APPLIED LINGUISTICS: AN OVERVIEW

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INTRODUCTION

Dear students! Welcome to module 1 concerning an overview of applied linguistics. This is the first of nine modules in Applied Linguistics. This module mainly deals with the nature of applied linguistics. As matter of fact, the materials and discussion on the nature of applied linguistics are too broad to pack in one module. Thus the explanation in this module focuses on three broad areas, namely the definition, topics in applied linguistics, and the impact of applied linguistics.

After finishing this module, you are kindly expected to be able to:
1. mention and argumentatively criticize the available definitions of applied linguistics;
2. formulate and state definition(s) of applied linguistics by using your own words;
3. differentiate between linguistics and applied linguistics
4. differentiate between applied linguistics and linguistics applied
5. mention and argumentatively discuss the topics of applied linguistics;
6. mention, argue, and verbally state the impact of applied linguistics on other fields.

To achieve the objectives academically, the presentation and explanation of learning materials, including the exercises of this module are elaborated in three units. Unit 1 is about the definitions of applied linguistics which is highly aimed at achieving objectives 1, 2, 3 and 4. Unit 2 deals with the topics of applied linguistics which leads you to successfully come to objective 5. Then, Unit 3 is talking about the impact of applied linguistics to other fields, such as like language teaching, forensic linguistics, translation studies, which leads you to have knowledge and inspiration related to objective 6. Please keep in your mind that the general objective of Module 1

is to serve you to be able to understand and have argumentations on the overview of applied linguistics.

As this subject belongs to content subject in linguistics, reading activities and academic discussion in groups or in pairs are highly suggested. Therefore, the following activities are kindly suggested to do in order to learn this module successfully.

1. Please read carefully the materials and explanation in each unit;
2. then, read further related references and information by means of independent learning and reading;
3. do not forget to add relevant examples and have discussion in groups or in pairs;
4. sometimes it is not easy to have better understanding on certain complex and complicated concepts. If it is so, read the materials again and you may have comparative discussion with your partners;
5. do all the exercises and compare your answers with those of your friends before consulting the key answers provided!

All right students, do your best and good luck!

THE NATURE OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS

T he aim of this unit is to provide you with a broad and general outline of applied linguistics as an academic subject area. In so doing, we hope to answer some of the questions that new and prospective students of applied linguistics most frequently ask about the subject. In particular, we will try to provide clear answers to the following questions, which we are often asked by prospective students:

- What is applied linguistics?
- What is the difference between linguistics and applied linguistics?
- What is applied about applied linguistics?
- What is the difference between applied linguistics and linguistics applied

The Definitions of Applied Linguistics

If you have searched for definitions of applied linguistics on the Internet or in reference books, you may have been struck by how similar most of them seem to be. First, Brock University website defines applied linguistics as 'the systematic study of language structure, the acquisition of first and subsequent languages, the role of language in communication, and the status of language as the product of particular cultures and other social groups'. Second, Wikipedia.org defines applied linguistics as 'an interdisciplinary field of linguistics' that covers 'bilingualism and multilingualism, computer-mediated communication (CMC), conversation analysis, contrastive linguistics, sign linguistics, language assessment, literacies, discourse analysis, language pedagogy, second language acquisition, lexicography, language planning and policy, interlinguistics, stylistics, pragmatics, forensic linguistics and translation'. A typical definition of applied linguistics can be found on the website of the International Association for Applied Linguistics (AILA), the leading professional organization in the field. According to AILA:

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

The definition proposed by AILA is broad because it covers many different areas like child language acquisition, language and communication disorders, multilingualism, language testing, communication in the workplace, and so on. This definition is also considered narrow due to the relation of applied linguistics to linguistics proper.

Turning to printed sources, we find the definitions of applied linguistics in the dictionary. First, Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Richards et al. 2002: 28) defines applied linguistics even more concisely as 'the study of language and linguistics in relation to practical problems.' Second, Oxford Advance Learner Dictionary defines applied linguistics as 'The branch of linguistics concerned with practical applications of language studies, for example language teaching, translation, and speech therapy.' Next, Macmillian Dictionary.com defines applied linguistics as 'the study of language for its practical uses, for example in teaching or speech therapy'.

Many textbooks on applied linguistics also provide the definition of applied linguistics. Corder (1973) in his phenomenal book entitles Introducing Applied Linguistics states that "Applied linguistics is the utilization of the knowledge about the nature of language achieved by linguistic research for the improvement of the efficiency of some practical tasks in which language is a central component". Schmitt and Celce-Murcia offer the following definition of Applied Linguistics: 'Applied Linguistics is using what we know about (a) language, (b) how it is learned, and (c) how it is used, in order to achieve some purpose or solve some problem in the real world' (Schmitt & Celce-Murcia, 2002: 1). They point out that traditionally, the primary concerns of Applied Linguistics have been second language acquisition theory, second language pedagogy and the interface between the two. Grabe's definition is not far away: "the focus of applied linguistics is on trying to resolve language-based problems that people encounter in the real world, whether they be learners, teachers, supervisors, academics, lawyers, service providers, those who need social services, test takers, policy developers, dictionary makers, translators, or a whole range of business clients" (Grabe, 2002: 9).

Perhaps all of the above definitions are neatly encapsulated in the best-known and most frequently-cited definition of all, originally formulated by the eminent applied linguist Chris Brumfit. Brumfit (1995: 27) says that '[applied linguistics is] the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-

world problems in which language is a central issue'. Brumfit's useful and concise definition of applied linguistics is both widely accepted and widely quoted. Cook and North (2010: 1) say that as the broad definition it has a number of advantages. First, it makes applied linguistics different from other branches of linguistics by focusing its orientation towards language-related problems, and it implies that the work in applied linguistics can have some impact upon those problems, potentially influencing how decisions are made about them. Second, it is also general enough to encompass the many disparate activities and areas of enquiry that call themselves applied linguistics.

Several handbooks of applied linguistics also provide a wide variety of definitions related to applied linguistics. Simpson, the editor of The Routledge Handbook of Applied Linguistics, defines applied linguistics as "the academic field which connects knowledge about language to decision making in the real world . . . In this sense applied linguistics mediates between theory and practice" (Simpson, 2011: 1). Kaplan, in The Oxford Handbook of Applied Linguistics, says that "Applied linguistics is a difficult notion to define." He goes on to say that the Handbook does not talk about the definitive definition of the field. Thus, these two very recent handbooks provide a wealth of examples of work in applied linguistics, which help to demonstrate the difficulty the editors faced in constructing a usefully precise and inclusively accurate definition of the field.

Davies and Elder, editors of The Handbook of Applied Linguistics published by Blackwell, present a definition in concrete terms through multiple examples of the types of problems that applied linguists work on:

> Applied linguistics is often said to be concerned with solving or at least ameliorating social problems involving language. The problems applied linguistics concerns itself with are likely to be: How can we teach languages better? How can we improve the training of translators and interpreters? How can we write a valid language examination? How can we evaluate a school bilingual program? How can we determine the literacy levels of a whole population? How can we helpfully discuss the language of a text? What advice can we offer a Ministry of Education on a proposal to introduce a new medium of instruction?

How can we compare the acquisition of a European and an Asian language? What advice should we give a defense lawyer on the authenticity of a police transcript of an interview with a suspect?

(Davies & Elder, 2004: 1)

When we pay attention to the above examples of questions we begin to realize that applied linguists address begin to rein in the "theory of everything." In the questions one can see applied linguistics in terms of the areas of research it can encompass. At the same time, however, such questions because of their origin in everyday social practices may not reflect the academic and scholarly dimension of applied linguistics. One can easily find instances where someone offers an improvement for foreign language teaching, translator training, language-test development, and so forth, having no connection whatsoever to applied linguistics.

The definition of applied linguistics then needs to extend beyond the questions posed because, as Bygate pointed out, "apparently simple questions conceal matters of complexity and sensitivity, which on closer scrutiny raise more general issues, which also characterize the broader field of applied linguistics" (Bygate, 2004: 6). Bygate identified five main issues in the broader field including (a) evaluating the appropriateness of the granularity and perspective researchers use to specify a problem under investigation, (b) establishing trustworthiness of data interpretation, (c) creating an appropriate degree of collaboration between researcher and participants, (d) communicating research results to participants in a manner that allows for sufficient follow up, and (e) understanding the best relationship of theory and data collection and interpretation.

These issues underlie the discussion of language-related problems that readers find in the Encyclopedia. However, such issues stated generally can be said to underlie any social science more generally. To characterize applied linguistics, one needs to include explicitly the linguistic dimension of the field. The authors of Mapping Applied Linguistics accomplish this by defining applied linguistics as a mode of inquiry about language-related problems requiring consideration of "both the social and cognitive nature of language" (Hall, Smith, & Wicaksono, 2011: 19). Other ingredients of mode of inquiry are taking into account the needs of clients such as learners, test-score users, and businesses, being responsive to contextual factors affecting research, and engaging in collaboration in the design and evaluation of

findings and recommendations. In short, Hall, Smith, and Wicaksono see applied linguistics as a mode of inquiry engaged with real people and issues arising in a political environment where academic perspectives and research alone may or may not be important in conceptualizing problems and finding solutions. In such an environment, problem solvers must genuinely engage with local knowledge and practice in seeking solutions.

Based on all the definitions stated above, we can say that it is the belief that linguistics can offer insights and ways forward in the resolution of problems related to language in a wide variety of contexts that underlies the very existence of the discipline usually called applied linguistics. Applied linguists try to offer solutions to 'real-world problems in which language is a central issue' (Brumfit 1991:46), however tentative or 'implied' those solutions may be. What, then, might fall within the domain of typical applied linguistic problems? A list of such problems will certainly be wide-ranging and potentially endless, but might include the following:

1. A speech therapist sets out to investigate why a four-year-old child has failed to develop normal linguistics skills for a child of that age.
2. A teacher of English as a foreign language wonders why groups of learners sharing the same first language regularly make a particular grammatical mistake that learners from other language backgrounds do not.
3. An expert witness in a criminal case tries to solve the problem of who exactly instigated a crime, working only with statements made to the police.
4. An advertising copy writer searches for what would be the most effective use of language to target a particular social group in order to sell a product.
5. A mother-tongue teacher needs to know what potential employers consider important in terms of a school-leaver's ability to write reports or other business documents.
6. A historian wishes to understand the meanings of place-names in a particular geographical area and how they have changed over time.
7. A person constructing a language test for non-native speakers for entry into further education needs to know what the key linguistic or psycholinguistic indicators are of reading ability in a second or foreign language.

8. A literary scholar suspects that an anonymous work was in fact written by a very famous writer and looks for methods of investigating the hypothesis.
9. A dictionary writer ponders over possible alternatives to an alphabetically organized dictionary.
10. A computer programmer wrestles with the goal of trying to get a computer to process human speech or to get it to translate from one language into another.
11. A group of civil servants are tasked with standardizing language usage in their country, or deciding major aspects of language planning policy that will affect millions of people.
12. A body is set up to produce an international, agreed language for use by air-traffic controllers and pilots, or by marine pilots and ships' captains.
13. A zoologist investigates the question whether monkeys have language similar to or quite distinct from human language and how it works.
14. A medical sociologist sets out to understand better the changes that occur in people's use of language as they move into old age.

(Cited form McCarthy, 2001: 1-2)

Look at the problem no. 2 in the above list. The problem is "A teacher of English as a foreign language wonders why groups of learners sharing the same first language regularly make a particular grammatical mistake that learners from other language backgrounds do not." In this case the teacher tries to understand why learners from the same language background are having difficulties with a particular grammatical structure in English. McCarthy (2001: 8) states that the teacher's potential recourse to linguistics is likely to involve different areas depending on what questions are asked. The following figure shows some questions asked by the teacher.

Language teachers' questions

- What is known about the learner's first language or any other language they know which might be interfering with their learning of the foreign language?
- What do grammarians say about this structure?
- What psychological barriers might be preventing the learning of the structure?
- Are some structures difficult to learn if they are tackled too early on? Is there an order in which structures are best presented?
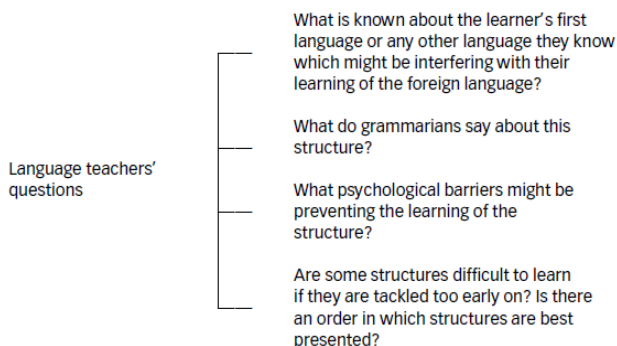
Figure 1.1: linguistic questions for the solution of a grammatical problem

If we consider another of the problems, that of the dictionary writer looking for alternatives to the alphabetical dictionary, McCarthy (2001: 8) says that the different set of questions that might be asked by the lexicographers is shown in the following figure.

Lexicographic (dictionary-making) questions

- What is the internal structure of the vocabulary of the language(s) I am dealing with?
- What do we know about the mental organisation of vocabulary in human beings? Perhaps this can be utilised in dictionary organisation?
- What problems might a non-native user of the dictionary have with the organising principle chosen?
- What place should information about grammar have in such a dictionary?
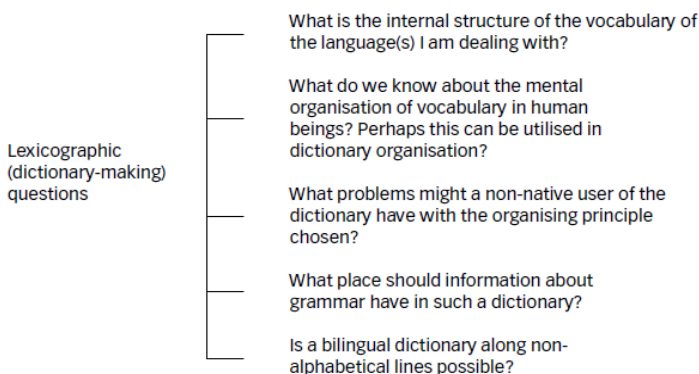- Is a bilingual dictionary along non-alphabetical lines possible?

Figure 1.2: Linguistic questions for the solution of a lexicographic problem

The dictionary writer, like the language teacher, confronts the same basic questions: Can linguistics offer an approach or a solution to the problem at hand? If so, which branch(es) of linguistic study, and by what method(s)? How reliable is the information offered by linguists? How tenable are their theories and models of the language? How willing and ready are linguists to

contribute to this kind of practical undertaking? The title of a paper by McCawley (1986), 'What linguists might contribute to dictionary making if they could get their act together', strikes a slightly pessimistic tone in this regard. If there is conflicting information to be had from the findings of linguists, how does one best evaluate which approach is likely to be most useful? Can the non-linguist take on such a task, or is this a job for highly trained specialists?

Cook (2003: 5) provides some concrete examples of the kind of problems is language implicated and how they might be investigated. Here are a number of imaginary but representative situations in which decisions about language need to be taken.

- The head teacher of a London school is thinking of offering another foreign language in addition to French. The options are Chinese (the world's largest first language), Spanish (one of the world's largest and most widely distributed languages), or the Indian language Gujarati (the largest second language in the school and local community, and one which has approximately forty-three millions speakers worldwide). Which of these languages should be taught, and why?

- A business executive wants to learn Japanese in preparation for taking up a post in Tokyo. There are three courses available. Course One has a strong emphasis on learning to write. Course Two focuses on the spoken language, claiming that learning to write too early is demotivating. It does, however, explain the rules of Japanese grammar in English and use translation. Course Three's approach is 'natural', with no translation or explanation of rules, but only a series of communicative classroom activities and tasks. Which course is the best choice, and why?

(Cook, 2003: 5-6)

Furthermore, Cook (2003: 6) also says that in order to respond the above language related problem, we can do several things. First, we can use our common sense and experience to evaluate the choice. However, if we recommend a particular course of action, we can obtain the benefit from more information derived from using the systematic approach, like doing needs analysis. Second, we can study what other people say on similar matters. It is also possible for us to make our own investigation by interviewing the parents and children in the school, do the observation, and

consult experts in language teaching. Thus, this process constitutes applied linguistics as an academic discipline.

Linguistics and Applied Linguistics

The role and relationship of the field of linguistics within applied linguistics has been variously interpreted in large part due to the ambiguity of the term applied linguistics. What is applied? Is it only linguistics? What is it applied to? Who is (not) an applied linguist? Is a degree in linguistics assumed? Or is it enough to be working with language-related issues?

We should perhaps first clarify that general linguistics is different from 'applied linguistics'. Hall, Smith and Wicaksono (2011: 41-42) say that General linguistics describes and theorizes about language and languages, and is an umbrella term for a number of sub-disciplines. General linguistics analyses the sound systems, grammars, vocabularies and discourse-organizing principles and practices of different languages, classifying various features, and identifying universal patterns as well as distinctive localized phenomena (this is the province of mainstream descriptive or theoretical linguistics). General linguistics also explores how these systems vary in time and space and context of use, and tries to describe and explain their acquisition and cognitive functioning.

Moreover, Hall, Smith and Wicaksono (2011: 32) say that Sociolinguistic research explores variation, by collecting and analyzing data from different groups of users and in different situations, including bi- and multilinguals. Psycholinguistic experiments try to tap into mind-internal processes of learning, memory and use of one or more languages. General linguists use a range of methods, including speakers' intuitions, language data collected from informants, non-linguistic data which correlates with language use (e.g. brain scans or translation times) and the analysis of massive computerized samples of language expression in writing and speech (corpus linguistics).

What is the relation between linguistics and applied linguistics? When we look at the term applied linguistics literally, we simply say that applied linguistics is the application of linguistic theories. This opinion is supported by Hall, Smith and Wicaksono (2011: 32) who state that many people might think that a definition of applied linguistics would follow on quite naturally as another sub-discipline of general linguistics, presumably like applied physics follows from pure physics, where, for example, the latter can be used

in seismology and engineering for the very practical purposes of earthquake detection and damage limitation. Hence, applied physics could be defined as 'physics applied for practical use'. By analogy, then, the term 'applied linguistics' should refer to the application of general linguistics to practical use in additional language teaching, translation, speech therapy, etc. And indeed the findings, descriptions and theoretical models of general linguistics were originally so applied (almost exclusively to language learning and teaching). But that's not what a good many present-day applied linguists believe their discipline is about, or what they themselves actually do.

Actually there are many opinions about the relationship between linguistics and applied linguistics. Bearns and Matsuda (2006: 4) say that there three positions to explain their relationship. First, applied linguistics, because linguistics is part of its name, is linked to linguistics, which is sometimes referred to as the 'parent' discipline. The literal interpretation of applied linguistics as 'linguistics applied' reinforces this view. From this perspective, linguistics is the authoritative source for all that is needed to meet the aims of applied linguistics. The description of language and the concepts and terms offered by linguistic inquiry apply directly and unilaterally. The process or activity of applied linguistics is carried out by taking the known research and theory of linguistics and applying a linguistic analysis to specific contexts outside linguistics proper (e.g., language teaching, interpreting and translating, or lexicography).

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

A third view is known as the 'applied linguistics' position, so called because applied linguists are linguists engaged in application. It is distinguished from other views in its recognition that the knowledge and skills of a linguist are inadequate to the task of solving problems related to the uses and users of language. To address this inadequacy, the applied linguist calls upon the skills and knowledge of other professionals both inside and outside the academic world. Holders of this view more or less agree on what the field is, but the question of who can claim to be an applied linguist remains open.
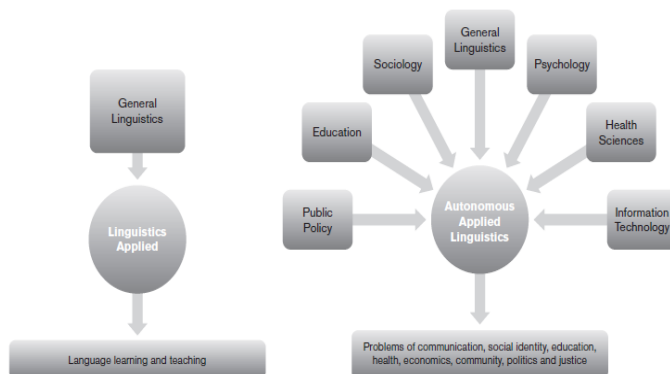
For many, applied linguistics is a sister (rather than a sub-) discipline of general linguistics. It is 'applied' in the 'applied physics' sense in that it deals with 'practical use', but it is not limited to applying the findings of general linguistics. Widdowson (2000) has called early conceptualizations of the field 'linguistics applied', placing the emphasis on (general) linguistics. For the moment, let's use the term 'autonomous applied linguistics' for the contrasting conceptualization of applied linguistics as a sister discipline to general linguistics. We should point out, though, that despite the impression given by the many pages dedicated to the relationship in applied linguistics books and journals, not all teachers and researchers in the area have been preoccupied with the field's legacy of association with general linguistics: indeed, many have no association with that field, don't see a sharp division between them and/or don't think it matters much. Brumfit (1995: 27) takes the focus of linguistics in his definition of the field as 'the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue', and we think that's a sensible move.

Autonomous applied linguistics is a discipline concerned with the role language and languages play in perceived problems of communication, social identity, education, health, economics, politics and justice, and in the development of ways to remediate or resolve these problems. Scholars in autonomous applied linguistics address an increasingly broad range of language-related issues. Here's a random sample of four topics to illustrate the scope of the subject:

- the assessment of language proficiency and consequent social processes (e.g. identity construction) in sign language learners;
- the analysis of the social, professional and economic impact of IT resources for translators;
- the study of treatment and educational options for those minority language children who also happen to have language deficits;
- the development of literacy norms for use in dictionaries as part of actions to maintain endangered languages.

Because of this broad scope, autonomous applied linguistics draws on theory, findings and method from many other scholarly fields aside from general linguistics, including education, anthropology, sociology, public policy, health sciences, information technology and others. 'Autonomous applied linguistics' thus differs from 'linguistics applied' largely in terms of

the scope of its objectives, methods and inputs. The following figure shows the differences between these two terms.

(Hall, Smith, and Wicaksono, 2011:16)

Figure 1.3: Views of the relationship between linguistics and applied linguistics

It may be that a helpful way of distinguishing between what linguistics and applied linguistics are concerned with is to distinguish between theory and data. Kaplan proposed that applied linguistics is simply not in the business of developing new theories. Its concern is with new data. Looking forward, Kaplan suggests that applied linguists "are likely to move toward the analysis of new data, rather than continue to argue new theory" (Kaplan, 2002: 514). As such, the linguistics that will be of most use to the upcoming applied linguistics will be descriptive linguistics.

Davies and Elder (2004) distinguish linguistics and applied linguistics in terms of difference of orientation. While linguistics is primarily concerned with language in itself and with language problems in so far as they provide evidence for better language description or for teaching a linguistic theory, applied linguistics is interested in language problems for what they reveal about the role of language in people's daily lives and whether intervention is either possible or desirable. What this means is that applied linguistics is as much concerned with context as with language and will therefore be likely to draw on disciplines other than linguistics, for example, anthropology, education, psychology. It also means that the language problems with which

applied linguistics concerns itself are often concerned with institutions, for example the school, the work-place, the law-court, the clinic.

What is 'Applied' about Applied Linguistics?

According to Groom and Littlemore (2011: 5), there are two contrasting types of applied subjects in higher education. The first type of applied subjects focuses very clearly on the practical applications of a single branch of academic knowledge. Applied mathematics, for example, studies how mathematical theories, concepts and processes can be used to solve practical problems in fields as diverse as engineering, computer science and economics. Similarly, applied geology investigates how academic knowledge produced in the 'pure' scientific field of geology can be exploited in practical areas such as mineral exploration, natural resource management and the construction industry.

The second type is the applied subjects that have no 'pure' or 'theoretical' equivalents, and focus instead on a single (although often very broad) practical domain (Groom and Littlemore, 2011: 6). An example of the type is civil engineering. Civil engineering focuses on problems, questions and issues related to the built environment. The second example is education. It focuses on problems, questions and issues related to teaching and learning. Everybody knows that there is no 'pure civil engineering' or 'theoretical education' against which civil engineering or education as applied subjects can be contrasted. Thus, subjects such as civil engineering and education are not branches of any single academic discipline at all, but are entirely interdisciplinary in nature. Civil engineering draws on mathematics, physics, materials science, geography, geology, ecology and business management, among many other fields, without being reducible to any one of them. Likewise, education draws on research in disciplines as diverse as psychology, sociology, philosophy, economics and politics, but still maintains its own distinct identity as an academic subject area, and its own distinctive set of goals.

Now we come the question 'what kind of applied subject is applied linguistics?' if we look at the name, we might say that applied linguistics belong to the first type of applied subject. However, applied linguistics is not the same as applied mathematics. Groom and Littlemore (2011: 6) say that although the name 'applied linguistics' suggests that it is an applied subject in the same way that applied mathematics and applied geology are applied

subjects, applied linguistics is in reality closer in spirit to the second type of applied subjects like civil engineering or education. While it is certainly true that many if not most applied linguists see the academic discipline of linguistics as their nearest neighbor and most important source of intellectual inspiration, it is also the case that many applied linguists look to other fields for relevant insights into real-world language problems as well – to biology, cultural studies, economics, education, philosophy, politics, psychology and sociology, among others. There are even applied linguists who do not draw on linguistics at all. Researchers working in 'critical' applied linguistics, for instance, base their work almost entirely on theoretical concepts and frameworks derived from postmodernist critical theory, and regard academic knowledge in linguistics as 'fairly irrelevant' to their concerns (Pennycook 2004: 801).

In summary, although applied linguistics enjoys a strong and productive working relationship with linguistics (as we hope to demonstrate throughout this book), our answer to the question 'what is the difference between linguistics and applied linguistics?' is this: applied linguistics is not a branch of linguistics, or of any other academic discipline, for that matter. It is an academic subject area in its own right, with its own set of concerns, its own academic journals, its own professional associations, its own academic qualifications, and its own professional pathways.

Applied Linguistics and Linguistics Applied.

Somewhere in the previous section we have introduce the two related terms; Applied Linguistics (AL) and Linguistics Applied (LA). In this section we are going to discuss in details these two terms. Widdowson presents the question in terms of linguistics applied and applied linguistics:

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

<div align="right">(Widdowson, 2000: 5)</div>

Davies and Elder (2004: 9) state that the "linguistics applied" view seems to derive from the coming together of two traditions, the European philological tradition which was exported to the USA through scholars such as Roman Jakobson and the North American tradition of linguistic-anthropological field-work which required the intensive use of non-literate informants and the linguistic description of indigenous languages for the purposes of cultural analysis. The social value of applications of linguistics was widely canvassed. Bloomfield (1933: 509) hoped that "The methods and results of linguistics. . . [and] the study of language may help us toward the understanding and control of human affairs." In the 1970s R. H. Robins, representing the European tradition, was eager to encourage the use of linguistic ideas and methods: "The teacher who understands and can make use of the methods of scientific linguistics will find the task of presenting a language to his pupils very much lightened and facilitated" (1971/1980: 308). Fifty years after Bloomfield, Douglas Brown (1987) was still making a similar claim: "Applied linguistics has been considered a subset of linguistics for several decades, and it has been interpreted to mean the applications of linguistics principles to certain more or less practical matters".

What of the applied-linguistics tradition? Davies and Elder (2004: 10) say that the two traditions overlap in the work of Henry Sweet. Howatt claims that "Sweet's work established an applied tradition in language teaching which has continued uninterruptedly to the present day" (Howatt, 1984: 189). Howatt also refers to the influence of J. R. Firth, holder of the first Chair of General Linguistics in the UK, who had first-hand experience of language learning and teaching in India, and who with the anthropologist Bronislaw Malinowski and their pupil Michael Halliday promoted the notion of the context of situation. No doubt because of Firth's lead, the identity of the context of situation school is still that of linguistics-applied in spite of its strong social orientation. John Trim records his view of the origin of the British Association of Applied Linguistics in an address which represents the view of the linguist looking at society's problem. Actually, the real push to a coherent conception of the activity, an applied linguistics view, came from Corder who, while insisting on the centrality of linguistics, accepted the need for other inputs. It came even more strongly from Strevens who was eclectic in what he saw as a growing discipline. His account of the founding of the British Association for Applied Linguistics emphasizes the sociological and institutional reasons for forming a new professional group.

Davies and Elder (2004: 11) see the distinction between applied linguistics and linguistics applied that Applied Linguistics (AL) looks outward, beyond language in an attempt to explain, perhaps even ameliorate social problems, while Linguistics Applied (LA) looks inward, concerned not to solve language problems "in the real world" but to explicate and test theories about language itself. So LA uses language data to develop our linguistic knowledge about language, while AL studies a language problem with a view to correcting it.

Furthermore, Davies and Elder (2004: 12) says that Applied Linguistics is a coherent activity which theorizes through speculative and empirical investigations real-world problems in which language is a central issue. They intend to offer a coherent account of applied linguistics as an independent and coherent discipline, which, like similar vocational activities (for example general medicine, business studies, applied psychology, legal studies) seeks to marry practical experience and theoretical understanding of language development and language in use.

The difference between Linguistics Applied and Applied Linguistics is sustainable only at the extremes. For example, the topics on language attrition or language description may be regarded as largely Linguistics Applied (LA), while the concerns of second language learning or of computer assisted language learning are mainly to do with Applied Linguistics (AL). But in between the distinction is hard to make. It is probably easiest for those topics in AL which deal with issues of language learning and language teaching because they have to do with the "real world," that locution we all refer to when we think of how language is used rather than how it is studied. However, even in the area of language learning and language teaching the distinction falters and changes. Thus the topics of contrastive analysis and error analysis, which were both central to applied linguistics in its concern with language learning and language teaching, have evolved into the highly theoretical concern of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) Research which is now less involved with language learning and language teaching and more concerned with linguistic and cognitive theorizing.

EXERCISE 1

1) After reading several definitions of applied linguistics you find that most of them are similar. What do you think most of them are similar?
2) State your own definition of applied linguistics!
3) Many people tend to agree with the inclusive or broad definition of applied linguistics. What are the advantages of using the broad definition?
4) McCarthy (2001) proposes a list of real problems that need to solved in the field of applied linguistics. One of them is: *A person constructing a language test for non-native speakers for entry into further education needs to know what the key linguistic or psycholinguistic indicators are of reading ability in a second or foreign language*. List at least five questions a language teacher asks to solve this problem!
5) What is the relationship between linguistics and applied linguisitcs?
6) What is the main difference between Applied Linguistics and Linguistics Applied?

SUMMARY

We have learned many difinitions of applied linguistics. These definitions actually can be classified into inclusive definition (broad definition) and exclusive definition (narrow definition). Despite the differences among the definitions provided, all definitions of applied linguistics deals with real world problems related to language. In addition to the discussion of the definitons, this unit also discusses the different relationship between linguistics and applied linguistics. Some people say that applied linguistics is a branch of linguistics because it applies linguistic theories in solving real world problems related to language, others say that it will be better to view applied linguistics as a sister rather that the sub-discipline of linguistics because the linguistics knowledge itself is not enough to solve the real problems related to language. Applied linguistics requires knowledge from other fields like education, psychology, sociology, cognitive science, and computer science. Finally, it is also important to differentiate between applied linguistics and linguistics applied.   Applied Linguistics (AL) looks outward, beyond language in an attempt to explain social problems, while Linguistics Applied (LA) looks inward, concerned not to solve

language problems "in the real world" but to explicate and test theories about language itself. So LA uses language data to develop our linguistic knowledge about language, while AL studies a language problem with a view to correcting it.

FORMATIVE TEST 1

1) Study the following definitions of applied linguistics carefully and explain the similarities and the differences among these three definitions!

'Applied linguistics' (AL) is one of several academic disciplines focusing on how language is acquired and used in the modern world. It is a somewhat eclectic field that accommodates diverse theoretical approaches, and its interdisciplinary scope includes linguistic, psychological and educational topics. Although the field's original focus was the study of foreign/second languages, this has been extended to cover first language issues, and nowadays many scholars would consider sociolinguistics and pragmatics to be part of the AL rubric. Recently, AL conferences and journals have reflected the growing influence of psychology-based approaches, which in turn is a reflection of the increasing prevalence of cognitive (neuro)science in the study of human mental functions. (Zoltán Dörnyei:Professor of Psycholinguistics, University of Nottingham)

Applied linguistics is a discipline which explores the relations between theory and practice in language with particular reference to issues of language use. It embraces contexts in which people use and learn languages and is a platform for systematically addressing problems involving the use of language and communication in real-world situations. Applied linguistics draws on a range of disciplines, including linguistics. In consequence, applied linguistics has applications in several areas of language study, including language learning and teaching, the psychology of language processing, discourse analysis, stylistics, corpus analysis, literacy studies and language planning and policies. (Dawn Knight Research Associate, University of Nottingham)

Applied linguistics is a broadly interdisciplinary field concerned with promoting our understanding of the role language plays in human life. At its centre are theoretical and empirical investigations of real-

world issues in which language plays a leading role. Applied linguistics focuses on the relationship between theory and practice, using the insights gained from the theory-practice interface for solving language-related problems in a principled way. (Juliane House: Professor of Foreign Language Teaching, Universität Hamburg)

2) De Bot (2015) classifies the definitions of applied linguistics in inclusive and exclusive definitions. The inclusive definition is the open one in line with the range of topics at the conferences of the Association Internationale de Linguistique Appliquée (AILA), avoiding any risk that someone would not feel welcome. The exclusive definitions is the restricted definitions, usually proposed by an individual based on his/her area of expertise. Find two examples of inclusive definitions and two examples of exclusive definitions and provide the reasons for choosing the examples.

3) McCarthy (2001) proposes a list of real problems that need to solved in the field of applied linguistics. One of them is: "A teacher of English as a foreign language wonders why groups of learners sharing the same first language regularly make a particular grammatical mistake that learners from other language backgrounds do not". List at least five questions a language teacher asks to solve this problem!

4) Study the following language problem carefully and then provide some questions that should be answered to solve the problem.

Many teachers of English as a second or foreign language will be familiar with errors such as the following in their students' written work:

A teacher has set an essay entitled 'Traffic in Jakarta'. A student writes the title at the top of the page:

        Traffic in Jakarta

And then begins the first paragraph of the essay:

    It is a very big problem nowadays and many cities in the world suffer from it. . . . etc.

The teacher crosses out the first *it* and puts *traffic* instead.

    Traffic

   ~~*It*~~ *is a very big problem nowadays and many cities in the world suffer from it. . . . etc.*

Another student writes:

    Jakarta is the big city. It is a problem in Jakarta and many big cities…etc

The teacher crosses out *it* and puts *traffic* instead.

        Traffic

Jakarta is the big city. ~~It~~ is a problem in Jakarta and many big

5) Why do many people view applied linguistics as a sister (rather than a sub-) discipline of general linguistics?

Feedback and Follow up

Evaluate your learning progress from your scores of the formative test by applying the following formula

$$\frac{\text{Number of correct answer}}{\text{Number of total items}} \times 100\%$$

Now decide which of the categories your scores fall into. Learn the meaning of the category and do the follow-up activities.

Category	Percentage	Meaning and Follow-up
Category 1	90% - 100%	Very good This means that you have mastered the materials. You can go on to the next unit.
Category 2	70% - 89%	Good However, you are suggested to learn once again the materials that you haven't mastered before you continue to the next unit.
Category 3	< 70%	You have not mastered the materials. Learn all the materials once again before you go on to the next unit

Remember your mastery of the next learning is based on your mastery of these materials. So, be sure that you have mastered them all before you continue to the next part.

TOPICS IN APLLIED LINGUISTICS

Introduction

In this unit we discuss in some of the most important and enduring topics and themes that applied linguistics has addressed since its inception. Our aim is not to provide comprehensive coverage here. Instead, what we want to do is give you a sense of the range, variety and vitality of the topics that applied linguistics encompasses, and introduce you to some of the issues that you may come across at some point in your own studies.

Applied linguistics has undergone a process of rapid and dramatic expansion in recent decades. Where once the subject was focused very narrowly on second language teaching and learning, it is now increasingly regarded as covering a much wider range of theoretical and practical concerns. This is not to say that applied linguistics is now moving away from foreign language teaching and learning, however. On the contrary, second language pedagogy remains by far the largest area of research activity in contemporary applied linguistics, and this is likely to remain the case for the foreseeable future. Accordingly, we will begin by looking at some of the main subfields within this key area of applied linguistic research, before moving on to survey some of the newer and less pedagogically-focused developments that have come to the fore in recent years. Our aim in this part is to provide a broad outline of the sorts of topics that applied linguists often focus on.

Davies and Elder (2004) include a wide range of topics in their book entitles The Handbook of Applied Linguistics. They classify the topics into two broad categories, Linguistics-Applied (L-A) and Applied Linguistics (A-L). Some topics that are classified into Linguistics-Applied are (a) language descriptions, (b) lexicography, (c) second language acquisition, (d) language corpora, (e) discourse analysis, (f) assessing language attitude, (g) language attrition, (h) language, thought and culture, (i) conversation analysis, (j) language and law, (k) language and gender, (l) language and politics, and (m) stylistics. Some topics that are classified in Applied-Linguistics (A-L) are (a) native speaker in applied linguistics, (b) language minorities, (c) second language learning, (d) literacy studies, (e) fashions in language teaching methodology, (f) Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), (g)

language for specific purposes, (h) bilingual education, (i) language maintenance, (j) language planning, (k) language testing, and (l) critical applied linguistics.

Schmitt and Celce-Murcia (2010: 1) state that there are 16 topic areas illustrated by the call for papers for the American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL) 2010 conference. Those topic areas include:

- Analysis of discourse and interaction
- Assessment and evaluation
- Bilingual, immersion, heritage and language minority education
- Language and ideology
- language and learner characteristics
- language and technology
- language cognition and brain research
- language, culture, socialization and pragmatics
- language maintenance and revitalization
- language planning and policy
- reading, writing and literacy
- second and foreign language pedagogy
- second language acquisition, language acquisition and attrition
- sociolinguistics
- text analysis (written discourse)
- translation and interpretation.

An applied linguistics textbook entitles Mapping Applied Linguistics: A guide for students and practitioners written by Hall, Smith and Wicaksono (2011) classify topics in applied linguistics into three parts. The first one is language and everyday use. This part includes (a) language variation, (b) key population, discourse analysis, and (c) language policy and planning. The second part is language, learning and education. This part discusses (a) literacy, (b) language and education, (c) bilingual and multilingual education, and (d) additional language education. The last part is language and expert uses. This part includes (a) translation, (b) lexicography, (c) forensic linguistics, (d) language pathology, and (e) prospects and perspectives.

Groom and Littlemore (2011) in chapter 2 of their book entitles Doing Applied Linguistics: A Guide for Students explain some of the most important topics in applied linguistics. These topics include (a) language teaching methodology, (b) syllabus and materials design, (c) language

testing, (d) language for specific purposes, (e) second language acquisition, (f) language policy and planning, (g) forensic linguistics, (h) sociolinguistics and critical discourse analysis, (i) translation studies, and (j) lexicography.

Simpson (2011) includes a wide range of topics from a variety of perspectives in her handbook entitles The Routledge Handbook of Applied Linguistics. She classifies these topics into five sections, namely (a) applied linguistics in action, (b) language learning, language education, (c) language, culture and identity, (d) perspectives on language in use, and (e) description of language for applied linguistics.

The next sections in this unit discuss some important topics in applied linguistics that are commonly discussed in applied linguistics textbooks. They are language teaching methodology, syllabus and materials design, language testing, languages for specific purposes, second language acquisition, bilingual education, language policy and planning, forensic linguistics, sociolinguistics and critical discourse analysis, translation studies, and lexicography.

Language Teaching Methodology

Language teaching methodology is one of the areas in applied linguistics that are commonly discussed and becomes one of the most important topics in applied linguistics. Nunan (1991: 1) says that overcoming the pendulum effect in language teaching is an important task of applied linguists and teachers concerned with second language teaching and foreign language teaching. This effect can be seen clearly in the area of language teaching methodology. In this area, for example, theories of grammar come and go with monotonous regularity. There is ongoing debate about the role of explicit grammar teaching in the language classroom, and this has been a fruitful area for a great deal of applied linguistic research. Although there remain a number of different positions on this question, the general consensus is that language learners do benefit from having their attention drawn to target language structures and patterns, but that the teaching of rigid 'grammar rules' can sometimes do more harm than good as they do not accurately describe the way the language actually works.

Groom and Littlemore (2011: 15) say that the relative effectiveness of different ways of teaching reading, writing, listening and speaking in a second or foreign language has become the traditional focus in the area of language teaching methodology. Research findings and theoretical

developments in this area have led to some radical changes in the way languages are taught. Up until the 1950s, the most common approach to language teaching was through the study of grammar rules, followed by exercises involving translation. Since then, there has been a general move towards the use of methods that attempt to create a more genuine need for communication in the language classroom, thus (in theory, at least) making the learning process more natural. Many of these types of methods come under the umbrella heading of the Communicative Approach to language teaching.

Language teaching methodology itself is a broad area in applied linguistics. There is a wide range of small topics in language teaching methodology. These small topics can be found in chapters or sub-chapters of textbooks on language teaching methodology. For example, Nunan (1991), in his textbook entitles Language Teaching Methodology: A Textbook for Teachers discusses the issues on teaching listening comprehension, speaking in second language, reading: a discourse perspective, developing writing skills, mastering the sounds of the language, teaching vocabulary, focus on form: the role of grammar, focus on the learner, focus on the teacher, and material development. Larsen-Freeman (2000), in her textbook entitles Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching, talks about some approaches/methods that are commonly used in language teaching. She talks in details about The Grammar-Translation Method, The direct Approach, The Audio-Lingual Method, The Silent Way, Desuggestopedia, Community Language Learning, Total Physical Response, Communicative Language Teaching, and Content-Based, Task-Based and Participatory Approaches. She also provides the answers to the following questions in each approach/method she discusses:

- What are the goals of teachers who use this method?
- What is the role of the teacher? What is the role of the students?
- What are some characteristics of the teaching/learning process?
- What is the nature of student-teacher interaction? What is the nature of student-student interaction?
- How are the feeling of the students dealt with?
- How is the language viewed? How is the culture viewed?

- What areas of language are emphasized? What language skills are emphasized?
- What is the role of students' native language?

<div align="right">(Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 7)</div>

Moreover, Richards and Rodgers (2014), in their 3rd edition of Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching, also focus their discussion on some methods in language teaching. The methods that they discuss are Audiolingual Method, Communicative Language Teaching, Content-Based Instruction and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), Whole Language, Competency Based Language Teaching, Task-Based Language Teaching, Text-Based Instruction, The Lexical Approach, Multiple Intelligences, Cooperative Language Learning, The Natural Approach, Total Physical Response, The Silent Way, Community Language Learning, and Suggestopedia. Richards and Rodgers provide detail explanation of the approach used in each method. The discussion of approach covers theory of language and theory of learning. They also discuss the design of each method by providing the explanation about the objectives of the method, the syllabus, types of learning and teaching activities, learner roles, teacher roles, and the role of instructional materials. Finally, they talk about the procedure use in each method through focusing on the way a method handles the presentation, practice, and feedback phases of teaching.

Regarding the research in language teaching methodology, much of the work in the area involves classroom research. Groom and Littlemore (2011) say that research in language teaching methodology can be classified into two broad traditions. Action research, which is usually qualitative and carried out by researchers who are also practising teachers, involves examining specific aspects of a particular teaching/learning situation in a single period of time, generally with the intent of making modifications to the teaching/learning process that (it is hoped) will lead to discernible improvements in educational outcomes. Experimental research, which is usually quantitative, often involves looking at linguistic features or teaching/learning practices that are recordable or observable, and aims to make general statements about how particular linguistic skills or abilities might best be taught.

In both of these traditions a range of instruments is used to examine and measure factors which influence language learning success, learners' attitudes and beliefs and interaction in the language classroom. An interesting

finding from this research area is that, contrary to expectations, language learners do not always learn from corrective feedback in the way one might expect them to. In other words, if a learner makes a mistake and the teacher repeats what they said using the correct form, the learner may not take this information on board immediately, and may well go on to make the same mistake in future. This is due to the fact that language teaching and learning involves much more than straightforward knowledge transfer.

In order to understand the language learning process more deeply, it is important to consider what is already in the learner's mind when they come to class. By gaining insights into the ways in which learners process incoming information, researchers aim to identify ways in which language teaching can be improved. Researchers conduct and draw on relevant research into learner autonomy, language learning styles and strategies, the role of memory and mental schemas, embodied cognition, affective factors, cultural frameworks and differences between the students' mother tongue and the language they are learning in order to make concrete proposals as to how language teachers can use their knowledge of learner cognition to make their teaching more effective.

Syllabus and Materials Design

Another important topic in applied linguistics is syllabus and materials design. Researchers into syllabus and materials design are interested in the order, and the way, in which learning material should be presented to the learner. Researchers' and teachers' views with respect to this issue usually reflect their own understanding of how languages are learned and how they are structured, and in many cases their views are shaped by the way they themselves were taught. Four widely-used syllabus types are:
- the grammatical/structural syllabus;
- the notional/functional syllabus;
- the lexical syllabus; and
- content-based instruction and the task-based syllabus.

The most popular of these four syllabus types is the grammatical/ structural syllabus, where the focus is on the ordering of grammatical structures from the simplest to the most complex. Vocabulary and grammar tend to be treated as separate phenomena and the language presented tends to

be somewhat artificial, in order to allow for the systematic introduction of grammar 'rules'.

Functional/notional syllabi are those which are ordered according to lists of functions and notions which the syllabus designer deems relevant to learners at a particular level. Functions are the 'communicative purposes' for which language is used and include things such as 'advising' or 'persuading', and notions are the contexts in which these functional communicative acts take place.

Lexical syllabi have vocabulary rather than grammar as their organizing principle, and are heavily influenced by research on computerized language corpora.

Unlike the other three syllabus types, the task-based syllabus emphasizes the successful completion, through interaction and communication between learners, of a variety of tasks which are preselected by the teacher or syllabus designer for their suitability in promoting the process of acquisition, or for their relevance to learners' needs, rather than the learning of pre-selected linguistic content. Research in this area has had an increasingly strong influence in recent years on the design of published textbooks and on the content of language teacher training programs.

Language testing

Groom and Littlemore (2011) say that like syllabus and materials design, work in the area of language testing is an important aspect of research into how languages are taught and learned. The focus is on how a learner's language ability can be assessed. A distinction is generally drawn here between achievement testing (which sets out to establish whether learners have met a set of pre-determined linguistic skills which they were specifically taught in class) and proficiency testing (which sets out to establish whether learners have reached an independent 'level' of the target language, at which they can be expected to perform in a variety of situations). In specific, based on the purposes of the test itself, Brown and Abeywickrama (2010: 9-10) classify test into achievement test, proficiency test, diagnostic test, placement test, and aptitude test.

Researchers into language testing are interested in answering questions such as: is language learning ability related to general intelligence or is it something different? Is there a subset of skills that combine to create an underlying 'gift for language learning', for which the more technical term is

language aptitude? How do different types of tests (such as dictations, gap-fill tests and oral examinations) measure different types of language ability? And to what extent are these different tests reliable indicators of language ability?

McNamara (2004: 763) says that language testing has undergone a rapid evolution in the past 50 years, mirroring the development of applied linguistics more broadly. The replacement in the immediate post-war period of traditional assessment techniques, such as the translation and the composition by "scientific" tests based on linguistics (structuralism) and psychology (behaviorism), paralleled the advent of audiolingualism within language teaching. Similarly, the introduction of communicative methods in the 1970s and 1980s was matched by a greater emphasis on performance tests within language testing, where candidates were required to display practical control of language knowledge under realtime processing conditions, and within specified contexts of use. Language testing received a great impetus from the development of specific purpose language teaching associated with the explosion of English language courses for students and professionals operating within an international context in the 1970s. Most recently, language tests are under somewhat of a challenge, as they respond to critiques of individualistic notions of performance and are increasingly being scrutinized for their social accountability, in line with the critical turn in applied linguistics generally.

The importance of language tests is a function of the social and political roles they play. Language tests have marked social relevance in the contemporary world, as they play a role in socially very significant institutional and political processes. The idea of formal tests of knowledge or ability emerged in traditional China, where they were used for the selection of individuals who would go on to be trained to be the ruling elite. Tests thus played a crucial role in constructing the fundamental character of Chinese cultural and political life over many centuries.

McNamara (2004: 763) also says that in the modern world, language tests control access to international education by students studying through the medium of a second language (especially, but not exclusively, English), they play an important role in the management of the language education of the children of immigrants, they have been used as a weapon in intergroup conflicts, they act as controls in the mobility of professionals and other workers. They are used for certification of achievement in education, and in

many countries control the transition between school and higher education. Given this social significance, language testing faces an ethical challenge: language testers need to make their language tests as fair as possible, and need to be aware of their social responsibilities in their work.

Language for Specific Purposes

Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) is generally used to refer to the teaching and research of language in relation to the communicative needs of speakers of a second language in facing a particular workplace, academic, or professional context. In such contexts language is used for a limited range of communicative events. For example, in a university context, spoken language is typically used by students in events such as participating in seminars and tutorials, presenting papers, and asking and answering questions in class. Analysis of language in such events generally reveals that language is used in constrained and fairly predictable ways. Thus, the analysis of questions in university lectures reveals the frequent use of a four-part routine (asking for clarification, interpretation check, digression, and challenge).

Groom and Littlemore (2011: 18) state that the main focus of Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) is at the features of different types of language with a view to teaching learners who are going to have to use these specific types of language in their everyday lives. The groups of people who use specific types of language for a common purpose are sometimes referred to as discourse communities, and the aim of researchers in the area of LSP is to investigate how teachers can best help students to enter these communities.

According to Basturkmen and Elder (2004) LSP courses usually focus on the specific language needs of fairly homogeneous groups of learners in regard to one particular context referred to as the target situation. For example, LSP courses may involve a group of language learners who all intend to study at university, work as engineers, or aim to work as nurses in the future. The aim of such courses is to help the learners deal with the linguistic demands of their academic, workplace, or professional target situations.

LSP courses can be "pre-experience" or "post-experience" (Robinson, 1991). The former refers to courses designed for learners aspiring to enter particular workplace, academic, or profession situations. In these cases the courses aim to teach the learners the language skills and knowledge they will need in order to gain entrance. The latter refers to courses designed for

learners already involved in the target situation. In these cases the courses aim to help the learners become better equipped linguistically to cope with the communicative demands they face in their work or study situations. Major divisions in LSP are Language for Academic Purposes, and Language for Occupational Purposes, the latter comprising Language for Professional Purposes and for Vocational Purposes (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). LSP courses can be highly specific or more general, referred to as narrow and wide angled respectively. For example, teaching Language for Academic Purposes may involve one of two options: Language for General Academic Purposes or Language for Specific Academic Purposes (Jordan, 1997; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). In the former, students from a range of disciplines are grouped together and instruction focuses on their common academic needs and skills, such as note taking skills, lecture comprehension, seminar skills, the structure of an argumentative essay, and so forth. In the latter, students are grouped according to their disciplines and instruction focuses on features of language use and the language skills critical for successful communication in them. So, for example, instruction for law students might focus on specific genres significant in legal studies, such as the legal problem answer.

A major sub-branch of LSP is English for Academic Purposes (EAP), whose main aim is to help prepare international students for study at English-speaking universities. According to Groom and Littlemore (2011: 18), researchers in this area study the types of language that are used in lectures, seminars and written papers across the range of disciplines that are offered at universities where English is the medium of instruction. They are also interested in studying how the types of language used vary across different disciplines, and across the different spoken and written genres of higher education (e.g. lectures, seminars, research articles, textbooks, argumentative essays, laboratory reports, etc.). They also investigate the effectiveness of different modes of delivery, including for example team teaching with subject lecturers. Related to this is the field of academic literacy. The focus here is more on native speakers of the language who for one reason or another may not be familiar with the linguistic conventions that are common in academic discourse. Again the focus is on describing and teaching or critiquing these conventions in order to enhance student learning levels in higher education.

Another major branch of ESP, Business English, endeavors to describe the major business genres (business correspondence, meetings, negotiations) as well as dealing with the topic of intercultural communication, which is of central importance in the business world. Work in this area feeds into the development of Business English textbooks and business training courses. ESP research also overlaps with the subfield of workplace communication. Among other things, research in this area has led to the production of training materials for healthcare professionals who work in linguistically diverse communities.

Second Language Acquisition

Researchers in the area of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) are interested in questions such as: is there a natural order of acquisition that remains constant across all language learning situations? To what extent does the acquisition of a second language resemble that of a first language? How is language organized in the mind of a person who speaks more than one language? How does exposure to the target language translate into intake and learning? Traditionally, researchers working in this area have tended to distinguish between learning, which is a conscious process that usually takes place in a classroom, and acquisition, which is a less conscious process that normally takes place outside the classroom (for example when immigrants learn the language of their destination country simply by living there). However the distinction between these two processes quickly becomes problematic as soon as we start to look at authentic language learning situations, which usually involve a combination of conscious and unconscious learning mechanisms. Indeed, recent research suggests that such simple dichotomies do not accurately reflect the process of second language acquisition at all, and that it may be better to conceptualize this process as a 'complex system', drawing on theoretical notions of complexity that are now increasingly commonplace in many other academic fields.

Within the field of Second Language Acquisition researchers who look at bilingualism (or even multilingualism) are interested in the ways in which children born into multilingual families or communities develop an ability to speak more than one language. Given that the majority of the world's population is at least bilingual, this is no small endeavor. They are interested in the ways in which the different languages interact in the brain, how bilingual people switch between their different languages in different

situations, and how bilingualism is best fostered. An interesting observation that has been made by researchers working in this area is that people who can already speak more than one language well tend to have some cognitive advantages (for instance greater cognitive flexibility) compared to people who only speak one language, and they find it much easier to learn subsequent languages.

As SLA researchers are interested in studying what goes on in the minds of people who are using and/or learning second languages, they often draw on research in the area of psycholinguistics, which explores the relationship between language and the mind. Psycholinguists look at how language is stored and accessed and at how we derive meaning from the language to which we are exposed. A sub-branch of psycholinguistics called neurolinguistics focuses on the brain itself and looks at the neurological processes underlying the use of language. Psycholinguists are also interested in language impairments and the development of language ability in children. Psycholinguistic research seeks to explain why it is that during spoken and written communication people tend to hear and read what they expected to hear and read, rather than what was actually said or written. It also seeks to explain why slips of the tongue occur and why people tend to find it much harder to learn languages as they get older.

Bilingual Education

Baker (2010: 243) says that the term bilingual education has multiple meanings, with varying positive and negative associations, and a varied history. First, bilingual education is loosely used to refer to schools attended by bilingual children (e.g., Latinos and Latvians in U.S. schools, Greek and Gujarati children in U.K. schools). However, bilingualism is not fostered in such schools. Rather, the aim is to shift the child rapidly from the home, minority language to the dominant, majority language. Second, the term refers to children who are allowed to use their home language in the classroom for only a short period (e.g., one or two years) until they switch to the majority language (called transitional bilingual education). Third, bilingual education appears a more appropriate label for schools in which students learn through two languages in the classroom. For example, there are dual language schools in the United States that teach students through Spanish for one day and the next day through English. In Europe, there are elite bilingual programs (e.g., Luxembourg, Switzerland) in which children

both learn, and learn through two or more prestigious languages (e.g., German, French, English).

Hall, Smith and Wicaksono (2011: 178) state that the purposes of bilingual and multilingual education programs are similarly diverse, ranging from development of advanced levels of proficiency and academic achievement in both target languages to the promotion of academic skills in a dominant language but not in the pupils' home language. Similarly, some programs aim to help learners develop knowledge about a particular cultural group in addition to their own, while others have as their primary orientation and mission the promotion of assimilation and acculturation of linguistically diverse learners into a mainstream or dominant culture. We note increasing interest in programs seeking to develop 'multilingual, culturally adept citizens who can prosper and contribute to our increasingly global society'

Hall, Smith and Wicaksono (2011: 178) present a three-part framework for understanding how education in multiple languages is commonly organized. They distinguish between frames that are (1) language-based, (2) content-based and (3) context based. These ways of looking at programs are not mutually exclusive, of course. To some extent, all programs must take into account the language and subject matter learning needs of their students, as well as the contextual features and constraints of the larger context in which they are based. We argue that much more can be learned about particular schools and programs by examining them from all three frames.
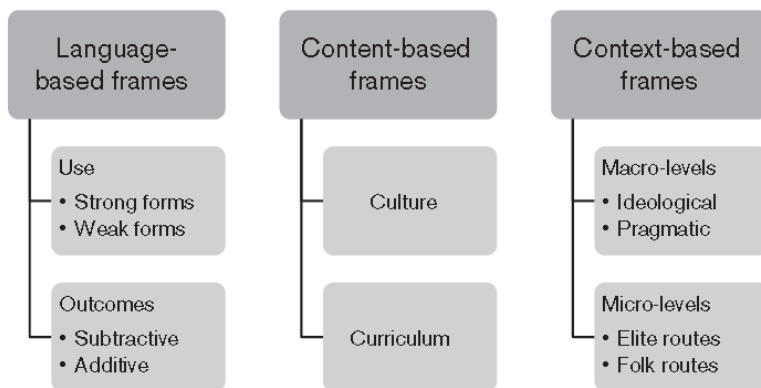

Figure 1.4: Three frameworks for understanding bilingual and multilingual education

One key way of looking at bilingual and multilingual programs is in terms of language use and language outcomes. A clear example of a focus on use is the distinction between 'strong' forms – in which two or more languages are used systematically for academic purposes, including reading and writing in subject areas such as Maths, science and history – and 'weak' forms, where the non-dominant languages are used sparingly, typically to clarify instructions or for interpersonal communication only (Baker, 2006). Despite its apparent simplicity, the strong– weak dichotomy reminds us to pay close attention to the manner in which and the extent to which bilingual and multilingual programs actually use each of the target languages. Asymmetry in the use of the dominant and non-dominant languages is problematic for many programs, and human, material and technological resources tend to be concentrated in the dominant language unless special steps are taken to address this imbalance. This is especially true for combinations that include a language of wider communication, such as English, French or Mandarin, with less prestigious or less widely spoken languages.

Language policy and planning

According to Groom and Littlemore (2011: 20) language policy and planning is a subfield of applied linguistics looks at the way language is controlled at international, national and local levels. At the international level it looks at the spread of English around the world and analyses the socioeconomic and political causes and consequences of this. At the national level it looks at the role of official languages in maintaining national identity and explores the relationship between official and minority languages. Researchers are interested in issues such as whether immigrants should be forced to speak the same language as the indigenous population, and whether schools should deliver lessons in more than one language. The fact that countries such as Canada or Switzerland are bilingual or even multilingual is in part due to language policy and planning. In other countries minority languages are more likely to be suppressed because of the language policies of the ruling party. At a more local level, the focus might be on the ways in which power relations are established and maintained within an organisation through the use of language. A key concept to emerge from this research is that of linguistic human rights. Some applied linguists have become powerful advocates of the linguistic human rights of minority language speakers in

many countries, and have been increasingly successful in raising public awareness of these issues at local, national and international levels.

Language planning is a deliberate effort to influence the function, structure, or acquisition of a language or language variety within a speech community. Language planning is often associated with government planning, but it is also used by a variety of non-governmental organizations. The goal of language planning differ depending on the nation or organization, but generally include making planning decisions and possibly changes for the benefit of communication. Planning or improving effective communication can also lead to other social changes, such as language shift or assimilation, thus providing another motivation to plan the structure, function and acquisition of language.

There are three different types of planning. The first one is status planning. Status planning is the allocation or reallocation of a language or variety to functional domain within a society, thus affecting the status, or standing, of a language. The second one is corpus planning. Corpus planning refers to the prescriptive intervention in the forms of a language, whereby planning decisions are made to engineer changes in the structure of the language. Three groups of corpus planning are graphisation, standardization, and modernization. The third one is acquisition planning. Acquisition planning is a type of language 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

Forensic linguistics

Forensic linguistic is one of the important current topics in applied linguistics. It is perhaps surprising that forensic linguistics is a relative newcomer in the area of centrality of language to life in general and the law in particular when we compare to fingerprint identification and shoeprint analysis. In general, forensic linguistics is defined as the application of linguistics to legal questions and issues. However, the word application is not necessarily being used in the same sense as in the phrases applied mathematics or applied statistics. It is the application of linguistic knowledge to a particular social setting, namely the legal forum (Olsson, 2008: 3). So, the forensic linguists apply linguistic knowledge and techniques to the language implicated in legal case or proceeding, or privilate disputes between parties which may at a later stage result in legal action.

Groom and Littlemore (2011: 21) state that forensic linguistics studies the relationship between language and the law. Forensic linguists look at how language is used in the legal process, focusing on the discourse of the police, lawyers, judges and legal documents, and courtroom interaction. Under its narrower definition, forensic linguistics refers to the examination of linguistic evidence in court. It is used in cases of disputed authorship of written texts (such as police statements) and where there are issues of plagiarism. Forensic linguists provide information that helps jurors decide whether a particular person is likely to have been the author of a particular text. They also study cases where inaccurate translations of statements made by nonnative speakers have led to miscarriages of justice, and are therefore able to advise on the treatment of people (such as children, non-native speakers or people with learning difficulties) who may have difficulties with – and thus potentially be disadvantaged by – the language of the legal system.

The major areas of study, according to Gibbons and Turell (2008: 1), covers the written language of the law, particularly the language of legislation, spoken legal discourse, particularly the language of court proceeding and police questioning, the social justice issues that emerge from the written and spoken language of the law, the provision of linguistic evidence, which can be divided into evidence on identity/authorship, and evidence on communication, the teaching and learning of spoken and written legal language, and legal translation and interpretation.

Sociolinguistics and critical discourse analysis

Sociolinguistics looks at the relationship between language and society. The focus is on variation in the way people use language as well as on language change. Researchers in this area are interested in how people use language to create and maintain social structures and hierarchies. They also look at the role of language in creating and maintaining a person's identity. The language one speaks, the accent one has, the ways in which people change their accent (or even their language) when speaking to different people in different social situations all come under the microscope of the sociolinguist.

One of the key findings to emerge from research in sociolinguistics is that variables such as accent, dialect and gender are intimately bound up with social inequalities and injustices of various kinds. For example, sociolinguists have shown that speakers who have certain regional accents are less likely to

be successful at job interviews than are speakers of more prestigious dialectal variants. Similarly, research on gender and language has shown how girls and boys are socialized from a very early age into talking in ways that are deemed 'correct' for their gender identity, and sanctioned in various ways if they transgress these implicit linguistic boundaries. Taking such observations as its starting point, critical discourse analysis (CDA) has developed into a distinct branch of applied linguistic research that adopts an explicitly political stance towards the analysis of the relationship between language and society. For practitioners of CDA, it is not enough simply to describe or diagnose the linguistic determinants of social inequality; rather, the CDA agenda is one that aims to ameliorate social inequality and promote social justice. This is usually done by combining linguistic analysis with theoretical insights drawn from sociology and cultural studies in order to identify and critique the ideologies that, it is argued, lie behind individual texts. Much of the focus in CDA since its inception has been on the mass media; researchers working in this area have sought to uncover the underlying rhetorical objectives and ideological positions reflected in news coverage of public events, thereby showing how powerful groups in society attempt to manipulate public opinion. More recent work has broadened this perspective somewhat, to include analyses of everyday language that – often unwittingly – promotes discrimination against minority groups in society.

Translation studies

The term 'translation' has several meanings. First, it may refer to the general field introducing in linguistics department. Second, it may refer to the product, that is the text that has been translated. Third, it may refer to the process, that is the act of producing the translation, also known as translating. The process of translation between two different written languages involves the translator changing an original written text, known as source text, in the original verbal language, known as source language, into a written text, the target text, in a different verbal language, known as target language.

Translation studies is an academic research area that has expanded explosively in recent years. Translation was formerly studied as a language-learning methodology or as a part of comparative literature, translation 'workshops' and contrastive linguistics course. Today the name and the nature of translation studies proposed both a name and a structure for the

field. Translation study is the discipline that concerns itself with the theory and practice of translation (Hatim, 2013: 3).

Researchers in translation studies study the choices that people make when translating from one language to another. There is often a trade-off between achieving loyalty to the original text and achieving naturalness in the target language, and translators will make choices depending on the target audience of the translated document, as well as for their own personal or ideological reasons (Groom and Littlemore, 2011: 22). For example, in an English text, a writer might refer to someone as their 'right hand man'. If this expression does not exist in the language that the text is being translated into, the translator may find an alternative corresponding expression, or they may try to retain authenticity by translating it directly, or if they have strong feminist sentiments, they may opt to change the wording to 'person'. Translation studies researchers look at these types of choices in an attempt to access the thought processes that take place in the mind of the translator while he or she is translating.

Translation studies scholars are also interested in studying the impact that translations or collections of translations have had in the sociocultural situation of the languages involved. They attempt to use existing theories of translation to predict what the process of translation is likely to involve for particular pairs of languages and types of text. This work has applications in translator training, the preparation of translation aids, such as dictionaries, grammars, term banks and in recent years, automatic translators, the establishment of translation policy (which involves giving advice on the role of the translator in a given socio-cultural context, deciding on the economic position of the translator, deciding which texts need to be translated, or deciding what role translation should play in the teaching of foreign languages), and translation criticism, which concerns itself with the development of criteria for the evaluation of the quality or effectiveness of the translation product.

Lexicography

Another specialist field that enjoys a 'semi-autonomous' relationship with applied linguistics is lexicography. Lexicography is the practice of compiling dictionaries, and lexicographers are the specialist authors who carry out the process of dictionary compilation. In applied linguistics, however, the field of lexicography is also understood as including

investigations of the decisions that lexicographers make when compiling dictionaries, and on the look-up strategies that dictionary users deploy when consulting them. Recent debates in this field have focused on the relative merits of traditional and full-sentence definition styles, and on how the different senses of polysemous words (i.e. words with multiple meanings) should be ordered in learners' dictionaries. For example, some lexicographers argue that the word 'back' should be presented as an adverb (as in go back, lean back, or back home) before it is presented as a noun describing a part of the human body, on the grounds that the adverbial usage is much more frequent in native speaker usage. Other lexicographers argue for the opposite policy, on the grounds that the literal meaning expressed by the noun is the basic or 'prototypical' meaning from which all the non-literal adverbial meanings of 'back' are derived.

Kirkness (2004) says that lexicography is almost as old as writing. From its beginnings several thousand years ago it has served primarily the real-life needs of written communication between members of human communities using different languages or different varieties of one language. Those needs change just as all living languages constantly change. In many literate societies lexicography has a centuries-old tradition with word lists and word books in scripts based on hieroglyphs, logograms, or letters and in media from clay tablets to the computer. Since print culture replaced scribal culture some five centuries ago and ushered in the modern period in European lexicography, the printed book has predominated. Worldwide, no book on a language or on languages has been and is more widely used in education systems and in communities at large than the dictionary. It has long been and still is an essential source, if not indeed the principal source, of information on language for all members of literate societies who might have questions on any aspect of the form, meaning, and/or use of a word or words in their own or in another language.

Lexicographers can be regarded as descriptive linguists in that they empirically analyze and describe (a) language with a traditional emphasis on individual items of vocabulary. However, they do not require linguistic knowledge alone, but according to the particular dictionary project may draw on other non-linguistic disciplines including information technology, publishing, history, and the natural and social sciences amongst others. Nor is their description of (a) language primarily an end in itself. Its aim is not primarily to advance linguistic theory, however much theoretical linguists

may and do draw on lexicography for their own purposes and however much lexicographers might seek to apply relevant findings of theoretical linguistics in their work. Rather it is in principle a means to an end, namely to make knowledge about (a) language available to various sectors of the wider public and to mediate between different kinds of language knowledge and different kinds of user needs. This aim is clearly reflected in the vast range of different dictionary types designed to respond to the different needs and interests of different user groups.

EXERCISE 2

1) Davies and Elder (2004) classify a wide range of topics into two broad categories, namely the topics that belong to linguistics applied and the topics that belong to applied linguistics. Mentions some topics that belong to linguistics applied and the topics that belong to applied linguistics. Provide your reasons for this classification.

2) Language teaching methodology is one of the areas in applied linguistics that are commonly discussed and becomes one of the most important topics in applied linguistics. How is the theory of grammar treated language teaching methodology?

3) Find as mush as information about audiolingual method. Then answer the following questions!
   – What are the goals of teachers who use this method?
   – What is the role of the teacher? What is the role of the students?
   – What are some characteristics of the teaching/learning process?
   – What is the nature of student-teacher interaction? What is the nature of student-student interaction?
   – What areas of language are emphasized? What language skills are emphasized?
   – What is the role of students' native language?

4) What are the main differences between grammatical syllabus and functional syllabus?

5) Explain the types of language test based on the purposes of conducting the test!

6) What is language for specific purposes?

7) What is the difference between English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes?

8) Provide your explanation about a three-part framework for understanding how education in multiple languages is commonly organized!
9) What do you know about the different types of planning?
10) What is sociolinguistics?

SUMMARY

We have learned in this unit some most important topics in applied linguistics. The first topic is language teaching methodology, which deals with different ways of teaching language, especially second or foreign language. The second topic, syllabus and materials design, deals with the way in which learning materials should be presented to the learners. The topic on language testing talks about types of assessment used in measuring a learner's language ability. Language for specific purposes is about teaching and research of language in relation to the communicative needs of speakers of a second language in facing a particular workplace, academic, or professional context. The topic of second language acquisition talks about how a second language is acquired and to what extent does the acquisition of a secod language resemble that of the first language. Finally, some other topics that are also discussed in brief are bilingual education, language policy and planning, forensic linguistics, sociolinguistics and critical discourse analysis, translation studies, and lexicography.

FORMATIVE TEST 2

1) Schmitt and Celce-Murcia (2010) mention 16 topic areas illustrated by the call for papers for the American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL) 2010 conference. Those topic areas include:
    –   Analysis of discourse and interaction
    –   Assessment and evaluation
    –   Bilingual, immersion, heritage and language minority education
    –   Language and ideology
    –   language and learner characteristics
    –   language and technology
    –   language cognition and brain research

–   language, culture, socialization and pragmatics
–   language maintenance and revitalization
–   language planning and policy
–   reading, writing and literacy
–   second and foreign language pedagogy
–   second language acquisition, language acquisition and attrition
–   sociolinguistics
–   text analysis (written discourse)
–   translation and interpretation.

Classify these topics in the ones that belong to linguistics applied and the one that belong to applied linguistics.

2) Find as much as information about total physical response. Then answer the following questions!

–   What are the goals of teachers who use this method?
–   What is the role of the teacher? What is the role of the students?
–   What is the nature of student-teacher interaction? What is the nature of student-student interaction?
–   How are the feeling of the students dealt with?
–   How is the language viewed? How is the culture viewed?
–   What areas of language are emphasized? What language skills are emphasized?
–   What is the role of students' native language?

3) What are the main differences between grammatical syllabus and task based syllabus?
4) Explain some characteristics of a good test!
5) What is the main focus of language for specific purposes?
6) What is bilingual education?
7) What is language planning?
8) What is forensic linguistics?
9) What do you know about translation and translation studies?

Feedback and Follow up

Evaluate your learning progress from your scores of the formative test by applying the following formula

$$\frac{\text{Number of correct answer}}{\text{Number of total items}} \times 100\%$$

Now decide which of the categories your scores fall into. Learn the meaning of the category and do the follow-up activities.

Category	Percentage	Meaning and Follow-up
Category 1	90% - 100%	Very good This means that you have mastered the materials. You can go on to the next unit.
Category 2	70% - 89%	Good However, you are suggested to learn once again the materials that you haven't mastered before you continue to the next unit.
Category 3	< 70%	You have not mastered the materials. Learn all the materials once again before you go on to the next unit

Remember your mastery of the next learning is based on your mastery of these materials. So, be sure that you have mastered them all before you continue to the next part.

THE IMPACT OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Introduction

In unit 2 we have discussed the kinds of topics that applied linguists are interested in. In this unit we go into more depth, describing in detail a number of real-world studies where applied linguistic research has had an impact on the wider world. We start by looking at work in applied linguistics that has influenced both the ways in which languages are taught and the types of language that learners are exposed to. From this, we then broaden our approach to look at how research in applied linguistics has led to a better understanding of different types of discourse, outlining a number of studies whose findings have helped people to engage with or become members of particular social and cultural groups. Finally we turn to a particularly important area to which linguistics has been applied: the legal system. We discuss cases where the work of linguists has helped send the guilty to prison as well as prove innocence. We close this learning activity by examining the important contribution that applied linguistics has made to cross-cultural understanding, and discuss studies whose findings have had particular relevance for people involved in international business communication.

Applied linguistics and Second Language Teaching

Work in applied linguistics has had a significant impact on the way in which second and foreign languages are taught. Work in language teaching has followed two interrelated strands. The first looks at how language should be taught, the focus here being on how language is best presented to learners and what kinds of activities are most conducive to language learning. In this case, we find several approaches and methods used by the teachers in teaching language, especially in teaching second or foreign language. We recognize grammatical translation method as one of the oldest language teaching methods, direct method, and audiolingual method. We also recognize some alternative approaches and methods in the twentieth century. They are the natural approach, total physical response, the silent way, community language learning, and suggestopedia. Some current approaches

and method in language teaching are communicative language teaching (CLT), content based instruction and content and language integrated teaching (CLIL), whole language, competency based language teaching, task based language teaching, text based instruction, the lexical approach, multiple intelligences, and cooperative language teaching. Further explanation on these types of approaches and methods can be found in Module 4.

The second focuses more on what kind of language should be taught. Recent studies have revealed that spoken language has its own grammar which differs in places from the grammar of the written language (Carter and McCarthy 2006). Traditionally the grammar components of language classes have tended to focus on written grammar, but the advent of spoken corpora has revealed patterns in spoken language that could usefully be taught to language learners. We begin, however, by looking at how applied linguistic research has affected the ways in which languages are taught.

The impact of applied linguistic research on the teaching of languages has been substantial. Its main manifestation has been in the form of an increased focus on communication and meaning, which has led to more communicative approaches to language teaching. The key tenets of communicative approaches to language learning and teaching are that learning a language is about learning to communicate, and that learning can actually take place through communication. In other words:

- Learners learn a language through using it to communicate
- Authentic and meaningful communication is the goal of classroom activities
- Fluency is an important part of communication
- Communication involves the integration of different language skills
- Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error

(Richards and Rodgers 2014: 105)

For some people, the beginning of communicative language teaching is marked by a functional theory of language that focuses on language as means of communication. The goal of language teaching is to develop what Hymes (1972) referred to as "communicative competence" as opposed to Chomsky's theory of competence. In Hymes's view, a person who acquires

communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to:

1. whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible
2. whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available
3. whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated
4. whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails

(Hymes, 1972: 281)

According to Groom and Littlemore (2011: 31), the beginning of the communicative movement is marked by H.G. Widdowson's Teaching Language as Communication (published in 1978), and by Brumfit and Johnson's (1979) book The Communicative Approach to Language Learning, which argued that language learning should not just be about learning grammar rules and vocabulary, but should focus on teaching learners how to use the language that they have learned to express themselves effectively, and to understand how linguistic meanings relate to the social and situational contexts in which they occur. That language teaching up until this point was not in any way 'communicative' in this sense is of course an overstatement, but it is fair to say that this period marked the beginning of a systematic examination of what it means to 'communicate' in a foreign language, and of what language learners need to learn if they are to 'communicate' effectively.

Communicative approaches to language teaching thus differ from previous approaches to language learning in that they are competency based. That is to say, they tend to focus on the outcomes of learning. They look at what learners might be expected to do with the language, and use these to inform the ways in which the language is taught. Ultimately, then, the goal of communicative language teaching is to foster 'the ability not only to apply the grammatical rules of a language in order to form grammatically correct sentences but also to know when and where to use these sentences and to whom' (Richards et al. 1992: 65).

Communicative competence itself consists of several competencies that should be acquired by language learners. Various suggestions have been made as to how this can be done. Canale and Swain (1980) propose four

types of competencies that should be included in communicative competence. They are grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Hedge (2000) divides communicative competence into five components: linguistic competence; pragmatic competence; discourse competence; strategic competence; and fluency. According to Celce-Murcia et.al. (1995), the components of communicative competence are linguistic competence, socio-cultural competence, actional competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Discourse competence is the center of communicative competence, while strategic competence functions as ways to achieve other competencies. The following figure describes the interrelation among the five competencies.
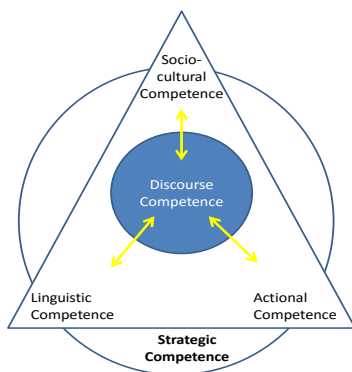

Figure 1.5: The model of communicative competence based on Celce-Murcia et.al (1995)

Furthermore, Celce-Murcia (2007) revises the model of communicative competence that Celce-Murcia et.al. (1995) propose. She adds one more component into the diagram. The new component is the formulaic competence. The following figure shows the revised model of communicative competence proposed by Celce-Murcia.
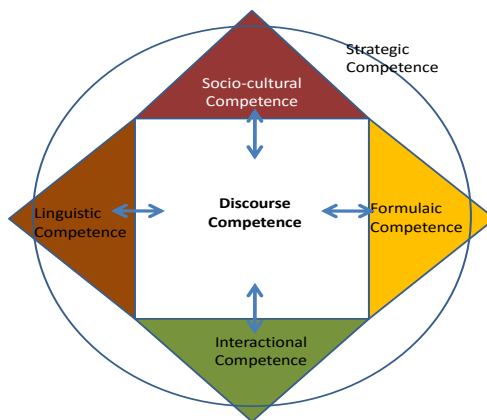
Figure 1.6: The model of communicative competence based on Celce-Murcia
(2007)

The first element of communicative competence is sociocultural competence. This most recent model maintains the top-down role of sociocultural competence. Sociocultural competence refers to the speaker's pragmatic knowledge, i.e. how to express messages appropriately within the overall social and cultural context of communication. This includes knowledge of language variation with reference to sociocultural norms of the target language. In fact a social or cultural blunder can be far more serious than a linguistic error when one is engaged in oral communication. The pedagogical challenge lies in the fact that second and foreign language teachers typically have far greater awareness and knowledge of linguistic rules than they do of the sociocultural behaviors and expectations that accompany use of the target language. Even when good cultural descriptions are available, it is hard to get learners to change their native verbal behavior based on a new set of assumptions.

Celce-Murcia et al. (1995: 23–24) describe several sociocultural variables, three of which are most crucial in terms of the current model.

–   social contextual factors: the participants' age, gender, status, social distance and their relations to each other re: power and affect.
–   stylistic appropriateness: politeness strategies, a sense of genres and registers.

–   cultural factors: background knowledge of the target language group, major dialects/regional differences, and cross cultural awareness.

The above competencies can be acquired in part through some knowledge of the life and traditions as well as knowledge of the history and literature of the target language community. An extended living experience among members of the target language group is probably the best experience for language acquisition if the learner has an adequate basic preparation in both linguistic and sociocultural competence coupled with good powers of observation.

The second component is linguistic competence. Groom and Littlemore (2011: 31) say that linguistic competence refers to one's knowledge of the language itself, and includes knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax and phonology, as well as knowledge about how the different parts of a text fit together and are generally organized. It is important to remember that linguistic competence is indeed a component of communicative competence, and that it is incorrect to say that communicative language teaching is all about 'communication', and that it therefore does not involve grammar teaching. In fact the teaching of grammar should be an important component of communicative approaches to language teaching.

Linguistic competence includes four types of knowledge:
–   phonological: includes both segmentals (vowels, consonants, syllable types) and suprasegmentals (prominence/stress, intonation, and rhythm).
–   lexical: knowledge of both content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives) and unction words (pronouns, determiners, prepositions, verbal auxiliaries, etc.).
–   morphological: parts of speech, grammatical inflections, productive derivational processes.
–   syntactic: constituent/phrase structure, word order (both canonical and marked), basic sentence types, modification, coordination, subordination, embedding.

The third component is formulaic competent. Formulaic competence is the counterbalance to linguistic competence. Linguistic competence entails the recursive, open-ended systems listed above. Formulaic competence refers to those fixed and prefabricated chunks of language that speakers use heavily

in everyday interactions. It had been largely ignored prior to seminal work by Pawley and Syder (1983), Pawley (1992), and Nattinger and DeCarrico (l992), whose work brought this domain to general attention.

- routines: fixed phrases like of course, all of a sudden and formulaic chunks like How do you do? I'm fine, thanks; how are you?
- collocations: verb-object: spend money, play the piano, adverb-adjective: statistically significant, mutually intelligible adjective-noun: tall building, legible handwriting
- idioms: e.g., to kick the bucket = to die; to get the ax = to be fired/terminated
- lexical frames: e.g., I'm looking for _____ . See you (later/tomorrow/ next week, etc)

Formulaic competence has grown in importance; it is now acknowledged that fluent speakers of a language draw on formulaic knowledge of the target language as often as they use systematic linguistic knowledge (Hunston, 2002). Much language pedagogy has yet to catch up with this fact.

The fourth component is interactional competence. The bottom-up counterpart to the more global top-down socio-cultural competence is the hands-on component of interactional competence. Interactional competence has at least three sub-components relevant to the current model:

- Actional competence: knowledge of how to perform common speech acts and speech act sets in the target language involving interactions such as information exchanges, interpersonal exchanges, expression of opinions and feelings, problems (complaining, blaming, regretting, apologizing, etc.), future scenarios (hopes, goals, promises, predictions, etc.)
- Conversational competence: inherent to the turn-taking system in conversation described by Sachs et al. (l974) but may be extendable to other dialogic genres:
    - how to open and close conversations
    - how to establish and change topics
    - how to get, hold, and relinquish the floor
    - how to interrupt
    - how to collaborate and backchannel, etc.

- Non-verbal/paralinguistic competence includes:
    – kinesics (body language), non-verbal turn-taking signals, backchannel behaviors, gestures, affect markers, eye contact.
    – proxemics (use of space by interlocutors)
    – haptic behavior (touching)
    – non-linguistic utterances with interactional import (e.g. ahhh! Uh-oh. Huh?) the role of silence and pauses

The central component of communicative competence is discourse competence. Discourse competence refers to those abilities that are required to create and understand coherent written and spoken discourse (Groom and Littlemore, 2011: 32). It is perhaps most useful to think of these rules in terms of cohesion (i.e. lexical and grammatical links) and coherence (i.e. appropriate combination of groups of utterances in terms of their communicative function). Both cohesion and coherence refer to the ways in which words and ideas are linked in a text. Discourse competence applies not only to references to other parts of the text but also to things outside the text. There is also a need to understand ellipsis (the omission of grammatically non-essential words, phrases and clauses) and to grasp a speaker's intentions when very little information is actually provided in the exact words used by the speaker.

The last component is strategic competence. Strategic competence, according to Canale and Swain (1980: 30), 'is made up of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence'. So if for example, you don't know the word 'chess board' you might say something like: 'It's a game. There is a square. It's got black and white squares, and small figures move around on it'. Canale and Swain divide communication strategies into two types: those that compensate for lack of knowledge of grammatical forms, and those that compensate for lack of sociolinguistic knowledge.

So what effects has this focus on communicative competence had on the way languages are actually taught? In language teaching circles there has been much debate about how communicative language teaching methodologies can best be implemented in the language classroom. This has led to an increased popularity of teaching methods such as task-based learning. This involves the use of tasks where the focus is primarily on

meaning, and work on form follows. There are different ways of defining a 'task' but one of the most comprehensive definitions is that proposed by Nunan (2004: 4):

a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and an end.

Many textbooks, particularly those published in the area of English language teaching, now have a predominantly communicative focus, and elements of task-based learning can be found in a wide variety of course books and language teaching syllabi worldwide. However, this is not to say that the change has been universal. There are many places where, for very good local reasons, communicative approaches to language teaching have not been adopted. What applied linguistics has done is to raise the issue of communicative competence and define it in a way that is useful to language educators. Whether or not they act on this information remains a matter of choice, such as in Australia where systemic functional linguistics has been heavily influential on government policy for the teaching of English to immigrants. This approach places a strong emphasis on the analysis of form-function relationships, and thus priorities what Hedge would call pragmatic competence.

How exactly do applied linguists go about making the sorts of discoveries that have been mentioned in this section? Although 'communicative language ability' and 'communicative competence' began life as theoretical constructs there has since been a great deal of work investigating the nature of the competences that need to be acquired in different contexts, and on the most effective ways of fostering these competencies in language learners. Other work has involved empirical studies designed to investigate the relative effectiveness of different language teaching approaches that focus on different degrees and aspects of communicative competence. This has involved a mixture of different types of research including quantitative approaches, where the outcomes of different language teaching techniques are compared in terms of the impact they have on the language learned by the students, and more qualitative approaches,

involving classroom observation and interviews, which have attempted to ascertain, for example, how the different language teaching approaches affect classroom dynamics and student motivation.

Applied Linguistics and Discourse Analysis

Strongly related to the language description work we have just seen is the area of applied linguistic research that investigates the features of different types of discourse. Groups of people who use specific types of language for a common purpose are sometimes referred to as discourse communities, and the language spoken by these discourse communities often has its own unique features. In order to fully understand these communities, or to become a member oneself, it is useful to be aware of the characteristics of the particular language features used when producing or participating in genres that are typical of those communities.

The important position that discourse analysis occupies in applied linguistics has come about because it enables applied linguists to analyse and understand real language data, for example, texts written by first and second language learners, or recordings of the spoken output of second language learners, or of the interaction between teachers and learners or among learners themselves in classrooms. It also enables us to understand better the kinds of discourse that language learners are exposed to outside the classroom: the language of service encounters in shops, banks, restaurants, etc., the language of newspapers, the language of everyday informal conversation. In addition, such analyses can assist language teachers and materials writers to evaluate language course books in terms of how closely they approximate authentic language, or what needs to be modified when authentic texts are brought into the classroom. Language testing can also gain a great deal from looking at real language use as a source of criteria for the evaluation of test performances.

Discourse analysis is the analysis of language in its social context. Discourse analysts are just as interested in the analysis of spoken discourse as they are in the analysis of written discourse. When the focus in linguistics was primarily on written language and restricted to the study of isolated sentences, spoken language was seen as formless and ungrammatical and written language as highly structured and organized. Beattie (1983) wrote: 'Spontaneous speech is unlike written text. It contains many mistakes,

sentences are unusually brief and indeed the whole fabric of verbal expression is riddled with hesitations and silences' (Beattie, 1983: 33).

However, research on the analysis of spoken discourse (Halliday, 1985; Eggins and Slade, 1997; McCarthy, 1998) shows that spoken English does have a consistent and describable structure and that in many respects the language patterning is the same as written English. Halliday (1985: 77) provides an explanation for the myth of the 'formlessness' of spoken language, arguing that it derives from the analysis of written transcriptions of conversation, with all their pauses, repetitions and false starts. He contends that an author's first draft, with its crossings-out and re-writings, would look just as ramshackle. Beneath its surface 'imperfections' (which are an essential part of its dynamic flexibility) spoken language exhibits a highly elaborate organization, and is grammatically intricate, though in a way which is quite different from the language which we read and write.

One way of approaching differences between speaking and writing is to plot individual texts along scales or dimensions. The following figure maps different kinds of spoken and written texts along such a scale. At one end of the scale, we have the most informal, concrete, interactions and, at the other, the most formal and abstract interactions.
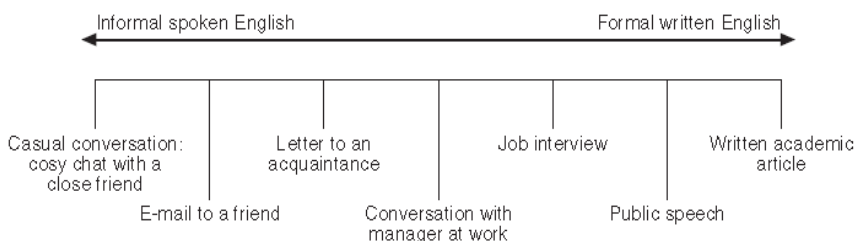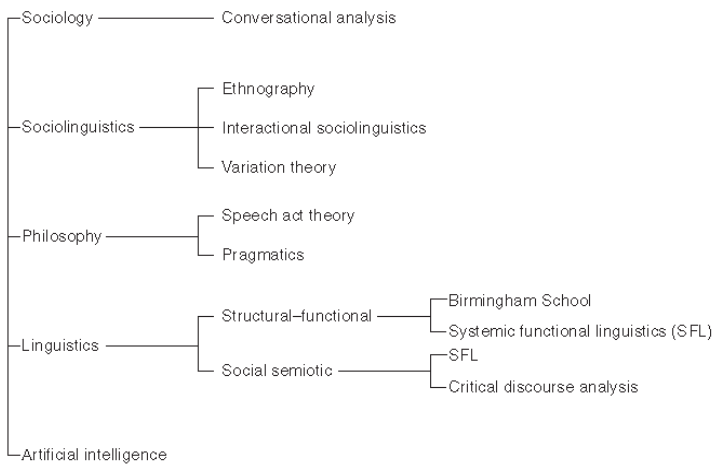

Figure 1.7: The cline between spoken discourse and written discourse

Language teachers will be aware that most traditional grammars derive from analysis of written texts. However, recently there has been the development of grammars that deal with both spoken and written English (Halliday, 1994; Biber et al., 1999; Carter, Hughes and McCarthy, 2001). Discourse analysis, provides valuable insights into the way we pattern and organize our speech. In every way possible, learners should be alerted to the

special qualities of spoken language and encouraged to accord equal 'validity' to both spoken and written formulations of language.

There are different approaches in analyzing discourse. They come from a number of different academic disciplines and the field is vast. We will not, therefore, attempt to provide a comprehensive review of approaches to discourse analysis, as this has been done elsewhere (see Levinson (1983), McCarthy (1991), Schiffrin (1994), Coulthard (1985), Eggins and Slade (1997)) but will, rather, focus on those approaches that have the greatest relevance to applied linguistics and language education. The different approaches that have developed since the mid-twentieth century may be classified according to different criteria. The most prominent, according to disciplinary origins, are shown in the following Figure.

```
─Sociology ──────────── Conversational analysis

                        ┌─ Ethnography
─Sociolinguistics ──────┼─ Interactional sociolinguistics
                        └─ Variation theory

                        ┌─ Speech act theory
─Philosophy ────────────┤
                        └─ Pragmatics

                                              ┌─Birmingham School
                        ┌─ Structural–functional ──┤
                        │                     └─Systemic functional linguistics (SFL)
─Linguistics ───────────┤                     ┌─SFL
                        └─ Social semiotic ───┤
                                              └─Critical discourse analysis

─Artificial intelligence
```

(Cited from Eggins and Slade, 1997)

Figure 1.8: Different approaches in discourse analysis

The major contribution to the study of spoken discourse has come from sociology, in particular from conversational analysis. Within sociolinguistic approaches those relevant to the analysis of spoken discourse are the ethnography of speaking; interactional linguistics, research on narrative within variation theory. From philosophy, speech act theory and pragmatics have shed light on how people interpret particular utterances. Within linguistics, the Birmingham School and systemic functional linguistics (SFL)

have both made significant contributions to an understanding of spoken and written discourse in English. Recently, perspectives have emerged from interdisciplinary connections between linguistics and critical and cultural theory, including critical linguistics and critical discourse analysis (CDA).

Conversation analysis is concerned with the detailed organization of everyday interaction; thus, it contrasts with much of the work in mainstream sociology which focuses on large-scale categories of class, gender, age groups and so on. It is concerned mainly with dialogic, spoken discourse of a fairly informal character. Conversation analysis was stimulated by Garfinkel's ethnomethodology and Goffman's frame analysis, and was developed into a distinctive field of enquiry by Sacks, Schegloff, Jefferson and others. Conversation analysis focuses on conversation because it offers a particularly appropriate and accessible resource for sociological enquiry. It favors fine-grain analyses, often of quite short stretches of conversation. Key questions for conversation analysts are:

• How do people take turns in conversation?
• How do people open and close conversations?
• How do people launch new topics, close old ones, shift topic, etc.?
• How is it that conversation generally progresses satisfactorily from one utterance to the next?

Ethnographic approaches to conversation have been led by Hymes and are concerned with 'the situation and uses, the patterns and functions, of speaking as an activity in its own right. Hymes developed a schema for analyzing context that has the 'speech event' in which language occurs as its prime unit of analysis:

The speech event is to the analysis of verbal interaction what the sentence is to grammar ... It represents an extension in the size of the basic analytical unit from the single utterance to stretches of utterances, as well as a shift in focus from ... text to ... interaction.
(Hymes, 1972: 17)

Speech events include interactions such as a conversation at a party or ordering a meal, etc. Any speech event comprises several components and these are listed in the grid in the following table. With each letter acting as an abbreviation for a different component of communication, Hymes's grid has become known as the 'SPEAKING grid'.

Table 1.1: Hymes's SPEAKING grid (Hymes, 1972)

S	Setting	scene temporal and physical circumstances subjective definition of an occasion
P	Participant	speaker/sender/addressor hearer/receiver/audience/ addressee
E	Ends	ends purposes and goals outcomes
A	Act	sequence message form and content
K	Key	tone, manner
I	Instrumentalities	channel (verbal and non-verbal; physical forms of speech drawn from community repertoires)
N	Norms	norms of interaction and interpretation specific properties attached to speaking interpretations of norms within cultural belief system
G	Genre	textual categories

S   Setting scene temporal and physical circumstances subjective definition
    of an occasion
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    addressee
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    attached to speaking interpretations of norms within cultural belief
    system
G   Genre textual categories

The SPEAKING grid provides a necessary reminder of the contextual
dimensions that determine our use of language. Hymes's ethnographic
framework led not only to broader notions of the 'communicative
competence' language users display but also to a recognition of the close
relationship between speech events and their social or cultural contexts.

Discourse analysts also investigate how language is used, either consciously or subconsciously, to convey ideology. Findings from this research, which is sometimes referred to as Critical Discourse Analysis, have direct applications in the political arena. One of the most widely used models of Critical Discourse Analysis is proposed by Fairclough (2003). This model combines a focus on the internal properties of texts (i.e. the uses that they make of grammar, semantics, lexis and phonology) with a focus on their external properties (i.e. the relations that they have with more general social practices). Critical discourse analysts are interested in what speech functions are prominent in the texts, how people and ideas are represented, and what kind of stance or attitude is conveyed. Drawing on this information, they attempt to identify what the writer is trying to do with the text, and how he or she is using the text to represent the world. Fairclough's model assumes that no discourse can be completely neutral, and that a speaker's or writer's language choices convey particular ideologies, even at very microscopic levels.

Applied Linguistics and Forensic Linguistics

For lots of people, the word forensic will evoke images of white-coated scientists conducting lab tests on guns to see if they've recently been fired or dusting for fingerprints at the scene of a murder – the stuff of TV shows like CSI or Waking the Dead . Although in the USA the term forensics is normally associated with criminal investigation, it is used more broadly in the UK to refer to any activity or process related to the law enforcement and justice systems. In this sense, forensic linguists are those who study or interpret language use in the legal process, from crime scene to courtroom, either in the pursuit of justice or for general or applied linguistic scholarship.

Forensic linguistics is a booming sub-field of applied linguistics, with international professional organizations, journals, research centres and conferences (see Coulthard and Johnson, 2007: 5–7). From its roots in English language scholarship in the 1960s, it is now fast becoming a truly global area of scholarship and professional practice. According to a list from 2007 (Blackwell, 2008), the subject is taught at over forty institutions in more than fifteen countries, from Hong Kong to Kenya, Malaysia to Malta, Israel to Australia. In some it may be a single course on legal language in a law program; in others it may be a complete master's degree. In the couple of

years since that list was compiled, new courses have opened in the Czech Republic, Singapore and beyond.

Legal language, or 'jargon' as it is sometimes called, can be extremely difficult for the lay person to understand. This can lead to communication difficulties that have disastrous consequences for those involved. Linguists working in this area are interested in helping people to understand this jargon so that they do not 'trip up' linguistically and end up in prison. In a related field of study, which is sometimes referred to as forensic linguistics, researchers use linguistic tools to identify, for example, the likely authorship of blackmail notes, suicide notes and disputed plagiarism cases. Their evidence is sometimes used in court to establish whether or not it is likely that a person accused of writing for instance a blackmail letter did in fact write the letter, on the basis of linguistic comparisons made with other pieces of writing that they have produced (Eagleson 1994). These comparisons are based not just on the handwriting itself (if indeed the letter has been handwritten) but also on the writer's typical choices of vocabulary, collocation and phraseological patterning. It is worth noting at this point that authorship attribution is also well established in historical literary studies.

A well-known case of forensic linguistic intervention, cited by Olsson (2009), involves an investigation into the disappearance of a teenage girl from her home in Yorkshire. Since her disappearance her parents had been receiving texts from her mobile phone, but the police suspected that they may have been sent by her abductor in order to create the impression that she had left home voluntarily. A forensic linguist who was involved with the case observed that these texts were substantially longer than those that had been sent by the girl before she disappeared, and there were also significant differences in style. For example, whereas the girl tended to leave few spaces in her texts, using phrases like 'ave2go' to mean 'have to go', the texts that her parents had been receiving contained gaps between words, as in: 'ave 2 go'. The texts also contained abbreviations such as 'didn't' and 'aint' which the girl herself tended not to use. They also featured words such as 'mite' instead of 'might', and 'of' instead of 'off'. The identification of these small linguistic differences eventually led to the arrest of the girl's boyfriend. They were found to be features of his texting style rather than hers; he subsequently confessed to having faked the texts and was eventually jailed for her abduction and murder.

Sometimes forensic linguists have used linguistic data to show that evidence has been fabricated by the police. They have been able to demonstrate this by pointing out cases where the police have used words and expressions that the suspect would never themselves have used. For example, evidence provided by the eminent forensic linguist Malcolm Coulthard (1994) was instrumental in securing the release of the 'Birmingham Six'; a group of innocent men who had been wrongfully imprisoned for planting a terrorist bomb in the centre of the second largest city in the UK. Coulthard was able to establish that the so-called 'confessions' used to secure the convictions of these men had been fabricated by the police by pointing out a number of features of the language in the confessions that are characteristic of written rather than spoken discourse, and that would never have been used by these men.

EXERCISE 3

1) There are two interrelated strands of work in language teaching, how language shoould be taught and what kind of language should be taught. What are the focuses of the first strand?
2) What is Widdowson and Brumfit's view of language learning?
3) What is the main difference between the model of communicative competence proposed by Celce-Murcia et. al (1995) and the model of communicative competence proposed by Cecle-Murcia (2007)?
4) What is the main difference between linguistic competence and formulaic competence?
5) One approach that is commonly used in analyzing discourse, especially spoken discourse, is ethnography of speaking proposed by Hymes. Provide your explanation about this approach.

SUMMARY

In this chapter we have looked at just a few of the ways in which applied linguistic research has had a real impact in different walks of life beyond the realms of academia. As we have seen, this desire to engage with – and be accountable to – the wider public is one of the hallmarks of applied linguistics as a field of study, and is one of the main reasons

why applied linguistics is such a dynamic and exciting field to be involved in. This is not to say that applied linguistics is a purely practical endeavor, however. On the contrary, applied linguistics remains an academic subject first and foremost, and in the next module we will take a closer look at what studying applied linguistics at university level actually involves.

FORMATIVE TEST 3

1) There are two interrelated strands of work in language teaching, how language should be taught and what kind of language should be taught. What are the focuses of the second strand?
2) What is Richards' view of communicative language teaching?
3) Explain some variables included in sociocultural competence!
4) Why is discourse competence important in applied linguistics?
5) What do you understand about forensic linguistics

Feedback and Follow up

Evaluate your learning progress from your scores of the formative test by applying the following formula

$$\frac{\text{Number of correct answer}}{\text{Number of total items}} \times 100\%$$

Now decide which of the categories your scores fall into. Learn the meaning of the category and do the follow-up activities.

Category	Percentage	Meaning and Follow-up
Category 1	90% - 100%	Very good This means that you have mastered the materials. You can go on to the next unit.
Category 2	70% - 89%	Good However, you are suggested to learn once again the materials that you haven't mastered before you continue to the next

		unit.
Category 3	< 70%	You have not mastered the materials. Learn all the materials once again before you go on to the next unit

Remember your mastery of the next learning is based on your mastery of these materials. So, be sure that you have mastered them all before you continue to the next part.

Answer Key

Exercise 1:

1) After reading several definitions of applied linguistics you find that most of them are similar. Why do you think most of them are similar?

   Answer:

   Becuase most of the difinitions of applied linguistics deal with the interdisciplinary field that covers or involves not only linguistics but also other fields like sociology, psychology, anthropology, communication, education, politics, law, computer science, and many other field. Almost all definitons of applied linguistics deals with the real or practical problems involving language.

2) State your own definition of applied linguistics!

   Answer:

   The answer will vary, but the definition proposed should include at the keywords such as application, interdisciplinary field, real or practical problem involving language.

3) Many people tend to agree with the inclusive or broad definition of applied linguistics. What are the advantages of using the broad defintion?

   Answer:

   There are two advantages of using broad definition. First, it makes applied linguistics different from other branches of linguistics by focusing its orientation towards language-related problems, and it implies that the work in applied linguistics can have some impact upon those problems, potentially influencing how decisions are made about them. Second, it is also general enough to encompass the many disparate activities and areas of enquiry that call themselves applied linguistics.

4) What is the relationship between linguistics and applied linguisitcs?

   Answer:

   Looking at the term applied linguistics literally, many people say that applied linguistics is the application of linguistic theories. This opinion is supported by Hall, Smith and Wicaksono (2011: 32) who state that many

people might think that a definition of applied linguistics would follow on quite naturally as another sub-discipline of general linguistics, presumably like applied physics follows from pure physics. Applied physics could be defined as 'physics applied for practical use'. By analogy, then, the term 'applied linguistics' should refer to the application of general linguistics to practical use in additional language teaching, translation, speech therapy, etc.

Another opinion says that there three positions to explain their relationship. First, applied linguistics, because linguistics is part of its name, is linked to linguistics, which is sometimes referred to as the 'parent' discipline. The literal interpretation of applied linguistics as 'linguistics applied' reinforces this view. From this perspective, linguistics is the authoritative source for all that is needed to meet the aims of applied linguistics. The second view is known as 'autonomous applied linguistics.' Autonomous applied linguistics sees applied linguistics as at least semiautonomous, if not completely autonomous, from linguistics or any source discipline and allows that anyone can be an applied linguist. While acknowledging that linguistics may be part of applied linguistics, practitioners do not rely exclusively on linguistics. A third view is known as the 'applied linguistics' position, so called because applied linguists are linguists engaged in application. It is distinguished from other views in its recognition that the knowledge and skills of a linguist are inadequate to the task of solving problems related to the uses and users of language. To address this inadequacy, the applied linguist calls upon the skills and knowledge of other professionals both inside and outside the academic world.

5) What is the main difference between Applied Linguistics and Linguistics Applied?
Answer:
Following the opinion from Davies and Elder, we can say that Applied Linguistics (AL) looks outward, beyond language in an attempt to explain, perhaps even ameliorate social problems, while Linguistics Applied (LA) looks inward, concerned not to solve language problems "in the real world" but to explicate and test theories about language itself. So LA uses language data to develop our linguistic knowledge about language, while AL studies a language problem with a view to

correcting it. Applied Linguistics is a coherent activity which theorizes through speculative and empirical investigations real-world problems in which language is a central issue. They intend to offer a coherent account of applied linguistics as an independent and coherent discipline, which seeks to marry practical experience and theoretical understanding of language development and language in use.

Exercise 2:

1) Davies and Elder (2004) classify aa wide range of topics into two broad categories, namely the topics that belong to linguistics applied and the topics that belong to applied linguistics. Mentions some topics that belong to linguistics applied and the topics that belong to applied linguistics. Provide your reasons for this classification.

   Answer:

   Some topics that are classified into Linguistics-Applied are language descriptions, lexicography, second language acquisition, language corpora, discourse analysis, assessing language attitude, language attrition, language, thought and culture, conversation analysis, language and law, language and gender, language and politics, and stylistics.

   Some topics that are classified into applied linguistics are native speaker in applied linguistics, language minorities, second language learning, literacy studies, fashions in language teaching methodology, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), language for specific purposes, bilingual education, language maintenance, language planning, language testing, and critical applied linguistics.

   The classification is based on the extent of the use of linguistics in solving problems related to each topic. If the involvement of the linguistic theories is greater, then we classify the topic into linguistics applied. On the other hand, the involvement of the other fields, such as education, sosiology, computer science, is greater, we classify the topic into applied linguistics.

2) Language teaching methodology is one of the areas in applied linguistics that are commonly discussed and becomes one of the most important topics in applied linguistics. How is the theory of grammar treated language teaching methodology?

   Answer:

Theories of grammar come and go with monotonous regularity. There is ongoing debate about the role of explicit grammar teaching in the language classroom, and this has been a fruitful area for a great deal of applied linguistic research. Although there remain a number of different positions on this question, the general consensus is that language learners do benefit from having their attention drawn to target language structures and patterns, but that the teaching of rigid 'grammar rules' can sometimes do more harm than good as they do not accurately describe the way the language actually works.

3) Find as mush as information about audiolinual method. Then answer the following questions!
   - What are the goals of teachers who use this method?
     The teacher wants his/her students to be able to use the target language communicatively so that they need to overlearn the target language, to learn it automatically without stopping to think. The student achieve this by forming new habits in the target language.
   - What is the role of the teacher? What is the role of the students?
     The teacher is like an orchestra leader, directing and controlling the language behavior of the students and responsible for providing the students with a good model for imitation. Students are imitators of teacher's model. They follow the teacher's directions and respond as accurately and as rapidly as possible.
   - What are some characteristics of the teaching/learning process?
     New vocabulary and structural pattern are presented through dialog and the dialogs are learned through imitation and repetition. Drills are conducted based on the patterns present in the dialog. Grammar is induced from the examples given and explicit grammar rules are not provided.
   - What is the nature of student-teacher interaction? What is the nature of student-student interaction?
   - There is student-to-student interaction in chain drills or when students take different role in dialogs but this interaction is teacher-directed and most of the interaction between teacher and students is initiated by the teacher.
   - What is the role of students' native language?

The target language is used in the classroom. Not the students' native language because the habits of the native language interfere with the students' attempts to master the target language.

4) What are the main differences between grammatical syllabus and functional syllabus?
Answer:
The grammatical syllabus focuses on the ordering of grammatical structures from the simplest to the most complex. Vocabulary and grammar tend to be treated as separate phenomena and the language presented tends to be somewhat artificial, in order to allow for the systematic introduction of grammar 'rules'.
Functional syllabus is the syllabus that is ordered according to lists of functions and notions which the syllabus designer deems relevant to learners at a particular level. Functions are the 'communicative purposes' for which language is used and include things such as 'advising' or 'persuading', and notions are the contexts in which these functional communicative acts take place.

5) Explain the types of language test based on the purposes of conducting the test!
Answer:
- Achievement test is the test used to measure students' progress on a certain type of learning process.
- Proficiency test is the test used to measure someone's performance regardless of any training or learning process he/she has followed.
- Placement test is the test used to position the students in the appropriate level of language training.
- Diagnostic test is the test used to find the strengths and weaknesses of the students.

6) What is language for specific purposes?
Answer:
Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) is generally used to refer to the teaching and research of language in relation to the communicative needs of speakers of a second language in facing a particular workplace, academic, or professional context. In such contexts language is used for

a limited range of communicative events. For example, in a university context, spoken language is typically used by students in events such as participating in seminars and tutorials, presenting papers, and asking and answering questions in class. Analysis of language in such events generally reveals that language is used in constrained and fairly predictable ways.

7) What is the difference between English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes?
Answer:
A major sub-branch of LSP is English for Academic Purposes (EAP), whose main aim is to help prepare international students for study at English-speaking universities. According to Groom and Littlemore (2011: 18), researchers in this area study the types of language that are used in lectures, seminars and written papers across the range of disciplines that are offered at universities where English is the medium of instruction. They are also interested in studying how the types of language used vary across different disciplines, and across the different spoken and written genres of higher education (e.g. lectures, seminars, research articles, textbooks, argumentative essays, laboratory reports, etc.). They also investigate the effectiveness of different modes of delivery, including for example team teaching with subject lecturers. Related to this is the field of academic literacy. The focus here is more on native speakers of the language who for one reason or another may not be familiar with the linguistic conventions that are common in academic discourse. Again the focus is on describing and teaching or critiquing these conventions in order to enhance student learning levels in higher education.

8) Provide your explanation about a three-part framework for understanding how education in multiple languages is commonly organized!
Answer:
The three-part framework consists of (1) language-based, (2) content-based and (3) context based. These ways of looking at programs are not mutually exclusive, of course. To some extent, all programs must take into account the language and subject matter learning needs of their

students, as well as the contextual features and constraints of the larger context in which they are based. We argue that much more can be learned about particular schools and programs by examining them from all three frames.

9) What do you know about the different types of planning?

   Answer:

   There are three different types of planning. The first one is status planning. Status planning is the allocation or reallocation of a language or variety to functional domain within a society, thus affecting the status, or standing, of a language. The second one is corpus planning. Corpus planning refers to the prescriptive intervention in the forms of a language, whereby planning decisions are made to engineer changes in the structure of the language. Three groups of corpus planning are graphisation, standardization, and modernization. The third one is acquisition planning. Acquisition planning is a type of language 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

10) What is sociolinguistics?

    Answer:

    Sociolinguistics studies the relationship between language and society. The focus is on variation in the way people use language as well as on language change. Researchers in this area are interested in how people use language to create and maintain social structures and hierarchies. They also look at the role of language in creating and maintaining a person's identity.

Exercise 3:

1) There are two interrelated strands of work in language teaching, how language should be taught and what kind of language should be taught. What are the focuses of the first strand?

   Answer:

   The focus of the first strand is on how language is best presented to learners and what kinds of activities are most conducive to language learning. In this case, we find several approaches and methods used by

the teachers in teaching language, especially in teaching second or foreign language. We recognize grammatical translation method as one of the oldest language teaching methods, direct method, and audiolingual method. We also recognize some alternative approaches and methods in the twentieth century. They are the natural approach, total physical response, the silent way, community language learning, and suggestopedia. Some current approaches and method in language teaching are communicative language teaching (CLT), content based instruction and content and language integrated teaching (CLIL), whole language, competency based language teaching, task based language teaching, text based instruction, the lexical approach, multiple inteligences, and cooperative language teaching.

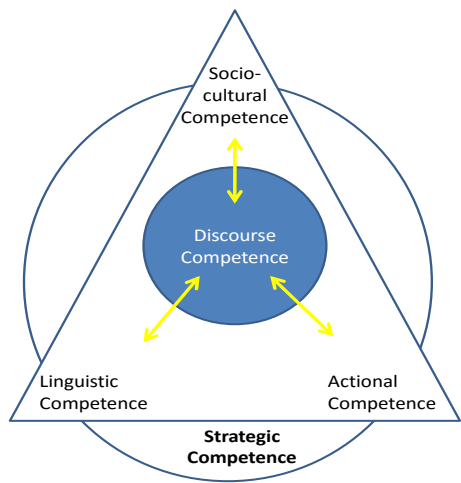2) What is Widdowson and Brumfit's view of language learning?
    Answer:
    Language learning should not just be about learning grammar rules and vocabulary, but should focus on teaching learners how to use the language that they have learned to express themselves effectively, and to understand how linguistic meanings relate to the social and situational contexts in which they occur.
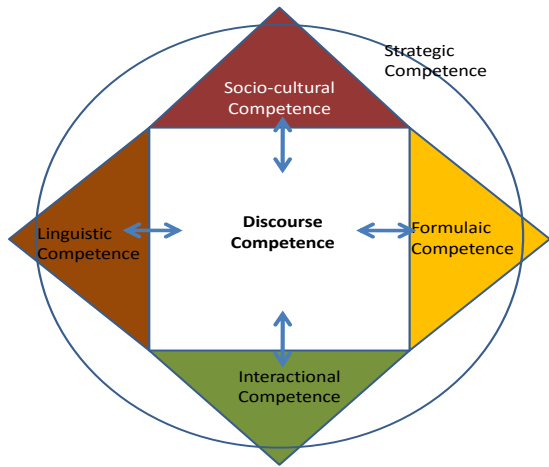
3) What is the main difference between the model of communicative competence proposed by Celce-Murcia et. al (1995) and the model of communicative competence proposed by Cecle-Murcia (2007)?
    Answer:
    Celce-Murcia et.al. (1995) say that the components of communicative competence are linguistic competence, socio-cultural competence, actional competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Discourse competence is the center of communicative competence, while strategic competences function as ways to achieve other competencies. The following figure describes the interrelation among the five competencies.

Celce-Murcia (2007) revises the model of communicative competence that Celce-Murcia et.al. (1995) propose. She adds one more component into the diagram. The new component is the formulaic competence. The following figure shows the revised model of communicative competence proposed by Celce-Murcia.

4) What is the main difference between linguistic competence and formulaic competence?

Answer:

Linguistic competence refers to one's knowledge of the language itself, and includes knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax and phonology, as well as knowledge about how the different parts of a text fit together and are generally organised. Linguistic competence includes four types of knowledge:

– phonological: includes both segmentals (vowels, consonants, syllable types) and suprasegmentals (prominence/stress, intonation, and rhythm).

– lexical: knowledge of both content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives) and unction words (pronouns, determiners, prepositions, verbal auxiliaries, etc.).

– morphological: parts of speech, grammatical inflections, productive derivational processes.

– syntactic: constituent/phrase structure, word order (both canonical and marked), basic sentence types, modification, coordination, subordination, embedding.

Formulaic competence is the counterbalance to linguistic competence. Linguistic competence entails the recursive, open-ended systems listed above. Formulaic competence refers to those fixed and prefabricated chunks of language that speakers use heavily in everyday interactions. Formulaic competence inncludes:

• routines: fixed phrases like of course, all of a sudden and formulaic chunks like How do you do? I'm fine, thanks; how are you?

• collocations: verb-object: spend money, play the piano, adverb-adjective: statistically significant, mutually intelligible; adjective-noun: tall building, legible handwriting

• idioms: e.g., to kick the bucket = to die; to get the ax = to be fired/terminated

• lexical frames: e.g., I'm looking for _____. See you (later/tomorrow/ next week, etc)

5) One approach tht is commonly used in analyzing discourse, especially spoken discourse, is ethnography of speaking proposed pby Hymes. Provide your explanation about this approach.

Answer

Ethnographic approaches to conversation are concerned with 'the situation and uses, the patterns and functions, of speaking as an activity in its own right. Hymes developed a schema for analysing context that has the 'speech event' in which language occurs as its prime unit of analysis. Speech events include interactions such as a conversation at a party or ordering a meal, etc. Any speech event comprises several components and these are listed in the grid in the following table. With each letter acting as an abbreviation for a different component of communication, Hymes's grid has become known as the 'SPEAKING grid'.

S   Setting scene temporal and physical circumstances subjective definition of an occasion

P   Participant   speaker/sender/addressor   hearer/receiver/audience/ addressee

E   Ends ends purposes and goals outcomes

A   Act sequence message form and content

K   Key tone, manner

I   Instrumentalities channel (verbal and non-verbal; physical forms of speech drawn from community repertoires)

N   Norms   norms of interaction and interpretation specific properties attached to speaking interpretations of norms within cultural belief system

G   Genre   textual categories

Key to Formative Tests

Formative Test 1:

1) Study the following definitions of applied linguistics carefully and explain the similarities and the differences among these three definitions! 'Applied linguistics' (AL) is one of several academic disciplines focusing on how language is acquired and used in the modern world. It is a somewhat eclectic field that accommodates diverse theoretical approaches, and its interdisciplinary scope includes linguistic, psychological and educational topics. Although the field's original focus

was the study of foreign/second languages, this has been extended to cover first language issues, and nowadays many scholars would consider sociolinguistics and pragmatics to be part of the AL rubric. Recently, AL conferences and journals have reflected the growing influence of psychology-based approaches, which in turn is a reflection of the increasing prevalence of cognitive (neuro)science in the study of human mental functions. (Zoltán Dörnyei:Professor of Psycholinguistics, University of Nottingham)

Applied linguistics is a discipline which explores the relations between theory and practice in language with particular reference to issues of language use. It embraces contexts in which people use and learn languages and is a platform for systematically addressing problems involving the use of language and communication in real-world situations. Applied linguistics draws on a range of disciplines, including linguistics. In consequence, applied linguistics has applications in several areas of language study, including language learning and teaching, the psychology of language processing, discourse analysis, stylistics, corpus analysis, literacy studies and language planning and policies. (Dawn Knight Research Associate, University of Nottingham)
Applied linguistics is a broadly interdisciplinary field concerned with promoting our understanding of the role language plays in human life. At its centre are theoretical and empirical investigations of real-world issues in which language plays a leading role. Applied linguistics focuses on the relationship between theory and practice, using the insights gained from the theory-practice interface for solving language-related problems in a principled way. (Juliane House: Professor of Foreign Language Teaching, Universität Hamburg)

2) De Bot (2015) classifies the definitions of applied linguistics in inclusive and exclusive definitions. The inclusive definition is the open one in line with the range of topics at the conferences of the Association Internationale de Linguistique Appliquée (AILA), avoiding any risk that someone would not feel welcome. The exclusive definition is the restricted definitions, usually proposed by an individual based on his/her area of expertise. Find two examples of inclusive definitions and two

examples of exclussive definitons and provide the reasons for choosing the examples.

Answer:
The definition provided by the International Association for Applied Linguistics (AILA) is an example of the inclusive definitions.
Applied linguistics is 'an interdisciplinary field of research and practice dealing with practical problems of language and communication that can be identified, analyzed or solved by applying available theories, methods or results of Linguistics or by developing new theoretical and methodological frameworks in linguistics to work on these problems.

The definition proposed by AILA is classified inclusive because it covers many different areas like child language acquisition, language and communication disorders, multilingualism, language testing, communication in the workplace, and so on.

The second example of the inclusive definition is the definitions proposed by Davies and Elder (2004):
Applied linguistics is often said to be concerned with solving or at least ameliorating social problems involving language. The problems applied linguistics concerns itself with are likely to be: How can we teach languages better? How can we improve the training of translators and interpreters? How can we write a valid language examination? How can we evaluate a school bilingual program? How can we determine the literacy levels of a whole population? How can we helpfully discuss the language of a text? What advice can we offer a Ministry of Education on a proposal to introduce a new medium of instruction? How can we compare the acquisition of a European and an Asian language? What advice should we give a defense lawyer on the authenticity of a police transcript of an interview with a suspect?
    (Davies & Elder, 2004: 1)

The definition proposed by Davies and Elder is also classified as the inclusive definition because it is broad and covers many different areas like language teaching, translation and interpretation, language

assessment, bilingualism, literacy, language planning and policy, language acquisition, language and law, etc.

The first example of exclusive definition is the definition proposed by Corder (1973):
"Applied linguistics is the utilization of the knowledge about the nature of language achieved by linguistic research for the improvement of the efficiency of some practical tasks in which language is a central component".

The definition is considered exclusive because this definition limits its scope on the use of knowledge about language in solving practical problems related to language.

The second example of exclusive definition is the one proposed by Schmitt and Celce-Murcia:
'Applied Linguistics is using what we know about (a) language, (b) how it is learned, and (c) how it is used, in order to achieve some purpose or solve some problem in the real world'

This definition is considered exclusive because the primary concerns of Applied Linguistics have been second language acquisition theory, second language pedagogy and the interface between the two.

3) McCarthy (2001) proposes a list of real problems that need to solved in the field of applied linguistics. One of them is: A teacher of English as a foreign language wonders why groups of learners sharing the same first language regularly make a particular grammatical mistake that learners from other language backgrounds do not. List at least five questions a language teacher asks to solve this problem!

4) Study the following language problem carefully and then provide some questions that should be answered to solve the problem.

Many teachers of English as a second or foreign language will be familiar with errors such as the following in their students' written work: A teacher has set an essay entitled 'Traffic in Jakarta'. A student writes the title at the top of the page:

Traffic in Jakarta

And then begins the first paragraph of the essay:

It is a very big problem nowadays and many cities in the world suffer from it. . . . etc.

The teacher crosses out the first *it* and puts *traffic* instead.

Traffic

I̶t̶ is a very big problem nowadays and many cities in the world suffer from it. . . . etc.

Another student writes:

Jakarta is the big city. It is a problem in Jakarta and many big cities…etc

The teacher crosses out *it* and puts *traffic* instead.

Traffic

Jakarta is the big city. I̶t̶ is a problem in Jakarta and many big cities…etc

5) Why do many people view applied linguistics as a sister (rather than a sub-) discipline of general linguistics?

Answer:

Because they view applied linguistics as a discipline concerned with the role language and languages play in perceived problems of communication, social identity, education, health, economics, politics and justice, and in the development of ways to remediate or resolve these problems. Scholars in this view address an increasingly broad range of language-related issues. They draw on theory, findings and method from many other scholarly fields aside from general linguistics, including education, anthropology, sociology, public policy, health sciences, information technology and others. Thus they differ largely in terms of the scope of objectives, methods and inputs.

6) What is the main focus of applied linguistics in Australia?
   Answer:
   Following McNamara's opinion, we can say that Australian applied
   linguistics took as its target the applied linguistics of modern languages
   and the languages of immigrants, rather than of English, especially the
   considerable work in the applications of linguistics to the development
   of teaching materials and writing systems for aboriginal languages.
   English in general came on the applied linguistics rather late, and it was
   in the context of mother tongue teaching and of the teaching of English
   to immigrants (ESL) rather than as a foreign language (EFL). What has
   been distinctive about applied linguistics in Australia has been its
   concern for language in education, both with regard to new migrant
   languages (and linking with language maintenance) and with regard to
   literacy in English.

Formative Test 2:
1) Schmitt and Celce-Murcia (2010) mention 16 topic areas illustrated by
   the call for papers for the American Association of Applied Linguistics
   (AAAL) 2010 conference. Those topic areas include:
   - Analysis of discourse and interaction
   - Assessment and evaluation
   - Bilingual, immersion, heritage and language minority education
   - Language and ideology
   - language and learner characteristics
   - language and technology
   - language cognition and brain research
   - language, culture, socialization and pragmatics
   - language maintenance and revitalization
   - language planning and policy
   - reading, writing and literacy
   - second and foreign language pedagogy
   - second language acquisition, language acquisition and attrition
   - sociolinguistics
   - text analysis (written discourse)
   - translation and interpretation.

Classify these topics in the ones that belong to linguistics applied and the one that belong to applied linguistics.

Answer:

There may be many possible classification. The classification depends on the degree of the involvement of linguistic theories in each of the topics. One of the classifications are as follow:

Linguistics applied:

-   Analysis of discourse and interaction
-   Language and ideology
-   language and learner characteristics
-   language and technology
-   language, culture, socialization and pragmatics
-   language planning and policy
-   second language acquisition, language acquisition and attrition
-   text analysis (written discourse)

Applied linguistics:

-   Assessment and evaluation
-   Bilingual, immersion, heritage and language minority education
-   language cognition and brain research
-   language maintenance and revitalization
-   reading, writing and literacy
-   second and foreign language pedagogy
-   sociolinguistics
-   translation and interpretation.

2) Find as mush as information about total physical response. Then answer the following questions!

    -   What are the goals of teachers who use this method?

        Teachers using TPR believe in the importance of having their students enjoy their experience in learning to communicate in a foreign language.

    -   What is the role of the teacher? What is the role of the students?

        The teacher is the director of all students behavior. The students are imitators of teacher's nonverbal model.

    -   What is the nature of student-teacher interaction? What is the nature of student-student interaction?

The teacher interacts with the whole group and with individual students. Initially the teacher speaks and students respond it through action, then students become more verbal and the teacher responds nonverbally

- How are the feeling of the students dealt with?

  TPR is develop to reduce stress and anxiety when studying foreign language. So learners are allow to speak when they are ready and forcing them to speak will create anxiety. One way to relieve anxiety is to create learning as enjoyable as possible.

- How is the language viewed? How is the culture viewed?

  Oral language is the primary one and culture is the life style of peple who speak the language natively

- What areas of language are emphasized? What language skills are emphasized?

  Vocabulary and grammatical structure are emphasized. Understanding spoken language is emphasized over written language.

- What is the role of students' native language?

  TPR is usually introduced in the student's native language. After the introduction the native language is rarely used because meanig is made clear through body movement.

3) What are the main differences between grammatical syllabus and task based syllabus?

   Answer:

   The grammatical syllabus focuses on the ordering of grammatical structures from the simplest to the most complex. Vocabulary and grammar tend to be treated as separate phenomena and the language presented tends to be somewhat artificial, in order to allow for the systematic introduction of grammar 'rules'.

   The task-based syllabus emphasizes the successful completion, through interaction and communication between learners, of a variety of tasks which are preselected by the teacher or syllabus designer for their suitability in promoting the process of acquisition, or for their relevance to learners' needs, rather than the learning of pre-selected linguistic content.

4) Explain some characteristics of a good test!

   Answer:

   The first characteristic of a good test is validity. The is is called valid when is measures what it supposes to measure. The second characteristic is reliability. The test is reliable when it measures consistently. The third characteristic is practicality. The test is called practical when it is easy to administer, does not spend a lot of budget, and is easy to score.

5) What is the main focus of language for specific purposes?

   Answer:

   The main focus of Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) is at the features of different types of language with a view to teaching learners who are going to have to use these specific types of language in their everyday lives. The groups of people who use specific types of language for a common purpose are sometimes referred to as discourse communities, and the aim of researchers in the area of LSP is to investigate how teachers can best help students to enter these communities.

   LSP courses usually focus on the specific language needs of fairly homogeneous groups of learners in regard to one particular context referred to as the target situation. For example, LSP courses may involve a group of language learners who all intend to study at university, work as engineers, or aim to work as nurses in the future. The aim of such courses is to help the learners deal with the linguistic demands of their academic, workplace, or professional target situations.

6) What is bilingual education?

   Answer:

   Bilingual education has multiple meanings. First, bilingual education is loosely used to refer to schools attended by bilingual children, such as Greek and Gujarati children in U.K. schools. Bilingualism is not fostered in this school because the aim is to shift the child rapidly from the home, minority language to the dominant, majority language. Second, the term refers to children who are allowed to use their home language in the classroom for only a short period (e.g., one or two years) until they switch to the majority language (called transitional bilingual education). Third, bilingual education appears a more appropriate label for schools

in which students learn through two languages in the classroom. For example, there are dual language schools in the United States that teach students through Spanish for one day and the next day through English.

7) What is language planning?
   Answer:
   Language planning is a deliberate effort to influence the function, structure, or acquisition of a language or language variety within a speech community. It is often associated with government planning, but it is also used by a variety of non-governmental organizations. The goal of language planning differs depending on the nation or organization, but generally includes making planning decisions and possibly changes for the benefit of communication. Planning or improving effective communication can also lead to other social changes, such as language shift or assimilation.

8) What is forensic linguistics?
   Answer:
   Forensic linguistics broadly deals with the relationship between language and the law. It looks at how language is used in the legal process, focusing on the discourse of the police, lawyers, judges and legal documents, and courtroom interaction. Under its narrower definition, forensic linguistics refers to the examination of linguistic evidence in court. It is used in cases of disputed authorship of written texts (such as police statements) and where there are issues of plagiarism. Forensic linguists provide information that helps jurors decide whether a particular person is likely to have been the author of a particular text. They also study cases where inaccurate translations of statements made by nonnative speakers have led to miscarriages of justice, and are therefore able to advise on the treatment of people who may have difficulties with the language of the legal system.

9) What do you know about translation and translation studies?
   Answer:
   Translation has several meanings. First, it may refer to the general field introduced in linguistics department. Second, it may refer to the product, that is the text that has been translated. Third, it may refer to the process,

that is the act of producing the translation, also known as translating. The process of translation between two different written languages involves the translator changing an original written text, known as source text, in the original verbal language, known as source language, into a written text, the target text, in a different verbal language, known as target language.

Translation study is an academic research area or the discipline that concerns itself with the theory and practice of translation. Researchers in translation studies study the choices that people make when translating from one language to another. Translation studies scholars are also interested in studying the impact that translations or collections of translations have had in the sociocultural situation of the languages involved. They attempt to use existing theories of translation to predict what the process of translation is likely to involve for particular pairs of languages and types of text.

Formative Test 3:

1) There are two interrelated strands of work in language teaching, how language should be taught and what kind of language should be taught. What are the focuses of the second strand?

   Answer:

   The second strand focuses more on what kind of language should be taught. Traditionally the grammar components of language classes have tended to focus on written grammar, but the advent of spoken corpora has revealed patterns in spoken language that could usefully be taught to language learners. Recent studies have revealed that spoken language has its own grammar which differs in places from the grammar of the written language. The second component is vocabulary. Traditionally, the main focus of teaching vocabulary was the vocabulary of written language. But nowadays, vocabulary is taught based on the context.

2) What is Richards' view of communicative language teaching?

   Answer:

   Communicative approaches to language teaching differ from previous approaches to language learning in that they are competency based. The main focus is on the outcomes of learning. They look at what learners might be expected to do with the language, and use these to inform the

ways in which the language is taught. The ultimate goal of communicative language teaching is to foster the ability not only to apply the grammatical rules of a language in order to form grammatically correct sentences but also to know the appropriate time and place to use these sentences and to the appropriate audience.

3) Explain some variables included in sociocultural competence!
    Answer:
    Sociocultural competence refers to the speaker's pragmatic knowledge, i.e. how to express messages appropriately within the overall social and cultural context of communication. This includes knowledge of language variation with reference to sociocultural norms of the target language. Three most crucial variables of sociocultural competence are:
    – social contextual factors: the participants' age, gender, status, social distance and their relations to each other re: power and affect.
    – stylistic appropriateness: politeness strategies, a sense of genres and registers.
    – cultural factors: background knowledge of the target language group, major dialects/regional differences, and cross cultural awareness.

4) Why is discourse competence important in applied linguistics?
    Answer:
    Because discourse analysis enables applied linguists to analyze and understand real language data, for example, texts written by first and second language learners, or recordings of the spoken output of second language learners, or of the interaction between teachers and learners or among learners themselves in classrooms. It also enables us to understand better the kinds of discourse that language learners are exposed to outside the classroom: the language of service encounters in shops, banks, restaurants, etc., the language of newspapers, the language of everyday informal conversation. In addition, such analyses can assist language teachers and materials writers to evaluate language course books in terms of how closely they are approximate authentic language, or what needs to be modified when authentic texts are brought into the classroom. Language testing can also gain a great deal from looking at

real language use as a source of criteria for the evaluation of test performances.

5) What do you understand about forensic linguistics?
    The answer will vary.

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