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English Studies

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Fourth Year Pre-Service Teacher Training Students

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Chapter Three : Applied Linguistics in the Twenty First Century

Chapter Four : Applied Linguistics Implications and bi/multilinguality

Introduction :

The present course in applied linguistics is addressed to fourth year pre-service teachers; its content has been selected by the author after four years of teaching and research about the discipline.

The objective of the course being, however, the initial step in the course plan, has been submitted to several propositions based on several readings ; they were to meet both the students' needs, the module's merit, the discipline's disputed scope, and the position of other modules and disciplines without which applied linguistics (as a module and a discipline) could not be described.

Therefore, an elaboration of a programme in applied linguistics was to account for its nature as a historical event, a science, a module, and a research map for foreign language teachers.

1. About the Course Contents:

The course contains four chapters to deliver ten lectures along two semesters. The first chapter introduces applied linguistics from a historical point of view, and offers different definitions. These have been selected according to the variety of information, concepts and roles they bring to the whole content of the course.

Respectively, the second chapter reflects descriptions from history and the set of definitions in chapter one. It is based on theoretical models which exhibit interactivity within the foreign language teaching academy. Thanks to this interactivity, applied linguistics has been located in each model in relation to the role(s) it achieves in the teaching of languages. Similarly, other language sciences beside sociopolitical factors have been identified. In the last model, Stern includes missing information and concepts throughout an extended representation of the foreign language teaching project. In the third chapter, the need for a more practical visualization of theoretical knowledge was in each year of teaching observed by the teacher, and stimulated by learners' needs, the reason for which the third chapter shapes up concepts from chapter two and others new in relation to Grabe's twenty-first Century applied linguistics. In the last chapter an introduction to resisting issues that hamper foreign language teaching has been enhanced by Grabe's foreign language teaching in multilingual contexts. The chapter aims at stressing the position of translation in ELT, which though officially rejected, continues to exist as a mediating practice, and among the variety of drawbacks it reflects on learning are errors. The latter as another resisting issue has been devoted a whole lecture which is the last in the programme.

2. Objectives of the Course :

The course visualizes a variety of objectives, mainly :

1.   Understanding the relationship between an appelation and a science

2.   Understanding the role of linguistics in foreign language teaching/learning

3.   Discerning theory and practice in language teaching and research

4.   Introducing applied lingusitics as an interdisciplinary science, hence introducing other language sciences (psychology, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, sociology, anthropology, etc.).

5.   Contextualizing language teaching/learning

6.   Understanding sociopolitical factors in planning a language teaching theory.

7.   Reaching the conclusion that a teacher is also an applied linguist

8.   Disseminating research features in real life language teaching practices

9.   Updating perceptions about language teaching and learning

10.   Introducing students to a variety of concepts representing applied linguistics research.

11.   Visualizing language theories, teaching approaches and methods, learning theories, and context in the 21st Century applied linguistics.

3. About the Course Teaching Methods :

The teaching of the course contents varies according to the nature of the lecture in question. It is, however, always based on interactive entrances into the content. This one is based on questions, and references to the students' real life instances. The teaching is after that processed using You Tube videos, explanations, definitions, diagrams, and whiteboards. Extended information is detailed through handouts e-shared over the classroom and left open to further research and questions.

4. About the Learner :

The course contents and the teaching material enable the student to reach the following :

1.   The importance of linguistic knowledge

2. The place for sociolinguistics

3. Using concepts appropriately

4. Developing register

5. The importance of theory for language teaching

6. An active participation in the teaching design.

7. Developing reflection

8. Developing humanistic behaviour

9. Developing academic self-esteem

5. Reflection on Assessment of Learning Outcomes :

Before students are to take examinations in the module of applied lingusitics, they need to go through assignments after each lecture. These assignments introduce the student to the different kinds of questions and the different ways to answer them beside the clarity they add to their understandings/misunderstandings.

Preliminaries :

An introduction into applied lingustics would never exist without introducing its roots in the components of language teaching : theory of language, teaching approaches and methods, learning theories, and context.

I. Theory of Language (refer to the module of linguistics for further details) **:**

'Three theoretical views of language and the nature of language inform current approaches and methods in language teaching' : the first in appearance is the *structural* view. It focuses on the learning of the systematic structure of language, to mean : 'phonological units (e.g.phonemes), grammatical units (e.g.clauses, phrases, sentences), grammatical operations (e.g.adding, shifting, joining, or transforming elements), and lexical items (e.g. function words and structure words)' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986 :17). Among the teaching methods that embody the use of this view, the 'Audiolingual Method' (defined below).

The second view of language is the '*functional* view' ; it considers language as a means of communication, which constructs meaning throughout function. This view focuses on the learners' needs behind learning a foreign language, as is the case with ESP (English for Specific Purposes). The language teaching contents focus on the function of linguistic structures in relation to context. Furthermore, 'Wilkins's Notional Syllabuses[1] (1976) is an attempt to spell out the implications of this view of language for syllabus design. A notional syllabus would include not only elements of grammar and lexis but also specify the topics, notions, and concepts the learner needs to communicate about' (Richards and Rodgers (1986 :17)). Respectively, The communicative approach to language teaching is the approach which recommends this view of language.

Another view of language is called 'the *interactional* view'. In this sense, language is considered as a social vehicle thanks to which social relationships are construed and maintained. The language teaching content may either comprise interaction models or left unspecified. The content can then be informed by the interactants, who are teachers, learners, and other social actors.

The three theoretical views seem to compose a complete foreign language teaching methodology. Nevertheless, they could not exist without the support of language learning theories, mainly : Behaviourism, Cognitivism, Constructivism, and Humanism.(refer to definitions below, and to the modules of psychopedagogy and Didactics).

II. Foreign languageTeaching Methods (refer to Didactics):

1. The Grammar Translation Method

At the beginning of the twentieth century, second (foreign) languages were mainly taught by the Grammar- Translation Method which had been in use since the late eighteenth century. This method was maintained from its antecedent teaching of the Latin language. It was mainly focused on the vocabulary, grammar rules, and translation-based practices which targeted the learning of the language throughout the translation of sentences from the mother tongue(L1) into the second language (L2) and vice-versa. A number of characteristics explained the objective behind the teaching of a foreign language by the Grammar-Translation Method :

1. Learners were expected to develop abilities of reading literary texts in this language, and develop 'mental disciplines' when exposed to the foreign language.

2. Learners were first taught grammar rules and asked to rely on translation and put into practice those rules. They were implicated in a kind of memorization of rules and facts in order to grasp morphological and syntactic ties. In other words, the recall to the first language was almost present.

3. As opposed to the speaking skill which was almost absent as a learning objective, the writing and the reading skills constituted the goals and the means of foreign language learning.

4. In a grammar-translated text, learners are exposed to related vocabulary making use of bilingual dictionaries and word lists, grammar rules, and translation practices are prescribed.

5. The sentence was considered, in terms of length and structure, as the most suitable unit in language thanks to which this teaching and learning could be easily achieved.

6. Accuracy in using translation was a standard in formal examinations, and was considered to have an elementary value in the evaluation of foreign language writing abilities.(Howatt, 1984 :132 in Richards and Rodgers (1986 :4).

7. Grammar rules were taught systematically.

8. The mother tongue /the learner's first language was the medium of instruction which permitted comparison between the two systems.

   Though teachers, by the Grammar-Translation Method, needed not to devote too much energy to achieve successful teachings and learnings, this method could not realize theoretical and practical achievements to respoond to the set of encountered issues in foreign language teaching/learning, and thus it has had no enriching literature during its process of existence. Consequently, in the mid and late ninteenth century, the method was facing opposition from different European countries which exposed a pertinent need for oral communcation among Europeans and enhanced the promotion of foreign language communicative skills. An elaborated foundation of a Reform Movement was mainly initiated by collaboration between reform-minded teachers and linguists.

 2. The Reform Movement :

   From the 1880's, 'the discipline of linguistics was revitalized, Phonetics - the scientific analysis and description of the sound systems of languages - was established, giving new insights into speech processes' (Richards and Rodgers,1986 :.7). Speech was assumed by linguistics to be the basic form of language in comparison to written words. In 1886, the International Phonetic Association[2] was founded, and its International Phonetic Alphabet[3] (IPA) was designed to achieve accuracy in the transcription of isolated sound units. The Association primary attempt was to develop the teaching of modern languages throughout :

1. 'the study of the spoken language;

2. phonetic training in o rder to establish good pronunciation habits;

3. the use of conversation texts and dialogues to introduce conversational

phrases and idioms;

4. an inductive approach to the teaching of grammar;

5. teaching new meanings through establishing associations within the target

language rather than by establishing associations with the mother tongue'. (from Richards and Rodgers(1986 :7).).

   These principles and others were preparing the foundations of an elaborated approach to language teaching, especially based on the scientific study of language (linguistics) and the

learning of the language (psycholinguistics) introducing the lines of a new discipline named 'applied linguistics'.

Continuously, promoters of the Reform Movement had been inclined towards a teaching/learning method which could realize similar results as the direct way of learning, which was especially adopted by children throughout acquisition(based on listening and speaking); the method was called 'the Diret Method'.

3. The Direct Method :

One of the nineteenth century reformers who attempted to build a methodology of language teaching was Gouin; his method was based on the observation of child's language learning. Moreover, L. Sauveur (1826-1907) was also one of the reformists who advocated a similar approach to foreign language learning, which was a natural way when also referring to the child's language learning, by 'applying natural principles to language classes'. His method was based on classroom interactions in the foreign language, especially throughout questions, simple language forms and functions. His method became later known as the 'Natural Method'(Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

The promoters of these methods could not see any utility of both translation and the first language (L1) to teach the foreign language. The most important element in this learning was the perception of meaning (understanding) throughout open communication. In this regard, the German scholar Franke enhanced in his writings a direct association between form and meaning (1884), and enhanced a methodology for monolingual teaching. According to Franke and the advocators of this method, teachers should focus on unplanned and 'spontaneous' classroom communication. This teaching way was generally assisted by body language, pictures, available vocabulary, etc. According to Richards and Rodgers(1986), Sauveur and Berlitz used the method in commercial language schools and realized successful learnings in the United States of America. Note that Berlitz had never used the appelation 'Direct Method', instead it was the 'Berlitz Method'. Its characteristics and principles were mainly the following:

1. 'Classroom interaction was conducted exclusively in the target language.

2. Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.

3. Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.

4. Grammar was taught inductively.

5. New teaching points were introduced orally.

6. Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas.

7. Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.

8. Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized'. (in Richards and Rodgers, 1986 :11).

However, through the history of the teaching of freign languages worldwide, the Direct Method had featured a number of failures at the level of learning. It was mainly pronunciation –focused, and local teachers could not replace native speakers. On their turn, native speakers could not largely be afforded for this purpose. The method was also communication-based, however, no interaction practices could adequately apply to classroom realities as for real-life communicative situations. To conclude it in Richards and Rodgers' words (1986 :11) : 'The Direct Method offered innovations at the level of teaching procedures but lacked a thorough methodological basis'.

The failure of the method was subsequently recovered by the proposition of another one called the 'Audiolingual Method'

4. Towards an Audiolingual Method :

In the 1920s and 1930s applied linguists attempted to codify the Reform Movement's principles to later initiate the British approach to teaching English as a foreign language. The situation has distinctively developed 'audiolingualism' in the United States and the 'Oral Approach' or 'Situational Language Teaching' in Britain. In the latter, an attempt to revise the principles of the Reform Movement planned for an oral approach to teaching English, hence the expert's interests were mainly addressing a content design of a language course (Palmer 1917,1921) in Richards and Rodgers (1986 :31).

At the level of vocabulary, an important number of language teaching specialists, among whom Palmer, believed that vocabulary was one of the signifiant aspects of language learning. Respectively, the design also reflected a specific focus on reading skills.

At the level of grammar, the oral approach was also administered for the teaching of the grammar of the foreign language with a special focus on the classification of sentence structures, hence sentence patterns of the spoken language. The latter mainly served the internalization of English sentence structure rules. The idea was a counterpart to the 'abstract'

grammar teaching model under the Grammar-Translation Method, which was essentially refering to the basic 'universal logic' that cheracterizes all languages ; the product of controversies about the habit-formation method which ended with empowered opposition to the structuralists' view of language, especially after Chomsky's (1959) cognitive theory which adheres language learning to innate abstract rules enabling children to understand the way languages work ; these constituted what he named 'Universal Grammar'(4). The latter assumption shaped a teaching methodology which under the teacher's responsibility aimed at representing categories of the universal grammar in the foreign language.

However, grammar and vocabulary in a course's content design, and under the oral approach seemed to have considered some aspects of knowledge about language and language use for the teaching/learning of foreign lnguage ; they are mainly conceived in a situation.

4.1 The Oral Approach and Situational Lanaguage Teaching :

The leaders of the oral approach mainly stressed its difference from the Direct Method. The latter was a teaching way which acknowledged a language learning via acquistion, and which recommended a frequent exposure to foreign language practices,however, the method did not account for the language situations which controlled different language structures. Patterson (1964 :4) in Richards and Rdgers (1986 :34) put it as follows :

> An oral approach should not be confused with the obsolete Direct Method, which meant only that the learner was bewildered by a flow of ungraded speech, suffering all the difficulties he would have encountered in picking up the language in its normal environment and losing most of the compensating benefits of better contextualization in those circumstances.

Therefore, the word 'contextualization' in Patterson's would aim at understanding grammatical and lexical features in a foreign language in relation to real-life situations.

By *situation* is meant visual and concrete ingredients of real environments , the whole assisted by body language and action to help construct new meanings.

The following are some of the Oral Approach's cherecteristics :

1. The spoken language should precedes the written one. Hence, a language content is first taught orally.

2. Monolingual teaching (The language taught is also the language of intruction).

3. 'New language points' are presented and practiced situationally.

4. A special focus on 'general service vocabulary' (selection)

5. The teaching of grammar upgrades from less complexe forms to more complexe ones (gradation).

6. Reading and writing would be focused once lexical and grammatical knowledge is etimated enough for further language practices and knowledge. (in Richards and Rodgers (1986 :34).

Noteworthily, the third feature became the mostly stressed one in the sixties, and the use of the term 'situational' begun to spread in use to become a key item in the oral approach teaching under the common appelations 'situational Language Teaching' and 'situational approach'.

4.2 The Audiolingual Method :

Once confronted to the multilingual circumstances of World War II, the United States had to respond to governmental and administrative needs especially through resolving communication problems at that time, and which necessitated foreign language teaching sessions thanks to which the personnel could translate from and into languages like : German, French, Italian, Chinese, Japanese, Malay, and other languages. Therefore, a special foreign language training program was installed at the level of universities to train military personnel. 'The Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) was established in 1942, and fifty-five American universities were involved in the program by the beginning of 1943' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986 :45).

Under the new circumstances, the learning of foreign languages necessitated a new teaching approach. It was mainly thought of by linguists as Bloomfield who worked with his colleagues through the 'informant method'. Under this one, both linguists and students had to take part of communications with a native speaker (the informant) and process a foreign language learning.

The Army Method adopted for the teaching of foreign languages lasted two years and reverberated subsequent discussions about the teaching of foreign languages for the next ten years. Similar to the Direct Method, this one relied on an intensive oral-based approach ; however, no clear methodology was administered to ensure this teaching, as linguists during the war were not primarily interested in the teaching of the language.

As America became an international power, the teaching of English as a foreign language needed a special attention and a more elaborated programme. University students were required

to fulfill qualifications in the English language before they could process academic specialties. Therefore, a new teaching methodology was taking the surface, it was 'Audiolingualism'.

 In 1939 the first English Language Institute took place at the University of Michigan to train teachers of English and to teach English as a foreign language. 'Charles Fries, director of the institute, was trained in structural linguistics, and he applied principles of structural linguistics to language teaching (**the first traits of applied linguistics (see chapter one**).'He opposed the Direct Method principles, as he believed that grammar and structure were the basics for foreign language learning and needed to be the first components of language that a student learns through sentence patterns and grammatical structures. This learning was based on intensive oral drilling which beside a focus on basic sentence patterns also focused on pronunciation.

 The teaching of English as a foreign language consistently spread over different American universities like Georgetown University, the University of Texas, and Washington; and American linguists became leading figures in supervising EFL teaching programmes abroad.

 During this process, the American methodology of EFL was nearly similar to the British Oral Approach. A small difference developed by the American Oral Approach went back to its major connection with American structural linguistics which emphasized comparative approaches to language learning. In other words, the target language system was compared with the first language system (the mother tongue) (detailed in Lado's contrastive analysis in the last chapter) ; the idea meant to learning the foreign language throughout discerning the similarities and the differences between the two grammatical and linguistic systems, intending to project the resolution of foreign language learning issues. The idea has ended with a variational teaching approach : the Oral Approach, the Aural-Oral Approach, and the Structural Approach. This one sequenced basically an aural training, pronunciation training, then a following space for speaking, reading, and writing. In this process, 'language was identified with speech, and speech was approached through structure.' (Richards and Rodgers (1986 :47). Therefore, throughout the fifties, this approach conducted to important realizations as to the way English as a foreign language (EFL) and other languages were taught in the United States. For the teaching of EFL, a first important step was held by the University of Michigan through its Language Learning Journal. The latter appeared during a period wherein linguistics was estimated as the foundation of language teaching ; therefore, expertise in liguistics was also expertise in language teaching (Richards and Rodgers,1986).

However, the time teaching approach only discerned a focus on linguistic analysis (structure, grammar, morphology, lexis, pronunciation, etc.) for material design, especially by Fries and linguists, while disregarded an elaborated pedagogy. Hence an extended attention to the learning theory that could harmonize with the Oral-Aural Approach. Linguists at that time seemed to assume that intensive practice would idealize learning ; the idea was, however, not officially labelled. The coexistence of the components and modes of foreign language teaching during this period, along the 'state-of-the art psychological learning theory in the mid-fifties' emerged in the advocacy of the method that came to be known as Audiolingualism.(Richards and Rodgers, 1986 :47).

By the end of the fifties, and under World War II conditions, the U.S. Government launched an emergency for a more consistent foreign language methodology which would improve in quantity/quality and in a shorter time the use of a number of foreign languages. The idea was responsively intending to adjust the U.S. scientific position to the most advanced world powers, especially after the first Russian satellite was launched in 1957.

The National Defence Education Act (1958) financially supported the study and analysis of modern languages, their relevant teaching materials, beside the training of qualified teachers who were to teach in the new linguistically based teaching methods. The latter drew some of its features from the earlier army programs, the Aural-Oral/ structural approach by Fries and other linguists, coequipped with behaviourist insights. The result of the combination : 'structural linguistic theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral procedures, and behaviorist psychology' shaped up the Audiolingual Method.(Richards and Rodgers,1986).

Having been in extended use, the audiolingual method have brought up a series of realizations for the teaching of foreign languages in the United States, and the teaching of English as a second language, among which *English 900* courses and the *Lado English series.* However, the method could not escape criticism targeting the language theory (based on structuralism), and noticeable defficiencies as to the expected application of acquired linguistic knowledge to conduct acts of communication. Therefore, the need for a subsequent approach was already conceived by experts at that time, especially to discern the communicative facet of foreign language learning.

5. The Communicative Approach :

The preceding situation processed a 'comùmunicative' approach to language teaching. In the mid-1970's, this approach developed further concerns especially focusing on the second/foreign language 'learners' needs' (needs analysis)[7] highlighting the function of meaning in relation to those needs, including 'the relevant concepts (notions) and uses of language (functions)' (Howatt, 1999 :624) in Schmitt (2010 :5). In other words, Krashen's'Monitor theory' which assumed that language is unconsciously acquired from the learner's environment which offers 'comprehensible input', focused on large classroom exposure of learners to meaningful communicative practices which do not hamper their understandings, hence their motivation ('affective filter') (the idea will be reseen in the last chapter). This theory of language learning, and pedagogical approach were mainly centered around 'language fluency rather than grammatical accuracy'. Respectively, in the early 1970's, Hymes (1972) came up with an additional concept, 'communicative competence'(5), which beyond grammar rules and language structure, focuses on the knowledge of 'when and where to use these sentences and to whom' (Richards, Platt and Weber, 1985 :49 in Shmitt (2010 :5). The situation switched from an importance attributed to language 'correctness' ('accuracy') to an appropriate use of language in relation to context ('appropriacy'). At the same time, Halliday's (1973) systemic-functional grammar(6) was offering an alternative to Chomsky's approach, in which language was seen as more than an internal system, it is 'a means of functioning in society' fulfilling three types of function according to Halliday (1973) :

-ideational (telling people facts or experiences)

-Interpersonal (maintaining personal relationships with people)

-textual (expressing the connections and organization within a text, for example, clarifying, summarizing, signalling the beginning and end of an argument).(Schmitt (2010 :5). Pedagogically, the proposed practices in this kind of learning were arranged to enhance 'problem-solving' situations and 'tasks'. (Schmitt, 2010 :6).(developed in chapter three).

Other kinds of practice involved the exposure of learners to some contents in the target language, which were not necessarily language –related, for instance, the history of technology, natural disasters, etc. Learners were required to acquire the foreign language from their understanding of those contents, with no' explicit instruction' aiming at teaching the language.(Schmitt,2010 :6). However, after reassessment, the learners' language proved not to be error-free, hence the introducttion of explicit instruction was elementary for the focus on

form and accuracy in language use, while the communicative teaching approach was maintained.(see chapter three).

6. Implementing Sociocultural Dimensions in Foreign Language Teaching :

In the late 1960's, Labov (1970) investigated the impact of social factors on the use of the first language L1. A similar approach was conducted by Tarone (1979) and other experts with the use of the second/foreign language use. The investigation was an initiation to the discipline of sociolinguistics, and a special reference to the role of context in language use was stressed.

The idea is that the context in which language is used (to mean : the purpose of language use, the kind of relationship between language users) impacts the way language is used. (Schmitt, 2010)

Therefore sociolinguistics contributed to the appearnce of 'pragmatics'[8], and 'discourse analysis'[9] and all together have emphasized the role of social and contextual parameters in relation the learner's use and learning of the foreign language.

These were aspects of 'sociocultural theory' (cognitive theory) which dually emphasized the internal (biological) mechanisms and mental processes of the individual beside the interpersonal relationships between the same individual and their environment. This combination is necessary for the understanding of the human mind. The idea is that social interaction contributes to the development of language and cognition (Schmitt ,2010 :8).

III. Learning Theroies :

Three approaches to language learning have been distinguished to understand the way learning is activated, processed, and maintained : Behaviourist, Cognitivist, and Constructivist.

1. The Behaviourist Approach :

Two major elements explain the behaviourist approach to language learning : 'stimulus' and 'response'. The former, generally enhanced by the teacher, vehicles the learning attention by raising a certain need to reaction from the learner. Eg : An elemental EFL learner may be introduced to the past progressive throughout the rule : to be(past)+ v(ing)(Stimulus), thanks to which he could find out past progressive forms in a proposed text (Response).

In this case, 'The learner is characterized as being reactive to conditions in the environment as opposed to taking an active role in discovering the environment' (Ertmer and Newby (2013)).

Moreover, behaviourism is characterized by the ability of the learner to transfer knowledge throughout generalization. In other words, the past progressive in this example helps understanding a present progressive, using the same rule with 'to be' in the present.

Though, this learning approach has marked a considerable part of the foreign language learning history worldwide, it has proven not to develop the learner's language and learning skills, as put by Schunk : 1991 : '….. However, it is generally agreed that behavioral principles cannot adequately explain the acquisition of higher level skills or those that require a greater depth of processing (e.g.language development, problem solving, inference generating, critical thinking) (in Ertmer and Newby (2013)).

Respectively, in the late 1950's, another learning approach sought to consider the defficiencies of behaviourism with a major focus on the learner's cognition, 'Cognitivism'.

2. The Cognitivist Approach :

The cognitivist learning theories target a more complexe attitude towards the learning process, with focused attention on the mental participation in information processing and critical thinking, as claimed by Snelbecker (1983): 'Psychologists and educators began to de-emphasize a concern with overt, observable behavior and stressed instead more complex cognitive processes such as thinking, problem solving, language, concept formation and information processing' (in Ertmer and Newby (2013)).

Accordingly, the shift from behaviourism to cognitivism especially implied a shift from material manipulation (stimulus) –based instruction to a kind of instruction with which the learner needed to interact (Merrill, Kowalis, & Wilson, 1981 in Ertmer and Newby (2013). In other words, this shift mainly addressed the active particiaption of the learner in the management of the instruction *per se,* especially by changing his learning strategies. Hence, the learner is able to manage the knowledge acquistion throughout mental organization, classifiaction, and storing, and (Winne, 1985) stresses that this kind of learning is importantly influenced by the learner's'attitudes', 'beliefs', and 'values'.

As for behaviourism, cognitivism needs to be enhanced by instruction throughout specific techniques that help learners recall prior knowledge, these like : 'analogies', 'hierarchical' relationships and 'matrices' (Ertmer and Newby (2013)). Knowledge is a key element in the

cognitive theory. When the learner well understands a rule or a concept, this means that they have been successful in shaping knowledge about something, hence its transfer will become easy and will be correct when applying to different situations ; the learner would have simultaneously developed the ability to shaping the limits of this knowledge.(consider as an example, the learning of tense in a grammar lesson).

To conclude, the key difference between behaviourism and cognitivism is that in the former the teacher's instruction is based on an organized environment, while in the second, the teacher's instruction follows a strategic processing of knowledge.

III.Constructivism :

In the constructivist theory there is basic focus on the construction of meaning from the learner's personal experiences. In other words, meaning is not acquired, rather it is build by subjective interpretations of different contexts.

By the constructivist theory, the learner develops and changes knowledge in relation to their own experiences, the reason for which instruction needs to rely on tasks and practices that reflect these experiences. Brown, Collins, and Duguid (1989) claim that 'situations actually co-produce knowledge (along with cognition) through activity'.

Respectively, in this kind of instruction, the learner is oriented to using their cognitive tools to take information, develop its interpretation (s), and understand it (them) in relation to different situations. The learning is well supported by real-life examples and interactions, in addition to factual contents and knowledge. The idea intends to develop learning abilities that engage the learner in the resolution of teaching/learning problems, and other external real-life problems. The reason for which in constructivist instruction, collaborative works and social negociations like discussions and debates are promptly recommended.

The classification of foreign language learning theories remains a theoretical one, as in practice, the three of them have contributed to at least one phase of the learning process. Moreover, the nature of the theories being based on mental representations and presentations, have partly overlapped their functions and participations in this process.

To conclude, the introduction of pre-service teachers to applied linguistics will show to have stemmed in four basics of language teaching/learning : theories of language, approaches to language teaching, theories of language learning, and context. Their existence goes back to the eighteenth century where applied linguistic aspects begun to take ground.

Endnotes to Preliminaries

(1).A type of syllabus which has been developed since the 1970s for use in foreign language teaching, organized on the basis of the sentence meanings and functions which a learner needs in order to communicate-notions such as time, location, and quantity, and functions such as requesting and persuading. A notional syllabus contrasts primarily with the traditional approach, where the basis of orgaznization is a graded series of grammatical structures (**a structural syllabus**). It also contrasts with a **situational syllabus**, where the content is organized into a series of language-using situations, such as the airport, bank, or shops. (from Crystal (1999)).

(2).An organization founded in 1886 by a group of European phoneticians to promote the study of phonetics. It devised the **International Phonetic Alphabet**. (from Crystal(1999)).

(3). First published in 1889, and last revised in 1989, which has become the most widely used system for transcribing the sounds of a language. Both organization and alphabet use the abbreviation IPA. (from Crystal(1999)).

(4).A grammar which tries to establish the defining (universal) characteristics of human language. from Crystal(1999)).

(5). Aperson's unconscious knowledge of the rules governing the appropriate use of language in social situations. It is usually contrasted with linguistic competence, the person's unconsious knowledge of the formal patterning of language. Communicative competence includes our formal knowledge of language, but in addition includes our awareness of the factors which govern acceptable speech, such as how to begin and end conversations, how to interrupt, how to address people, and how to behave in special speech situations (e.g.apologizing, thanking, and expressing formality or informality) (from Crystal(1999))..

(6). A grammatical theory developed by Michael Halliday from scale and category grammar, in which the notion of paradigmatic relationship or **system** is made the central explanatory principle. Grammar is concerned to establish a network of systems of relationships which will account for all the semantically relevant choices in the language. The emphasis of the theory is on the way language functions in the act of communication, and on the choices which speakers as they interact in speech situations. (from Crystal(1999)).

(7) also needs assessment. (in language teaching and language programme design) the process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities. Needs assessment makes use of both subjective and objective information (e.g. data from questionnaires, tests, interviews, observation) and seeks to obtain information on:

a the situations in which a language will be used (including who it will be used with).

b the objectives and purposes for which the language is needed

c the types of communication that will be used (e.g. written, spoken, formal, informal)

d the level of proficiency that will be required.

Needs assessment is a part of curriculum development and is normally required before a syllabus can be developed for language teaching.

(8). The study of language from the point of view of the users-especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction, and the effects their use of language has on the other participants in an act of communication. (from Crystal(1999)).

(9).The study of continuous stretches of language longer than a single sentence ; also called **dicourse linguistics**. It especially investigates the organization of such general notions as conversations, arguments, narratives, jokes, and speeches, looking out in particular for linguistic features which identify the structure of the discourse (**discourse markers**), such as Imean to say or well, anyway. The term has been used to apply to both spoken and written language, but some authors restrict it to speech, and deal with the structural organization of writing under the heading of **text**. (from Crystal(1999)).

Chapter One

Introducing Applied Linguistics to Pre-Service Teachers

Lecture One : Historical Perspectives

Timing : 1h and 30 mnts

1. Introduction :

The present lecture major objective is to introduce learners to the historical context within which applied linguistics emerged and defined its historical developments. Learners would be processing the beginning and the life of mainly a pedagogical science whose function could be perceived once its past grasped.

2. Historical Overview :

The first appearnce of 'applied linguistics' appelation dates back to the 1940's in the USA in reaction to the need of practising the almostly-unknown languages of the Pacific by the Second World War soldiers. During that time, specialists in the field of linguistics were to find teaching theories that could resolve practical language problems. Fries and his colleagues used insights from structural linguistics to teach foreign languages. Since then, the combination applied linguistics was specifically meant to apply analytical language theories (from linguistics) to the teaching of foreign languages. However, this attempt required a plan to training language teachers, and the first initiative was advanced by the University of Michigan which published the journal of *language Learning : A Quarterly Journal of Applied Linguistics ;* the journal came into existence during a conference held by Charles.C. Fries discussing issues related to Fries' English Language Institute founded in 1941. In a subsequent step, the 1950's witnessed the great foundation of the School of Applied Linguistics in the University of Edinburgh. The school was designed to train language teachers in serving knowledge about linguistic systems for pedagogical purposes. The advocacy of the elaboration of an applied linguistic tradition evolved continuously to reach the other side of the Atlantic where, in Washington, The Center for Applied Linguistics got installed. The Center targeted energetical consideration of the teaching of the English language and other languages, beside its interest in the way language use academically evolves.

A number of international organizations devoted their basic concerns to applied linguistic research and studies these like :

The **AILA** (The International Associaltion of Applied Linguists) founded in 1973.

The **AAAL**(The American Association for Applied Linguistics) founded in 1977.

Subsequently, the tradition of applied linguistic interests was oriented towards the teaching sphere.However, under the assumption of treating language-related problems, applied linguistics has become the science of all disputed situations in which language is at the center. Respectively, Different studies took part of applied linguistics journals like *Applied Linguistics (1980) and Annual Review of Applied Linguistics (198*1).

3. The Emergence of an Applied Science

When linguists believed an application of linguistic principles to foreign language teaching could resolve the question of communication during the 1940's, the audiolingual approach was introduced under the belief of acquiring language throughout intensive repetition. Linguistics was then a source discipline whose task was to formulate theories, rules, and descriptions which are specific to a given language. The applied linguist (linguist, language teaching specialist) acted as a mediator whose task was to infuse all language tools provided by linguistics within a pedagogical practice.

In a more analytical approach of the role of linguistics in language teaching, functionalists raised the implication of linguistic instruments in achieving a communicative function. The idea was oriented towards a more extended contribution of linguistic elements in terms of roles and meanings to teach a language. In other words, a foreign language was meant to be learnt only in its social context, as it is a social phenomenon *per se*. The result of this onward shake was a turning point which marked the extension of applied linguistic studies to language-related issues accounting for the nature of the teaching environment. The latter is represented by teachers, learners, society, culture, religion, traditions, customs, ideologies, history, socio-economic aspects, pedagogical/educational practices, and other socio-cultural measures.

4. Conclusion :

Subsequently, the language problems encountered in the teaching sphere could be classified in terms of origin and nature. Hence, all those which emanate from a socio-cultural/sociolinguistic background were to be submitted to language sciences specialized in social and sociological issues and subjects. These were represented by sociology, anthropology, and sociolinguistics, while for language problems which are the product of psychological problems, they were submitted to psychology. Other language problems have shown to be various in nature and have been respectively submitted to research in psycholinguistics, economics, politics, translation, computer sciences etc.

Assignment :

1) What was the beginning of applied linguistics ? Where, and when ?

2) Why was the audiolingual method thought of as the most convenient for the teaching of foreign languages ?

3) Why was it rejected and for which teaching method ? Explain

4) Discuss the way Linguistics made up applied linguistics science throughout historical accounts for language as a system and language as a means of communication.

5) What other problem raised out at the introduction of the audiolingual method ?

6) Throughout extended research, list two major works in applied linguistics from both the AILA and the AAAL.

7) Throughout extended research, list other applied linguistics Associations, Centers, Reviews, Annual Conferences we have not seen in the lecture.

Lecture Two : Applied Linguistics : A Science and a Definition at Stake.

Timing : 3 hours

1. Introduction

The history that marked the birth of applied linguistics has processed conflicting beliefs and perceptions about the logic of this science and the functions it has been attributed. Some language scientists started to question the possibility/or not of an applied science (linguistics) and the way to apply it. Some have also questioned the definition of this science.

2. Towards a Definition :

During the 1960's/70's, the scope of interest attributed to applied linguistics was commonly assumed to be language teaching/learning. It **intended to deal with <u>pedagogical language issues</u> while <u>applying theoretical knowledge</u> about <u>language</u> to <u>classroom practices</u>.**

However, Since the 1980's, the term 'applied liguistics' has been used to cover all language-related areas of study, these like: courtroom translation/interpretation, language acquistion, discourse analysis, language contact[1], code switching[2], borrowing[3], code mixing[4], diglossia /extended diaglossia[5] ,etc. This historical transition of the targeted fields of applied linguistics have brought about the tradition of defining applied linguistics in almost all studies about language issues. Corder(1974), for instance, defines applied linguistics as :

"the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue" (Brumfit, 1997 in Davies and Elder (2004).

In another attempt to defining applied linguistics, Schmitt & Celce-Murcia (2002) point out :

"Applied Linguistics is using <u>what we know about (a) language</u>, (b) <u>how it is learned</u>, and (c) <u>how it is used</u>, in order to achieve some purpose or <u>solve some problem in the real world"</u> (Schmitt & Celce-Murcia, 2002 in Davies and Elder (2004).

In this definition, the need for language knowledge as part of applied linguitics task is completed by the way this language is learned and the way it is used. The authors support the role of applied linguistics to treat language problems from a variety of scientific views ; they mention : linguistics (what we know about language), psycholinguistics (how language is

learned), sociolinguistics how language is used). Moreover, the concept of 'real world' in Brumfit's, and Shmitt & Murcia's definitions may be perceived to have a general reference to language- issue-based daily situations and circumstances.

Some authors have exposed a rather generous definition of applied linguistics as to the function it can achieve, these like Grabe (2002) who adds :

"The focus of applied linguistics is on trying to resolve language-based problems <u>that people encounter in the real world</u>, whether they be <u>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</u>." (Grabe, 2002 in Davies and Elder (2004)).

The quote balances the function of applied linguistics in a real world whose actors vary in nature from pedagogists to business clients all in need for resolutions concerning the language they aim to teach, to learn, and/or use.

In his attempt to defining applied linguistics, Vivian Cook (2004) raises the confusing and perhaps the confused function of applied linguistics as to whether it is a science for pedagogical problems related to language teaching/learning, to the learning of foreign languages using linguistic knowledge, or to both. Cook also questions the different views adopted by specialists in the field of language studies about the meaning and the function of applied linguistics. He points at 'many' applied linguists who never attend the British Association of Applied Linguistics (BAAL), instead they represent a regular audience in the European Second Language Association(EUROSLA), or Second Language Acquisition (SLA), and others. Cook has, in addition to other multidirectional conceptions as to the meaning of applied linguistics and its scope of interest, deduced the following definition : **'Applied linguistics then means many things to many people'** (in Knapp 2014 :1).

3. Conclusion :

 Though the tendencies to defining applied linguistics have been so frequent in the history of this science, its objective has been more or less discerned amid a variety of related concepts and practial fields. In the following chapter, a group of models are studied and discussed in order to better visualize applied linguistics, its implications, and its related disciplines and concepts.

Assignment :

1. Discuss the ambiguity in the recourse to defining applied linguistics by many experts and specialists in language studies.

2. How would you define applied linguistics in light of its history, its function(s), and its different defintions in the literature**.**

3. According to your personal view, does applied linguistics mean many things to many people as put by Vivian Cook ?

Endnotes to Chapter One

(1). A situation of geographical continuity or close social proximity between languages or dialects, so that a degree of bilingualism comes to exist within a community. The languages then begin to influence each other , such as by introducing loan words or making changes in pronunciation.Pidgins are languages arising out of contact situations. (from Crystal (1999)).

(2).The use by a speaker of more than one language, dialect, or variety during a conversation. Which for mis used will depend on such factors as the nature of the audience, the subject matter, and the situationin which the conversation takes place. An informal street conversation between friends will tolerate far more code switching than a job interview between strangers. (from Crystal (1999)).

(3).The introduction of a word (or some other linguistic feature) from one language or dialect into another. Vocabulary borrowings are usually called loan words. Examples include smoking and computer (from English into French) and restaurant and chic (from French into English). (from Crystal (1999)).

(4).In bilingual speech, the transfer of linguistic elements from one language into another. A single sentence might begin in one language, and then introduce words or grammatical features belonging to the other. (from Crystal (1999)).

(5).A sociolinguistic situation where two very different varieties of a language-sometimes two languages- co-occur throughout a speech community, each performing an individual range of functions, and each having acquired some degree of status as standard. The varieties are usually described as **high (H)** and **low (L)**, corresponding broadly to a difference in formality. H is used in such contexts as sermons, lectures, speeches, news, broadcasts, and newspaper editorials, and is learned in school. L is used in everyday conversation, radio soaps, folkliterature, and other informal contexts. (from Crystal (1999)). Fishman (1967) introduced the notion that diglossia could be extended to situations found in many societies where forms of two genetically unrelated (or at least historically distant) languages occupy the H and L niches, such that one of the languages (e.g. Latin in medieval Europe), is used for religious, educational, literacy and other such prestigious domains, while another language (in the case of medieval Europe, the vernacular languages of that era) is rarely used for such purposes, being only employed for more informal, primarily spoken domains.

Chapter Two

Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching/Learning Models

Lecture One : Applied Linguistics, Linguistics, and Language Sciences

Timing : 4h and 30mnts

1. Introduction :

To accommodate to the different definitions provided to determine the nature, the function, and the role of applied linguistics in education , more particularly for the teaching of a second(foreign) language, a group of experts have come up with different models, each of which emphasizes the similarities, but also the defficiencies /shortcomings noticed in the one preceding,

Some basic concepts commonly characterize the different models : language teaching theory, theoretical foundations, practical insights, and interactivity.

2. Campbell's Model of the Relationship between Theory and Practice I (1980 :7) in Stern (1983 :36)

In an attempt to crystallizing the relationship between language teaching in the practical world and the language sciences (and factors) that interact with this world, and aiming along the same vein to shape a language teahing theory with the two components, some models have been provided, among which Campbell's.

The American applied linguist tried to explain in his model the relation between theory and practice, with a meticulous attention assigned to the position of applied linguistics in this area of interaction. A very simple presentation which seems efficient to understanding major actors, roles, and sciences involved in developing a language teaching theory.

Linguistics	Applied Linguistics	Pedagogy
theoretician	mediator	practitioner
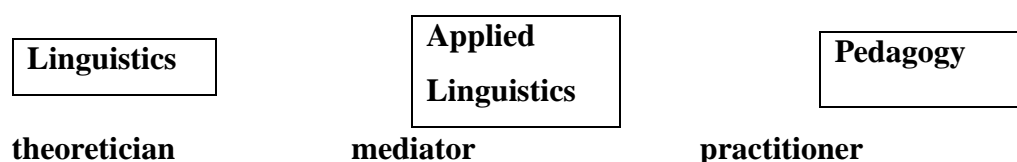
Campbell's model of the relationship between theory and practice **I**

When reading the model from left to right, we understand that linguistics is the source science which provides linguistic theories to be transported by applied linguists to the pedagogical sphere. Three major actors achieve this process **:**
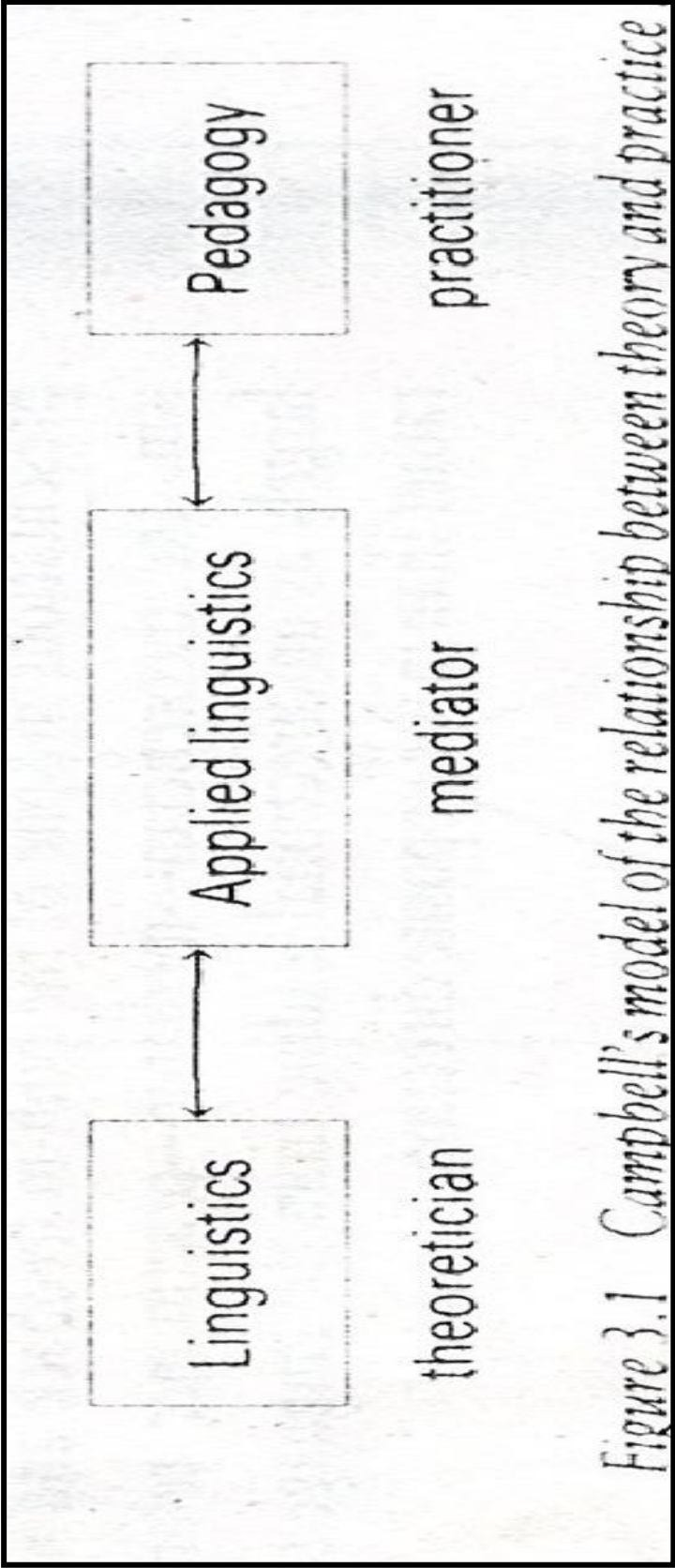
Figure 3.1 Campbell's model of the relationship between theory and practice

Linguistics — Applied linguistics — Pedagogy

theoretician — mediator — practitioner

Theoreticians : they are in charge of the formulation of theories about language.

Mediators :   they work in the field of applied linguistics to collect theories and knowledge about language from the field of linguistics and share them with practitioners.

Practitioners : They represent the pedagogical sphere. They are teachers of languages and about languages.

3. Campbell's Model of the Relationship between Theory and Practice II (1980 :8)) in Stern (1983 :36)

  In another model (model II) provided by Campbell (1980), typically meant for second(foreign) language pedagogy, the three basic elements implemented in Model I apply similarly to the second under the same order (theoretician-mediator-practitioner); however, linguistics alone is assumed to be 'insufficient' (Stern(1983)). Therefore, and according to Campbell (op.cit. :8), beside theoreticians in the field of linguistics, there is also need for theories from psychology, from sociology, and from anthropology. At the mediating level, the author places the elements to be applied in the practical world : applied linguistics, applied psychology, applied sociology, and applied anthropology. At the model right end, the practitioner receives knowledge to resolve second language problems in the pedagogical sphere.

4. Applied Linguistics, Psychology, and Interdisciplinary Linguistics (Spolsky's Educational Linguistics Model :1980) in Stern (1983 :37)

  In the aim of formulating a second language teaching theory and with an equal attention attributed to applied language science(s) for the resolution of second language –based issues , Spolsky (1980 :72) introduced a series of three models to expose the disciplines that interact with the pedagogical ground. He first tried a diagram in which he joins Campbell in the inadequacy of linguistics alone « as a basis for language teaching » (Stern,1983 :37). In another model, he states that even linguistics and psychology are not enough for this aim. In another detailed diagram, Spolsky exhibits all the disciplines that represent the major origins for second language teaching/learning.
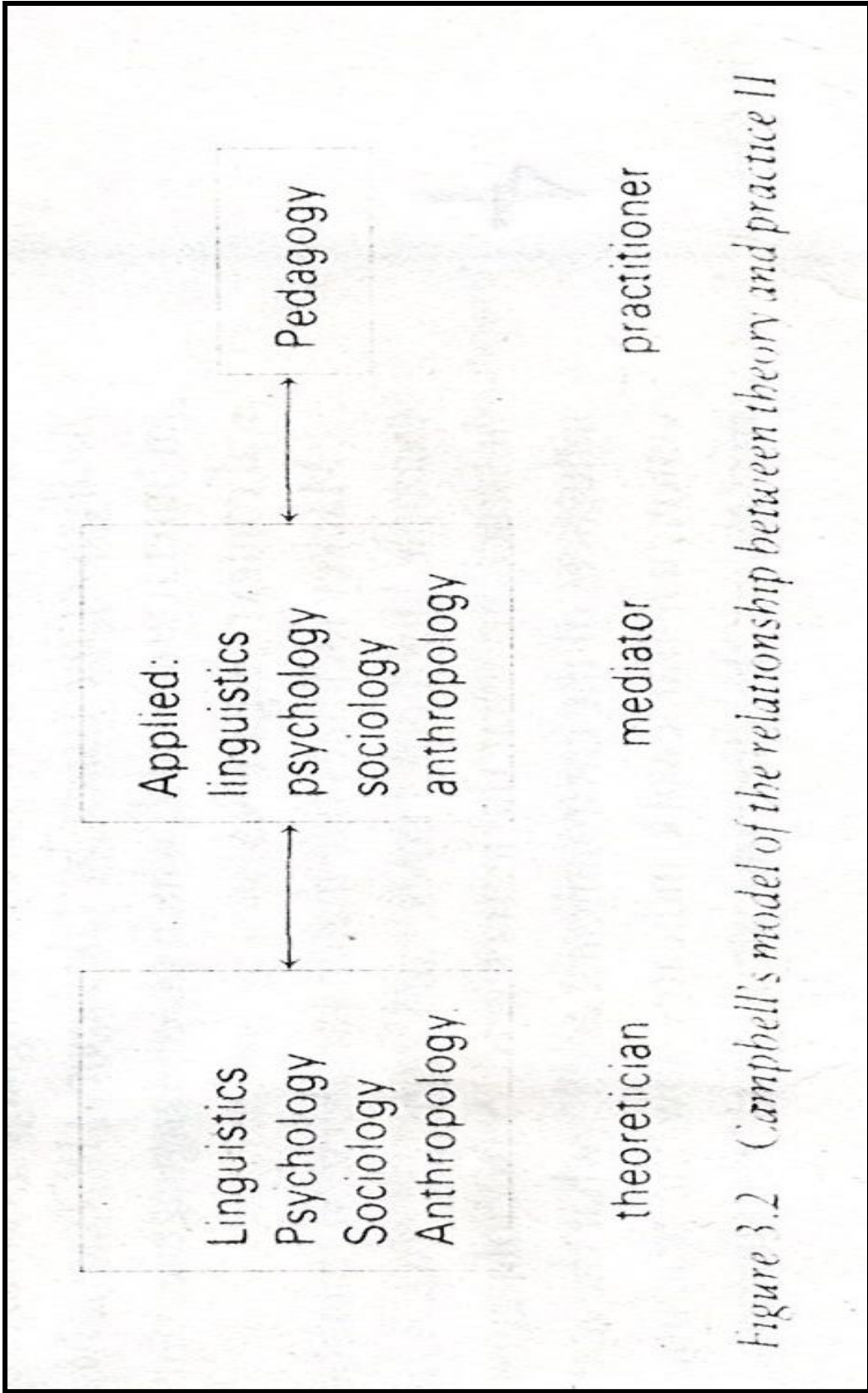
Figure 3.2 Campbell's model of the relationship between theory and practice 11
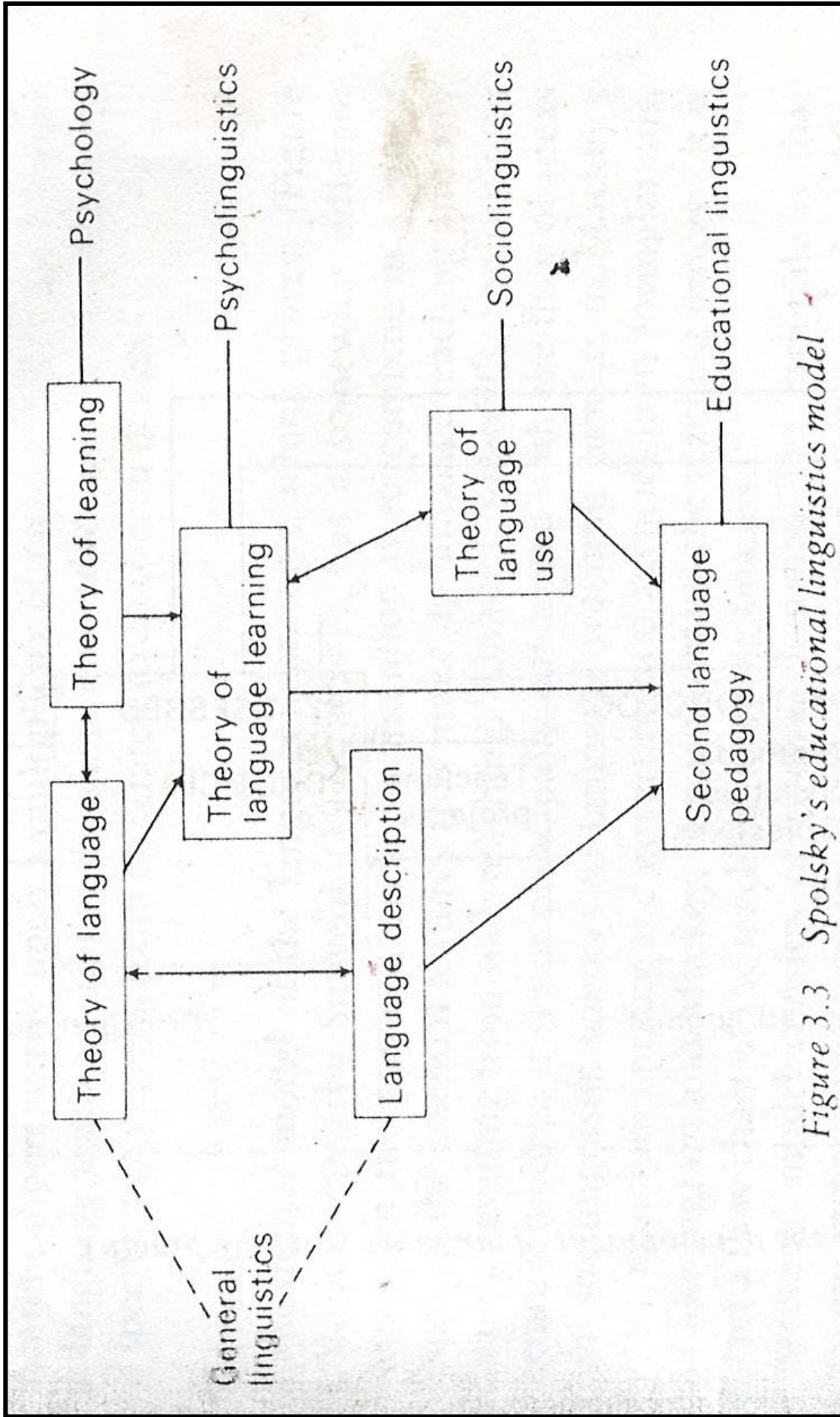
Figure 3.3 Spolsky's educational linguistics model

From the model, it is possible to discern three main disciplines that basically conduct second language teaching/learning : language description, theory of language learning, and theory of language use.

From **general linguistics**, **theories of/about language** are undoubtedly informative. They provide a set of analytical and philosophical descriptions **(language descriptions)** that explain language form, language use, and meaning perception(s).

A theory of language processed for a teaching aim implies a learning practice whose actors are the learners of this language ; a theory of learning (psychology) is then necessary to be handled. Its provides psychological instructions fully devoted to the study of mind-related states and behaviours. In this respect, Saul McLeod defines psychology as : « the scientific study of the mind and behavior » (Saul McLeod, 2019).

Under the contribution of a theory of language and a one of learning, a theory of language learning represented by psycholinguistics becomes a major source for second language teaching/learning.

The theory above would have no importance without the context(s) that defines the use of the language and the social function it fulfils, then sociolinguistics is the discipline whose theories intervene for this aim and others.

At the bottom of the model, second language pedagogy is represented by educational lingusitics in two ways :

1.Educational linguistics is a science that is interested in all language teaching questions.

2. According to Spolsky, educational linguistics is an applied science whose main objective is to resolve language-based issues in the teaching sphere , while applied linguistics maintains the same function in all language –centered situations except pedagogy. In this case, educational linguistics mediates between the theories on the model top and the second language pedagogy.

4.1 Defining the Role of the Disciplines Involved in Spolsky's Educational Linguistics Model

1/ Psychology

It is a science that studies human's ways of thinking, behaviours, and attitudes towards the constituents of their environments. It takes into account a set of dimensions like age, gender, status, events, personality, family relationships, physical appearance, physical ineptitude, handicaps, etc. to understand the way they interact with the individual's practice and behaviour.

2/ Psycholinguistics :

It is a science that studies the psychology of learning/teaching a language. For this aim, it uses psychological knowledge and information and manages to study the way they interact with language learning/teaching. Hence, this science is interested in the study of the impact of age on language learning. Age represents the mental and the physical abilities and /or capacities. Similarly, the science is also interested in the study of the way the learning of foreign languages impacts the cognitive and the articulatory/communicative abilities of the learner of a given age (especially children).

Respectively, the scope of interest of this science is to study the different language disorders which are psychologically predefined. They vary in kind and nature as they may lie at the receptive level, memorization level, and the deciphering level.

Further, this science has largely been devoted to the study of language acquisition, especially with Chomsky's (1957) Transformational Grammar[1] which immensely contributed to the understanding of the language acqustion process during the child mental and biological developments.

In another form of psycholinguistic studies, the study of the teachers' attitudes towards languages, the way they tend to teach foreign languages, and the way they use and perceive the psychological measure in the teaching of languages is also a psycholinguistic concern.

3/ Sociolinguistics :

This science main focus is on the relationship between language and society. It studies the way languages are used within their social contexts. The latter represents culture, religion, individuals relationships, norms, beliefs, ideologies, regional variations, geographical frontiers, social classes, prestige, age, gender, status,etc. Emergent sociolinguistic phenomena are code switching, code mixing, borrowing, diglossia, etc. which are also frequently approached in sociolinguistic studies.

4/General Linguistics :

It is a linguistic approach to language. It focuses on the systematic relationship between language units; these vary from the smallest linguistic unit (the sound/the letter) to longer structures like sentences. General linguistics provides knowledge about the basic constituents of a language (words, morphemes, sounds/letters, and syntactic structures and meaning), the way they function isolately and interactively. This knowledge is mainly descriptive when compared to another which is rather experimental and informative when referring to the set of linguistic theories introduced by specialists in language and linguistics, these like : Ferdinand de Saussure's dichotomies[2], Chomsky's competence and performance(1965)[3], Hymes' communicative comptence (1972)[4], Chomsky'sTransformational-Generative Grammar(1957), Hockett's Properties of Human Language (1958/1960/1966)[5], etc.

Therefore, the function of general linguistics in Spolsky's model can be summarized as folows :

1. Linguistic knowledge provides instruments to shape the infrastructure of the subsystems composing the language and make them clear in the learner's mind to critically interpret language properties and use, and to mentally grasp the specific properties of the language learned as different from those of another language (the mother tongue, the second language, or another foreign language).

2. Linguistic knowledge develops the teachers' own capacities and former perceptions about the same language. It helps them practice the language on the basis of this knowledge.

3. Knowledge about language helps teachers develop their methods and techniques of teaching a foreign language

4. Knowledge about language develops the teaching/learning of the four skills :

    a.   The way foreign language learners (FLL) read

    b.   The way FLL listen
    c.   The way FLL write
    d.   The way FLL speak
    e.   The way FLL constructs meaning on the basis of this knowledge

5. Linguistic theories are mainly required for the elaboration of curricula and syllabi ; they are inspiring and reasonable for the planning of convenient lessons and units in respect to language acquistion and learning processes at different academic levels.

4. Ingram's Development of Language Teaching Practice (in Stern (1983 :38))

4.1 Describing the Model

When Spolsky's educational linguistics model offered the major components of a language teaching theory, no special focus has been noticed on the pedagogical implications and their interactions with these components. Therefore, Ingram (1980 :42) has reacted with a model for the development of language teaching practice (Stern, 1983 :38).

While in the model the same language sciences in Spolsky's beside sociology appear at the theoretical side, and visually the Campbell's mediating allocation of the applied linguist between theoreticians and practicioners has been adopted, Ingram details the way classroom teachers interact with the applied linguist throughout the tasks assigned to each of them and the ones shared between them.

Respectively, the applied linguist intervenes on the basis of the principles of second language learning to take relevant theoretical knowledge and shape a methodological plan made up of methods, syllabus, and objectives designed for application in the real world. These 'teaching projects' are to be reassessed in the practical world as a shared task between the applied linguist and the teacher. The obtained feedback from this assessment will be supported by teaching techniques developed by the teacher in their classrooms

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┌──────────────┐        ┌──────────────┐        ┌──────────────┐        ┌──────────────┐        ┌──────────────┐
│ FUNDAMENTAL  │        │ PRINCIPLES   │        │ METHODOLOGY  │        │ REASSESSED   │        │ ESTABLISHED  │
│ SCIENCES     │ Insights│ OF          │ Applied│              │Teaching│ IN          │        │ CLASSROOM    │
│              │───────▶│ L2 LEARNING  │───────▶│ Methods      │projects│ PRACTICE     │───────▶│ TEACHING     │
│ Linguistics  │        │              │        │ Syllabus     │───────▶│              │        │ PRACTICE     │
│Psycholinguistics│     │              │        │ Objectives   │        │              │        │              │
│Sociolinguistics│      │              │        │              │        │              │        │ Techniques   │
│ Psychology   │        │              │        │              │        │              │        │              │
│ Sociology    │        │              │        │              │        │              │        │              │
└──────────────┘        └──────────────┘        └──────────────┘        └──────────────┘        └──────────────┘
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Insights

Principal domain of the theoretical scientist

Principal domain of the applied linguist

Principal domain of the class teacher

Figure 3.4   Ingram's model for the development of language teaching practice

4.2 Encountered Deficiencies in the Model :

In a general view of the model, it is possible for any reader to notice the extended function attributed to the applied linguist in comparison to the practicioner in the development of a language teaching practice, while the teacher is one of the real world agents who is the first and excellent observer to detect the set of language-related issues characterizing the practical world. Moreover, in the model there is interesting reference to the feedback of both teachers and applied linguists after the reassessment of the teaching projects ; however, no attention is attributed to the final feedback (after the established classroom teaching practice) to list the major teaching/learning problems that emerged from this practice in order to enable an opposite process triggered by the language-issue and leading to the language sciences. Stern (1983 :39) shows attention to the stable nature of the theoretical sphere and questions the unique introduction of the language sciences for the development of a language teaching practice.

5. Conclusion :

In response to Stern's query, other models whose theoretical foundation is not limited to language sciences have been called upon, among these Mackey's Interaction Model of Language Learning, Teaching, and Policy.

Assignment :

1. Where would you situate applied linguistics in Spolsky's Model ?

2. In light of the possible language sciences introduced in the lecture, and throughout extended information, develop your knowledge about the difference between : educational linguistics, applied linguistics, and 'linguistics applied'.

3. Explain Spolsky's Model in light of this extended knowledge.

4. List four major subjects from your context of learning that can be approached by psycholinguistics, psychology, sociolinguistics, and linguistics.

5. What is the role of anthropology in foreign language teaching ?

Lecture Two : Applied Linguistics, Language Sciences, and dominating Factors

Timing : 1h and 30mnts

1. Introduction :

In the following models, the function and the position of applied linguistics will be represented under its interaction with the language sciences introduced in the preceding models, but will have specific reference to some dominating factors characterizing the educational domain.

2. Mackey's Interaction Model of Language Learning, Teaching, and Policy (in Stern (1983 :40) :

Mackey developed a model which places language learning into its sociopolitical context (Stern, 1983 :39). He emphasized five basic variables : M (methods and materials : as textbooks, recordings, visual aids,etc) T(what the teacher does), I(Instruction : what the learner gets), S (sociolinguistic and sociocultural influences of the environment), and L(what the learner does). Mackey's major aim was to show the dependence of both the teaching variables (MTI) and the learning variables (the ISL) on the social, educational, and political factors exposed on the head of the model (government-education policy- society).

According to the direction of the arrows on the diagram, a language teaching project is enhanced by the social character. This one hierarchically and structurally advances a petition to political structures to undertake the project especially by the Ministry of Education. The latter determines the place and the function of the language to be used/taught for a definite purpose and outlines a language policy. Therefore, the sociopolitical advocacy of the language in question is concretized throughout a teaching process which is initiated by the elaboration of a curriculum. No details are provided in Mackey's model under this label, however, the arrows on the model go down through two triangles sharing a common angle (I), to mean instruction (what the learner obtains). In the first flow triangle, the quality of materials and methods and the way they are interpreted in the teacher's practice determine the quality of knowledge /skills the learner obtains in order to serve the needs of the society and its politics in the second triangle.
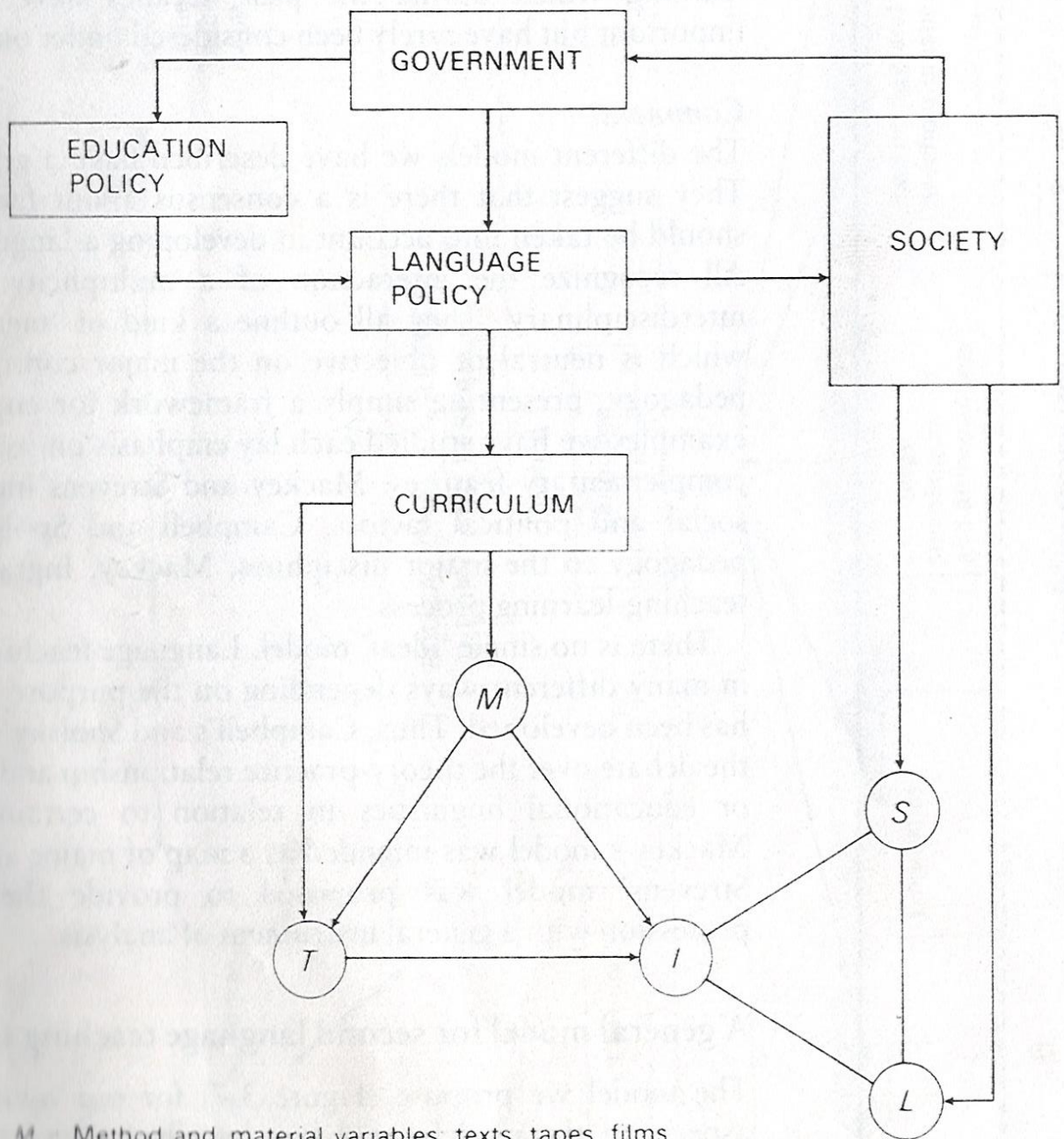
M   Method and material variables: texts, tapes, films
    (cf *Language Teaching Analysis*, Part II)

T   Teacher variables: what the teacher does.
    (cf *Language Teaching Analysis*, Part III)

I   Instruction variables: what the learner gets (cf. Jakobovits)

S   Sociocultural variables: what the environment does (cf. Jakobovits)

L   Learner variables: what the learner does (cf. Jakobovits)

Figure 1.5 Mackey's interaction model of language learning, teaching, and policy

In a complementary text, Mackey assumes that the presence of language sciences is evident, though it does not appear in the model. He believes it is an interdisciplinary framework wherein psychology, sociology, anthropology, law, education, government, linguistics, and other disciplines like computer science and psychoacoustics[6] …' represent a scientific frame of reference (1970a in Stern, 1983 :41) one from which the curriculum and the teaching plannings take relevant knowledge.

3. Strevens' Model of the language Learning/Language Teaching Process (in Stern (1983 :42)

A rather different attempt to understanding the way the teaching-learning process is enhanced and planned has been introduced by Strevens (1976,1977). One recognizable feature about the model is its disregard of the way theroretical knowledge serves the practical world as opposed to Campbell's, Spolsky's, or Ingram's models. However, Streven's model joins Mackey's in the introduction of political factors and governmental organisms. Further, the same model meets both Ingram's and Mackey's attempts to describing the teaching process. Stern (1983) concludes that the mlodel represents a flow chart of the teaching –learning process.

The whole model exposes twelve elements, among which elements 1, 2, 3 ' initiates the language teaching operation' (Stern (1983 :41). Elements 4-9 then describe the enhancement of the teaching intention, and the other remaining elements (10-11-12) focus on the learning outcome.

Getting back to the three first elements, number one (policy and aims) is represented by the public engagement in shaping social provisions for language teaching. Number two (administration and organization) represents the financial and administrative structures that participate in the concretization of this decision. Number three (relevant professional disciplines) represent the intellectual resources for language teaching (Stern, 1983 :41). Under this element, Strevens points at 'education, linguistics, psychology, and social theory, as well
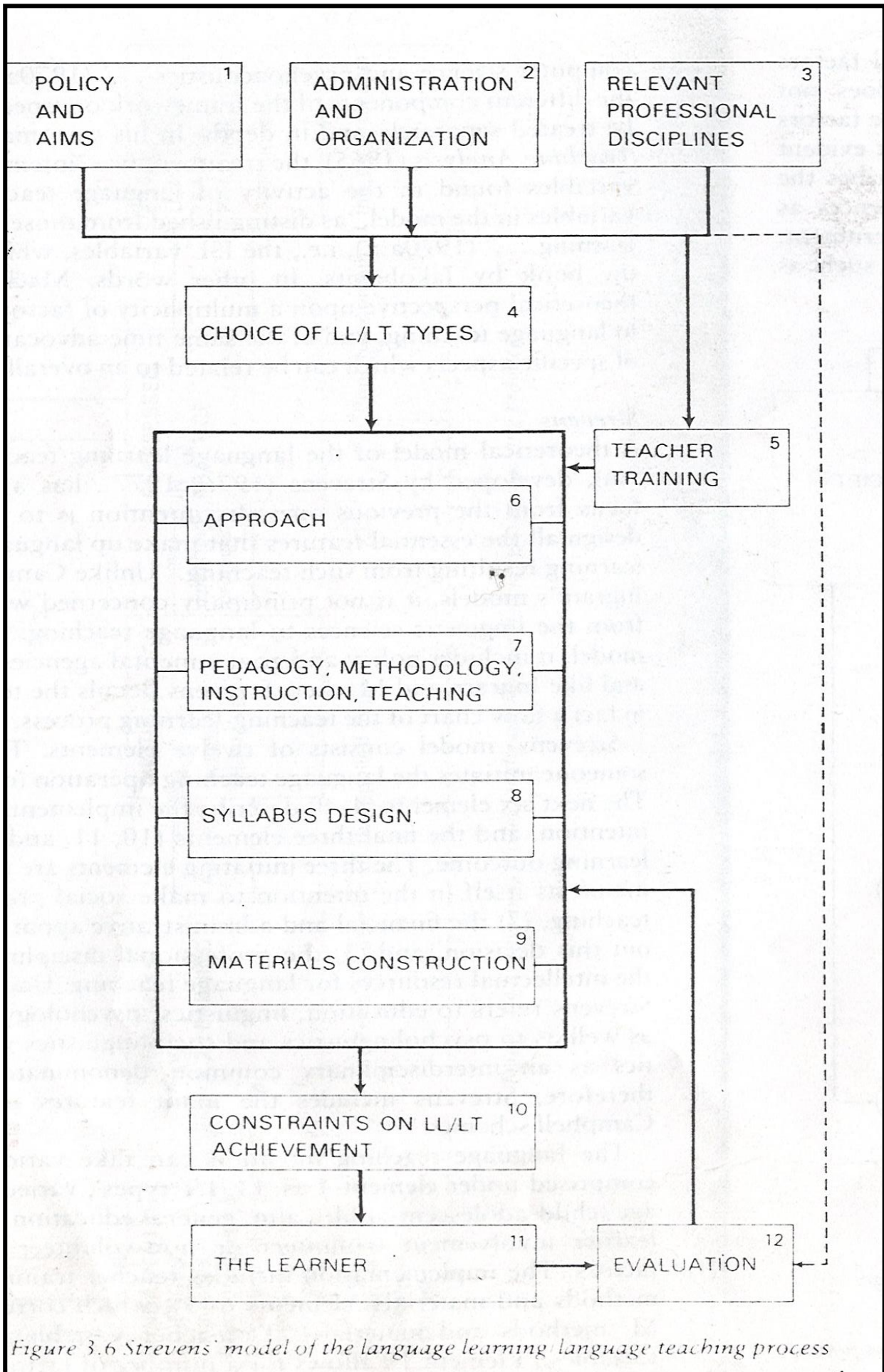
Figure 3.6 *Strevens' model of the language learning language teaching process*

as psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics with applied linguistics as an interdisciplinary common denominator' (ibid : 41).

The language teaching intention is represented by different forms which are presented by number four with LL/LT types ; these ones vary acoording to the pupils' cognitive, mental, and physical abilities and particularities (child-adolescent-adult), the reason behind the language teaching ('general education or special purpose'), learner's nature of interest ('volunteer or non-volunteer') (ibid :41), beside other elements.

The enhancement of the teaching intention comprises teacher training (element 5), and methods and materials (elements 6-9), which correspond to Mackey's M (methods and materials), T (teacher variable), and I (instruction variables).

Element 10 represents the quality and the quantity of factors that generally hamper the learning outcome, such as the timing alloted to language teaching/ learning, the quality of teaching, beside some ecological constraints like : classroom organizations, the management of discipline, noise, overcrowdings, learners bad temperaments and demotivation, etc.

Element 11 represents the learners' characteristics (capacities, abilities, identities, personalities, social value, devotions in group, etc.) and which have the ability to orient their learnings.

Number twelve represents the assessment of the learning outcome. This feedback is elementary for any teaching practice and curricula as the quality of both is measured by the learning evaluation.

Accordingly, the position of the applied linguist in the model, though not mentioned, could be deduced from key concepts like feedback, assessement, evaluation, learning outcomes, etc. They are words which frequently reflect the language issues and the need for applied linguistics intervention in order to inspect the difficulties, and /or the abnormalities, beside the defficiences that have negatively influenced the learning process. On the model, the applied linguist could be placed either between the numbers three and four, or between four and five depending on the nature of the encountered issue.

4. Conclusion :

  From the above models, it is clear that language teaching theory has both a scientific and a sociopolitical nature, and so is applied linguistics. In the following lecture, a general model brings into communality features from all models, and extends knowledge about them according to Stern's view.

Assignment :

1. Define the position of applied linguistics in relation to the sociopolitical factor in the different models. Refer to the Algerian context.

2. According to the models, Define the role of the learner in the foreign language teaching theory.

3. How would you explain the two triangles communality in Mackey's diagram ?.

4. Explain Mackey's appelation : Interaction Model

5. How do Streven's learner variable, teacher instruction, teacher variable , teacher training, methods and materials constitute a teaching intention which explains the function of applied linguistics ?

Lecture Three : Towards a General Model

Timing : 6hours

1. Introduction :

The present lecture is a general representation of a foreign language teaching model at the center of which applied linguistics is focused in light of a multimodelled view. However, it exceptionally enhances extended knowledge developed from Stern's scientific insights.

2. Stern's General Model for Second Language Teaching Theory (in Stern (1983 :44)

In 1971, Stern presented his general model at a meeting of the Canadian Society for the Study of Education, Memorial University, and elaborated for the Third International Congress of Applied Linguistics, held in Copenhagen in 1972.

Stern incorporates aspects of the preceeding models, while believing that none of them represents a complete second language teaching theory. The general model was elaborated to serve different functions, among these :

1/ It is a support design that helps teachers formulate their own teaching theory and philosophy of teaching as it provides answers to questions like :

Where do you stand on basic issues ? How do you see your own teaching ? What is your view of language and language learning ? What needs to be done to teach language X or Y ? and so on.(Stern,1983 :45).

Under these questions Stern places the teacher at the top end of a language teaching theory wherein teachers' introspections help them determine their roles and their supposed -to-be realizations in the real world. Under question one, the teacher's evaluation of their teachings and the learning outcomes invite their attention and consciousness to examining their endeavours and distinguishing the most successful attempts from the least to the failing ones.

Level 3:
Practice

METHODOLOGY
Objectives
Content
Procedures
Materials
Evaluation of outcomes

ORGANIZATION
Planning and administration
Primary
Secondary
Higher education
Teacher education
Adult and informal

Level 2:
Interlevel

EDUCATIONAL LINGUISTICS
THEORY AND RESEARCH

Context

Teaching

Language

Learning

Level 1:
Foundations

History of language teaching

Linguistics

Sociology, sociolinguistics, and anthropology

Psychology and psycholinguistics

Educational theory

Figure 3.7 A general model for second language teaching

Under question two, the teachers' attitude towards language, as a pedagogical subject or not, is an elementary step to measuring the teachers' extent of devotion to undertaking this project. Once brought to the level of consciousness, the teachers' attitudes are made clear, hence their teaching architecture would largely depend on the nature of their beliefs and emotions.

According to Stern's questions order, under question three the teacher would have paved the way to thinking about the most convenient way to teach a language with all its particularities and which distinguish it from other languages and the way they should be taught.

2/ Stern's Model is a teaching aid that facilitates analysis, interpretation, and evaluation of the different second language teaching theories and philosophies which are generally introduced in some teaching guides, research reviews,etc.

In other words, the model enhances the teacher's readability of the preceding and the existing teaching theories and the way they have been structured on the basis of their different origins (provided in a later description : language teaching issues, sociopolitical policy, contemporarily recycled curriculum).

3/ It is a teaching support that guides teachers to analysing and managing different teaching/learning situations, as it is the case for the teaching of ESP, general language, or professional language trainings. Hence, the model responds to all teaching categories which are language-oriented.

As a brief description of the model, Stern states that he joins Strevens and Mackey when they believe that a teaching theory model should consider all the necessary elements for this theory, and serve as an analytical instrument for all language teaching situations (Stern :1983 :45). He goes on and agrees with Campbell's and Spolsky's theory /practice interaction. While, in keeping with Mackey, the model is not only a practitioner's guide, but it importantly also serves as a research map.

In other words, the model needs not only to be read but to be scrutinized.

3.1 Describing (Scrutinizing) the Model :

The model exposes a complementary function of individuals fulfilling different functions. Their respective roles are distributed along the levels in the diagram. At level one, the role of specialists (theoreticians) in the relevant disciplines, eg.linguist (in language studies), psychologist (in behavioural studies) , historian (in diachronic and synchronic studies), etc.). At level two, the language teaching theorist (the specialist equals pedagogist, linguist, psycholinguist, didactician,etc.), the research worker(specialist in one of the language –related sciences), or applied linguist (the mediator). At level three, the practitioner(s), teacher(s), tester(s), administrator(s), and curriculum worker(s). Stern emphasizes that the different functions assigned to each person across levels does not necessarily refer to 'a separation in terms of persons' (Op.cit.,46). In other words, a language teacher can be a researcher or theorist in language pedagogy at level 2, or have expertise in a particular language science, for instance sociolinguistics, or psycholinguistics (level one). While, 'a scholar in one of the disciplines can act as an applied linguist or as a language teacher'.(Op.cit.47). We can refer, as an example, to the Danish scholar Otto Jespersen who was a linguistics scholar, a language teaching theorist, and a practising teacher of EFL. (Op.cit.51).

Further, in the diagram, the bottom-up direction of arrows does not necessarily reflect a teaching theory which is enhanced by the language disciplines, since opposite directions explain the ability to trigger a language teaching theory from any position in the diagram (as signalled before : language teaching issues, sociopolitical decision, contemporarily recycled curriculum). The idea is that teachers are no more passive recipients in the development of a teaching theory, they are active participants whose experience and interactive task would offer contributive ideas, observations, deductions, queries, issues to the development of a language teaching theory and to the disciplines. The Cambridge psychologist Donald Broadbent was quoted by Rutherford (1972 :168) when he explains :'it is theoretically productive to get our ideas from applied work' (ibid.51).

Getting back to the description of the model, Stern introduces four basic concepts that participate in language teaching : **language**, **learning, teaching**, and **context**.

A/ Language teaching is vehicled by the 'concept of the nature of language' (op.cit.48). Stern exposes some related questions in this respect : what is the view of language in this language teaching theory ?

To answer this question, knowledge is required from disciplines like ; linguistics, psycholinguistics, and sociolinguistics.

Under this question, and from a linguistics point of view, it is evident that the future of any language teaching theory depends on the way the concept of language as the key component in this theory has been predefined and described in isolation and in comparison to other systems of communication.

In his work on the nature of language and language learning/teaching entitled « What is the Nature of Language? How does it Behave? What is Language Learning then? A Review Paper in Applied Linguistics », Mwakapina (2021) represented the different approaches to language which have been offered by a myriad of specialized scholars in language and language- related disciplines to come up with a selection of properties that define the nature of this human means of communication, he lists :

1. Language as a substance : Language is a composition of both physical and emotional components.

2. Language as a form : Language is the product of a connection between the physical items in the aim of making up senses.

3. Language as both form and substance : language is the connection of the substancial elements and grammatical structures to both shape up and express ideas,thoughts, and emotions.

4. Language as an activity : The way language is used and managed by its users refers to mental actions and reactions or as 'stimulus - response' (Mwakapina, 2021 :609). In other words, all language structures and expressions interpret mental activities and orientations about a definte subject. As quoted in Mwakapina (2021), Mackey & Francis (1966) proclaim that ' Language as a stimulus- response is considered as a verbal response to external stimulus ' (ibid.609)

Accordingly, Mwakapina deduces that 'language learning is then a stimulus-response process' (2021 :609). To mean that the learning of a language is enhanced by an exterior environment (language teaching/research) which stimulates mental reactions (interpretations, understandings, references, inferences, connotations, etc.) to then appear in and decide about the learner's way(s) of using language. .

5. Language as a system of arbitrary vocal symbols : In the course of linguistics, one of the properties of the human language is arbitrariness. To mean that language units (words, interjunctions, etc.) do not have a logical relationship with the objects they represent. Eg : the word 'desk' does not have logical connection with the rectangular wooden object it represents.

6. Language as structural view, communicative view and interactional view :

According to Richard and Rodgers (1986), the nature of language is three fold :

a. Structural : According to the structuralist school of lingusitics, language is a system where linguistic units are combined to produce grammatical structures. According to this belief, language = structure (and only structure).

However, to Richard and Rodgers' (1986) view, the implication of this language theory to the language learning/teaching process is to focus on the structural representations of a language starting from the smallest unit (sound/letter) to the largest one (sentences and sentences arrangements). Mwakapina (2021 :610) adds : '' .....and some of the learning methods based on this view are **audio-lingual** methods and **total physical response**[7] ''.

b.Communicative : In another perception of the nature of language, the functionalists believe that language cannot only mean a grammatical structure ; it is rather a grammatical combination of linguistic units to serve a communicative purpose (carrying a definite meaning) or a function, hence according to this belief, Language = structure+function.

Respectively, the communicative approach to language serves the language learning/teaching process in raising the learner's awareness about the different functions of different/similar structures in language , beside diversity at the perceptual level whcih is determined by the way

the communicative function of a structure has been elaborated. Mwakapina (2021 :610) adds : ''some of the language learning approaches and methods based on this view are such as the **communicative approach**, **functional notional syllabus** and the **natural approach** ''.

c. Interactional : under this label, language is the means of communication thanks to which people interact with one another. Based on communication, interaction would imply connections, sociocultural transactions, and sharings among its actors. At the educational level, the process of language learning is also a process of interactional advance either between teachers/researchers and learners, among learners, or between learners and native speakers.

B/ Language teaching examines the learner and the nature of language learning. Important questions to answer are : What language learner does this theory envisage?, and how does it view language learning ? Related answers are then provided by psychology, particularly educational psychology, psycholinguistics/sociolinguistics for language learning and language use. (Stern, 1983 :48).

Language teaching theories may envisage learners with distinguishable cognitive capacities and mental abilities, depending on their ages, their socioeconomic statuses and environments, in addition to their socio-educational backgrounds. Thus, a language teaching theory view of the nature of language learning is largely dependent on the kind of learners it may target. Respectively, language learning is accounted for as a process, skills-based/oriented, content-based, acquisition-based, memorization-based, immitation-based, etc.

C/ 'Language teaching is mainly dependent on the language teacher and language teaching. Related questions are : How does the theory interpret teaching ? What role and function does it assign to the teacher ? How can teaching be described or analysed ? The discipline that brings answers to these questions is the study of education'. (Op.cit.48).

Different perceptions of the word 'teaching' have ended with the distinction between teaching as a 'concept' and teaching as a 'profession'.

1. Teaching as a Concept :

Under this distinction, a variety of definitions have been selected in the aim of treating the concept's different facets. Among them, Morrison's (1934) as follows : "Teaching is intimate contact between a more mature personality and a less mature one which is designed to further the education of the latter" (in Rajagopalan, 2019 :05).

From the above definition, the nature of the concept of teaching may be dually perceived. Either it is a continuum of generations along which sociocultural and educational habits are passed on, or it is a representation of Freire's'banking education'[8] when it joins Bizzell's (1991) 'coercion'. In other words, The second interpretation of the teaching practice would consider students as 'depositories' and teachers as 'depositors' (Freire, 2009). (The idea will be detailed in the next chapter).

Accordingly, aliened interpretations would add in Waller's (1932/1965) :

> The teacher-pupil relationship is a form of institutionalized domination and subordination. . . . The teacher represents the formal curriculum, and his interest is in imposing that curriculum upon the children in the form of tasks ; pupils are much more interested in life in their own world than in the desiccated bits of adult life which teachers have to offer.
>
> (Waller, 1932/1965 :195-196) in David F. Labaree (2000: 229)

However, other perceptions of the concept of teaching seem to have transcended more common practices, to be described as : " a practice of human improvement" by (Cohen, 1988 : 55) in David F. Labaree (2000 :228). In the same token, Edmund Amidon (1967) (in Rajagopalan, 2019) defined it as "an interactive process, primarily involving classroom talk which takes place between teacher and pupil and occurs during certain definable activities". These two approaches to the concept of teaching seem to account for the social dimension in teaching through humanizing and communicating.

Continuously, when teaching is a pedagogical focus, educationalists like Dewey (1933 (in Jackson, 1986 :81)) would say about it : ''There is the same exact equation between teaching and learning that there is between selling and buying" (in Labaree (2000)).

That is, 'you can't be a good salesperson unless someone is buying, and you can't be a good teacher unless someone is learning'. David F. Labaree (2014 :228).

Similarly, in the words of John Brubacher (1939) :

> Teaching is arrangement and manipulation of a situation in which there are gaps or obstructions which an individual will seek toovercome and from which he will learn in the course of doing so.
>
> (In Rajagopalan, 2019 :6)

Under the last definition, teaching can be achieved with no permanent presence of teachers, it is also a teacher-free process. In other words, this definition encourages autonomous learning and problem-solving.

As a final reflection upon the perception of the nature of teaching, Davis et al. (1962), Gagne et al. (1974) and Gage (1978) interestingly put it as follows :

'Teaching is a scientific process, and its major components are content, communication and feedback' (in Rajagopalan, 2009 :6).

In their definition, the authors introduce a scientific nature of teaching through a triangular representation at one top of which **content** enhances, and makes use of **communication/interaction** at another top to achieve teaching and learning, while the outcome is cyclicly subjected to **assessment and evaluation** at a third top.

2. *Teaching as a Profession :*

Under this distinction, teaching is a social practice which is institutionalized to participate in the social and the national promotion. Hence, this activity lies at a stretch of time and occupies a time table to serve its different purposes. In parallell, the holders of this profession, teachers, receive financial rewards.

However, the complexe nature of the teaching practice has exposed its ranking as a profession to a number of disagreements among scholars of different specialties.

Hence, after a long-ran sought of an established recognition of the profession, (Tezcan, 1996) claims: « ……In the end, it was agreed that teaching is a distinctive profession and that it possesses all of the qualities that a profession should possess (Tezcan, 1996 in Hotaman,2010 :1). In another claim by Hacioglu (1997), the teaching profession could be described as "a professional occupational group of education sector possessing social, cultural, economical, scientific and technological dimensions" (Hacioglu, 1997; as cited in Erden, 2007) (Hotaman,2010).

To put in an ounce, teaching is a scientific process within which the socio-cultural, political, and educational structures along with knowledge collaborate to ensure an elaborated social continuance.

D/ Language teaching occurs in a given context. In other words, all of language, learning, and teaching are to be considered within a context, a setting, and a background as a fundamental part of language teaching theory. (Stern, 1983 :48). Three questions are introduced by Stern in this respect :

a/As the different languages of the learner manifest themselves in different contexts : political, social, and cultural ; these contexts are directly or indirectly implicated in the language learning process. Therefore, any initiative to elaborating a language teaching theory needs to answer questions like : What is the place of languages and language learning in this society ? What is the sociolinguistic context in which languages X or Y are to be taught ? Accordingly, social sciences as sociology, sociolinguistics, social psychology, and cultural anthropology are the most eligible sciences to treat these questions. (Op.cit.,49).

Respectively, in attempt to understanding the concept of context in Stern's descriptions, it is important to reflect on his questions.

The tradition each language learner has acquired in the process of language learning is that whenever language is approached from a social angle, we need to refer to social sciences.

In the Algerian context, the sociolinguistic situation is eclectic either at the level of the existing languages and language varieties, or structurally when it comes to languages' systems and sociolinguistic variations. Therefore, as these assorted means of communication envisage sociocultural ends, they have been acknowledged different positions either politically or socially/ideologically speaking. However, in so far as education is also charged with the representation of these local communication means, foreign languages are imperatively impacted by their co-existence with Arabic and Berber languages. At a considerable extent, French has gained a more or less silhouhetted territory among the Algerian speakers to achieve different purposes : scientific, administrative, social, attitudinal, etc. Therefore, at the educational level it has long been the first foreign language in Algeria, though its social and educational position is becoming more and more questionable with the briskly evolved need and aesthetics of the English language as the second foreign language in Algeria, especially among youth and intellectuals.

b/ Another important question that aims at interpreting the setting of language, learning, and teaching concerns the educational setting : What is the place of languages in the educational setting, and how is second language teaching fitted into the specific educational context ? According to Stern (1983 :49) an answer to this question requires an educational analysis preceded by a sociological and a sociolinguistic analysis under (a).

 In response to the questions above, it might be more concrete to refer to the Algerian context than others at scope.

 In Algeria, the teaching of languages has long and ever been piloted by the teaching of Standard Arabic from primary schools through university (for studies of or in Arabic), and recently beside Tamazight. While the teaching of French precedes the teaching of English, the two foreign languages co-exist from the middle school through university. Therefore, in order to understand the position of foreign languages in the educational system, it is important to refer to their rankings among other subjects like : mathematics, natural sciences, Arabic, etc.

As a matter of fact, while French and English's highest coefficient in the middle school reaches three, and four in the secondary school, natural sciences and mathematics' reaches seven in both. Respectively, the teaching of foreign languages in the Algerian educational system is undoubtedly acknowledged through an elaborated curricula and tertiary education, however, their teachings as main subjects are not coequal in status with the teaching of their counterparts in former reference.

In the same token, sociolinguistic attitudes towards the learning of foreign languages in Algeria largely contribute to either the promotion or the abasement of foreign languages depending on their representations in the learners' socio-cultural minds.

To this respect, we first need to define (socio)linguistic attitudes in order to understand what might be felt and believed about languages. Richards, Platt et Platt (1997) (in Lasagabaster, 2006, p.394) define the concept as follows :

> Attitudes que les locuteurs de différentes langues ou de variétés linguistiques différentes ont à l'égard des langues des autres ou de leurs propres langues. L'expression de sentiments positifs ou négatifs concernant une langue peut être le reflet d'impressions sur la difficulté ou la simplicité linguistique, la facilité ou difficulté de l'apprentissage, le degré d'importance, l'élégance, le statut social, etc. Les attitudes à l'égard d'une langue peuvent aussi refléter ce que les gens pensent des locuteurs de cette langue (A).

According to the authors' definition, language learners develop their attitudes towards languages during the acquisition / learning process. Linguistically speaking, a large extent of familiarity between the speaker's mother tongue and other languages approves positive attitudes and impressions, which ensure a fertile terrain of learning and comprehension.

On an opposite hand, the wide range of differences between the speaker's mother tongue and other languages might be one of the reasons behind negative impressions that learners shape about a language. Thus, their learning of the language becomes difficult, the reason for which language acquisition and learning at early childhood are commonly recommended.

Other sociolinguistic attitudes do not emerge from different linguistic structures of languages ; they are the product of extra-linguistic factors which dominate the speaker' daily life and affiliations. Among these, the social, political, and economic statuses of languages, and the literary and scientific contributions to the language consistency, aesthetics and value. Also importantly, the psychology of teaching a language is by all means involved in attitudinal foundations and structurings.

c/ Concerning the language teaching/learning background, the idea is to understand the historical and the contemporary settings of language teaching. In other words, this teaching must have emerged or developed from a former pedagogical background with past and existing progressions. The question to ask is :

What are the historical antecedents of the theory, and what is its place in the historical development of language teaching ? Therefore, the history of language teaching, educational theory, and the interpretation of the 'state of the art' are the studies underlying any analysis in response to these questions. (Op.cit.49).

A response to this question would need to offer a whole diachrony concerning the life of the English language in Algerian education at different learning levels. This descriptive process would focalize the major reforms and approaches that have geared the teaching of English in Algeria, and which have overlapped failures and successes (refer to the module of pedagogical trends).

4. Conclusion :

The aforementioned models, as represented by different scholars, have shaped the basic ground of applied linguistics as a mediating science. Moreover, the different models have exposed the way this science interacts with language sciences and the socio-political and economic components of the educational enterprise.

The contents of the two first chapters would have crystallyzed the interconnectedness between concepts of teaching, learning, language, and their context (in its narrower and broader sense).In other words, the real world context is necessarily dependent on the socio-political one, and by means of deduction, their components would directly or indirectly impact the learning process.

This conceptual framework has conducted our curiosity to explore one of the most appealing areas of interest for the pre-service teacher training process. Hence, In the next chapter, a visualization of the way applied linguistics, foreign language teaching theory and its relevant concepts are shaped in the practical world will be represented throughout Grabe's 21st Century Applied Linguistics..

Assignment :

1/ In light of what you have learnt from Stern's General Model, how would you redefine applied linguistics ?

2/ How would a foreign language teacher also be an applied linguist ?

3/ What does Stern's model importantly add to the other preceding ?

4/ What key elements make difference between teaching as a concept and teaching as a profession ?

5/ Explain the nature of language in Stern's model.

6/ Explain the notion of context in Stern's view.

7/ Describe the interaction between the concepts of teaching, learning, and context.

8/ How does applied linguistics make use of these concepts and their interactivity ?

-

Endnotes to Chapter Two

(1).Agrammar which makes use of transformational rule notions in which a sequence of symbols is rewritten as another sequence, according to certain conventions-for example, English statements and questions can be related by transforming the order of the subject and first auxiliary verb, as in *It's there vs. Is it there ?*. (from Crystal (1999)).

(2). In one of his most important theories, de Saussure presented dichotomies that describe the structural characteristics of language : Signifier/Signified-synchrony/diachrony-paradigmatic/syntagmatic-langue/parole.

(3). Chomsky (1965) distinguished between linguistic competence (the sum of knowedge and rules about language stored in the brain of the members of the same society), and performance (the way this knowledge is performed by the members of the society in different ways).

(4). Hymes communicative competence (1972) emphasized the sociolinguistic aspects of competence.

(5).They summarize the nature of the human language, they are : duality, productivity, arbitrariness, interchangeability, displacement, specialization, and cultural transmission, vocal-auditory channel, broadcast transmission and directional reception, rapid fading, total feedback, semanticity, discreteness, prevarication, reflexiveness and learnability

(6).Today psychoacoustics is usually broadly described as auditory perception or just hearing, although the latter term also includes the biological aspects of hearing (physiological acoustics) (fromYost, 2015)

(7). Also TPR. a language teaching method developed by Asher in the early 1970s in which items are presented in the foreign language as orders, commands, and instructions requiring a physical response from the learner (e.g. opening a window or standing up). TPR gives greater emphasis to comprehension than many other teaching methods. Both this and the emphasis on teaching language through physical activity are to lead to more effective learning. (From Richards and Schmidt, 2010).

(8). In banking education, Paulo Freire refers to the teacher as the 'oppressor' and the student as the'oppressed'. To mean, Freire denounces the fact that teachers are considered the only knowledgeable persons inside classrooms, who teach ignorant persons (students).

(9). Attitudes that locutors with different languages or language varieties have towards the others' languages or towards theirs. The expression of positive or negative feelings vis-à-vis a language can reflect the speakers' impressions about either the linguistic difficulty or simplicity in a language which either makes its learning easy or difficult. ((A)'s translated content).

Chapter Three

Applied Linguistics in the Twenty First Century

Introduction

The teaching/learning of a second/foreign language has always been confronted to a set of difficulties that at some level impact the good processing of this learning/teaching practice. Some of these problems are repeatedly reported by research works which almost focus on language acquisition, methods of teaching, learners motivation, teachers' trainings, intercultural competence, communicative competence and so forth.

The following chapter is a representation of the research repercussions in applied linguistics which have suceeded the different approaches to foreign language learning, including : Behaviourism, Cognitivism, Humainism, and Constructivism, all along the three schools' approaches to language : the Structuralist, the Functionalist, and the Mentalist schools ; and the teaching methods which have been deployed for this sake : the Audiolingual-Method, the Grammar-Translation Method, and the Communicative Approach to language teaching .

Lecture One : Grabes' Reports on the 21st Century-Research and Concepts in Applied Linguistics

Timing : 4h 30mnts

1.Introduction

Under the status of a professor of English at Northern Arizona University, William Grabe is interested in issues pertaining to language policy and applied linguistics. He has recently co-authored a book in applied linguistics with Frederika Stoller, entitled Teaching and Research in Reading (2020).

2. New Research Tendencies

In one of his attempts to investigating the major developments that applied linguistics has witnessed during the period between 1990 to 2000, Grabe (2010) lists the following developments :

1. As part of applied linguistics research and investigations of language teaching, language learning, and teacher education, a number of research interests are more oriented towards **'notions of language awareness'**, '**attention and learning'**,**'focus on forms'**, **'learning from dialogic interactions', 'patterns of teacher-student interaction', 'task-based learning', 'content-based learning', and 'teacher as researcher through action research'** (Grabe, 2010 :5). In other words, the research in/on language learning is being more and more interested in the cognitive processing of information and knowledge, connecting language learning to the real world of social practice, using language to achieve social transactions, and the way learners develop conscious learning about the forms and the functions of the language (Doughty and Long,2003 ; N.Ellis,2007 ; Robbinson and Ellis,2008; Tomasello, 2003; VanPatten and Williams, 2007 in Grabe, 2010 :5).

Furthermore, task-based and content-based learnings, **skills-centered learning** and **'strategies-based instructions'** are being adopted by '**instructional research'** which is principally inclined towards issues in language curricula and planning (Dought, 2009 ; Cohen and Macaro, 2007. Long and Doughty, 2009 ; McGroarty et al. 2004; Samuda and Bygate, 2008) in Grabe,2010 :5).

Respectively, **Language teacher development** is also being considered from a new angle, especially under Widdowson's (1998-2000) proclamations which have aimed to focalize communication in the foreign language throughout the teaching practice. In Widdowson' view, the **'natural language input'** shoud consider the **ecology** of its teaching which is basically based on **'language classroom context'** (Widdowson, 1998) and the skeletal frame of language teaching. More supportively, (Widdowson, 2000) has invited the attention of applied linguists to sponsor the teaching agent through their mediating function with 'all aspects of Hymes's notion of **communicative competence',** the main idea resides on **'**balancing language understanding so that it combines grammaticality, appropriateness, feasibility, and examples from the attested (Widdowson, 2000 in Grabe, 2010 :5).

To put it in an ounce, the teaching of foreign languages is conducted upon a communicative stretch along which form and function collaborate in the frame of a pedagogically foreign language context ; the product is, par excellence, foreign language learning and acquisition. .

In another recent research view on language teachers education, emphasis is being put on the cultivation of **'action-research'** teachers. The idea intends to train teachers to become '**reflective practitioners'** inquiring the effectiveness of teaching and learning in '**local classrooms'** (op.cit.2010 :5).

2. In another aspect of language teaching development, a set of debates has been raised on the 'role of **critical studies'** (op.cit.2010 :5) including among a range of disciplines : 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) (Op.cit, 2010).

3. Another emphasis of applied linguistics research is on the use of more than one language in classrooms and educational contexts in general as a product of similar situations existing in the community they represent and in other professional sectors. This kind of research attempts to

study bilingual and multilingual practices and the sociolinguistic/educational gaps and competencies they may cover.

4. Another emergent subject has been adopted by applied linguistics research which is language assessment, whose objective rests, on one hand, on assessing the language used by learners and its development, and on the other hand, this assessment is a means to 'improving learning effectiveness on an ongoing basis' (Grabe, 2010 :6).

5. A rather evasive approach to areas of study related to neurolinguistics[1] are supposed to be submitted to applied linguistics research concerns in the future. Neurolinguistic studies in their multimodelled approaches underline the functioning of mind in association to language use and language learning. Under this association, some conducted studies have brought remarkable results as it is the case for 'the accessible expalnations relating neuroscience to reading ability in Wolf (2007)' (op.cit :7).

Noteworthily, all the applied linguistics research and concepts developed in Grabes and others emanate from theoretical considerations and guidlines that probed into the understanding of an applied science like Stern's, Mackey's, Ingram's, Spolsky's, Streven's and others. Therefore, part of this course needs to bridge theoretical foundations and practical reverberations throughout an understanding of educational research.

3. Educational Research :

Education is mainly a teaching field within which social actors collaboratively interact to share ideas, knowledge and participate in the promotion of sociopolitical bodies. The latter is initiated and sustained by ongoing research. Efron and Ravid (2013 :3) define educational research as follows :

> Educational research is usually focused on studying the process of teaching and learning. Traditional educational research is often conducted by university based researchers who carry out an investigation of others at the school setting. The ultimate goal of this type of educational research is to develop universal theories and discover generalized principles and best strategies that ultimately improve the quality of education.

The authors in their definition distinguish traditional educational research to highlight the development of theories, which have valuable regard upon the quality of teaching. However, the central importance attributed to theories and their developments emanates from the research being conducted and being a status assigned to all specialists who are outsiders of a definite teaching institution, and who do not fulfill the qualities of field practitioners who are in direct contact with social participants. (Mertler & Charles, 2011) in Efron and Ravid (2013) would refer to these researchers as 'objective', 'uninvolved' and 'unbiased', and they are the ones who represent traditional educational research.

Therefore, the teachers at the secondary school level are generally recipients and applicants of already elaborated curricula and programmes, and they have no regard on the contents of these two. Under this top-down process (from higher institutions like university researchers and government to secondary school teachers), the quality of teaching/learning remains questionable, and generally taking a long time before reassessment.

However, the set of teachnig/learning issues encountered by recipient teachers is generally well perceived, and sometimes undertaken individually. This fact is especially the product of the teacher's extent of familiarity and know of the classroom and the educational contexts. Efron and Ravid (2013 :4) develop it and put :

Practitioners have grown to recognize the distinctiveness and validity of their knowledge and have realized that there is no substitute for their familiarity with the particular setting. Understanding of students' social and historical circumstances and knowing their past and present successes and failures, fears, and dreams enable the practitioners to gain insight into their students' worlds.

Respectively, the authors claim would systematically join the introduction of a new kind of research which 'democratically' follows a bottom-up process, especially stimulated by a learning/teaching problem and recovered by reflection and the teacher's'subjective' reactions. This is called 'action research', and it represents one of the prominent research strategies developed through the twenty-first century. In the following, we provide a discussion of action research and some of Grabes 21st century applied linguistics concepts.

3.1 Action- research :

Far from being the concern of this module to offer a methodology of action research, we delimit the lecture to understanding the role and the need for this reflective project in learning/teaching foreign languages.

Action research was initially introduced as a concept by Kurt Lewin, a social psychologist targeting 'a democratic social change' during the 1930's /1940's, and stressing the importance and the emergency of implicating the social actors who are taking part of a need-to -change situation to undertake the change *per se*. Lewin proposed an action research model 'based on a cyclical process of fact finding, planning, action, and evaluation of the results of the action (Lewin, 1946)'(in Efron and Ravid (2013 :6). In education, it is one of the research approaches that have long been deployed for practical purposes. Its circuit initially involves the teacher-researcher to 'problematize' a learning situation in order to apply an act-to-change research process, as Burns puts it :

> Action research involves a self-reflective, systematic and critical approach to enquiry by participants who are at the same time members of the research community. The aim is to identify problematic situations or issues considered by the participants to be worthy of investigation in order to bring about critically informed changes in practice. (Burns, cited in Cornwell 1999, p. 5) (in Burns, 2015 :4).

Respectively, action- researchers can be referred to as 'reflective practitioners' whose teachings are never monochromatic, rather they are based on regular interventions throughout questioning, testing and applying ; the result would undoubtedly engage 'local classroom' participants (teachers/learners) in a socio-pedagogical convention which affords knowledge to both sides. The idea has well been summed-up by Burns (2015) when she states :

> action researchers are change agents aiming 'to take a stand for a preferred future' (Atiti 2008) and interested in resolving, reformulating or refining dilemmas, predicaments or puzzles in their daily lives through systematic planning, data-gathering, reflection and further informed action. (Burns, 2015 :3).

This description of action research is itself distinguished to highlight the focus on the teacher as the most active actor in the teaching practice, and let us refer back to the traditional eduactional research throughout a comparison offered by Efron and Ravid (2013 :5).

Comparison of Traditional and Action Research (by Efron and Ravid (2013 :5).

Traditional research	Action research
The purpose of research is to develop theories and discover generalized principles.	The purpose of research is to improve practice**.**
Research is conducted by outside experts.	Research is conducted by insiders who are involved in the context**.**
Researchers are objective, detached, removed, and unbiased.	Researchers are subjective, involved, and engaged.
Educational researchers conduct research on others.	Action researchers study themselves and their practices.
The research questions are predetermined and reflect outsiders' research interests.	Research questions arise from local events, problems, and needs.
Research participants are carefully selected to represent a population of interest.	Participants are a natural part of the inquiry setting.
Generalized rules and practices are applicable in other educational settings.	Every child is unique and every setting is particular.
The researchers' findings are implemented by practitioners.	The action researchers' findings are directly applied to their practice.
Educational changes occur top-down in a hierarchical process.	Educational changes occur bottom-up in a democratic process.
There is a separation between theory and action, and between research and practice	Boundaries among theory, research, and practice are blurred.

Therefore, among the areas of change in the educational sphere, the social practice is subjected to continuous development actions targeted by practitioners/teachers. The aim is to realize a social integration of the learners within the social facet of the teaching practice. Banegas and Consoli (2020) highlight three major concepts representing action research *: 'transformation', 'empowerment', and 'development'.*

In order to sustain their claim, Banegas and Consoli (2020) make reference to (Borg and Sanchez, 2015) when they say :

> Within the overlapping fields of applied linguistics and language education, action research is conceived as a manifestation of teacher/practitioner research, professional development, and collaboration between higher education institutions and other institutions in a given community

In other words, the concept of transformation is basically initiated by the will to change and /or transform a teaching/learning situation at issue ; the idea emanates from the determination of the teacher/practitioner to change one's beliefs, pedagogical/psychopedagogical behaviours, and practices. Hence, the for-change agents make use of a variety of reflection tools (abstract/concrete) in order to ultimately realize developmental changes. Among these tools, we mention collaborative teaching/learning which is a socializing practice that permits the identification of different social relationships and social intentions, the empowerment of the involved agents (teachers/learners), beside a pertinent focus on 'social justice' (Banegas and Consoli (2020)) .

3.1.1 Action and Reflection : Two Leading Concepts :

Banegas and Consoli (2020 : 177/178) identify three central dimensions in their conceptualization of action and reflection, these are : (1) context, (2) agents, and (3) issue(s).

a. Context :

Banegas and Consoli (op.cit) refer to context and say :

> context is understood as the overall complex and holistic socio-educational landscape in which teachers' educational practices are embedded –a landscape which, with its local, multifarious characteristics, has strong potential to shape and dynamically influence the practices of teaching and learning.

Clearly put, the notion of context comprises all the components of the teaching environment, including : 'institution, the curriculum, the regulations, authorities, administrators, and the geographical, cultural, and financial conditions that exert different levels of influence on teachers and learners' (op.cit).

Therefore, the undertaking of an action research implicates the working frame that represents the teaching practice. The nature of this frame orients and conducts the change action that is

initiated by the practitioner. The latter should (sometimes) account for administrative support and encouragements, educational policies, teaching/learning objectives, time, regional/cultural parameters, financial resources, available bibliography, etc. Ultimately, action research is a context-based and a context-directed practice which largely depends on the personal/subjective involvment of the teacher who frequently resorts to their individual /excessive efforts in order to bring change to a local classroom.

b. Agents :

Acting agents in language classroom (teachers and learners) are only distinguished through some properties characterizing teachers as the leading agents whose actions vary from orientation to control. They have long been traditionally considered as instructors and constructors without whom any kind of learning would take place.

However, action research, with the change profile it advocates to the teaching profession, is necessarily a methodology which exploits its environment in order to serve a local purpose. Being aware of the language issues encountered during the learning process, both teachers and learners offer distinct (sometimes common) perceptions about the failures of a teaching/learning practice. Hence, the initiative uphold by teachers to reflect on failing actions importantly trust the learners' feedback.

The research project implicates both teachers and learners, with the latter participating with interpretations, descriptions, and sometimes individualistic suggestions. Therefore, the nature of the action-reflection research accounts for the learning styles and preferences that majorly characterize a language classroom.

Importantly, this fact contributes to extending the prior change- attempt enhanced by both teachers and learners (to accept to transform/ change a teaching/learning at issue) into another kind of change, one which ranks both the teacher and the learner a researchers status.

Under this classification, teachers would promote their responsibilities into active participants who do not passively receive and take for granted a teaching method or resource. They would publicly expose their research projects in teachers Associations, pedagogical trainings, and other teaching organizations.

In parallel, learners would develop autonomy in conscientiously exploring the contents and the objectives of their curricula and education systems. Moreover, they would expose their self-efficacy in understanding and developing their learnings.

c. Issues :

Being an incentive behind the teacher's reflection, an 'issue' is the core element of action research ; according to its nature and effects, it controls the layers of this research. Burns and Westmacott (2018 :16) detail the characteristics of this concept and say :

> Teachers may want to address classroom topics or questions that have perplexed them for some time, or understand more comprehensively what they need to change in their thinking and practices as they develop a new curriculum or course, or adopt new forms of assessment. Alternatively, they may wish to evaluate the outcomes of introducing new materials, resources, or technology to their students, or to experiment with different kinds of tasks to discover which lead to more effective learning.

In the author's claim, an issue is seldom always a problematic learning/teaching situation which incites the will to reflect and change. When teachers develop curiosity towards understanding the teaching/learning environment, they become aware of the utility to bringing innovations to their and to the learners' daily practices. In other words monotonous teaching/learning, even successful, can itself represent an issue.

However, authentic regards to the profession of teaching and to the act of learning would conceptualize an issue along the rhymes of the world's progress and new insights in teaching/learning practices. The reason for which, updated research-actions, which by no means are restricted to the use of technology, would consistently undertake existing issues in language teaching/learning and would differently operate dpending on different contexts.

To put it in a whole, the conception of 'issue' in foreign language teaching/learning takes its substance from the needs of both the teachers and the learners. Banegas and Consoli (2020:179) report it as follows : '' Generally, the issues approached through action research in language education relate to two broad areas : learners' (language) development (Banegas, 2017) and teachers' professional development (Wyatt & Dikilitaş, 2016)''.

Throughout different contexts and language teaching/learning situations, the following table represents the emergence and the development of the reflection-action research and within which context, agents, and issues interactively operate.

Source	Context	Agents	Issue(s/)Question(s)
Vaca Torres and Gómez Rodríguez (2017	*A public school in Bogotá (Colombia)*	*One teacher, a university-based researcher and a group of year nine learners*	*How could project-based learning influence a group of year nine English as a foreign language students' speaking skill development?*
Altındag and Özmen (2016)	*Preparatory School of Gediz University (Turkey)*	*Two tutors and their B1-level students studying English*	*1. How does using a Facebook platform for using known vocabulary influence B1 level students' sentence production skills?* *2 What are the students' perceptions about using Facebook for vocabulary acquisition?*
Dissington (2018)	*English language courses in language teacher education programmes at a small private university in*	*One teacher educator and his two groups of university learner*	*1 Would a sustained, explicit, systematic approach to addressing the transfer of L1 lexical errors reduce the production of this type of error by students?*

	Santiago (Chile)		*2 How would students respond to a sustained, explicit, systematic approach to addressing the transfer of L1 lexical errors?*
Chacón (2017)	*A teacher education programme at a university in Venezuela*	*A tutor and four cohorts of prospective teachers taking a class for oral expression in English*	*How does one use films in project work to foster critical language awareness of future teachers of English as a foreign language?*
Yan (2017	*A Professional Development of School English Teachers course at a university in China*	*A lecturer and her group of 23 student teachers with varying degrees of teaching experience*	*1 How do student teachers perceive the meaning of teacher research* *2 How does the teacher educator who undertook the action research perceive the meaning of action research*
Calvert and Sheen (2015)	*An English for Occupational Purposes course at a midwestern university (USA)*	*A tutor and a group of learners, refugees and asylees with different levels of formal education*	*How would a classroom teacher design and evaluate a task?*

Context, agents, and issues in action research in EFL (Banegas and Consoli (2020 :180)

4. Conclusion :

The introduction of action –research among the prospects of applied linguistics studies has been of particular importance and interest to teachers and learners who have long been submitted to a kind of imposed instructions about the way the teaching and the learning of foreign languages ought to be. These prescriptions have subscribed the profession of teaching to a resistant atmosphere under which neither the teacher, nor the learner participate in a synergy to fairly overcome issues which hamper learner's'(language) developments' , and teachers'

'professional development'. Throughout a myriad of research projects, action-research has established itself as an opportunity for teachers to first control the practice of their profession, and second to constructively analyze the needs of their learners along a process and over time.

In the following part, we respectively introduce some twenty-first century research projects in Grabe's, which are also forms of reflection research, and which Grabe classifies as part of 'instructive research'.

Assignment :

1/ What is the difference between a traditional teacher and a modern teacher ?

2/ Explain the notion of subjectivity in action research.

3/ Does action research promote autonomous teaching, autonomus learning, or both ? Explain.

4/Does action research always emanate from an issue ? Explain referring to your learning/teaching context.

Lecture Two :

II. The Century's Main Research Reflections :

Timing : 4h and 30mnts

1. Introduction :

In the present lecture, learners are mainly introduced to the major research reflections which pedagogically react to some language teaching/learning issues existing in the practical world. Being major concepts of the twenty-first century, they have been accounted among the most reliable and importing realizations responding to the constructivist and the cognitivist theories of language learning.

2. Task-Based Learning :

Relevant to the conception of task-based learning in the literature, a most convenient definition of the word 'task' in Merriam Webster dictionary is : 'a usually assigned piece of work often to be finished within a certain time'. Therefore, a task-based learning/teaching is a teaching approach which introduces 'real- life' and 'pedagogic' tasks in Ellis's words (2020) for the teaching of foreign languages. It is vehicled by groupness (group/pair works) far from the teacher's help in the during-task process. Naturally, when learners share social roles, they get involved in a 'risk-taking' practice (Pica 1987 in Ellis : 8); this one is a fundamental dimension in task-based learning.

The idea has mainly evolved through 2020 ; it has gained an extended attention throughout the world, and in some cases it is officially administered in educational curricula.

In the view of Ellis (2020) there are four criteria of task-based learning :

1/ A task is meaning-focused :

To mean that the administration of a task in the language classroom seeks to maximize language learning/use without being limited to applying a rule, using a focused form, and performing a specific function (as it is the case with excercises). In other words, in a task, learners are required to construct and perceive meaning throughout available data (linguistic and non-linguistic) in order to process communication.

2/ A task should contain a gap :

   Under this criterion, Ellis refers to 'exercise' in order to clarify the meaning of gap. Hence, in an exercise there is no gap, as all what learners may be asked to do is to pick up mistakes in a text, to arrange scrambled words, to fill in text blanks, or to rewrite in the right tense, etc. However, in a task, the concept can be two types (Ellis (2020)) : 'information gap', which refers to the missing point, idea, or information that makes up the meaning/objective of the task and that needs to be shared by all the learners, and 'opinion gap; in this case learners would be treating a problem in the task, and need to come up with solutions, permitting the exposition of their different opinions. In other words, each learner is asked to reach the gap throughout meaning construction, information processing, and general learning promotion.

3/ In order to achieve the task, the participants need to use their own linguistic and non-linguistic resources :

   In Ellis' statement, the learners need not to be taught the language in order to do the task; they need to be guided to make use of their linguistic and non-linguistic(gestures and facial expressions) resources so as they can achieve a communicative language use . He adds that linguistic resources can also be used for listening as for speaking, as the task can be arranged for direct communication (oral capacities), or indirect communication (audile capacities).

4/ A task is communication-centered :

   Ellis stresses the importance of communication over correct language form in the task achievement. Though, linguistic accuracy is sought to build up collaborative knowledge, and is assigned inevitable attention during the task. The idea, according to Ellis stands at the prior importance assigned to a massive knowledge about the conduct of a communicative process, and the synchronous formation of a linguistic skill with a permanent focus on error correction, and repetition.

   In the following, Ellis's distinction between traditional language teaching and task-based teaching is summarized in his 'Stereotypical classroom processes in traditional form-focussed pedagogy and task- based pedagogy' (Rod Ellis, The Methodology of Task-Based Teachings :

A	B
Traditional form-focussed pedagogy	Task-based pedagogy
Rigid discourse structure consisting of IRF（initiate-respond-feedback）exchanges	Loose discourse structure consisting of adjacency pairs
Teacher controls topic development	Students able to control topic development
Turn-taking is regulated by the teacher.	Turn-taking is regulated by the same rules that govern everyday conversation（i. e. speakers can self select）.
Display questions（i. e. questions that the questioner already knows the answer）	Use of referential questions（i. e. questions that the questioner does not know the answer to）
Students are placed in a responding role and consequently perform a limited range of language functions	Students function in both initiating and responding roles and thus perform a wide range of language functions（e. g. asking and giving information, agreeing and disagreeing, instructing）
Little need or opportunity to negotiate meaning.	Opportunities to negotiate meaning when communication problems arise
Scaffolding directed primarily at enabling students to produce correct sentences.	Scaffolding directed primarily at enabling students to say what they want to say.
Form-focussed feedback（i. e. the teacher responds implicitly or explicitly to the correctness of students' utterances）.	Content-focussed feedback（i. e. the teacher responds to the message content of the students' utterances).
Echoing（i. e. the teacher repeats what a student has said for the benefit of the whole class）	Repetition（i. e. a student elects to repeat something another student or the teacher has said as private speech or to establish intersubjectivity）.

'Stereotypical classroom processes in traditional form-focussed pedagogy and task- based pedagogy' (Ellis: 88).

A parallel to the two pedagogies above is Willis's (1996) respective distinction made between 'accuracy' (form-focused) and 'fluency' (communication-focused) ; Willis also uses repsective terminologies : 'grammatical competence'[2] and 'communicative competence'.

However, from Ellis's, task-based learning can be defined as a classroom practice which stimulates learners' communicative desires and expects teachers to keep an eye on their learners' linguistic knowledge and development.

Examples of Tasks

In the following, Willis (1996) proposes six types of possible tasks which well-support task-based instruction :

' 1. Listing tasks: For example, students might have to make up a list of things they would pack if they were going on a beach vacation.

2. Sorting and ordering: Students work in pairs and make up a list of the most important characteristics of an ideal vacation.

3. Comparing: Students compare ads for two different supermarkets.

4. Problem-solving: Students read a letter to an advice columnist and suggest a solution to the writer's problems.

5. Sharing personal experience: Students discuss their reactions to an ethical or moral dilemma.

6. Creative tasks: Students prepare plans for redecorating a house.' (Willis, 1996: 31/32 in Richards :2006).

Let us consider Willis's fifth type of task and clarify its introduction and evolvement in a classroom context based on Ellis' example of of task-based teaching :

Consider the task below :

Pre-service teachers intellectual responsibility

Knowledge is the vehicle of action

Theory is an initiation to practice

Classroom learning is a collaborative instruction

Autonomous learning is a construction of the self

The task : Pre-service students are asked to share and develop a communicative account in relation to data above.

Pre-Task Phase	During-Task Phase	Post-Task Phase
1. Introduce the learners to the kind of practice they would take, through : -Exposing a prototype -Describing -Fixing the task allotted time 2. Introducing the learners to the objectives of the practice : -Expressing personal ideas, providing information, proposing a solution; using personal language structures -Serving a text to borrow vocabulary -Making errors and resee them in the post-task for correction.	Students' possible Ideas : - In order to develop our language competencies and language teaching practices, we need to read through the literature of foreign language teaching - in-class learning helps crystallyze learning abilities and defficiencies. It is a physical situation wherin knowledge is shared, acquired, and developed. - teacher's status of researcher is importantly based on a marriage between theory and practice - Language teaching is the source and the product of broad knowledge. - Reading helps conceptualize the general view and the focused views.	1. The teacher collects the students' attitudes towards the task. 2. The teacher tries to reach the students' levels of consciousness about the objectives of the task. 3. The teacher exposes students' language errors and correct them 4. Students are invited to propose their personal tasks.

To conclude, this task and many others when adequately practised in a foreign language classroom would betterly develop the learners' awarenesses about the context and the subjects of their learnings.

3. Content-Based Learning :

   Another methodology of foreign language learning which is akin to task-based learning is content-based. Its conception is based on a content which serves as a vehicle of knowledge and information, but importantly as a designer of language structures and use. In other words, in this kind of learning, students are driven by themes and topics which are of great importance and interest to them in order to pedagogically reach linguistic aptitude. Richards and Rodgers (2001) define it as follows :

> Content-Based Instruction refers to an approach to second language teaching in which teaching is organized around the content or information that students will acquire, rather than around a linguistic or other type of syllabus.

The approach has been in existence throughout a far date in the past, when St. Augustine declared :

> Once things are known knowledge of words follows… we cannot hope to learn words we do not know unless we have grasped their meaning. This is not achieved by listening to the words, but by getting to know the things signified. (in Villalobos, 2014 :2)

   From the two statements above, one is to make out that the learning of foreign language is not always a direct focus on grammar and linguistic structures; it is a process whose resources vary with the learners' interest rates and needs. A special focus on vocabulary construct seems to prevail; however, content knowledge is not only communicated through words and concepts, but also through language form.

   In the table below, the different definitions attributed to the concept have been summarized by Yang and Chen (2015) as follows :

Definition of content-based approach by Yang and Chen (2015 :19)

Stryker and Leaver (1997)	Subject matter in CBA is selected from topics or themes based on student needs and interests.
Brinton (1997)	In CBA, contents are the basic element, which is what teachers teach and what students learn.
Widdowson (1981)	The idea of CBA implies the total integration of language learning and content learning.
Brinton (1989)	The CBA method is organized by content or information that students would acquire
Stryker and Leaver (1989)	CBA is based on a philosophy and a methodology that integrates language learning with content learning.
Short (1991)	In CBA, content topics are used for teaching rather than grammar rules or vocabulary lists
Snow (1993)	Language instruction with content-based approach, in which the target language is viewed as a tool of communication.
Tomlinson (2001)	Content should be taught in an easily understandable and meaningful way, allowing learners to make connections to their lives.

3.1 Content-Based Learning : Theoretical Supports

Research on second language acquistion is the most engaged research in the introduction and the assessment of content-based instruction and learning. The approach has initially been based on Krashen's (1982, 1985) comprehensible 'input hypothesis'[3] with the advocacy of largely comprehensible second language input. The latter originates from extensive and varied knowledge represented by a language that becomes progressively elaborate and structurally assorted with the progression of second/foreign language acquistion.

Content-based approach has been sustained by positive results obtained from content /form - focused programs, especially : 'Canadian immersion programs'[4], 'U.S. bilingual immersion programs'[5], and 'the University of Ottawa sheltered programs'[6].

Second language learners in Canadian immersion programs, for instance, have importantly reached 'a near-native L2 learning' with particularly a higher rate of progress in comprehension skills (Grabe and Stoller: 1997). However, after reassessments, this programme has proven a set of limitations at the learners' language acquistion level as it prioritizes meaning over form. Therefore, Swain (1988,1993) came up with the 'output hypothesis' which fundamentally targets the learners' productive language skills, to mean the way they speak and write in the second language. Her hypothesis lies at the content form focus aiming at balancing content knowledge and contextualized language formal acquistion and use.

In other words, both Krashen's 'input hypothesis' and Swain's output hypothesis need to be integrated parts of second/foreign language content-based instruction. In the case of pre-service teachers, the variety of modules they study vary in content ; some of these are educational, linguistic, skills-oriented, grammatical, pedagogic ; and other modules which especially invest on the human capital, and whose contents are rooted in a variety of sciences like : philosophy, politics, economics, anthropology, sociology, education, linguistics, etc. These are civilization and literature modules.

To conclude, content-based instruction is a teaching methodology that underpins two main organs in the human's organization; they are language and knowledge. The reason for which, my personal view objects the overuse and perhaps the over importance attributed to the instrumentalization of games for teaching purposes.

Consider a text from BBC News (See Appendix One : Thinking Digitally, Thinking Critically). The text adequately represents pre-service teachers scope of interest both at the level of language and content learnings. However, secondary school teachers could always acclimate content-based instruction to their learners through a myriad of contents, we list : brochures, flyers, drug-abuse videos/short stories (a fact), Tolstoy's fables, learners' movies/sport idols' biographies, fitness programs, etc. Under these contents and many others, learners should visualize their inputs (ideational, informative, linguistic, lexical) through discussions, ideational developments, points of view, summaries, and conclusions (outputs).

4. Conclusion :

Obviously, the content-based section would have initiated throughout its headlines and appendix an entrance into one of the most recent and revolutionary subjects in the field of education and others, one that mentally excavates information, ideas, behaviour, and knowledge; it is mainly based on criticality.

Assignment :

1/ How would you interpret the input and the output hypotheses in the content modules you study. Provide detailed examples and explanations ?

2/What is the difference between a task and an exercise. Provide examples about the two ?

3/ How can task-based and content-based learnings be the products of reflective teaching ? Explain with reference to learning theories and teaching methods.

4/ Explain the form/function focus in reflective teachings with reference to Stern's concepts of language and context.

5/ What learning theories are engaged in task-based and content-based instructions ?.

6/ what roles do task and content achieve in the learning and the teaching practices ?

Lecture Three :

III. Critical Approaches to Language Education

Timing : 3h

1. Introduction

Different studies have approached the field of education and language education in a variety of ways under the concept of criticality.

This concept has come into existence in response to the socio-political conditions witnessed and reported throughout the world, and that have been characterized by social degradation aspects, like : pauverty, inequalities, illegitimacy, dehumanization acts, human rights violation, etc.

Interestingly, the concept has been introduced in the literature of (foreign) language learning under different representations ; we list among them the following :

2. Critical (language) Awareness in Foreign Language Learning :

Any reference to critical approaches to language must be documented with a consistent knowledge about critical language studies(CLS), which according to K. Taylor, C. Despagne, and F.Faez (2017) aim to «problematize language practices, showing how dominant groups influence social practices (including the establishment of dominant discourse) through "naturalized" conventions ». In other words, the social facet of educational institutions as mainly represented by active agents like teachers and students in the micro-context of classrooms is perceptually and sometimes visually noticed throughout psychological manifestations, like attitudes and behaviours, and also language and linguistic representations of the macro-context, which is the whole society. Therefore CLS main concern is first to socialize classrooms, but more interestingly to drive the attention of society members towards hegemonic and ideological discourse.

Similarly, **critical language awareness** (CLA) according to Chileno (2005) is a ' consideration of language as critical practice' with the same reasoning scheme that reflects

social and political contexts of society. In a psychpedagogical and sociolinguistic frame, Fairclough (1992) refers to the concept as 'conscious attention' to properties of language and language use as elements of language education. Fairclough's proclamation, which joins the structural and the functional components of a language dichotomy has been sustained by H.S ALIM (2010) in his work on CLA entitled : « 'I Love Barack Obama – He's Just So Articulate!': What It Means to be 'Critical' ».(see Appendix Two : Text Study).

3. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) :

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) has joined the applied linguistics ('critical applied linguistics') scope of interests especially 'under Pennycook's (1990) proclamation :

> If we are concerned about the manifold and manifest inequities of the societies and the world we live in, then I believe we must start to take up moral and political projects to change those circumstances. This requires that we cease to operate with modes of intellectual inquiry that are asocial, apolitical or ahistorical. (pp. 25–26) in Lin (2014)

This field of study emerged in opposition to all kinds and forms of inequalities that characterize societies throughout the world. Its different approaches are importantly interdisciplinary, especially based on Van Dijk's Sociocognitive Theory of Critical Discourse Studies[7], Wodak's Discourse-Historical Approach[8], and Fairclough's Dialectical-Relational Approach[9]. The major attempt behind critical discourse analysis is to construct and interpret the interactional relationship between language semiotics[10] and society in order to discern ideological and oriented discourse features which have the power to influence the public belief and opinion about the fundamental percepts of the social body, these like : politics, education, economics, culture: values, religion, sexism, ethnicity, gender, racism, etc (Lin :2014).

In education, CDA might have a variety of implications whose objectives lie at the inspection of in-education discourse to refer to all interactive instances taking place between the leading actors in an educational structure. Put simply, CDA investigates classroom dialogues, textbook texts, communication between teachers/learners and the school administartive staff, the speech of the institution rector/director, and the speech of the education (national, higher) ministry.

In his research on 'Teaching with an attitude' : Critical Discourse Analysis in EFL teaching, Josep M. Cots (2006) introduces CDA in relation to EFL as follows :

> Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) sees discourse as a form of 'social practice', in which language use is seen at the same time as socially influenced and influential. Another characteristic of CDA is that it is engaged and committed ; it intervenes in social practice and attempts to reveal connections between language use, power, and ideology. The critical approach to language study is consistent with a view of education which prioritizes the development of the learners' capacities to examine and judge the world carefully and, if necessary, to change it. Nevertheless, these views of language and education respectively are all too often absent from foreign language programmes.

In discussion of Cots's proclamation, it is worth referring to CDA as a branch in sociolinguistics which is more specialized in the analysis of stretches of speech, or texts in the attempt of understanding the interconnectedness between language/language use and power. However, CDA can also be a social practice which shapes and reshapes ideas throughout discourse to make intentions, biases, and discourse objectives perceptible.

Furthermore, language education is seen as a one of the most reliable means which engage learners in the social-political spectrum by bringing into maturity their thinkings and critical thinking when developing their capacities to deciphering invisible or 'naturalized' (Taylor et.al (2017)) discourse. The idea behind criticality is then to construct individuals' aptitudes to involvements. Consider for study the text in (Appendix Three): Critical Discourse Analysis in Education (Textbook and Curriculum Texts Analysis from « Critical Discourse Analysis in Applied Linguistics: A Methodological Review » by Angel Lin (2014 :220).

4. Critical Pedagogy

Critical pedagogy is a new educational approach that intends to raising more consciousness about the way teaching and learning used to happen in 'banking education' and which Paulo Freire (1960) considers as kind of education which is specifically teacher-based and student-oriented. Freire(1960) was the first to introduce critical pedagogy in the aim of humanizing teacher-learner relationships focusing on the active participation of the learner in the

development of a teaching plan and practice. Among the means deployed for this order are **'critical thinking' and 'autonomus learning'**. Freire (1972) puts it as follows :

> …… What it suggested was to share authority and responsibilities between teacher and students, to empower all members to become active, responsible participants in the learning process, and not merely passive consumers » (Freire, 1972) in Wachob(2009).

In Freire's word selection, authority and responsibilities are two key concepts which need extended details to be correspondingly perceived by the classroom interactants.

4.1 Authority :

In an inspiring exploration of the authoritarian regime in the teaching profession, Badley (2009) would interestingly wish to invite the attention of pre-service teachers to read her thirteen descriptions of authority and the way her research work analyzes and positions its different forms in the teaching practice.

A summary of Badley's descriptions of the concept would aim to distinguish 'coercive' authority from 'consent' authority. The former is mainly based on the teacher's differenciated attitude from the being- taught. Under the belief of making order and maintaining security and respect inside the classroom, this kind of teachers would plunge into a repellent atmosphere wherein learners' attention and interest are lost amongst a negative ion. Badley (2009 :4) describes it and says :

> Some teachers facing discipline problems may be tempted to move toward this kind of classroom without knowing that it will hinder learning, and will secure, at best, only minimal behavioral compliance, while actually engendering resentment and possibly creating further behavioral problems.

However, Badley keeps attentive about the antithesis of coercive authority ('law unbounded by love'), when she refers to 'permissive' authority, which, according to her, is similarly a non-advocated attitude. She describes: « The permissive classroom (love unbounded by law), in which the teacher grants students too much license, also creates an atmosphere inimical to learning. ». In badley's further details, this kind of authority is frequently called upon under the

belief of preventing long 'negotiations' which might provoke time disorders, and also, to my view, for the sake of discharging their capacities from the load of responsibility.

However, 'consent' authority has been introduced along a set of tantamount concepts in Badley (2009 :9) like : moral authority, legitimacy, good will and endorsement (Bass, 1998 ; Dornbusch & Scott, 1975 ; Etzioni, 1959, 1964, 1961 ; Kelman & Hamilton, 1989; Moulakis, 1986; Werkmeister, 1976). Under this kind of authority, teachers and learners share agreements upon a classroom norm without being formerly submitted to neither coercive, nor permissive authorities. In other words, consent authority is based on morality ('moral authority') which according to Amy Morin (2020) : « refers to the set of standards that enable people to live cooperatively in groups. It's what societies determine to be "right" and "acceptable." ».

Similarly, the meaning of authority in Freire's, as it applies to critical pedagogy, would be based on longyear consent between teachers and learners about the 'classroom ethos'[11] (Badley, 2009). The latter refers to the set of rules, beliefs, mutualities, and qualities that have been first set up by the teacher throughout a composition of visible and perceptible sentiments engendered in behaviour, moods and modes, intentions, instructive discourse, learnability, teachability, and so on, and which have been subsequently transmitted to the learner.

Accordingly, learners would legitimate ('legitimacy') the teaching practice, while the teacher should have already granted a learning practice. It is then this kind of authority that is shared between learners and teachers and which explains Freire's distinction.

To conclude, under a subscription to a classroom ethos, consent authority is already maintained between teachers and learners. Then in occasional distortions of the classroom norms, learners would have grasped their responsibilities beside teachers to energetically expose power and cooperation.

4.2 Responsibility :

Very tied to the concept of authority in critical pedagogy, responsibility also engages the learners' will to give sense to the teaching practice. When learners regularly react to the

teaching activities throughout questions, research, examples, and homeworks ; they should have perceived their positions and roles vis-à-vis knowledge and information.

Moreover, this responsibility extends its margins to the abovesaid classroom ethos. Learners, and under consent authority develop a feeling of resistance to any norm-breaking behaviour, and thoughtfully enlarge their mental involvement to reach the levels of creativity and originality when, under responsible feelings, they abidingly target classroom enjoyment.

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In a nutshell, the birth of 'critical pedagogy' has been inclined towards a more cooperative way of approaching teaching and learning practices to replace the 'oppressive' (Freire(1972)) nature of this environment being characterized by kind of selfishness, subjectivity, routine, and restraint. The idea as defined by the leading pioneer in this area of study, Freire (1998), accounts for the importance of a relationship beteween teachers and students which should be "just, serious, humble, and generous..." Another description of this kind of relationship is provided by critical pedagogists like Darder(2003) and Zembylas(2013) who base it on "compassion, mutual understanding, and common goals"(in Getahun (2014 :6)) (see K. Kissi (2021).

The concept of consciousness is promptly used whenever critical approaches to language are approached, and critical thinking appears as a sub-skill of critical pedagogy requiring more conscious language learners. Among the set of definitions of critical thinking, Bloom's (1956) initiative, which refers to this practice as" involving analysis, synthesis, and evaluation" (in Sanders (2011 :45)). While the defintions of the concept are different to a certain extent, they share common attributes about critical thinking summarized from Hitchcock as follows :

Critical thinking is a way of thinking, which can apply to any subject ; it is based on reason, revision and evidence using reflection to shape a definite judgment. Further, the set of characteristics that are typical to a critical thinker "involves knowledge, skills, attitudes and dispositions" (Hitchcock (2011)). (Retrieved from K.Kissi (2021)).

5. Conclusion :

As a conclusion to this chapter, a special focus on critical thinking, critical pedagogy, and critical language awareness would be of major importance in discerning the position and the

function of languages in a multilingual context. Hence, this sociolinguistic situation may become problematic in an eduational setting where foreign languages need to be learnt. In the following chapter, we treat the phenomenon of translation as a linguistic tool which has been resorted to in applied linguistics research in order to achieve a teaching of foreign languages.

Assignment :

1/ Explain how would critical pedagogy serve teaching and learning.

2/In which way would sociolinguistics (as a module and a science) enhance critical thinking skill.

3/Provide examples from linguistics lectures you have had before and describe the promotion of critical thinking in light of this.

4/ Do you think language awareness is a skill that is pedagogically enhanced or autonomously developed. Explain.

Endnotes to Chapter Three

(1).The branch of linguistics which studies the basis in the human nervous system for language development and use ; also called meurological linguistics. It specifically aims to construct a model of the brain's control over the processes of speaking, listening, reading, writing, and signing. (from Crystal, 1999).

(2). (Also formal competence), that is, knowledge of the grammar, vocabulary, phonology, and semantics of a language (also see competence). (from Richards and Schmidt, 2002)

(3). Spoken language that can be understood by the listener even though some structures and vocabulary may not be known. According to Krashen's theory of language acquisition, comprehensible input is a necessary condition for second language acquisition. (from Richards and Schmidt, 2002).

(4). A form of bilingual education and used to describe programmes which serve language majority students and which use a second or foreign language to teach at least 50% of the curriculum during the elementary or secondary grades. For example, there are schools in Canada for English-speaking children, where French is the language of instruction. If these children are taught in French for the whole day it is called a total immersion programme, but if they are taught in French for only part of the day it is called a partial immersion programme.

(5). See (4).

(6). Sheltered instruction : an approach to the teaching of second language students based on the Canadian model of immersion education (see immersion programme), in which content is taught in English and made comprehensible to the students by special instructional techniques. The goal of the approach is to enable the students to acquire high levels of oral English proficiency while at the same time achieving in the content areas, i.e. to teach academic subject matter and language simultaneously until the student is ready for mainstreaming.(from Richards and Schmidt,2002)

(7). Within the broader framework of critical discourse studies my sociocognitive approach to discourse is characterized by the Discourse–Cognition–Society triangle. Whereas all approaches in CDS study the relations between discourse and society, a sociocognitive approach claims that such relations are cognitively mediated. Discourse structures and social structures are of a different nature, and can only be related through the mental representations of language users as individuals and as social members.(from Van Dijk,2015)

(8). This approach is different from the discourse critical approach both at the level of research interest and methodical orientation (an interest in identity construction and in unjustified discrimination ; a focus on the historical dimensions of discourse formation) (by Wodak, 2015).

(9).An approach to critical discourse analysis based on the construction of reality.

(10).The studyof signs and their use, focusing on the mechanisms and patterns of human communication and on the nature of acquisition of knowledge.(from Crystal, 1999).

(11). Also classroom climate, the affective dimensions of a classroom such as the atmosphere and feelings of the classroom that can promote or detract from effective classroom teaching and learning. A climate in teaching constitutes the affective aspects of the classroom, such as the feelings generated by and about the teacher, the students or the subject matter, along with aspects of the classroom itself that contribute positively or negatively to the learning atmosphere. An effective teacher is said to create a suitable climate for learning by influencing students' attitudes and perceptions in a positive way. This may be achieved through:

1 establishing an atmosphere in which academic goals are emphasized

2 promoting high standards and monitoring and rewarding achievement

3 maintaining an orderly environment

4 building expectations for success. (from Richards and Schmidt,2002)

Chapter Four

Applied Linguistics Implications and bi/multilinguality

Lecture One : Foreign Language Teaching throughTranslation and the Mother Tongue (L1)

Timing : 4h and 30 mnts

1. Introduction :

In Grabe's applied linguistics research studies, we introduced as one major concern the following (see page 32) :

Another emphasis of applied linguistics research is on the use of more than one language in classrooms and educational contexts in general as a product of similar situations existing in the community they represent and in other professional sectors. This kind of research attempts to study bilingual and multilingual practices and the sociolinguistic/educational gaps and competencies they may cover.

Respectively, one area of interest that applied lingusitics may cover in approaching foreign language classrooms is the use of translation and the learners'/ teachers' mother tongue(s).

2 .Foreign Language Teaching throughTranslation and the Mother Tongue (L1)

Within this area of research, the study of the role and the impact of translation in foreign language learning can be centered around the history of translation as an approach to foreign language teaching beside its generated concepts and their developments along the oscillation between their integration and reintegration in EFL teaching throughout decades.

During the second half of the twentieth century, translation was seldom useful, rather it constituted a threat to correct and natural foreign language (L2) learning. The situation was basically the product of the time teaching approaches which advocated monolinguality through the Audio-Lingual method, and the communicative/situational approach, both presuming 'mechanical habit formation' (Richards and Rodgers (2003: 50f) in Korošec(2013)) to be the best way for language learning and acquisition. This formation resided on the spoken use of L2 as the only medium of instruction and communication even outside the classroom context.

3.Translation through History :

In the history of translation, developments in the Grammar –Translation approach have been subject to continuous debates and reassessments, and later reports by researchers have diagnosed an over use of L1 inside L2 classrooms, beside a very restricted focus on the language grammar and vocabulary. Despite received criticism from a group of experts and learners, translation has been claimed by (Richard & Rogers : 2014) to resist monolingual instruction ; they say: "…in modified form it continues to be widely used in some parts of the world today" (Richard & Rogers, 2014 : 6 in Wilson (1990 :13)), ''and, therefore, the negative criticisms of this method can still be felt today, especially by those who speak out in favour of incorporating the L1 or translation into the AL class'' (Wilson,1990 :13). Similarly, Cook (2010 :9) referred to the approach as a 'villain' which had to be urgently removed from L2 practices (Wilson, 1990)..

Respectively, the 'Berlitz Method' (the Direct Method), as one of the Reform Movement's approaches (1940s-1950s), was to replace the previously mentioned in order to preserve monolinguality inside L2 classrooms through a translation-bare teaching, which accounted for the speaking skill among others, and contextual learning of L2. The main angles of the method have been reported by Hall and Cook (2012, p. 275) in (Wilson, 1990 :15) as follows :

> The Berlitz Method excludes any use of the student's native language in either the classroom or in the student's review materials. By totally immersing the student in the new language, we can most closely simulate the real-life situations in which he or she will be using the language, and eliminate the cumbersome process of introducing a concept first in the student's language and then in the target language.

Developments in monolingual instruction through translation-bare L2 learnings have opened way to the most echoed method of the time, called the 'Direct Method'. Yu (2000 :176) refers to the method as : "the way that children learn their first language, emphasizing the avoidance

of translation and the direct use of the foreign language as the medium of instruction in all situations" (in Wilson,1990 :16).

A series of subsequent approaches and methods have been driven under the Direct Method ; their main concern adapted to the learners' needs for communicative competences in the target language. We list : the Audiolingual Method, the Oral Approach[(1)], and Situational Language Teaching[(2)]. With a monolingual conception, their opposition to translation was not even stressed.

However, the road map of the methods in question was to prepare learners to communicate in monolingual contexts, and the project being kind of 'intralingual teaching'[(3)] (Stern, 1992 :279) and 'monolingual teaching' (Widdowson, 2003 :149) was to oppose 'crosslingual'[(4)] and 'bilingual' teaching (Cook, 2010: 7) (see Gutiérrez (2021)). The idea is that monolingual practice has revealed the recognizable presence and dominance of the learners' L1(s) as part of the EFL learning process. Therefore, many research interests have been oriented towards the study of the impact of L1 on teaching/learning foreign languages in mulitilingual educational settings. In this respect, Hall and Cook (2012:276) state : "knowledge of learners' own language and its relation to the new language was therefore present in the background of monolingual teaching, even when not allowed in the foreground" (Wilson,1990 :16).

The situation has been capitalized on by a group of experts when they hold research projects to depict the learning situations wherein learners transfer linguistic elements from L1 to learn their L2. The main objective was to avoid 'negative transfer' from L1 to L2. The concept was highlighted by Wilson (1990 :17) who says that it : ..... 'came into relevance and linguists adopted analysis from behavourism in that linguistic competence was considered to be a series of habits (Odlin, 1989). Therefore, ''native language influence was thus the influence of old habits, some potentially helpful, some potentially harmful" (p. 15) (ibid). Interestingly, the assumption expanded its concerns to understanding errors as a product of an overlapping between two different linguistic systems (we refer to Lado's contrastive analysis in the next lecture).

4. Further Details about Foreign Language Learning in Multilingual Contexts :

The period between the 1960's and the 1980's witnessed a resetting of the language learning subject with a preliminary focus on its birth and evolvement in Men's life. The current, being especially based on Chomsky's language innateness[5](1986), institutionalizes the human brain through a productive system which ensures early- age acquisition of linguistic entities (sounds, meanings, and use ; it is called the Language Acquisition Device[6]. Beside Chomsky, Lenneberg's Critical Period Hypothesis[8] (1967) whose statement resides at the necessity of acquiring human language before the age of puberty ; the latter is called a 'critical period', ranging from the age of two to the age of thirteen. The theory was, however, opposed by Bee Chin & Wigglesworth (2007) when they confirm adults' ability to learning/acquiring a language under the accumulation of four criteria ; they mention : 'aptitude, attitude, identity and motivation'. Each criterion, when espoused with the adult age and maturity, stimulates the learning product and responsibility over the acknowledged defficiences, which would become subjects to revision and further learnings. Furthermore, post-puberty learning is assisted by analytical and critical abilities, which are generally the products of social and educational experiences that have marked the learners' different backgrounds (see Wilson,1990).

Following age-related theories introduced by the two scholars above, the late 1960's through the 1970's was characterized by the Humanistic Approach[8] (see Wilson: 1990 :19) and its relevant teaching methods. They mainly addressed the grammar-based approach to language learning in order to replace it with the Silent Way Method (by Gattegno), defined by Richards and Rodgers (2010) as :

> a name of a method of language teaching based on the premise that the teacher should be silent as much as possible in the classroom but the learner should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible

Another Humanistic Method is Suggestopedia (enhanced by Lozanov), referring to the mental and psychological comfort in the teaching/learning environment, seeking to prepare relaxed minds while preventing aspects of language teaching which are overloaded and confusing (see Rustipa, 2011:1-2).

Furthermore, Community Language Learning (by Curran) is another method whereby cooperative learning is supported to promote a unified body of individuals. The method intends to discern a communicative behaviour between learners; a way to construct knowledge, acquire, learn, and engrave a social-linguistic interdependence.

All the methods above were based on a group of scholars' rejection of both the use of translation and the introduction of L1 in the teaching of L2.

Along the developing queries about the teaching/learning of foreign languages, the 1970's witnessed a special focus on language learning based on language acquisition. The idea was analytically set out through Krashen's hypotheses.

4.1 Krashen's Hypotheses :

a. The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis :

Under this hypothesis, a distinction between the process of learning and the process of acquisition needs to be made clear. The former is based on voluntary teaching and learning ; it is rather mechanical and consciously advanced. The latter is natural, and subconsciously proceeded thanks to the Language Acquistion Device.

b. The Monitor Hypothesis :

It applies to learners who have accomplished a certain degree of language knowledge, for instance grammar rules. When recycling their acquired input, they systematically recall the rules learnt to confirm correctness. In other words, learning in this concern is mainly form-oriented rather than fluency-based.

c.The Input Hypothesis:

This hypothesis advocates the acquistion of a language through easy, clear, perceptible language structures. In other words, acquistion is enhanced by comprehension.

d.The Affective Filter Hypothesis :

It accounts for the ability of the learner to acquire a quantity of linguistic material thanks to their mental states and cultural conceptions, referring to their psychological readiness : motivation, moods, preferences, and sociolinguistic/cultural attitudes. To put it differently,

learners have the ability to unconsciously refuse and prevent the acquistion of some material under an adverse mental state.

It is noteworthy that Krashen's hypotheses are basically addressing the acquisition of language in the way Chomsky describes it, under a frequent exposure to its use in the listener's environment. Hence, these hypotheses meet the generated concept of the Direct Method, and the one of the Natural Method (acquisition is a natural language learning which considers language as a means of communication rather than a set of grammatical structures) (Krashen and Terell: 1983). During the same period, the communicative approach to language teaching was developed with a special focus on meaning rather than form.

However, further accounts for the unilingual way of teaching the foreign language have proved instances of L1 assistance. The situation being embedded within a strict monolingual instruction and under some bilingual (multilingual) sociolinguistic realities, has contributed to rethinking the introduction of a contemporarily revisited translation, which is by all means, not the grammar-translation version.

4.2 Possible Recall for Translation and L1 Integration ?

Under Classroom bilinguality, pedagogists and experts in translation studies mainly considered the autonomy of both translation and the one of teaching a foreign language as separate disciplines. The former was underlined by specialists in translation; they contributed to the conceptualization of 'didactic translation' and 'pedagogical translation' which were viewed by Delisle and Lee-Jahnke (1998 :167) as synonymous , and define them as : '' a mode of translation practiced as an exercise for the purpose of learning a language". Along this adjustement process, L1 has been considered as a former system which has been succeeded by another similar in nature, but different in form/function and sometimes in sounds and letters. However, this similarity is the dimension that is at times contributing to L2 learning, and at other times hindering this learning. Many works have in some way monotonously reported the L1 and translation through L1 as mediating tools for L2 learning, among these Cook (2006) alternating language approaches and methods which ended with the factual attempt to mentally 'compartmentalizing' the two languages in question (L1 and L2). In other words, these languages cannot coexist for several reasons. First, one of the two languages is already stored in the learner's brain, while the other needs a whole programme to be learnt. Second, the two languages are different systems, and the first one rarely contributes to the learning of the second.

Third, the first language might have been absorbed in an environment different from the second's.

However, the evolution of research concerns in L2 teaching/learning has been ongoingly submitted to the campaign of change throughout the world, and which is mainly marked by the process of migration/immigration. Almost every corner in the world is hosting people with different L1(s) and identities, hence cultures. Therefore, Within classrooms, experts do rarely refer to bilingualism, instead, it is plurilingualism and multiculturalism. The situation has promptly encouraged the use of L1(s) and translation in L2 teaching.

Respectively, three 'turns' have demonstrated a weighty support for the reintegration of translation in L2 teaching : (a) the multilingual turn, by May (2014) which is understood to be ''.. a term used to critique the monolingual ideologies originating in the nation-state that have dominated research in Applied Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition in the U.S''(Trentman(2018) ; (b) the pluricultural turn, by González Davies (2018); or (c) the translation turn, by Carreres et al. (2017) (in Gutiérrez (2021)). Notice that a ''Turn' is a name given to a development that has established itself, or is in the process of establishing itself''(Meier :2016 :132). In other words, the three turns have marked important developments and new conceptions of the translation for pedagogic purposes, with reflective attention upon culture and plurilingualism as dominant factors in the learning of any foreign language.

Consequently, in the literature on plurilingualism, a diversity in the forms of the plurilingual speech inside classrooms has been reported ; we mention : 'code switching', 'code-mixing', 'code-meshing'[9], 'code-changing', 'languaging'[10], translating, 'translanguaging'[11], etc (Wilson :1990). Each of these concepts has been adopted as a sociolinguistic means whereby both foreign language and culture learnings are secured.

About translanguaging, Grenner and Jönsson (2020 :4) report that : ''Examining the use of translanguaging, Williams(2001) discovered that when the pupils systematically had to alternate between their two languages in terms of receptive input and productive output, their skills in both languages improved''.

Concerning the use of code switching as a teaching tool in foreign language classes, Then (2009) in Dorcas et.al (2018 :4) reports that : ''in three government secondary schools in Kuching City, teachers code-switch to repair trouble or silence in university classes. The teachers switched to other languages for re-voice, to calling attention and facilitate learners' understanding and build their vocabulary knowledge.

In another research attempt by Prommath (2016) in Dorcas et.al (2018 :4), interviewed teachers '' suggested that code-switching was not supposed to be carried out word by word; rather, switching should be done inter-sententially or intra-sententially''. One of the interviewed teachers added that code switching is a linguistic means serving classroom 'socialization' and 'organization' (ibid).

5. Conclusion :

Though the integration and the reintegration of translation and L1 in the foreign language teaching practice has witnessed a focused attention by its promoters among specialists in the world, it has continued to be subject to persistent oppositions by an adverse community of researchers.

As a personal point of view, translation and L1 integration, beside other forms of multilinguality should neither be officious nor official ; otherwise, the main objective and subject in an L2 classroom would be dissolved amid overlapped systems.

Moreover, Disharmony in research conclusions and assumptions seems to need to consider foreign language learning experiences which have never applied for a translation or a translanguaging practice throughout an extended period of time in the life of a given foreign language worldwide.

As a most secured learning approach, we believe the best is to retain a foreign language teaching practice in Krashen's and Chomsky's prospects. This conclusion would meet the objectives of the following lecture when seeking to understanding occuring errors in foreign language learning.

Assignment :

1/ In light of previous lectures, is translation elementary in foreign language learning ?

2/ Could translation reflect the form/function duality as represented in Chomsky, Halliday, Widdowson, Ellis , and Willis ? Explain how ?.

3/ List the major motives that incited the recall for translation in EFL classrooms.

Lecture Two : Errors

Timing : 4h 30 mnts

1. Introduction :

In the previous lecture, a talk around translingualism has exposed some teaching contexts which are translation and multilingual-based practices, and as a concluding point, we introduced one of the effects of L1 integrations and translation on processing an unsecured learning of a foreign language, especially throughout the settlement of errors within disarrayed language practices.

2. Understanding Errors :

Three linguistic approaches need to be tackled to understand foreign language learners' errors :

1. Contrastive Analysis

2. Error Analysis

3. Interlanguage

2.1 Contrastive Analysis :

It stands for an analysis of the differences and the similarities between two or more languages in the learner's repertoire. It has been undertaken by several studies in response to the behaviour of the learner towards these languages (the first language(s), and the second language(s)). The approach tries to examine the points of similarity and /or difference that may become reasons behind errors.

Respectively, Lado (1957 :2) states that a distinction between the two systems would make clear to the learner that languages differ. He claims : '' Those elements which are similar to the learner's native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult ''.

In the literature on language errors, contrastive analysis has visualized the concept of language 'interference' or 'transfer' which is generally the product of differences characterizing the mother tongue and the new language. Gargallo puts it clearly and states that : '' a linguistic interference is produced when a learner uses phonetic, morphological, syntactic or lexical features of the native language (L1) when speaking or writing in the target language (L2) '' (in Ciesielkiewicz : 2015).

Examples from the Algerian context would probably make it clear how interference applies between the mother tongue (Arabic) and English as a foreign language:

1/ *I haven't money, .instead of the English : I don't have money.

2/ *You speak English?., instead of the English : .Do you speak English?

3/*I was always visiting her, .instead of the English : I always visited her.

4/ In some rural areas: the pronunciation of the sound /Ɵ/ as [t]as in [trƏU] instead of the English [ƟrƏU](throw).

(*) incorrect forms.

Accordingly, contrastive analysis is an approach to foreign language learning which helps teachers foresee possible errors in the learner's use of the language (spoken/written), and more importantly, they would become more aware about and able to detect their common occurrences throughout the learning process. Nevertheless, this approach has subsequently become subject to critics during the seventies by advocators of another approach called 'Error Analysis'.

2.2 Error Analysis :

This approach to foreign language learning has been advanced by a group of specialists who noticed a set of defficiencies in the contrastive analysis approach. They assume that the latter subjectively emphasizes the negative impact of errors on this learning, and on the learner's habit- formation learning (behaviouristic approach). In the late 1950's learning theory has witnessed a shift to the cognitive approach, which according to (Snelbecker, 1983) focuses on the learner's cognitive developments, to consider their thinking activity, 'concept formation' and 'information processing', in addition to the cognitive abilities that stimulate problem-

solving and assimilation (in (in Ertmer and Newby : 2013). The approach has supplied the study of errors with the notion of 'context' which has idealized the impact of errors in foreign language learning Corder (1960). In other words, the learning of a foreign language is bound to its source environment both at the level of form and function.The bidirectional interdependence of form and function explicates the impact of the contextual elements that ex/intralinguistically controls language use. In the literature, no exact definition could be offered to explain the concept of context; however, it seems to be accepted as a composition of factors dominating language use (See Dohn et al :2018) ; we can list :

1/ the setting : it is represented by extralinguistic factors : the channel (spoken/written conversation), the place (eg.the classroom), the interactants (the addressee), the situation (formal/informal), etc.

2/ The subject area of the conversation : the topic

3/ The kind of information : secret/political/personal/private, etc.

4/ The speakers' knowledge rate (advanced/limited, etc.)

5/ The sentences/utterances sequencing order (intralinguistic)

6/ The language style (ironic/metaphorical/direct, etc.) (intralinguistic)

7/ The grammatical structures (intralinguaistic).

8/ The locutors' relationships and interactivity

However, the notion of context also importantly stands for the sociocultural parameters characterizing the native speakers' language. Under this meaning, the approach of error analysis has brought considerable changes and innovations to the foreign language teaching/learning process.

To conclude, error analysis has largely emphasized the form /function foreign language learning, bringing together the behaviourist, the cognitivist, and the constructivist approaches. Learners throughout the world have been conducted to the level of awareness. They have developed cognitive abilities in grammatical categorization, sociocultural semantics of the source language (cognitivism); they have also benefited from contrastive language studies as a

stimulus to predicting the situations which are more likely to include errors. Moreover, the learning experiences and communicative events (practice) have participated in the construction of a language level which cyclically accounts for unconscious and unknown forms and functions of the target language.

2.3 Interlanguage :

An interlanguage in Selinker's (1972) view is a linguistic composition that differs from one foreign language learner to another. It represents a combination of elements from both the native language and the target (foreign) one giving birth to a particular linguistic system governed by its proper rules.

Tarone (2018 : 2) clarifies that ''The linguistic system of interlanguage encompasses not just phonology, morphology, and syntax, but also lexis, pragmatics, and discourse''. To put it clearly, when we consider the Algerian English language learner, the interlanguage may be a composition of both the Algerian dialectical system (depending on different Arabic/Berber Algerian dialects) and the English language system.

David Crystal's definition of interlanguage has importantly emphasized some language behaviours referring to both contrastive and error analysis approaches ; he claims :

> Interlanguage (n) : t h e l i n g u i s t i c system created by someone in the course of learning a foreign language, different from either the speaker's first language or the target language being acquired. It reflects the learner's evolving system of rules, and results from a variety of processes, including the influence of the first language ('transfer'), contrastive interference fromthe target language, and the overgeneralization of newly encountered rules.

In other words, the learner's interlanguages comprise a variety of linguistic forms which are incorrect and others which are conform to the target language rules. However, this composition is dynamic and differs from early age learning to advanced foreign language learning.

At earlier stages, the learning process is heavily infected by language transfer features and the overgeneralization of the grammatical rules learned in classrooms. However, at more advanced stages of learning, especially thanks to daily exposure to the target language use, the learning system develops to filter forms of language which are conform to the target language, and reject the other ones which are incorrect. Furthermore, this learning parameter is assisted by age, and mental abilities which should have also developed in comparison to a past time. At this advanced level, the learner becomes more resistant to errors.

However, the nature of each learner's interlangauge differs according to the set of linguistic elements infused and structured in the learner's mind, especially when characterized by the interpolation of errors. Selinker(1972) calls the phenomenon ' fossilization'. It is generally the product of teaching and learning methods (for instance teaching through translation), habit-formation, acquisition, non-referenced teaching, teacher-centered learning, etc. David Crystal defines the participial 'fossilized' as follows :

> Fossilized *(adj)* (2) In the acquisition of a foreign language, the stabilization of a level of achievement in the use of a linguistic form which falls short of the norms of the target language. No further learning takes place, and the form becomes a fossilized error in the usage of the learner, part of the learner's interlanguage.

In Crystal's definition, an error can be fossilized in the learner's interlanguage and becomes an integral part of it. It becomes than structured and stable to resistant in this system. The idea enhanced in this definition would meet some of the objectives of critical thinking and the promotion of autonomous learning, which largely contribute to averting the fossilization of wrong language forms.

To conclude, the theory of interlanguage, as opposed the other two (contrastive analysis and error analysis), has highlighted the meaning of foreign language and its learning ; it has summarized the two first approaches in understanding errors, but it has also discerned the place of correct forms among the wrong ones in the interlanguage. The conclusion is that interlanguage theory helps teachers/applied linguists examine the evolution of the learner's new constructed system of communication, visualzing, to a certain extent, native-like outcomes. .

3. Exploring the Causes of Errors :

While some of the reasons explaining the occurrence and /or fossilization of errors have been mentioned above, their restatement needs to be refocussed beside others, both introduced by Rustipa (2011 :18) as follows :

> Many learner errors are produced by learners making faulty inferences about the rules of the new language(...) These errors can be divided into three sub-categories: overgeneralization, incomplete rule application, and the hypothesizing of false concepts...

Rustipa drove the categorization of errors from Richards (1971) who came up with two types of errors in the foreign language process : 'intralingual' and 'developmental' errors. Noteworthily, Richards (1971) bypassed contrastive errors in his paper, to mainly focus on these two.

3.1 Intralingual Errors :

Richards (1971 :6) defines intralingual errors as follows :

> intralingual errors are those which reflect the general characteristics of rule learning, such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules, and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply.

In the following, some examples are provided to highlight Richards' and Rustipa's categorizations of errors.

3..1.1 Overgeneralizations (Faulty Generalization) :

Examples from the Algerian context would represent some learners' faulty generalizations of grammatical rules, consider :

The understanding of the past perfect tense rule as a tense used to refer to actions happening in a further past before another more recent (the past simple), may be perceived by some learners as a tense referring to any long dated action in the past. Eg : The Peterson's had regained their ancestors' territory in 1740. (instead of …..regained in the simple past tense).

3.1.2 Incomplete Application of Rules :

In the following example, a foreign language learner partly reports the action in the right way (the use of tense), while part of it is erroneous (the use of the date) :

She said : ' he intends to go to London, tomorrow' (direct speech form)

She said that he intended to go to London, tomorrow* (indirect speech form: incomplete rules application)

Instead of : She said that he intended to go to London the following day. (complete rules application).

3.1.3 Incoherent Rules Application :

Sometimes, foreign language learners have the ability to produce well-formed grammatical structures in a grammar lesson. However, the contextualization of this practice is sometimes a failure. For instance, a context-bare passive form of the sentence :

Canada receives hundreds of skilled persons worldwide each year, is : Each year, hundreds of skilled persons worldwide are received by Canada.

In a contextualized practice, the use of either the active or the passive forms is not random. It obeys to the semantics shaped by the context. The active : Canada receives hundreds of skilled persons each year, would aim to emphasize and stress the number of people leaving for Canada each year. However, the passive form would wish to shed light on the country that receives a big number of the most skilled persons in the world (Canada).

3.2 Developmental Errors :

In his definition of developmental errors, Richards (1971 : 6) claims :

> Developmental errors illustrate the learner attempting to build up
> hypotheses about the English language from his limited experience of
> it in the classroom or text-book.

This definition can be equated with Richards(1971) and Rustipa's'hypothesizing of false concepts'. In order to support this definition, a variety of examples can reflect the set of faulty hypotheses construed by English language learners in Algeria, consider :

a/ At the level of vocabulary : leraners sometimes confuse the words : home/house, so/very/too, make/do, etc.

eg : She does so many mistakes*

eg: She is too beautiful*

eg :The text is too clear*

eg : Our home is so big*

eg : I am going to my house*

b/ At the level of prepositions : confusion is generally made between the prepositions : at/in, under/below, in/within, among/between, etc.

eg : Children look very pretty when dressed up in parties*

eg : I think you lost your pen below the desk*

eg : in the lines of this passage, we perceive the author's sadness*.

E/ At the level of participials : 'ing' participials are often confused with 'ed' participials as in : interested/interesting, producing forms like : The lesson was interested*, or the form ; I am interesting*.

Furtheremore, the 'hypothesizing of false concepts' may extensively concern the wrong conception and perception of the concepts shared among the members of the native language

community. The phenomenon is frequently represented in foreign language learners' communication acts, mainly throughout errors.

Some of these concepts reflect cultural beliefs and practices, these like the concepts of : nature, marriage, family, conflict, love, friendship, life, death, democracy, respect, etc.

4. Towards an Analysis of Errors :

Being an area of research of primordial importance in the field of applied linguistics, the study of errors has received conscientious attention from language and language learning experts. Therefore, for pedagogical and didactic purposes, Ciesielkiewicz (2015) proposes a methodological frame to analyzing errors :

1. *Data Collection :*

Excerpts of language use are collected from oral and written productions of foreign language learners.

2. *Identification of Errors :*

It is first necessary to understand the meaning of errors in order to be able to identify them. Lennon (1991:182) defines an error as "a linguistic form or combination of forms which in the same context and under similar conditions of production would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speakers' native speakers counterparts".

To put it clearly, a foreign language learner would produce linguistic forms that a native speaker would not, especially under similar situations and contexts. An exam question tackled by both native and non-native language users would be answered differently in terms of structure, grammar , pronunciation, phonology, intonation, synonymy, and analogy.

The following example is to the least extent possible :

Eg : How long has Ann been studying engineering ?

Native speaker : She has been studying engineering for ten years.

Non-native speaker : Ann has been studying engineering since 2000.

However, learners very often make more mistakes than errors. In this respect, Corder (1967) assumes that a distinction between errors and mistakes is very important to approach, while he considers mistakes as 'errors of performance'. In other words, mistakes might emanate from physical and psychological uncontrolled states like : tiredness, memory lapses, temperament, anxiety, etc. The reason for which they do not impact on nor do they represent competence. However, a description of errors would completely differ from the one of mistakes when the occurrence of these errors explains by quality and degree of recurrence the level and the kind of the knowledge of a foreign language. Subsequently, for the identification of errors as part of this methodology, their distinction from mistakes is necessary.

3. Classification:

Once errors identified and collected, the applied linguist classifies them according to their nature and origin in order to facilitate the analysis.

Ciesielkiewicz (2015) introduced the linguistic, etiologic, communicative, pragmatic and cultural as the most common classification criteria. The latter has been equately discussed in the section about the causes of errors.

5. Conclusion :

The analysis of errors is by all means an important pedagogical and scientific process that continuously evaluate the quality of the foreign language learning process.

Corder (1967:167) assumes that the diagnosis of errors can be important in three different ways :

> First to the teacher, in that they tell him, if he undertakes a systematic analysis, how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains for him to learn. Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing (...).Thirdly, (...), they are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn(...). The making of errors then is a strategy employed both by children acquiring their mother tongue and by those learning a second language.

To conclude, errors, with their ability to 'disbalance' and sometimes to hinder the learning of a foreign language, are opportunities *per se*. Once perceived, meticulously handled, studied, and explained, they enormously contribute to a healthy foreign language learning.

Assignment :

1/ In light of what you have learnt from the lecture about errors, do you recommend translation for ELT. Explain.

2/ What learning theories would support contrastive analysis for the understanding of errors.

3/ What learning theories would support communication errors.

Endnotes to Chapter Four

(1). Another term for situational language teaching. a language teaching method developed by British language teaching specialists between 1940 and 1960. Situational Language Teaching is a grammar-based method in which principles of grammatical and lexical gradation are used and new teaching points presented and practised through situations. Although no longer in fashion, techniques derived from Situational Language Teaching are found in many widely used language teaching textbooks.(from Richards and Schmidt (2010)).

(2).See (1)

(3). The teaching of one language with no assistance of another language.

(4).Teaching throughout another language mediation.

(5).The view that a child is born with a biological predisposition to learn language, and a knowledge of at least some of the universal structural principles which characterize language, also called the nativist hypothesis. The view emerged as part of the mentalistic approach to language espoused by generative linguistics in the 1960's.(from Crystal,1999).

(6).A model of first language learning, encountered especially in generativelinguistics, in which the infant is credited with an innate predisposition to acquire linguistic structure.

(7).In child language acquisition, the hypothesis that there is a particular time-span during which a first language can be most easily acquired. The notion of a critical period is well supported in several areas of child development….It was argued that the critical period for language ends at puberty, because by this time the brain has become specialized in its function….The hypothesis remains controversial. (From Crystal, 1999).

(8). (In language teaching) a term sometimes used for what underlies methods in which the following principles are considered important:

a the development of human values

b growth in self-awareness and in the understanding of others

c sensitivity to human feelings and emotions

d. active student involvement in learning and in the way learning takes place (for this last reason such methods are also said to be student centred).Community language learning is an example of a humanistic approach.(From Richards and Schmidt (2010).

(9). The use of language vernaculars and dialects in different situations ; this permits cultural and dialectical exchanges, achieves communication purposes, and exhibits the way identities are shaped within these vernaculars and dialects.

(10).Shaping knowledge and experiences throughout language (output).

(11).The use of more than one language for teaching/learning purposes. In multilingual contexts, code switching, borrowing, code mixing, code meshing, etc. are forms of translanguaging.

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(Trentman(2018)   Dohn et al :2018   Corder (1960

APPENDICES

Appendix One : (Content-Based Instruction/Learning) : Text Study.

Studying a BBC News : Thinking Digitally, Thinking Critically .

The digital revolution is transforming both education and daily life – and the Campus UNESCO programme is helping students think critically about how they engage.

At Groupe Scolaire les Laureades, a high school in Abidjan, Ivory Coast, a student stares into his grainy laptop screen. It's a rare chance for him to interact with a leading expert and he takes the opportunity seriously. His question: Can digital technology be useful for those without access to the internet?

More than 3,000 miles (5,000km) away in London, Dr. Wayne Holmes, an associate professor at University College London's Knowledge Lab, pauses, then respectfully responds. He argues that to take advantage of digitisation's full potential, an internet connection is truly powerful.

This is one of a series of Campus UNESCO classes, which connect young people around the globe with industry experts and allow them to discuss and think critically. And Abidjan's high schoolers are just some of the geographically and culturally diverse young people joining the call, from students of Greek descent in the US to pupils at an international school in Kenya. But the topic of the digital divide is close to all their hearts**.**

Amid the Pandemic, a Digital Divide

With educators and students forced online by lockdowns, the Covid-19 pandemic accelerated the pace of the digital revolution for schools across the globe, yet the rise of remote learning also exposed the gap between the world's haves and have-nots.

In 2019, before the pandemic, the internet penetration rate was 87% in the developed world, but just 47% in developing countries and 19% in the least developed countries. While that gap had narrowed significantly by the end of 2021, 96% of the 2.9 billion people who still lacked online access were within the developing world.

Campus UNESCO is an ongoing programme that allows young people aged 14 to 18 to discuss issues with experts from UNESCO and civil society, enabling young people to gain knowledge and develop their critical-thinking skills while challenging experts in equitable discussion.

The class in which Groupe Scolaire les Laureades participated forms part of a partnership between UNESCO and Huawei, under the Campus UNESCO umbrella, to help students and future leaders think critically about what the ongoing digital transformation means for their futures and their education. This series has so far delivered 10 online sessions focused on technology and education, reaching students from 39 schools in 21 countries.

Topics covered have challenged the most fundamental assumptions of the post-pandemic classroom and cut to the heart of students' concerns about how digitisation is reshaping their lives. Students have discussed both abstract questions such as "Why go to school when everything is on the internet?" or "How does technology change schools?" and solutions-oriented topics such as "How can we prevent cyber harassment?" with experts from UNESCO, academia, government and beyond.

Opening young Minds

To date, the Campus UNESCO programme has covered topics as diverse as sports, ocean protection, cultural heritage and women as change agents, with speakers running from French tennis player Yannick Noah through to Rwandan historian Marcel Kabanda. It forms part of UNESCO's strong and long-lasting commitment to drive large-scale global programmes for education policies and shape the global education agenda.

Yet both UNESCO and Huawei are also focused on closing the digital divide. Huawei's broader TECH4ALL initiative aims to enhance digital access, improve digital skills and support STEAM (science, technology, engineering, the arts and mathematics) curriculum development. It has impacted over 400 schools and more than 110,000 students and teachers, as well as bringing solar-powered technology classrooms to hard-to-reach communities in Africa.

For UNESCO, the pandemic has presented not only significant challenges but an opportunity to find new routes to access knowledge and imagine new ways for students and experts to exchange ideas and insights. Says Dr Valtencir Mendes, chief of education at UNESCO Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean (OREALC): "We believe the challenges raised by the Covid-19 pandemic as well as the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals can be powerful ingredients for innovation."

Shaping the Future of Education

Faced with navigating climate change, the fourth industrial revolution, increasing automation, and much more, today's students need to become architects of their futures. Tomorrow's leaders will need to be equipped to think critically about the technologies that are shaping the new world, and the complex ethical questions that they raise. Open discussion with experts, as

provided by the UNESCO Campus programme, can help them develop vital critical-thinking skills.

New technology, whether that be human enhancement, virtual reality or artificial intelligence (AI), raises complex ethical issues. Students at the UNESCO Campus sessions have explored topics such as "Why do new technologies need ethics?" and "When should we be afraid of AI?"

An incredibly powerful tool for change that is already bringing global benefits in many areas, AI also carries risks if it is not approached critically and thoughtfully. That is why experts such as Dr. Holmes urges the students of today to get involved in and be shapers of what happens next with the technology.

If the digital divide can be spanned, the global playing field is levelled. That means that all students, whatever their geography and cultural backgrounds, will have the opportunity to become leaders in tomorrow's world. As Huawei's chief digital transformation officer Medhat Mahmoud told students during that same Campus UNESCO session: "Everything we do, the technology we come up with, the way we implement AI – we have to consider our culture, value and ethics. That will bring us together."

at : https://www.bbc.com/storyworks/future/tech4all/thinking-digitally-thinking-critically. Paid and presented by Huawei. At https://www.bbc.com/news/uk-northern-ireland-62267713.

Appendix Two : (Critical Language Awareness) : Text Study

'I Love Barack Obama – He's Just So Articulate!': What It

Means to be 'Critical' by H. SAMY ALIM in Nancy H. Hornberger and Sandra Lee McKay :

Critical language study, according to Fairclough (1992: 7), 'highlights how language conventions and language practices are invested with power relations and ideological processes which people are often unaware of'. Throughout the chapter, this central point will be highlighted, as it is a core component of CLA. This section illustrates what it means to adopt a 'critical' view, or as Freire (1985) once put it, the perspective of someone 'who questions, who doubts, who investigates, and who wants to illuminate the very life we live', by examining some widely taken-for-granted linguistic conventions and beliefs in the discourse about the US President Barack Obama.

The historic 2008 US presidential election generated and continues to generate an incredible amount of discourse on race and race relations in the United States. The majority of this discourse has focused on Barack Obama, the nation's fi rst African–American president, and his incredibly 'gifted' speaking abilities. Recently, I received a phone call from a journalist writing for one of the more progressive internet news websites, asking if I would comment on the 'growing trend' of Black parents and educators wanting their children, not to 'be like Mike', but rather to 'talk like Barack', that is 'to speak standard English'. After speaking with the journalist for only a few minutes, she demonstrated a clear awareness that Barack Obama was a skilled speaker and it was very clear that she was well-intentioned and genuinely concerned about the educational plight of African–American students.

However, the journalist was unaware of several things. One, it is questionable whether or not this was even a 'growing trend'. In fact, in my own work I have found that most parents want their children to be fl uent in multiple language varieties, including 'Black Language' and 'standard English' [see also Smitherman (1990) for multilingualism in Black American communities]. Two, she must have been unaware that she used the word 'articulate' to describe Barack Obama about a dozen times in the half-hour interview, and that it was often accompanied by other adjectives such as 'good' and 'upstanding'. Three, she fi nally recognized that she held a strong desire and hope that 'Barack Obama's public speaking abilities [would] infl uence African Americans to move away from African American English' (personal communication, 9 April 2009). Rather than seeking a linguist to endorse her own views, I suggested to her that she might consider that members of the Black community that I study certainly do respect President Obama for his mastery of 'standard English', but he is more often admired as a linguistic role model for his ability to seamlessly shift in and out of different ways of speaking, rather than for abandoning a language variety used in many Black American

communities as an identity resource and a symbol of solidarity. Needless to say, that story never made it to print.

Other well-intentioned observers might ask the following set of questions: So, what's wrong with all of this? What's wrong with calling someone 'articulate'? What's wrong with wanting Black children to move away from 'African American English' when their language is socially and economically handicapping them? A critical linguist might ask a different set of questions: Why is it that the adjective 'articulate' is used to most often to refer to Black speakers? By the same token, how come skilled White speakers are not as frequently referred to as 'articulate'? What does this pattern of usage reveal about our underlying beliefs as a society about the way Black Americans speak? Why did Vice President Biden's comments about Barack Obama ('He's the fi rst mainstream African American who is articulate and bright and clean and a nice-looking guy', http://www.Critical Language Awareness cnn.com/2007/POLITICS/01/31/biden.obama/) and former President George Bush's comments ('He's an attractive guy. He's articulate', http://www.freerepublic.com/focus/f-bloggers/1781517/posts) incite uproar from members of the Black community? The frequent juxtaposition of 'articulate' with other adjectives such as'clean', 'bright', 'attractive' and 'good' suggests that, within a worldview that (un)consciously privileges Whiteness, Blackness is expected to be 'unclean', 'dull', 'unattractive', 'bad', and yes, 'inarticulate' (or as Black comedian Chris Rock succinctly put it, 'You only ever call somebody "articulate" when you expect them to be stupid!'). From this worldview, it is rare when you fi nd 'one of them' that is clean, nice-looking, attractive and articulate, and thus, it is something to remark upon; otherwise, it would be taken-for-granted as the norm.

Another question that might arise is: 'Well, doesn't the media refer to White candidates as "articulate" as well?' Yes, in fact, they do. But interestingly enough, they tend to do so when the candidate is from the South or represents a combination of other marginalized social identities such as being 'working-class' and/or 'a woman'. This adjective was applied generously to John Edwards with the implicit meaning that 'He's not like those other Southerners who can't talk right', revealing ideologies of language that are loaded with regional stereotypes that depict Southerners as stupid, lazy and slow (just like Obama's not like those other Blacks who can't speak English correctly). The critical linguist might also go beyond racially differentiated patterns of use to ask about factors such as age. Do we use 'articulate' more often to describe children than adults? If so, what does that mean? The critical linguist would then also ask about the immediate interactional context of the comments, the broader social and political contexts, including US racial politics, the historical relations that position Blacks as ignorant, lazy speakers of English, along with the historical use of 'articulate' to describe 'gifted' Black speakers, as well as the position of 'Black Language' vis-à-vis 'standard English' in relation to and within institutions such as schools. And the list of questions is endless.1 Many observers were surprised that seemingly harmless statements like, 'I love Barack Obama – he's just so articulate!' would send some Black folks into a furor over the implicit and patronizing racist assumptions of the speaker, and have White folks 'walking-on-eggshells' when giving their Black friends and colleagues what they believe to be compliments? To think like a critical linguist is to assume, from the start, that language is never neutral, never simply a 'means of communication'. It is to take for granted that language use is always loaded with issues of power, hierarchy and dominance, as well as contestation, resistance and transformation. It is to seek to uncover society's contradictions and to reveal the many taken-for-granted assumptions and ideologies of race, class, gender, sexuality, nationality, etc., that

undergird our actions, as well as how these ideologies intersect and are related to language. It is to draw unexpected connections between seemingly different topics, situations, groups, histories or identities. It is to recognize that these unexpected connections cannot be fully understood without considering multiple layers of context, such as the immediate sociolinguistic context, the broader sociopolitical context and the historical context, all in terms of relations to power.

Finally, and perhaps most importantly, it is not only to think about these issues ofpower, but it is also to do something about them.

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Appendix Three : (Critical Discourse Analysis) :Text Study :

Critical Discourse Analysis in Education (Textbook and Curriculum Texts Analysis from « Critical Discourse Analysis in Applied Linguistics: A Methodological Review by Angel Lin

In this section I shall present summaries of three recent studies (de los Heros, 2009; Gulliver, 2010; Le Roux, 2008) that analyze textbook and curriculum texts from three contexts: Peru, Canada, and South Africa.

The first study by de los Heros (2009) focuses on examining a single textbook: Talent: Language and Communication (Talento: Lengua y communicacion, 2004). This textbook is chosen because it is the official Peruvian language textbook for first-year high school students. De los Heros situates her critical analysis in the larger education policy context of Peru. Recent policy reforms as espoused in Education Law No. 28044 (Ministerio de Educacion, ´ 2005) have established the teaching of respect for indigenous languages and language diversity as a main goal in the area of language education in Peru. However, de los Heros finds that the textbook embeds language ideologies that run against this policy. Specifically, she finds that the textbook evidences a hidden curriculum that advances linguistic prescriptivism and the superiority of standard Spanish over regional varieties of Spanish. The author mentions the use of Fairclough's CDA frameworks (1995, 2003) and SFL. Analysis of the stigmatization of regional varieties of Spanish and their speakers is presented through analysis of specific lexico-grammatical choices. For example, barbarism is used to refer to stigmatized forms, or deformed language to characterize Spanglish. The first-person plural verb endings are also frequently employed to create the impression that students are themselves involved in the learning and decision process. Also, rhetorical questions and mini-dialogues are used to simulate an exchange of ideas between the author/writer and the reader/student when that is not really the case as the text is actually very prescriptive and authoritative (de los Heros,

2009).

This kind of feigned dialogicality is also found in the analysis by Gulliver (2010) of immigrant success stories in 24 English as a second language (ESL) textbooks that are used in the government-funded immigrant education programs in Canada. Gulliver identified two primary strategies of legitimation: positive self-representation/negative other-representation and the maintenance of a low orientation to difference (Fairclough, 2003), despite a feigning of dialogicality through highly inauthentic constructed dialogues. These stories all follow a very similar narrative pattern that legitimates periods of economic hardship, social exclusion, and personal struggles, but overwhelmingly represents hard-working immigrant newcomers as successful and appreciative of the opportunities provided by Canada. Through repeating this storyline in the textbook stories, Canada's role as a redeemer of immigrants is repeatedly asserted.

Le Roux's study (2008) of one real-world math word problem in a foundationyear university mathematics course in South Africa aiming to provide marginalized students with access to tertiary studies in the sciences also mentions the use of Fairclough's CDA framework. In recent math education discourses in South Africa, access and relevance are two notions being emphasized and through the use of real-world word problems, it is supposed that math and science knowledge will be made more accessible and relevant to a greater range of students.

However, le Roux found in the real-world math problem that she analyzed, traces of texts from six different Discourses. She argued that instead of making math learning easier, the real-world word problem actually requires the student to have implicit knowledge of the school mathematical word problem genre and the associated assumptions. It also requires students to buy in some of the capitalist Discourse assumptions embedded in the real-world word problem.

All of the preceding three studies focus on analysis of textbook texts, and sometimes only one single text is analyzed. This single-text approach is good at illustrating an analytical method, for example, le Roux's (2008) method of identifying the traces of other Discourses in the real-world problem text and de los Heros's (2009) use of SFL-inspired linguistic analysis to analyze a textbook. However, in terms of furthering the critical project of CDA, single-texts approaches are useful mainly as a proto-analysis or a pilot study and need to be followed up by subsequent studies that systematically sample a broader range of the curriculum materials in question and over time (c.f., Wodak's DHA; see Reisigl & Wodak, 2009). To review these studies, let us revisit the five commitments of CDA listed at the beginning of this article:

1. CDA is socially committed research.

2. CDA emphasizes presenting its practical implications and applications in accessible language to the public or relevant parties.

3. CDA is interdisciplinary and calls for flexibility and diversity in its approaches and methods to tackle complex issues and problems.

4. CDA takes into account the interests, expertise, and resistance of those groups that are subjected to discursive injustice.

5. CDA stresses researcher reflexivity.

It seems that the preceding textbook studies are all socially committed and can present their findings in language accessible to the public. However, they seem to have focused mainly on the naturalization and masking of ideologies in textbook texts without also collecting data on how these textbook texts are actually used and taken up by the school participants in different ways (e.g., any evidence speaking to their possible resistance to, or alternative interpretations of, these texts). This leads to the methodological comment on the limitation of a singular focus on textual analysis without integrating textual analysis with a more ecological approach (e.g., Kramsch, 2002; van Lier, 2004; Rogers, 2012).

There is also the need for more researcher reflexivity in these studies (e.g., the need for more discussion of the analyst's own sociopolitical position and why certain interpretations and readings of the text seem more valid than others; why some linguistic analytical tools, such as those from SFL, are used; what the criteria are for the selection of some tools and exclusion of some others in the study). However, to the credit of these studies, they have all shown that the main contribution of a detailed textual analysis lies in the insight that can be gained in the detailed linguistic patterns showing how language processes are central to the operation of hidden curriculums, which have previously been analyzed mainly from sociopolitical perspectives (Apple, 1979).