MODULE 3

UNIT 1   APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

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1.0   INTRODUCTION

In modules 1 and 2, you were taken through basic concepts and different types of analytical procedures. Module 3 has a lot to teach you on language teaching planning, testing, evaluation etc. In this unit, we examine the notion of applied linguistics as the application of linguistics in relation to language teaching methods.One of the products of applied linguistics has been to crystallise the theoretical view of language, education, and language education into prescribed teaching materials and strategies, or methods. The field of methodology evolved as a result of the abundance of methods from different theoretical perspectives. The place and centrality of applied linguistics in language teaching, has heightened and intensified awareness in the literature of the significant context in which language education occurs; and this has also affected methodology in general.

Language teaching is a complex undertaking. It is an exercise that is shaped by the views of the nature of language, of teaching and learninga language specifically; and the socio-cultural settings in which the language enterprise takes place (Adamson, 2004:604). The contribution of applied linguistics to research, and practice, is based on ideas that have helped to shape these views, and promote the understanding of diversity of and commonalities of the settings.

Corder (1973)opines that 'asking the right questions means having the right language to ask them in. The applied linguistsare, therefore, not merely a consultant when language problems arise, they are actually the people who have to ask questions in the first place, and identify the problems and their nature. They areintegral members of the planning committee for a total language teaching operation.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the roles of the applied linguist in language learning and teachingprogramme; and
- explain second language learning theories and their practical application in a second language learning environment like Nigeria where the English language is a second language.

The role of applied linguistics in language teaching is probably the area that a distance learner like you should be most interested in. As you read this unit, think of points that you can use, from the points raised in the unit, to improve your own classroom teaching.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

Read this unit carefully. Put down important points and re-read sections, where necessary.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Objectives of Language Teaching and the Motives of Language Learners

The main objectives of language teaching are to turn out people who possess sufficient skill in the target language for their needs.We must be able to specify, in sociological terms, the domain in which the language will be used, language processes to follow, and in what social groups will the language be used by learners. The teaching strategies to use also depend on all these variables that surround the learners. Scholars have,

over the years, introduced different methods or strategies for getting the best out of the learner.

Some of them will be discussed in this unit. For example, a teacher needs to know what the learner needs the language for so that the curriculum can be tailored towards the need. A community once indicated, during a literacy workshop, that all they wanted was the ability to sign their signature, write their names, and be able to communicate well in English to be able to understand when their accusers speak against them in court. From these expectations and some other things they said, you can deduce that the community wants functional literacy and not basic literacy.

3.2   Methodology in Language Teaching

According to Adamson (2006), methodology is employed loosely in language teaching. It is commonly used interchangeably with 'methods' and 'pedagogy'. Methodology is defined as 'the study of the system or range of methods that are used in teaching.A method is a single set of practices and procedures that are derived from theory or theorization.It impinges on the design of a curriculum plan, resources, and teaching and learning activities. Methodology encompasses such methods as the direct method, audio lingual and so on. It includes all other methods the teacher might devise in the process of teaching the learners.

Methodology and pedagogy are essentially different from each other. The essential difference is that methodology has a narrow focus and tends to be more dogmatic in its application. However, pedagogy has broader educational goals and it is influenced by a wide range of theories and curricular influence and tensions. It is more rooted in and responsive to the practical realities of a particular classroom. Certainly, method linking theory and practice represent a key contribution of applied linguistics to language education. They do not arise from *a priori* theorising.They could be derived from successful practice. Some methods offer an all-embracing package that promises comprehensive language learning.Others offer some strategies for achieving particular objectives. Richards and Rodgers (1986:21) cited in Adamson (2006:605), describe methods in terms of three levels: approach, design, and procedure.

The approach refers to the underpinning theory of language and of language learning.The design covers the specification of linguistic content and the roles of the teacher, learner and instructional materials; while procedure means the techniques and activities that are used in the classroom. This, according to Adamson (2006), suggests that methods can be analysed as scientific constructs, curricular resolution and socio-cultural artefacts.

These perspectives prompted Adamson (2006) to address a number of questions concerning language teaching methodology such as: where do methods originate? What are the salient features of methods that have been widely promoted? How do they gain acceptance? Does methodology have any relevance in postmodernist contexts?

For example, young L2 learners may require teaching aids which are pictorial to be able to facilitate learning and promote the association between the concepts and the word itself. The picture of 'a bowl' and the word 'bowl' itself will go a long way in helping the learner to understand what the word 'bowl' stands for and also remember the spelling.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What do you understand by methodology in language teaching?

3.3 Origins of Language Teaching Methods

Language teaching methods are derived from a range of perspectives or standpoints. It includes views of language, of language learning in general, and of second or foreign language learning in particular (Adamson, 2006). It is good to note that the variety of origins has produced a plethora of methods. For example, Honey (1997) perceives language as a codified linguistic structure supported or underpinned by established rules. Halliday (1973) describes language as a social semiotic. Skinner (1957) described language in terms of behaviourist habit formation. Chomsky (1965) described language as innate and that every child has language acquisition device (LAD) to produce meaningful utterances.

3.4 Language Teaching Methods

Based on the variety of perspectives on language, there is a set of methods on language teaching and learning which has evolved. They are as discussed in the foregoing sections.

3.4.1 Grammar-Translation Method

Adamson (2006) reports that until the middle of the twentieth century the grammar-translation method was the predominant method for language teaching in most educational contexts. This method was said to emerge from the learning of Latin and Greek, which were the classical languages taught in Europe. The major objective of the method was to instil intellectual rigour and to transmit the cultural values embodied in the literary canons to a new generation. During this period, language was viewed as an academic discipline rather than a means of conducting everyday social interactions. Priority was given to the written language. However, this method of language teaching has limited practicability for

communicating everyday situations or experiences. Consequently, there was dissatisfaction with it toward the end of the nineteenth century among language teachers.

For example, the learner can be asked to translate the following sentence in Yoruba language to English and vice versa:

*Ma a lo sekolola*I'll go to Lagos tomorrow.
   Did you hear what I said?*Se o gbonkantimo so?*

The first one looks simple but the second one is not in that it is difficult to reflect the past 'did' in Yoruba in the translation of the text. Other forms of focused exercises are memorisation of lexical items, dictation, reading aloud and rote learning. However, towards the end of the nineteenth century, language teachers in Europe became dissatisfied with this method.

3.4.3 Direct Method

This method of language teaching emerged as a result of several calls for a more scientific approach to language learning; most notably from the Reform Movement that was founded in the 1880s (Knight, 2001 cited in Adamson, 2006). This method was the product of the movement. This method is premised upon the belief that total immersion in the target language is conducive to rapid progress in communicating as with first language. Rivers (1981) states that the role of the teacher is to provide contextual support for the learners, without recourse or reference to the learners' mother tongue as fast as possible.
For example, a Yoruba learner of English language should be totally immersed in the L2 without any recourse to the mother tongue so that the L2 learner can learn fast. This was probably what led to the 'No Vernacular' slogan of the early 50s and 60s in Nigeria where school children were forbidden to speak any of the indigenous languages in schools. I could remember that whenever anybody was caught in those days speaking Yoruba in the secondary schools, the person was made to write imposition of 'I WILL NEVER SPEAK VENACULAR AGAIN' a hundred times. To the proponents of the method, it is believed that total immersion is the solution to quick language learning.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Explain the direct teaching method and the translation method to a friend.

3.4.4 Audio-Lingual Method

This method came about as a result of experimentation by Skinner who worked with animals and his behaviourist principles of learning (Adamson, 2006). Learning, in this method, is brought about by positive

reinforcement of current behaviour or utterances with correctness being instilled by repetition or drilling. It focuses primarily on oral skills, with the teacher modelling utterances. Learners are drilled to produce correct responses as errors are not tolerated and special attention is on habit formation. This method consists of mechanical learning, which led to the popularity of language laboratories.

For example the teacher can say;

Repeat after me; T: cow
P: cow
T: once again, cow
P: cow
T: say it five times and spell it
P: cow, cow, cow, cow, cow
T: say this sentence; I saw a cow yesterday
Say it three times

3.4.5 Silent Way

This method of language teaching was propounded by Caleb Gattegno. According to Adamson (2006), this method relies on problem-solving by the learners. The paramount goal of this theory is to get learners produce the target language with little or no assistance from the teacher. This means that the learners are made responsible for their own learning and to make them become independent of the teacher. This method, as a matter of fact, is based on induction. The teacher uses charts and coloured blocks to establish the meaning of model utterance, but the learners have to apply inductive and self-monitoring techniques to build their own structural knowledge of the target language. This method gets its name from the fact that it is a teacher dominant approach. (Freeman & Freeman, 1992).

For example, you as a teacher can place a lot of materials on the table in front of the pupils and he/she expect the pupils to use their own self monitoring techniques to put sentences together in the target language using the materials before them.

3.4.6 Suggestopedia

It is a method of teaching a second language which attempts to incorporate different modes and modalities. This method was developed by Bulgarian psychiatric-educator Lozanov (1982). His ambition was to eliminate psychological barriers that people have of learning (Freeman and Freeman, 1992). Stevick (1976) summarises Lozanoz's view of learning into three principles: (1) People are able to learn at rates many times greater than what is commonly assumed; (2) learning is a 'global' event and involves the entire person; and (3) learners respond to many influences, many of them non-rational and unconscious. Freeman and

Freeman (1992) write that suggestopedia uses drama, art, physical exercise, and de-suggestive-suggestive communicative psychotherapy as well as the traditional modes of listening, speaking, reading, and writing to teach a second language.

For example, the teacher can remove any form of anxiety about learning by providing a very comfortable, relaxed environment with background music. This will reduce learner's stress. The teacher can also do some psychological counselling if need be.

3.4.7 Communicative Approach or Communicative Language Teaching

This is an alternative method of language teaching in which language is viewed essentially as social practice, and the goal of language teaching as engendering the learner's competence to communicate in the target language. Communication is then viewed as social interaction influenced by cultural context rather than being a fixed linguistic system. Adamson affirms that these approaches-'Communicative Approach or Communicative Language Teaching' are more of an umbrella term for a range of curriculum design principles and teaching methods, all sharing the same underlying philosophy, than a single or specific method. Bygate, Shekan& Swain (2001:02 cited Adamson, 2006) argues that Communicative Approach "was explicitly a post-method approach to language teaching…in which the principles underlying the use of different classroom procedures were of paramount importance, along with a package of teaching materials."

These views are united by common principles, which include language as principally an expression of meaning at the discourse level. The teacher is seen as the facilitator and motivator as well as source of knowledge. Adamson (2006) notes that the acceptance of the communicative approach principles were spurred by the functional-notional approach, which organise the syllabus according to language functions, that is, everyday use of language which involves interactions such as buying food, giving direction, offering advice and so on and notions (concepts such as time, quantity, and location).

For example, the teacher can create a buying and selling corner where pupils will be able to interact with the materials, other pupils and their teacher so that they can develop communicative competence in the target language.

Adamson further states that the strong form of the communicative approach is task-based learning, which was derived from other subject areas in the curriculum. Drawing on the constructivist views of learning, particularly those of Vgostsky and Bruner, task-based learning advocates a learner-centred curriculum and teaching methods that have a

strong element of group work and autonomous activities. It emphasises competences-communicative competence, strategic, cultural, and so on. Adamson cites Hong Kong as example of where task-based learning has aided the achievement of cross-cultural goals which transcends language learning.

3.5   Methodology and Curriculum in Language Teaching

Adamson admits that defining curriculum is problematic. Thus, he presents the working definition adopted by Marsh and Willis (1995:10): "an interrelated set of plans and experience that a student undertakes under the guidance of school." Marsh and Willis (1995) also distinguish between "planned" or "intended" curriculum which is the product of design and development by various agencies.

At the intended level, the methodological approach to language teaching promoted in a curriculum initiative is informative as it reflects the orientation of the curriculum toward particular goals. It is recorded by Clark (1987) that specific language teaching methods can be linked to value systems that incorporate socio-political and philosophical texts. To Adamson, for example, the grammar-translation method is associated with classical Humanist orientation which is described by Clark as…elitist. It is concerned with the generalisable intellectual capacities and with the transmission of knowledge, culture, and standard from one generation to another.

However, it is very pertinent to know that language teaching methodology is subject to philosophical and political controversies. Adamson states a number of dualities that are evident: the individual versus society; past versus future; intellect versus whole person; permanence versus change and so on. Methods may be promoted for political or philosophical reasons rather than their inherent educative value.

At the planned curriculum level are published resources-textbooks and other educational media. Adamson states that publishers promote a particular method for a number of reasons. The publishers follow the method that is explicitly promoted in official curriculum documents. Another reason for the motivation is the market forces when end-users desire to buy a book which might be or not in harmony with officially promoted curriculum. Technology can as well determine the selection of method. For example, a lack of alternative resources to the book helps to encourage the primacy of reading skills and those methods, such as grammar-translation method that are reading oriented.

Adamson (2006) citing Marsh and Wills (1995) then concludes that there is often slippage between the planned, enacted, and experienced curriculum. He notes that curriculum enactment often involves a process

of adaptation as teachers take account of the 'chalk face' realities that they face. Morris (1995) identifies several factors that are powerful influences on teachers' pedagogical choices. These influences include physical and logistical constraints, the desire to maintain a control of a class; the demands of public examinations; the prevailing culture of the society; the ethos of the school and so on.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have learnt about the methods of language teaching and the methodology and curriculum in language teaching.

5.0   SUMMARY

The summary of the major points learnt in this unit is presented here.

- One of the products of applied linguistics has been to crystallise the theoretical view of language, education, and language education into prescribed teaching materials and strategies, or methods.
- Language teaching is a complex undertaking.
- Language teaching is an exercise that is shaped by the views of the nature of language, of teaching and learning a language specifically, and of teaching and learning in general.
- Methodology is employed loosely in language teaching. It is commonly used interchangeably with 'methods' and 'pedagogy'.
- Different sets of methods on language teaching and learning have evolved.
- Curriculum is "an interrelated set of plans and experience that a student undertakes under the guidance of school.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Explain what you understand by communicative language teaching and curriculum in language teaching.

2.   Describe how you will teach English grammar using any of the methods described in this unit.

ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Methodology of language is the study of the system or range of methods that are used in teaching. It is a single set of practices and procedures.

ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Direct teaching method is based on the notion of total immersion in the target language without recourse to the mother tongue. Translation method suggests using the L1 to teach the L2.

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UNIT 2   COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit is unique, in the sense that, it is a radical departure from the traditional methods of language learning. It is about Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL).This NOUN/NTI programme that you are undergoing is computer assisted learning. You can now stay wherever you are and access the internet for your lectures and study materials. Not only has the computer been useful in undergoing courses in different subject areas, it is also useful in language learning and teaching. In this unit, you will learn about the history of CALL, the role of computers, the learner and the instructors in CALL. You can, in addition to what you learn here, go on-line to learn more on how to benefit more from this type of programme.

Levy (1997:1) defines Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) as 'the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning'. It is useful in many disciplines-psychology, computational linguistics, instructional technology, human computer interaction and artificial intelligence (Levy, 1997in Gruba, 2006: 624).

Levy draws on these five cross disciplinary fields in an attempt to give the discipline a knowledge base. He/she notes for example that studies in psychology contribute insights about programmed instruction and cognition while research in computational linguistics tells us a lot about machine translation, natural language processing and concordance. Another scholar who has worked extensively on CALL is Chapelle

(2001). Let us briefly look at the objectives for this unit before we proceed.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe the evolution of CALL; and
- describe the role of computers, instructors, and learners in CALL.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT
a.   Read this unit as diligently as possible.
b.   Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
c.   As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.
d.   Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.
e.   Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   A Brief History of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

Ahmad et al (1985),Chapelle(2001) and Levy (1997) provide extensive accounts of developments in CALL. Ahmad et al(1985) reports the work done in the United States and Britain in the years 1965-85. One of the early projects carried out at StanfordUniversity was reported where instructors created self instructional materials for language learning and delivered them via a mainframe computer. There was also a research at the University of Illinois where a system named Programmed Logic for Automated Teaching Operations (PLATO) was developed in which teachers were able to write Russian –English translation course.

It was noted that the computer was able to provide drills and marking for students and some other useful components for teachers. This system was later expanded to include a number of foreign languages and offered then in increasingly, technically sophisticated ways but was expensive to use (Gruba, 2006: 625). These mainframe computer applications were made to have interactive features to help students read specialist scientific texts in the 1960s and 1970s. In the late 1990s, personal computers were introduced by course developers and instructors.

According to Gruba, the growing interest in CALL led to increased demand for computers. Teachers use computers for specific language

learning situations which made more and more students to be exposed to computers at home and at school. The National Open University of Nigeria/National Teachers' Institute (NTI) runs its courses, partly through Computer Assisted Programme, and its examinations are now conducted on-line. Gruba (2006: 625) refers to Levy (1997) who highlights the time shared, interactive, computer controlled information television (TICCIT) project initiated at BrighamYoungUniversity in 1971 as one of the first examples of multimedia-based instruction. The computers had the capacity to integrate text audio and video which could be controlled by the learner.Gruba (2006) notes that the (TICCIT) which was based on an explicit theory of instructional design that allowed instructors to add content but not to decide how to teach with the new programmed materials. Some other projects include the Almena language learning project based on the Massachusetts Institute of Technology etc.

Gruba noted that from the beginning of the 1990s, teachers began to make greater use of networked computer; CALL educators started adopting socio-collaborative modes of learning. Internet usage promoted more access to resources and motivation for developers to create sophisticated materials that could attract larger audience (Gruba 2006: 626).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

i.   What is CALL?
ii.   Write briefly on its development.

3.2   Roles of Computers

The computer is said to be a tutor who delivers repetitive drills. It can engage the individual learner in individualised, self-paced instructions through efficient materials delivery (Gruba 2006: 630). The widespread use of computers in the 1980s brought about criticisms about its effectiveness. Some people claimed that computers help raise test scores and speed language acquisition (Dunkel, 1991in Gruba, 2006: 630). Some also noted that computers promote cognitive augmentation through carefully designed materials (Clark &Sugrue (1991) in Gruba (2006). Despite the claim by Cuban (2001) that computers in education are oversold and underused, many educators still see their use now as an expected and necessary part of learning.

Meskill (1999) in Gruba (2006) acknowledged the integrated use of computers in classroom management, materials presentation and learner interactions. Lewis and Atzert (2000) observe that despite the general enthusiasm for computers, students' resistance to their use can

potentially reduce motivation through activities which promote isolation, dull creativity and otherwise contribute to learner frustration (Gruba 2006: 631).

3.3   Roles of the Learner

The roles of students change with shifts in learning theory, capabilities of computers and instructional processes. Gruba (2006:634) notes that communicative CALL practices seeks to place learners in independent relationships with the computer as students get engaged in interactive work with applications. Students are expected to work collaboratively and use the computer as a tool box. Gruba (2006: 634) also notes that increasing student familiarity with computers now challenge CALL educators to direct their use for the specific purposes of language learning (Chapelle 2001). Applied linguists hold a strong interest in learner strategies and Hegelheimer and Chapelle (2000) and Liou (2000) claim that the interest has been directed to looking at students' behaviours regarding online reading, listening, speaking and writing.

Chun and Plass (1997) discuss the key issues of multimedia comprehension based on studies of on-line reading and visual presentation.This laid the foundation for a model for learners' listening and viewing skills in multimedia environments. Ehansi and Knodt (1998) and Goodwin-Jones (2000) note that speech technologies for language learning are rapidly developing and with an emphasis on pronunciation. Aist (1999) worked on the current developments in speech recognition software in three ways:

1)   visual feedback showing students' intonation and loudness
      patterns compared with native speakers;
2)   the scoring system was automatic and it is referred to as a
      template based approach; and
3)   presentation of a model of mispronunciation through comparison
      to native speaker utterances or predicted common errors.

Students are instructed on how to get feedback on errors and a guide on how to correct them. Computer assisted writing has been encouraged for students' use of word processing and email applications. Pennington (1999) has noted that students produce longer compositions and are more positive about writing when they use computers.

Hoven (1999) notes that learnersare in control of their own learning; in her principles for implementing a learner–centred CALL syllabus.She suggested that awareness raising activities that can encourage good management of online resources should be introduced. According to her, there must be sophisticated on-line help facilities coupled with effective

navigation elements which can foster learner control. Shetzer and Warschauer (2000) note that the learner must be able to interact with the computer in various ways. They need to master hypertext authoring in order to blend written text, graphics, audio, and video together in coherent narratives. They must be able to respond to intended and Web-based unintended audiences. Students conducting research should be critical enough to be able to evaluate the validity and appropriateness of source materials. In short, students must become autonomous.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What are the roles of the learner in CALL?
3.4   Roles of the Instructor

The introduction of CALL to the classrooms has given instructors and teachers a great challenge to be familiar with new technologies and redefine their views on teaching.Kramsch (1993:201) in Gruba (2006:636) note the following

> The enormous educational potential of the computer isconfrontingteachers   with   their pedagogicresponsibilities as never before. Never before have teachers so urgently needed to know what knowledge they want to transmit and for what purpose, to decide what are the more and the less important aspects of that knowledge , and to commit themselves to an   educational vision they believe in.

Computers have shifted instructional practices and have changed the way materials are designed, assessment conducted and how programmes are evaluated. CALL techniques are fast becoming an integral part of professional development. In structural and communicative CALL, the teacher serves as a mediator between computer and students throughout the learning process. Teachers need to be sure that students understand instructions and can supply the necessary responses. Teachers should take on a less intrusive role but they should stay around to give the necessary support. You will notice that at NOUN/NTI, you also have tutorial instructors that you can ask questions from. Lewis and Atzert (2000) found that an extensive use of computers foster anxiety in some students and thus detracted them from language learning goals. This was almost so with the e-exams until the students found that after due integration and mastery, they started enjoying the use of computers for their exams.

Corbel (1999) and Tapcott, (1999) suggested that even in today's internet- focussed settings, teachers can still act as re-intermediary in

order to mediate between learners and the resources available outside. They should situate computer technologies in a historical and cultural context in such a way that students can form a critical perspective of their use. Teachers should constantly do a self evaluation of technological literacy and be aware of the kind of technological skills required for proficient CALL instructors.

The instructors should deepen the understanding of the students on the relationship between text and context when teaching language as communicative practice so as not to portray multimedia in simplistic ways. It is important to do this because technological environments can be seductive; making the learner to believe that what appears real on the screen is real in life. It is important for instructors to promote independent lifelong learning strategies. The instructors should also be concerned with authenticity and re-creation of real life situation. They should see computers as a way of encouraging social interaction so that the computers can act as active partners rather than passive assistants (Gruba, 2006).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

Describe the roles of the instructor in CALL.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we have discussed with you computer assisted language learning as one of the latest developments in applied linguistics.The role of the learner, computers and instructors are also discussed in the unit.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt all the aspects stated below.

- Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is useful in many disciplines-psychology, computational linguistics, instructional technology, human computer interaction and artificial intelligence.
- According to Gruba, the growing interest in CALL led to increased demand for computers.
- CALL practices seek to place learners in independent relationships with the computer as students get engaged in interactive work with applications.
- Students are expected to work collaboratively and use the computer as a tool box.
- Computer assisted writing has been encouraged for students' use of word processing and email applications.

- Pennington (1999) has noted that students produce longer compositions and are more positive about writing when they use computers.
- The instructors should deepen the understanding of the students on the relationship between text and context when teaching language as communicative practice so as not to portray multimedia in simplistic ways.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Imagine that you have been asked to handle a language class using CALL, name and describe the factors you would take into consideration as the instructor.
2. Discuss the roles of the learner in CALL.

ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

CALL is Computer Assisted Language Learning that searches for and study of applications of computer to teaching and learning of languages. Its development spans through the work done in USA and Britain in years 1965-85.

ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

The roles of learners in CALL are that of interaction with computer applications, collaborative work with computer and its applications, etc.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3   LANGUAGE TESTING, EVALUATION AND VALIDATION

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Test and evaluation are part and parcel of the taste of a distance learner like you. This is why this why this topic comes up in many forms across the subjects offered at the NTI Bachelor's degree level. You should study this unit in line with other units on testing and evaluation in the ESP course. Identify similarities and differences. Assess all the test given to you by NOUN/NTI in the light of the ideas discussed in this unit.

This unit is about language testing, evaluation and validation. Most of the content in this unit are from Corder (1973) and a few other scholars. Corder happens to be one of the earliest scholars in AL and we find some of the views still applicable to modern language testing procedures. You can check the references at the end of the unit for more details, especially the more recent ones after Coder (1973).

Testing is an important part of language education. We cannot do without testing what has been taught. Even though a lot of people have written about different forms of testing and examinations, the fact still

remains that learners have to be tested and stake-holders in the educational sector are constantly researching into ways and means of having qualitative test materials and procedures. Corder's contributions on tests, validation etc have been used over the years but with current communicative language practices, some have been modified and a few other test procedures introduced.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- state and discuss the qualities of a good test; and
- mention types of test and their varying functions in assessingand testing learners' proficiency in a language.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

Read the unit carefully. Put down major points. Do the self-assessment exercises.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Need for Evaluation, Validation and Tests

Corder(1973:349)asserts that the application of linguistics to language teaching is not just a descriptive activity, but also a prescriptive one. Applied linguistics seeks to make the teaching and learning of languages as efficient as possible.This means, it controls and directs the process. Efficiency means organising things so that you as a learner can learn what you are expected to learn within the period stated. Now, the quality of teachers needed (whether trained or untrained), materials (cost and quality and appropriateness) quantity of knowledge or learning are very important are variables that may not be easy to measure. However, an attempt has been made in this section to deal with the problems of measuring the knowledge and reasons for doing so. If learners learn and it is not measured, it will be difficult to find out how much has been learnt and the impact of the knowledge on them.

As a result of the increase in the number of students in schools and the influx of people of different ages and races wanting to learn one language or the other,especially the English Language, there is the need to improve on current methods of testing. It is also necessary to devise new strategies, methods and approaches thatcan cope with the challenges of the learning process. Language teaching and language learning procedures keep changing every day, especially with the

introduction of modern day technological equipment and devices. It is important to measure the impact of our teaching and one of the means of testing has been criticised by many that it is not enough to test pupils' understanding of concepts taught.

If testing is conducted with all the full control of all the relevant factors and the results evaluated by the appropriate statistical technique, it is scientific. The applied linguist makes predictions about the effects on learning that the syllabuses and teaching materials have on learning procedures Corder (1973: 351). The teacher's contribution (in terms of the quality and nature of the classroom teaching) use of material resources, intelligence, motivation, and aptitude are important. These three factors- the teacher, learner and materials are involved in language learning. Other factors such as environment or family background, etc. are also important but are not under the control of the applied linguist.

3.2   Tests as Measuring Instruments

There is no scientific experimentation that does not involve measurement. Questions such as the following can occur:

> Did teaching take place or not?
> How often do the learning tasks occur?
> How many of the predicted events occurred and with what degree of intensity?
> Were teaching aids available and used for learners?
> What is the quality of teaching and the teacher?

All these questions are important in measuring whether learning tasks were accomplished. If it is a communicative strategy, questions can be asked as to whether pupils had the opportunity to interact with one another, the learning materials or the computer. Was there any form of feedback (natural or automated?). Were there immediate learner responses?

All measurement involves comparison with some other variables such as time, money, weight, size, materials or available facilities etc. as the situation dictates. Language tests are measuring instruments applied to learners only. They measure the learners' knowledge of a language at a particular point in time based on a set of syllabus or tasks. The results of tests give indications of areas of learner's needs, which can help educators and curriculum planners. In measurement, it is important to know how learning has taken place, what materials and methods have been used to teach, their mother tongue, the strategies the teacher used and the learning situation. Measuring the learners' knowledge does not

only amount to evaluating the learners, but also the teacher and teaching materials.

3.3 Evaluation as a form of experiment

Evaluation is the process of testing a hypothesis. In applied linguistics, this principally means the relationship between the teaching materials and their exploitation and language learning. In a language teaching situation, it is believed that teachers, learners and materials are important in language learning.

The two problems that Corder notes with evaluation procedures are (1) the inability of the applied linguist to treat the teacher, pupils and materials as single variables. Pupils vary in terms of age, sex, motivation, intelligence, or aptitude. Age and sex may be less important for the teacher but intelligence and motivation are important.

Corderasserts that there is no direct way of measuring teaching skill or assessing the difficulty of sets of teaching materials. This can be done by comparing reading texts with the expectations of the syllabus, if it is not above the level of the students.Tests are usually conducted on learners and this is only part of the evaluation procedure. It gives us a measurement of one aspect of the learner but we need measurements of all the variables – i.e. teacher, learner and materials. The knowledge of the learners can be measured at the beginning and end of the course to find out how much has been learnt. The pupils' notes can be checked to find out what has been taught. The syllabus can also be checked to find out if the stated learning tasks have been accomplished. Below are some questions that can be asked to find out more about the quality of the tests that has been given.

Questions:

What is testing?
What is actually being tested by the test we are using?
What is the "best" test to use?
What relevant information does the test provide?
How is testing affecting teaching and learning behaviour?
Is language testing "fair"?
What is evaluation?

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What is language evaluation?

3.4   Qualities of a Good Test

3.4.1 Validity

We cannot teach learners all the kinds of things they need to do with language because learners do all kinds of things with language. The truth is that, teachers can only teach systematically what they can describe. Corder affirms that this is the Truth about testing. It is difficult to test systematically what we cannot describe. Corder (1973:356) further notes the following about tests;

> This is why testing is a branch of applied linguistics and why, ultimately, our ability to do a good job of measuring the learner's knowledge of the language depends upon the adequacy of our theory about the language, our understanding of what is meant by knowledge of a language. If our test is to do its job properly, it must not inadvertently or accidentally measure anything else; for example, the learner's intelligence, his knowledge of the world or his system of beliefs. In other word, the test must be valid.

> Corder (1973: 356) quotes Pilliner 1968 as saying:
> The validity of any examination or test procedure may be broadly defined as the extent to which it does what it is intended.

3.4.1.1 Content Validity

A test has content validity if what the questions in it or activities it requires the learners to perform are those which the learners have been taught to answer or perform in the cause of his/her study. In other words, a valid test must not test what has not been taught.

3.4.1.2 Predictive Validity

With predictive validity, it should be possible to use the results of the tests to predict the success of the test subjects in the performance of some other tasks which depend upon the knowledge of the language, e.gpassing a traditional examination or being selected to study a language course at a university (Corder, 1973: 357).

3.4.1.3 Concurrent Validity

Corder notes that if the results of a test are confirmed by another test whose object is to measure the same thing and whose validity has already been established. This is called concurrent validity.

3.4.1.4 Construct Validity

The knowledge of the nature of the language is important in construct validity. Such results should also correlate well with results of other tests, examinations and measurement.

3.5 Testing Grammatical Competence

The formation rules and speaking rules of a language are very important in language learning. Communicative competence is important in language learning and teaching. Constructing tests in which we can make judgements about its acceptability or correctness of the learner's responses will bring objectivity to the tests. Most tests are constructed to measure the learner's knowledge of the function of rules- that is grammatical competence rather than his global communicative ability.
Corder notes that native speakers at times do not agree on what is right especially when translation or essay writing is used as basis of tests. To Corder, appropriateness cannot be reduced to rules and so, judgements about it are subjective. Tests based on essay writing and translations are therefore called subjective tests. Corder thinks it is difficult to know what quality or qualities have been measured in a supposedly good essay.

The West African Examinations Council has, however, been able to get round this problem as objectively as possible by dividing the testing of an essay writing piece into four different areas– the content, organisation, expression and mechanical accuracy. These four sub-headings are allotted different marks and the overall total is used to determine whether the writer has performed well or not. Markers are then taught yearly in a coordination exercise on how to apportion these marks. This judgment of two different markers cannot be the same but there is the allowance of a mark range which markers should not exceed. This will help overcome subjectivity in tests that involve précis/essay writing.

3.6 Test of Performance

Corder notes that most objective tests are concerned with measuring the learner's knowledge of the formation rules of the language. It is difficult

to predict what the response of a native speaker would be in performance tests because the situation determines responses. He also notes that measuring the knowledge of a pupil in chemistry in another language other than his mother tongue may be difficult in that it may be difficult to decide whether his relative failure was due to his lack of knowledge of concepts of chemistry or of the language. Decisions about appropriateness must provide information about the situation in which utterances are made.

3.7 Reliability

In language testing, reliability is achieved through what is called objectivity. That is, casting the response in such a way that there is only one acceptable response possible. Although, unreliability may be unconsciously or suitably introduced in the sense that, our performance of any task varies from time to time. There is no doubt that, alcohol, drugs and sickness, have serious effects on people's performance. Some other sources of interference on performance are tiredness, emotional state, lack of attention or concentration, all of which are variable that are difficult to control. The only way out is to create an enabling environment and favourable conditions for doing the test. Corder notes that administering the test in pleasant, healthy, light, quiet surroundings, with no distracting influences, is important for the reliability of a test.

In applied linguistics, we are either measuring the learner's communicative competence or grammatical competence. It may not be possible to examine his total knowledge all at once, so we sample his knowledge hoping that the sample is a fair one. Corder (1973: 366) refers to Lado(1961) who suggests one useful approach at selecting test materials. He notes that a language learner must be tested alone on certain features of the target language which he finds difficult. If Lado's suggestion is followed, there will be no way of finding out if the learner's assumption of his knowledge of less difficult part is true. It is important to state, however, that while we are testing the learner's grammatical competence, we can only get at it through his/her use of the language – 'communicative competence'.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Identify qualities of a good test.

3.8 The Making of a Test

In an attempt to write a test, we must have knowledge of the structure of the language and this helps us with the content of the test. There are acceptable grammatical and semantic forms of sentences which the

writer has to take into consideration. There are two types of tests-attainment and proficiency tests.

A proficiency test aims to measure a person's knowledge of the language. An attainment test measures how much learners have learnt of what they have been taught. This means that the content of an attainment test is not a sample of the whole language but of the content of a syllabus. The uses of the two types are different. Attainment tests need a feedback while a proficiency test does not. It could be in deciding the learner's future, placement or selection for a course or programme or promotion.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this unit has introduced you to language testing, evaluation and validation. You also learnt a few things about the qualities of a good test.

5.0   SUMMARY

What you have learnt in this unit are stated in a summarized form below.

* Testing is an important part of language education. We cannot do without testing what has been taught.
* As a result of the increase in the number of students in schools and the influx of people of different ages and races wanting to learn one language or the other- especially the English Language, there is the need to improve on current methods of testing.
* The validity of any examination or test procedure may be broadly defined as the extent to which it does what it is intended.
* Atest has content validity if what the questions in it or activities it requires the learners to perform are those which the learners have been taught to answer or perform in the cause of his study.
* In language testing, reliability is achieved through what is called objectivity.
* In applied linguistics, we are either measuring the learner's communicative competence or grammatical competence.
* It may not be possible to examine their total knowledge all at once so we sample their knowledge hoping that the sample is a fair one.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Your younger sister in J.S.S 2 came home and performed woefully in a language test. What are some of the qualities of a good test that you would take into consideration in accounting for her performance?

2. Discuss the need for evaluation, validation and tests in language testing.

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Language evaluation is the process of testing language hypothesis and determining the worthiness of teaching methods, materials, and language learning.

ANSWERS TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Qualities of a good test: validity reliability, testing grammatical competence, and performance.

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UNIT 4   LANGUAGE PLANNING I

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In module 3, unit 3, you learnt about language testing, evaluation, and validation. In this unit, you will learn about language planning and ideology, language goals and objectives, the process and types of language planning. This unit is a very important unit in applied linguistics because if languages are not properly planned, there will be confusion. In a multilingual nation, there has to be pronouncements

about the use of languages for ease of governance, mutual understanding and interethnic communication. While it is true that some sections of the society may not agree totally with language planners, especially if it does not favour them, nevertheless, some sort of planning still has to be done. Even in a monolingual nation, planning and standardization still takes place, which edges out a few dialects of the main language.

The term 'language planning' was introduced by the American linguist Einar Haugen, in the late 1950s. According to him, language planning refers to all conscious efforts that aim at changing the linguistic behaviour of a speech community. The activity of language planning may involve anything 'from proposing a new word to a new language' (Haugen 1987: 627 cited in Mesthrie et al, 2003).

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

•   describe language planning and language ideology; and
•   discuss different types of language planning procedures.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

Read the unit carefully and do all the self-assessment exercises.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

Language planning is important for you as a distance ODL learner because you need language to plan and prepare for in the Nigerian school system. As you read this unit, think about its relevance to you as a reader.

3.1   What is Language Planning?

Language planning, to Akindele and Adegbite (1999:74), 'is a deliberate activity systematically designed to select from, organize and develop the language resources of a community in order to enhance the utilisation of such resources for development'. They identify various activities that make and take place while planning language, such as corpus and status planning.

Language planning is a deliberate effort to influence the function, structure or acquisition of a language within a speech community. It is noted that language planning is associated with government planning

that can also be used by non-governmental organisations or even individuals.

It is noted that the goals of language planning differ from nation to nation. It is designed to make changes for the benefit of communication. It may be that planning or improving effective communication can also lead to other social changes such as language shift or assimilation, which provides another motivation to plan the structure, function and acquisition of language.

It is very important to state that language policy is used as a synonym of language planning. However, language policy is the underlying general linguistic, political and social goals of the actual language planning process. This policy is very crucial to language planning. A typical example is Nigerian National Policy on Education (NPE) which addresses language use in education, government, politics, etc.(see Mesthrie,*et al.*, 2003).

3.2 Language Planning and Language Ideology

The following language ideologies motivate decision making in language planning: (1) linguistic assimilation (2) linguistic pluralism (3) vernacularisation (4) internationalisation.

3.2.1 Language Assimilation

It is believed that every member of a society, irrespective of their native language should learn and use the dominant language of the society in which they live- e.g. French in France, English in the United States of America and Russia in the former Soviet Union (Adegbite and Akindele, 1999).

3.2.2 Linguistic Pluralism

This has to do with recognition and support of multiple languages within one society. For example, the co-existence of French, German, Italian and Romanish in Switzerland; the shared status of English, Malay, Tamil and Chinese in Singapore, and the shared nature of English, French, Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba languages in Nigeria.

3.2.3 Vernacularisation

This is the restoration and development of an indigenous language along with its adoption by the state, as an official language -e.g. Hebrew in the state of Israel.

3.2.4 Internationalisation

This is the adoption of a non-indigenous language of a wider communication as an official language or a particular domain, e.g. the use of Singapore in India, the Philippines and Papua New Guinea.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

i.   Among other things, language planning is meant to develop the language resources of a community in order to enhance the utilisation of such resources for development. True/False?
ii.   Linguistic assimilation, linguistic pluralism, vernacularisation internationalisation are   used for decision making in language planning. True/False?
iii.   Vernacularisation is the restoration of an indigenous language in the world. True /False?

3.3   Language Planning Goals and Objectives of Language

The core of language planning activity is national development. This development is perceived in terms of political, socio-economic, educational, technological, and literary as well as language development. It is the realisation that language planning can contribute or promote greatly the development of various spheres of life in a nation that embarks on it. For example, in a multilingual nation like Nigeria, there is the need to coordinate the linguistic resources of the nation to avert many problems like educational underdevelopment, ethno-linguistic agitation, breakdown of information and communication gap between government and the people (Adegbite and Akindele, 1999). Besides the reasons stated above, about eleven planning goals are recognised by linguists.

3.3.1 Language Purification

This has to do with the purification of the usage of a language in order to preserve the linguistic purity of the language.It is to protect it from foreign influences and guard against language deviation from within.

3.3.2 Language Revival

This is the attempt to turn a language with few or no surviving native speakers back into a normal means of communication. For languages that are dying, they need to be revived. For example, some minority languages are fast fading out in Nigeria because they have not been committed to writing and the original speakers are dying out.

3.3.3 Language Reform

This is a deliberate change in specific aspects of language i.e. orthography, spelling or grammar in order to facilitate use.

3.3.4 Language Standardisation

This is an attempt to give a particular language prestige as a regional language or dialect, transferring it into one that is accepted as the major language or standard language of a region.

4.3.5 Language Spread

This is the attempt to increase the number of speakers of a language at the expense of another.

3.3.6 Lexical Modernisation

This has to do with word creation or adaptation. Many words come into a language through this way and some of them eventually find their way into the dictionary.

3.3.7 Terminology Unification

This refers to the development of terminologies especially in technical domains.

3.3.8 Stylistic Simplification

This is the simplification of language usage in lexicon, grammar and style. The dictionary helps a lot when they are incorporated.

3.3.9 Interlingual Communication

This has to do with the facilitation of linguistic communication.

3.3.10 Language Maintenance

This has to do with preservation of the use of a group's native language as a first or second language where pressures threaten or cause a decline in the status of the language.

3.3.11 Auxiliary Code Standardisation

It is the standardisation of marginal auxiliary aspects of language such as signs for the deaf.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Mention and describe five language planning goals.

3.4 The Process of Language Planning

Haugen (1966, 1987 cited inMesthrie*et al*., 2003) developed a framework for the description of the process of language planning. To him, language planning typically consists of four stages which can either be sequential or not:

1.   Selection
2.   Codification
3.   Implementation
4.   Elaboration

3.4.1 Selection

Selection is the term used to refer to the choice of a language variety to fulfil certain functions in a given society. For example, a language or its variety may be chosen to serve as medium of instruction, official language, and religious language, and so on. In Nigeria, the English language serves as the medium of instruction in schools and the nation's official language. The indigenous languages have certain roles, particularly in the states of the nation.

3.4.2 Codification

Codification in language planning refers to the creation of a linguistic standard or norm for a selected linguistic code or variety of a language. This process is commonly divided into- graphisation, (the development of writing system), grammatication (deciding on the rules/norms of grammar), and lexicalisation (identifying the vocabulary).

3.4.3 Implementation

At the implementation stage, the socio-political realisation of the decision made in the stages of selection and codification is realised. This includes the production of books, pamphlets, newspapers and textbooks in the newly codified language as well as its introduction into new domains such education, mass media and so on. While language experts

are responsible for the selection and codification processes, implementation is done by the state or government in power. Mesthrie, *et al.* (2003) citing Haugen (1983) and Cooper (1989:75-6) states that the implementation of a new standard language or variety can involve marketing techniques to promote its use.

3.4.4 Elaboration

This involves terminological and stylistic development of a codified or standardised language to meet the continuing communicative demands of modern life and technology. There is always a dissemination of new terms and different strategies of lexical enrichment. For example, three strategies are used for lexical modernisation or elaboration in the Hausa language in Nigeria. These are borrowing, extension of the meaning of a native term, and creation of new terms (neologisms).

3.5   Types of Language Planning

Language planning activity can be divided into two: statusandcorpus planning. Heinz Kloss (1967, 1969) distinguished the two basic types of language planning on the basis of the distinction between language as an autonomous linguistic system and as a social institution (Mesthrie*et al.,* 2003). In this unit, we shall discuss status planning and leave corpus planning till we get to the next unit.

3.5.1 Status Planning

This is the allocation or re-allocation of a language or variety to functional domain within a society, which affects the status or standing of a language. Language status is the position of a language vis-à-vis other languages. Simply put, status planning refers to all efforts to change the use and function (either to narrow or broaden the function and use) of a language or its variety within a given community.

Two different authors-Heinz Kloss and William Stewart have stipulated four qualities of a language that determine its status.

A.   Language origin-this has to do whether a given language is indigenous or imported to the speech community.

B.   Degree of Standardisation-the extent of development of a formal set of norms that define correct usage

C.   Juridicialstatus
   i.   Sole official language (e.g., French in France; English in the United Kingdom and Nigeria)
   ii.   Joint official language (e.g. English and Afrikaans in South Africa; French, German , Italian and Romanish in Switzerland)

iii.   Regional language (e.g. Igbo in Nigeria; Marathi in Maharaslva, India)

iv.   Promoted language – lacks official status on a national or regional level but is promoted and sometimes used by public authorities for specific functions e.g. Spanish in New Mexico; West African Pidgin in Cameroon; Pidgin English in the Niger Delta area in Nigeria.

v.   Tolerated language – neither promoted nor proscribed: acknowledged but ignored (e.g. Native American languages) in the United States.

vi.   Proscribed language – discouraged officially or by restriction

D.   Vitality-this has to do with the ratio or percentage of users of a language to another variable-e.g. total population.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In conclusion, you have been able to go through language planning and ideology, language planning goals and objectives, process of language planning and status planning. It is obvious that planning is an essential part of language usage in any community for success in education.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the major points started below:

• Language planning refers to all conscious efforts that aim at changing the linguistic behaviour of a speech community.

• Language planning, to Akindele and Adegbite (1999:74), is a deliberate activity systematically designed to organise and develop the language resources of a community in order to enhance the utilisation of such resources for development.

• The goals of language planning differ from nation to nation.

• Language policy is the underlying general linguistic, political and social goals of the actual language planning process;this policy is very crucial to language planning.

• The core of language planning activity is national development.

• Haugen (1966, 1987 cited inMesthrie*et al*., 2003) developed a framework for the description of the process of language planning.

• According to Haugen (1966, 1987 cited inMesthrie*et al.*, 2003), language planning typically consists of four stages which can either be sequential or not - selection, codification, implementation and elaboration.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   The ministry of education in your state is having problems with the status planning of the language in a particular district; advise them on what to take into consideration while trying to choose one of the languages.

3.   Imagine that the government of Nigeria has agreed to choose only one of all the indigenous languages in Nigeria as the official language of the nation; mention and describe some of steps to take as regards implementation.

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE1

1) True   2) True   3) False

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE   1

Language planning goals are for language purification, revival, reform, standardization, spread, etc. Be able to describe all of these.

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UNIT 5   LANGUAGE PLANNING II

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In the last unit, you were introduced to some aspects of language planning such as language planning and ideology, language goals and objectives and functional domains of language in a society. In this unit, we will be discussinglanguage planning. You will learn some things about corpus planning which encompasses graphisation, standardisation and modernisation, acquisition planning, the role of the Ministry of Education and problems associated with acquisition planning.

Wikipedia (free online encyclopaedia) defines corpus planning as prescriptive intervention in the forms of a language where planning decisions are made to engineer changes in the structure of the

language.In the last unit, you were told that language planning activity can be divided into two: corpus and status planning. Status planning was discussed in the last unit. We shall go through corpus planning and acquisition planning in this unit. Heinz Kloss (1967, 1969) distinguished the two basic types of language planning on the basis of the distinction between language as an autonomous linguistic system and as a social institution (Mesthrie*et al*,, 2003). Let us look briefly at the objectives of this unit before we continue.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

* describe language planning in relation to corpus planning; and
* discuss acquisition planning and the problems related to acquisition planning.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT
  a.   Read this unit as diligently as possible.
  b.   Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
  c.   As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.
  d.   Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.
  e.   Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Corpus Planning

Corpus planning takes planners into greater linguistic expertise unlike status planning that is undertaken by politicians and administrators. Corpus planning involves three important processes or dimensions: graphisation, standardisation and modernisation.

3.1.1 Graphisation

This refers to development, selection and modification of scripts and orthographic conventions of a language. It is noted that the use of writing in a speech community can have lasting socio-cultural effects, which include easier transmission of material through generations, communication with larger number of people and a standard against which varieties of spoken language are often compared. Ferguson (1959) observed that the use of writingadds another variety of the language to the community's repertoire.

Below are some of the assumptions some people have about written language.

1.   Written language is often viewed as secondary to spoken language.
2.   The use of writing often leads to a folk belief that the written language is real language and speech is a corruption of it.
3.   Written language is viewed as more conservative, while the spoken language is more susceptible to language change.

In establishing the writing system of a language, corpus planners have the option of using an existing system or inventing a new one.

3.1.2 Standardisation

This is the process by which one variety of a language takes precedence over other social and regional dialects of a language. This variety then becomes the supra-dialectal and the best form from of the language. For example, standard Yoruba seems to be the recognised one above all other dialectal varieties. The choice of any language that takes precedence over the others confers on the speakers certain privileges as a group whose dialect has been chosen or comes closer to the standard one. For example, the Oyo/Yoruba dialect is closer to the standard written Yoruba, more than other dialects. The standard form is always imposed upon the less privileged as the language to emulate. It is taught in the schools and accepted examination and written assessment in that language.

The choice of such a dialect often reinforces the dominance of the powerful social group and makes the standard form necessary for socio-economic mobility and that in practice; standardisation generally entails increasing the uniformity of the norm as well as the codification of norms. The standardisation of the English language started when William Caxton introduced the printing press in England in 1476 with the adoption of the Southeast midlands variety of English spoken in London as print language. The dialect became the standard one used for administrative and literary purposes.

3.1.3 Modernisation

Modernisation is said to be a form of language planning that occurs when a language needs to expand its resources to meet certain functions. Modernisation occurs when a language undergoes a shift in status; for example when country has to change its language education policy. For instance, Nigeria states in its national policy that apart from the English language, three other major indigenous languages will be used along with English in conducting most of the affairs of the nation (Yoruba,

Hausa and Igbo). This automatically confers on these languages a social status that edges out other minority languages.

Modernisation leads to the expansion of the lexicon. Language planners create new list to describe new technical terms. Rapid lexical expansion is aided by the use of new terms in textbooks and professional publications and frequent use of these terms among specialists. Linguistic purism often helps lexical expansion, whether the words are coinages or word formation from the language or they are borrowed.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What is graphisation in corpus planning?

3.2   Acquisition Planning

This is a type of planning in which a national, state or local government system aims to influence aspects of language such as language status, distribution and literacy through education. This kind of planning can also be used by non-governmental organisations or those commonly associated with government planning. This language planning process can involve the evaluation of the national, state or local government levels from the primary to the university level. This process of change can entail a variety of modifications, which affect student textbooks formatting, a change in methods of teaching an official language or the development of a bilingual language programme.

The government of a nation can establish a law that will require teachers to use a particular language if it wants to change the status of that language or change its level of prestige. It could even enact a law that all textbooks should be written in that language alone. This will lead to the evaluation of the language status or increase its prestige. In this way, acquisition planning is used to promote language revitalisation, which can change a language's status or reverse language shift or promote linguistic purism.

3.3   Functional Domains of Language in Society

As enumerated in Mesthrie*et al*.,(2003), Stewart (1968), in Adegbite and Akindele (1999), identified various functional domains of language. Language canperform the following functions:

3.3.1 Official

This is the use of language 'as legally appropriate language for all politically and culturally representative purposes on a nationwide basis.

In many cases, the official function of a language is specified constitutionally' (Stewart 1968):For example in Ireland, both Irish and English have official status. In Nigeria, English also has official status.

3.3.2 Provincial

This is the use of language 'as a provincial or regional official language. In this case, the official function of the language is not nation-wide, but is limited to a smaller geographic area'. For example, in Quebec, Canada, French is the only official language; while both English and French have official status in the other provinces of Canada.

3.3.3 Wider Communication

This is the use of language as a medium of communication across language boundaries within a nation e.g. Swahili in Kenya and Tanzania, Hindi and English in India.

3.3.4 International

This is the use of language as a major medium of communication which is international in scope- e.g. for diplomatic relations, foreign trade, tourism, the internet, etc. For example, in the world today, English is a major medium of international communication.

3.3.5 Capital

It is the use of a language as major medium of communication in the vicinity of the nation's capital, that is, in and around a national capital. It is noted that this function is especially important in countries where political, social prestige and economic activity is centred in the capital- e.g. the provinces of Belgium have either Dutch or French as a provincial official language. The capital Brussels, however, is bilingual.

3.3.6 Group

This is the use of a language primarily as the normal medium for communication among the members of a single group, such as a tribe, settled group of foreign immigrants, etc., for example, Arabs among Jews, Igbos in Lagos and abroad, West Indians in Britain.

3.3.7 Educational

An educational language functions as a medium of primary or secondary education, either regionally or nationally.

3.3.8 School subject

A school language is commonly taught as a subject in the secondary school or higher educational level, for example, Latin and Ancient Greek in English schools. In Nigeria, English is taught as a school subject despite the fact that it is also an official language.

3.3.9 Literary

It is the use of a language for literary or scholarly purposes. For example, Latin was used as the main language of literary and particularly scientific writing in Europe until the eighteenth century. English is now the major tool for literary endeavour in Nigeria.

3.3.10 Religious

A religious language functions as a language for the purposes of a particular religion e.g. Latin for Roman Catholic, English for Pentecostals and Evangelicals in Nigeria but the indigenous languages in many of the orthodox churches.

3.3.11 Mass Media

The use of a language in the print media and on radio and television in a functional domain is also possible. For example in Israel, the government determines how many hours should be broadcast in Hebrew, Arabic and foreign languages. In Nigeria, all the programmes on the national television (NTA) are in English.

3.3.12 Workplace

This concerns the use of language as a medium of communication in the workplace. For example, although German is the main language used in German factories, Turkish, Greek, Italian and other immigrant languages dominate certain areas of production-line work .It should be noted that mass media and workplace functions of language are based on Cooper's (1989:99-119) stance on language functions. In Nigeria, official communication is done through English. However, regional varieties tend to dominate in informal communication within the same work plan.

3.4   The Role of the Ministry of Education

The Ministry of Education is responsible for taking decisions on national language acquisition based on reports from the local and state

governments. Wikipedia refers to Kaplan and Baldauf on the principal goals of the education sector as follows:

1.   to decide what languages should be taught within the curriculum;
2.   to determine the amount and quality of teacher training;
3.   to involve local communities;
4.   to determine what materials will be used and how they will be incorporated into the syllabi;
5.   to establish a local and state assessment system to monitor progress; and
6.   to establish financial cost.

It has, however, been noticed that the role of the ministry of education vary from country to country- but the above are the general principal goals of the sector.In multilingual state, determining the choice of language can be a little bit problematic and political. This requires a lot of planning. For example, in Nigeria, the official language, which is English, has been chosen for instruction in schools, but it is also specified in the national policy on education that the indigenous language could be used as medium of instruction at the lower primary level. This is probably for two reasons: one, it is so that the children can understand concepts better at that level. Educationists believe that a child needs to be taught at that level through the mother tongue. Another reason being that, if care is not taken, the up-coming generation can become disinterested in their mother tongue, thereby abandoning it for the official language that has a lot of prestige and advantages with its acquisition.

3.5   Problems Associated with Acquisition Planning

It is noted by scholars that despite the usefulness of acquisition planning, there could still be several problems. Some of the proposed changes could be too drastic or sudden without proper planning or organisation. It can be financially draining. This calls for adequate planning and provision of essential resources to carry out the changes.Apart from the education sector, some non-governmental organisations own dictionaries and grammar books, for example, the Academic Francais of France or the Real Academia Espanola of Spain. The activities of these non-governmental organisations affect government planning decisions on items such as educational materials.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What is the role of the Ministry of Education in language planning and how can this be related to what is happening in Nigeria?

4.0   CONCLUSION

In conclusion, you have been introduced to corpus planning and you have also learnt a few things about acquisition planning, the role of the Ministry of Education and problems associated with acquisition planning.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the following major points.

- Corpus planning involves three important processes; graphisation, standardisation and modernisation.
- Graphisation refers to development, selection and modification of scripts and orthographic conventions of a language.
- Standardisation is the process by which one variety of a language takes precedence over other social and regional dialects of a language.
- Modernisation is a form of language planning that occurs when a language needs to expand its resources to meet certain functions.
- Acquisition planning is a type of planning in which a national, state or local government system aims to influence aspects of language such as language status, distribution and literacy through education.
- The Ministry of Education is responsible for taking decisions on national language acquisition, based on reports from the local and state governments.
- Acquisition planning can be financially draining.
- Mesthrie *et al*.,(2003), Stewart (1968) in Adegbite and Akindele (1999), have identified various functional domains of language.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Mention and describe some of the functional domains of language in a society with special reference to Nigeria as a nation.
2.   Mention some of the problems associated with acquisition planning in any society.
3.   Describe the roles that the Ministry of Education should play as regards language acquisition in Nigeria.

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Graphisation in corpus planning refers to development, selection, and modification of scripts and orthographic conventions of a language.

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

The role of the ministry of Education:

1) Decidewhat the language should be.
2) Amount of teacher training to be done.
3) What materials to be used etc.

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UNIT 6   CRITICAL APPLIED LINGUISTICS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit is on critical perspectives in language. You will be taken through a scholarly review of some of the various sections you have gone through and how they are related to AL. Pennycook (2006) notes the emergence of critical perspectives in language which dates back to the mid-1980s. Scholars have worked in critical discourse analysis, critical literacy, and critical pedagogy.Pennycook (2006:784) presents some other areas in language study such as gender studies, postcolonial studies or anti-racist theory which also fall under these critical studies. He, additionally however, discussed significant themes in critical applied linguistics covering developing approaches to issues in language policy and planning, translation and interpreting language education, discourse analysis, literacy, language in the work place, and some other areas of applied linguistics in his work on Critical Applied Linguistics (CAL).

According to Pennycook (2006), Critical Applied Linguistics (CAL) is more than just a critique of applied linguistics or a sum of related critical approaches to language domains such as Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), Critical Literacy and Critical Pedagogy. CAL is also more than just the addition of a political/ critical approach to applied linguistics but that CAL raises questions such as identity, sexuality, power and performativity. This means that it suggests a broad conception of AL, but also draws on a range of theoretical and empirical domains. Davis

1999 defines CAL as a judgmental approach by some applied linguists to normal AL on the grounds that it is not concerned with the transformation of society. You will notice that it is clear from this introduction that you will be instructed on the views of some earlier scholars on some of the areas we have worked on before. Just go through the unit carefully and patiently and you will understand all you are expected to know. Let us examine some of the objectives of this unit

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

* give adequate descriptions of the critical approaches to applied analysis and some other language areas; and
* describeand apply some of these approaches in your writings.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

Read the unit carefully. Understand its content very well. Do all the self-assessment exercises.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Domains of Critical Applied Linguistics

Pennycook(2006) says that it is more profitable to see CAL, not merely as a collection of different parts, but rather, in more dynamic and productive terms. It could also be seen as a critical position towards other areas of work, including other critical domains. Pennycook (p.786) specifically notes that CAL may borrow and use work from these other areas but should only do so critically.

3.1.1 Critical Literacy

The overlaps between CAL, CDA, and Critical Literacy were highlighted by Pennycook in his work on CAL and cognitive processes. He notes that critical literacy has often been overlooked in AL because of the narrowness of scope that has limited AL to questions on second language education and this has left little space for an understanding of critical theories on critical literacy. Luke (1977) says CL is characterised by a commitment to reshape literacy education in the interest of marginalised groups of learners who have been excluded from access to the discourses and the text dominant cultures around them because of gender, culture and socio-economic principles. Critical literacy involves the cooperation of educational interests involved in technologies of

writing for social change, cultural diversity, economic equity, and political enfranchisement (Pennycook 2006:784). Literacy is understood as social practice related to broader political contexts.

3.1.2 Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

Van Dijk (2001:352) avers that CDA is a type of discourse analytical research 'that primarily studies the way social power, abuse, dominance and inequality are enacted, reproduced and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context'. It attempts to understand, expose and ultimately resist social inequality. Van Dijk (2001) notes that a central notion in most critical work of discourse is that of power – social power of groups; and he has the following to say on power as control:

3.1.2.1 Power as Control

According toWodak (1996:17-20), the general principles of CDA may be summarised as follows:

* CDA is concerned with social problems. It is concerned with the linguistic character of social and cultural processes and structures.
* Power relations have to do with discourse. CDA studies both power in discourse and power over discourse (Foucault1990, Bourdieu 1987).
* Society and culture are related in discourse. Both are shaped by discourse and also constitute discourse. Every single instance of language use reproduces or transforms society and culture, including power relations.
* Language use may be ideological: to determine this, it is necessary to analyse texts, to investigate their interpretation, reception and social effects.
* Discourses are historical and can only be understood in relation to their context.
* The connection between text and society is not direct.

Kress (1990) explains that CDA has the political aim of putting the forms of texts, the processes of production of texts and the process of reading together with the structures of power that have given rise to them.

Van Dijk (1993) explains that CDA has wider social and cultural focus on the role of discourse in the (re)production and challenge of dominance (p. 249). Van Dijk notes that CDA will ask questions about the way specific discourse structures are deployed in the reproduction of

social dominance. He notes further that the kind of vocabulary typical of many scholars on CDA are ones that feature notions such as power, dominance, ideology, class, gender, race, discrimination, interests, institution, social structure and social order.

Fairclough (1995) note in Pennycook (2006) that CDA aims to systematically explore relationships of causality and determination between a) discursive practices, events, and texts and b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes. CDA also investigates how such practices events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power (1995: 132). For example, writing on the language of the 'freedom fighters' or (militants) as they are sometimes referred to in the Niger Delta region in Nigeria, would be a CDA work. This is because it has to do with dominance, resources to struggle for, political and physical demonstration of power, struggle over ownership and control of resources etc. The language of struggle and power will be revealed in the spoken discourse and written materials from the area and about the area in all forms. These approaches are concerned with the questions of power, change, dominance struggle etc.

3.1.2.2 Doing CDA

Titscher*et al*., (2000:150-151) reports Fairclough's (1995) analytical approach at doingCDA below. Fairclough talks about interdiscursivity (the combination of genres and discourses in a text) and hegemony (the predominance in and dominance of political, ideological and cultural domains of a society). To Fairclough, there are three dimensions to every discursive event - the text, the discursive event and the social practice. At the textual level, content and form are analysed but instead of using the terms text and form, Fairclough speaks of textual organisation and texture which relates with Halliday and Hassan (1976). To Fairclough, content and formare inseparable. By linguistic analysis, therefore, he means-phonology, grammar, vocabulary and semantics, in addition to cohesion and turn taking.

At the level of discursive practice, Fairclough insists that the analysis does not only include the precise explanation of how the participants in an interaction produce texts but also the relationships of the discursive events and orders. The analysis of the social practice relates to the different levels of social organisation- the situation, institutional context, wider group or social context. Questions of power are of interest here.

Van Dijk (1993) mentions discourse studies dealing with aspects of domination and social inequality which can be conducted under CDA and these are- gender inequality, media discourse, political discourse, racism, and from group domination to political power.

3.1.3 Critical Approaches to Translation

Pennycookdescribes another domain of textual analysis related to CAL. He compares this with the politics of translation- that is the way in which translating and interpreting are related to issues such as class, gender, difference, ideology and social context. Translation can reveal a lot of ideological meanings not visible to the ordinary eye. Venuti (1997), in Pennycook (2006: 788), argues that looking at translation as a political activity shows the tendencies of translators to domesticate foreign cultures. He also comments on the insistence on the possibility of value-free translation, the challenges to the notion of authorship posed by translation from English into other languages rather than in the other direction. He notes that translation should be written, read and evaluated with greater respect for linguistic and cultural differences (p.6). You can now see that translating a book or document from one language to the other can have all kinds of cultural and socio-political implications. If, for example, in a translation, the translator is predisposed towards foregrounding a particular culture, this may cause some relational problems for readers or writers of such texts.

3.1.4 Critical Approaches to Language Education

Language teaching is seen as a principal concern of AL. Pennycook (1999)outlines three main features of the Critical approach to language education. Questions such as the following may arise in these areas of interest-to what extent do particular domains define a critical approach? To what extent does the work constantly question common assumptions and how does the particular approach to education hope to change things? These are questions that can arise as one looks at a critical approach to language education. Answers to these questions may lead to some form of revolution or change in policy or teaching methods at different levels. Contextual matters such as class, race, and gender are important in a critical approach to the language of education. Pennycook also made an attempt to relate aspects of language education to a broader critical analysis of social relations. Lin (1999) finds in her study, that the particular ways of teaching English in Hong-Kong or elsewhere may lead either to the reproduction or the transformation of class-based inequality.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What is critical literacy?

3.2   Critical Language Testing

Pennycook (2006:791) observes that the main response to challenges about the fairness of language assessment has been to turn to questions of test validity rather than outward, to social, cultural, and political context of assessment. Spolsky1995:01) in giving the history of the development of TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language suggests that:

> From its beginnings, testing has been explained also as a method of control and power- as a way to select, to motivate, to punish. The so called objective test, by virtue of its claim of scientific backing for its impartiality and, especially when it operates under academic aegis and with the efficiency of big business, is even more brutally effective in exercising this authority.

Kunnan(2000) considers not only the question of validity but also issues of access- that is, financial, geographical, personal and educational access to tests and justice. Shogamy (2000), on the other hand, suggests that language testers should take responsibility for their tests and the uses they are put. Shogamy (2001) later developed a notion of critical language testing, which she claims implies the need to develop critical strategies to examine the uses and the consequences of tests, to monitor their power, minimise their detrimental force, reveal the misuses and empower the test takers (p.131). Critical language testing maintains that the act of language testing is not neutral. To Shogamy, it is a product and agent of cultural, social, political, educational and ideological agenda that shape the lives of individual participants, teachers and learners. (Pennycook, 2006:792). To Shogamy (2001), test takers are seen as political subjects in a political context and are encouraged to develop a critical view of tests.

Tests are seen to be deeply embedded in cultural, educational and political arenas where different ideological and social forms are in struggle. CLT may ask questions such as- whose agenda are implemented through tests? This demands that language testers ask what vision of society tests presuppose; whose knowledge is the test based on? Is this knowledge negotiable? CLT challenges the uses of tests as the only instrument to access knowledge. Pennycook reports that Shogamy's proposal for CLT matches many of the principles that define other areas of critical applied linguistics and that she bases her argument on the fact that language testing is always political and that we need to become aware of the effects and uses of tests.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What are some of the things to take into consideration in critical language testing and what happens if consideration is not give to such issues?

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit we have been able to go through some of the domains of critical applied linguistics and these are- critical discourse analysis, critical language testing, critical literacy, critical approaches to language education, and critical approaches to translation.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the major points summarized below.

- Critical Applied Linguistics (CAL) is more than just the addition of a political/critical approach to applied linguistics but that CAL raises questions such as identity, sexuality, power and performativity.
- AL draws on a range of theoretical and empirical domains.
- Kress (1990) explains that CDA has the political aim of putting the forms of texts, the processes of production of texts and the process of reading together with the structures of power that have given rise to them into crisis.
- Van Dijk (1993) explains that CDA has its focus on the role of discourse in the (re)production and challenge of dominance.
- CDA also investigates how practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power.
- The main response to challenges about the fairness of language assessment has been to turn to questions of test validity, rather than outwardly to social, cultural and political context of assessment.
- Kunnan(2000) considers not only the question of validity but also, issues of access- that is, financial, geographical, personal and educational access to tests and justice.
- Tests are seen to be deeply embedded in cultural educational and political arenas where different ideological and social forms are in struggle.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Discuss critical discourse analysis and one of the other domains of critical applied linguistics.
2.   Your former English language teacher has asked someone to translate a book written by him/her into another language; Mention some of the problems that can occur.

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Critical literacy suggests writing for social change, cultural diversity, economic equality, and political enfranchisement.

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Critical language testing considers test validity rather than outward to social, cultural and political context of assessment.

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UNIT 7   COMPILATION OF DICTIONARIES

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In the last unit, you were introduced to Critical Applied Linguistics(CAL). You learnt that,CAL raises questions such as identity, sexuality and power. You were also told that there are domains of critical applied linguistics such as: critical literacy, discourse analysis, translation, education and language testing. In this unit, you will learn about the dictionary and how the items are put together. We all use dictionaries but some of us are not aware of the amount of work that goes into the making of a dictionary. In this unit, you will be introduced to it. Just as it has been mentioned earlier, what you have in each unit is not all that the topic entails. You still have to go through the references and get more facts on your own. If you find it difficult locating any of the references, just type in the author's name and google on the net will bring out all the available works of that author.

In his paper on lexicography, Alan Kirkness (2006) highlights the incomparable importance of the dictionary as a reference book in various ways. He notes that 'world-wide, no book on a language or languages has been and is more widely used in education systems in

communities at large than the dictionary'. (Kirkness (2006:55). This means that the dictionary is of a great value to all and sundry. Whether as a pocket sized edition, big volume or electronic version, the dictionary is a very important document or material.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

• 	describe what lexicography and dictionaries are; and
• 	discuss briefly the types of dictionaries, their uses in AL and foreign language teaching.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

Read the unit carefully. Follow the step-by-step presentation of this unit. Do the self-assessment exercises. Read and re-read each session until thorough understanding is achieved.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3. 1   What is Lexicography?

Kirkness (2006:55) defines lexicography as 'the art and craft of writing a dictionary' and a lexicographer is essentially someone who writes or contributes to a dictionary or dictionaries be it an individual or a member of a team, as a freelancer or an in-house employee, as a full-time professional or part-time alongside other activities such as university lecturing'. Lexicographer also refers to writers of the reference works, including encyclopaedias. Kirkness also sees lexicography as central to Applied Linguistics that must be seen as a complex activity with its own principles, practices, problems and traditions. Landau (2001) in Kirkness (2006:55) notes some questions that can be raised (as a result of this definition of lexicography) and these are:

> Why dictionary? Why not thesaurus, lexicon or, encyclopaedia or other reference works? Why write, why not plan, edit, publish, or make, produce, compile, review or use? Why art and craft and why not activity, process, technique, science, job, profession or practice, history or theory?

Kirknessopines that these questions can be answered based on the knowledge that the dictionary is seen as a lexical reference that involves writing, rewriting, semantic, pragmatic or etymological descriptions,

planning, data collection and publishing (Kirkness 2006:56). He notes that good lexicography is more than just compilation.

Defining lexicography in the narrow sense of art and craft, Kirkness says, is an attempt to locate it explicitly at the centre of the applied linguistic endeavour and to emphasise the high degree of human knowledge insight, judgement and skill required to produce the text of a successful reference work designed to be of practical use and benefit in real life situations.

Lexicography is said to involve extracting meanings and uses from authentic texts and explaining them. It is thus an art.The selection of the appropriate illustrations is an art while writing, with dictionary users in mind and with the mind of meeting their needs, is seen as a practical and useful activity and these five qualify it to be a craft.

To Kirkness (2006:54), the dictionary has long been and still is an essential source, if not the principal source of information on language, for all members of the literate societies. Members of a society might have, according to him, questions on any aspect or form, meaning and/or use of a word or words in their own or in another language. He goes ahead to describe lexicographers as descriptive linguists who:

• analyse and describes language with a traditional emphasis on individual items of vocabulary;
• draw on other non-linguistic disciplines including information technology, publishing, history, natural and social sciences in their compilation of items of the dictionary;
• do not make the description of language an end in itself;
• make knowledge about a language available to various sectors of the wider public;
• mediate between different kinds of language knowledge and different kinds of user needs; and
• mediate between the community of linguists and the community at large, depending on the language and purpose of a particular dictionary project(Kirkness, 2006:54).

Kirkness (2006)opines that lexicography has changed over the years as a result of the impact of the computer. Electronic storage facilities of vast lexical materials in corpora have brought a lot of development into lexicographical work. Another thing Kirkness reported that has brought a lot of changes to lexicographical work is meta-lexicography or dictionary research as an academic endeavour. The account of the work on dictionary presented in this unit is from the Western European perspective, which means that most of the discussion is based on and related to the British and other English Language lexicographies.

3.2   The Electronic Age and the Compilation of Dictionary

Kirkness(2006) notes that 'the introduction of electronic corpora, and media, computers has made the work of lexicographers better, not necessarily easier because they now have to cope with a vast quantity ofunimaginable textual data'. The difference between the manually operated corpora and electronically operated ones now is both in quantity and quality. There is the provision of vastly superior data, frequency counts, determination of which usages should be included, which should be peripheral, which are obsolete/archaic, which should be combined, used as run-on-heads, homographs, etc (p. 56-57). The computer may be able to do huge savings in storage space, processing time but it is human beings who will describe the relationships between the words and select appropriate illustrations, examples or establish usage restrictions (Kirkness 2006:56-57) in line with socio-cultural conventions.

There are on-line e-dictionaries and e-encyclopaedias available free or by subscription on the internet and CD-ROM to users. Academic researchers working on dictionaries can now search from their desks, information required,into some on-line dictionaries. With the availability of word banks and word nets such as British National Corpus and Bank of English etc., users can effectively become their own lexicographers.Hartman(2001), Nesi (2000), Tono (2001) Atkins (1998) have worked on the user perspective, empirical studies of what dictionary users do in real look-up situations and these are important in applied linguistics.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What is lexicography and what do lexicographers do?

3.3   What is a Dictionary?

Kirkness (2006)avers that a dictionary is generally regarded as the prototypical work of lexical reference. It classifies and stores information in print or in an electronic form and has an access system or systems designed to allow users to retrieve the information in full 'or in part as readily as possible'. Simply put, a dictionary is a book or bank about words. Kirkness also adds that a reference work that stores and classifies such factual information areas is generally known as an encyclopaedia.

In an encyclopaedic entry, there may be function words such as prepositions, determiners or conjunctions and discourse making chunks such as 'you know', 'I mean', proper names of people, places,

biographical data and descriptions of historical events, political, social and cultural institutions, geographical and geopolitical entities, works of art, literature and music, myths and mythologies, figures, beliefs, religion, academic disciplines in entries of encyclopaedias. He states that simply put, an encyclopaedia is a book or bank about facts(Kirkness, 2006:59).

3.4   Types of Dictionaries

Kirkness (2006:60) asserts that what constitutes the prototypical dictionary vary from society to society because different societies have different lexicographical traditions. As a result of the highly competitive markets, the time intervals between varying editions of dictionaries become shorter and shorter. Language teachers, librarians, dictionary scholars are all faced with the task of constant updating of their resources.

3.4.1 Bilingual Dictionaries

Bilingual dictionaries have entries that cover two national standard languages. In a bilingual dictionary, each word is defined by giving the equivalent word in another language. Hausman et al in Kirkness (2006) distinguished between monolingual and multilingual dictionaries. They note that the vast majority of dictionaries are bilingual and this is the commonly used reference book in second/foreign language learning at all levels. He goes further to mention some specialised bilingual dictionaries as subject-specific technical dictionaries, and pictorial dictionaries in two languages.

The bilingual dictionary,Hausmann*et al.*, state is the general translation dictionary. They also mentioned passive or receptive dictionaries which help in decoding or translating from the target/foreign language to the source/native language, active or productive dictionaries help in encoding or translating from the source to the target language. Kirknessgives examples of, German-French (for foreign users), French-German users and French-German for German users (passive), German-French for German users and French-German for French users (active). He states that most bilingual dictionaries are bidirectional. Remember that in Nigeria we also have Yoruba-English dictionary.

Look at this example from Collins Gem Dicionario Ingles-Portugues; Portugues-Ingles (that is English- Portugues; Portugues-English)

apt [æpt] adj (suitable) adequado; (appropriate) apropriado; (likely) **to do** sujeito a fazer
ala [ala] f wing; (fileira) row; (passagem) aisle

3.4.2 Monolingual Dictionaries

Monolingual dictionaries have entries in one language. Explanations are given in the language used. They are divided into general and specialised works. It is confirmed that there are more than seventy types of specialised dictionaries, which derive from different types of lexicographic information. These are dictionaries devoted to different types of Lemmas (or running heads) e.g. syntagmatic information are the major entries of syntactic patterns, valency, collocations, fixed phrases and idioms, proverbs or quotations.There are dictionaries which classify and list synonyms, dictionaries that deal with specific text types, and concordances, children's dictionaries, learners' dictionaries, pronouncing dictionaries, syllabic dictionaries, etc.

Kirkness (2006:63) states that there are three major parts of a dictionary: (1) outside or additional matter, macro-structure and micro-structure. The sizes of these sections can vary according to the type of dictionary.

Look at the following entry from 'The *New International Webster's Comprehensive Dictionary'*

gun (gun) n.1 A metal tube for firing projectiles by the force of an explosive,   by compressed air, or a spring, together with its stock and other attachments. 2 A piece of ordnance with a flat trajectory. 3 A/ any   portable firearm except a pistol or a revolver, as a rifle, musket, carbine, etc.

3.5   The Component Parts of a Dictionary

3.5.1 The Front Matter

This is user's guide or key to the dictionary (key-explains style, structure, and content of the dictionary, meta-language, symbols and code used, punctuation and complex typography, layout of the entries). It may stand alone or accompany an introduction to the dictionary, outlining the educational principles underlying the work.

The middle matter consists of small, half or full page devoted to grammar and /or usage notes, frequency charts, word formation items and patterns, lexical sets or pragmatic conventions, etc. The outside matter might also contain both linguistic and encyclopaedic information of all kinds ranging from style guides, prefixes and suffixes and different alphabets to weights and measures (Kirkness, 2006:65).

3.5.2 The Macro Structure

This refers to the list and organisation of the lexical items entered in the dictionary, Lemmas or headwords. The Lemma list depends on the projected size and scope of the dictionary. It may be comprehensive (large unabridged) or highly selective as in small pocket dictionaries. The organisation of the Lemmas is now always alphabetical. Kirkness notes that the micro structural criterion must be user-friendly that is, the user must be able to find the item looked for as quickly and easily as possible.

3.5.3 Micro Structure

This is said to refer to the lexicographic information on the Lemma contained in the dictionary article. It is noted that the dictionaries have different policies on the information they regard as lexically relevant in their own peculiar order. Some of the formal information provided by the micro structure is on spelling and pronunciation, variants in accepted standard varieties, base and inflected forms, syntactic categories, parts of speech, synonyms, antonyms (paradigmatic information on lexical fields); syntagmatic information on lexical collocation, grammatical associations, etc. are also included in this section.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What is a dictionary? What are the component parts of a dictionary?
How can second or foreign language teachers enhance their teaching through the appropriate use of dictionaries?

3.6   Compiling a Dictionary

A dictionary is a book or bank of words. It classifies and stores information in print or electronic form (Kirkness 2006:59). Dictionaries are compiled with the specifications of a particular dictionary project. That is, it depends on the target audience. Kirkness also notes that compilation has to do with extracting meanings and uses from authentic texts ad explaining them clearly and fully in minimum words. The words are from both spoken and written data. Compilationis an act or a process of compiling or gathering words together from various sources. The information is linguistic but may include material on form, meaning, use, origin or history.

Many of the words we use or read about in the dictionary have history in terms of the person that first used the word, when it was first used and under what circumstances. The following should be taken into consideration when compiling words for a dictionary:

-        selection of words from both spoken and written data
-        spelling/pronunciation of the word
-        stress placement
-        selection of appropriate illustrative examples
-        write with dictionary users in mind
-        central usages/peripheral usages should be determined
-        determine which new items should be included
-        determine which items should be excluded from the list
-        determine which items warrant status as Lemmas or headwords
-        describe polysemous words
-        include synonyms, antonyms and hyponyms where possible
-        establish usage and usage restriction
         etc.

For example, look at the following word

walk /wôk /present v.t, *walked*, pt(past tense) *walking (*cont.)1 to advance on foot in such a way that one part of a foot is always on the ground- i.e.*walk to the station*2 to move or go on foot for exercise or amusement.

The first information on the word is the spelling. Next is the pronunciation of the word. After this comes the class of the word and it shows that it is a verb. The usage follows. If you check a big dictionary, you will find so many entries of walk there. As a language specialist, you should be able to make entries for words like the example above. Think about some of the words that are used by people around you. Think about their meanings. Try to make entries for them, taking into consideration some of the points highlighted above. You then appreciate what lexicographers do and also discover that you can do the same.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Make a dictionary entry for the word 'igba'- time in Yoruba or any word in your own indigenous language.

3.7   Dictionaries in Applied Linguistics

Dictionaries are important in educational settings, especially where languages are taught and learnt. This makes lexicography an essential part of applied linguistics.Professional translators need dictionaries of different types, depending on the nature of the translation they want to do. Lexicographers and translators can work together with the latter giving expert information on the corpora. Kirkness (p.65) notes that technical translators must have the combination of linguistic and encyclopaedic or content knowledge of both written and spoken

expressions. Literacy translators should also have the ability to extract meaning from texts in one language and get the appropriate equivalent in the other.

Researchers on language for special purposes in the area of communication also need dictionaries that are specialised and subject specific. These can be used as editors or consultant experts in relevant subject areas by lexicographers.

In language planning, corpus planning and status planning, the role of lexicography is central.It is said to be instrumental to the establishment of standard varieties of the different vernaculars, especially in written usage.

3.8   Dictionaries in Second/Foreign Language Teaching

Dictionaries are very important in education planning and policy in language education at all levels. Kirkness (2006)observes that it is concerned with the writing and study of dictionary use, especially by language teachers and learners. He also states that the involvement of dictionaries in second language and foreign language teaching involves mono, bi, and multilingual works as well as general children's school, college and specialised technical dictionaries. He notes that the current international importance of teaching and learning English as an additional language worldwide calls for the need for all kinds of specialised dictionaries.

People now talk about Englishes andKirkness opines,with British English and American English taking the lead as varieties. Kirkness (2006:68) traces the development of the main-stream of modern British pedagogical lexicography for advanced learners. He notes that it dates back to 1948 when Oxford University Press published A Learner's Dictionary of Current English edited by A.S. Hornby with E.V. Gatenby and Wakefield and renamed The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English in 1952.

The choice of Lemmas or running heads was based on the classroom experience of practising language teachers and their knowledge and perception of learner's needs, especially those of advanced learners (Kirkness, 2006:68). He notes that Received Pronunciation (RP) (pronunciation conventions) of Lemmas was given in the transcriptions of the International Phonetic Association (IPA). General American Pronunciation (GAP) is also now recorded in addition to RP in CD version. Kirkness reports the publication of a second edition of Hornby's dictionary in 1963, third in 1974 with the title Oxford

Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (OALD) and has been revised with all kinds of improved language.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have been able to expose you to the types of dictionaries, how they are compiled, and the electronic age with respect to the production of dictionaries.The unit also specified the component parts of a dictionary, dictionaries in AL and dictionaries in second and foreign language teaching.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the major points identified below.

* The dictionary has long been and still is an essential source, if not the principal source of information, on language for all members of the literate society.
* Lexicography is the art and craft of writing a dictionary.
* A lexicographer is essentially someone who writes or contributes to dictionaries.
* Lexicographersanalyse and describe language, with traditional emphasis on individual items of vocabulary.
* A dictionary is generally regarded as the prototypical work of lexical choice.
* Monolingual dictionaries are said to be divided into general and specialised works.
* Dictionaries are important in educational settings, especially where languages are taught and learned.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Which definition of 'casual' fits which sentence?
   Casual / kæzjul/. **Casuals**. 1 something that is **casual** 1.1 happens or is done by chance or without planning. ° (Adj. class, accidental), e.g. her casual remark caused a political storm… a casual meeting. **Casually**, e.g. … a casually acquired object. (Adv. with vb) 1.2 is rather careless and done without much interest, (Adj. superficial), e.g. I had a casual glance at the papers.. a casual friendship. **Casually**. (Adv. with vb)
2. If you are **casual**, you are or you pretend to be calm (Adj. nonchalant, unconcerned) and not very interested in what is happening or what you are doing, e.g. he tried to appear casual as he asked her to dance… a casual wave. **Casually** e.g. I walked

casually into his room. Casualness, e.g. with studied **casualness** he mentioned it to Hilary.

3.   **Casual** clothes are clothes that are suitable for when you are at home or doing things other than working,(Adj, informal) but are not suitable for work or formal occasions, e.g. a casual shirt. – used as a plural noun, e.g. smart casuals. **Casually**, e.g. He was dressed casually.

4.   **Casual** work is done for only a short time and not on a permanent or regular basis, (Adj temporary), e.g. They employ casual workers to pick the fruits… a casual job.

1.   It was quite a casual outfit, just right for such an informal occasion (definition no. -----)
2.   I only said it casually, but it shocked her (definition no.---)
3.   I don't get a salary; I'm just a casual. (definition no.---)
4.   It was just a casual encounter, but it changed my life. (definition no. ---)

(2)Think about the word*informal.*

1. What is its root, its prefix and its suffix?
2. What is its opposite or antonym?
3. Has it got any synonyms?
4. What words are included in its word family?
5. Use it in (a) a phrase (b) sentence.

(3)   Plan a dictionary for your language with entries of at least 5 lexical words and two grammatical wordsand describe the process involved. Make sure you identify the intended users.

ANSWERS TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Lexicography is the art and craft of writing a dictionary. Alexicographist writes a dictionary.

ANSWERS TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Igba (two hundred)   igbá (locust beans)   iġbà (season)

iġbá (calabash)

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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