

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

**MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION
AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH**

University of Ghardaïa

FACULTY OF LETTERS AND LANGUAGES

Department of English Language



**Lectures in Applied Linguistics
for Second Year Master Students**

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Teaching Objectives

This course aims to shed light on the following points:

- understanding applied linguistics as an interdisciplinary field of research
- understanding the role of the language teacher as an applied linguist
- developing knowledge of the concepts and explanatory perspectives in applied linguistics
- focusing on both theory and practice
- acquiring in-depth knowledge of the various contemporary themes in applied linguistics such as language acquisition, language planning, language gender, intercultural communication, assessment, ...

Prior knowledge recommended:

Prerequisites: an introductory course in general linguistics.

Course Description

This course is taught in semester 3. It includes sixteen lectures, and each lecture in this course has a specific objective and accompanied by some questions or tasks. Some lectures also include assignments. Teachers can allow students to present the topics by assigning them exposés on different parts of lectures.

Course Evaluation

Students have two modes of evaluation: the tutorial and the examination which means 50% - 50%. The tutorial consists of a written test, the students' involvement and participation in the discussions besides the homework and different assignments. The latter can take forms of written summaries, graphic organisers or looking for additional information about the content, etc.

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1. Introduction to Applied Linguistics

“Language is at the heart of human life”

(Guy Cook, 2003, p. 3)

Language is used for a number of purposes such as learning, forming relationships, telling stories, obtaining information, teaching children, making deals and so on. These activities are natural to humans. Thus, language use is a natural phenomenon beyond conscious control. Yet there are decisions to be made about aspects of language. In making decisions, there are many questions to be asked:

1. What language skills should children attain beyond basic literacy?
2. Should children speaking a dialect be encouraged to maintain it or steered towards the standard form of a language?
3. In communities with more than one language which ones should be used in schools?
4. Should deaf children learn a sign language, or a combination of lip reading and speaking?
5. Should everyone learn foreign languages and, if so, which one or ones?

All these questions and more are the concern of “applied linguistics”.

2. Reminder

Linguistics is the study of language - how it is put together and how it functions. Various building blocks of different types and sizes are combined to

make up a language. Sounds are brought together and sometimes when this happens, they change their form and do interesting things. Words are arranged in a certain order, and sometimes the beginnings and endings of the words are changed to adjust the meaning. Then the meaning itself can be affected by the arrangement of words and by the knowledge of the speaker about what the hearer will understand. Linguistics is the study of all of this.

➤ **Microlinguistics versus Macrolinguistics**

According to Lyons (1980), microlinguistics refers to the narrow scope of linguistics; it is the study of language structures with no other considerations.

Areas of investigation:

1. Morphology looks at how individual words are formed from smaller chunks of meaningful units called morphemes.

2. **Syntax:** the study of how phrases, clauses and sentences are constructed and combined in particular languages.
3. **Semantics:** the study of meaning. It focuses on the relation between words, phrases and other bits of language and on how these words and phrases connect to the world.
4. **Phonetics:** the scientific study of speech sounds.
5. **Phonology:** the study of stress, rhythm and intonation.

Macrolinguistics is concerned with the study of language in relation to other fields such as psycholinguistics that refers to the study of language and ‘psychology’.

Areas of investigation

1. **Psycholinguistics:** the study of language and psychology
2. **Sociolinguistics:** the study of society and language
3. **Anthropological linguistics:** the study of language in cross-cultural settings
4. **Historical linguistics:** the study of language change.
5. **Philosophical linguistics:** the link between language and logical thought
6. **Computational linguistics:** the use of computers to stimulate language
7. **Discourse analysis:** the intended meaning transmitted with context
8. **Pragmatics:** the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (writer) and interpreted by a listener (reader).

➤ **Theoretical Linguistics versus Applied Linguistics**

The aim of theoretical linguistics is to study languages and construct theories about their structures and function without any practical applications whereas applied linguistics involves the study language and linguistics in relation to practical problems.

Questions:

1. What is linguistics?
2. What are the two major divisions of linguistics?
3. What is the difference between the two divisions?
4. Can you define macrolinguistics in brief?
5. What is applied linguistics?
6. What is the difference between applied linguistics and theoretical linguistics?

2. What is Applied Linguistics?

Objective:

By the end of this lecture, students will have learnt and discussed the definitions and the narrow and broad senses of applied linguistics. They will also do some related tasks.

Introduction

Applied linguistics first emerged as an attempt to provide a theoretical basis for the activities of language teaching. The focus was on second/foreign languages. Later, it extended its scope to cover first language issues, then to other fields that focus on language issues such as translation, law, speech pathology, and so on. Many researchers in the recent decades have offered definitions of applied linguistics. Below are some of them.

1. Definitions

According to Carter (1993, p. 3-4), 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. One of the main contexts for its application is the exploration of problems in language learning and teaching and, for many, the term applied linguistics is used in relation to other fields, such as: literary studies (stylistics); translation studies; lexicography; language planning; as well as specific branches of linguistics such as clinical linguistics and critical linguistics.”

Corder (1973) claimed that applied linguistics “has been called a problem-based activity. The problems are solved or the questions are answered according

to the principles or knowledge derived from the scientific study of the structure of language, how it is learned and its role in society” (p. 3-4) whatever the problems are: difficult or easy. The problems should not be solved specifically with reference to linguistic principles or knowledge. In the planning and execution of a total teaching operation, the applied linguist is involved and there is a phase in which the application of linguistics is relevant; that is, some questions have linguistic answers.”

Grabe (2002) argued that “The focus of applied linguistics is on trying to resolve language-based problems that people encounter in the real world, whether they be learners, teachers, supervisors, academics, lawyers, service providers, those who need social services, test takers, policy developers, dictionary makers, translators, or a whole range of business clients” (p. 9).

Schmitt and Celce-Murcia (2002, p. 1) define applied linguistics as “using what we know (a) about language, (b) how it is learned, and (c) how it is used, in order to achieve some purpose or solve problem in the real world.”

From above, we conclude that applied linguistics focuses on trying to solve language related problems by resorting to linguistics and/or other disciplines such as sociology, psychology, anthropology and information theory, etc.

2. The applied linguist

According to Ellis (1997, p. 31), an applied linguist is “a person who seeks to apply ideas derived from linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, education, and any other area of potentially relevant enquiry to language pedagogy.” Ideally, applied linguists should work alongside other professionals

in the exploration of language problems or difficulties so that the application of linguistics becomes the results of a genuine synthesis rather than one in which answers are found only according to an agenda provided by the linguist". (Carter, 1993, p. 4).

3. Narrow Sense Versus Broad Sense

In a narrow sense, applied linguistics studies and applies theoretical linguistics in foreign language teaching and learning. In a broad sense, applied linguistics is concerned with solving language related problems in real world contexts. Also, it “is concerned with increasing understanding of the role of language in human affairs and thereby with providing the knowledge necessary for those who are responsible for taking language-related decisions whether the need for these arises in the classroom, the work place, the law court, or the laboratory” (Schmitt & Celce- Murcia, 2010, p. 1).

A range of purposes (mentioned above) is listed by the call for papers for the American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL) 2010 conference:

- Analysis of discourse and interaction
- Assessment and evaluation
- Bilingual, immersion, heritage and language minority education
- Language and ideology
- Language and learner characteristics
- Language and technology
- Language cognition and brain research
- Language, culture, socialization and pragmatics
- Language maintenance and revitalization
- Language planning and policy
- Reading, writing and literacy
- Second and foreign language pedagogy
- Second language acquisition, language acquisition attrition
- Sociolinguistics
- Text analysis (written discourse)

- Translation and interpretation

The call for papers to the 2011 AILA conference lists 28 areas in applied linguistics, and the dominant application was the teaching and learning of second or foreign languages (L2). According to a survey published in 1987, English is the main second language being studied in the world today.

Applied Linguistics Organisations

Applied linguistics as a discipline has its own organisations in North America, Europe, Oceania, Asia and in other places.

International Association of Applied Linguistics (<http://www.aila.info/>)

North America

- American Association for Applied Linguistics (<http://www.aaal.org/>)
- Center for Applied Linguistics (<http://www.cal.org/>)
- Canadian Association of Applied Linguistics (<http://www.aclacaal.org/>)
- Asociacion Mexicana de Linguistica Aplicada (<http://www.celce.unam.mx/amlaweb/>)

Europe

- Association Belge de Linguistique Appliquee (<http://www.abla.be/>)
- Asociacion Espanola de Linguistica Aplicada (<http://www.aesla.uji.es/>)
- Association Finlandaise de Linguistique Appliquee (<http://www.cc.jyu.fi/~kmantyla/afinla/!index.html>)
- Association Francaise de Linguistique Appliquee (<http://www.afla-asso.org/>)
- Associazione Italiana di Linguistica Applicata (<http://www.aitla.unimo.it/>)
- Association Neerlandaise de Linguistique Appliquee (<http://www.aila.info/about/org/ic.htm#SG>)
- Association Norvegienne de Linguistique Appliquee (<http://www.hf.ntnu.no/anla/>)
- Association Suedoise de Linguistique Appliquee

- (<http://www.nordiska.su.se/asla/>)
- Association Suisse de Linguistique Appliquee (<http://www.vals-asla.ch/cms/>)
- British Association for Applied Linguistics (<http://www.baal.org.uk/>)
- Gesellschaft fur Angewandte Linguistik (<http://www.gal-ev.de/>)
- Greek Applied Linguistics Association (<http://www.enl.auth.gr/gala/>)
- Irish Association for Applied Linguistics (<http://www.tau.ac.il/~ilash/>)
- Polish Association of Applied Linguistics (http://www.ocot.pl/st_ptls.php?id=8)

Oceania

- Applied Linguistics Association of New Zealand (<http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/about/alanz/alanz.html>)
- Applied Linguistics of Association of Australia (<http://www.latrobe.edu.au/alaa/>)

Asia

- Asian Association of TEFL (Asia TEFL) (<http://www.asiatefl.org/>)
- Applied Linguistics Association of Korea (<http://www.alak.or.kr/index.asp>)
- China English Language Education Association (<http://www.celea.org.cn/>)
- Hong Kong Association for Applied Linguistics (<http://www.haal.hk/>)
- Japan Association of College English Teachers (<http://www.jacet.org/index.html>)
- Linguistic Society of the Philippines (<http://www.dlsu.edu.ph/inside/organizations/lsp/default.asp>)
- Singapore Association for Applied Linguistics (<http://www.saal.org.sg/>)

Others

- Estonian Association of Applied Linguistics (http://www.eki.ee/rakenduslingvistika/index_eng.php)
- Southern African Applied Linguistics Association (<http://www.saala.org.za/>)

Conclusion

Put it simply, applied linguistics attempts to find solutions for language problems in different contexts including language teaching ones. It refers to

linguistics and other fields to solve those problems.

Assignment:

- In a paragraph, define applied linguistics.
- What makes applied linguistics a discipline?
- Are there applied linguistics organisations in Algeria?

3. The Views about Applied Linguistics

Objective:

By the end of this lecture, students will have had an idea about the three views on applied linguistics and done a task.

Introduction

According to Davies (2007) and others, there are three views on “applied linguistics” : the linguistics applied, the applied linguistics and the autonomous views.

1. Linguistics Applied

According to the literature, a number of researchers such as Widdowson and others distinguished between applied linguistics and linguistics applied. As the name suggests, linguistics applied is equated to linguistics that is applied; that is to say, the application of linguistic theories. In this view, linguists are the only contributors to applied linguistics work. In other words, the intervention of linguistics is paramount.

2. The Applied Linguistics View

In this view, the applied linguist uses theoretical knowledge not only from linguistics but from other sources as well such as sociology, psychology, anthropology, This means that the knowledge provided by a linguist is not sufficient for solving language related problems.

3. The Autonomous View

This view is also called the independent view. It considers applied linguistics as a self-contained discipline. In fact, it claims that applied linguistics is semi-

autonomous but autonomous from linguistics or any other sources though linguistics is part of applied linguistics. That is, it develops its own models and theories which are based on needs.

Conclusion

What has been mentioned above demonstrates the development that applied linguistics has witnessed. As a matter of fact, applied linguistics has claimed autonomy as it has distinguished itself from linguistics and other disciplines.

Task

- In a diagram, summarise the three views of applied linguistics.
- Applied linguistics is always in need of linguistics. Comment.

4. The Scope of Applied Linguistics

Objective:

By the end of this lecture, students will have learnt and understood the scopes of applied linguistics. They will also be able to do some related tasks.

S Pit Corder is the founder of British applied linguistics in the 1950s, and since then, applied linguistics has been described as ‘The theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue’ (Brumfit, 1995, p. 27)

Applied Linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of research and practice dealing with practical problems of language and communication that can be identified, analysed or solved by applying available theories, methods or results of Linguistics or by developing new theoretical and methodological frameworks in linguistics to work on these problems (AILA, 2009).

Brumfit (1991, p. 46) mentioned that “Applied linguists try to offer solutions to ‘real-world problems in which language is a central issue’” (Cited in McCarthy (2000, p. 1)) however tentative or implied.

A list of such problems may include the following:

1. A speech therapist sets out to investigate why a four-year-old child has failed to develop normal linguistic skills for a child of that age.
2. A teacher of English as a foreign language wonders why groups of learners

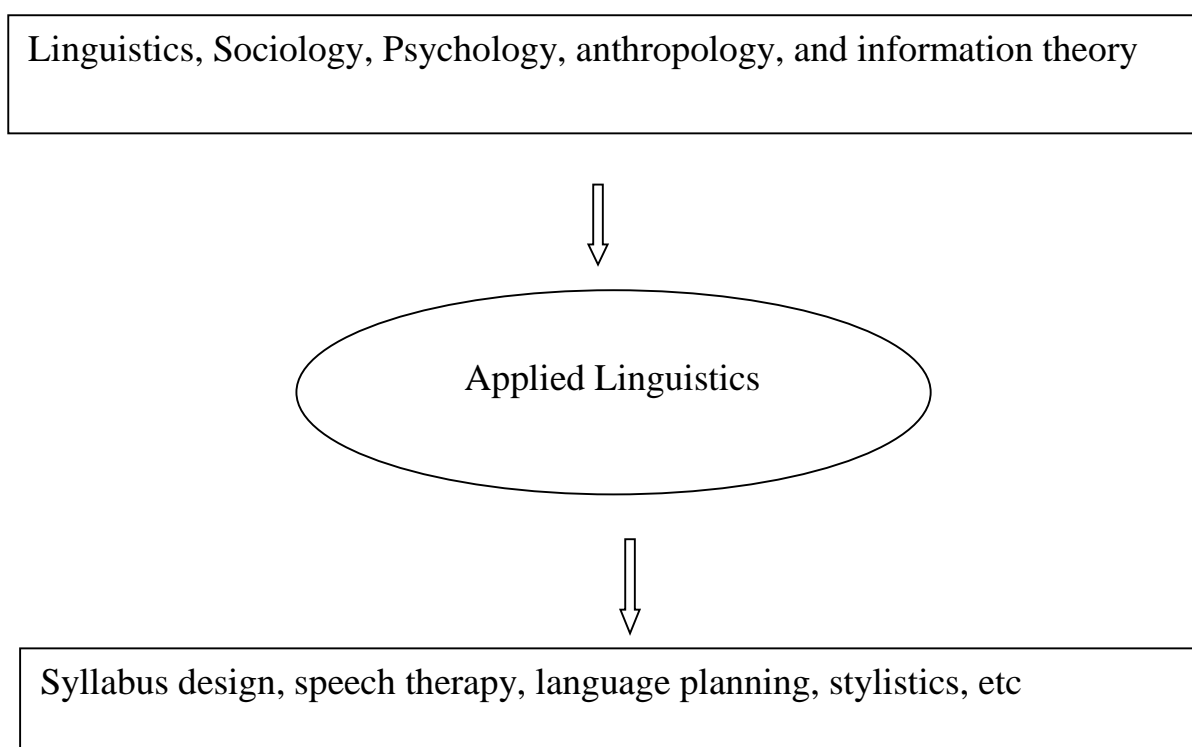
sharing the same first language regularly make a particular grammatical mistake that learners from other language backgrounds do not.

3. An expert witness in criminal case tries to solve the problem of who exactly investigated a crime, working only with statements made to the police.
4. An advertising copy writer 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 mother tongue teacher needs to know what potential employers consider important in terms of a school-leaver's ability to write reports or other business documents.
6. A historian wishes to understand the meanings of place-names in a particular geographical area and how they have changed over time.
7. A person constructing a language test for non-native speakers for entry into further education needs to know what the key linguistic or psycholinguistic indicators are of reading ability in a second or foreign language.
8. A literary scholar suspects that an anonymous work was in fact written by a very famous writer and looks for methods of investigating the hypothesis
9. A dictionary writer ponders over possible alternatives to an alphabetically organised dictionary.
10. A computer programmer wrestles with the goal of trying to get a computer to process human speech or to get it to translate from one language into another.
11. A group of civil servants are tasked with standardising language usage in their country, or deciding major aspects of language planning policy that will affect millions of people.
12. A body is set up to produce an international, agreed language for use by air-traffic controllers and pilots, or by marine pilots and ships' captains.
13. A zoologist investigates the question whether monkeys have language

similar to or quite distinct from human language and how it works.

14. A medical sociologist sets out to understand better the changes that occur in people's use of language as they move into old age.

The areas which may benefit from applied linguistic work are increasingly getting wider and wider. Examples of such problem fields include, but are not limited, to the following: language learning/ acquisition, language teaching, syllabus design, literacy, language contact, language policy and planning, language assessment, language use, language and technology, translation and interpretation, language pathology (speech therapy), lexicography (dictionary making), stylistics, sociolinguistics, critical discourse analysis, bilingualism, deaf education, forensic linguistics. The figure below shows the broad sense of applied linguistics.



Turning to the discipline of linguistics to seek insight and potential solutions is the role of applied linguists. People working in different professional areas have looked for solutions to significant problems by investigating how language is involved in their branch of human activity.

➤ **Linguistics and applied linguistics**

If the relationship between linguistics and its applications is to be a fruitful, 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 as well as practices. Accountability will revolve around a set of responsibilities of linguists and applied linguistics such as:

1. The responsibility of linguists to build theories of language that are testable, which connect with perceived realities and which are not contracted or immediately refuted when they confront those realities.
2. The responsibility of linguists to offer models, descriptions and explanations of language that satisfy not only intellectual rigour but intuition, rationality and common sense.
3. The responsibility of applied linguists not to misrepresent theories, descriptions and models.
4. The responsibility of applied linguists not to apply theories, descriptions and models to ill- suited purposes for which they were never intended.
5. The responsibility of applied linguists not simply to ‘apply linguistics’ but to work towards what Widdowson (1980) calls ‘relevant models’ of language description.
6. The responsibility of applied linguists to provide an interface between linguists and practitioners where appropriate, and to be able to talk on equal terms to both parties.
7. 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.

Conclusion

In a nutshell, applied linguistics is concerned with solving language related problems in real life situations and in various contexts. To this end, linguists and applied linguists should work hand in hand towards this end.

Assignment:

- Summarise the different problems that applied linguistics can solve.
- Think of other language problems.

5. History of Applied Linguistics

Objective:

By the end of this lecture, students will have seen and studied the history of applied linguistics and its development. Moreover, they will do some related tasks.

Introduction

According to William Grabe (2010), a realistic history of applied linguistics in America goes back to 1948 with the publication of the first issue of the journal *Language Learning: A Journal of Applied Linguistics*. The term “applied linguistics” has been defined from different perspectives. The following will summarise the evolution of applied linguistics.

A. History and Development of Applied Linguistics

1. **During the 1920s and 1930s**, “there was very little foreign language learning going on” (ibid). Foreign language study was limited to very few languages: Latin, Spanish and French. The third characteristic of foreign language study was the type of instruction; that is, teachers used the grammar and translation method. The focus was on grammar. Students learnt and memorized the paradigms and the rules. What they did was to apply the grammar by translating English sentences into the foreign language. Then they were taught to read the foreign language through word-for-word translation from the foreign language into English.

2. 1950s

In the 1950s, the term was used to reflect the direct application of the insights of structural and functional linguists to second language teaching and in some cases to first language (L1) literacy and language arts issues.

3. 1940-1960

Bloomfield, a great American linguist, discussed in a final chapter, “Applications and Outlook”, of his book “Language” (1933), how the linguistics findings could be applied to the teaching of foreign languages; however, until 1941 that a considerable number of linguists applied their findings could be applied to the practical problems of language teaching (William G. Moulton, 1986, p. 1970).

4. 1960s

In the 1960s, the term “applied linguistics” “continued to be associated with application of linguistics to language teaching and related practical issue (Corder, 1973; Halliday, McIntosh, and Stevens, 1964; Rivers, 1968a; 1968b). At the same time, applied linguists became involved in matters of language assessment, language policies, and the new field of second language acquisition (SLA), focusing on learning, rather than on teaching (Ortega, 2009). At that time, applied linguistics began to emerge as a genuine language-centred problem-solving enterprise.

5. 1970s

In the 1970s, the field of applied linguistics continued to broaden accompanied by more overt specification of its role as a discipline that addresses real world language-based problems. Applied linguistics is driven first by real-world language problems rather than by theoretical explorations of internalized language knowledge and (L1) language development is largely what set the field apart from both formal linguistics and later from sociolinguistics, with its own emphasis on

language description of social variation in language use (typically minus the application to language problems). This separation has had four major consequences:

- a. The recognition of social situated contexts for inquiry and exploration which led to an increase in the importance of needs analysis and variable solutions in differing local contexts
- b. The need to see language as functional and discourse based, thus the reemergence of systemic and descriptive linguistics as resources for problem solving, particularly in North American contexts
- c. The recognition that no single discipline can provide all the tools and resources to address language-based real-world problems
- d. The need to recognize and apply a wide range of research tools and methodologies to address locally situated language problems

6. 1980s

In the 1980s, definitions of applied linguistics emphasized both the range of issues addressed and the types of disciplinary resources used in order to work on language problems (Grabe & Kaplan, 1991; Kaplan, 1980). Applied linguistics extended in a systemic way beyond language teaching and language learning issues to include language assessment, language policy and planning, language use issues in professional settings, translation, lexicography, bilingualism and multilingualism, language and technology, and corpus linguistics (It holds more interest for applied linguists than for formal linguists.).

7. By the beginning of the 1990s, a new trend viewed applied linguistics as incorporating many subfields and drawing on many supporting disciplines in addition to linguistics such as anthropology, English studies (including composition, rhetoric, and literary studies), modern languages, policy studies, political sciences, psychology, public administration and sociology. Because of

this combination (subfields and supporting disciplines), applied linguistics was viewed as problem driven and real-world based rather than theory driven and disconnected from real language use data (Davies, 1999; Kaplan and Widdowson, 1992; Stevens, 1992). Applied linguistics has largely evolved during the 1990s and 2000s, breaking away from the common framing mechanisms of the 1980s.

8. From the 1960s to the early 1990s, generative linguistics dominated the linguistics landscape. Despite the availability of formal theories (tagmemics, systemic-functional linguistics, descriptive grammar and others) and the claim of sociolinguistics for language variation, spoken discourse analysis and social uses of language (as descriptive areas of inquiry), Chomskian linguistics dominated and defined linguistics, at least in North America. However, because of its growing abstractness, the assumption of a language acquisition device (LAD), and the assumption that a theory should be universally applicable to all languages has taken generative linguistics out of being a foundation for language knowledge that is relevant and applicable to real-world language uses and real-world language problems. Due to this fact, applied linguists have turned back to more cognitive and descriptive approaches to language knowledge, language explanations that are explicitly driven by attested language uses rather than intuitions (corpus linguistics, descriptive grammars, sociolinguistics) and theories of language representation.

Linguistics is still central to the majority of applied linguistic areas of inquiry that are recognized as falling under the umbrella discipline of applied linguistics. Applied linguists and training programmes for applied linguistics universally recognize that language knowledge of various types is crucial for careful description and analysis of language, language learning, language abuses, language assessment, and so forth. Applied linguists must draw on knowledge bases of phonetics, phonology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics and written discourse, for they are relevant to an applied linguistics issue, although a given area of applied linguistics may not draw specifically on this knowledge at all times (e.g., L2 teacher training, language policy and planning). Linguistic foundations must be relevant to language description in specific contexts and provide resources that help address language-based problems and issues in real-world contexts.

The shift to discourse analysis, descriptive data analysis and interpretation of language data in their social and cultural settings all indicate a focus on valuing observable language data over theoretical assumptions about what should count as data. One of the most useful perspectives of a more relevant linguistics has been the development of register analysis, genre analysis and the resource of corpus linguistics as they apply to a wide range of language learning and language use situations. All of these approaches to linguistic analysis, along with more refined techniques for discourse analysis, are now the building blocks of much applied linguistics research. As a matter of fact, many applied linguists have come to see the real world, problem-based, socially responsive research in applied linguistics as the genuine role for linguistics with the supporting role of formal linguistics.

Van Lier (1997) claims that “the applied linguist who works with language in the real world, who is most likely to have a realistic picture of what language is, and not the theoretical linguist who sifts through several layers of

idealization. Furthermore, it may well be the applied linguist who will most advance humankind understanding of language, provided that he or she is aware that no one has a monopoly on the definitions and conduct of science, theory, language research, and truth” (p. 103).

B. Trends and Perspectives in the 1990s and the 2000s

According to Grabe (2010), various developments have emerged over the last twenty years and they will probably continue to define applied linguistics in the coming decade.

- *First*, under the umbrella of applied linguistics, research in language teaching, language learning, and teacher education is now placing considerable emphasis on notions of language awareness, attention and learning, “focus on forms” for language learning, learning from dialogic interactions, patterns of teacher-student interaction, task-based learning, content-based learning, and teacher as researcher through action research. Research in language learning has shifted in recent years toward a focus on information processing, the importance of more general cognitive learning principles, the emergence of language ability from extended meaningful exposures and relevant practice, and the awareness of how language is used and the functions that it serves (Doughty and Long, 2003; N. Ellis, 2007; Robinson and Ellis, 2008; Tomasello, 2003; VanPatten and Williams, 2007). Instructional research and curricular issues have centered on task-based learning, content-based learning, strategies-based instruction, and a return to learning centered on specific language skills (Cohen and Macaro, 2007; elsewhere in this volume; Long and Doughty, 2009; McGroarty et al., 2004; Samuda and Bygate, 2008).

Language teacher development has also moved in new directions.

Grabe (2010) stated that Widdowson (1998) has argued forcefully that *certain communicative orientations, with a pervasive emphasis on natural language input and authenticity, may be misinterpreting the real purpose of the language classroom context and ignoring effective frameworks for language teaching*. He has also persuasively argued that *applied linguists must support teachers throughout their mediation with all aspects of Hymes's notion of communicative competence, balancing language understanding so that it combines grammaticality, appropriateness, feasibility, and examples from the attested* (Widdowson, 2000) (in Grabe, *ibid*) . A further emphasis for language teacher education has been *the move to engaging teachers in the practice of action research*. The trend to train teachers as reflective practitioners inquiring into the effectiveness of teaching and learning in local classroom settings will increase in the coming decade.

- A *second emphasis* that has taken hold in discussions among applied linguists themselves is *the role for critical studies*; this term covers critical awareness, critical discourse analysis, critical pedagogy, student rights, critical assessment practices, and ethics in language assessment (and language teaching; Davies, 1999; Fairclough, 1995a; McNamara, 1998; McNamara and Roever, 2006; Pennycook, 2001; van Lier, 1997). At the same time, there are a number of criticisms of this general approach and its impact on more mainstream applied linguistics that highlights weaknesses in much of the critical studies theorizing (Seidlhofer, 2003; Widdowson, 2004). At present, the notion of critical studies also constitutes an emphasis that has not demonstrated strong applications in support of those who are experiencing “language problems” of various types. The coming decade will undoubtedly continue this debate.
- A *third emphasis* is on *language uses in academic, disciplinary, and professional settings* (Biber, 2006b; elsewhere in this volume; Connor and

Upton, 2004a; Swales, 2004). This research examines ways in which language is used by participants and in texts in various academic, professional, and occupational settings. It also emphasizes how language can act as a gatekeeping mechanism or can create unfair obstacles for those who are not aware of appropriate discourse rules and expectations. *In academic settings, the key issue lies in understanding how genre and register expectations form the basis for successfully negotiating academic work* (Hyland, 2004a, 2008; A. M. Johns, 2002; Swales, 2004). Analyses of language use in various professional settings are described in (Gibbons 2004), (Grabe 2004), (Master (2005), and (McGroarty et al. 2003). More specific to English for specific purposes (ESP), (Swales 2000) and (Widdowson (2004) provide relevant overviews.

- *A fourth emphasis* centers on descriptive (usually discourse) analyses of language in real settings and the possible application of analyses in **corpus linguistics**, register variation, and genre variation. A breakthrough application of corpus linguistics remains the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (Biber et al., 1999). It is based entirely on attested occurrences of language use in a very large corpus of English. The key, though, lies not in the corpus data themselves but in the innovative analyses and displays that define the uniqueness of the grammar (see also Carter and McCarthy, 2006). Other important applications of corpus linguistics include more teacher- and learner-directed resources (see McCarthy, 2008).
- *A fifth emphasis* in applied linguistics research addresses multilingualism and bilingual interaction in school, community, and work and in professional settings or policy issues at regional and national levels. Because the majority of people in the world are to some extent bilingual, and because this **bilingualism** is associated with the need to negotiate life situations with other cultural and language groups, this area of research is fundamental to applied linguistics concerns. **Multilingualism** covers issues

in bilingual education, migrations of groups of people to new language settings, equity and fairness in social services, and language policies related to multiple language use (or the restriction thereof). Key issues are addressed in Baker 2006), Brisk (2005), McGroarty et al. (2003, 2006), and van Els 2005).

- *A sixth emphasis focuses on the changing discussion in language testing and assessment.* During the past decade, the field of language assessment has taken on a number of important issues and topics that have ramifications for applied linguists more generally. **Validity** remains a major theme for language testers, and it has been powerfully reinterpreted over the last 10 years (Chapelle, Enright, and Jamieson, 2008; Kane, 2006). In its newer interpretation, validity has strong implications for all areas of applied linguistic research and data collection and is not merely an issue for assessment practices (Chapelle, 1999). An additional major shift in **language assessment** with significant implications for applied linguistics more generally is the greater emphasis being given to *assessment for learning* (sometimes discussed as *formative assessment*).

Grabe (2010) stated that **the goals for assessment have shifted from assessing what students can do at a given moment to using assessment as a way to improve learning effectiveness on an ongoing basis**. The goal is to see continuous learner assessment for learning purposes. This trend is likely to grow considerably in the coming decade (Black et al., 2004; Davison, 2007; Grabe, 2009; Rea-Dickins, 2006; Wiliam and Thompson, 2007). More generally, emphases on technology applications, ethics in assessment, innovative research methodologies, the roles of standardized assessment, standards for professionalism, and critical language testing are all reshaping language assessment and, by extension, applied linguistics.

- *A seventh emphasis focuses on the resources and perspectives provided by*

neurolinguistics and brain studies associated with language learning and language use (Schumann et al., 2004; see also Schumann elsewhere in this volume). The potential and the benefits of research in neurolinguistics and the impact of language learning on brain processing is perhaps not an immediate concern of applied linguistics. However, significant advances in the relations between brain functioning and language learning (including literacy development) suggest that research insights from neurolinguistics may soon become too important to ignore. The impact of literacy training, literacy learning in different languages, and training with language disability learners on brain processing has accelerated in recent years (J. R. Anderson, 2007; Berninger and Richards, 2002; Schumann et al., 2004; elsewhere in this volume; Ward, 2006; Wolf, 2007). A sure sign of this change is the extraordinarily accessible explanations relating neuroscience to reading ability in Wolf 2007) and the recent inclusion of four chapters on neuroscience and reading comprehension in a recent volume on comprehension instruction (Block and Parris, 2008). This emphasis will probably become an important sub-area of applied linguistics within the decade.

C. The Problem-Based Nature of Applied Linguistics: It is the Problems, Not the Disciplines

According to Grabe (2010), in the many discussions of trends and disciplines, and subfields, and theorizing, the idea is sometimes lost that the focus of applied linguistics is on trying to resolve language-based problems that people encounter in the real world, whether they be academics, dictionary makers, employers, lawyers, learners, policy developers, service providers, supervisors, teachers, test takers, those who need social services, translators, or a whole range of business

clients. A list of major language-based problems that applied linguists typically address (across a wide range of settings) follow. The list is necessarily partial, but it should indicate *what* it is that applied linguists try to do, if not *how* they go about their work.

Applied linguists address subsets of the following problems:

- Language assessment problems (validity, reliability, usability, responsibility, fairness)
- Language contact problems (bilingualism, shift, spread, loss, maintenance, social and cultural interactions)
- Language inequality problems (ethnicity, class, region, gender, and age)
- Language learning problems (emergence of skills, awareness, rules, use, context, automaticity, attitudes, expertise)
- Language pathology problems (aphasias, dyslexias, physical disabilities)
- Language policy and planning problems (status planning, corpus planning, acquisition planning, ecology of language, multilingualism, political factors)
- Language teaching problems (resources, training, practice, interaction, understanding, use, contexts, inequalities, motivations, outcomes)
- Language and technology problems (learning, assessment, access, use)
- Language translation problems (access, effectiveness, technologies)
- Language use problems (dialects, registers, discourse communities, gatekeeping situations, limited access to services and resources)
- Literacy problems (orthography development, new scripts, resource development, learning issues)

These categories could be expanded further, and themes in each category could be elaborated into full articles and books in and of themselves. The key point, however, is to recognize that it is the language-based problems in the world that

drive applied linguistics. These problems also lead applied linguists to use knowledge from other fields apart from linguistics, and thereby impose the interdisciplinarity that is a defining aspect of the discipline.

D. Defining Applied Linguistics

Grabe (2010) mentioned that over the past decade, Widdowson (1998, 2000, 2004, 2005) has argued consistently that applied linguistics is **not** an *interdisciplinary* discipline as much as a *mediating* field or domain between the theoretical plane of linguistics and language knowledge on the one hand and its applications to problems that arise in a number of real-world settings. As such, applied linguistics is problematic as a discipline or as an interdisciplinary field. Rather than create unique knowledge or work within unique disciplinary principles and resources, it is identified by its role mediating between theoretical knowledge from disciplines and practitioners who encounter real-world language problems. However, other applied linguists do not see applied linguistics through such a problematized lens. Brumfit 2004, Bygate 2005, Davies (1999a), and Kaplan (2002a) all see **the complexity, fuzziness, and dynamism of applied linguistics as not so distinct from other disciplines** (Cited in *ibid*). This debate on the definition of applied linguistics will surely continue for at least another decade.

A further debate, according to Grabe (*ibid*) has centered around *the connection between applied linguistics as an academic discipline and the domain of real-world language problems* (e.g., Widdowson, 2005). It is certainly true that much research under the umbrella of applied linguistics retains a somewhat detached, descriptive quality to it, contributing to knowledge about a language problem in a real-world context, but not suggesting ways to ameliorate that problem or demonstrating success in addressing the problem. This criticism is a legitimate one, but not one that undermines the definition of applied linguistics itself. There

are certainly cases in which applied linguists have drawn on combined disciplinary resources, including language and language learning knowledge, and taken the key steps from basic resource knowledge, to specific research applications, to learning outcome comparisons, to curriculum development, and to instructional use and evaluation of outcomes (and then leading to a new cycle in this problem-solving process). Consequently, it remains reasonable to see **applied linguistics as a discipline that engages interdisciplinary resources (including linguistic resources) to address real-world language problems.**

As a result, Grabe (2010) has defined applied linguistics as **a practice-driven discipline that addresses language-based problems in real-world contexts.** This general definition certainly does not come to terms with all of the claims that applied linguistics is not a discipline. Aside from the major issues noted above, critics have also noted that applied linguistics is too broad and too fragmented, that it demands expert knowledge in too many fields, that it does not have a set of unifying research paradigms. However, it is possible to interpret applied linguistics as a discipline much in the way that many other disciplines are defined. Applied linguistics, like many disciplines, has a core and a periphery, and the periphery blurs into other disciplines that may—or may not—want to be allied. This picture may not be very different from that of several other disciplines, particularly those that are relatively new, give or take a hundred years.

A quick look at a number of well-recognised disciplines will reveal that they too are open to charges that their fields are too fragmented and too broad, that they demand expertise in too many related subfields, and that they do not have a set of unifying research paradigms (ibid). Obvious, recognisable disciplines that can be included under these criticisms include chemistry, biology, education, English, history, and psychology, just to note some of the larger fields. We tend to note the messiness that is close at hand and see distant disciplines as tidier and

better-defined entities. Disciplinary histories, current controversies, blurred borders, and new technologies and taxonomies of subfields within each discipline would suggest some of the same issues that confront applied linguists as they seek to describe disciplinary status. In the case of other disciplines, time and recognition have provided a much greater sense of inevitability, a sense that is likely to accrue to applied linguistics over the next 50 years.

Accepting the messiness of a newer discipline and the controversies that are inevitable in describing an intellectual territory, applied linguistics, nonetheless, exhibits many defining disciplinary characteristics. These points, according to Grabe (2010), reflect commonalities that most applied linguists would agree on:

1. Applied linguistics has many of the markings of an academic discipline: many professional journals, many professional associations, international recognition for the field, funding resources for research projects. The field contains a large number of individuals who see themselves as applied linguists, as trained professionals who are hired in academic institutions as applied linguists, as students who want to become applied linguists, there is a need for a recognized means for training these students to become applied linguists.

2. Applied linguistics has conferences with well-articulated subareas for conference-abstract submissions. These subareas generally define applied linguistics in ways quite similar to the problem-based list previously provided; categories for submission for the American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL) have, for example, remained remarkably stable over the past 10 years.

3. Applied linguistics recognizes that linguistics must be included as a core knowledge base in the training and work of applied linguistics, although the purpose of most applied linguists' work is not simply to *apply* linguistics to achieve a solution. Moreover, direct applications of language knowledge is

not necessarily a criterion that defines applied linguistics work. How one trains effective language teachers may involve research that does not refer directly to aspects of language knowledge, but rather to aspects of learning psychology (cognitive processes), educational practice (task development and sequencing), and social interactions (autonomy, status, turn taking).

4. Applied linguistics is grounded in real-world language-driven problems and issues (primarily linked by practical matters involving language use, language evaluation, language contact and multilingualism, language policies, and language learning and teaching). There is also, however, the recognition that these practically driven problems have extraordinary range, and this range tends to dilute any sense of common purpose or common professional identification among practitioners.

5. Applied linguistics typically incorporates other disciplinary knowledge beyond linguistics in its efforts to address language-based problems. Applied linguists commonly draw upon and are often well trained in areas of anthropology, computer programming, education, economics, English, literature, measurement, political science, psychology, sociology, or rhetoric.

6. Applied linguistics is, of necessity, an interdisciplinary field, because few practical language issues can be addressed through the knowledge resources of any single discipline, including linguistics. For example, genuinely to influence language learning, one must be able to call upon, at the very least, resources from educational theory, ethnomethodology (sociology), and learning theory as well as linguistics.

7. Applied linguistics commonly includes a core set of issues and practices that are readily identifiable as work carried out by many applied linguists (e.g., second language assessment, second language curriculum development, second language learning, second language teaching, and second language

8. Applied linguistics generally incorporates or includes several identifiable subfields: for example, corpus linguistics, forensic linguistics, language testing, language policy and planning, lexicography, second language acquisition, second language writing, and translation and interpretation.

9. Applied linguistics often defines itself broadly in order to include issues in other language-related fields (e.g., first language composition studies, first language literacy research, language pathology, and natural language processing). The great majority of members in these other fields do not see themselves as applied linguists; however, the broad definition for applied linguistics licenses applied linguists to draw upon and borrow from these disciplines to meet their own objectives.

These nine points indicate the developing disciplinary nature of applied linguistics. There are certainly difficulties for the field, and there are problems in attempting to define and differentiate the core versus the periphery. There are also problems in deciding how one becomes an applied linguist and what training (and what duration of training) might be most appropriate. But these problems are no more intractable than those faced by many disciplines, even relatively established ones.

Conclusion

The coming decade of research and inquiry in applied linguistics will continue the lines of investigation noted above. Applied linguists will need to know more about computer technologies, statistical applications, sociocultural influences on research, and new ways to analyze language data. Testing and assessment issues will not be limited to testing applications but will also have a much greater influence on other areas of applied linguistics research. Issues such as validity, fairness, and ethics will extend into other area of applied linguistics. These issues

will also lead to continued discussions on the most appropriate research methods in different settings. Additionally, applied linguistics will direct more attention to issues of motivation, attitudes, and affect because those factors potentially influence many language-based problems. Similarly, learning theories (as discussed and debated in educational and cognitive psychology) will become a more central concern in language learning and teaching. Finally, neurolinguistic research will undoubtedly open up new ways to think about language learning, language teaching, and the ways in which language is used.

All of these issues also ensure that applied linguistics will remain essentially interdisciplinary. The resolution of language-based problems in the real world is complex, dynamic, and difficult. It seems only appropriate that applied linguists seek partnerships and collaborative research if these problems are to be addressed in effective ways.

Assignment:

- Summarise the history of applied linguistics.
- In a graphic organiser, summarise the main emphases and discussion held under the umbrella of applied linguistics.

6. Language Planning

Objective:

By the end of this lecture, students will have seen and studied about language planning. Moreover, they will do some related tasks.

Introduction

Language planning is a field in which insights from linguistics, and in particular sociolinguistics, may be applied with relevance for the development of the policies of a national government. In particular, language planning involves the development and implementation of official policies concerning the place, function and status of different varieties of a language or different languages within a country or community (Carter, 1993). Language planning is normally undertaken in relation to education and involves crucial decisions over the language which will form the medium of instruction in schools (ibid). Such decisions have inevitable implications both for national identity and for which languages will be maintained within a country. Language planning decisions can invoke strong feelings of support and opposition and in some contexts such attitudes are not changed by official policies (ibid).

The role of applied linguistics in exercises of language planning is to try to provide and evaluate evidence which relates to the social, cultural and educational consequences of planning decisions, although specific programmes with a linguistic basis, such as spelling reform, may be the direct result of linguistic theory and analysis.

I. Definitions

According to Bianco (2004), language planning includes what people do, think and believe about language.

For Cooper (1989), "Language planning refers to deliberate efforts to influence the behavior of others with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their language codes" (p. 45).

In other definitions there is no place for the non-deliberate realm as Brecht and Walton (1993) pointed out : "The match of national language capacity to need" (p. 3).

Some definitions do not limit the effects intended by policy intervention and encompass multiple kinds of collective action. For example, Fishman (1973), defined language planning as "the organized pursuit of solutions to language problems, typically at the national level" (pp. 23-4) and later an "authoritative allocation of resources to language" (Fishman, 1994, p. 92 in Bianco, *ibid*, p. 749).

McGroarty (1997) "Language policy can be defined as the combination of official decisions and prevailing public practices related to language education and use", p. 1). Many definitions available in the literature include the following cited in Bianco (2004).

Neustupny (1978, 1983) distinguished between approaches to language planning : one approach describing societies which plan language via policy, and the other one that is via cultivation was further developed « to distinguish between correction and management of language issues as the superordinate frame for describing language planning, with subordinate categories of treatment (organized and deliberate attention to language) and planning for those varieties of language treatment which seek to be theoretically structured and highly systematic » (In Bianco, 2004, p. 741).

Neustupny corrected his model and spoke of communication "inadequacies". These exist in both the communicative acts of individuals and the communicative system in general (*ibid*). according to Neustupny, inadequacies result in hypercorrection and an increase in the consciousness of the speaker. The author

explained that problems in the communicative system result in a meta-linguistic correction system of the teaching and the treatment systems, while individual speakers note discrepancies in the system or forms they are using, find design for its removal, and decide whether to implement the identified change.

Neustupny's approach is interesting for this ambitious attempt to see through, initially by analogy and later by systematic structuring, a connection between individual and societal treatment of the LPP process; although he reserved the term language planning only for those treatments that draw on explicit LPP theory and which are characterized by systematicity and future orientation.

An appealing alternative possibility is that LPP can be conceived not simply as the societal and conscious analogue of personal language correction processes, but that the personal and the societal are both instances of LPP located relationally along a single continuum of actions.

The term 'language planning' became prominent in the work of Haugen (1966) who made it the overarching category encompassing societal intervention in language. Haugen's still popular systematization distinguishes between: selection of form, codification of the selected form, implementation of new norms, and their elaboration into various public domains, including institutional and aultural cultivation of language.

II. Language Planning vs Language Policy

There is a distinction between language planning and language policy. Language policy refers to decision-making processes and the setting of goals, whereas language planning to the implementation of plans for attaining these goals.

III. Branches of Language Planning

Kloss (1969) divided language planning into two branches of activity: corpus and status planning. Nonetheless, according to, Bianco (2004), there are five (5) types of language planning, as follows:

➤ **Corpus planning**

It refers to norm selection and codification and is usually undertaken by language experts, resulting in dictionaries, grammars, literacy manuals and pronunciation writing style guides.

➤ **Status planning**

It is rarely entrusted to language experts. The results of status planning are laws, clauses in constitutions prescribing the official standing of languages, and regulations for their use in public administration. This institutional and administrative focus is generally for nation-solidifying purposes and aims to secure a language, or its preferred orthography, over national territory or, in cases of imperial or economic expansion, to spread beyond it.

Corpus planning is often undertaken to overcome communicative inefficiencies, usually driven by ideological imperative. Typically these ideologies have been nationalist postcolonial reconstruction, but social movements also advance political aims through modifications to the lexis and discourse patterns of language. Examples in English have been university campus speech codes promulgated in the interests of anti-racism and counter-sexism, indeed for most kinds of linguistic political correctness. Pursuing social change via linguistic reform is based on a sense that social power and representation correlate with language or are consonant with more performatively based understandings of language (Butler, 1997) that consider language constitutive of social identities and politics a lingually performed practice. Status and corpus planning are the major activities discussed in LPP literature, but three other activities are studied.

➤ **Acquisition planning**

Also labelled “language-in-education”, it typically describes the languages teaching policies of states. Foreign or second language instruction can be

motivated by humanistic rationales, by economic interest calculations, by assessments about national security or geo-political interest, or by responses to the needs, Opportunities, and rights of linguistic minorities.

➤ **Usage planning**

It refers to efforts to extend the communicative domains of given language. This usually occurs in opposition to a replacing language eration after political reconstitution (administrative devolution, federalism, or national independence) but in more extreme cases usage planning forms part of regeneration efforts on behalf of dying languages.

➤ **Prestige planning**

It involves elevating the esteem of a linguistic code. While this often accompanies status planning, there is an ancient history of poetic, philosophical, and religious involvement in attaching enhanced prestige to given codes that precedes formal planning processes and sometimes contradicts them.

The production of canonical literature by poets, prose writers, and other cultural figures has effects that can be usefully discussed as language planning.

In brief, language planning occurs when a government chooses a language variety as a national or official language.

Language planning refers to the deliberate efforts that influence the function, structure or acquisition of language within a speech community. To this end, choosing a language variety depends on the following factors:

1. The form of the language variety
2. The function it serves
3. The attitudes people hold towards it

Language Planning Process

Language planning has four steps. These are: selection, codification, elaboration and securing its acceptance.

There are four processes involved in developing a standard language, according to Ferguson (2006), as follows :

- selection of norm,
- codification of form,
- elaboration of function and
- acceptance by the community

a. Selection

This step includes the choice of language variety to be developed. For Ferguson (2006), selection refers to « the choice of one or more dialects to serve as the basis of the standard, and is exemplified in the Norwegian case by Knudsen's preference for the speech of the urban middle class over rural dialects as the basis of a new Norwegian standard » (p. 24).

b. Codification

It involves stabilising, or fixing, the form of the language through producing normative grammars and dictionaries. Codification is in the domain of corpus planning.

c. Elaboration

Elaboration is sometimes referred to as 'cultivation'. Its aim is to expand the language's functional range that allows it to serve as a medium of scientific and technical discourse, for example. This process requires developing new registers and creating new lexical items – mainly in the fields of science, technology and economy, which has led some writers (e.g. Ferguson, 1968) to prefer the term

‘modernisation’ and others to equate elaboration with ‘language modernisation’. Elaboration is a combination of both corpus planning and status planning.

d. Acceptance

Acceptance is placed in the category of status planning, and it entails deliberate dissemination of the standard and coordinated efforts to persuade the community to accept it. Though the standard is developed by academies and committees, it may be rejected by the community due to various factors.

This process focuses on standardising the structural and/or linguistic features of the selected language variety. According to Ferguson (ibid), standardisation is an ideological process, and, basically, the standard is commonly based on the language variety spoken by the most powerful sector of society, whose norms are withheld subsequently to be followed by less privileged social groups. All in all, standardisation creates what is called ‘a standard language ideology’, a collection of ideas, that is widely accepted by the public and spread by the media and governmental organisations. According to Ferguson (ibid), the components of standardisation are, as follows:

1. Identification of the standard language (e.g. standard English) with the whole language
2. Belief in the superiority of the standard language over other varieties or dialects
3. Development of the notions of correct and incorrect language, and the idea that there is only ‘one correct form of the spoken language’ (Milroy, L. 1999: 174), part of the population coming to stigmatise their own speech as ‘incorrect’ or ‘ungrammatical’. Language change also comes to be associated with decay or corruption
4. Identification of the standard language with the national language, a symbol of

national identity and source, potentially, of national pride.

Assignment:

- What are the motives behind language planning?
- Summarise the stages of language planning in a graphic organiser.

7. Language and Gender

Introduction

Gender influences the use of language. How people use language is related to the society and community they belong to, their lifestyles as well as their identities with particularities and their status in relation to others. These elements are definitely affected by gender divisions that characterise societies.

According to the literature, research on the relationship between language and gender began in the 1960 and developed on some levels, as follows:

- 1) The gender difference in language form and structure,
- 2) The gender difference in utterance style and
- 3) The reasons for gender difference in language.

1. Research on Language and Gender

According to the literature, there is a relationship between the language of male and the one of female. The difference of gender does not only reflect the speech between female and male, but it also reflects their different attitudes and living styles. In fact, difference of gender is an important field of research in many domains such as sociolinguistics, psychology and others. It should be noted that the differences between female and male have been studied from different perspectives. Results obtained from research also demonstrate similarities between female and male. To explain, males are interested in power and leadership, while females are concerned with their subordinate status. Besides, males speak directly, whereas females speak indirectly and tend to express their feelings. All these differences have made the topic of language and gender very popular. Language and gender has become researched worldwide in Africa, Asia

and Latin America besides North America, Australia and Europe (Cameron, 2020).

Researchers such as psychologists and linguists began studying the differences between the language of females and that of males in the early 1970s. Lakoff (1973) suggested her deficit theory that viewed female language as inferior to male language contrary to Thorne's theory which viewed female language as superior to male language which is deficient. In the same line, Cameron (2003) saw that females listen and share emotions with others in a better way. The above mentioned authors and other ones used the terms: "women's language" (Lakoff, 1973), "genderlect" (Kramer, 1974), "gender related language" (Mulac et al., 1986), etc. Researchers used the terms that determine the subject being researched and studied. In linguistics, gender differences began with the work of Lakoff entitled "Language and Women's Place" in 1973. The author demonstrated some features of female language:

- **Specialised vocabulary**

Females use more concrete colour words: yellow, beige, mauve, ... and some concrete words related to life in general)

- **Milder expletives**

Females tend to use expletives in a milder tone while considering the social conventions contrary to males who tend to speak in a stronger tone.

- **Empty adjectives**

Females use adjectives such as cute, charming, ... for expressing their feelings.

- **Tag questions**

Females prefer using tag questions for expressing their opinions though they are sure of what they say for the sake of being recognised by others.

- **Intonation**

Females tend to use a rising tone even in declarative sentences which may reflect their indecisions and uncertainties.

- **Superpolite forms**

Females are more polite than males as they use polite requests in their speech.

- **Hypercorrect grammars**

Females use formal language not only at the level grammar but also pronunciation.

- **Joke-telling and humour**

Female language lacks humour compared to males who use humour in their speech. It should be noted that in the world, the famous comic characters are males such as Charlie Chaplin and Mr Bean.

Lakoff (ibid) mentioned that the above mentioned differences at the level of vocabulary, grammar and pragmatics result in a female language style that is “obedient”, “uncertain” and “passive”.

For Cameron (2000), there is a complex relationship between language and gender in the academic studies of language and gender. In his turn, Holmes (as cited in Bergwall 1999) formulated six candidate universals about language and gender, as mentioned in Çakici (2011, p. 465):

1. Women and men develop different patterns of language use
2. Women tend to focus on the affective functions of an interaction more often than men do.
3. Women tend to use linguistic devices that stress solidarity more often than men do.

4. Women tend to interact in ways that will maintain and increase solidarity, while especially in formal contexts men tend to interact in ways that will maintain and increase their power and status.

5. Women use more standard forms than men from the same social group in the same social context.

6. Women are stylistically more flexible than men.

Conclusion

Again, gender influences the use of language, and how people use language is related to the society and community they belong to as well as their lifestyles besides their identities with particularities and their status in relation to others. All these elements and more are definitely affected by gender divisions that characterise societies.

Assignment:

- Summarise the lecture in a form of an essay.
- How is language of both sexes different in your surrounding?

8. Language acquisition: methods and metaphors

Introduction

Michael McCarthy examine the evolution of second language acquisition (SLA) as a branch of applied linguistics. He mentioned that though first language acquisition (FLA) framework has influenced the studies of SLA. The latter has developed 'in its own right'. This development is due, according to the debates caused by the rise of many fundamental issues, beginning from the seventeenth century up to recent years. The following make the summary of the main debates.

The Main Debates

Modern times have witnessed debates concerning the effective methods to be applied in language teaching. The issues aroused from these debates were about control and influence of extraneous variables, the reliability of sample population, and so on. Moreover, debates concerning theories have appeared, such as 'differences between first and second language acquisition. These showed a controversy about whether 'learning' is similar to 'learning' or not, etc.

One of the main debates was the comparison between methods of traditional grammar, on the one hand, and the ones of audioligualism, on the other. Audiolingualism which sorted out from behaviourist psychology was based on habit formation, resulting from stimulus-response feedback pattern. But, the behaviourist philosophy had been criticised, mainly, by Chomsky. The opponents argued that students who were exposed to audio-lingualism methods were excellent at reading, but poor at 'speaking on unrehearsed topics, since they used to reproduce... learnt dialogues only. In short, audioligualism studies were 'inconclusive' but were suggestive'.

Cross-linguistic transfer is another issue in SLA. It should be taken into account in any SLA process. Recurrence of certain structures led to describe the learner language as systematic, which led to the emergence of 'interlanguage' notion. This does not mean that all in a learner's interlanguage corresponds the TL rules. As a matter of fact, the influence of L1 is not responsible for interlanguage. Rather, it is the learner state and his or her cognitive processes that should be questioned. Interlanguage, in this case, refers to the learner's features of performance that are independent of L1.

Other recent debates appeared about variation in learner performance, whether it is free or systematic. Ellis (1999) answered this question by maintaining that some facts of learner performance can be systematic. This variation is irrelevant to a theory of interlanguage if it does not correlate systematically with any environmental factors. Ellis distinguishes 'expressive needs which are short-lived and 'sociolinguistic needs' which may result in systematised free variation. However, Ellis's view has been criticised, in that individual creativity and curiosity are not free of constraints.

Contrastive analysis between two languages fail, according to McCarthy, at explaining why overgeneralisation is wrongly transferred from one language to another. Real interactions make the richest context, where to study L1 influence on L2 rather than constructed experiments.

Hulstij (1997) claimed that laboratory experiments run the risk of demotivating learners through asking them to learn a language that has 'no native speakers and no apparent use' because these variables. Hulstijn, rather, favours naturalistic experiments allow contexts. Classrooms interfering make an appropriate setting for a more socially oriented view of language. One of the pioneers of this approach is Fanselow (1987) who calls for self-observation of language acquisition rather

than depending on outside experts. Task-based classrooms provide researchers with real teaching situations, where learners interact to solve problems that simulate real-world tasks. This has been criticised for making the teacher-as-researcher observe the products of acquisition rather than the acquisition process.

Language is acquired not only in classrooms. Whether in or out of class, the study of acquisition is affected by social and cultural factors. Holliday(1999), however, calls for 'small cultures' rather than 'culture', arguing that such small grouping of individuals are more appropriate arena for research than traditional views of cultural groups.

More learning approaches have appeared in recent years. One of these is connectionist approach. Its advocates call for associative models of acquisition instead of symbolic, rule-based models. But, these approaches 'do not help to explain emergent approximations to target behaviour. Socio-cultural approaches are based on the notion of the mind as an individual organism that receives input, processes it and then outputs communication. This internalist approach may be criticised for underlying a modelling of second language acquisition like the one proposed by Krashen. The language learner in the latter's model is 'a loner who possesses a language acquisition device that does all the acquiring for the individual'. The Vygotskian approach views instructors and their pupils interactively co-build the arena for development. Vygotsky claims that the division between language as representing the individual psyche and language as a social phenomenon is broken down.

Conclusion

Though first language acquisition framework has influenced the studies of SLA. The latter has developed 'in its own right'. This development is due, according to the debates mentioned by McCarthy (2000) caused by the rise of

many fundamental issues, beginning from the seventeenth century up to recent years. SLA now has its own associations and organisations and journals.

Questions:

- What is the difference between FLA and SLA?
- Is SLA separate from applied linguistics?
- What is the concern of the aforementioned debates?

Assignment:

Look for the main and modern debates on the effective methods to be applied in language teaching.

9. Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching

Introduction

Language teaching for Corder (1973) is an art, not a scientific process that goes on by trials and error. In spite of that, having some general principles is better than having none and formulating them is better than letting them not explicit, for this can help in evaluating them. Language teaching is not only what goes on in classroom. It includes planning lessons correcting, assessing progress, discussing with colleagues, selecting and perhaps producing textbooks and teaching materials. All these activities need making decisions. Indeed, there are other decisions concerned with the general educational system organisation, the relevant place of language teaching in the curriculum the nature of the syllabus and examining systems. All these factors influence language teaching.

The language teaching operation, therefore, refers to the decision relevant to creating conditions that facilitate learning. Making decisions is related to politics, economics, sociology, pedagogy, and to a knowledge derived from the scientific study of language in all its aspects. Applied linguistics', in this case, 'is concerned with the identification and analysis of a certain class of problems which arise in the setting up and carrying out of language teaching programmes, and with the provision of the answers or part of the answers to them. In other words, there exists a decision making when planning and executing a programme of language teaching to apply linguistic principles and knowledge that are relevant, especially a one in which question have linguistic answers. Dealing with these problems using linguistic knowledge means applying linguistics.

In constructing language courses and programmes, the decisions made on linguistic matters have to take an explicit consideration of the problems'

nature.

The identification and analysis of problems make part of the application of linguistic knowledge to a practical task. This involves using the suitable language to get the suitable answer. The application of linguistic knowledge should be done from the beginning of the planning process and not when problems appear.

In planning a total language teaching programme, a specific set of questions may arise. The content of the teaching programme is one of those problems. Because a syllabus is a plan for teaching and includes the content and other things one has to know what, when and how to teach. Any teaching operation should proceed accordingly. So, the techniques of applied linguistics involve selecting data of language, and organising them and presenting them through teaching materials. Owning practical problem is necessity for providing a solution to another. These techniques are related to each other in logical order. In other words, applied linguistics is a collection of techniques that are related to each other and which mediate between theoretical knowledge of human language (linguistics) and practised activities of language teaching. Because this relation is indirect, many teachers have failed to see the relevance of linguistic studies to language teaching.

The first step in the application of linguistics to any practical activity is a description of the language used in that activity. In fact, owning a satisfactory description of language is a pre-condition for the most effective performance of these activities and it is a common point in all similar ones.

Linguistic studies aim at investigating the/human language nature. Since language includes many forms and serves a variety of functions,

the linguist has to study varied languages for the purpose of confirming his theoretical predictions in reality. But, testing theories does not lead the linguist to a comprehensive description of a language. Actually, describing parts of a language intensively and in detail will be sufficient. As mentioned earlier, 'comprehensive description cannot pay detailed attention to every aspect of the language'. For example, the comprehensive description of language grammars aims at helping students to learn the language; that is, they didactic purposes.

The description of a theory entails the application of theory to data. According to Corder (ibid), a satisfactory theory, therefore, can provide a complete and logically coherent analysis of any data to which it is applied. To describe a language, a dialect, or a variety of language, there should be criteria other than theoretical linguistics ones, that is, there should also be sociological and psychological studies. So, the linguist, firstly, should possess adequate descriptions of language. Then , the result that he obtains should be as comprehensive as present linguistic theories allow.

The result of describing a language makes the raw material for the next process in applied linguistics. In language teaching case, all these procedures are done to establish the content of the teaching syllabus with the techniques for selecting the items which are to be taught.

In these procedures are comparative since selection means there are items that have similarities and differences to be discovered and analysed and their relative importance to be evaluated in relation to the needs and objectives of the teaching task . Comparing language descriptions is part of linguistics`. Linguists, by comparing languages, are interested in classifying them, finding out what is common among them such as genetic relations and how a language changes over time ,and finally in delimiting the boundaries of human language.

Contrastive linguistic studies may be called inter-linguistic comparison, aim at discovering the structural differences and similarities between the mother tongue and second language. This is referred to as a learning task. The latter includes valuable information to determine the main things to be taught, to explain difficulties when they appear and to suggest ways where/some of the material may be presented, described and practised in the classroom.

Error analysis is another descriptive and comparative technique in applied linguistics (Corder, 1973, 1974). It will yield into the learner's problems which will propose how to present and practise the language in the classroom. Since it is part of the psycholinguistic research methodology into the learning of second languages it attempts to explain why learners make errors as a first step. Error analysis is also used as a technique in the study of language disorders.

Language, as well, is used in many different social situations, for many different purposes and is expressed in different media such as writing, speech or some combination of these, such as dictation or reading aloud. When we teach a language, learner is prepared to behave appropriately and purposefully in many different situations.

The syllabus content must reflect the learners' needs and intentions as far as these can be established. The language to be used in the situation and its purposes make the core of syllabus. When the learner's aims are not known, the common core should be established. The discovery of the nature of this common core does not entail making comparisons between the target language and any other language.

Rather it involves selecting items from within the target language itself. A comparison as such is an intra-linguistic one. In this case, the

learner will use different uses of language in different social situations and for different communication purposes.

Conclusion

Language teaching is a complex process as many elements come into play and from different angles. The applied linguist should assist the practitioners by providing the different techniques for presenting language in the classroom that allow the learners to learn a language easily, choosing what to teach and organising courses.

Questions:

- What does a description of a theory involve?
- What are the different applied linguistics techniques suggested by Corder (1973)?

Assignment:

Summarise the chapter in a paragraph, highlighting the most important points.

10. Teaching and Learning Approaches

Objective:

By the end of this lecture, students will have made the distinction between approach, method and technique and had an idea about the main teaching and learning approaches. They will also answer and do some related tasks.

Introduction

Approach, Method and Technique

According to Anthony (1963), there is a difference between approach, method and technique. An *approach* refers to the different theories about the nature of language and how languages are learnt. A *method* refers to the different ways of teaching language whereas a technique refers to the kinds of classroom activities.

- Examples of “approach”: aural-oral approach, the cognitive-code approach, the communicative approach, ...
- Examples of “method”: audiolingual method, direct method, ...
- Examples of “technique”: drills, dialogues, role-plays, sentence completion, ...

A. The Traditional grammar approach

This approach is mentalistic in the sense that it views natural languages as vehicles of expressing meaning (ibid). This approach gave rise to the traditional grammar method that was the only alternative until the beginning of the 1960s. This method focused on teaching the form rather than the function. More specifically, it focused on the written form of a language. This method is heavily based on translation. According to this method, students learn a language by translating from this target language to another written language or vice versa;

for example, translating from English to French or Arabic or vice versa.

B. The Structuralist Approach

This approach is a strong reaction to the traditional grammar approach (Anthony, 1963). It is based on a behaviouristic view of language acquisition and learning. This approach as the previous approach focuses on form neglecting the role of function and context. However, in the structuralist approach, the focus is on the spoken form of language rather than the written form. This approach is based on the following processes:

- Memorisation which leads to habit-formation (The learner memorises a language pattern by repeating it many times
- Stimulus-response (The learner will automatically produce a pattern once he has memorised it.)

Errors are as a handicap.

C. The Transformational Generative Grammar Approach

This approach resembles the traditional grammar approach in that it is meantalistic/cognitive in nature (ibid). This view considers language acquisition and learning as a problem-solving mechanism where the role of the mind is central. The child and the language learner acquire or learn a language by gradually developing strategies. As the structuralist approach, this approach is context-free, closed system of form, whose explanation does not require an analysis of the various functions it assumes; nonetheless, the transformational generative grammar accounts for creativity in language acquisition and language learning. Hence, in this approach, errors are considered a healthy sign.

This approach gave rise to the transformational generative grammar method which is rationalistic as it takes into account both the abstract and the concrete aspects of language, and advocates teaching in natural situations. Memorisation and drills are not stressed in this method, and the role of the teacher is not to plan the lesson and guide the learner, but to evaluate and judge the teaching and

learning processes. That is, there is a shift of focus from the teacher to the learner.

D. The Functionalist Approach

This approach focuses on the functions of language and considers them as more important than language forms (Anthony, 1963). This approach appeared in the 1970s as a reaction to the transformational generative grammar approach. The functionalist approach is heavily influenced by cognitive psychology, sociology and educational theory. That is, language is viewed as a means of transmitting ideas, concepts, etc.

This approach gave rise to the functional method called the communicative approach. This method focuses on communication as the central goal of using language. This method is summed up as follows:

- Each group of learners need L2 (Second Language) for specific purposes, and the teacher is required to be aware of the goals of teaching.
- The language must be presented to the learner in communicative situations; that is, in contexts where the use of specific constructions fulfils specific functions.
- An attempt to provide learners with learning techniques which will help them develop efficient strategies of learning, in addition to the usual techniques which emphasise form. Examples of techniques are “filling information gaps” where learners are organised in groups, where each learner supplying new information on a specific topic for the sake of the other members of the group. This allows learners to have more choice in the selection of topics for discussion, and allows the teacher to get required feedback from the learners.

Conclusion

Many approaches have sprung from the above mentioned major approaches. What follows will deal with some details with the most recognisable teaching approaches.

Assignment:

- What is the difference between approach, method and technique?
- Are the building blocks of those approaches suitable in each English class and lesson? Justify your answer.

11. Grammar Translation Method (GTM)

Objective:

By the end of this lecture, students will have learnt and discussed the Grammar Translation Method. Furthermore, they will do some related tasks.

1. Definition

The Grammar Translation Method (GTM) is a foreign language teaching methodology derived from classical methods (sometimes called traditional) method in teaching Greek and Latin. In this method, the teachers usually have the students to translate whole texts word for word and memorize grammatical rules and exceptions as well as sets of words. This method relies on the activity of reading and translating text. According to Richard and Rogers (2002), GTM is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by the application of this knowledge through the task of translating sentences and text into and out of the target language.

This method relies on the activity of reading and translating text.

Larsen-Freeman (1986) provides some typical techniques associated with the Grammar Translation Method:

1. Translation. The students are instructed to translate a text on target language to their native language.
2. Reading comprehension. The students need to answer some questions and find some information based on the text they are learning.
3. Antonyms and synonyms. The students are instructed to find the antonyms or synonyms of a set of words.

4. Fill in the gaps. The teacher provides incomplete sentences and the students are instructed to fill in the gaps with the words or terms they have just learnt.
5. Memorization. The students memorize a set of new vocabularies or grammatical rules.
6. Use words in sentences. Students need to create sentences to define or describe the words or terms they have just learnt.

2. Advantages of GTM

From above and according to the literature, the Grammar Translation Method has been practised in many language teaching settings, all over the world, due to its main advantages.

1. Many schools have large number of students and so large classes, so GTM is one of the most effective and suitable methods for teaching large classes where the teacher is the dominant element.
2. Translation of texts into the first language (L1) assists learners to fully understand the texts and avoid any misunderstanding.
3. The words and phrases of the target language could be explained quickly as the students translated the text. Thus, it saves time. Even teachers who are not fluent in the second language (L2) can still teach as it does not really on the spoken ability of the teachers.
4. The students will not have any problem in responding to the questions as they are most likely given in the first language. This helps teachers to understand whether the students have learnt what they are taught or not.

3. Disadvantages of Grammar Translated Method

Despite the advantages of GTM, many researchers have shown some disadvantages of the use of the grammar translation method for the teaching of modern languages, as follows:

1. Speaking and understanding are more important for learners of modern languages than reading and writing, while the grammar translation method focuses on mainly reading and writing skills.
2. Learners must gradually accumulate the knowledge from the basic to advance level before they can use the language properly. This will bring a disadvantage for learners whose objective of learning the practical use of language.
3. Modern teachers and institutions nowadays prefer learning through exposure and the experience method, while GTM focuses on memorisation of grammar rules and vocabulary lists.
4. Teachers and learners most of the time communicate in the first language, while many researchers and educationists have demonstrated the importance of using the target language in the classroom.
5. Teachers are the centre of the learning processes which means that students do not interact sufficiently with their teachers and do not interact with their peers.
6. Recent research works have shown that translation is not the best technique in learning a language.
7. The Grammar Translation Method insists on accuracy rather than on fluency.

Conclusion

Despite the objection to this so-called traditional method, some recent studies have shown that this method is still applicable to this day. Elmayanti (2015) highlighted the reasons why teacher used GTM in language learning. This method could help the students to improve their vocabulary and comprehend the text. In addition, the teaching-learning activities run quite well. In addition, other researchers also mentioned that GTM could help the students in learning English. By applying this method, the students could understand the new vocabularies better as they are introduced in their mother tongue.

Assignment:

- In a table, summarise the advantages and disadvantages of Grammar Translation Method.
- Is this method still used in Algerian English classes?

12. Some Other Teaching Approaches/Methods and Concepts

Introduction

Many researchers such as Carter (1993) and others have suggested other viewpoints and assumptions about teaching languages. Moreover, many concepts related to language teaching have been used and dealt with. The following will deal with these in brief.

1. Teaching Concepts

➤ Syllabus Versus Curriculum

A syllabus is an account of the contents of a (language) course and the sequence in which particular content is to be taught. Put simply, a syllabus is a document that outlines or describes the content of a language course. It includes the learning objectives, basic information about the course, course content (major topics and sub topics. ...), assessment process and measurements, materials (texts, activities, ...) ...

A curriculum is broader in scope than a syllabus. It is a set of instructions for deciding on the content and methodology. In fact, it states the kinds of learning experiences, methodologies, underlying theories of learning and testing procedures which will enable learners to attain specific learning objectives (Carter, 1993).

■Note:

Syllabus design is closely related to curriculum planning for the objectives, methods and testing procedures selected will affect the kind of syllabus constructed. For example, a grammar-translation approach will tend to result in a closely specified syllabus of particular structures of grammar and vocabulary.

➤ **Collaborative learning**

According to Carter (1993), the theory and practice of collaborative learning emphasises that we may learn from teachers and from each other, and that one of the teacher's most crucial responsibilities is to provide enough classroom opportunities for this kind of learning to occur. Supporters of collaborative learning see advantages in children working together to solve problems, share ideas and perspectives, and produce work that builds on the group's strengths and is therefore of higher quality, while opponents typically view such practices as unstructured and ineffective. It is claimed that actively participating in collaborative work inspires and stimulates individuals involved and teaches the ideals of cooperation and mutual assistance. Students can engage in collaborative learning by offering feedback and corrections on one another's work: Throughout the language curriculum, collaborative learning is practised. It is particularly well-practised in conversational processes and, more recently, in the formation of written work, where conferencing is another commonly used term. Its success is always dependent on the teacher's meticulous preparation and oversight at every level. Teachers' perceptions of collaborative learning may benefit from applied linguistics. An examination of the various stages at which a text is linguistically shaped, for instance, can help teachers better understand the processes that underlie collaborative writing assignments and guide the interventions and support they provide for their students' language use.

2. Other Teaching Approaches/Methods

There are other teaching approaches/methods that should be given some attention.

➤ **Audiolingual Method**

This method is used to teach foreign languages. It is also called the aural-oral method. It is based on the methods of rigorous foreign language training created for American service members during World War II. Speaking and listening skills are reportedly acquired quickly using this strategy. It is founded on the following key ideas and shares some similarities with the Direct Method of teaching languages: Speaking and listening proficiency comes before reading and writing proficiency; mother tongue use is discouraged in the classroom; language proficiency is a matter of habit formation; as a result, practice of specific language patterns through structured dialogues and drills is highly valued until the use of language is sufficiently rehearsed for responses to be automatic. This method still enjoys popularity though it is criticised for its basis in behaviourism. Critics say that learners become restricted in expression and can lack the confidence to create new expressions for themselves.

➤ **Direct Method**

The Direct Method, according to Carter (1993) and others, is an approach to the teaching of foreign languages. It appeared and developed in the end of the nineteenth century. In fact, it was a reaction against the grammar-translation method. In the Direct Method, only the target language is used in the language class and learners should use the language all the time in real everyday situations. Moreover, learners are encouraged to think in the foreign language and not to translate in and out of it. Furthermore, reading and writing are taught after extensive listening and speaking skills have been developed. Besides, meanings are taught by the teacher through demonstration, gestures, mimes, pictures, and the like. Communication skills are developed in small classes or groups in a progressive way. Grammar is taught inductively.

➤ **Communicative Approach**

This method of teaching foreign languages places a strong emphasis on the student's capacity to use the language correctly in particular contexts. This method places a great deal of emphasis on the roles that language plays and on assisting students in developing their communicative skills by teaching them appropriate language to use for specific tasks. In addition to teaching students how to use the language in grammatically acceptable phrases, the communicative approach teaches them when, when, and to whom to use it. The communicative approach emerged as a response to audio-lingual and grammar-translation approaches that failed to adequately emphasise the language's communicative applications. It expanded upon the notional-functional syllabus, which arranges lesson plans based on the communicative "notions" that students need to successfully communicate, served as its foundation. Developed primarily by British applied linguists, the communicative approach has influenced teaching strategies and curriculum design around the globe. It keeps evolving as educators experiment with the process and look for ways to improve communication techniques. These approaches place a strong emphasis on communication processes and seek to actively include students in activities including social interactions, knowledge retrieval and problem solving. Integrating the proper use of structures with language functions—that is, balancing formal precision and communicative fluency—is one of the communicative approach's primary concerns.

In brief, the communicative approach focuses on developing students' communicative competence through interactive activities and communication.

➤ **Task-based syllabus**

Many studies have been conducted to determine what kind of syllabus will best promote the communicative approach to language instruction. According to some applied linguists, giving students carefully assessed exercises or "tasks" is the greatest way to foster communicative competence. A more sophisticated set of

communication abilities is needed as the activities get more complicated. Therefore, rather than being linguistically assessed, a communicative syllabus should be created based on the level of complexity of the tasks that students must do at various points during a course. Another name for a task-based syllabus is a procedural syllabus.

➤ **The Competency-Based Approach**

The CBA was introduced in the 1970s in the United States to achieve some specific goals. It is “an educational movement that focuses on the outcomes or outputs of learning in the development programs” (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p. 141). As the name suggests, CBA is based on ‘competency’ (less frequent) or ‘competence’. According to the Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2005), ‘competence’ means “the ability to do something well” (p. 294), whereas ‘competency’, as a technical noun, is “a skill that you need in a particular job or for a particular task” (p.294) (Cited in Kouti, 2021). In practice, ‘competence’ term is the equivalent to ‘know how to do’ or ‘know how to act’. Sometimes, the two terms are used interchangeably; however, for some researchers, there is a difference. When it comes to teaching, the implementation of this approach focuses on enabling learners to learn the English language through significant contribution of practical activities by putting them in situations similar to real ones outside the classroom. The aim, as it seems, is to develop the learners’ communicative competence, i.e. to make the learner use his/her knowledge in the right place and time. Language use, then, is of a great importance in this approach which is not different from the communicative approach.

➤ **Suggestopedia**

"Suggestopedia" is an approach to language learning based totally on "suggestology", the science of suggestion. It is related to the work of a Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator, Georgie Lozanov, on his early 1960s study of suggestion. This approach is primarily based on the view that the brain, in particular the right hemisphere, can be at once motivated via the power of suggestion. As a "teaching method", suggestopedia makes precise use of "relaxation exercises" designed to cast off any anxieties on the part of the learner which would possibly act as blocks to learning. The exercises include the use of visible images, music, rhythmic patterns as nicely as dialogues and translation exercise which are undertaken in comfortable and casual settings. No interest is paid to a student's grammatical errors. A primary intention is to assist learners experience that language studying is a positive and natural process. Great emphasis is positioned on growing a reassuring however stimulating surroundings for language learning. Teachers following Lozanov's suggestopedic strategies need to be expert in singing, acting and psychotherapeutic techniques.

Conclusion

Researchers have suggested different ideas and assumptions about language teaching and tried many methods. This process is going on for seeking the best ways to help language teachers better teach and learners better learn languages.

Questions:

1. Which approach/method do you find suitable for Algerian learners?

Explain.

2. What is the difference between the communicative approach as part of the functionalist approach and the other approaches/methods?

13.The Contribution of Discourse-Based Approaches to Language Teaching

In the second half of the twentieth century, applied linguists shifted their attention towards discourse (text) as the basic unit of analysis rather than the sentence (El Kouti, 2017). This tendency revealed the necessity to producing meaningful stretches of discourse. Cook (2003) argues that discourse analysis is “crucial to applied linguistic analysis in areas involving the development or assessment of language proficiency... and successful communication” (p. 52). Many approaches to language teaching and learning have incorporated discourse as a framework, mainly the communicative approach. Widdowson (1978; 1979) is one of the authorities in teaching language as communication who criticised the traditional teaching of language by saying that

... language teachers have tended to take their cue from the grammarian and have concentrated on the teaching of sentences as self-contained units...this assumption is of very doubtful validity indeed. It has been found...that students entering higher education with the experience of six or more years of instruction in English at the secondary, have considerable difficulty coping with language in its normal communicative use..., a knowledge of how the language functions in communication does not automatically follow from a knowledge of sentences. This role for English requires a new orientation to its teaching...What this orientation amounts to is a change of focus from the sentence as the basic unit in language teaching to the use of sentences in combination (1978 p. 87-88).

These new approaches made learners concentrate on various discourse features within any specified language activity. As a matter of fact, discourse analysis facilitates the negotiation of meaning and language processing. Moreover, in any

type of discourse, we have to use our background knowledge. It has been proved that effective communication is achieved when students study under an approach that combines both schematic and systemic knowledge. This can only be realised when students are given a full account of the socio-cultural dimension of the target language so as to enable them to make sense of themselves linguistically when they meet native speakers of that language. This is referred to as communicative competence which is the paramount objective to language teachers. Widdowson (1978) pointed out:

Once we accept the need to teach language as communication, we can obviously no longer think of language in terms only of sentences. We must consider the nature of discourse, and how best to teach it. Language teaching materials have in the past been largely derived from the products of theoretical sentence grammars. We now need materials which derive from a description of discourse; materials which will effect the transfer from grammatical competence, a knowledge of sentences, to what has been called communicative competence (p.88).

To clarify more, teaching language via the communicative approach implies the reliance on discourse analysis by creating suitable contexts for interaction, illustrating speaker/hearer and reader/writer exchanges, and providing learners with opportunities to process language within a variety of situations. To this end, there has been a focus on sociolinguistic features since they accompany any natural interaction (Olshtain & Celce-Murcia, 2001). They have been added to language materials and classroom activities. For this reason, there has been a focus on the participants in any communicative event. If real-life interactions are represented in the classroom, then, age, social status, and other personal characteristics of the interactants cannot be ignored, and learners are expected to

develop awareness of the linguistic choices which are related to such features. Simulated speech events represent real speech events that occur in natural interaction. In written texts, there has been a focus on the intended audience and the intended message of the author, to be deciphered by the reader.

➤ **Shared Knowledge**

Another notion is the one of shared knowledge. A discourse-based approach to language teaching relies heavily on this notion. Shared knowledge refers to the knowledge to which participants in an interaction can appeal before, during and after a communicative event, i.e., one's general knowledge of the world. Shared knowledge must include both general knowledge of the world and socio-cultural knowledge related to the target speech community whose language the learner is trying to acquire. Research in this field has shown that though the reliance on world knowledge is not always conscious, it impacts the communicative interaction by either making it easy or even blocking it.

Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2001) claim that while processing a text, readers rely on their background knowledge. It is considered as the conceptual knowledge that permits the interactants to communicate via the written text. Background knowledge refers to knowledge about everything a person knows: events, persons, etc which makes a conceptual framework for the interaction with the world (Marr & Gormley, 1982; Schallert, 1982 in *ibid*; Widdowson, 2007) including domain and discipline knowledge which is part of general content knowledge and knowledge of syntax, rhetoric and text structure as part of discourse knowledge (*ibid*).

In the case of written language, shared knowledge between both readers and writers includes besides writing conventions, familiarity with types of genre and rhetorical traditions (*ibid*). For this reason, language curricula planning should take into consideration the cross-cultural differences since students may come from different backgrounds, without forgetting the age factor.

In short, shared knowledge should be incorporated in modern language pedagogy. Any discourse-based approach should concentrate not only on linguistic and content knowledge, but also on context and discourse knowledge as well. Effective communication implies these types of knowledge and more.

➤ **Form and Function**

It has been agreed among researchers that readers should understand a piece of written discourse both propositionally and illocutionary, combining form and function interactively. In other words, readers should master and be aware of the formal and functional aspect of any piece of discourse. This is what Austin (1962) argued for in his lectures entitled '*How to do Things with Words*'. He stated that words are produced to do things, to fulfill some functions. The linguistics literature provides us with many insights in how to use language. At the beginning, the focus was on 'form'. Then, it shifted to function. However, there has been another shift towards the interpretation of grammatical forms depending on the linguistic or situational factors (McCarthy, 1991).

The building blocks of discourse-based approaches are discourse analysis, pragmatics, background knowledge and context besides notions such as bottom-up and top-down processing, information structure, thematisation and rhematisation, and genre and register.

Conclusion

As mentioned above, any language teaching programme should rely on discourse analysis, pragmatics, context, shared knowledge, background knowledge and other components since language is used in the main for communication.

Questions:

- What is the importance of discourse-based approaches in language teaching?
- What are the building blocks of a discourse-based approach?
- What is the difference between shared knowledge and background knowledge?

14. Intercultural Communication

Introduction

When people travel from a country to another, they need to communicate with people in the other country. Because each party has its own culture, they may face a problem in communication.

When people communicate, they share information, and this process of sharing information with people with different cultures is referred to as **intercultural communication** or **cross-cultural communication**. The aim of this lecture is to shed light on intercultural communication as a term and study.

I. What is Intercultural Communication?

Before answering this question, there is a need for defining *culture* and *communication*.

➤ Culture

Culture is best defined as a set of beliefs and values which are prevalent within a society (Carter, 1993). It embraces the habits, customs, social behavior, knowledge and assumptions associated with a group of people, and it should not be reduced to “foods, fairs, folklore, and statistical facts” (Kramsch, 1991 as Cited in Hinkel, 1999). Culture also describes the lifestyle of groups of people.

➤ Communication

According to the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, communication is “the exchange of ideas, information, etc. between two or more persons.” (p. 64). It is the sharing of understanding and meaning across cultures.

➤ **What is Intercultural Communication, then?**

The term **intercultural communication** refers *to the sharing of information between groups of people of different cultures*. As a **discipline**, it *studies how culture affects communication*. Intercultural communication (cross-cultural communication) is “an exchange of ideas, information, etc. between persons from different cultural backgrounds.” (The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, p. 92). In this sense, there are more problems in cross-cultural communication than in communication between two people of the same cultural background; in that, each participant may interpret the other’s speech according to his or her own cultural background. This may lead to communication breakdown when their cultural conventions are widely different.

Nonetheless, intercultural communication happens even between subgroups of the same country due to the existence of many dialects of the same language, ethnicities, etc.

➤ **Examples of intercultural communication**

- **An Algerian student studying in China**
- **An American working in Algeria**
- **A Muslim discussing with a Christian**

➤ **Intercultural Communication and Intercultural Communicative Competence**

The study of intercultural communication is about the study of cultural differences that really “makes difference” in intercultural encounters. It is also about acquiring the conceptual tools and skills to manage such differences (Ting-Toomey, 1999, p. 3).

➤ **Why study Intercultural Communication?**

There are practical reasons for studying intercultural communication such as global diversity trends, domestic diversity and interpersonal learning opportunities.

1. **Global Diversity Trends**
2. **Domestic Diversity**
3. **Interpersonal Learning Opportunities**

➤ **What is Intercultural Communication?**

Before defining intercultural communication, we define and talk deeply about culture:

Culture is “an elastic, dynamic concept that takes on different shades of meaning----depending on one’s perspective” (ibid, p. 9).

The term culture originates from the Latin word cultura or cultus as in “agri-cultura, the cultivation of soil. Later, it meant training, worship, fostering, adornment, etc. Then it was transformed into a state of being cultivated.

Culture is defined as

Learned systems, communicated by means of natural language and other symbols ... and capable of creating cultural entities and particular senses of reality. Through these systems of meaning, groups of people adapt to their environment and structure interpersonal activities ... Cultural meaning systems can be treated as a very large diverse pool of knowledge, or partially shared cluster of norms, or as intersubjectively shared, symbolically created realities (D'Andrade, 1984, p. 116 in *ibid*, p. 9).

First, the term culture in this case refers to a diverse pool of knowledge, shared realities, and clustered norms that constitute the learned systems of meanings in a particular society. Second, these learned systems of meanings are shared and transmitted through everyday interactions among members of the cultural group and from one generation to the next. Third, culture facilitates member's capacity to survive and adapt to the external environment (*ibid*).

➤ **Functions of culture**

- 1. Culture serves the identity meaning function.** (Cultural beliefs, values, and norms provide the anchoring points in which we attribute meanings and significance to our identities. For example, middle-class U.S. values, a person is considered “competent” or “successful” when he /she takes the personal initiative to realize his/her full potential.)
- 2. Culture serves the group inclusion function, satisfying our need for membership affiliation and belonging.** (Culture creates a comfort zone in which we experience in-group inclusion and in-group/out-group differences. Within our group, we experience safety, inclusion, and acceptance.)

3. **Culture's intergroup boundary regulation function shapes our in-group and out-group attitudes in dealing with people who are culturally dissimilar.** An attitude is a learned tendency that influences our behavior. Culture assists us to form evaluative attitudes toward in-group and out-group interactions.
4. **Culture serves the ecological adaptation function.** It facilitates the adaptation processes among the self, the cultural community, and the larger environment (i.e., the ecological milieu or habitat). When people adapt their needs and their particular ways of living in response to a changing habitat, culture also changes accordingly.
5. **Culture serves the cultural communication function, which basically means the coordination between culture and communication.** Culture affects communication and communication affects culture.

The anthropologist Hall (1959) states that culture is communication, and communication is culture. Through communication, culture is passed down, created and modified.

Cultural Communication

Cultural communication shapes the implicit theories we have about appropriate human conduct and effective human practices in a given socio-cultural context.

- Cultural communication provides us with a set of ideals of how social interaction can be accomplished smoothly among people within our community (Cushman & Cahn, 1985). It binds people together via their shared linguistic codes, norms, and scripts. Scripts are interaction sequences or patterns of communication that are shared by a group of people in a speech community.
- Cultural communication serves to coordinate the different parts of a complex system. It provides the people in a particular speech

community with a shared consensus way of understanding (Cushman & Cahn, 1985). It serves as the superglue that links the macro levels (e.g., family units, education, media, government) and micro levels (e.g., beliefs, values, norms, symbols) of a culture.

To sum up, culture facilitates and enhances individuals' adaptation processes in their natural cultural habitats.

II. Intercultural Communication in Relation to Applied Linguistics

Within applied linguistics (AL) and intercultural communication (ICC), many researchers view culture as “a preference for certain patterns of communicative behavior, though such patterns can only be interpreted at a higher level of abstraction” (Holliday, et al, p. 61). From a functionalist point of view, culture is the background and resource for the human who is only seen as the executor of functions. In this sense, culture is seen as either “behaviour” (e.g. x people never smile in public), or as “fixed values and beliefs”, separated from social interaction and socio-political realities (e.g. x culture values the elderly). This reductionism is a characteristic of AL and ICC studies; in that, ethnicities and cultural identities have been reduced to “a list of strange linguistic and interactional elements arranged in academic display, dislocated from the sources of their generation, from human agency, intelligence, politics and from the possibility of change” (Hewitt, 1989, pp. 6-9 in *ibid*, p. 62).

Culture is not symbolically ordered and the human subject is not an agency constituted through culture. Thus, in analytic terms, culture has become “the residual realm left over after all forms of observable human behaviour have been removed”(Wuthnow et al., 1984 in *ibid*).

1. Language Teaching and Intercultural Competence

“Learning a foreign language is not simply mastering an object of academic study but is more appropriately focused on learning a means of communication. Communication in real situations is never out of context, and because culture is part of most contexts, communication is rarely culture-free” (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999, p. 197). Therefore, learning about culture cannot be dissociated from language learning. For example, in Britain, as Byram (1993b, p. 15), the documents about foreign language teaching include the following broad objectives:

- the development of communicative competence for use in situations the learner might expect to encounter
- the development of an awareness of the nature of language and language learning
- the development of insight into the foreign culture and positive attitudes toward foreign people

These objectives must be integrated (ibid).

1.1. Intercultural Competence

The term culture can have different meanings. Some language teachers use the term to refer to cultural products (e.g. literary works) whereas others use this term to refer to background information such as facts about the history of countries where the target language is spoken. Besides the term “culture” also includes behavior and attitudes, and the social knowledge that people use to interpret experience. The communicative competence that include the four competences, grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic should be added the “intercultural competence”. The term “intercultural competence” has been used in social psychology and studies of communication. In this way, it is seen in social

effectiveness which means ‘the ability to achieve instrumental and social goal’ and appropriateness which refers to ‘suitable communication in a given situation in a particular culture’ (Martin, 1993 Cited in Cortazzi & Jin, 1999).

1.2. Intercultural Communicative Competence in Foreign Language

In foreign language learning, “intercultural competence” is ‘the ability of a person to behave adequately in a flexible manner when confronted with actions, attitudes and expectations of representations of foreign cultures’ (Meyer, 1991, p. 137 in *ibid*).

Coping with intercultural experiences entails a person possessing some intercultural competences and characteristics:

- the willingness to engage with the foreign culture
- self-awareness and the ability to look upon oneself from the outside
- the ability to see the world through the others’ eyes
- the ability to cope with uncertainty
- the ability to act as a cultural mediator
- the ability to evaluate others’ point of view
- the ability to consciously use culture learning skills and to read the cultural context and
- the understanding that individuals cannot be reduced to their collective identities

(Sercu, 2005)

The intercultural experience requires the revision of beliefs, concepts and attitudes that people have taken for granted. This process includes the following:

- changes in attitudes
- beliefs and
- values

This experience requires people:

- to revise their social identity
- to reconsider the ideas they have held about out-groups and
- to reconsider their position towards these out-groups since they have now themselves become members of the out-group.

The range of feelings experienced varies from anger and anxiety to excitement and relief. The source of these emotions comes from:

- fear of encountering something new
- excitement at the discovery of new and different ways of thinking
- relief through self-expression
- anger that a deeply held belief may have been challenged

The element of “surprise” is the cornerstone of the intercultural communication. How? Some may respond with envy and embarrassment; others with pleasure and appreciation. In fact, one of the consequences of intercultural experiences is that individuals retrench themselves in their pre-exposure beliefs and resist attempts to look at their own cultural systems from the point of view of ‘the other’. They may experience:

- a high level of ‘acculturative stress’
- feelings of marginality and alienation, identity confusion, and high levels of anxiety and depression

1.3. What do people need to learn for coping with intercultural contact situations?

In the context of foreign language learning, intercultural competence is linked to communicative competence in a foreign language (See above). In this case, intercultural communicative competence builds on communicative competence and enlarges it to incorporate intercultural competence.

➤ **Components of Intercultural Competence**

Intercultural competence is composed of: the knowledge, skills and attitudes besides the five “savoirs” (Byram, 1997):

- Savoirs with a plural ‘s’ constitutes the knowledge dimension of the conceptual framework.
Knowledge about social groups and their cultures in one’s own country, and similar knowledge of the interlocutor’s country on the one hand, and similar knowledge of the processes and interaction at individual and societal levels, on the other hand.
- Savoir-apprendre and savoir-comprendre together constitutes the skills dimension of the conceptual framework. Savoir-apprendre refers to the ‘the capacity to learn cultures and assign meaning to cultural phenomena in an independent way’. Savoir-comprendre is related to savoir-apprendre, and refers to the capacity to interpret and relate cultures.
- Savoir-faire refers to the overall ability in an interculturally competent way in intercultural contact situations, to take into account the specific cultural identity of one’s interlocutor and to act in a respectful and co-operative way.
- Savoir-être and savoir s’engager together refer to a general disposition that is characterized by (a critical engagement with the foreign culture under consideration and one’s own ‘ (savoir-s’engager) (Byram, 1997, p. 54) and ‘the capacity and willingness to abandon ethnocentric attitudes and perceptions and the ability to establish and maintain a relationship one’s own and the foreign culture (savoir- être)’.

1.4. Foreign Language and Intercultural Competence Teacher

In order to support the intercultural learning process, foreign language teacher need additional knowledge, attitudes, competencies and skills to the ones thought

of as necessary and sufficient for teaching communicative competence in a foreign language (Sercu, 2005). This process requires that teachers should have an adequate sociocultural knowledge of the target language community, frequent and varied contacts with it and a complete mastery of the pragmatic rules of use of the foreign language in contexts that may be considered that may be considered to belong to their professional sphere; for example, staying with a foreign colleague to organize class exchanges and/or e-mail contacts.

- They understand that cultural models differ.
- They are familiar with the levels of communication (notions, speech acts, non-verbal communication) at which intercultural misunderstandings may arise, and are able and willing to negotiate meaning where they sense cross-cultural misunderstanding.
- They define the objectives of foreign language education in terms of language learning and of intercultural competence acquisition.
- They are skilful creators of learning environments that promote their learners' acquisition of intercultural communicative competence.
- They can employ teaching techniques that promote the acquisition of the five (5) savors.
- They can help pupils relate their own culture to foreign cultures, to compare cultures and to empathise with foreign cultures' point of view.
- They are knowledgeable about their pupils' perceptions of and attitudes towards the foreign peoples and cultures associated with the foreign language they teach.
- They are willing to start from them when designing the learning process and know how to choose input materials with a view to modifying any wrongful perceptions learners may have.
- They know how to assess learning materials from an intercultural perspective and how to adjust these materials.

Conclusion

In sum, teachers of intercultural communicative competence need to be acquainted with basic insights from cultural anthropology, culture learning theory and intercultural communication. They need to be willing to teach intercultural communication and need to know how to do so.

Assignment:

- Summarise the lecture.
- Provide more examples of intercultural encounters.
- How can teachers develop their students' intercultural communicative competence?

15. Assessment

Introduction

When the evaluation of learning is based on class participation, progress tests, homework, and projects rather than final tests alone, this is referred to as “assessment” or “continuous assessment”. The main concern of this paper is to shed light on assessment and its types, and more.

1. Definition

According to the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, assessment is “the measurement of the ability of a person or the quality or success of a teaching course, etc. Assessment may be test, interview, questionnaire, observation, etc. For example, assessment of the comprehension of an immigrant child may be necessary to discover if the child is able to follow a course of study in a school, or whether extra language teaching is needed. Students may be tested at the beginning and again at the end of a course of study to assess the quality of the teaching on the course. (p. 23)

Assessment refers to the act of collecting information and making judgements about a language learner’s knowledge of a language and ability to use it. Although some people consider ‘testing’ and ‘assessment’ to be synonymous (Clapham, 1997 Cited in Chapelle & Brindley, 2010, p. 247). Many people use the term “assessment in a broader sense to include formal measurement tools which yield quantifiable scores as well as other types of qualitative assessment such as observation, portfolios and journals (ibid).

2. Types of Language Assessment Instruments

In order to properly construct an assessment instrument, it is essential to have an idea about what it is measured and how it might be labeled. Describing language assessment instruments is related to their primary function; that is, for

administrative, instructional or research purposes (Jacobs et al. 1981). The same test could be used for a variety of purposes. There are twelve purposes at least:

1. Five administrative purposes (assessment, placement, exemption, certification, promotion)
2. Four instructional purposes (diagnosis, evidence of progress, feedback to the respondent, evaluation of teaching or curriculum)
3. Three research purposes (evaluation, experimentation, knowledge about language learning and language use)

The average test is not intended to be used for more than several purposes, and the major split is often between **proficiency tests** intended for administrative purposes and **achievement tests** for assessment of instructional outcomes.

3. Norm-referenced and Criterion-referenced Assessment

A distinction is made between norm-referenced and criterion-referenced assessment.

a) Norm-referenced assessment

A test can be used, for example, to compare a respondent with other respondents, whether locally (e.g. in a class), regionally or nationally. Classroom, regional or national norms may be established to interpret just how one student compares with another.

b) Criterion-referenced assessment

A test can also be used to see whether a respondent has met certain instructional objectives or criteria. Criterion-referenced assessment is used both during and at the end of instruction. Robert Glaser (1963, p. 519-520) stated:

Achievement measurement can be defined as the assessment of terminal or criterion behavior; this involves the determination of the characteristics of student performance with respect to specified standards ... The scores obtained from an achievement test provide primarily two kinds of information. One is the degree to which the student has attained criterion performance, for example, whether he can satisfactorily prepare an experiment report ... The second type of information ... is the relative ordering of individuals with respect to their performance ... The principal difference between these two types of information lies in the standard used as a reference. What I shall call criterion.

The following table provides a summary of the key features of criterion and norm referenced assessment approaches:

Criterion-referenced assessments	Norm-referenced assessments
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • specify criteria or standards (eg. essential elements of a task), • judgements about performance can be made against set, pre-specified criteria and standards, • focus is on mastery with the achievement of a criterion representing a minimum, optimum or essential standard, • recorded via rating scale or set of scoring rubrics, and 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • do not utilise criteria, • assessment is competitive, • involves making judgements about an individual's achievement by ranking and comparing their performance with others on the same assessment, and

Criterion-referenced assessments	Norm-referenced assessments
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> examples include clinical skill competency tools. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> examples include examinations.

4. The communicative competence as a set of criteria for describing tests

Tests tap one or more of the four components making up the construct of communicative competence--- namely, grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competence. Grammatical competence encompasses “knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics and phonology (Canale and Swain 1980, p. 29). Discourse competence is the ability to connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances. Sociolinguistic competence involves knowledge of the sociocultural rules of language. Strategic competence refers to “the verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or due to insufficient competence” (ibid, p. 30). Bachman (1990) has broken down strategic competence into three components: an assessment component whereby the respondents set communicative goals, a planning component whereby the respondents retrieve the relevant items from language ability and their use, and an execution component whereby the respondents implement the plan.

Questions:

- What is the definition of assessment?
- What are the types of language assessment instruments?
- What is the difference between norm-referenced and criterion-referenced assessment?

16. Language Testing as Part of Language Assessment

Introduction

It is obvious that teachers not only do they teach, but also assess; that is, they need from time to time to check how well their learners are mastering and digesting the different aspects of the English language course. To this end, they select many ways to achieve their set objectives through different types of assessment. Testing is part of assessment and most of the time, teachers neglect the other types and focus only on testing. However, testing is not really understood properly by teachers, because of either lack of awareness of its importance in English language teaching or lack of knowledge of what testing is exactly and its requirements. The following will focus on testing as part of assessment and related elements, namely tests and their types, validity and reliability and testing challenges. Nonetheless, we shall begin by establishing the relationship between teaching and testing and making distinctions between testing and evaluation.

1. Teaching, Testing and Evaluation

In this section, we should stress the relationship between teaching and testing. Moreover, we should highlight the difference between testing and evaluation. Teaching and learning should be evaluated.

1.1. Teaching and testing

Although there exists an intimate relationship between teaching and testing, they are not considered as equivalents. However, according to Davies and Pearse (2000), some teachers transform teaching into a continuous test. Davies and Pearse (ibid, p. 169) provide the following example:

- **Teacher:** Where did you go in the holidays, Sofia?
- **Learner 1:** I didn't go anywhere.

- **Teacher:** Very good, very good. And you, Giovanni. Where did you go?
- **Learner 2:** I go to Scotland.
- **Teacher:** no, no, Giovanni, no.

From the above conversation, it seems that the teacher is not teaching but testing.

Teaching should be directed towards building up the learners' ability and confidence in using English for effective communication. "Especially when you are trying to develop fluency, it is very important that learners should not feel that they are being tested all the time" (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p.170), for this does not allow them to achieve fluency. Most teaching should not be seen as a test by the learners. However, you should evaluate performance and progress of the learners and your own teaching constantly. Therefore, evaluation is essential in teaching.

1.2. Testing and Evaluation

The two concepts of 'testing' and 'evaluation' are used interchangeably; however, they should be distinguished, and the distinction in English is important.

As a matter of fact, 'evaluation' is more general than 'testing'. You can evaluate teaching, teaching materials, tests and learning (ibid). Also, you can evaluate learning in several ways, not only with the formal tests given to the learners.

2. Tests and Testing

When we talk about testing, it is necessary to define it and explain what a test is and make a distinction between tests and examinations.

2.1. Language Testing Definition

Testing is the use of tests, or the study of the theory and practice of their use, development, evaluation, etc. Hedge (2000) states that testing is a term "that is not always used precisely" (p. 378). She defines it as "the specific procedures that

teachers and examiners employ to try to measure ability in the language, using what learners show they know as an indicator of their ability” (ibid). Carter (1993) defined language testing as “a process by which a student’s ability, knowledge, performance or progress in language use can be measured” (p. 68).

2.2. Test Definition

A **test** is a measuring device which we use when we want to compare an individual with other individuals who belong to the same group. For example, you may use a language test for comparing them in terms of their mastery of a foreign language.

Tests ... invite candidates to display their knowledge or skills in a concentrated fashion, so that the results can be graded, and inference made from the standard of performance in the test about the general standard of performance that can be expected from the candidate, either at the time of the test or at some future time (Ingram, 1974, p. 313)

2.3. Tests vs Examinations

The difference between tests and examinations is in the marking (Ingram, ibid); that is, in an examination, the marker must use his judgment, whereas in a test, the marking does not depend on the judgment of any individual. However, some of applied linguists such as Pilliner (1968) states that the only objective thing is the marking, i.e., it is subjective (ibid).

A test is carefully designed for a specific purpose whereas evaluation may be spontaneously and handled very flexibly. A test consists of one or more exercises or tasks, each with clear objective, learning’s evaluation “usually employs formal tests, but it may also include other options”. When the evaluation of learning is based on class participation, progress tests, homework, and projects rather than final tests alone, this is referred to as ‘assessment’ or ‘continuous assessment’.

Despite this fact, Hedge (2000) states that

tests are the main instruments for evaluation of learning in most teaching situations. “Good tests provide the opportunity for learners to show how much they know about language structure and vocabulary, as well as how they are able to use these formal linguistic features to convey meanings in classroom language activities through listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Tests of this type may be used as part of an integrated assessment system (p. 378).

2.4. Approaches to Testing

There are two main approaches to testing, according to Hedge (ibid). These are: the structuralist influence and the communicative influence.

➤ The Structuralist Influence

This approach to testing appeared in the late 1950s and early 1960s. It was based on knowing a language by knowing its structures or forms and the linguistic elements of lexis and phonology. This approach was influenced by the works of Lado and Carroll (1961) that affected test design. The test was considered as a set of separate parts such as discrete-point items as the following example from Heaton (1989):

Underline the correct option.

He may not come, but we'll get ready in case he ...

A. will B. does C. may

(Cited in Hedge, ibid)

This type of tests focuses only one aspect of language at a time, and is decontextualised. In fact, this type is also called ‘objective’ test.

➤ **The Communicative Influence**

The most influential approach to language testing suggested by applied linguists was the one of Canale and Swain (1980). They built their work on Hymes' communicative competence and identified its types, namely grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and later, discourse competence (Canale, 1983). Another influential work was the one of Bachman's (1990) model of communicative language ability--- the Bachman Model (McNamara, 2004). In his model, he recognised that strategic competence was understood as a general cognitive skill rather than These approaches characterised language use as interaction-based and stimulated by a specific communicative purpose. The tests of listening, speaking, reading and writing identified a number of features that were not measured in conventional tests. They incorporated important elements of authenticity of language context, situation and topic. The communicative purpose and language function was clearly specified in tests. Morrow (1977) illustrates as follows:

- Prior to the test the candidate is given a card which outlines a situation. He must invent a number of questions he would want to ask in that situation.

For example:

You arrive at Victoria Station in London to catch the train to Paris. You want to find out something from each of these people. What would you say?

- A passer-by in the station entrance
- The booking clerk
- Your friend who is travelling with you
- The ticket collector

3. Why testing

The purpose of testing is related to the objectives of the course, and requires from teachers test their learners.

4. Basic Aspects of Testing

When talking about testing, it is important to have an idea about the different types of tests, the criteria of testing and testing challenges.

4.1. Types of Test

The purpose of English language tests is to gather reliable evidence of what learners can do in English and what they know of English. This information may be required to different reasons, and these reasons govern the type of tests used. According to Davies and Pearse (2000) and Harmer (2012) and other researchers, there are five common types of test, each with a specific purpose. The following table summarises them.

Purpose type of test	Purpose
Placement test	To place new students in the appropriate course or level. These are essential in large institutions that frequently receive new students.
Diagnostic test	To find out learners' strengths and weaknesses at the start of a course. They allow the teacher to adjust his or her teaching to the needs of the group and individual learners. They are especially useful with mixed – level groups.
Progress tests (short-term achievement tests)	To check how well learners are doing after each lesson or unit, and provide consolidation or remedial work if necessary. They usually focus on language that has recently been introduced and practised.
Course tests (longer-term achievement tests)	To check how well learners have done over a whole course. These are the commonest basis for the marks teachers give learners at the end of each course. They are also the main concern in testing for most classroom teachers.

Proficiency tests	To determine learners' levels in relation to generally accepted standards. These are useful for the objective evaluation of learning, and also for the indirect evaluation of course design and teaching. The two best known systems of international proficiency tests are the UCLES exams and the TOEFEL tests.
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4.2. Designing Achievement Tests

When designing tests, teachers should consider a number of parameters, namely validity and reliability (McNamara, 2000). Professional test development and management involve “validity” and “reliability”, and the relationship between them.

Achievement tests are associated with the process of instruction at the end of a semester or a year (Harmer, 2012; McNamara, 2000). They aim at, as mentioned above, checking how well learners have done over a whole course. These tests can be considered to have validity if:

- it contains only forms and uses the learners have practised in the course.
- it employs only exercises and tasks that correspond to the general objectives and methodology of the course.

Harmer (2012) illustrates as follows:

Tests need to have validity. This means that if we tell the students that we are going to assess their writing, we shouldn't make it dependent on a lot of reading because they were not expecting a reading test. When we make achievement tests, we need to test things that the students have been learning (grammar, vocabulary, etc.), and we have to be sure that we use the same kinds of test items and tasks as the ones they have been using in their lessons (p. 195).

As mentioned above, a valid test, in short, should consist of:

- things that students have been learning and
- the same kinds of items and tasks they have been using in their lessons.

4.2.1. Validity Types

According to the literature, there are three main types of validity: content, construct and face, as follows.

➤ Content Validity

This means that the grammar, vocabulary, and functional content of a test should be carefully selected on the basis of the course syllabus. For example, if the students have not practised the present perfect test, they should not be tested on it. "the language content of the test should go outside the syllabus only when it is not significant in the exercise or task: for example, in a reading comprehension test, where the learners may actually have been encouraged to ignore incidental they do not know or to guess its meaning from context.

➤ **Construct Validity**

This means that the exercise and tasks in a test should be similar to those used in the course and correspond to the general approach of the course. If the learners have never practiced translating on the course, they should not have to translate a passage in the test. If the main aim of the course has clearly been to use grammar in natural discourse such as conversations, the grammar should not be tested only through grammar manipulation tests.

➤ **Face Validity**

According to McNamara (2000), face validity refers to “its surface acceptability to those involved in its development or use” (p. 50). In fact, face validity is about the extent to which a test appears to measure what it is intended to measure. In this case, if a test meets those expectations, we could say that it has strong face validity.

In sum, if a test conforms to these principles, it will probably be seen as fair by the teachers and the learners. If it does not, it will probably be considered unfair, and justifiably so.

4.2.2. Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of the scores that teachers give to learners (McKay, 2006). The idea is that we need to check that students get the same scores whether we or other assessors would give them for the same activity or question. Reliability, actually, refers to how far we can believe or trust the results of a test. As a teacher, you may question the reliability of a test when two of your own groups that you consider very similar in ability and achievement get very different results in the same test, one group doing well and the other badly.

According to Ingram (1974) a measuring device (test) should give the same results every time it is used on the same objects or individuals, regardless of who is giving and marking it. No results are reliable unless they are stable. The stability

of a test is measured by giving the test to a group of people, giving it to them again a short time later and then correlating the scores. Correlation is a statistical technique for comparing two sets of scores to see how far they correspond to each other. In this case, we would have a “test re-test” or “stability correlation of reliability”. Another kind of reliability used by statisticians is the “reliability of equivalence”. The results one gets from one kind of measuring device should be closely comparable to the results one would have got if one had used another, equivalent, measuring device.

A specific test exercise or task is normally reliable when:

- the instructions are clear and unambiguous for all learners.
- the exercise or task controls to some extent how learners respond, for example, it should be clear in ‘fill the gap’ exercises whether a single word or phrase is required.
- there are no errors in the test, for example, if the learners have to ‘select the best answer—a, b, c, d’ , there should not actually be two or more acceptable answers.

(Davies & Pearse, p. 173)

The reliability of a test also depends partly on how far it can be marked objectively. Multiple choice exercises, where the learners have to select the best answer from a choice of three or four, are purely objective by nature. One-word fill-in exercise—completion of a text with one word in each space---are purely objective when only one word is possible. But when many different words are possible, they are fairly subjective, requiring teachers to use their personal judgment. Composition marking is by nature highly subjective.

The reliability of a test also depends on its length and on how it is administered. A long test is usually more reliable than a short one. Any test provides a sample

of learners' English, and a small sample of something is less reliable than a large one.

- One group is given much more time than another.
- One group is helped by the teacher and another is not.
- Invigilation is strict in one group and not in another, so that there is a lot of copying or other types of cheating in the second group.

4.3. Balancing Validity and Reliability

A valid test for a course with communicative objectives should consist of exercises and tasks in which the learners use language in realistic contexts. For example, they could complete a dialogue, write a letter, and role-play an interview. These tasks would test (1) their ability to use specific grammar and vocabulary (the dialogue completion), (2) to use written English effectively (the letter-writing), and (3) understand and produce effective spoken English (the interview).

However, there is often a conflict between validity and reliability. The most reliable types of questions are multiple-choice. The learners produce no English themselves, but only recognize correct language. Their answers can actually be marked by a computer, with no need for any subjective human judgments. The least reliable types of task include precisely the letter-writing and the interview role-play proposed above. These have to be marked subjectively by human beings.

The solution reached by many teachers and institutions is a compromise. Some exercises in the tests are of an objective, recognition type, for example, multiple-choice. These can cover a range of grammar and vocabulary as well as listening and reading comprehension. Other exercises and tasks are of a more subjective type, involving production and the communicative use of include the possible

answers for fill-in and completion exercise, and criteria for marking composition and interview. This compromise also makes tests more practical. Multiple-choice exercise can usually be answered faster by learners and marked faster by teachers than production exercise and tasks.

5. Writing and Evaluating Achievement Tests

As a teacher, you may have to use course tests provided by your institution, or you may produce your own course tests. If the course tests are provided by the institution, you may still have opportunities to comment on them and make suggestions for modification. In addition, you may want to produce a number of short progress tests. The following ideas should help you write, modify, or give opinions on tests.

Tests should normally be designed for specific teaching-learning situations:

- Some situations may call for more objective language exercises such as ‘true’/’false’.
- Others may call for more communicative tasks.
- Some situations may permit quite long tests,
- Other ones may require short, easily administered tests because of a lack of time.

Nonetheless, as Harmer (ibid) points out, before you start writing a test, you need to list the following:

- what it is you want to measure and
- how to do it

For example, for testing syntax, we may use ‘reordering sentences’ items, and ‘putting pictures in order’ for testing comprehension. However, ‘reordering sentences’ does not test comprehension, and ‘putting pictures in order’ does not test syntax.

Another point is the balance of items (ibid). That is, you need to think about whether you want to include *discrete items* that test only one thing at a time such as a verb tense in all the questions, or you want to include more *integrative* tests such as ‘using a variety of items’ or where students should read and write.

One of the major points to be taken into consideration is rubrics. Rubrics or instructions should be written carefully and easily understood by the students (ibid). that is, each question should be accompanied by an example that will help students in answering the questions. For example:

Rewrite each of the following sentences using the word in parentheses so that they have the same meaning.

Example:

Adam was late, so he took a taxi. (because)

Adam took a taxi because he was late.

Another point of great importance and which does not happen except for research purposes is piloting. That is, tests can be piloted or tried out by giving them to colleagues or to students who are not going to do the tests afterwards (ibid). This process is going to show any change that could be made before the tests that take place.

5. Testing Challenges

- Many teachers are unaware of the importance of language testing.
- Many teachers lack knowledge of why to test, what to test and how to test.

- Some teachers misuse some testing methods. For example, in multiple choice questions, they give more than three choices, which is not appropriate. Only one of three choices must be correct.
- Some teachers use only one question for the whole test while neglecting so many points of the syllabus uncovered. It should be noted that the more a test includes many and a variety of questions, the more it is reliable. It is unfair to concentrate on only one lesson or part of a lesson. Teachers should give the opportunity to students to demonstrate their language ability and content comprehension.
- Some teachers argue for composition writing in examinations while they neglect the time constraints especially in the COVID-19 era. Moreover, according to many studies, composition writing is subjective on the part of the corrector. Furthermore, when some teachers favour composition writing, what action are they going to take? Are they going to give feedback to their students, and then help them reduce mistakes or do they just correct and submit the papers to the administration?
- Another challenge is online testing mainly in the pandemic era as the criteria of testing such as fairness, authenticity will be doubted. The educational system should reconsider the electronic assessment hindrances teachers are struggling with.
- The allotted time for examinations has also had a negative impact on the results' expectations. A one-hour exam is never sufficient if we consider the majority of students in terms of individual differences.

Those are some of the challenges that should be thought of and reconsidered by all parties, the administration and teachers.

Conclusion

Because of its great importance, language testing needs to be reconsidered mainly by English language teachers. In reality, there is a lack of awareness and

lack of knowledge on the part of English language teachers. In fact, they are required to gain knowledge and get benefited from the great available body of research. Many researchers have investigated the issue of language assessment in general and language testing in particular.

Assignment:

- What is the difference between testing and assessment?
- What are the main criteria of language testing?

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