the problem areas in his/her language learning.

The mistakes made by native speakers and learners of a language are different. A native speaker can have several omissions within a sentence. Below is an example:

It's a bit … it hasn't…I mean, I wouldn't really come to have one like that (Corder, 1973, p.257).

Slips of the tongue or slips of pen are common in the speech of native speakers. These kinds of mistakes could involve substitution, transposition or omission of some segment of an utterance, such as speech sound, a morpheme, a word or a phrase, e.g. It didn't bother me in the least-slightes.

Corder (1973: 258) refers to Boomer and Laver (1968) who says that by studying slips, linguists are able to infer the relevant properties of an observable system on the basis of its output characteristics. Native speakers frequently make slips or false starts or confusion of structure which can be called lapses. Real errors that involve breaking codes are not always committed by native speakers. In summary of the arguments of Corder (1973) on lapses, mistakes and errors, the following can be deduced:

1. Ordinarily, speech and writing is liable to breakdown or failure.
2. That the breakdowns are not just random but systematic and that they arise from psychological and physiological causes or from imperfect knowledge of the linguistic norms of some group.
3. The great majority of learners' errors are of different kinds.
4. These result in unacceptable utterances and appear as breaches of the code.
5. Errors are a sign of an imperfect knowledge of the code, meaning that learners have not yet internalised the formation rules of the second language.
6. Native speakers are able to correct their own errors but learners may not be able to do so.

Corder, therefore, avers that it is not proper to refer to learners' errors as breaches of the code, adding that you cannot break a rule you do not know.

6.2. Expressive and receptive errors

Every speaker needs to be guided by the rules that guide the formation of sentences. It is easy to detect expressive errors because when the learner speaks, it will be glaring. Corder (1973, p. 261) notes that it is much easier to detect imperfect knowledge or errors in the case of expressive behaviour. The errors are observable and can be recorded and analysed. Receptive behaviour does not show easily. At times, the hearer does not have to respond. At times, their smiles, grunts or other paralinguistic behaviour, responding to orders or following instructions do not reveal their inadequacies when utterances are misinterpreted, it may show in their responses. It may be the response that will show that the utterance has been misinterpreted.

There are errors in comprehension, even in the classroom, and these may show in their written work. That is why teachers in examinations and tests, give sections that will test the pupils understanding of concepts, passage, text in item of lexis. It may however be difficult to identify the linguistic causes of such errors. Many people believe that a person's receptive abilities supersede his expressive abilities. Many studies conducted in error analysis have been on the productive abilities of participants i.e. written tests, speech etc. Corder(1973) avers that more attention is paid to the replies of the learner than his language.

6.3. The errors of groups and individuals

Pupils come to school and attend classes as individuals and not as groups. The mistakes they make are therefore as individuals and not as groups. When tests are given, the analysis is based on the work of the group. Occasionally, teachers (in SL situations) themselves make grammatical mistakes and pronunciation or spelling errors and learners repeat the teacher's mistakes. These mistakes will still be taken to be from the learners.

Even though pupils are different, programmes are designed based on what is common to the group. Corder notes that the information that is got from the study of errors is in part used for constructing appropriate syllabi and teaching materials. The applied linguist takes care of those errors that are common to the group and uses this for the planning of the language curriculum. The factors responsible for the errors are examined so that they can be taken care of in planning the syllabus in order that the applied linguist can know the source of the problem. The errors may show a variety of different deviations, which could be noted for planning purposes.

A point to note in the study of errors is that it is possible to find out that it is actually a part of the language that is difficult for learners to understand and use well. Difficulty can arise as a result of the interaction between the languages and not because of anything inherent in the language. For example, the native speakers of a language may find it difficult because of a lot of structural elements which may be difficult for him to comprehend. It may however be a different stage for a child learning two languages together as mother tongue. Corder (1973, p. 264) reports certain normal processes of language learning such as generalisations which are independent errors when applied to the data of a language. The use of some teaching materials may cause learners to have some errors or a particular set of errors.

Syllabi are usually designed to cater for the number of homogenous groups with the assumption that their background knowledge of the formation of rules of that language is the same. This, I think, is not so because some of them may actually come from different geopolitical zones. Their maturity is also taken for granted because of their age, intelligence, etc and this also may not be so but there is hardly anything that language planners can do about this. This may also happen where there is especially a minimum age when pupils are supposed to start formal education.

However, with a multilingual nation like Nigeria, where people of different languages attend the same classes in some areas, the linguistic divergence may be much and pupils may be producing different kinds of errors based on their mother tongues. Nevertheless, it will still be difficult to create different syllabi for the different pupils from different languages, cultural and socio-economic backgrounds based on the knowledge of their errors.

Conclusion

We have been able to go through lapses mistakes and errors in this lecture. The different types of errors have been highlighted, in addition to the way we respond to them. One of the ways of comparing languages is interlingual comparison, which is commonly called contrastive comparison; another type of comparison is error analysis. Corder sees the term 'error analysis' as a misleading one because to him, 'errors' made by the learner may be an important part of the data on which this sort of comparison is made. A learner's errors are 'systematic' and it is precisely this regularity which shows that the learner is following a set of rules which are not those of the target language

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Self-assessment activities

1. Distinguish between lapses, mistakes and errors.

2. Differentiate between the two types of errors that Corder (1973) identified.

3. Your teacher complains about the inability of the students to pronounce some words correctly and also about their grammatical mistakes. Based on your knowledge of errors, how will you help to solve the problem?

7. ERROR ANALYSIS (B)

7.1. Introduction

In the previous lecture, you were introduced to 'error analysis'. You were told that many scholars have worked on error analysis and that Corder (1973) is one of the earliest scholars who worked on error analysis. You were also told that, Corder sees the term 'error analysis' as a misleading one because to him, 'errors' made by the learner may be an important part of the data on which a comparison is made. What is being compared is the language of the learner at some particular point in his course with the target language. In this lecture, we shall still be talking about error analysis but we shall be looking at some other ways by which some other scholars have perceived learners' errors.

In this lecture, you will be introduced to linguistic description of errors, miscue analysis and its application to learners' use of language, practical uses of errors etc. There is a way that learners' errors can be used to assist learners instead of perceiving them in a negative light. Errors can be very useful in taking decisions for language teaching and learning. We shall, however, start with the data for analysis and the description of errors.

7.2. The data for analysis

It has been highlighted early on that the purpose of error analysis is to describe the nature of the learner's interlanguage and to compare it with the target language and this explains why error analysis is a branch of comparative linguistic study. This was buttressed by Brown (1994) cited in Darus and Subramanian (2009) that error analysis emphasizes "the significance of errors in learners' interlanguage. It is the systematic knowledge of an L2 as independent of both the learners' L2 and L1.

Corder notes that the pressure on the learner to use the target language would have made data collection easy in that, the learner would have been asked to express himself in his mother tongue and his utterances can then be translated into the target language. But since this is not always possible, there has to be a lot of inferences on what he intends to say in a particular context and whatever we know about him and the knowledge around him. Corder refers to this kind of re-construction as plausible reconstruction. Coherence is important in utterances as incoherence may result from inadequate knowledge of the orthographic system in a native speaker who is learning to write. Where the data collected is incoherent, it has to be discarded.

7.3. Preliminaries to the description of errors

Error analysis is performed on learners' spontaneous language, like for example essays, compositions, speech, stories, etc. Scholars have noted that the key to error analysis is the systematic nature of language and, consequently, of errors are of two types: those that can be predicted and those that cannot be predicted. A learner is in different stages of learning and errors can occur at these stages of learning which can be analysed. In a learner's pre-systematic stage, the learner cannot correct his/her errors or explain what is wrong. At the systematic stage, the correction of the learner may be an attempt to find out, or be able to explain what is happening. At this stage, he/she must have been familiar with the internal structure of the language. Corder notes that at the pre-systematic stage, he/she can correct his/her errors and explain why he/she committed the error.

7.5. The Linguistic description of errors

In error analysis, we compare similar sentences in the learner's dialect and the target language. It is like expressing the same thing in two languages. One of the objectives of error analysis is the linguistic part of the descriptive process. Below is an example of a sentence with the omission of an article from Corder (1973, p. 277).

I was told: there is bus stop/ I was told that there is a bus stop.

In the sentence, there is an error in terms of the omission but the explanation is not full. A full description will explain the error in terms of the linguistic process or rules which are being followed by the speaker.

Another is:

I have a great difficulty in… I have great difficulty in….

The difference in the sentences above can be classified into two: one, omission of a required element and addition of an unnecessary or incorrect element. Other differences in other utterances could be selection of an incorrect element and mis-ordering of elements depending on the kind of errors found. We can also determine the different linguistic, orthographic/phonological, syntactic and lexicosemantic features in learners' contributions. By doing this, we are applying some theoretical frame work to our analysis. Some sentences may be ambiguous in the following:

If you don't know the meaning, ask a dictionary. The intended meaning might be: If you don't know the meaning, ask for a dictionary. Or, If you don't know the meaning, consult a dictionary.

It is difficult to know whether the error is an incorrect lexical selection. (i.e., ask for, consult or an incorrect categorisation of ask (i.e. that 'ask' is a member of the class of verbs which require a prepositional complement) Corder (1973, p. 279).

Apart from this error of omission of article cited in Corder(1973), in a recent study in Malaysia by Darus and Subramaniam (2009), various learners' errors were identified. These errors are categorised as follows: mistake with number (singular and plural), mistake with verb tense (e.g. inappropriate verb construction), word

choice, preposition, subject-verb agreement (wrong combination of subject and verb), word order (e.g. disordering/inversion of subject and verb).

☐ The food to cater to the students during recess are not enough (inappropriate preposition) ☐ We need to be careful because it dealing with health ☐ Not washing and sweeping the flour everyday makes the floor dirty (wrong word choice) ☐ So many dirty plates and glasses are serves (inappropriate verb tense) ☐ We don't know why we are facing the problems. (Wrong word order)

It should be noted that this situation is not far-fetched in Algeria; it was noted that learners of English had a number of technical weaknesses such as; wrong use of prepositions, definite articles and tenses. In the next section, we shall look at how some other scholars perceive errors, and this takes us to miscue analysis.

7.6. Miscue analysis

The term 'miscue analysis' was coined by Goodman (1969); this approach is based on three cueing systems he believed underlay the reading process: Grapho/phonic (the relationship of letters to sound system), syntactic (the syntax/grammar system) and semantic (the meaning system). Miscue analysis refers to a process of diagnosing a child's reading. It is based on the premise of analysing the errors a reader makes during oral reading. It is a tool for closely looking at the types of reading strategies a reader uses. When a reader reads orally, the teacher learns a great deal about whether the reader is making sense of what is being read. This also gives the listener clues about how familiar or unfamiliar the reader finds the subject matter. Using the miscue analysis method, a teacher/parent will be much more capable of assisting those children/learners who experience difficulty.

7.6.1. Grapho/phonic system

Each of the errors made by a learner is coded for all three cueing systems, (Goodman, 1969). For example, miscue with effective grapho/phonic similarity is: waist wrist straightened strengthened owing owning detriment determent

Examples of miscues with partial grapho/phonic similarity   present patient fortitude fortunate   sedately sadly   acclimatisation accumulation

Examples of miscues with little or no similarities: present perched   almost awfully   usual   surface

A teacher should take note of the kinds of words that can easily be mistaken for other words and specifically teach them so that right from the beginning, the students will know the difference between the words at the grapho/phonic level.

7.6.2. Semantic system

The acceptability of meaning of the text is considered here. Semantic strength of the text is high when the original meaning of sentence is relatively unchanged. Most miscues may modify the meaning to some extent when they are close to the author's meaning. There is partial miscue when the miscue is appropriate within a single sentence or part of sentence but not within the overall context. The meanings of words should be specifically taught so that learners will make a very few mistakes. Words that have similar pronunciation, but with different meanings should be given special attention.

Some miscues with high semantic acceptability:

violent volcanic disruptive destructive afford offer

Examples of partial semantic acceptability:

pigeons penguins   rewarded regarded   species special

Example of poor semantic acceptability:

pigeons pigments   owner   over   present parent

7.6.3. Syntactic system

The grammatical appropriateness of miscue in the context of the sentence is considered here. It is either appropriate or not.

Examples of miscues that is syntactically appropriate:

(send him as a) present or patient   (he had huge) arms or hands   fully (mature) finally

Examples of miscues that are not syntactically appropriate:

(was quite) devoid (of hair)   (both) sides (of his face) besides (a) giggle (of ironic laughter) greater (All examples from)

7.7. The practical uses/Relevance of errors

The teacher benefits from the knowledge of the pupils' errors in that he/she is able to structure his/her teaching to meet those needs. Errors provide feedback to learning instructions. The effectiveness of the teacher's teaching technique, instructional; materials are seen through the errors. The errors reveal parts of the learning tasks that have not been fully comprehended by the pupils. This information on errors will help him/her to direct the areas that need to be re-taught before going onto the next topic. It also helps in designing syllabi for remedial work on the areas not understood.

There have been several other comments on the relevance and practical uses of errors in second language learning or acquisition. For example, Ancker (2000) cited in Darus(2009), submits that committing mistakes are a neutral process of learning and must be considered as part of cognition. Weireessh (1991) considers learners' errors important because the making of errors is a device the learners use in order to learn. Thus, error analysis is a valuable tool to identify and explain difficulties learners face. It can also be used as a guide or reliable feedback to design a remedial teaching method.

7.8. The theoretical uses of error analysis

For the applied linguist, the provision of a scientific approach to the practical problem provides a feedback to the theory. The psychologist will predict that the problem of errors could be the nature of the mother tongue of the learner as a second language. The applied linguist makes a comparative study of both languages and identifies certain features of the second language which are different from the first. Corder specifically notes that the study of errors is part of an experiment to confirm or disprove the psycholinguistic theory of transfer. Corder (1973, p. 267) notes that the following important point in his write up on the study of errors:

The study of errors is part of the methodology of the study of language learning. In this respect, it resembles very closely the study of the acquisition of the mother tongue. As we have seen, it is by collecting and analysing the utterance of the infant that the psycholinguist infers something of the acquisition process. He does this by logging the changes in the utterances of a single child over a period of time.

The psychologist may start off with the initial hypothesis that there must be something in common in the development of all children acquiring the same mother tongue and something common to all children and infants learning human languages. This will lead to the discovery of universals in child language. This,

Corder notes is the same in studying or the learning of a second language. Corder (1973, p.267) puts this succinctly in the extract below.

The study of errors then is part of the psycholinguistic search for the universal process of second language learning… It is hypothesized, and some evidence is now available, that children follow a similar course in the acquisition of their mother tongue. There are of course various factors involved- intelligence, social background, differential exposure to language data, etc which may complicate the picture but the assumption has solid foundation.

The pertinent question that Corder asks is whether speakers of the mother tongue learning a second language all follow the same course of development. To Corder, the inferring factors are motivation, intelligence, social background, knowledge of the world, and an externally imposed syllabus for teaching language skills.

7.9. Mistakes of performance

The learner can also make mistakes by breaking speaking rules, i.e. using inappropriate language. Corder notes that this can be referential or stylistic. To him, reference is that relation that holds between linguistic forms and objects or events (or classes of these) in the world outside. For example, when a learner makes inappropriate choice- e.g., using 'hills' for 'mountains', this is referential. Stylistic mistakes are also made by native speakers. These have to do with familiarity with the language. Learning the appropriate use of features of the mother tongue has to be in relation to social, technical and emotional differences in situations. The use of some stylistic features of language at times shows one's membership of some group, family, profession, caste class, etc. For details and more explanations on errors, see Corder(1973).

7.10. Correction of errors

Corder's position on language learning is that it is a process of discovering the underlying rules, categories and system of choice in the language through some sort of processing by the learner. The technique of correction of errors requires that the teacher understands the source of the errors so that he/she can provide appropriate data and other information which will help resolve the learner's problems. Corder concludes this section by saying – 'skill in correction of errors lies in the direction of exploiting the incorrect forms produced by the learner in a controlled fashion (Corder1973, p.267).

7.11. Conclusion

In conclusion, this lecture has dealt with error analysis which focuses on the linguistic description of errors, miscue analysis, mistakes and correction of errors. Error analysis was criticized for misdiagnosing student learning problems due to their 'avoidance' of certain difficult L2 elements. The result today is that both contrastive analysis and error analysis are rarely used in identifying L2 learner problem areas. The debate over contrastive analysis and error analysis has virtually disappeared in the last ten years. Most researchers agree that contrastive analysis and error analysis alone can't predict or account for the myriad errors encountered in learning English (Schackne, 2002).

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Tucker, M. (2003). First and Second Language Acquisition.

Self-assessment activities

1. What do you understand by the linguistic description of errors?

2. Discuss the practical and theoretical uses of errors?

3. Explain the linguistic description of errors and miscue analysis.

8. First and Second Language Acquisition (FLA/SLA)

8.1. Introduction

In this course, you will be introduced to first and second language acquisition as well as the characteristics of L1 and L2 .This course will also discusses the factors influencing the rapidity and accuracy of the acquisition of a language as well as the similarities and disparities between L1 and L2.

8.2. Definition of first and second language acquisition

The term *acquisition* refers to the process or result of learning (acquiring) a particular aspect of a language, and ultimately language as a whole. *Language acquisition* usually refers to first language acquisition, i.e., how children start understanding and speaking their first language **(L1)** acquired during early childhood and that they learned as part of growing up among people who speak it. This process normally begins before the age of about three years**.** The concepts *first language, native language, primary language, and mother tongue*, are usually treated as roughly synonymous.

Acquisition is also used in the context of learning a foreign language, f*oreign or 'second language'* (L2) acquisition is thus distinguished from 'first language' or 'mother-tongue' acquisition. 'Foreign Language Learning' generally means learning the language that is not generally spoken in the surrounding community; Second Language Learning' is learning a language that is spoken in the outside community. A second language is any language learned after the first language or the mother tongue. It investigates the human capacity to learn additional languages during late childhood, adolescence, or adulthood, once the first language, in the case of monolinguals, or the first languages, in the case of bilinguals and multilinguals, have been acquired.

However, a distinction is made between 'acquisition' and 'development'; whereas the former involves the learning of a linguistic rule (of grammar, phonology and semantics), the latter involves the further use of this rule in an increasingly wide range of linguistic and social situations. Others see no clear

distinction between these two aspects of language learning, and use the terms interchangeably.

Moreover, acquisition is sometimes opposed to learning as the former is viewed as an environmentally natural process that occurs in naturalistic contexts. 'Learning' is viewed as an instructional process which occurs in a teaching context; formal L2 learning that takes place in classrooms.

Generally, applied linguists maintain that a first language is acquired, meaning that knowledge is stored unconsciously, and that a second language is learned which means that knowledge is gained by conscious study of the second language's structure. However, SLA (second language acquisition) can involve acquisition to a certain degree, FLA (first language acquisition) on the other hand does not involve learning .Remember that you know your first language before you enter school.

8.3. Characteristics of L1 and L2

A person's first language is usually seen as the first language learned and still spoken. In some cases, the first language may be lost, leaving the individual with the second and other languages learned later. This is referred to as language attrition. This can happen when young children move to a new environment and the earlier learned language is no longer spoken frequently. A person's first language may not even be the dominant language.

Some researchers have also stated that one of the crucial thing to consider about a first and a second language is the age the person learns a language. It is believed that a second language is consciously learned and used after puberty while a first language is unconsciously acquired. In most cases, people never achieve the same level of fluency and comprehension in their second languages as in their first. SLA researchers strive to shed light on four overarching questions:

1. How do humans learn additional languages after they have learned their first?

2. In what ways is the learning of an additional language different from the learning of languages for which exposure is available from birth, and in what ways might it be similar?

3. What factors contribute to the variability observed in rates and outcomes of additional language learning?

4. What does it take to attain advanced language and literacy competencies in a language that is learned later in life?

8.4. Learning variables in first and second language acquisition

Tucker (2003) believes that regardless of the number of languages that are learned later in life, 'the rapidity and accuracy of the first acquisition can simply not be repeated'. She (2003) believes that this seems to be why first language acquisition and subsequent second language acquisition is such a highly debated topic. In both cases, the learner learns the sounds, the words, phrases, sentences until he/ she can make very complex sentences that will show some degree of competence in the language. Tucker also mentions that the outcomes of both types of acquisitions are distinct and believes that the distinctions are dramatic in that the child's capacity to communicate in the target language far surpasses that of the adult.

8.5. Factors influencing the velocity and accuracy of the acquisition of a language

Many factors are responsible for the rapidity and accuracy of acquiring a certain language, among them,

- Input

Tucker (2003) believes that the quality and quantity of the 'input' makes the first difference. The quantity of the exposure to the target language that a child has is neatly greater than that of the adult. The 'input' refers to the learning situations in form of exposure to the language in various ways that a learner has the opportunity to have. A child hears the language all day long at home, at play, in the classroom,

when rebuked, etc., but an adult may be restricted to the classroom or home instructors as a result of lack of time to study or listen to the language being spoken or read. It could even be due to the pressure of work or inability to grasp some structures, which may discourage the adult learner from moving very fast.

- *Age*

Scholars have stressed the issue of a 'critical period' after which successful learning may be not easy to accomplish. Tucker (2003) mentions that this period is usually linked to puberty because it has been noticed that people go through significant changes physically, emotionally and in terms of cognition during puberty. Four main changes in terms of language acquisition are:

- *The presence of muscular plasticity:* A child's plasticity is said to go away at about the age of fifteen. Some psychologists notice that it is hard for a learner to fully master pronunciation of a second language.

- *Memorisation capacities*: It has been noticed that as a person grows older, his/her ability to retain large amount of information reaches its peak and then begins to decrease (Tucker, 2003).

-*Neurobiological changes*: Medical science reports that as a person matures, the left hemisphere, which controls the analytical and intellectual functions, becomes more dominant than the right side which controls the emotional functions. This also affects language learning. Motivation has a lot to do with emotional changes. Children are easily motivated more than adults.

- *Egocentricity:* It has been reported that adults may get annoyed when corrected when learning another language but children do not. The adult sees mistakes most often as failures rather than an avenue for correction (Tucker 2003).

8.6. Similarities and differences between L1 and L2

Some of the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 are as under.

- Speed

It is commonly believed that the speed at which a first language is learned is faster than that of a second language. The acquisition of a second language can be a lifelong process for many people and that most people never have native-like competence in the second language regardless the number of years they spend learning it.

-Stages

Research in this area has shown that basic sounds, vocabulary and using grammatical structures are developed while learning a second language. The rate at which they are learned, however, depends on the person concerned with second language learning.

-Competence

LI speakers always tend to achieve target language competence while L2 learners may be more concerned with fluency than accuracy (Ellis 1994). Ellis (1994) also views that children normally achieve perfect L1 mastery, but adult L2 learners are unlikely to achieve perfect L2 mastery. Children are also noticed to develop clear intuitions about correctness while L2 learners are often unable to form clear grammaticality judgments. In terms of overall success.

8.7. Key themes in SLA research

Many themes have attracted attention in SLA, of which I have selected five that I consider to be fundamental areas of SLA inquiry.

8.7.1. Age: what are the effects of an early or a late start?

The question of age is perhaps the most investigated, debated, and misunderstood of all research areas in SLA, most likely because of its extraordinary theoretical and educational importance. No researcher denies that starting age

greatly affects the eventual success of additional language learning. Success, naturally, is in the eye of the beholder, and we must not forget to ask: Who is to judge success: the researcher, the teacher, one of many stakeholders in the life of the additional language user, or the user him- or herself?

8.7.2. Crosslinguistic influences stemming from already known languages

A second important theme in SLA research is how previously known languages, and particularly the mother tongue, influence the process of learning an additional language.

8.7.3. Environment and cognition: what are their contributions to additional language learning?

From the beginnings of the field, much SLA research has focused on human interactions and the discourse strategies that bring about potentially useful opportunities for learning. Much SLA research since the mid-1990s has investigated issues related to memory, attention, and awareness and how they constrain what can be learned of the additional language, particularly through interaction and formal instruction.

8.7.4. The role of instruction in SLA

People learning an additional language often seek formal instructional experiences to aid themselves in the process. Answers to what constitutes best language teaching practices have been sought by researchers who specialize in classroom SLA or instructed SLA (Ellis 2005; Lightbown and Spada 2006; Long and Doughty 2009). The question of how best to integrate form and meaning in language instruction has received great attention in instructed SLA. When instruction is designed with the exclusive goal of facilitating the learning of new forms out of context, it is clear that the results are unsatisfactory because the grammar that is understood (e.g. in traditional grammar teaching) or the stock of structures that are memorized (e.g. in audiolingual methods) do not suffice to make students into sophisticated and fluent language users.

8.7.5. The notion of interlanguage

In the mid-1970s, Corder and others moved on to a more wide-ranging approach to learner language, known as interlanguage. It is a term coined by Selinker (1972). Interlanguage is a continuum between the first language and the target language along which all learners traverse (Larsen, et. al., 1992, p. 60). The term 'interlanguage' was firstly used by John Reinecke in 1935. He always used 'interlanguage' to refer to a non standard variety of a first or second language, used as a means of intergroup communication. Many of the utterances produced by language learners are perceived as ungrammatical. They contain a lot of mistakes in lexis, pronunciation, and grammar. Ellis (1989, p. 135) mentions the characteristics of learners' talk as follows: interlanguage is dynamic (constantly adapting to new information) and influenced by the learners. Ellis (1994: 351) quoted Selinker's idea about the characteristics of interlanguage as follows:

(1) Language transfer (some, but certainly not all, items, rules, and subsystems of a learner's interlanguage may be transferred from the first language) (2) Transfer of training (some interlanguage elements may derive from the way in which the learners were taught) (3) Strategies of second language learning (Selinker talks about an 'identifiable approach by the learner to the material to be learned) (4) Strategies of second language communication (an identifiable approach by the learner to communication with native speakers of the target language) (5) Overgeneralization of the target language material (some interlanguage elements are the result of a 'clear overgeneralization' of target language rules and semantic features)

An interlanguage is developed by a learner of a second language who has not become fully proficient yet but is approximating the target language: preserving some features of their first language, or overgeneralizing target language rules in speaking or writing the target language and creating innovations. The interlanguage rules are shaped by: L1 transfer, transfer of training, strategies of L2 learning (e.g. simplification), strategies of L2 communication (or communication strategies like circumlocution), and overgeneralization of the target language patterns.

Interlanguage can fossilize in any of its developmental stages. All in all, interlanguage is a continuum between the first language and the target language along which all learners traverse. It is dynamic (constantly adapting to new information) and influenced by the learners.

8.8. Conclusion

In this course, we have tackled L1 an L2 acquisition. Tucker (2003) mentions some factors influencing the accuracy of the acquisition of the first and second languages. Among these are: age, motivation and egocentricity. The differences between the first and second languages have also been highlighted, in addition to the concept of interlanguage.

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Self-assessment

What are the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 acquisition? Can you remember any notable similarity between your L1 and L2 when you learned them? Write about your own experience.

9. Language Learning Theories

9.1. Introduction

When dealing with language, Corder (1973, p.20) says that every person has an idea about what is meant by language, depending on who we are. Language is an intricate entity and cannot be fully described or understood within or through using a single theory. Some individuals talk about using language- that is they consider language as an instrument, which can be used and discarded. Others talk about possessing a language, which means something at your disposal. Children are said to acquire language. If language is viewed as a form of behaviour, then it cannot be compared with walking. This course not only tells you what language is, but also tries to introduce you to the different theories related to language learning.

9.2. Definition of language

Language in the Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (2003, p. 699) is defined as "a systematic means of communicating ideas or feelings by the use of conventionalized signs, sounds, gestures, or marks having understood meanings". Pinker, in his book, 'The Language Instinct' (1994) defines language in the following terms:

> Language is a complex, specialized skill, which develops in the child spontaneously without conscious effort or formal instruction, is deployed without awareness of its underlying logic, is qualitatively the same in every individual, and is distinct from more general abilities to process information or behave intelligently. (Pinker, 1994, p. 18).

A consolidation of a number of possible definitions should not cover the sophistication of linguistic research underlying each concept:

1. Language is systematic. Explicit and formal accounts of the system of language on several possible levels (e.g. phonological, syntactic, lexical, and semantic).

2. Language is a set of arbitrary symbols. The symbolic nature of language; the relationship between language and reality; the philosophy of language; the history of language.

3. Those symbols are primarily vocal, but may also be visual. Phonetics; phonology; writing systems; gesture, distance, eye contact, and other paralinguistic features of language.

4. The symbols have conventionalized meanings to which they refer. Semantics; language and cognition; psycholinguistics.

5. Language is used for communication. Communication systems; speaker-hearer interaction; sentence processing.

6. Language operates in a speech community or culture. Sociolinguistics; language and culture; bilingualism and SLA (second language acquisition).

7. Language is essentially human, although possibly not limited to humans. Human language and nonhuman communication; neurolinguistics; innate factors; genetic transmission.

8. Language is acquired by most people in the same way. Language universals; First language acquisition.

Yet, Langacker's observation (1968) of four decades ago still holds true:

> Despite its prevalence in human affairs, language is poorly understood. Misconceptions are legion, even among well-educated people, and not even professional linguists can claim to understand it fully. A person is radically mistaken to assume that the nature of language is self-evident or to conclude that we know all about a language just because we speak it. (Langacker 1968, p.3).

Thus, the answer to the question 'What is language?' is by no means straightforward.

9.3. The nature of language and language learning

What exactly is language learning? In fact, Language learning/acquisition/development is:

-a process by which individuals become competent speakers of their native language or learn a another language while ,for example ,they are living in the target-language country(picks up language through exposure) or in a foreign-language classroom through formal study) in the learner's native country.

-a process by which language capabilities of a person increases.

9.4. The different language learning theories

Many answers to the question of what learning is, have been offered. Evidently, the most outstanding replies in recent memory have been drawn from the theories of behaviourism, innatism, monitorism, interactionalism and emergentism.

9.4.1. The behaviourist theory

One version of behaviourism (Skinner 1957) is that learning occurs via operant conditioning. Following notions in **behaviorist psychology,** B.F Skinner **(1904-1990)** was of the opinion that all learning can be understood as a habit formation through a process of Stimulus – Response – Reinforcement (S-R-R), as represented in (Skinner's Verbal Behavior (1957). There is no mental process involved; instead, learner behaviour is reinforced in order to condition a voluntary response to a particular stimulus.

Key to this approach is the behavioural shaping, such as learning to make a new sound that comes from selective reinforcement. Structuralists, such as Bloomfield (1942), had already introduced the idea that learning occurred through habit formation. When language is explained as verbal behaviour, acquired through habit formation, it seems that the best way to learn a new language in the classroom is to 'overlearn' it, that is to say learners should practice the new patterns of the target language so thoroughly that they can choose the appropriate forms of the language while focusing their attention on the meanings they wish to express. Practices such as 'mimicry-memorization' (Bloomfield 1942) and pattern and dialogue practice (Fries 1945) became common.

Some of the behaviourist rules are:

a- The social environment is of paramount importance in language learning.

b- The teacher has many roles to play in the language learning activity.

c- Errors must be corrected promptly; they are not allowed in learning.

d- Frequent repetition is crucial to effective learning.

9.4.2. The innatist or mentalist theory

Innatism or mentalism entered the scene with Chomsky (1965). The 'innatist or mentalist theory' was introduced as a result of the weaknesses in the behaviourist theory. The essential principle of mentalist theory is that "everybody learns a language, not because they are subject to a similar conditioning process, but because they possess an inborn capacity which permits them to acquire a language as a normal maturational process" (Wilkins, 1972:168 cited in Demizeren, 1989). Chomsky challenged how it was possible for a child learning its native language to instigate the rules necessary to produce grammatical sentences, taking into account the impoverished input to which the child was exposed. There had to be, he reasoned, some innate faculty, a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) that guides the child in the language acquisition process.

Language acquisition device (LAD) is the language innate faculty which is responsible for language acquisition needless to the social environment. This was later referred to as Universal Grammar (UG), which was described as "a specialised module of the brain, pre-programmed to process language" (Spada & Lightbown, 2002, p.116). Universal Grammar (UG) allows the child to acquire language during a special developmental period, known as "critical period" for language acquisition.

Nevertheless, it has been claimed that language learning cannot be separated from the social environment. The presence of people such as father and mother around the child learner creates a natural social environment. As such, language is neither totally of inborn nature nor is it just a matter of biological make-up.

Innatist principles are as under:

a- The language teacher is not needed.

b- Errors are allowed, for they serve as reflections of learners' language learning or acquisition process.

c- The role of social environment is weakened.

d- Language is innate.

9.4.3. Interactionalism

Interactionists (e.g. Snow, 1979) believe that it is not necessary to appeal to an innate LAD to explain the facts of language acquisition. They could instead be accounted for by looking closely at the interaction between the child and its babysitters, and the support the latter provides. As native speakers and non-native speakers of the target language interact, language acquisition takes place, providing that native speakers accommodate non-native speakers, thereby making the input easier to comprehend. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991, p. 266) argue that the interactionist views are more powerful than other theories "because they invoke both innate and environmental factors to explain language learning". They are the first to view language not only as a matter of syntactic structures, but also as a matter of discourse.

In language education, a similar motivation applies to the use of meaning-based or task based syllabi (Prabhu, 1987; Willis, 1996). The goal is not to focus upon language forms or functions explicitly, but to solve some problem or to accomplish some task. Out of the interactions involved in performing the tasks, language is learned.

9.4.4. Emergentism

A more recent view of learning, inspired by seeing language from a complexity theory perspective has been called emergentism (Ellis & Larsen-Freeman, 2006). Also, rejecting the idea of the need to posit an innate LAD, emergentists argue instead that humans are well suited to perceive and to assimilate the patterns in the language spoken to them (and therefore the input is not as impoverished as

Chomsky maintained). Emergentists have demonstrated that both children learning their native language and adult learners learning a target language can 'bootstrap' (start) their learning by attending to frequently occurring form-meaning-use constructions in the language to which they are exposed. Emergentists assert that this way of looking at learning finds empirical support in the architecture of the brain.

9.5. Who are the learners?

Moving on to the question of 'who are the language learners?' it should not be surprising that any answer to this question is multifaceted as well. Certainly, even a cursory response to this question would include learners' ages, the native or other languages that they speak, and their individual differences. Another tension in the field of language learning has been the one between those who believe the learning process is essentially cognitive and individual, the learning by individuals of a mental grammar, and those who believe that learning is essentially a social enterprise (see, for example, Lafford, 2007). Although most educators would again feel that both cognition and social interaction play a part, the important question of how they interface remains. The key tenets of communicative approaches to language learning are that learning a language is about learning to communicate. In other words,

-Learners learn a language through using it to communicate

-Authentic and meaningful communication is the goal of classroom activities

-Fluency is an important part of communication

-Communication involves the integration of different language skills

-Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error. (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 172).

9.6. Problems of Arab Learners in EFL Learning

There are 28 letters in Arabic language; all are consonants apart from the first letter. Last two letters can act as both consonants and vowels. The pronunciation and spellings of Arabic varies from country to country. Like all Semitic languages Arabic is read and written from right to left, on a horizontal line. English belongs to Germanic languages, a language family, that is a direct descendent of Endo-European language family. English has 26 alphabets/letters and 44 sounds. There are 20 vowel sounds and 24 consonant sounds.

With all these cultural considerations, another major influences on L2 learning is their mother tongue. There is a major difference in the concept of difficulty and difference in L2 learning. In case, there is some similarity and there is positive transfer according to behaviorists. But any difference in the syntactic patterns and word order leads to confusion, difficulty, and interference in L2 learning. There is no evident similarity between English and Arabic. The problems; therefore, are varied in nature with respect to phonology and grammar. Let us discuss some problem areas. First, we will tackle the phonological problem areas: 1. The harshly pronounced /h/ sound: The Arabic language has a typical way of pronouncing /h/, which creates interferences in their English as well. It sounds like creating a sound "uhhh" in place of "h" making it harsh. There is a lot of vibration while producing this kind of a sound. Examples: Hesitation, Inhale, Hard, Hurry, Honey, Heavy, etc.

A few Arabic words, to illustrate are- Hamama, Hebah, Lehm, Leham ,and Mohammed. You can hear the harsh/h/ sound typically in these words and can see their interferences clearly too. 2. Over pronounced "r" in the post vocalic position: It is also carried from their mother tongue i.e. Arabic. It is a motor-like sound that has a rattling effect. It is not like the American rolled pronunciation or like the British one which is almost absent in case of the final position of the sound. This interference is seen in any position of the sound in an English word. Some words in Arabic for instance are-Ramadan, Rami, Rahmah,geri, surah. These words show the

over pronounced /r/ and the reflection of the same is seen in the interference in English, for example, car, park, father, mother, energy, torn, teacher,very,etc. 3. Interference in Pronunciation of Different Sounds: a. /b/ for /p/: Blis (please) blay (play) di (the) tib (tape) teacher. b. /i/ for /e/: Rid for red: Di (the) flower is rid in colour. c. /i/ for /ei/: Fis and face: His fis (face) is very bale (pale). d. /e/ for /ei/: Mek for make: I'll mek it teacher. In 3a, you can see/p/ sound replaced by /b/ sound.

This is again because; /p/ sound is not there in the Arabic language. If a word starts with 'p', it is replaced with 'b' before consonants and mostly before the consonant 'r'. If a word begins with 'p' and it is placed before vowel sounds, 'b' is spelled instead of 'p'. There is another noticeable phenomenon that when 'p' comes after 'm', it is substituted with 'b' in words like impediment:/imbediment/, companion:/combanion/, champion:/chambion/, and examples:/exambles/. On the other hand, it is also observed that when 'b' comes after 'm', it is superseded by 'p' which is a reverse case as in ambitious:/ampitious/ . It is a very prominent and strong interference. It is very peculiar of Arab students to use /i/ for /e/ as seen in 3b. There are two reasons for this error. 1. Short vowels are not very significant in the Arabic language and dropped in the spoken as well as written word. Whereas in English short vowels are very important. Therefore, they create great confusion. 2. The phoneme /e/ in 3c has no equivalent in Arabic and therefore there is this tendency to shift to /i/ which is quite close a pronunciation.

Sentence 3d shows the replacement of /ei/ by /e/: Another instance of strong interference is seen even when the phoneme /ei/ present in Arabic is wrongly pronounced as /e/, a short vowel sound. Only some of the phonological interferences have been exemplified above. Some more interference and confusion is observed in /v/ and /f/: very and ferry, /Ө/ and /s/: thin and sin,/tS/ and /S/:chair and share ,and more. 3. The Arabic Shaddah or consonant doubling in Arabic strongly interferes with the double consonants in English. The Arabs tend to lay extra stress on the double consonants, e.g., allow is spoken as /al-low/. 4. Another problem area is inaccurate articulation of consonant clusters: E.g. "climbed"

wherein /b/ has a very light articulation in English is spoken as claimbed. This example shows two problems. The three letter cluster '-bad' is difficult and hence the Arab learners find them difficult.

They tend to over pronounce the consonant in the cluster in order to make pronunciation easy. In this case, /b/ is over pronounced. They also insert a vowel sound between the cluster letters to 'simplify' pronunciation. Some more examples: next: nekist, arranged : Ùrindzid, months: monthiz and more. Let us look at this example: stopped: istobid. This shows the problem in the pronunciation of the initial cluster /st/. Arabic does not have initial clusters too. The Arab learners therefore tend to insert a vowel sound before the cluster or in between the cluster. Some examples: price :pirice, spring: sipiring, ground: giround, blue: bilu, etc.

After having read through these illustrations, I am sure the phonological influence of Arabic on English is clear. In order to overcome such interference, teachers as well as students need to make special efforts. Conscious listening to authentic materials, drill practice, guided loud reading are some ways of overcoming the problems. We also try funny tricks like holding a paper in front of the student's mouth. The paper vibrates on pronouncing /p/ - the aspirated English sound but does not move while pronouncing the bilabial/b/.

Some Grammatical Problems: The following five examples throw light on some of the grammatical problems faced by the learners. 1. I want I go out. 2. She takes book. 3. He was drink coffee. 4. He hit by a stone. 5. He drives dangerous. 6. She going to school.

We will now analyze the reasons of the prominent deviances in these sentences:

Sentence 1: This is very typical of an English learner. Absence of the infinitive in Arabic leads to deleting of the same in English.

Sentence2: Deleting the definite article. The learner tends to omit articles as Arabic does not have articles. There is another tendency, though; they tend to insert definite

article 'the' whenever it is omitted in English, e.g., "at dawn" will be "at the dawn" but "in the evening" will be "in evening"!!

Sentence 3: Wrong use of the past tense. Arab learners tend to use a wrong past tense form to talk about the present perfect. In the example, the speaker had to say, 'He has drunk coffee' but he ends up saying 'He was drink coffee'. This happens because there is no distinction between these frames of time in Arabic. We find a similar interference in the making of the past continuous. Arabs tend to say the same: 'He was drink coffee' for 'He was drinking coffee' when they wish to refer to an action at a point of time in the past.

Sentence 4: This is a typical example of the use of the active voice for the passive. Arabic does not have the passive usage. Mere change in pronunciation makes a sentence passive in Arabic. Therefore, the English passive is a difficult task for them.

Sentence 5: Adverbs are very seldom used in Arabic. Therefore, the learner tends to use an adjective in place of an adverb.

Sentence 6: Dropping of the copula: A very peculiar interference seen in the Arab learners. Arabic does not have the verb 'to be' so learners do not take cognizance of the same!

9.7. Conclusion

Within this lecture, we have briefly highlighted different definitions of language. No individual is born with any language. We all acquire the language of the environment in which we find ourselves when we are born. We have also looked at different theories about language learning.

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Self-assessment

On the basis of your knowledge and experience as foreign language learners, reflect and attempt to answer the questions below.

- What do you know about how languages are learned?

- How do differences among learners affect the learning process?

- What motivations do learners have for learning English?

- What roles can learners play in the in the language learning process?

- What roles can learning materials play in the classroom?

10. Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching Methods

10.1. Introduction

The choice as to the best, or the most appropriate, or the most effective, way of teaching a language is 'a clear and classic applied linguistic problem' (Cook 2003: 38), with important implications not just for classroom teaching, but also for materials and curriculum design, for teacher education, and for educational policy-making in general.

10.2. Methodology in language teaching

The way that teachers address this problem in their classroom teaching constitutes their methodology.

> Methodology can be characterized as the activities, tasks, and learning experiences selected by the teacher in order to achieve learning, and how they are used within the teaching/learning process.

> (Richards 1990, p. 11).

Methodology is the how of teaching, but also implicated are the what, the why and the who. That is, teachers' choices of activities, tasks, and learning experiences will be influenced by their (implicit or explicit) theories of language and of learning, as well as by their assessment of the requirements, learning styles and abilities of their learners.

According to Adamson (2006), methodology is employed loosely in language teaching. It is commonly used interchangeably with 'methods' and 'pedagogy'. Methodology and pedagogy are essentially different from each other. The essential difference is that methodology has a narrow focus and tends to be more dogmatic in its application. However, pedagogy has broader educational goals and it is influenced by a wide range of theories and curricular influence and tensions. It is more rooted in and responsive to the practical realities of a particular classroom.

Adamson (2006) attempts to address a number of questions concerning language teaching methodology such as: where do methods originate? what are the salient features of methods that have been widely promoted? how do they gain acceptance? does methodology have any relevance in postmodernist contexts? For example, young L2 learners may require teaching aids which are pictorial to be able to facilitate learning and promote the association between the concepts and the word itself. E.g. the picture of 'a bottle''' and the word 'bottle' itself will go a long way in helping the learner to understand what the word 'bottle' stands for and also remember the spelling.

10.3. Some language teaching methods

'A language teaching method is a single set of procedures which teachers are to follow in the classroom. Methods are usually based on a set of beliefs about the nature of language and learning' (Nunan, 2003, p. 5). The distinction between methodology and method is not always clear-cut, and any discussion of methodology must take into account the notion of method, and the way that this notion has been represented in the literature. Methodology is then defined as 'the study of the system or range of methods that are used in teaching, while a method is a single set of practices and procedures that are derived from theory or theorization which impinges on the design of a curriculum plan, resources, and teaching and learning activities'.

10.3.1. Grammar-translation method

This method was said to emerge from the learning of Latin and Greek, which were the classical languages taught in Europe. During this period, language was viewed as an academic discipline rather than a means of conducting everyday social interactions. Priority was given to the written language. However, this method of language teaching has limited practicability for communicating everyday situations or experiences. For example, the learner can be asked to translate the following sentence in the French language to English and the other way round;

J'irai au cinema demain- I'll go to the cinema tomorrow.

Did you hear what I said? *Aviez vous entendu ce que j'ai dit?*

Other forms of focused exercises are memorisation of lexical items, dictation reading aloud and rote learning. However, towards the end of the nineteenth century, language teachers in Europe became dissatisfied with this method.

10.3.2. Gouin's method/ Series

Gouin's method called *Series* concentrated its interest on everyday language and on children's acquisition of mother tongue, which was believed came about initially through listening and speaking (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). There was a focus on meaning and communication skills of learners. For example learners were encouraged to learn and concentrate on the meaning of words and the ability to speak well. Later there were calls for a more scientific approach to language learning. The call gave rise to the direct method.

10.3.3. Direct method

This method of language teaching emerged as a result of several calls for a more scientific approach to language learning. It has been defined by Palmer (1921) as,

> learning to use a foreign language […] almost entirely without reading, with little or no writing, without studying a systematized and formal theory of the language-structure, and without any unnecessary recourse to the mother-tongue as a vehicle for instruction.

(Palmer 1921, p.12)

Direct method classes typically revolved around extended teacher-led question-and-answer sequences (called conversations) that provided a context for new language items. This method is premised upon the belief that total immersion in the target language is conducive to rapid progress in communicating as with first language. Rivers (1981) states that the role of the teacher is to provide contextual support for the learners, without recourse or reference to the learners' mother tongue as fast as possible. For example, an Algerian learner of the English language

should be totally immersed in the L2 without any recourse to the mother tongue so that the L2 learner can learn fast.

10.3.4. Audiolingual method

This method came about because of experimentation by Skinner who worked with animals and his behaviourist principles of learning (Adamson, 2006). Learners are drilled to produce correct responses as errors are not tolerated and special attention is on habit formation. For example, the teacher can say;

Repeat after me; T: ball

P: ball

T: once again, ball

P: ball

T: say it five times and spell it

P: ball, ball, ball, ball, ball

T: say this sentence; I lost my ball yesterday

Say it four times

10.3.5. The communicative approach

Within this approach which is also called communicative language teaching, language is seen principally as social practice, and the purpose of language teaching as engendering the learner's competence to communicate in the target language. some scholars, such as Allwright, were arguing that, 'if communication is THE aim, then it should be THE major element in the process' (1979, p.167).

The focus on communicating messages – as opposed to rehearsing structural patterns – created the need for activities that encouraged some kind of meaningful exchange, as in information-gap tasks, and, in order to practice functional language, role-plays and simulations became standard practice. The teacher is seen as the facilitator and motivator as well as source of knowledge. For example, the teacher

can create a buying and selling corner where pupils will be able to interact with the materials, other pupils and their teacher so that they can develop communicative competence in the target language. The Communicative Approach is task-based learning which advocates a learner-centred curriculum and teaching methods that have a strong element of group work and autonomous activities. It emphasizes competences, communicative competence, strategic, cultural, and so on.

10.6. Conclusion

One of the products of applied linguistics has been to crystallize the theoretical view of language, education, and language education into prescribed teaching materials and strategies, or methods. In this course, you have learnt about the methods of language teaching and the methodology in language teaching.

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Self -Assessment

Task1: What do you understand by methodology in language teaching?

Task 2: On the basis of your knowledge and experience as foreign language learners, reflect and attempt to answer the questions below.

- How do differences among learners affect learning processes and teaching procedures?

- What factors of context should teachers take into account?

- What roles can teachers play in the in the language learning/ teaching process?

- What roles can teaching materials play in the classroom?

11. Multilingualism as a Branch of Applied Linguistics

11.1. Introduction

Multilingualism can be understood as an individual or a social phenomenon. It can refer to the acquisition, knowledge or use of several languages by individuals or by language communities in a specific geographical area. What is the relationship between multilingualism and applied linguistics? Research in applied linguistics deals with real-world problems related to language. As Auer and Li (2007) point out, multilingualism is not a problem in itself but a traditional monolingual view has seen multilingualism as a problem. Multilingualism is related to many areas of applied linguistics. This course will focus on different aspects of multilingualism, including cognitive issues such as the outcomes of multilingualism, language processing in multilinguals, multilingualism and age, and the acquisition of additional languages.

11.2. Perspectives on multilingualism

The term 'multilingualism' is increasingly used in applied linguistics but not always in the same way. The different ways 'multilingualism' is used are linked at least to three sources of variability: the individual versus social dimension, the number of languages involved and the level of proficiency in the different languages.

- *Multilingualism has an individual and a social dimension*: 'the ability of societies, institutions, groups and individuals to engage, on a regular basis, with more than one language in their day-to-day lives' (European Commission 2007, p. 6). The term 'plurilingualism' is used in some cases to refer to individual multilingualism but the most common term is multilingualism, both for the individual and social dimensions.

-*Regarding the number of languages involved*, the term multilingualism implies 'multiple' languages and it usually refers to two or more languages. The term 'bilingualism' means the capacity to use 'two languages'.

- One of the most important dimensions is proficiency in the different languages. The idea of 'native control of two languages' suggested by Bloomfield (1933) when referring to bilingualism is extremely demanding and very uncommon when more than two languages are involved. To be 'communicatively competent' in one language involves a number of different components, such as linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic, discourse, and strategic competence.

11.3. Additive vs. substractive multilingualism

An important distinction at the social and educational levels is that between additive and subtractive multilingualism. In the case of additive multilingualism a language is added to the linguistic repertoire of the speaker while the first language continues to be developed (e.g. French and English in Canada). In contrast, subtractive multilingualism refers to situations in which a new language is learned and replaces the first language. Subtractive multilingualism is often associated with situations of immigration (e.g. A Spanish speaker living in the USA who receives education only through the medium of English without having the opportunity to develop one's home language.

11.4. Main research areas in multilingualism

Issues in the study of multilingualism are not only relevant for multilingualism because they involve many other areas of applied linguistics such as language learning, language in education and language in society.

11.4.1. The outcomes of bilingualism and multilingualism

Up to the 1960s multilingualism was generally associated with negative results in cognitive ability. Multilingual schoolchildren scored lower than monolinguals. This idea has changed with the influential study made by Peal and Lambert in 1962. This study proved that bilingual children scored higher on several verbal and non-verbal tests of cognitive ability.

Bilingualism and multilingualism have been associated with possible advantages in the acquisition of additional languages. The basic idea is that monolinguals and

multilinguals are not on equal footing when facing the task of acquiring an additional language. Multilinguals already have access to at least two linguistic systems with their lexicons, syntax, phonetics, pragmatic and discourse properties.

The positive effect of bilingualism on the acquisition of additional languages is not so obvious in the case of immigrants when the first language is not taught and valued at school or in society. In these cases, learners can be in situations of subtractive multilingualism.

11.4.2. Language processing in multilinguals

When trying to identify the characteristics of language processing in multilinguals the area that has received most attention has been the organization of the multilingual lexicon. Studies on multilingual lexical access seem to indicate that the languages that are not used are not blocked and that there is competition between words in different languages. Singleton (2003) concludes that there is a 'high degree of connectivity and dynamic interplay between the L1 mental lexicon and additional mental lexicons' (Singleton 2003: 169).

As Ringbom (2007) points out, there is a large number of factors that can determine cross-linguistic influence from the first language or from other languages known by the speaker. In fact, the level of proficiency in the source and the target language, the level of formality, the order of acquisition of the language or the specific context of the interaction can influence the amount of transfer.

11.4.3. Multilingualism and age

The effect of age on second language acquisition is a controversial area that has received much attention in SLA research (Singleton and Ryan 2004; DeKeyser and Larson-Hall 2005). The study of the age factor in multilingualism is a complex issue because there is a great diversity in the process of acquiring several languages and a large number of individual differences are involved. The distinction between

naturalistic and more formal contexts of language acquisition is one of these factors. Research studies conducted in naturalistic language environments tend to support the idea of 'the earlier the better', meaning that an earlier contact with the target languages results in higher levels of proficiency in the language.

11.4.4. Multilingualism, language planning and education

Language planning is understood as a type of intervention into the corpus of a language, its status and acquisition. The institution of education can be regarded as a crucial tool of language planning. Multilingual education not only implies the teaching of two or more languages but also that education aims at multilingualism and multiliteracy as an outcome. There are different types of bilingual and multilingual education depending not only on school variables (teachers, curriculum, etc.) but also on the sociolinguistic context in which the schools are located and the language policy of that society. In some schools, such as those in the Basque Country, there is a shift from bilingualism to multilingualism and English is being increasingly used as an additional language of instruction. Nowadays, Basque, the minority language, is the main language of instruction and English is an additional language of instruction in some schools.

11.5. New trends in the study of multilingualism

The focus is put on two new areas of development in research on multilingualism: the acquisition of additional languages and the linguistic landscape.

11.5.1. The acquisition of additional languages

There is now a growing body of research into multilingualism and the acquisition of additional languages which is reflected in a number of recent publications in this area, a specific journal (the International Journal of Multilingualism), international conferences and an increasing number of publications on the topic. The early acquisition of three languages from birth is not

common but can sometimes be found when parents are native speakers of different languages that are not spoken in the community and they use the strategy of one parent–one language. The child is exposed to a third language by other carers.

Other situations involving the acquisition of three or more languages are linked to foreign language learning at school and multilingual education. In fact, multilinguals seldom have balanced proficiency in the different languages because language acquisition and language use are dynamic processes and they depend on many factors including language use.

Herdina and Jessner (2002) adopt a holistic view and emphasize the fact that multilingual competence is dynamic rather than static. A more sociolinguistic and educational approach that can benefit from this holistic approach to multilingualism focuses on literacy practices in the different languages, both in school settings and outside of school.

11.5.2. Linguistic landscape

The study of the linguistic landscape, also called the 'multilingual cityscape' refers to signs of different types (billboards, road signs, commercial signs, graffiti, etc.) that can be found in the public space. Studies on the linguistic landscape conducted in various settings show the cultural and linguistic diversity in the use of different languages. The study of the linguistic landscape can contribute to the study of multilingualism in different ways. Language signs are indicators of the languages used in a specific setting and their status, and they can also be an additional source of input in language acquisition (Cenoz and Gorter 2008b). Another future possibility of research is the analysis of the linguistic landscape inside schools as related to language teaching and school multilingualism.

11.6. Multimodality in the study of multilingualism

Research on multilingualism has gone in many other directions in recent years. An interesting direction is the study of multilingualism and emotions (see, for example, Pavlenko and Dewaele 2004; Pavlenko 2005, 2006). The term

'multiliteracies' was coined by the New London Group (1996) to refer to cultural and linguistic diversity and to the use of new technologies and visual texts in school and out-of-school literacies. A basic characteristic of this approach to literacy is multimodality[1]. This new form of communication has created new literacy practices that are dynamic and multilingual.

11.7. Conclusion

The study of multilingualism both from an individual and social perspective has blossomed (flourished) in recent years. Research on the influence of bilingualism on the cognitive development and the acquisition of additional languages shows the benefits of being bilingual and multilingual. From a cognitive perspective, new technical developments have contributed to the study of language processing in multilinguals, particularly at the lexical level. From a social perspective, the sociopolitical implications of multilingualism both in educational settings and in society in general have been analyzed. Nowadays, there are new trends in the study of multilingualism such as the acquisition of additional languages, the linguistic landscape and multimodality.

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[1] In its most basic sense, **multimodality** is a theory of communication and social semiotics. **Multimodality** describes communication practices in terms of the textual, oral, linguistic, spatial, and visual resources - or modes - used to compose messages.

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Self-assessment

Why would you say that Algeria is a multilingual country?

12. Language Testing and Applied Linguistics

Lecture contents: Introduction- Reasoning in language tests- Theories of validity-. Validation Research in Language Testing- Language Testing Research and Language Learning- Current and Future Developments in Language Testing Research

112.1. Introduction

Language testing has undergone a rapid evolution in the past 50 years, mirroring the development of applied linguistics more broadly. Most recently, language tests are under somewhat of a challenge, as they respond to critiques of individualistic notions of performance and are increasingly being scrutinized for their social accountability, in line with the critical turn in applied linguistics generally.

There is a tendency at times for language testing to be seen as specialized and marginal: for example, within the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA) there is no recognized special field of language testing; it is seen as a sub-category of language teaching. Despite this, there are in fact grounds for the view that language testing represents one of the core areas of applied linguistics. The importance of language tests is a function of the social and political roles they play. Language tests have marked social relevance in the contemporary world, as they play a role in socially very significant institutional and political processes.

The idea of formal tests of knowledge or ability emerged in traditional China, where they were used for the selection of individuals who would go on to be trained to be the ruling elite. Tests thus played a crucial role in constructing the fundamental character of Chinese cultural and political life over many centuries (Fairbank & Goldman, 1998).

In the modern world, language tests control access to international education by students studying through the medium of a second language (especially, but not exclusively, English), they play an important role in the management of the language education of the children of immigrants, they have been used as a weapon in intergroup conflicts, they act as controls in the mobility of professionals and other workers. They are used for certification of achievement in education, and in many countries control the transition between school and higher education. Given this social significance, language testing faces an ethical challenge: language testers need to make their language tests as fair as possible, and need to be aware of their social responsibilities in their work.

The importance of language testing is recognized institutionally within applied linguistics: language testing has its own journals, its own national and international conferences and an international professional association, the International Language Testing Association (ILTA). Thinking about the character of language tests and responsibility for their development and use has been guided increasingly by theories of validity in general education, most recently the work of Messick (1989). But before considering validity we need to clear the ground a little by considering some characteristics of all tests, including language tests.

12.2. Reasoning in language tests

Language testing is a process of gathering information about test-takers from observed performance under test conditions. This is done in order to draw inferences either about the likely quality of performance by the test-taker under non test conditions, or about the test-takers' standing in relation to a relevant domain of knowledge and abilities. We thus make a distinction between the test (the means of drawing inferences) and the criterion (the target of test inferences). For example, language tests are used throughout the world to control the entry of students into university settings where the language of instruction is not the student's first language. A language test is used to predict the student's ability to cope with the demands of the university settings.

These demands need to be modeled: this involves considerable research into exactly what is required of international students in university settings, including both academic and social domains. This information (known as a job analysis) is then used to build a picture of the essential requirements of the target setting, the construct of academic language proficiency, and this is then reflected in the design of the test. Such a construct may be contested, for example in the degree to which the demands of specific areas of study are included, or ignored. In other cases, the source of our constructs will be work in areas of applied linguistics in which theories or models are built.

For example, if we are interested in finding out about how bilinguals process vocabulary knowledge in each language, we will draw on models in psycholinguistics for our constructs, and build the test around them. Test constructs, then, are never themselves uncontroversial: they need to be articulated and defended as part of building a case for the validity of a test.

The field of language testing has been engaged in vigorous debate for many years on the modeling of the nature of general language ability, ever since the appearance of the model of communicative competence in a second language set out in a paper by Canale and Swain in 1980. This built on the work of Hymes (1972) on communicative competence in the mother tongue, which articulated an encompassing view of language knowledge and its relation to performance.

Hymes was motivated by a concern for the needs of learners in schools who were experiencing learning difficulties, which he traced to gaps in underlying knowledge and skill in areas relevant to the particular social and cultural context of the classroom. Hymes saw the ability to take part in communicative events particular to a culture as a function both of knowledge of linguistic and sociolinguistic conventions, but also of personality factors, other kinds of knowledge, motivation, and the like.

This very broad view of competence was not adopted in discussions of second language communicative competence. Canale and Swain took a narrower view: they specifically excluded general performance skills and focused on defining the dimensions of language knowledge underlying performance in second language communicative tasks. Following Hymes, they distinguished sociolinguistic competence (knowledge of the way language use is shaped by cultural conventions in particular communities of use) from linguistic competence (simple control of the linguistic system (including grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation) independently of its use in particular social and cultural contexts). Their model does include one aspect of performance skill (although they classified it as an aspect of language knowledge): the ability to cope communicatively when one's linguistic resources are not fully adequate, a familiar problem for those communicating in their second language.

Tests adopting a broad view will present candidates with test tasks which seek to simulate the communicative demands of the target context, and evaluate performance in terms of criteria operating in that context. A test of second language communicative skill in doctors will present candidates with communicative tasks typical of clinical settings – explaining treatment options to patients or their relatives, for example – and criteria will include the overall communicative impact of the performance, and not just linguistic accuracy (McNamara, 1996 provides a detailed account of the development of such a test, the Occupational English Test).

12.3. Theories of validity

Language tests, like other tests, are deliberate samples, in this case of an individual's language knowledge or language behavior, in order to reach a conclusion about the likely general state of that person's knowledge or ability. As with blood tests, or breath tests of drivers, language tests require technical expertise in their construction and application, in order to make the inferences that we draw from test results interpretable and supportable.

The validation of language tests refers to the process of gathering arguments and evidence in support of the interpretations and uses we may wish to make of test scores. As we will see, there are two basic processes involved: an articulation of the exact character of the knowledge we seek and of the purpose for which we seek it; and the gathering of empirical evidence (for example, investigating expected and unexpected patterns of responses as revealed in test scores) to support the interpretations we wish to make of candidate performance.

12.4. Validation Research in Language Testing

Test validation is the process of investigating the meaningfulness and defensibility of the inferences we make about individuals based on their test performance. The need to defend our interpretations of the meanings of test scores is because of the necessarily indirect relationship between the test and what we ultimately want to know about, the candidate's standing in relation to the criterion. For example, take a group of students who have been admitted to a university setting on the basis of having achieved above a required threshold on a test of English for Academic Purposes.

We would expect those who scored highly on the test to cope better with the communicative demands of their studies than those who scored less well, and that this would in part be reflected by their scores in academic subjects taken in the first semester of studies. We could thus seek empirical evidence in support of this expectation, and if the evidence supported the picture we had, then that evidence would be supportive of the validity of the inferences about test-takers' relative readiness to meet the communicative demands of university study made on the basis of their test scores.

A wide variety of possible research methods are available, both quantitative (e.g., statistical analysis of score data), or qualitative, for example introspective studies using a technique known as "think aloud protocols." In this technique, raters engaged in the rating process are encouraged and trained to speak their thoughts

aloud as they work, and a transcript of what they say is then analyzed to see how raters are interpreting scales, particularly when applied to performances that are difficult to judge in some way (Cumming, 1990; A. Green, 1997; Cumming, Kantor, & Powers, 2001; Lumley, 2000, 2002). Researchers have also used the methods of discourse analysis to understand better what is going on in interaction in oral tests (see, inter alia, Lazaraton, 1992, 1996; Ross, 1992; Young & He, 1998; for a recent survey, see McNamara, Hill, & May, 2002). In general then, the relationship between test construct and test performance is a two-way street: tests are built on constructs, but can offer evidence of the validity of the constructs on which they are built. The investigation of these relationships is an important component of language test validation research.

12.5. Language Testing Research and Language Learning

Given the gate keeping role of language tests, the functions they serve for institutions and the corresponding preparedness of institutions to invest in their development and validation, it is not surprising that the bulk of language testing research has focused on tests for admission and certification, in contexts such as international education, immigration, and employment. Examples include such major international tests as TOEFL in the United States and the British-Australian IELTS, each used to select international students for study at English-medium universities; tests used as part of immigration procedures in countries such as Australia and Canada; or employment related assessment schemes, targeted at particular groups such as teachers or health professionals, or at the general workforce, as in competency-based assessments.

Relatively, less attention has been paid to research on language assessment in the service of the needs of classroom teachers and learners. Where this has occurred, it has usually involved the development or implementation of curriculum-related scales and frameworks for describing student progress in language learning over time. These frameworks have a dual purpose: to assist teachers in the task of

assessment by providing guidance on the important dimensions of the development of learner competence, and to provide a common yardstick for reporting progress across an educational system in order to manage the system.

Such scales and frameworks involve the teacher in the task of gaining evidence of learner achievement for management and accountability purposes, rather than leaving this to independently developed and validated external tests, although in some settings (such as England and the United States) formal testing has been introduced as a means of monitoring the attainment of educational outcomes. The clearest example is the way in which test scores are used as outcome measures, and information on improved outcomes is important to support policy initiatives, for example in the area of bilingual or immersion education, or the introduction of language programs in the early years of schooling (Hill, 2002; Elder, 2002; Hill & McNamara, in press).

12.6. Current and Future Developments in Language Testing Research

Language testing is becoming increasingly sophisticated technically, with an increasing range of statistical tools available to investigate aspects of the validity of tests through analysis of patterns in test scores. The delivery of test materials on the web is now also a reality; the potential advantages of this, for example the possibility of learner self-assessment on demand on-line, are now being explored in large-scale projects involving multiple languages in Europe such as DIALANG: http://www.dialang.org/english/index.html (Alderson, 2000) and in other applications. In all these developments, the need for rigorous thinking about the validity of the resulting inferences about candidates remains paramount, including and perhaps especially the impact of the testing procedures on teachers and learners, and the social and political values they embody.

13. Language Planning as Applied Linguistics

13.1. Introduction

Studying and doing language planning also poses challenges to applied linguistics. A key challenge derives from the policy infused nature of knowledge (data, concepts, and relationships) that informs language policy-making processes. An early aspiration of language planning scholars for a science of the field - "Language planning as a rational and technical process informed by actuarial data and by ongoing feedback is still a dream, but it is by no means so farfetched a dream as it seemed to be merely a decade ago" (Fishman, 1971, p. 111) - has had to be discarded as all the human sciences acknowledge, if not enjoy, the philosophical logic of postmodernity with its insistence on the impossibility of interest-free knowledge.

Research conducted to sustain policy development is organically invested with dilemmas about how knowledge designed for action, for application, in contexts of contending interests and ideologies, is implicated in these processes and cannot in any absolute sense rise above interests and ideology. Even applied linguistics, and indeed, even trained professional language planners and the body of knowledge that might be called language planning theory, are rarely called upon, as Fishman has noted "... very little language planning practice has actually been informed by language planning theory" (1994, p. 97).

13.2. Education and language planning

As a preliminary definition, language planning (LP henceforth) refers to the planning of deliberate alterations in the form or use of a language (or a variety), or languages (or varieties). In other words, LP is the official, government-level activity aiming at establishing which language varieties are used in a particular community,

and at directing which language varieties are to be used for which purposes in that particular community. Others view it as a dynamic process which aims at modifying language functions, language patterns, and language status in a given society. It represents a remarkable effort by individuals, groups, or organizations to influence language use or development.

Haugen (1959) is credited to be the first who coined the term 'language planning', to refer to the development of a new standard national language in Norway following independence from Denmark in 1814. He (1959, p.8) defines LP as follows:

> [By language planning, I understand] the activity of preparing a normative orthography, grammar and dictionary for the guidance of writers and speakers in a non-homogeneous speech community. In this practical application of linguistic knowledge we are proceeding beyond descriptive linguistics into an area where judgment must be exercised in the form of choices among available linguistic forms.

At the beginning, he witnessed the activity of preparing orthography, grammar and dictionary as the actual process of LP, but he later came to see these activities as outcomes of language planning, part of the decision implementation made by language planners (Haugen, 1966a, p.52). In his introduction of a fourfold planning model, Haugen (1996a) portrays the various LP stages as embracing: selection, codification, implementation and elaboration.

Initially, a norm is chosen by changing or creating a variety; the norm is codified by establishing the orthography, pronunciation, grammar and lexicon; the function of the norm is then elaborated, for instance by coining the necessary lexical items, and finally, its acceptance in the community in question is guaranteed. Stages involving selection and implementation are more closely associated with status and acquisition planning, whereas the codification and elaboration stages are more closely associated with corpus planning.
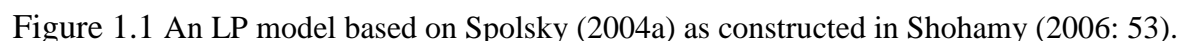
By the late 1980's, LP was subject to criticism and accused of being a regular failure of national planning activities. This, in fact, seems to have encouraged the use of a more neutral term called 'language policy'. The term involves the formulation of laws, regulations and official positions concerning language usage and the allocation of linguistic resources by either some political organization or government. Schiffman (1996, p.276) sums up the essential components of language policies in the entire world, and in the Arab world in particular, in the following terms:

> Language policy is primarily a social construct. It may consist of various elements of an explicit nature – juridical, judicial, administrative, constitutional and/or legal language may be extantin some jurisdictions, but whether or not a polity has such explicit *text*, policy as a culture construct rests primarily on other conceptual elements – belief systems, attitudes, myths – the whole complex that we are referring to as linguistic culture, which is the sum totality of ideas, values, beliefs, attitudes, prejudices, religious stricture, and all the other cultural 'baggage' that speakers bring to their dealings with language from their background.

Policy, as Schiffman rightly states, is a cultural construct. It is the sum of beliefs, attitudes, values and even misconceptions at times that people have accumulated from their society. Spolsky (2004, p.5), in turn, identifies three important components which make up language policy for a speech community. He posits the following:

> A useful first step is to distinguish between the three components of the language policy of a speech community: its language practices - the habitual pattern of selecting among the varieties that make up its linguistic repertoire; its language beliefs and ideology - the beliefs about language and language use; and any kind of language intervention, planning or management.

The figure below represents the three components of language policy, according to Spolsky (2004: a):

LANGUAGE POLICY

Language Practices   Language Beliefs   Language Management

(*ecology*)   (*ideology*)   (*planning*)

Figure 1.1 An LP model based on Spolsky (2004a) as constructed in Shohamy (2006: 53).

It can be argued from this approach that all collectively acting groups possess a language policy. Indeed, every individual may be said to have his/her own language policy. The first two components namely language practices and beliefs/ ideology constitute what Shiffman (1996) calls a speech community's[2] *linguistic culture.* In this sense, we may consider language policy as a combination of both linguistic culture and language planning.

Typically, in fact, Spolsky's (2004) framework clearly identifies the interconnection of the three principal components of language policy, but over the years, other terms like 'explicit' (or overt, official, de jure, planned) or 'implicit' (or covert, informal, de facto, unplanned) have been used by various scholars to describe policies. Moreover, language policy is all about choice. In this line of thought, Spolsky (2004, p. 217) clearly asserts that:

> Language policy is about choice, it may be the choice of a specific sound, or expression, or of a specific variety of language. It may be the choice regularly made by an individual, or a socially defined group of individuals, or a body with authority over a defined group of individuals.

The table below gives a synopsis of the different types of LP and policy:

Table 1.1 Types of language planning and policy (Bencells 2009, p. 62).

Types	Policy planning approach (on form)	Cultivation planning approach (on function)
Status planning (about uses of language)	**Officialization** **Nationalization** **Standardization of status** **Proscription**	**Revival** **Maintenance** **Spread** **Interlingual communication –** **international, intranational**
Acquisition planning (about users of language)	**Group** **Education / School** **Literary** **Religious** **Mass media** **Work** **SELECTION** Language's formal role in society *Extra-linguistic aims*	**Reacquisition** **Maintenance** **Shift Foreign language / second** **language/ literacy** **IMPLEMENTATION** Language's functional role in society *Extra-linguistic aims*
Corpus planning (about language)	**Standardization of corpus** **Standardization of auxiliary code** **Graphization** **CODIFICATION** Language's form *Linguistic aims*	**Modernization** (new functions) **Lexical** **Stylistic** **Renovation** (new forms, old functions) **Purification** **Reform** **Stylistic simplification** **Terminology unification** **ELABORATION** Language's functions *Semi-linguistic aims*

One of the major goals of LP is to reduce linguistic diversity, when the decisions of LP are undertaken, i.e., one sole language is declared to be the national language in a multilingual community. Because of its almost exclusive history in

the Arab world, Algeria creates a fascinating object for study on language planning and language policy. A few years after Algerian independence, Gordon (1966, p. 246) argues that "Algeria's future will remain a fascinating case-study for Orientalists and for those interested in 'development' and 'modernization'". The language issue in Algeria marks "the most severe problem of Algeria in its present and troubled state" (Berger, 2002, p. 8). Tabory & Tabory (1987, p. 64) illustrate Algeria's complexity as to LP in the following terms:

> [t]he Algerian situation is complex, as it is at a crossroad of tensions between French, the colonial language, and Arabic, the new national language; Classical Arabic versus colloquial Algerian Arabic; and the various Berber dialects versus Arabic. The lessons from the Algerian situation may be usefully applied to analogous situations by states planning their linguistic, educational and cultural policies.

As a matter of fact, Algeria displays a complex multilingual society represented in a set of language varieties: two High (H) forms, namely Modern Standard Arabic, used formally, and French, a linguistic inheritance from the colonial period which remains in a privileged position. In contrast, the Low varieties which are used colloquially or informally are linguistically related to, but significantly distinct from, the High variety. A situation in which two distinct varieties of the same language exist side by side in a complementary relationship, each performing distinct functions in a community is known as 'diglossia', which is the principal concern of our work.

The assumption that only the High variety is 'appropriate' for use in the classroom, and that the Low variety is usually stigmatized and viewed as a degenerate form of Arabic, has long been deeply rooted in the policies of Arabic-speaking countries (El-Dash & Tucker, 1976; Ennaji, 1999; Ferguson, 1959; Taha, 1990)[3]. In Algeria, as in the rest of the Arab world, diglossia as an essential sociolinguistic and educational obstacle has not received enough objective attention

on the part of Arab scholars. Benrabah (2005, p.407) views the issue in the following terms: "The major source of the problem is these myths that people and the elite closely associate with religious and nationalist issues. Orientalists and Arabists were among the first to draw attention to the (teaching) problems created bydiglossia."

Paradoxically, there were some linguists who took into account the issue of 'diglossia' and its negative impacts on Arab personality. One of those scholars was Furayhah, a prominent Lebanese linguist who described the two varieties of Arabic as expressing 'two separate selves' (1955, p. 33). But, as anticipated by the American sociolinguist Ferguson (1959), the process of bridging the gap between the 'High' and 'Low' forms has been highly debated in Algeria since 1962, and what favoured the 'destabilization' of diglossia, as mentioned by Ferguson, are the following factors: "linguistic urbanisation as a result of population mobility (rural depopulation), mass instruction in Classical Arabic and the Arabisation of the milieu. These ecological factors give rise to a *Koiné;* that several Algerian linguists call Algerian Arabic." (Benrabah, 2005, p. 407). LP may also provide benefits to societies, as correctly asserted by Jernudd (1971, p. 206):

> Language planning can result in providing several benefits to society. Firstly it provides certain degree of linguistic homogeneity, it can allow for quicker and better communication and consequent increase in the standard of living. Second, language planning in so far as it provides a common means of communication can result in greater equalities of participation.

Language planning may prove to be beneficial if it is implemented seriously; it can provide advantages to all of its people, to have the same economic and political power, but if it is against its spirit, it may engender acute outcomes such as 'power struggle' 'language movements' and 'language riots'.

13.3. Education and status planning

'Status planning', which is usually the agenda of politicians and bureaucrats, involves decisions undertaken by policy makers in order to allocate the functions of

languages and literacies within a given community, i.e., any official trial to determine which languages are to be used in diverse public functions by the government, the legal system, the media and the education system. It also involves status choices, making a particular language or variety a 'national language', 'an official language', etc. The national language is very important in the nation building process because of many reasons, as Wright (2016, p.47) mentions the following,

> First, it has a utilitarian role. It becomes the medium of communication which permits the nation to function efficiently in its political and economic life, particularly as democracy develops […]. Second, a unified language is held to promote cohesion, allowing the nation to develop a shared culture […]. Third, if it can be demonstrated that the language of the group is both different from that of neighbours and with some measure of inner cohesion, this can be used as one of the arguments in any bid to be treated as a separate nation.

An alternative term is 'language allocation' which refers to "authorative decisions to maintain, extend, or restrict the range of uses (functional range) of a language in particular settings" (Gorman, 1973, p.73). Another definition which proves to be more effective is provided by Cooper (1989, p.99) who views status planning as the "deliberate efforts to influence the allocation of functions among a community's languages".

Additionally, Kaplan & Baldauf (1997, p.30) are of the opinion that status planning refers to "those aspects of language planning which reflect primarily social issues and concerns and hence are external to the language(s) being planned". The status issues that constitute a language plan are namely, the selection of languages for particular functions and the implementation of those languages for those particular functions. The status planning of a language requires the following important societal domains:

- government - assembly/parliament
- court – administration
- education – business – media

Indeed, "the larger number of domains in which a language is recognized, the higher its status" (Gadelii, 1999, p.6). Language status decision may be more complicated when such a process creates a situation where some individuals need to learn a language that they do not normally speak. Kloss (1969) establishes four common attributes that link to language status:

1. Origin of the language used officially with respect to the speech community.
2. Developmental status of language.
3. Juridical status with respect to the speech community.
4. Ratio of users of a language to total population.

Considering status planning as an essentially political activity, Hornberger (1994) identifies four major language planning goals: Status standardization, officialisation, nationalization and proscription. The first involves "language planning activities that accept or impose a language as the standard" (1994, p.81), i.e. the selection of a particular language as a societal norm regardless of whether it is granted an official and national status. 'Officialisation' involves a government decision to make a language official in a society. 'Nationalization' can be used in two different senses (Garvin1974, p.71). First, in the 'emotionally more neutral' sense, that a particular language "can serve the entire territory of a nation rather than just some regional or ethnic subdivision" (Garvin1974, p.71); second, in the 'emotionally more powerful' sense that a given language can serve as a national symbol. Therefore, the term nationalization can reflect either a territorial or symbolic connotation. For example, in Algeria, Berber has long been considered a symbolic national language without being officially symbolic. The label 'proscription' means prohibiting the use of a particular language. This case is noticeably absent at the Algerian governmental level.

The situation becomes more complex when countries and nations become decolonized, for a selection among a number of indigenous languages is required. People are thus asked to use the chosen language in education and all formal and

institutional domains. For example, in 1962, when Algeria got its independence, there was an obscure linguistic issue. Such obscurity lies in the existence of a linguistic diversity, MSA and French on the one hand, and Tamazight and Algerian Arabic on the other.

In Arab communities in general and in Algeria in particular, the conflict concerning the status of the Arabic language in the education domain has not been resolved yet because of the existence of the well-known sociolinguistic phenomenon 'diglossia' which is a key-concept in our research work. Maamouri (1998, p.58) provides an illustration of what he called "slowly opening up to the implications of accelerated educational reforms". He targets Morocco, where King Hassan II, in one of his speeches, supported the idea of using dialects in the first years of primary education. Following Maamouri's (1998) viewpoint, the problem lies in the fact that Arabic learned by children at school differs to a large extent from the language used at home or in the street.

Once a language has been assigned as convenient for use in an official situation, its structure requires modification and reform in such a way to fulfil the society requirements in all institutional domains of social life. This process of modification is referred to as 'corpus planning'.

13.4. Education and corpus planning

The term 'corpus planning' was conceived by Kloss (1969) to indicate modifications by deliberate planning to the actual corpus or aspect of a language. Illustrations of this are the creation of a new alphabet, the development of specialized vocabulary, standardization, codification of morphology and spelling, and the imposition of words proliferating particular attitudes to some groups of people. According to Maamouri (1998, p. 12), corpus planning is a process which "seeks to develop a variety of a language or a language, usually to standardize it by providing it with the means and tools for serving as many functions as possible in society".Following this claim, 'corpus planning' is a purely linguistic process whish endeavours to define, or reform the standard language by changing forms in

spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. The reforms of languages like *Turkish* and *Hebrew* are regarded as perfect instances of corpus planning.

Therefore, 'corpus planning' can be viewed as those traits of language planning which are basically linguistic and hence internal to language. According to (Bamgbose, 1989), some of these traits linked to language are: " (1) orthographic innovation, including design, harmonization, change of script and spelling form; (2) pronunciation; (3) changes in language structure; (4) vocabulary expansion; (5) simplification of registers; (6) style and (7) the preparation of language material".

Haugen (1983) splits these processes into two major categories: those linked to the formulation of *norms* and those connected to the extension of the linguistic *functions* of the language. In his four-fold planning model, Haugen (1983) terms the first category, 'Codification' or (standardization procedures), and the latter, 'Elaboration' or (functional development).

A well-known American architect, Louis Henry Sullivan (1856- 1924) whose main concern was skyscraper design is of the opinion that "form ever follows function". Although this dictum is derived from an architectural theory, it might be applied to 'corpus planning' because the role of both the architect and the corpus planner is to design structures in order to serve particular functions which are founded in a particular social, cultural, historical and political contexts. In corpus planning activity, form can follow function in two senses: First, "in the sense that the corpus planner designs or selects structures on the assumption that a given function, overt or covert, can be served by a modification or treatment of the corpus" (Cooper, 1989, p. 123). Secondly, "form follows function in the sense that the desired communicative function precedes the designed or selected structure" (Cooper, 1989, p. 123).

Following Bamgbose (1991:110), a number of features characterizing corpus planning activities can be listed, in particular:
   o design of orthography or reform of the existing spelling system;
   o standardization/harmonization of spelling/word forms;

- determination of word pronunciation;
- choice of script;
- terminology, vocabulary expansion;
- change in grammatical structure (such as the introduction of the decimal system);
- creation of simplified registers for special purposes;
- dialect leveling;
- cultivation and counseling in respect of different styles and genres;
- production of primers, readers, manuals in connection with literacy training/schooling;
- translations of various kinds, of the Bible, for example;
- dictionaries, grammars;
- fiction and other creative arts, including language;
- other forms of production of written and oral texts in the broad sense;
- creation of institutions dealing with language questions only (such as language commissions).

Cooper (1989) maintains that the first effort in corpus planning should be directed towards *graphization*, a term which refers to the process of developing a suitable writing system.Ferguson (1968a, p. 28) puts it quite simply: "graphization [is] reduction to writing" . It also involves development, selection and modification of scripts and orthographic conventions for a language. What seems significant in planning orthography, is to consider characteristics such as ease of learning, writing, reading and so forth. However, for Cooper (1989), even if these characteristics appear to be apparently reasonable, they struggle with each other. He points out: "What is easy to read is not necessarily easy to write and print. What is easy to learn is not necessarily easy to use" (Cooper, 1989, p.126).

A second aspect of corpus planning is *standardization* which is "the process by which a language has been codified in some way. Such a process usually involves the development of such things as grammar, spelling books, and dictionaries, and possibly a literature" (Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 33). One of the major

goals of standardization is to increase and expand the uniformity as well as the codification of the norm. Wardhaugh (2006) points out that "standardization also requires that a measure of agreement be achieved about what is in the language and what is not". He also affirms that standardization is crucial to the teaching process. To this, he adds: "Once a language is standardized it becomes possible to teach it in a deliberate manner" (Wardaugh, 2006, p.34).

The last process in corpus planning implies *modernization* sometimes referred to as *elaboration* which is a form of language planning that takes place when a language needs to expand its resources in order to meet functions. Modernization refers to the process of establishing new lists and glossaries in order to describe new technical concepts. Modernization, as defined by Cooper (1989, p.149) is "the process whereby a language becomes an appropriate medium of communication for modern topics and forms of discourse", i.e., any trial to bring a language up- to- date with new technologies and recent styles. This process usually occurs when countries gain independence from a colonial power or when there is a modification in the language education policy.

It also allows language users to converse and write about technical topics, principally those relating to scientific and academic domains. One of the most important forces in modernization activity is to enrich the lexicon with new terminologies which enables the language to mediate topics in recent domains. Arabic has witnessed a prompt expansion of novel terms used in textbooks in schools. Because of the trade treatment worldwide, many commercial words have been used recently. However, this language cannot be adopted in education without getting through the implementation phase known as 'acquisition planning'.

13.5. Education and acquisition planning

Cooper (1989) states a third additional sub-category of language planning to the 'status'/ 'corpus' dichotomy , 'acquisition planning' also termed 'language in-education planning' (Kaplan & Baldaugh, 1997). This is another kind of language

planning in which a national state or local government system aims to influence aspects of language, like language status, distribution, and literacy through education. Cooper (Kaplan & Baldaugh, 1997, p. 125) defines 'acquisition planning' as the «organized efforts to promote the learning of a language". He goes asserting that "language policy-making involves decisions concerning the teaching and use of language, and their careful formulation by those empowered to do so, for the guidance of others" (Kaplan & Baldaugh, 1997, p. 31).

More recently, with special reference to acquisition planning, Wright (2016, p. 69) defines it as "the term generally employed to describe the policies and strategies introduced to bring citizens to competence in the languages designated as 'national', 'official' or 'medium of education'". Colluzzi (2007, p. 138), an Italian scholar defines this activity as "any effort leading to the acquisition of the language on the part of the people targeted by the language planning". It is thus important to scrutinize this kind of language planning "in which users are targeted to receive opportunity and/or incentive to learn a given language" (Hornberger, 2006, p.32).

The main purposes of acquisition planning are established by Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) in '*Language Planning from Practice to Theory'*

1. To decide what languages should be taught within the curriculum;

2. To determine the amount and quality of teacher training;

3. To involve local communities;

4. To determine what materials will be used and how they will be incorporated into the syllabi;

5. To establish a local and state assessment system to monitor progress;

6. To determine financial costs.

Cooper (1989, p.120) focuses on the point that 'acquisition planning' and 'status planning' are two different processes. He says that "status planning is an effort to regulate the demand for given verbal resources" by contrast to acquisition planning which "is an effort to regulate the distribution of those resources". The principal purpose of status planning, in fact, is to increase the number of 'functions'

of the language, whereas the principal purpose of acquisition planning is to increase the number of 'users' of the language.

All in all, acquisition planning includes all endeavours to "increase the number of speakers of a language at the expense of another language (or languages)" (Nahir, 1984, p.365). These endeavours may be in the form of government formulas and laws to determine the use of a language in particular domains. Spolsky (2004) listed the possible domains where acquisition planning can be applied namely: the media, the workplace, organizations, religious domains and education where probably the most significant measures are undertaken. Cooper (1989) emphasizes the need of this language planning activity as language planning energy is directed towards spread mainly through education which is primordial to LP so that acquisition planning is termed after it. Indeed, one of the most important domains of LP is the school (Spolsky, 2004) and, as correctly asserted by Hoffman (1991, p.214), "the education system is by far the most important tool for implementing a government's language planning policy".

This can be interpreted by the fact that a new language, for example, is taught to children in school rather than their native language which reinforces status planning. After that, corpus planning will be enhanced by teaching them the prescribed form of this language. Next, acquisition planning is fundamentally realized through education programmes for children and adults, despite the fact that it encounters some problems.

Therefore, education is the major sector by which societies and nations can flourish. In Algeria, for example, considerable efforts have been made from the part of language planners in order to enhance and ameliorate the educational sector. Yet, despite this growing interest, many problems still impede the development of this 'sensitive' sector. The main role of LP is to assign a language to formal contexts and assign the vernaculars for less formal domains.

13.6. Problems

A distinctive dimension of LP theorization has been its struggle with "problems." Much LP theory adheres to a view that LP scholarship starts with a response to predetermined language problems. Some scholars have attempted comprehensive characterizations of language problems, most impressively Dua (1985, 1986), who claims that the "systematic account of language problems of a speech community is a prerequisite to an adequate theory of policy formulation, language planning and language treatment" (p. 3). Dua's scheme specifies various categories of people who define problems, insiders/outsiders, politicians/bureaucrats, researchers/professionals, and "the people", and specifies four social needs that defined language problems reflect:

Normative needs: definitions in which professionals or experts dominate; Felt needs: definitions in which affected groups or individuals prevail in the process of defining; Expressed needs: those felt needs that are converted into action; and, comparative needs: establishing a contrast among needs such as temporal, situational or locational.

Dua's matrix further complicates according to how needs are handled, involving a series of oppositions, broadly/narrowly, deeply superficially, precisely/vaguely, and rationally/irrationally. This desire to comprehensively characterize is also exemplified in Nahir (1984) who identifies eleven intended treatments for language problems: purification, revival, reform, standardization, spread, lexical modernization, terminology unification, stylistic simplification, interlingual communication, language maintenance, and auxiliary-code standardization.

Attempting to characterize the totality of language problems in taxonomies underscores the vast complexity of LP. However, and quite problematically, which language problems are allocated policy treatment is embedded in conflict about interests, probably only identifiable from critical perspectives. LP sometimes appears to take claims by public authorities about policy intentions at face value,

failing to recognize what the scholars would, as citizens, ordinarily recognize, that political language is inflated, and that LP is framed by political discourse. How many times does it occur that in electoral debating concessions are made to certain publically demanded principles only to be denied in practice, witness the legendary status of the political promise? LP is also politics.

Most LP scholarship has not been naive about the problematic nature of problems; there has been insufficient attention to the ideological character of processes for the determination of which language problems are allocated policy attention. LP has wanted to describe processes of status, corpus, prestige, and usage planning without adequate regard to the prior structuring processes of ideology, discursive politics, the contest about what representations of language, what language problems, will be constituted for state agency or authoritative intervention. In public policy literature, however, there has long been an acute sense of the politicized character of policy problems with Edelman (1988) arguing they are ideological constructions that "come into discourse and into existence as reinforcements of ideologies" (p. 12).

An exemplary instance of this is the politics that surround the official English movement in the United States. The moves legislate English as "official" is, at face value, a classic instance of status planning, but what is the problem that these expensive and extensive (and materially redundant?) efforts respond to? Is it "Hispanophobia" (Crawford, 1995), "war against diversity" (Crawford, 2000), a moralistic 'Reagan renaissance' (Tarver, 1989), "civilization" for the "American underclass" (Gingrich, 1995), rolling back expensive Ieftish "official multilingualism", or the "need" to "protect English" (Lo Bianco, 2001b)?

Most dramatically, is American democracy, founded on English libertarian principles, at risk and needing its House of Representatives and Senate to make a stark and historic choice between "Democracy or Babel!" (de la Pena, 1991)?

The language problem that precedes and shapes language policy and planning is no straightforward thing, immersed as it is in discursive politics.

13.7. Discourse Planning

What is proposed here is the addition of a category of language planning analysis, discourse planning, which understands discourse as both shaped and performing. The spirit of the informing linguistics identified above, and the limitations of descriptive analysis, partially motivate this proposal. The examination of persuasion and politics in language is not new, what is called for is the inclusion within LP of the discursive realm as the key domain for the performance of language planning praxis.

When persuasion and politics become focused on language itself, LP becomes reflexive, and cyclical, the language of persuasion becomes deployed in the interests of enacting policy on language as object. Language here is both the means and object of itself. By scrutinizing the language of policy-making, using insights and methods of ethno-methodology to undertake micro-examinations of how language issues are constituted as problems for treatment by policy, we can integrate, if not reconcile, approaches to the study of language policy which are both systematic and empirical with approaches that acknowledge the ideological character of discourse. The examination of policy discourses, especially how policy discourses constitute problems for policy treatment, is a neglected field that will extend the scholarly range and rigor of LP.

Language or code focused linguistics makes a choice to reify language and subject it to analysis within the formal conceptual apparatus of autonomous linguistic science. Applied linguistics, on the other hand, tackles contexts in which language issues, or problems, are paramount and subjects these problems to analyses, both empirical and speculative in design, to reach coherent accounts and understandings. Applied linguistics therefore reifies particular social moments,

those in which language issues are prominent, and which require active kinds of analysis, aiming beyond understanding, or even explanation, towards scholarly legitimizations of particular courses of public action. Language policy and planning is an exemplary kind of scholarship for action.

Language planning is normative action for intervention (change or anti-change), whose analysis requires a reinvigorated intellectual framework combining professional identity formation which and informational practices, among interacting subjects. Critical and political linguistics offer useful conceptual information, as do the alternative linguistic sciences that identify coherent connections with identity as multiple, shifting (but also stable and persisting) and with the material and cultural context.

These links (to culture, identity, and material realms) are enacted in verbalization and writing. Other fields of dialogue for the reinvigoration of LP include the (political) subjectivity of language planners, systematic data collection and careful analysis methods that can operate within realistic incorporation of persisting ideologies, and interest in policy-making. Language policy and planning are ancient, extensive, and predictably expanding. Their understanding and explanation will be enhanced if in addition to more rigorous understandings of status attribution politics, corpus modification processes, esteem and prestige alteration, and impacts on usage, we include analysis of their discursive mediation and construction.

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Self-assessment:

1- What makes the difference between language planning and discourse planning?

2- In what ways is language planning so important for a nation, illustrate.