



Faculty of Language Studies

U210B: The English Language: Past, Present and Future (PART II)

Course Guide

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Course Support Materials

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U210B COURSE KIT

[13 ITEMS]

The following list **totalling 12 items** shows the learning/teaching materials required for U210B. Make sure that you receive all items upon registering in the course:

(I) ONE COURSE GUIDE [this booklet]

(II) TWO COURSE BOOKS [published by OU]:

- *Learning English* (edited by Diana Honeybone with contributions from Barbara Mayor)
- *Redesigning English: New Texts, New Identities* (edited by S. Goodman and D. Graddol)

(III) FOUR STUDY GUIDES (1-4)

(IV) ONE SET OF FOUR 60-MINUTE AUDIO CASSETTES [replaced by four CDs]

(V) ONE 30-MINUTE VIDEO & FOUR TELEVISION PROGRAMMES [replaced by one DVD]

Preface

Dear Student,

This is an enlarged and updated course guide which you should find useful as it provides an overall view of the course: its aims; content; structure; learning outcomes; assessment; etc

*The U210B Course Guide is the first book that you should read **before you go to your first tutorial**. Of primary importance is to know the course learning and teaching materials listed above. Please make sure that you receive all materials including the audio and video ones.*

There will be weekly tutorials. We would like you to take an active part in the tutorials and we have devised tutorial notes to help you prepare for them as well as understand the course themes. Go over them in the relevant Course Guide notes and the Tutorial Notes in Section 11 in this guide. Seek the help of your tutor when you feel that you are not too sure about the material or would like extra help or support in one aspect or the other. Tutors are there to help you in class as well as in their out of class office hours. We would advise you to make use of the office hours which your tutor will set aside for meetings with you on individual basis to help you with the course, answer your questions, and give you guidance in preparing your TMAs.

We would like to remind you that your continuous assessment (TMAs and MTA) is an important part of your pass/fail average. You must secure 40% in the continuous assessment and 40% in your final exam and a total course average of 50% to pass the course.

You need to make use of every opportunity to practice your language in the written and spoken aspects. Tutorials and office hours provide excellent opportunities for you to use the language.

Wishing you luck in completing the course

*Hayat Al-Khatib
Course Chair*

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1. COURSE DESCRIPTOR

Course No and title: U210B: the English Language: Past, Present and Future

Course level: U210B is a Level-2 course

Credit hours: 8 credit hours

Prerequisites: EL112 & EL120

U210B The English Language: Past, Present, and Future Part II is the second of two connected courses, U210A and U210B. U210 B examines theories behind language acquisition, teaching and learning strategies, and the influence of English in the twentieth century. The course is organized around four themes: Learning English, Teaching English, English and Technology, and Global English.

This course focuses on learning/acquiring English in mother tongue, bilingual, and multilingual contexts drawing on examples from a multitude of social and academic settings in many parts of the world where English is acquired under diverse conditions for different purposes. It examines the influence of modern communications technology on English and the way people communicate across time and space, and also addresses economic, cultural and political issues arising from globalization and the spread of English in the world.

Varied approaches are used in this course. The main themes are discussed in tutorials and students are invited to collect and analyze live data to examine the applicability of the different theories. The applied aspect is combined with the theoretical to equip students with a wider understanding of the English language.

Whenever and wherever we find ourselves across time and space, we are struck by the very rapid and on-going spread of English in the world and by its many varieties and functions whether acquired and used as a mother tongue or a second language.

2. COURSE AIMS

U210B course provides a detailed discussion and presentation in block one of the major theories on language learning in monolingual and bilingual contexts; block two introduces strategies on language teaching, block three discusses the emergence of new genres of English resulting from the advances of technology, and block four evaluates the spread of global English.

The course aims to:

1. equip students with a wider understanding of the English language as it is used by people in monolingual and multilingual contexts
2. introduce major theoretical debate on language learning
3. provide a discussion on the main strategies of teaching English
4. bring about an understanding of how technology is used in the creation of multimodal texts in English
5. evaluate the factors that led to the development of global English and positive and negative views associated with this spread

3. COURSE LEARNING/TEACHING MATERIALS

In addition to this course guide, **U210B** is made up of the following FIVE components:

- (i) **TWO COURSE BOOKS** [published by OU]:
- *Learning English* (edited by Diana Honeybone with contributions from Barbara Mayor)
 - *Redesigning English: New Texts, New Identities* (edited by S. Goodman and D. Graddol)

(ii) **FOUR STUDY GUIDES:** (Guide 1-4: one guide for each block)

(iii) **FOUR 60-MINUTE AUDIO CASSETTES** [replaced by four CDs]

CD1 to be used with Block One: Learning English

Band 1: Early acquisition

Band 2: Later development

Band 3: Telling Jokes and giving directions

Band 4: Children's use of language varieties

Band 5: Influences on children's English

Band 6: Children's awareness of language varieties

Band 7: an interview with Shirley Brice Heath

Band 8: Classroom discourse

CD2 to be used with Block Two: Teaching English

Band 1: Introduction

Band 2: English in schools during the 1920s-1940s

Band 3: Interview with Beverley Bryan

Band 4: Teaching English in Singapore primary schools

Band 5: Indian English as a model for teaching and learning in India

Band 6: Second language learning in California

Band 7: English language teaching in China

Band 8: Essay writing skills

CD3 to be used with Block Three: English and Technology

Band 1: Introduction

Band 2: Television commentary

Band 3: Multimodal English

Band 4: Satellite television in Europe

Band 5: Communication on the Internet

Band 6: Sales English

CD4 to be used with Block Four: Global English

Band 1: Introduction

Band 2: English 2000

Band 3: Big languages, little languages

Band 4: English in the media

Band 5: English and the global economy

Band 6: Losing languages

(iv) **ONE 30-MINUTE VIDEO** [replaced by one DVD]

Band 1: Learning English bilingually

Band 2: Teaching the “Ode to Autumn”
Band 3: A university tutorial
Band 4: Multimodal texts

(v) **FOUR TELEVISION PROGRAMMES** [included in the DVD]

TV1 The Golden Thread: English and other languages
TV2 An English education
TV3 News Stories
TV4 English, English everywhere

4. COURSE STRUCTURE/ORGANIZATION

U210B, is the second of the two courses, divided into four major blocks corresponding to the four general aims of the course:

Block One examines theories on language learning:

- First Language Development
- English in the Repertoire
- Learning to read and write in English
- English as a Classroom Language

Block Two looks at trends in language teaching

- History of English Teaching
- Issues in English Teaching
- English for Speakers of Other Languages
- English in the Academic World

Block Three examines the role of technology in creating new texts in English

- Text, time and Technology in News English
- Visual English
- English in Cyberspace
- Market Forces Speaks English

Block Four looks at the spread of English and positive and negative views on it

- Global English, Global Culture

In addition to course books the teaching materials for U210B comprise audio and video materials [described in Section 3 above].

The **audio materials** [on CDs] deal with various aspects of English:

- Learning English in monolingual and bilingual settings
- Teaching English in different contexts
- English and technology
- The global spread of English

The **visual materials**, on the other hand, focus on examples of language use where it is particularly helpful to see contextual information or nonverbal features. Topics include:

- how English is learnt in bilingual contexts

- how English is taught in different contexts
- aspects of multimodal texts
- English and other languages

Some questions that are answered in the Course

1. How does children's language develop in the early stages?
2. What are the influences of caregivers and family members on these early stages?
3. Are patterns of language acquisition identical in all languages?
4. How was English defined as a subject and what methods were used to teach it?
5. What factors affected the teaching and learning of English in the twentieth century?
6. What new forms of communication are brought about by technology and how do these affect the spread of English?
7. How has the global use of English been encouraged and discouraged, and for what reasons?
8. How has the global spread and use of English been perceived in different parts of the world?

5. Course Learning Outcomes

[Extracted and slightly adapted from U210 Assignment Book, the Open University, 2002]

The course is generally divided into four main themes that are aimed at equipping students with a wider understanding of the English language in its applied aspect: learning English, teaching English, English and technology and Global English.

To be successful in his/her study of this course, the student is expected to demonstrate knowledge and understanding of:

- the major theoretical debate on language learning
- the main theories of teaching English
- an understanding of multimodality in using English
- an understanding of the factors that led to the development of global English and arguments for and against the spread of global English

More specifically the course provides the opportunity for you to develop and demonstrate the following learning outcomes:

(A) Knowledge and understanding of

1. The basic theories in language learning, innatist perspectives and environmentalist perspectives
2. Major trends in teaching English and the theoretical debate underpinning different teaching practices
3. The effects of technology on the emergence of multimodal English
4. The negative and positive views associated with the spread of English

(B) Cognitive skills

To be successful in his/her study of this course, the student is expected to:

1. demonstrate ability to analyze and describe the main theories associated with learning and teaching a language, using appropriate terminology

2. interpret multimodal texts, showing an understanding of how technology is influencing the emergence of a new genre in English
3. critically evaluate the spread of global English in the light of alternative explanations, arguments and theories
4. apply gained understanding to authentic linguistic data beyond the course material

(C) Key Skills

To be successful in his/her study of this course, the student is expected to demonstrate the following competencies:

In relation to communication:

- identify and evaluate the relevance of information from a variety of sources
- synthesize and organize information and evaluate their significance critically
- construct a coherent argument, clearly focused on the topic under discussion
- develop a good academic practice in the acknowledgement of source material and presentation of bibliographies
- present written work to a high standard
- respond to tutor feedback about improving the effectiveness of written communication
- develop the skills of independent research

In relation to practical and professional skills:

- work independently, scheduling tasks and managing time effectively
- handle substantial amounts of complex information
- assess the value of evidence critically
- make independent judgments
- construct coherent written arguments, supported by relevant evidence, appropriately referenced

These learning outcomes are reflected in the assessment criteria that your tutor will take into account when marking your TMA (See Section 6 below).

In addition to these outcomes, you can expect to acquire other 'generic' skills that would apply to many second level courses. These would include practical skills such as managing substantial amounts of information and organizing time effectively.

6. COURSE ASSESSMENT

U210B has TWO tutor marked assignments (known as **TMA**s).

- **TMA 01** (related to Block 1) represents 15% of the overall continuous assessment score (OCAS))
- **TMA 02** (related to Block 2 or Block 3) represents 15% of the overall continuous assessment score OCAS

In addition to the two TMA's, there will be:

- **One Mid-Term Assessment (MTA)**, related to Book 1, and representing 20% of the overall continuous assessment score

- **One 3-hour FINAL EXAM**, at the end of the course, related to Books 1 and 2 and representing 50% of overall assessment score.

The balance between components of assessment is shown in the following table:

Components	Form of Assessment & Marks		%
CONTINUOUS ASSESSMENT	TMA01	15	50%
	TMA02	15	
	(total: 2)		
	MTA	20	
FINAL ASSESSMENT	FINAL EXAM		50%
GRAND TOTAL			100%

7. COURSE TUTORIALS, TMAs, MTAs & FINAL EXAMS

7.1. Tutorials

For U210B there will be a 15 2-hour tutorial sessions as illustrated in the Study Calendar in Section 8 below.

Tutorials are interactive sessions that should not be viewed as traditional lectures. The main objective of tutorials may be summed as follows:

1. to provide you with opportunities to practice your English and hence upgrade your fluency and improve your pronunciation and listening capabilities,
2. to enable course tutors to review teaching materials and activities with you and your classmates [as specified in course Study Calendar] as well as to answer your queries, and hence have an idea about what you have and what you haven't learnt,
3. to provide a forum of discussion where you and your colleagues take a central role, particularly with regard to controversial linguistic issues,
4. to enable you to voice your opinions with regard to various aspects of the course materials and associated activities.

In addition to weekly tutorials, all tutors have certain weekly office hours (posted on their office doors) where they can meet you to answer your questions or explicate the comments they have made on your TMAs.

7.2. Tutor-Marked Assignments (TMAs)

These assignments are spread out over the duration of course delivery. In addition to gauging student progress of study, they serve to invoke and develop investigative and research skills. TMAs carry 30% of the overall grade of the course.

The actual assignments are not included in this booklet because they are prepared annually. The *Assignment Booklet* will be available at the start of each relevant semester from the university's website.

7.3. Mid-Term Assessment (MTA)

MTAs are viewed to be another contributor to monitoring the progression of your achievement. They carry 20% of the overall grade of the course. Questions in MTAs typically require short notes / answers / comments: e.g. definitions; exemplification; writing one or two paragraphs, etc. In other words, they are not of the open-ended essay type.

7.4. Final Exams (FEs)

Final exams are typically of the essay type and are divided into three Parts each covering one or two blocks /themes of the course as in the table below: You will be required to answer 3 questions in 3 hours.

Part	Questions	Notes
A	1	- ONE compulsory question, but there might be some option within this question (e.g. defining seven key terms out of 10) - The question typically deals with a very important/central topic
B	2&3	- This part consists of 2 questions - Students answer ONE question only. - Each question is meant to test a certain block/theme
C	4&5	- This part consists of 2 questions - Students answer ONE question only. - Each question is meant to test a certain block/theme

7.5. Communication & Language Accuracy

Students majoring in English Language and Literature are expected to possess a reasonably high level of proficiency in English. In writing, they are expected to produce well-written and well-developed essays that are error-free in terms of language accuracy. Students' grades will be lowered if they make grammatical and vocabulary errors as well as errors in writing mechanics (e.g. punctuation, capitalization, spelling) and errors in presentation and paragraphing, etc.

The table below shows that in marking students' TMAs and other types of written work including final exams, a certain percentage of the mark is determined by the student's ability to write well and observe rules of grammar and writing mechanics

Course Level	Courses	Marks Deducted for Improper / Unacceptable Language Use
Level-1	A123 (A & B)	Up to 20%
Level-2	A210 (A & B); U210A; U210B	Up to 20%
Level-3	A319 (A & B); E300 (A & B); E303(A&B)	Up to 30%

8. COURSE STUDY CALENDAR

STUDY WEEK	Course books, study guides, and other texts	TV programmes	ACs & VCs	TMAs & MTA
1	Block1: Learning English ■ <i>Learning English: development and diversity</i> Ch. 1: 'English as a First Language' ■ <i>Study Guide 1</i>	TV5: The Golden Thread: English and other Languages	AC5: Bands 1-3	
2	■ <i>Learning English</i> , Ch. 2: 'English in the repertoire'	TV5: The Golden Thread: English and other Languages	AC5: Bands 4-6 VC2: Band 5	
3	■ <i>Learning English</i> , Ch. 3: 'Learning to read and write English'		AC5: Band 7	
4	■ <i>Learning English</i> , Ch. 4: 'English as a classroom language'		AC5: Band 8 VC2: Band 6	
5	Block 2: Teaching English ■ <i>Learning English</i> , Ch. 5: 'A history of English teaching' <i>Study Guide 2</i>	TV6: An English Education	AC6: Bands 1-2	
6	■ <i>Learning English</i> , Ch. 6: 'Issues in English teaching'		AC6: Bands 3-4 VC2: Band 7	TMA1 end of week
7	■ <i>Learning English</i> , Ch. 7: 'English for speakers of other languages'		AC6: Bands 5-7 VC2 Band 8	
8	■ <i>Learning English</i> , Ch. 8: 'English in the academic world'		AC6: Band 8 VC2: Band 9	
9	Block 3: English and technology ■ <i>Redesigning English: New texts, new identities</i> Ch.1: 'Text, time and technology in news English' ■ <i>Study Guide 3</i>	TV7: News Stories	AC7: Bands 1-2	MTA
10	■ <i>Redesigning English</i> Ch. 2: 'Visual English'	TV7: News Stories	AC7: Band 3 VC2: Band 10	
11	■ <i>Redesigning English</i> Ch. 3: 'English in Cyberspace'		AC7: Bands 4-5	
12	■ <i>Redesigning English</i> Ch. 4: 'Market forces speak English'		AC7: Band 6	TMA 2 end of week
13	Block 4: Global English ■ <i>Redesigning English</i> Ch. 5: 'Global English, global culture?' ■ <i>Study Guide 4</i>	TV8: English, English Everywhere	AC8: Bands 1,2,3,4	
14	■ Complementary Study Readings: Readings from <i>Complementary Study</i>		AC8, Bands 5-6	
15	REVISION WEEK & SP			
16	FINAL EXAMINATION			

9. COURSE CURRICULUM MAP: U210B

T: tutorial; TMA: tutor marked assignment; MTA: mid-term assessment; OH: office hours; F: final exam

(A) Knowledge and understanding : When you complete your studies for the course, you will have introductory knowledge and understanding of:	
- An understanding of the major theoretical debate on language learning	T, OH TMA MTA, F
- Major trends in teaching English and the theoretical debate underpinning different teaching practices	T, OH, TMA, MTA, F
- The effects of technology on the emergence of multimodal English	T, OH TMA, MTA, F
- An understanding of the factors that led to the development of global English and arguments for and against the spread of global English	T, OH TMA, MTA, F
(B) Cognitive skills : When you complete your studies for this course, you will be able to:	
-ability to analyse and describe the main theories associated with learning and teaching a language, using appropriate terminology	T, TMA, F
- interpret multimodal texts, showing an understanding of how technology is influencing the emergence of a new genre in English	T, TMA, MTA, F
- critically evaluate the spread of global English in the light of alternative explanations, arguments and theories	T, TMA, F
- apply gained understanding to authentic linguistic data beyond the course material	T, OH TMA, MTA, F
(C) Practical and/or professional skills and attributes : When you complete your studies for the course, you will be able to:	
- work independently, scheduling tasks and managing time effectively	TMA, MTA, F
- handle substantial amounts of complex information	T, OH TMA, MTA, F
- assess the value of evidence critically	T, OH TMA, MTA, F
- make independent judgments	T, OH TMA, MTA, F
- construct coherent written arguments, supported by relevant evidence,	T, OH

appropriately referenced	TMA, MTA, F
(D) Key skills: When you have completed the course you will be able to:	
Communication	
- identify and evaluate the relevance of information from a variety of sources	TMA,
- synthesise and organise information and evaluate its significance critically	T, OH TMA, MTA,F
- construct a coherent argument, clearly focused on the topic under discussion	T, TMA, MTA, F
- develop good academic practice in the acknowledgement of source material and presentation of bibliographies	TMA,
- present written work to a high standard	TMA, MTA, F
- respond to tutor feedback about improving the effectiveness of written communication	T, OH TMA, MTA, F

10. GENERAL GUIDANCE ON WRITING ASSIGNMENTS (TMAs)

[adapted from original OU document by Professor Mohammad Awwad, AOU, 2004]]

10.1. Types of TMAs

Assignments include:

- general essays in which, for instance, you are asked to respond to a question, or discuss and evaluate a statement – such essays normally relate to more than one study week;
- assignments based more narrowly on particular course materials – for instance, you may be asked to review a course reading, or compare the position taken in different readings;
- assignments that take as their stimulus a piece of data such as a transcript, newspaper cutting, audiocassette extract or short piece of written text, which you are asked to analyse or discuss.
- Some assignments may also contain a mixture of these elements. .

In devising assignments we observe the following principles:

- the assignment should be unambiguous (i.e. the wording should be clear, and the task you are required to do should be clearly explained);
- the assignment should relate in a straightforward way to the course materials (i.e. the questions should be consistent with the study questions and study guidance for each block).

We provide notes to help you in tackling each option and to help your tutor in marking it. At the beginning of the course these notes give fairly full advice on how to structure your answer. We give slightly less help towards the end of the course, because you will need some practice in more independent writing for the course examination. Please note that the guidance is meant to assist you and not be a rigid prescription that you must follow, so you should not feel constrained by these suggestions if you prefer an alternative structure for your essay. You should consult your tutor if you are in any doubt.

The notes below give advice on planning and writing assignments. Some of this may be familiar to you if you have previously studied courses in related areas. If you have had limited experience of essay writing, you should pay particular attention to the advice given here and, if necessary, ask your tutor for help in putting it into practice. A useful additional source of help is *The Arts Good Study Guide* by Ellie Chambers and Andrew Northedge (1997, The Open University).

10.2. Planning Your Work for the TMAs

When you come to write your assignment, it is useful first of all to remind yourself of the general criteria for marking assignments (see below) Then you should assemble the material you have been collecting for your topic, check through the question wording and notes, and draw up a plan of what you intend to cover.

You could begin with a series of subheadings based on the TMA notes, gathering under each subheading your own list of the points you wish to make and the information or evidence you have collected in support of each point.

The total length of each assignment is usually 1,500-2,000 words. It is a good idea to indicate on your plan the (approximate) number of words you intend to devote to each section. Normally you should allocate a small number of words to your introduction (say, 150-200 words) and maybe a few more to your conclusion, with the bulk of the word allowance divided between your major sections.

When you have completed your plan, look carefully through it and check it against the assignment question.

- Does it contain enough material to enable you to answer the question?
- Does all the material seem relevant?
- Can you think of any additional evidence or information?
- Within and between each heading, is the material in an appropriate order?
- Does it allow you to build up an argument, moving logically from one point to the next?

10.3. Writing up Your TMA

(i) Length

Each TMA should be 1,500-2,000 words. Refer back to your plan to remind yourself of how you are apportioning your total allowance. You do not need to supply an accurate word count, but you must take care not to go significantly under or over length. In a very short essay you will not be able to cover sufficient material in enough depth, while an overlong essay usually means that you are not selecting and editing your material properly. A long

answer will use up more of your study time, for which you will gain no extra credit. You may also be tempted to include irrelevant material that could detract from your answer and/or make it more difficult for your tutor to follow your argument.

References and quotations within your essay will be considered part of the total length, so must be kept concise. Bibliographies are not included in the word count.

(ii) Structure and presentation

If you have drawn up your plan carefully, writing your assignment should flow more easily: you are simply writing out, in continuous prose, the notes you made under each heading of your plan. The following suggestions may help:

- Some people find it easier to write their introduction last of all, when they know what it is they are introducing! Others prefer to write their introduction first, outlining what they are going to do in their essay, and then refer back to it when writing the rest of their answer.
- Ideally, type or word-process your answer; but, if this is not possible, write it as clearly as you can. It can be very difficult for a tutor to make a fair assessment of work that is hard to read.
- Make sure you leave sufficient space on each page (e.g. wide margins) for your tutor to make comments.
- Do not be afraid to use subheadings in the final version if you want to. This maybe a departure from conventions you are used to – you may feel that essays should be a seamless whole. However, headings can help you to structure your argument and to see more clearly where you are in danger of including irrelevant material. Alternatively, and especially if you are word-processing, you may prefer to include subheadings in the earlier drafts of your answer and then remove them in the final version.
- Try to include signposts to help your reader along (e.g. draw points together at the end of a section, then indicate how you are going to follow on from these in the next section.)
- For some TMAs there maybe a wide range of material to draw on. You must try to select the most relevant material for your purpose: *you are **not** required to use every suggestion provided in the Assignment Booklet.* Your tutor will not expect you to cram in every possible detail, and if you attempt to do so you run the risk of failing to cover anything in sufficient depth. Select the material you want to use, set it out in your introduction and then follow this plan in your essay. The guidance on structure for each TMA in the *Assignment Booklet* will help you to plan and structure your work, but you may use an alternative framework if you wish.
- If you are unsure about your writing style, you could ask a friend or colleague to read through a draft and tell you of any points that are unclear. (the course materials themselves provide examples of appropriate writing styles, such as the notes on chapters in the course books, which are in the Study Guides
- When you have finished your assignment, read it through carefully. Check that it is clear and provides a full answer to the question.
- At this point you should also check aspects of presentation: paragraphing, sentence structure, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, etc.)

If you feel that you need additional support with academic writing, or if you have any specific difficulties (e.g. with handwriting or spelling), you should discuss this with your tutor early on in the course and try to work out a way of minimizing any problems.

10.4. Referring to the Course Material and Other Sources

Your assignment is meant to provide evidence that you have read and understood the course materials. You may refer briefly to other sources of evidence if you wish, but *your assignments will be assessed primarily on your understanding and use of the course materials*. Whatever the source of your evidence, remember that it is not sufficient simply to *reproduce* it – you need not use it to advance your argument.

(i) Citing material from the course

When you are reporting a piece of research or an argument, you should make it clear where this comes from. The course chapters provide examples of the usual academic conventions for doing this (e.g. 'Quirk (1986) claimed that ...'). Since you and your tutor have access to the same course material, you can, if you wish, use a form of reference such as: 'In Chapter 1 Reading A, Randolph Quirk claimed that ...'; or 'On Audiocassette 1 Band 3, Dick Leith suggested ..' The main thing is to make it clear which piece of work you are drawing on. Wherever possible, give precise page references: this not only makes it easier for your tutor to check the evidence you are drawing on; it also helps you trace your sources when you come to revise.

You may wish to include brief quotations from the course materials. In this case, they should be clearly *set out as quotations*, and the source should be given. Otherwise, if you are discussing ideas from the course, try to read and absorb these, then write what you think about them in *your own words*. It is particularly important, when setting out your own ideas or arguments, that you do not reproduce long extracts from the course (or from other sources) with little or no change, as this gives the impression that you are trying to pass off someone else's ideas as your own. This could constitute **plagiarism**, which is treated as a very serious offence by the University. Below is an extract from a chapter on plagiarism, which you may find helpful.

(ii) What is plagiarism?

Plagiarism is the *theft* of other people's words and ideas. Plagiarism happens when you claim (or *appear* to claim) that an idea, or the expression of it, is your own when in fact it is someone else's. Deliberate plagiarism usually takes the form of either getting someone else to write your essay for you and then saying it's yours, or copying chunks of text out of a book with the deliberate intent of deceiving the reader into thinking they are in your own words. Accidental plagiarism, which most institutions are obliged to penalize equally heavily, is achieved by oversight and/or lack of skill in manipulating information. Here are some examples of how it can happen:

- You make notes from a book, copying out lots of relevant passages and then, when you come to write the essay, you copy your notes into it, forgetting that they were copied in the first place.
- You use a book which covers exactly the area you are dealing with; you are aware that you mustn't copy it out, so you deftly rephrase little bits, by replacing 'small'

with 'little', 'major differences' by 'main differences' and by swapping over the order of two halves of a sentence. *You* think that this is now legitimate, but your assessors do not.

- You use entirely your own words, but you don't acknowledge the source of your information.
- You draw from notes you made or were given for some previous course of study, without realizing that these were copied or adapted from some other source.

A reader will assume that any idea not referenced is your own, and that any passage not in quote marks is in your own words. This is a contract of trust which you must respect.

(iii) How to avoid accidental plagiarism: some strategies

Expect to acknowledge everything you've got from a source other than your own head. The things that don't need referencing are your own ideas and common or uncontroversial knowledge (*English is a Germanic Language*, for example). If in doubt, err on the side of *over*—referencing, until you get the knack. Having too many references in a text breaks up the flow of your writing, but that is the lesser of two evils. To avoid too much repetition, you may be able to say at the beginning of a section or paragraph: *The following is a summary of information given in Smith (1994)*. Note, however, that it is *not* sufficient to give one vague reference to your source somewhere, and then draw directly from it for page after page.

Rather than just summarizing what you are reading for the sake of it, make notes relevant to the task in hand and identify the major points that relate to your purpose. Make the notes under headings; you can then write out your own version based on those points. *When making notes, use your own words wherever possible*. Never copy anything out without putting it in inverted commas and putting a page reference next to it. Always keep the full reference details for any source you draw on, as you will need them later. These details should be integral to your notes, so that you can easily see where an idea or quote has come from. Where your source text gives examples of a phenomenon under discussion, try to think of some examples of your own (or look them up in a dictionary or another book). This is in any case a good way of ensuring that you understand what you are writing about. However, if you are in doubt about whether your example is valid (e.g. where the examples have been drawn from a particular source that you cannot access), quote the ones you have been given and acknowledge them appropriately. If there is any terminology you don't understand, look it up [or ask your tutor for advice], don't just copy it out. (Wray *et al*, 1998)

(iv) Listing your sources in a bibliography

At the end of your assignment, you should list the sources to which you have referred. The course books illustrate the conventional layout for different types of reference (see examples in the box below). When referring to course materials, you do not need to give such full sources (you could simply list materials as '*Describing Language*, Chapter 1' or 'Audiocassette 2 Band 2 Indian English', etc.). The important thing is that your tutor should be clear about material you have drawn on.

(v) Reference list styles

Note: it is usual to italicize book titles; however, if you are not able to do this, you should underline them instead.

(A) Book

TRUDGILL, P. and HANNAH, J. (1994, 3rd edn) *International English*, London, Edward Arnold.

(B) Chapter / extract from an edited collection

HARRIS, J. (1993) 'The grammar of Irish English' in MILROY, J. and MILROY, L. (eds) *Real English: the grammar of English dialects in the British Isles*, London, Longman.

(C) Paper in a journal or magazine

WALES, L. (1994) 'Royalese: the rise and fall of "the Queen's English" ', *English Today*, vol. 10, no. 3, pp. 3-10.

10.5. Some Frequently Asked Questions

Here we offer some guidance on some of the dilemmas that occur regularly when preparing to answer a TMA.

What should I do if the question is not clear or seems ambiguous?

As mentioned above, we try to ensure this will not be a problem. However, if you feel a question is unclear, you should contact your tutor in the first instance: he or she should be able to help you sort out any confusion. Failing that, you should state in your introduction how you are interpreting the question (together with whatever justification you think is necessary) and then proceed to answer it on those terms.

What should I do if I disagree with the arguments being put in the course material?

You are not expected to agree with everything that is said in the course book or audiovisual material. Indeed, we hope that you will engage in a critical dialogue with the analysis and arguments you encounter.

However, any criticism you offer should be based on sound knowledge and understanding of the ideas and information presented in that part of the course, and your reservations should be supported by relevant argument and information either from the course material or another source that is fully acknowledged and referenced.

Should I include personal experience and material from other sources?

You are often asked, as part of your study, to relate ideas in the course to your own experiences of English. It is also suggested that you collect your own examples of material to put in a 'cuttings file'. Examples might be newspaper articles dealing with any aspect of English, advertisements, letters, business cards, and so on. You may also like to jot down examples of English that you hear around you or which your children use. Some TMAs may refer directly to the cuttings file, with suggestions on how this may be used. Where TMAs do not do this, you may still feel that you have examples which are relevant. In this case, ensure that any examples you include can be related to the question; try to use them to illustrate or address points from the course; and select a small number of examples so that you have enough space to deal with ideas and evidence discussed in the course materials. Please remember to acknowledge your source. Extensive analyses should be accompanied by a photocopy of the original wherever possible.

10.6. Marking Criteria

Your tutor will primarily make use of the following criteria in deciding what mark to give your assignment.

- *The relevance of your answer to the question as set*
Your tutor will look for evidence that you have clearly understood the question and directed your answer accordingly.
- *Your knowledge and understanding of the course material*
Your tutor will look for evidence that you have understood and can draw effectively on research evidence, ideas, concepts and arguments that are central to the course.
- *Your ability to discuss and evaluate alternative explanations and arguments*
Researchers and other commentators may provide different (and sometimes competing) explanations for linguistic events and processes. Your tutor will look to see whether you are able to discuss these, and evaluate any arguments put forward in support of a particular viewpoint.
- *The ability to present and pursue an argument*
Your tutor will examine the structure of your answer to assess how well you can put together the material you use to sustain and support an argument.
- *The ability to express yourself clearly using academic conventions as appropriate*
Your tutor will look for clarity in your work, in the way you make points, present research findings and make critical comments. You are not expected to make extensive use of technical vocabulary, but you should be able to refer to key terms and concepts from the course materials. You should also acknowledge clearly any sources you have drawn on.

Please also take note of the guidance above which offers suggestions on structure and presentation, and on referring to source material in your essay.

For assignments that include practical work with language data, your tutor will take into account *your ability to make a clear analysis and interpretation of language data as specified in the assignment*. Your tutor will look to see whether your analysis is appropriate, whether it draws on relevant ideas and concepts from the course, and whether any interpretation you give is justified by reference to relevant aspects of the data.

The comments from your tutor should explain why you received the marks given. They will cover the content of your assignment (e.g. your understanding of key issues, the argument you have constructed). Comments may also include teaching points about aspects of your work which could have been strengthened or extended. In addition, they may suggest ways of improving your performance in future assignments.

The detailed marking criteria your tutor will use in marking both your TMAs and final examination paper are as indicated on the following page.

The marking scheme for this course will be as follows:¹

¹ These marking criteria are informed by and mostly extracted from the UKOU U210A *Assignment Booklet* 2004 (p. 30). They are to be used as general guidelines for marking TMAs, tests, and the final examination as long as they do not violate criteria and marking standards set by AOU including the marking and grading system indicated on page 18 of this Assignment Booklet. They are also subject to any changes AOU might deem necessary.

10.7. Marking Grid

	Criteria Mark/ Band	Relevance to question	Knowledge and understanding of course material	Approach to alternative explanations and arguments	Construction of argument	Clear expression and use of academic conventions	Approach to language data (where appropriate)
F	Fail (F)	Some relevant material but failure to address question	Little appreciation of main idea or inadequate knowledge/ insufficient reading	No evidence of critical thinking	Lack of organization	Major deficiencies	Insufficient/ not enough detailed discussion of data
D	Satisfactory	Some ability to identify main issues	Very basic understanding of course material/ substantial omissions and/or misunderstandings	Lacking/ heavily descriptive	Lines of arguments may be clear for short sections but not sustained or developed	Bare bones of structure/coherent expression/ attempts at referencing	Analysis barely appropriate /related to course. Interpretations barely justified
C C+	Good	Clear evidence of understanding question and overall direction of answer	Effective drawing on evidence/ideas/ concepts and arguments central to the course	Recognition and limited discussion of competing explanations for linguistic events/ processes	Clear, sustained argument	Good structure/ expression/ referencing	Analysis barely appropriate/ related to course. Interpretations justified
B B+	Very Good	Utilizes a wide range of relevant and contemporary material to produce a cogent and insightful argument	Comprehensive and judicious use of relevant literature	Good discussion of competing explanations and arguments	Assertions are made with evaluated evidence; all sections contributing	Very good structure, expression and ability to employ sources appropriately	Very good analysis. Judicious interpretations.
A	Excellent	Creative/ original relevant stance	Excellent knowledge and understanding	Critical approach	Cohesive/and original/creative	Excellent structure, expression and use of evidence	Excellent analysis/ Interpretations

11. TUTORIAL NOTES ON U210B

U210B is organised around four block themes:

- **BLOCK 1:** Course Book 1. *Learning English*: Chapters 1-4
- **BLOCK 2:** Course Book 1. *Teaching English*: Chapters 5-8
- **BLOCK 3:** Course Book 2. *English and Technology*: Chapters 1-4
- **BLOCK 4:** Course Book 2. *Global English*: Chapter 5

The course combines varied methods of teaching:

- the main themes are discussed in tutorials.
- examples are given in audio and video support materials.

The tutorial notes in this section are designed to make U210B manageable for both students and tutors. The aim is to equip students with comprehensible input to be able to work with the material and use it as a basis for independent learning.

11.1. Block 1: Learning English: *Book 1: Chapters 1-4*

I. First Tutorial: Book 1: Chapter 1. FIRST LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

Main points:

- The general principles of language acquisition
- How children learn the linguistic rules of the language(s) they are acquiring

Learning to Speak a Language

1. Learning the vowels and consonants of a language, and learning how to combine these sounds into sequences: /s+k+r/ = scream
2. Learning the vocabulary of the language
3. Learning the grammatical constructions
4. Learning the prosodic features needed to produce meaning
5. Learning conventions of speaking related to gender, region, class, occupation...
6. Learning strategies of when and how all these rules can be broken to achieve special effects.

Learning how to speak = learning the linguistic rules of the language + the cultural rules of when these are appropriate.

Young Children's Early Utterances

1. Pronunciation immature: /kwab/ for crab
2. Use of run-on sentences: excessive use of the conjunction "and"
3. Hypothesis-building, hypothesis-testing of grammar structures: overgeneralization (holded, knowed)
4. Confusion with tenses: we seen, we did holding

First Language Acquisition

- Universal pattern, or
- Culture-specific?

First year: children produce a range of sounds that become closer and closer to the distinctive phonemes of their language community, and the intonation patterns associated with them.

Universalist: infants start life able to make all the possible speech sounds that a human can make and then cease to make those sounds not found in their particular linguistic environment (pattern universal).

Environmentalists: infants begin with *no* ability to make sounds other than cries, and rely on the environment to provide sounds for them to learn and copy (pattern: culture-specific).

Some researchers claim that the production of speech sounds depends on a **genetically determined programme** which is the same for all human children.

Others uphold **attunement theory** which states that infants start with a basic set of sounds common to all but build up a repertoire of the sounds found in their particular environment

Phonemic differences between languages exist, e.g. English and French, also prosodic differences (rhythm and intonation).

Research Findings:

1. Evidence of similar developmental patterns **and** the influence of adult language
2. Language-specific influences becoming identifiable towards the end of the first year
3. There **is** a relationship between the language environment and a child's early sound making.

Different Roles for Caregivers (Culture-Specific)

Western societies: **dyad** patterns of interaction = caregiver and child

Language accompanies and complements caregivers' actions in western middle-class communities: bathing/feeding activities offering opportunities for predictable language exchanges.

Caregiver is not only providing verbal input but also initiating patterns of socialization through sequences of question-answer where the baby is initiated into social patterns of turn taking.

Child-directed speech (Motherese)

Child-directed speech (CDS) involves modified speech directed to children which is different from the speech addressed to adults: exaggerated intonation, slower delivery, and higher pitch.

Motherese is a feature of some, not all cultures. *Quiche* people (in Central America) and black working-class communities in the USA do not modify their speech when talking to young children (Shirley Brice-Heath). Caregivers in these communities lack any concept of talking with their children to stimulate their linguistic development.

Research Findings:

1. Different cultures have different ways of socializing children into the different speech practices, yet all normal children grow up to be perfectly fluent speakers of their mother tongue.
2. Child-directed speech can contribute to language development without being essential to it.

Early Development

1. Children learn to communicate before they develop language skills: they use limited vocabulary with varied intonation to convey a range of meanings.
2. Establishing the idea of sound to meaning correspondence is an important breakthrough in developing language.
3. Children recognize different patterns of intonation and different structures and identify it with different styles and functions of caregivers: fathers' talk, structures and style differs from mothers'. Each set is associated with different functions: (getting things done: bring your shoes, let's go)
(Encouraging: here's a good boy, well done!)

Words in Use

Five semantic (meaning-related) categories of words:

1. Specific nominals: daddy, mummy
2. General nominals: doggy, ball
3. Action words: eat, give
4. Modifiers (properties or qualities): hot, sticky
5. Personal/Social: no, bye-bye

Characteristics of Children's Early Language Acquisition

1. Systematic use of sounds to convey meaning
2. Ability to understand words precede ability to produce them
3. Children are active producers of language; they use their own structures to express meaning rather than those modeled for them: *goed*, *comed*, *holded*.

Children and Early Grammar

1. Children use short 2-3 word utterances with no grammar markers.
2. Children add these markers (plural suffixes, past tense markers, possessives) to the words they produce.

Grammatical Development

1. Utterances which are one word long: naming function (noun) and an action (verb)
2. Primitive sentence structures (two words) verb + object (shut door) or subject and verb (cat jump). **Children learning basic word order.**
3. Filling out: adding extra elements of clause structure: 3 elements (daddy got car); 4 elements (you go bed now).
4. Linking words: and, so then, before

5. Learn and apply irregular forms (**nouns**: feet – foot not feets; **verbs**: go – went not goed).
6. Use complex patterns: subordination
7. Developing adult personal style and intonation patterns

Research Findings (imitation or hypothesis-forming, hypothesis testing?)

- Imitation as part of the process
- A child has active role in language learning: internalize rules, formulating and testing hypothesis (try to discover or generate the rules of the language). First they do not realize exceptions to rules and use inflections for all regular and irregular forms).

Later Language Development

1. Schooling and its role in increasing children's vocabulary
2. Develop grammar skills and produce complex constructions (teachers, books)
3. Develop communication skills, conduct conversations, respond, imitate, narrate; use question forms, statements; organize information in sequence and to keep listener interested, also explain motives and results.
4. Conduct effective communication in relation to specific audience (jokes – punch line).
5. Development of linguistic skills and social awareness (entwined).

Research Finding

1. There is more to learning a language than ability to produce sounds and grammar structures.
2. Effective communication = manipulation of language and awareness of the communicative needs of audience.

II. Second Tutorial: Book 1: Chapter 2. ENGLISH IN THE REPERTOIRE

- Content-dependent varied language use
- Learn the rules of what is socially appropriate

Converging or diverging to language of interlocutor (s) to impart social message.

Language choice: stylistic variation in monolingual situations, or choice of code in bilingual situations, is context-dependent whether converging or diverging. Marked language choice or unmarked language choices to signal our shifting attitudes and identities: Who am I? How am I perceived by the others? How would I want to be perceived?

Co-operative Conversationalists

All babies begin by learning what it is to communicate, they gradually learn *how* to use human language to accomplish this. So, language acquisition is a matter of learning the rules of social behaviour and only later a matter of learning the grammatical rules by which these are realized. Social rituals are among the first items learnt: *hello, thank you, please, bye-bye.*

Children are cooperative conversationalists. Language learning evolves out of learning how to carry on conversations; when to speak and when not to speak..

Communicative Competence

Noam Chomsky focused on linguistic competence = knowledge of the grammar rules of a language, as opposed to performance – the imperfect application.

Dell Hymes challenged the concept of linguistic correctness and argued for competence to include not only what is grammatically correct but also what is socially appropriate. He termed this **communicative competence**: knowledge of when to speak, which variety to choose, what is socially appropriate to achieve the desired effect.

Language acquisition, therefore, includes knowledge of sentences as grammatical **and** appropriate.

Bilingual competence = competence to use the two languages appropriately. Therefore, knowledge of a language = knowledge of culturally appropriate ways of using the language correctly.

Bilingual competence: children need to recognize that their two languages are separate (sounds, grammar, meaning). They need to know how to use their two languages appropriately; to achieve particular effects.

Bilinguals differ from monolinguals in that they have greater resources, more languages and varieties within each language while monolinguals have varieties within the same language.

Separation of vocabulary occurs earlier than the separation of the two grammatical systems. Bilinguals develop knowledge of semantic references in both languages (word – meaning relations).

Bilinguals recognize first phonetic, tonal, grammatical and semantic contrasts that are significant in their languages. Having recognized some areas of contrasts between the two languages, the bilingual child tries to predict a regular pattern of difference. Errors at this stage can show that the learner is working out rules.

Usual pattern of language acquisition: Rapid development of the sound system at an early age overlapping with and followed by development of grammatical sensitivity and development of meaning and discourse strategies.

Acquiring ESL (English as a Second Language): Bilinguals learning English as their second language are able to articulate accurately whole clusters of words and to deduce their social meaning from the communicative context, e.g. *please, come on, get out of here*. These examples of prefabricated or formulaic speech are socially embedded and highly memorable. Formulaic speech is first put to use, then its internal components (meaning, structures) are organized.

The phenomenon of transferring features from the first language into the second language is known as **interference**. This can include: transfer of grammar rules, e.g.

the production of the category of dual in English (*dogain*) analogous to its Arabic equivalent (*Kalbain*); accent, pragmatic aspects, e.g. when to speak, how loud...

Interference is not a reliable category. In the above example of *dogain*, the second language learner may simply be passing through the same developmental stages in their second language that resemble first language learners, especially if second language learning is encountered at a very young age. These developmental stages include: simplification of syntax and overgeneralization of rules.

“Error” in second language learning (*dogain* = *kalbain*), as in first language learning (*mousse* = *houses*), can be a sign of active learning: that learners are following rules and testing them rather than imitating (passive learning).

Bilingual learners develop sensitivity to what the two languages have in common, and where they differ. On the basis of their experience of their first language they begin to expect certain linguistic cues, which are then realized or absent in his second language.

Bilinguals learn how to use language appropriately and use code switching in relation to their speech situations. Bilinguals may sometimes choose to code switch against the norms for special effect. The choice of language is open to negotiation according to the topic and the effect a speaker wants to create. Language choice for bilinguals becomes carefully calculated to achieve pragmatic results.

Romaine has argued that linguistic choices in code switched discourse can be interpreted as an index of the “social relations, rights and obligations” which exist and are created between participants in a conversation. **Goffman** defined shifts in personal alignment as changes in footing.

Monolinguals utilize a range of stylistic variations to signal their shifting attitudes and identities, and to achieve particular goals. The child begins to learn how to modify his speech in the direction of the prestige standard: in formal situations, according to addressee.

Stylistic variation is also found in young children’s talk when addressing younger siblings or babies. Young children were observed varying their speech to accommodate the communicative needs of their younger relations; e.g. the use of baby talk. Babies were also recorded using stylistic variation in the presence of their parents and falling silent in the presence of strangers, e.g. the selective use of whining.

Choosing the socially appropriate expression entails not only an awareness of the range of linguistic formulations available but also an accurate prediction of the likelihood of compliance on the part of the addressee (communicative competence). Adopting the appropriate style (gender-related, class-related) comes at a later stage of language development. There is a tendency in girls to talk “posher”, i.e. using the prestigious variety; while vernacular English (non-standard varieties) is more adopted by boys and men from the perspective that it is “more masculine”. Features of interruptions and direct requests are usually associated with boys and men; while

conversational support features like hedges e.g. *mm, yeah, right* are associated more with girls and women styles.

Language variation can also correlate with social factors of identity and social allegiances:

1. Speakers adopt the speech of others because they identify with them
2. Speakers emulate the speech of other social groups to impress or get closer to members of that group
3. Speakers mimic or ridicule the speech of others or the stereotypes of a specific social group (the way they talk) to distance themselves from it.

Variations in code or style are methods of social positioning that can be accomplished at a variety of linguistic levels: **sounds** (accents and pitch), **vocabulary** (choice of words), **grammar** (when to switch/what to switch), and the choice of language itself.

III. Third Tutorial: Book 1: Chapter 3: LEARNING TO READ AND WRITE IN ENGLISH

Becoming literate = not only learning how language is represented in writing but also learning how written language is represented in homes and community.

First encounters with printed language come from the environment around learners. Young learners are faced with the task of working out the many forms, functions and meanings of literacy. Young learners also become aware of what is expected of them when they will be accepted as readers and writers. They start to develop reader-like and writer-like behaviours (emergent literacy), thus displaying an understanding of how reading and writing are defined in their community. By internalizing the ways of their community, children are involved in the communal activity of sharing the culture. **Acquiring literacy** becomes a collaborative venture between the child and the community: each child will acquire a personal history of interactions with different language varieties, different speakers, readers and writers.

Different communities develop different literacy practices. The concept of literacy has different meanings and many implications. Children and adults learn different kinds of literacy in different ways, for different purposes. Being literate can mean different things in different communities: 1. essential literacy, 2. traditional literacy, 3. complementary literacy, and 4. functional literacy.

Literacy events (social events in which reading and writing take place) play a significant part in socializing children into literacy practices. Literacy events vary in different communities and therefore the ways in which children are introduced to literacy also vary. There is a flow of literacy-related activities in the home, some literacy events are even ritualized, e.g. the reading of a newspaper, solving crosswords, writing letters, cereal packet. So, literacy and the social context are entwined. Learners internalize the functions of reading and writing as well as the purposes of reading and writing.

Children are very highly motivated to work out how a language system works. They want to learn how to use language: shopping lists, letters...

Domains of literacy: daily living (newspaper reading, shopping lists), entertainment (number games: snakes and ladders), school-related activities (homework), religion (prayer), general information, interpersonal communication (social rituals: formulaic expressions).

Shirley Brice-Heath (p.82) studied literacy events in three US subcultures, focusing on differences of literacy practices.

Findings: Communities introduce children to “**different ways of taking meaning from literacy events**”.

Maintown: patterns of socializing children into the literacy event **matched** school traditions (*exploring reading*). The result was success in school.

Roadville: patterns of socializing children into the literacy event **incorporated** to achieve success (*instructing reading*).

Trackton: alternative literacy practices: rich language opportunities came not from books but from adult talk and oral narratives (*no reading involved – just observe adults talk*).

Different practices classified different social groups.

When children, with their different experiences of interacting with print, enter school, they will find that *some* of their literacy practices are valued. Others find that school literacy seems very different from the literacy they encountered in their homes.

Becoming a writer: writing in the formative years provides evidence that children are searching for the principles underlying the adult system(s). Children may combine all the signs they encounter in their environment: alphabetic script, syllabic symbols (Tel., St.), logographic (M for Mac Donalds), pictograms (road signs, traffic symbols). Numbers, letters, music notations, non-English symbols, as well as their own invented signs, all occur in collections of emergent writing. This combination of pictures and symbols occur frequently in children’s early writing and seems to indicate that children are not simply learning to produce a written script but are trying to reproduce a message (meaning), and this includes many iconographic elements of a cultural event.

Two principles are usually identified as the basis of the writing systems (p.87):

1. Symbols should represent meaning, or
2. Symbols should represent sounds.
 - A. Logographic writing systems, such as Chinese, where symbols (logographs) represent meaning
 - B. Syllabic writing systems, use symbols to represent syllabic units of sound
 - C. Alphabetic writing systems, such as European languages, where there is letter-to-sound representation. Alphabetic systems though are **not** exclusively sound-based. Alphabetic means that written symbols largely represent the phonemes of a language. Phonemes are the smallest units of sounds in a language which can distinguish two words, e.g. *pan* and *ban* /p/ and /b/.

The symbols in English often do not bear a direct relationship with the sounds. In English there are combinations that have silent letters or have to be memorized, e.g. **kn**ight, **throug**h. Others are thought of as syllabic, ending with **-tion**.

A child who begins to read English by recognizing whole words is interpreting English as logographic.

English-speaking children draw on their knowledge of letter sounds and letter names to produce their invented spellings, e.g. *MI* = my, *KAM* = came

Children learning to read and write face the task of sorting through the available information, rules about writing in order to work out the principles underlying their community writing system.

Working out the principles of writing:

Marie Clay claims that the principles children explore in their writing are:

1. The message concept: children start writing down a message
2. The copying principle: children start copying symbols
3. The directionality principle: children start writing in a particular way: left to right, up to down
4. The inventory principle: children list all the symbols they know
5. The space principle: children explore ways of separating words with spaces or dots

Yetta Goodman lists the principles controlling writing development:

1. The functional principle: Child's learning of how language is used, e.g. sending invitations, shopping lists (awareness of the functions of writing)
2. The relational principle: how written language corresponds to the world, e.g. size of an object and length of a word?
3. The linguistic principle: how different types of language require different types of language structures, e.g. *dear granny* marks the beginning of a letter; *once upon a time* marks the beginning of a story.

Goodman views children's writing development as a process of hypothesis making, experimentation and then refinement of hypothesis (active learners).

Both descriptions (Clay and Goodman) recognize the child's commitment to working out the rules of the writing system.

Children reconstruct their language systems, both spoken and written by discovering the rules by which they (the language systems) work.

In Reading

Children are actively involved in working out the literacy practices before schooling begins. Children have pre-conceived ideas on reading and writing which they form using the input from environment. These are modified later through schooling (cf. Shirley Brice-Heath and the literacy event p.82-83).

How well do children use all the available evidence to reach their conclusion? Do children have an active role or a passive role in the learning process? Are children receivers of knowledge or makers of meaning?

There is a marked shift away from reading as a skill to be acquired, towards reading as a system of meaning to be discovered. Reading happens not because children *have been fed information* on shapes, sounds and words, but because **they approach the text with the assumption that it is going to make sense** and that they can work out that sense by using everything they know about spoken language when attacking written language, i.e. using knowledge of a language to make sense of a text.

The use of real books that interest the learner is the focus of the new approach, rather than the meaningless exercises in letter sounds. Conditions for learning: enjoyable, motivating content.

Children can face considerable conflict if what they read does not represent their own culture.

- **Eve Gregory**: reading as a cultural practice modeling cultural practices (people, relationships...)
- **Vygotsky**: Language as a cultural tool

Language learning should be interactive: children should be engaged in uncovering meaning in texts. They should **explore the purposes and functions of reading and writing** and thus discover its organization. This proposition (idea) represents a shift in thinking about children and learning. It recognizes the child as an active participant able to draw on complex networks of understanding about literacy from a young age.

Main Points

1. Many young children have a continuous involvement with literacy from their earliest years. Literacy is part of their social world, and many children will experiment with its forms and functions long before they are formally introduced to it in school.
2. The learner of a written language has to sort out how literacy is used in a particular culture. Children are encouraged to perceive the written language as a valuable means of representing and communicating ideas.
3. Some literacy practices have been identified as significant for later educational success.

IV. Fourth Tutorial: Book 1: Chapter 4: ENGLISH AS A CLASSROOM LANGUAGE
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- The use of English as a medium for education in schools means that pupils should learn to use spoken English in “educated” ways.
- Educated speakers of English are able to use the language when they explain ideas, describe events or processes, and construct arguments

- There is a structural pattern of classroom talk: teachers initiate question to elicit information; pupils respond; teacher evaluates response or give feed back (**IRF** sequence)
- There are two types of questions: closed questions (one possible answer); and open-ended questions (involving analysis, interpretation = more than one possible answer)
- The cultural language practices of children’s communities may affect their participation in classroom dialogue
- Talk is used to share knowledge and construct joint understandings in ways that reflect the fact that the participants all have similar status in the discussion. Collaborative learning of this kind makes considerable demands upon the students’ ability to use language as a way of thinking together. The thinking and the talking in these circumstances become inseparable: language is being used, in an educationally appropriate way, as a *social mode of thinking*. So, learning how to generate such appropriate “educated” styles of English discourse is more than just the appropriate use of technical terms.
- Teachers use the English language in the classroom to direct and constrain the contributions that the pupils are expected to make
 1. Pupils have to learn the special ways of using English that apply in school
 2. Pupils have to use standard English if they have grown up speaking a non-standard variety of English
 3. Pupils have to learn English if they come from homes where English is not the mother-tongue
- In circumstances where English is used as the classroom language but where pupils’ first language is not English, a teacher may code switch to the first language if problems of comprehension arise
- Sometimes the first language is used for asides, for control purposes or to make personal comments
- Some bilingual classroom practices: key statement of topic in English; expansion, clarification or explanation in mother-tongue, restatement in English.
- Switch can be used to amplify the point being made, explain the main point in the mother-tongue, avoiding direct translation.
- Policy and practice in schools are often influenced by ideas about the supposed cognitive and social effects on children growing up bilingual
- Pupils educated in English have to learn certain educational “ground rules” or conventions for using spoken English in the classroom. These “ground rules” are rarely taught explicitly by the teacher. Students are expected to infer them from what the teacher says and does and gives as feed back
- The genre approach to the study and teaching of writing focuses on how written texts are expected to vary according to their nature and function. The genre approach underlines the importance of the social context on the way language is used (We will come back to these points in Week Six: Issues in English Teaching).
- **Main Points**
 1. Classrooms generate typical patterns which reflect the nature of teaching and learning as a social communicative process

2. According to their out of school experiences, pupils may find the genres or discourses of a classroom more or less intelligible or acceptable.
3. Every pupil who is being educated in English is expected to learn to use English in special ways, which means following the “ground rules” of spoken English use in the classroom, taking up the specialized vocabularies of the curriculum subjects and becoming able to present ideas within the constraints of the accepted genres or discourses of spoken and written language.
4. Where teachers and pupils are using English as a second language, other distinctive patterns of language use in the classroom also emerge. Teachers and pupils may code switch between languages in class.

11.2. Block Two: Teaching English [*Book 1, Chapters 5-8*]

V. Fifth Tutorial: Book 1: Chapter Five: A HISTORY OF ENGLISH TEACHING

- Changing definitions of English in different historical periods
- How English should be taught
- What should be taught

Anglo-Saxon The method of learning to read emphasized understanding meaning (Latin words translated to English).

Medieval Approach Learning to identify and pronounce individual letters: letters, then words, then sentences. Latin texts or scriptures read or chanted in churches.

After Norman Conquest (1066), Norman French and English were also necessary (alongside Latin) in the Medieval Period. The Normans in England started to integrate with the people they conquered, and eventually lost their French. English became the language of learning in grammar schools. Factors like the rise of Protestantism, the invention of printing and the growth in trade, helped limit the use of Latin and increase the use of English.

There were two diverging traditions of education in Europe:

1. **Latin-based education:** education in the classical language of Europe, originally organized by the Roman Catholic Church for the education of lawyers, clerics, administrators. This Latin-based education was available to only a small proportion of population (the professionals).
2. **Non Latin-based education:** education in the non-classical languages (e.g. English) led to the establishment of English as the language of education, both as a medium of instruction and as a school subject.

English was used as a language of instruction in the grammar schools. Latin remained predominant in the universities. By 1600, the teaching of English as a subject

appeared to be fairly well established in England. Textbooks on English (as a subject) stressed beginning with reading then proceeding to learn to write.

The Nineteenth Century

Literacy became associated with critical thinking and this, against the background of the French Revolution, was considered dangerous. A literate population was seen as a less manageable population.

Pamphlets circulating a range of opinions in England were not looked upon favourably by the government which took measures to censor and curtail the press.

As for public schools, English studies were neglected. Most of the population could only aspire to a form of basic education, which for most children meant Sunday schools, evening classes or factory schools (where children worked).

There were several views on English:

One approach was to discourage the teaching of reading and writing to the mass of the population. Literacy in English was seen as dangerous because literacy means reading, writing and thinking about texts).

Another approach was to encourage reading but not writing

Hannah Moore, who founded Sunday schools in 1790, did **not** agree with the prevalent view that learning was dangerous. Moore argued that teaching religion (obedience and piety) in fact helps maintain social order. Moore supported a limited level of instruction to fit pupils to be efficient workers and read their Bibles.

Demand for writing led to its being taught in some schools. **Alphabetism** – the mere recognition and copying of letters in sequence – was common. Children were taught the letters of the alphabet first, next two-letter words, then three...

English and the Celtic Languages

English in education meant the use of Standard English. The spread of Standard English was at the expense of regional dialects. In government-funded schools in Wales and Ireland, Standard English was accompanied by the suppression of Irish and Welsh.

English and Empire

In India and other parts of the British Empire there was no attempt to eradicate the local languages. In India and elsewhere in Asia, English was introduced as the language of the elite and as the language of higher education. Literacy was used to transmit cultural as well as linguistic values.

In Canada

Literacy was used to devalue cultures other than that of the literate elite.

An Alternative Approach to Literacy

Limited literacy available in formal education for working class was contrasted with what working class termed “proper literacy”, that is, familiarity with political works about rights and freedom.

The growing literacy of the working classes provided a readership for the emerging newspaper publishing and pamphleteering in 19th century Britain. This was the cause for considerable government concern and suppression.

English as a Proper Academic Study

English was not first regarded as a proper academic study until the 20th century. There was reluctance to introduce it beyond the elementary level.

Conclusion

Education in English was a matter not just of teaching certain types of knowledge and skills, but also of inculcating certain values and encouraging certain forms of social relations. This is evident in the use of literacy teaching to maintain the current social order in England and Canada; in the suppression of Celtic languages and cultures in other parts of UK; and in the promotion of European cultural values amongst an English educated elite in India.

Two major government reports that both reviewed and attempted to influence development in English teaching:

The Newbolt Report

The Newbolt Committee convened at the end of World War One to report on the position of English in the educational system.

- A major emphasis in the report was on national unity, “**an education based upon the English language and literature would have a unifying tendency**”.
- The report discussed how this could be achieved. *In literature*, it involved English taking the place of the Greek and Latin classics as **the** literature to be studied. *In language*, it involved **reducing class-based distinctions** in speech and writing by:
 1. Systematic training in the sounded speech of Standard English
 2. Systematic training in the use of Standard English, to secure clear and correct expression in speech and writing
 3. Training in reading

The Bullock Report

The Bullock Committee convened over 50 years later (1979), “to consider, in relation to schools, all aspects of teaching the use of English, including reading, writing and speech”.

- The Bullock Report was satisfied with the teaching practices
- The Bullock Report emphasized that, “competence in language comes above all through its purposeful use, not through working on exercises divorced from context”
- According to the Report, all subjects had a responsibility for the development of language across the curriculum.
- The Bullock report acknowledged diversity in pupils’ first language but highlighted the importance of teaching Standard English to help learners progress in society (job opportunities).

Approaches to the Teaching of English

Three modes of English as a curriculum subject embodied in British educational policy and practice:

1. **The Language Skill Model:** Language learning is learning the skills required by the examining boards: reading, writing, oral aspects and handwriting. Emphasis is on correctness. **Writing** covers the language aspect, with assessment on essay writing, précis, comprehension writing, no assessment of out-of-context grammar exercises. **Reading** covers the literature aspect (canon; shared culture embodied in a body of works.). So there was an attempt to integrate learning about language with learning how to use language (language in use). Also a feature was the increased attention to listening and speaking (oracy).
 2. **The Cultural heritage Model:** Literature and cultural heritage
The Newbolt Report aimed at the formation of a unified national culture. However, the Newbolt Committee was reluctant to have English substitute Greek and Roman classics. English studies initially competed by emphasizing discrimination. **Leavis' practical criticism** focused on the text as **context-free** and on the analysis of language as autonomous (i.e. language out-of-context). This trend took over emphasis on a shared culture; "the process of language has overtaken the content of literature; except by those studying English literature" (p.184).
 3. **Personal Growth:** This approach to teaching English emphasized personal development at the child's pace. The focus is on children's personal writings, a range of topics for children to choose from: allowing children's literacy to emerge through experience. Equal emphasis on ideas and style, i.e. writing for specific audience, not on correctness.
- **Later Development:** English language teaching is now officially seen as consisting of four aspects: reading, writing, speaking and listening. These were assessed through programmes of study and national assessment.
 - The controversies surrounding English are **not simply pedagogical:** English teaching has been seen as having to do with the transmission of cultural values.

VI. Sixth Tutorial: Book 1: Chapter 6: ISSUES IN ENGLISH TEACHING

- The role of Standard English in relation to other languages
- Teaching reading (Phonics or real books)
- Teaching writing (genre or process writing)

Emphasis in early stages should focus on free creative writing with technical considerations of grammar accuracy and correct spelling occupying as secondary position in the early stages.

English deals with values, culture and society: with powerful groups competing to control the values being transmitted.

Connections are made between language and national identity. In the Australian context, emphasis in education is on teaching the forms and usages associated with Australian Standard English whilst respecting students' home languages. Equal status of both standard and home language are emphasized, neither is superior to the other.

In other parts of the English-speaking world it is accepted that children should be given access, through formal education, to a standard variety of English, which in turn, gives them greater geographical and social mobility.

In Britain, Standard English is part of the curriculum. Issues are raised as to how Standard English is identified and how it relates to children's home language varieties. Standard English refers to a prestigious dialect with regard grammar and vocabulary; it may be spoken in any accent.

Characterization of Standard English:

1. It is relatively uniform throughout the English-speaking world
2. It is the variety used by educated native speakers
3. It is the variety used in formal contexts

In the case of written SE it has achieved considerable uniformity, being codified in dictionaries and grammar books.

Standard English in the British Curriculum

1. SE is distinguished from other forms of English by its vocabulary, and by rules and conventions of grammar, spelling and punctuation.
2. The grammar features that distinguish SE include how pronouns, adverbs and adjectives should be used, and how negatives, questions and verb tenses should be formed, such features are present in both the spoken and written forms except where non-standard forms are used for effect or technical reasons.
3. Differences between the spoken and written forms relate to the context of the situation: spoken is more spontaneous; written is more carefully crafted.
4. Spoken SE is **not** the same as Received Pronunciation; it can be expressed in a variety of accents.

Pupils should be taught to speak with clear diction (style) and appropriate intonation. They should be taught how formal contexts require particular choices of vocabulary and greater precision in language structures.

Newbolt Report (language and national unity)

Newbolt Report on the teaching of English in England stipulated that children should be taught spoken and written SE in the interest of national unity; a unified language help produce a unified nation.

Bullock Report argued that teachers should respect children's home varieties but should only teach Standard English. The aim is not to undervalue the home varieties of the children but to teach them how to use SE.

For children who come from homes where a non-standard variety is spoken, school instruction makes them replace their home variety by features from SE. This

replacement starts in the written mode first and more slowly later on in speech. The adoption of a language variety (SE) that differs from the home variety entails aligning oneself with the social group that speaks it, thus, alienating the speaker from the home culture.

Teaching Reading: What should be prioritized?

1. Make children see books as interesting and enjoyable (real books approach),
or
2. Enable children to decode marks on the page (phonic approach)?

The Phonics Approach (sound-symbol relationship)

Morris argues that children should be taught sound-spelling correspondence. The phonics approach to literacy is concerned with the relationship of sound and symbol. Pupils are taught by learning the sounds that letters make and joining these together in reading.

The phonics approach does not work on its own, because the links between the letters and the sounds are not that straightforward. Twenty-six letters are used to produce forty distinctive sounds, so some letters must correspond to more than one sound or in some cases with no sound, e.g. **k** in **knot** (silent letter). Moreover, if Phonics is taught by someone with non-standard phonetics, then confusion can result.

The Real Books Approach (exploratory reading)

Smith maintains that because of the lack of a one-to-one correspondence between sounds and letters in English, a phonic approach will not work.

In real books approach a child is encouraged to look for meaning and try to find out, through looking at pictures and turning the pages, what reading means.

The child approaches the written text with the assumption that it is going to make meaning. He starts recognizing the word and learns its meaning, aided by pictures and memorable symbols. Once the child makes the connection between a word and its meaning, he would recognize it on any other occasion and relate it straight away to its meaning.

Ideologically, the phonics approach has come to be associated with a transmission model of education where information and rules are transmitted from the teacher to the pupil, e.g. **a –apple**.

A real books approach claims to be more exploratory at dealing with education as a collaborative (joint) venture between teacher and learner.

Reading is not only “sounding the letter” but understanding the meanings associated with them. Pupils should be taught to read with fluency, accuracy, understanding and enjoyment. They should develop:

1. Phonic knowledge: focusing on the relationship between letter and sound
2. Graphic knowledge: focusing on letter shapes.
3. Word recognition: development of a vocabulary of a word.
4. Grammatical knowledge: knowledge of word order
5. Contextual knowledge: extracting meaning from text as a whole.

Learning Writing (process or genre writing?)

Process writing: focus on the process of writing (teaching one unified structure):

1. Choosing a topic
2. Brainstorming/Idea map
3. Drafting
4. Discussing
5. Revising
6. Editing

Essential structures are presented as a form of organization into which meaning must fit.

Genre Writing Focus on meaning (purpose, audience and message).

1. Writing for specific purposes
2. Varied requirements
3. Varied styles

A writer tries to express meaning through writing. Shape and structure emerge gradually.

In writing, pupils need to know both sentence grammars and the organization of the whole text:

1. Discourse structure: the structure of whole texts, paragraph structure, how different types of paragraphs are formed, openings and closings in different kinds of writings
2. Phrases, clauses and sentence structure; the use of complex grammatical structures; linking structures; use of main and subordinate clauses and phrases
3. Words: components (stem, prefix, suffix, inflections); grammatical functions of nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, demonstratives..
4. Punctuation: the use of punctuation marks; full stops, question and exclamation marks, commas, colons...

Teaching of grammar in modern times is used to enable pupils to analyze their writing.

VII. Seventh Tutorial: Book 1: Chapter 7: ENGLISH FOR SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

- Different contexts in which English is taught
- Varying needs of different learners
- Debates surrounding the teaching of English
- The particular variety of English that should serve as a model for learners
- The methods that should be used to teach English: content/styles/functions/topics available

- Social and cultural values that are bound up with English teaching and the sorts of identities learners are invited to construct for themselves as speakers of English

Teaching English =

1. Teaching the words, sounds, grammar, and
2. Teaching the ways of using the English language as codified in grammar books, dictionaries and textbooks.

Motives for learning English: material rewards

Fears: resistance of what is imposed

English for the needs of different learners:

1. Bilingual students: bilingual programmes that start by offering extra lessons in English and then introduce the teaching of an increasing number of subjects through the medium of English as the child progresses up the school.
2. English for adults (English for specific purposes)
3. English as a second language (and the increased demand for English):
 - In France, pupils study 4 hours per week English as a second language
 - In Malaysia: post colonial history made competence in English essential for work
 - In Morocco: English is becoming increasingly important at university level
 - In Brazil: private schools teach English. English language teaching also at university level. Students have a choice between British English and American English, but often choose British English to signal rejection of USA power in the region.
4. English language teaching is becoming a global industry
5. English language teaching = access to wider opportunity

Where the emphasis is on integration of minority groups into the dominant culture, provision for languages other than English may receive little attention.

In making appropriate provision, teachers have to consider the learners' needs and aspirations, the language skills they already possess in both languages, other skills they may make use of, any barriers to learning and ways of overcoming them.

Serious thought needs to be given to the variety of English chosen for specific groups of learners; the type of English needed for work or study.

Learners can respond successfully to strategies for learning English, especially when the content meets their interests. Two overall strategies are considered in second language learning:

1. The translation method (literal translation of a text, then grammar focused methods)
2. Teaching spoken English first, followed by intensive drilling exercises where English alone is used, no translation

In drilling, understanding of the language becomes less important than producing it on demand. Drills may work well for some learners providing them with a way into communication.

A major reaction to drilling comes from sociolinguists interested in communicative competence. In communicative competence a language user cannot only produce correct sounds and correct grammatical structures. He also needs to know how to use spoken and written language appropriately, for different audience, and how to integrate linguistic skills with other non-linguistic communicative means: gestures, eye contact.

New Approaches to Language Teaching

1. Errors are welcomed as they indicate that a learner is engaged in hypothesizing and testing rules of the new language
2. Comprehensible input (Krashen, 1981) is seen as the method that can help learners improve language learning
3. Feedback should focus on meaning (content) rather than form
4. Communicative approaches to language teaching propose that learners need to be taught language functions as well as language forms

Language structures used to make appointments, for example, are different from the ones used to give explanations, or collect information.

As new learners of English approach the language, different positions are constructed for them; as regards what is legitimate and permissible to discuss in the new language, new possibilities and restrictions are presented.

Some learners welcome new positions offered to them by the new language, e.g. new gender positioning with more acceptable roles as to what to say and how to say it. Language choices, therefore, are socially conditioned, i.e. transformed by the culture associated with the language.

Sociopolitical Concerns

Teaching English for speakers of other languages is not a neutral activity. Teaching of a language is also a way of transmitting its cultural values.

Some learners do not “want to be anglicized” (Course Book, p.263), or to merge their national identity in an imported civilization (rejection of linguistic imperialism).

The solution was to present English as an international language:

1. To persuade people that English is a neutral, international possession, not ours – but all of ours
2. Persuade people of the merits of English: social mobility, international communication
3. Promise rewards for those who use English: job opportunities, brighter future...

VIII. Eighth Tutorial: Book 1: Chapter 8. ENGLISH IN THE ACADEMIC WORLD

- English as the medium of communication in higher education
- What constitutes academic English
- How is its nature related to its functions?
- How are students in higher education expected to use English?
- What kinds of problems do students encounter with academic English?
- What kinds of help are students offered?

The Role of English in Academia

English was introduced as a language of education in the time of the British Empire. Support for the academic use of English throughout the world has been a part of the foreign policy of British governments. Also, the role of the USA in research and academia increased the role of English as the language of academic publishing. English has become the *lingua franca* for scholars of different language backgrounds.

Political and Cultural Implications

Phillipson (1992) uses the term *linguistic imperialism* to describe the process whereby a powerful language displaces other languages in their social functions (use), and in doing so assists the cultural influence of the nations which speak it.

The causes and effects of the global spread of English in higher education are complex and many.

What Constitutes Academic English?

Scholars in each discipline (discourse communities) established their own conventions and practices as regards ways of representing their specific subjects and areas of research (ways of written communication).

Halliday has suggested that one common feature of these research-specific ways of communication involve creating new “thing names” to refer to specific objects, processes and relationships. New lexical forms are developed through:

1. Reinterpreting existing words
2. Inventing totally new words
3. Creating new words out of native word stock
4. Creating new words out of non-native word stock
5. Borrowing words from another language
6. **Calquing**: creating new words in imitation of another language
7. Creating **locutions**; larger structures (phrases and clauses) to explain new terms, processes

Student studying any subject or discipline have to understand and eventually speak and write the specialized English discourse of the relevant discourse community. Discourse communities, i.e. communities that use specific discourse (spoken and written language); e.g. scientific communities, research communities, can overlap in their use of their specific discourse. They may use English in similar ways.

Conventional sections of academic writing involve five main parts that relate to five main functions:

1. Abstract: a summary of the research
2. Introduction: establishing the field of the study; summarizing previous research and indicating any gaps of knowledge and introducing current research
3. Methods: ways employed in carrying out the present research
4. Results: findings
5. Conclusion: interpretation of results in relation to set aims and way forward for future research

Academic writing, in general, involves the use of specialized lexis, specific structures and impersonal (objective) style. However, there are some culture-specific ways of representation even in academia. French research relies more on comparative styles, i.e. presenting a thesis (one side of the argument) and an antithesis (the other side of the argument). The British style is more oriented towards presenting logical sequencing of analysis from general to specific (deductive) or specific to general (inductive).

Contrastive Rhetoric examines how language use varies in style across different cultures, specifically variations in styles of writing. Major differences were established between the writing styles of, following *Kachru's* terminology, the *inner circle* (English-speaking countries) and *outer circle* (English as the second/additional language countries). Research established that deviations from the styles of the inner circle were negatively evaluated and seen as problematic. This attitude influenced much of the judgment of academic works that were conducted by non-native speakers of English; their work was regarded as inferior to that of native speakers, e.g. Indian academic work. There is a need to recognize such works as different but not inferior.

For an approach to be academic, the style should include *explicit reasoning* in the text so that other researchers can evaluate that line of argument. The use of the specific lexis that relates to the subject matter is also expected in academic writing. Academic success usually depends on following the conventions for academic English in the relevant field of study. An important aim of higher education is to enable students to become fluent speakers of the discourse of the relevant academic communities. Surface features of spelling, grammar and punctuation as well as styles in composing sentences and writing essays, are areas of concern in writing academic English.

Students whose mother-tongue is English need to become competent in academic English: use of specific lexis that is relevant to their subject matter, correct grammar structures and appropriate writing styles, to become academic writers in English. The problem is doubled for non-native speakers of English. ESL (English as a second language) learners have to become competent in their use of specific lexis, correct structures and academic writing, as well as competent in the general use of English in social contexts.

Learning how to use English in higher education means learning how to communicate appropriately **and** use correct English. This means learning new ways of doing things. These ways may be culture-specific, e.g. turn-taking in seminars, debates; proxemics (physical distance between speakers); use appropriate register to make comments

(what is acceptable in one culture may not be acceptable for the other, e.g. jokes, taboos).

Ballard (1984) uses the term *cultural shift* to describe the learning demands made on native English speakers as they start to deal with academic English in higher education, and *double cultural shift* to refer to the experience of non-native speakers of English in using academic English in higher education. Learning academic English is, therefore, learning the rules of a new culture not just the learning of a language (new ways of speaking, new ways of writing and new ways of behaving in academia).

Ivanic (1992) argues that university culture puts pressure on students to change their identity. In order to become a writer of “academic English” a student has to become sensitive to the sociocultural context of the specific academic (discourse) community to which he wishes to join. Academic discourse includes specific lexical and grammatical features and ways of communication. Learning academic English means learning the set of skills which gives you command of all these features.

Approaches developed to help students:

- The study skills approach
 - English for academic purposes
 - The genre analysis approach
1. The study skills approach: includes teaching students how to plan and prepare essays (note taking; writing introductions and conclusions), time management, preparation for exams; general studying skills. The focus is on general common errors of usage, spelling and punctuation.
 2. English for academic purposes: focus on teaching students correct linguistic ways of representing their ideas (correct sentence structures; correct textual organization); in general, ways of using academic English.
 3. The genre analysis approach (Halliday): Students are encouraged to read a wide range of different genres to become aware of the range of genres and registers that they may encounter or have to use in their **specific subject areas**. The rationale was that by paying attention to the specific language forms and structures (specific vocabulary, grammar, and organizational features) of the texts they read, students would become more able to develop their own writing skills. The aim was to give students a **practical understanding** of academic discourse through the analysis of texts and through making explicit the conventions of each genre.

11.3. BLOCK 3: REDESIGNING ENGLISH: NEW TEXTS, NEW IDENTITIES [Book 2, Chapters 1- 4]

IX. Ninth Tutorial: Book 2: Chapter 1. TEXT, TIME AND TECHNOLOGY IN NEWS ENGLISH

- Discourse structure of news stories (in relation to time)
- Different levels of language structure in modern news and news stories (immediacy; urgency)
- Time as a crucial element bearing on the way news stories are constructed

The invention of the telegraph was the crucial step in the development of modern news practices and forms in pursuit of immediacy.

In news stories, there is the quest to get the story first. Technological advances put pressure on news producers in the pursuit of timeliness in news coverage and presentation, that is, reporting events as they occur.

William Brewer, a sociolinguist, makes the distinction between **event structure**, that is, the way in which events happen, and **discourse structure**, that is, the order in which the events are told. There is only one event structure but many discourse structures. That is, the ways of presenting events can vary from chronological presentations to urgency or latest presentations.

Labov, a sociolinguist, separated six elements in personal narrative:

1. The abstract; summarizes the central action and main point.
2. The orientation: sets the scene and provides information on who, what, when and where
3. The complicating action: a series of events (told in chronological order)
4. The evaluation: justifies the values of the story
5. The resolution: concludes the sequence of events
6. The coda: additional remarks bridging the gap between narrative time (the time when the events happened) and real time (the present time).

News stories differ from personal narrative in that events are presented in reverse order of actual occurrence, starting with the most recent update on story, then going back in time. News stories do not follow the order of narrative. Instead they present the main event first then go to details, because they have different functions than personal narrative. News stories have the function of:

1. Capturing attention
2. Emphasizing certain points
3. Presenting *subjective* judgment

Discourse Structure of News Story

1. Event introduced first, then detail
2. Radical discontinuity of time between sentences (non chronological ordering)

A news story normally consists of an abstract, an attribution and a story proper:

1. The abstract consists of a lead sentence covering the main event. This is followed by some information on actors and setting
2. The attribution: source, place and time
3. Series of events are related next: events describe the actors involved and the actions taking place.

There are three additional categories of material in news story: background, commentary and follow up. These represent the past, the (non-action) present, and the future of the events described in the main action of the story.

Discourse structure of news story and non chronological ordering (deviant time structure) was brought about by the advances of technology which focused on recency or immediacy in news coverage. Events whose duration fits into a 24-hour span are more likely to be reported than other events. Also, unexpectedness (unpredictable or rare events) is more newsworthy than the routine.

Several news values relate to the production and processing of news rather than to its content. Production and processing are time-bound elements, either present (co-), e.g. continuity, competition, or future (pre-), e.g. predictability, prefabrication.

Continuity means that stories have a life cycle, a time period during which they can stay alive in the news. Competition is the urge to get the news first.

The news is seldom a solo performance. News media are produced by multiple contributors: journalists, editors, news readers, sound technicians, camera men.

Goffman, a sociolinguist, studied composite discourse: discourse made up of more than one contributor, and the different roles of different people. Bakhtin, a Soviet linguist, used the term **heteroglossia**, to refer to many voices that mix in a single text.

Much of what is reported is paraphrased or quoted from other sources (different voices). Journalists draw on both spoken and written inputs for their stories (main and secondary sources):

- interviews
- public address
- press conference
- written text of spoken address
- reports, surveys, letters, agendas, research papers, etc.
- earlier stories on a topic
- news agency copy
- journalist's notes

Reports are then edited and new versions are produced. Information is organized as own, or referenced as quotes. **Embedding** is a type of **heteroglossia** in which one speech event is incorporated into another. Narrators of all kinds of stories are constantly embedding strips of others' talk and quotations from others' speech into their stories, through the use of recording technology.

The concept of embedding is very important in news discourse. It allows coverage of events to appear “on the spot” when journalists are not ready to face unscheduled news events. Embedding allows other people’s reporting, or accounts of what happened to be included in the news; eye witness’ account, comments of by-standers.

News stories sometimes rely on prefabricated texts (texts that have already been packaged in news format and style). Prefabricated texts are written and available and can be transformed with minimum effort into news. Prefabricated texts are another type of heteroglossia as they involve many voices and contributors.

Immediacy and urgency: Live coverage in broadcast news: studio presenters interview news sources and journalists live on air. Changes to forms of English brought about by the live coverage include: deictic expressions, adverbs of time, verb tenses...

X. Tenth Tutorial: Book 2: Chapter 2: VISUAL ENGLISH: THE STUDY OF VISUAL COMMUNICATION

- Technological advances have put increased pressure on English to adapt itself (to change) to suit new demands made on it.
- Different types of visual literacy that people use in different contexts, for different purposes.
- Visual and verbal information interact:
 1. to create additional meaning
 2. to highlight a conflict between the two modes (visual and verbal in transmitting the message)
- Visual forms of communication (the ways graphics and pictures can communicate a message) are culturally specific and highly conventionalized
- Visual literacy is becoming an essential skill in the world of work
- Until recently verbal English (not the visual form) was regarded as the mode of serious communication. However, people use their knowledge of *visual* codes to interpret *written* information.
- Modern English texts are becoming multimodal (incorporating multi-modes in communicating meaning: photographs, changes of typeface, logos, headings). Therefore, visual forms are being incorporated into traditional verbal methods of written communication like print.
- “Not being *visually literate* will begin to attract social sanctions. Visual literacy will begin to be a matter of survival especially in the workplace” (p.39).
- Advances of technology meant endless possibilities for customizing documents to individual preferences (selecting color, font, margins, logos, graphs...), a similar situation to the individual touch of different scribes in the *Medieval* period, bringing about the terminology of New Middle Ages (p.41)
- Most educational and commercial institutions are attempting to standardize their visual communication by promoting one “house style”: a standardized prescription for internally produced documents to eliminate chaotic, individual styles of presentation (c.f. attempts to standardize English). They produce guidelines to create uniformity. These guidelines are prescriptive in nature, involving words like *should*, *must*

- Dondis (p.42) “language has moved ... towards iconic (representations of meaning). However, these icons are culturally-specific forms of visual representation.
- Culture, language and “seeing”: 1. types of images one is exposed to are culturally specific; 2. learning how to “read” and interpret these images depends on cultural conventions. Therefore, semiotic symbols are more appropriate to one’s cultural context than others. Symbols related to prototypes (typical things) of a specific culture. Few are universal (iconic).
- Graphosemantics (p.44): the relationship between letter forms and interpretations, e.g. *grey* and *gray* (different spelling conventions in different standardized varieties) may be interpreted in two different ways: *grey* (positive connotations, e.g. she has lovely grey eyes) and *gray* (negative connotations, e.g. it was a gray gloomy day).
- Semiotics of typography: people interpret change of font or typeface as message conveying mechanism (font and typeface in formal letter and a letter from a friend are different). Changes of type can also imply multiple voices in a text. So content and form are inextricably interlinked: different meanings transmitted through different formats. The semiotic aspect (sign system) is related to the semantic aspect (meaning).
- Visual alliteration: visual repetition even when there is no phonetic repetition (pp.48-49), e.g. *OWN IT NOW ON VIDEO*; use of anagrams (similar) graphic elements. *FINS* (symbol of a fish restaurant, p.49).
- Visual puns: relying on funny connections between words, sounds and the idea being discussed. These are also culturally specific (mostly employed by popular newspapers to discuss current events, e.g. figure 2.12, p.50).
- Visual grammar: analysts of visual literacy claim that there is a “grammar” inherent in images; that visual elements contain grammatical structures, visual syntax and principles of spatial composition. According to the functional theory on language use, Halliday says that “a language is as it is because of what it has to do” (p.52).
- The Hallidayan functional perspective is useful because it brings to attention different meanings related to different functions of language and different purposes of speakers, addressing someone as *Mr Jones* is different from addressing him as Mike. The interpretation of such styles draws on the relationships between the two participants, the formality of the occasion, the intended message to the audience ... Some analysts of visual representation take a similar view: the ways events are represented visually carry social significance, “the form of a representation cannot be divorced from its purpose and requirements of the society in which the given visual language gains currency (is used)” (p.52).
- Semiotic modes, i.e. systems of signs (words, pictures, sounds) have three communicative functions:
 1. Ideational – representing ideas;
 2. Interpersonal – representing relationships; attitudes (subjective aspect)
 3. Textual – combining the ideational and interpersonal meanings into a text
- The Hallidayan approach bases much of the interpretation on the concept of choices made among alternatives, i.e. why are specific words or symbols chosen and not others? How do these choices contribute to the meaning-

building mechanism? Choices in person (1st, 2nd, 3rd), tense (past, present, future), mood (statement, question, command), each add an element of meaning

- **Grammatical Elements:**

Direct and Indirect Address: (p.53-54)

1. Does the verbal language address the listener or reader directly, i.e. through the use of second person *you*?
2. Does the image address the viewer directly, i.e. the person in the poster looking at the viewer? (fig. 2.13, p.54)

Given-New Structures: (p.54-56)

These are realized sequentially: given information is already known to the participants; new information is not already known, e.g.

Tense, nervous, headache? Take Aspirin (p.55)

In images such structures are transcoded by the use of horizontal axis. Images, given and new are represented spatially through left and right positioning or before and after images.

Visual Transitivity: (p.56-57)

Transitivity in the Hallidayan approach is a set of choices for representing what is going on in the world:

Processes: event, action, transaction

Participants: actor (doer of the event); goal (target of the event)

Different representations depend on the writer and the context

Modality: visualizing the “real” (degree of representing reality) (p.58)

A sharply detailed, fine grained photograph = high modality

No detail = low modality

Decisions have to be made as to what to include and what to exclude (what types of realities need to be represented and to what degree)

Modality depends on the context in which the images appear. Images are altered in relation to audience, e.g. black and white images were used by astronomers (easier to interpret than colours which can confuse the eye)

- **Visual Narratives:** multimodal narratives, e.g. cartoons, employ multimodal features: **paralinguistic features** e.g. facial expressions, gestures and postures; **proxemic indicators**, i.e. how characters are positioned (close, far); **pictorial representation**, e.g. starts after a bump or light bulb to show that one has a great idea; **intonation**, e.g. characters accent, pitch, stress...

- **Visual Deixis:** (p.65-66) references to time and place

Visual shapes are employed to show deictic expressions like *then* and *now*. Colour is used to refer present events and back and white to refer to past events

- **Portraying Interpersonal Relationships:** through camera angle:

Horizontal angle represents involvement or distance (close up or long shot)

Vertical angle represents power relationships, e.g. celebrities look down on viewer

- Different languages and cultures express visual narrative structures in different ways.
- Creating meaning = interaction of visual elements and verbal English, presented to the eye, as well as contextual and background knowledge.
- Visual and verbal modes of communication in film can **each** fulfil **similar** functions:
 1. They can represent the world – ideas – ideational function
 2. They can portray interpersonal relationships
 3. They can organize elements into texts.
- To sum up: texts are becoming increasingly multimodal: employing visual and verbal semiotic modes. The meanings ascribed to visual information are to a large extent socially constructed and culturally dependent.

XI. Eleventh Tutorial: Book 2: Chapter 3: ENGLISH N CYBERSPACE

- The role of English in cyberspace
- Novel ways of using English in cyberspace
- Implications on social groups and social relations
- Rapid growth of communication technology and the ease of communication between different parts of the world afforded by such technology is leading to new forms of communication and new social grouping, dispersed communities, and altered perceptions of time and space. The world is becoming a “global village”.
- The imaginary space created by the Internet in which people interact and form social relationships is called cyberspace. Therefore the Internet is both a technological and a social phenomenon.
- Communication on the Internet takes a variety of forms: electronic mail (e-mail) and World Wide Web pages. The Internet is playing a major part in the massive expansion in global communication. Such a transformation in patterns of communication has the potential to transform with it the quality of human relationships, as well as social and political implications.
- Internet communication allows people to construct and project different social identities for themselves, “freeing them from the tyrannies of face to face communication” in which their personality and social status will be signaled through physical attributes such as colour, body shape, accent and clothing. It also enables people to engage in a wide range of diverse cultural practices.
- Internet is raising anxieties and aspirations on individual personal relationships. Jon Snow (British news journalist) presents a negative view on political and cultural consequences of the Internet: 1. Individual tailored experiences from the net leading to individualized (fragmented) cultures; 2. Instead of mass orientation to national culture, individual preferences override national interests
- **Dale Spender:** freedom to choose rather than having to take-in what is given (transmission model).
- **English and the Internet:** The Internet **does** support communication in other languages than English; communication **across** national groups tends to be in

English. The language most affected by English dominance on the Internet is probably French, which is the most widely used international *lingua franca* after English. The French government has established a World Wide Web site which is intended to encourage the use of French on the Internet.

- English is spreading *Anglophile* culture all over the world
- **New Texts: New Genres**
Although much Internet communication, e.g. e-mail, is text-based, the texts which circulate do not display the characteristics of traditional print genres. They show the characteristics of spoken rather than written language (spontaneous, informal...). New forms of text are more fluid and dynamic in nature due to the influence of electronic media. This in turn influences the new social relationships of participants in Internet communication.
- Multi-modal texts (picture, text, sound) are encoded at one end and transmitted to a recipient anywhere in the world where it is decoded.

- **Economics of Writing**

Bolter (p.120-121) sees a relationship between materials and techniques of writing as a social and cultural interaction with the written texts and reading. The relationship is termed **economy of writing**. **Bolter** argues that each culture has its own economy of writing (what relationships are perceived, encoded and transmitted between writer, text and reader). According to **Bolter**, new **economics of writing** are created when a text is encoded and stored, following specific cultural conventions, in electronic form (computer memory, disks, etc.). Also, electronic texts are malleable **not fixed**, and this allows for a new role for the reader to alter the texts. Thus his role is no more a passive receiver of fixed texts.

- Since Internet texts are modes of communication rather than just writing modes, a more useful terminology would be **new economics of communication**. These **economies of communication** are based on various forms of electronic texts and are central to the linguistic interaction taking place. The result is many new forms of texts, and different modes of communication:

1. Interactive texts available on the Internet provide access to information at the touch of a button
2. E-mails are asynchronous (not instant) modes of communication
3. Chat is synchronous (instant) mode of communication

- In examining influence of the advances of technology on language (cf. printing and the standardization of English – U210A), we examine the effect in areas of **diversity** or **unification**. At any historical period, social, economic, political and technological structures can lead to greater or lesser tendencies towards **unification** or **diversification**. **Bakhtin** (p.124) calls these **centripetal** (pulling *towards* the center = unifying) and **centrifugal** (pulling *away* from the center = diversifying) forces.

- Written form provides **fixivity** (Bolter, 1991) or **fixity** (Anderson, 1991) to a language, i.e. the ability to ensure that the content does not change over time. They are fixed through a **permanent** medium like print.

- **Michael Halliday** sees that the structure of language reflects its social role: The embedded and lexically dense structure of written language reflects its social role as the **fixed** legitimate bearer of historical and contemporary knowledge. The open-ended, less information-dense clause structure of spoken language reflects the active and dynamic social roles to which it is put. Thus, **fixity** depends on maintaining rigid form that defies change. But electronic communication threatens the fixity of print:
 1. Electronic texts have a transient and changing form
 2. Electronic communication appears to be more like speech in its clause structure.

The set of rules constraining the structure of the electronic text changes according to the preferences of the reader/writer/ communicator, i.e. **no fixity**. Therefore, the first effect of electronic communication on language use is its **challenge to fixity**. Texts became accepted as fluid and dynamic.

- **New Texts, New Subjectivity**

Interaction with texts helps form perceptions on self, others, and the world (**subjectivity**). New forms of English language are coming into being which allow individuals to construct new subjectivities and identities through new methods of communication. The lack of physical location and presence may have direct effects upon the way in which people communicating in such media perceive and present themselves. The second influence of electronic communication on language use is that different forms of communications and different texts are produced blurring the distinction between the writer and the text (perception of self and text entwined).

- **Imagined Communities**

Language has been associated, in literary communities, with nationalism (organic solidarity)

Durkheim argues that the medium of *writing* supports specific kinds of social relations. The role of written, especially printed language has become central in industrialized societies. **Derrida** claims that writing, rather than speech, must be considered the “primary” medium of social communication.

- **Theories on literacy**

Theories on literacy need to take into account the effects of literacy upon individuals’ perception of the world and of themselves. **Brian Street** distinguished between an autonomous model of literacy (literacy independent of context) and **the ideological model** which consists of **literacies**, each literacy associating with a specific social role. **Shirley Brice-Heath** also identified different types of **literacies**, or literacy practices, in three communities in the USA, each associated with different perceptions and ideologies. So, how can the new technology of reading and writing in Internet communication affect our perceptions and ideologies (i.e. change subjectivity)?

- **Mediating Nationality**

Although the technology of the Internet may favour the use of the English language, its users, for various textual practices, are able to express their national identities. The

reason for this is that: for an individual to imagine himself as part of a community, the language he uses must provide a *fixed* linguistic and ideological basis. But cyber communication and its language are not fixed, therefore, the language of cyber communication cannot make a claim on national identity.

Unlike printing, which allowed specific social groups to put in place conceptions of nationhood, these media could play the role of removing “imagined communities” of nationalism, in favour of other communities based either upon global economic ideologies or patterns of personal interest and opinion.

XII. Twelfth Tutorial: Book 2: Chapter 4: MARKET FORCES SPEAK ENGLISH

- **Border Crossing:** a term associated with Norman Fairclough, a British discourse analyst, to describe a phenomenon in post-industrialized societies where forms of English language associated with one situation are crossing borders into new situations.
- Implications of border crossing: linguistic behaviour is changing as a result of new developing social relationships.
- Traditional hierarchical social structures are becoming more fluid and precarious. Relationships based on traditional roles, obligations and authorities are changing. People’s self-identity, rather than being a feature of **given propositions and roles** is reflexively built up through processes of negotiation.
- Border Crossing in English: the extent to which English forms are crossing into new contexts. We focus in this chapter on two processes of border crossing: informalization and marketization.
- **Informalization:** English becoming more informal in situations previously associated with the use of formal English. Boundaries are becoming blurred between formal and informal. Professional encounters are becoming “conversationalized” (Fairclough, 1994). Institutions are increasingly using less formal, more conversational styles. In many contexts, the public and professional sphere is becoming infused with private discourse.
- There are two points of view:
 1. Positive: The use of more everyday English in a widening range of contexts is a good thing because it allows people to understand and participate in interactions more easily.
 2. Negative: The use of informalization by people in power can be manipulative to ordinary people, it implies the existence of a friendly relationship when, in fact, such relationship does not exist.
- **Marketization:** English texts are becoming increasingly market-oriented or marketized. Advertising and selling techniques are becoming a feature of institutional texts that attempt to position their readers in a certain way to become more “involved” in the process. Linguistic forms **indicating status, involvement, rights and obligations** are used and **resisted** in marketization.
- Border crossing takes place between forms of English that traditionally have been seen as distinct:

1. Formal and informal
2. Public and private
3. Informative and promotional

- **Markers of informalization:**

Some of the markers of informal English are crossing into situations more traditionally associated with formal English forms:

- Terms of address: title and surname to first name
- Use of pronouns: pronominal distinction associated with status and respect, e.g. *vous*, are shifting towards personalized *tu*
- Diminutive suffixes: (-ie, -y) are used to convey intimacy and familiarity (Deborah, Debbie; James, Jamie) associated with childhood names
- Names shortened or nick names given: Richard becomes Ric or Rich, strategies of intimacy and endearment
- Contractions of negative, e.g. wouldn't, or auxiliary verbs, e.g. he'll, is associated with informal spoken English, not the formal written mode
- Use of more informal vocabulary
- Use of the active rather than the passive voice
- Intonation to signify informality: different "voice" associated with friends' talk

Reason: Informalization is used to build and maintain social bonds; to make English more accessible; whereas formality is used to create and maintain professionalism, keep people at a distance or address subordinates.

- **Plain English in Public and Professional Domain:**

Attempts to simplify the language of institutions by making it more comprehensible to the public through minimizing "bureaucratese" or "officialese" and using instead plain English.

Official or public English is increasingly using the linguistic resources of informal or "private" discourse to give the impression of informality (listening to a friend) in official discourse (election pamphlet, information on tax). Textual cues are used to foreground informality; a small segment of informal English in an otherwise formal document is used to convey an impression of informality. The use of inclusive pronouns (we, our) to imply social solidarity and shared concerns.

Two viewpoints on "conversationalism" in formal discourse:

1. It is used to create linguistic and social solidarity with audience
2. It can be a strategy to exercise power in more subtle ways.

- **The Marketization of English:**

Many of the forms of informal English are widely used in the discourse of sales to persuade customers:

- Use of slogans
- Alliterative styles that stick in the head
- Ways of speaking (representatives are trained **to speak effectively: what to say; how to say it; when to say it**)

- Linguistic strategies for personalizing the sales encounter:
 1. Establishing personal links: shared world, solidarity
 2. Use of inclusive pronouns that imply unity between speaker and audience
 3. Use of deictic reference related to proximity (here) to minimize distance
 4. Use of generic (general) statements that imply high modality (degree of truth).

- **Border Crossing between Spoken and Written Modes:**

Many written texts also incorporate visual or verbal elements that suggest speech. Devices used in print to imply speech are another aspect of **informalization**:

1. Typographical devices: changes of case, size, emphasis
2. Speech bubbles
3. Punctuation: exclamation marks; question marks
4. Triadic structures: presenting a proposition (idea) in three parts
5. Semi-phonetic representations of non-standard English, e.g. *wot* (what), *yer* (your), speech styles that are associated with social values
6. Intonation: can be implied visually by repetition of letters, e.g. *b-b-but* or changes in font size.

- **The Marketization of Official English:**

crossing between advertising and information; crossovers between visual and verbal; spoken and written English is intended to position the reader to fill in the gaps and become involved. The marketization of official English makes the information clearer, less intimidating and easier to understand. Leaflets explaining government policy and setting out new regulations are designed to soften the impact through informalization.

- **Resisting:**

Marketization implies a passive, “acted upon” audience who is being subjected to the malign influences of politics and industrialized market. However, consumers (viewers, customers) develop ways for “talking back”.

Producers of texts try to create preferred meanings **but** the inferential abilities of readers probe beneath phrases that are intended to misguide them and regard them as instances of low modality concealing facts

- **Working Practices: C**

Communicative skills have become vocational (work-related) essentials. Institutions have introduced lexical changes, taking on board the social values encoded within language.

Institutional language design: employers are required to speak in certain ways rather than others, to respond according to script and to use the same script as any other employee.

- **Conclusion:** Some changes in English use (informalization, marketization) display the need to gain public approval. Methods that imply social solidarity with audience may sometimes be fraudulent.

11.4. BLOCK 4: REDESIGNING ENGLISH: NEW TEXTS, NEW IDENTITIES [Book 2, Chapter 5]

XIII. Thirteenth Tutorial: Book 2: Chapter 5. GLOBAL ENGLISH: GLOBAL CULTURE?

- The English language: *the* global language: a dominant world language
 - One out of five of the world's population speak English
 - By the year 2000, it is estimated that over one billion people will be learning English
 - English is the main language of books, newspapers, airports and air traffic control, international business and academic conferences, science, technology, diplomacy, sport, international competitions, pop music and advertising
- The predominant position of English arose from colonial expansion of the British Empire followed by the American technological and economic hegemony
- The success of English in becoming the *lingua franca* is also due to some linguistic characteristics:
 - English language is rich in monosyllables (easy to learn)
 - English language is capable of absorbing foreign words
 - English language is flexible in forming neologisms (new words)
- Positive view: English as a language of economic opportunity; improve individual position
- Negative view: The spread of a single language across the globe implies the destruction of linguistic and cultural diversity. Also regarded as a global mechanism for structuring inequalities both between **the West** and **the rest**, and within population of non-western countries (elite and masses).

So, the spread of English creates differences and fragmentation as well as uniformity

- Colonization was responsible for the first stages of the spread of English. In the twentieth century, new forces and processes came into play. Technological developments, economic globalization and improved communications have played a role in the new global flow of English. With these new flows, a changing pattern of identities and social relations have emerged.

• **The Utopian Dream and the Global Rise of English**

A shared world language has been a Western dream since the Renaissance. With the rise of nationalism symbolized in a national language, there was a diversity of spoken languages in the autonomous territories in Europe.

The English language **during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries** expanded and developed; raised from vernacular status to a vehicle of literature, science and government.

During the eighteenth century it was regularized (grammar books and dictionaries), documented (Samuel Johnson's dictionary) and standardized.

At the beginning of the Renaissance Latin served as an effective *lingua franca* for the elite. Latin had a dual function:

1. It permitted communication between elite groups in different European countries
2. It served as a "secret language" to include and exclude social groups. In the world today, English is fulfilling a similar function.

With the decline of Latin, there was a need for an international language that could replace Latin and deal with new domains of knowledge.

By the end of the eighteenth century attempts were made to simplify French from the viewpoint that a simpler form of an existing language can replace Latin and serve as the new *lingua franca*.

French, during the eighteenth century was the language of diplomacy and international commerce. By the second half of the nineteenth century, English was challenging French as an international language:

3. Because of Britain's role in the industrial revolution
 4. Britain's increased role in trade
 5. The expansion of the British Empire which created a major trading network between Britain and its colonies, all administered through the English language.
- After World War One the growing influence of English was a cause of concern to other major European languages; particularly French and German.
 - The British association reported that "the adoption of any modern national language would confer undue advantages and excite jealousy ... therefore, an *invented* language is best" (course book, p.185).
 - The artificial language movement was largely abandoned because the English language became, *de facto*, the international *lingua franca*
 - In the 1920s various plans emerged for modifying English itself; for creating a simpler, more logical form of English which:
 1. Could be easily learned
 2. Serve as a *lingua franca* for basic communication
 3. **Not overtly** act as a carrier for British or American culture.
 - English was to be stripped of its cultural values and made into a transparent vehicle of communication with restricted vocabulary and grammar of basics
 - After World War Two English's two main European rivals (French and German) were in no position to resist the rise of English. Also, the USA (and its English language) materialized as a world economic force.

- After World War Two six languages were given official status in the United Nations: Arabic, English, French, Russian, Chinese and Spanish; with English and French as the most frequent choices
- Europe remains one of the world's regions where English meets resistance. Within Europe there are several countries besides Britain with colonial histories and aspirations to project their language, culture and economic activities worldwide. The creation of European Union as a regional economic entity has provided a bureaucratic and intergovernmental framework designed precisely to ensure that none of the main languages of Europe takes undue precedence over others.
- The use of English is thus far from uniform across the world. Within different countries there are many differences in how people speak English and what alternative languages they have at their disposal.
- Complex political, economic and cultural factors have put English at the apex of language hierarchy in the world.
- **English as a killer language:**
Globalization: perceives the world as a smaller, more compressed space, in which *some* people can project their economic and cultural spheres and will over large distance.
- Over 80% of the world's languages are spoken by fewer than 5% of its population, i.e. small communities of speakers
- When one or two languages are chosen for mega communication, the small communication zones wither away, resulting in loss of culture. Also, when tribes are dispossessed and dislocated, this results in the death of their language and culture.
- In India, there exist over 190 recognized languages. Language shift occurs from a low status vernacular to one of the languages higher in the hierarchy. English is an official language in many of the countries where endangered languages exist.
- European languages are very often labeled as being the primary danger to African languages and cultural heritage. The English language is intimately connected with the processes of economic globalization which are indirectly causing lesser used languages to disappear.
- The English language has more direct responsibility for the loss of the indigenous languages in its territories, e.g. Australia, Britain, USA

- **English: Creating Homogeneity or Diversity**

Positive view: English is seen as representing the key to economic opportunity and modernization in developing countries:

1. English as a major contributor to economic and social advancement in most countries
2. English is essential for progress as it provides the main means of access to high-tech communication and information

Negative view: Competence in English encourages elitism and increases socio-economic inequalities:

1. In many countries, fluency in English is required for access to better jobs and opportunities. However, access to English is only available to specific social groups who can afford expensive education
 2. English accentuates the divide between urban and rural, the developing communities and the developed ones, and the elite and masses
 3. English promotes alienation in the cultural perspective; being the carrier of values antithetical to indigenous cultures
- Two views on global English:
 1. English as a colonial imposition supported by a segment of the elite and receiving national opposition, e.g. India: English has created a social elite in India who are alienated from local culture
 2. Claims that English is the *key* to access and economic privileges (economic globalization)
 - Many languages that are low in a linguistic hierarchy never get the opportunity to be expanded, standardized or used for wider social functions in post-colonial countries.
 - Educational policy in post-colonial countries is sometimes a factor that promotes English medium in education

In Malaysia, the promotion of *Bahasa Malay* as the national language was seen as:

- A rejection of the colonial language and an attempt to redistribute cultural and economic power within Malaysia
- The re-introduction of English to Malaysia came as a result of global pressure to acquire competence in English to gain access to multinational and private sector companies

Immigrants to English language countries are positioned in society according to their competence in English. Limited competence position people socially at the lower scale of unskilled and poorly paid work.

- **Globalization:**

New technology was first invented in English-speaking countries. The process of globalization started with the invention of the telegraph which provided new possibilities for social control. Because of the British control of the telegraph network, the English language became the language of telegraph and international communication.

- **Global Media** (speaks English?)

Global communication (internet, satellite TV ..) increased the use of English between speakers of different languages who use English as the *lingua franca* (e-mail, chat..). This convergence to English as the medium of global communication acted as a centripetal cultural trend.

- Terrestrial television (sometimes state controlled) help construct a sense of shared national identity and culture (centripetal trend)
- Satellite television has a divisive effect (centrifugal trend). Viewers do not share same preference, cultures or experiences. Satellite television reflects global media culture and extensive English language programming, rather than a national or local one.

- Satellite television can be used to distribute cultural products just as well as to maintain cultural hegemony.
- Indirect cultural influence from English language programming: the influence of English on other languages is often indirect. English language media texts bring with them images of lifestyles, social relations and ways of representing the world which go beyond verbal communication (cultural imperialism).
- The cultural role of English: globalization brings about new forms of culture, values, ideas and identities

Homogeneity or Diversity?

The continuing expansion in the use and learning of English and the loss of lesser used languages around the world might suggest that there is some kind of homogenous global culture emerging. Yet it seems that the English language itself is becoming fragmented as it spreads into different speech communities and new varieties of English emerge. The English language often has different social significance to different people in different parts of the world.

- It may be that English is making the world a more homogenous place: it may also be that the world is making English more diverse in its forms, functions and cultural associations.

12. SPECIMEN FINAL EXAM PAPER

Time Allotted: 3 hours

INSTRUCTIONS

1. There are **THREE** parts in this exam paper: A, B, and C.
2. You are required to answer **THREE QUESTIONS** as follows: **the compulsory question in Part A, one question from Part B, and one question from Part C.**
3. We advise you to devote 10 minutes for reading through the whole paper and making the appropriate selection of questions.
4. The following table shows the structure of the exam, the marks allotted for each part, and the time you are advised to spend on each question

PART	Question No	Marks	Minutes
A	1	17	60
B	2	17	55
	3		
C	4	16	55
	5		
TOTAL		50	

5. At the end of the examination,

- Make sure that you have answered all required questions
- Edit your answers paying attention to grammar, punctuation, and spelling
- Cross out any notes you make which you do not want to be considered.

PART (A): YOU MUST ANSWER THE QUESTION IN THIS PART

QUESTION 1: [obligatory] Write 400 words

Discuss the factors that lead to English becoming a global language and the positive and negative views associated with its spread (Block theme: Global English)

PART B: ANSWER EITHER QUESTION 2 OR QUESTION 3

QUESTION 2: Write 400 words

English is the main language of global communication networks. Discuss how new technologies have affected the multimodal (visual, verbal and iconic) aspect of English through the use of ONE example from: News English, Visual English, or Cyberspace communication (Block three: English and Technology)

QUESTION 3: Write 400 words

What are the strengths and weaknesses of applying the phonics approach in teaching reading as compared with the real books approach? (Block two: Teaching English)

PART C: ANSWER EITHER QUESTION 4 OR QUESTION 5.

QUESTION 4: Write 400 words.

Identify and discuss the stages of language learning and the main perspectives on language development. (Block One: Learning English)

QUESTION 5: Write 400 words

Discuss issues and problems related to the teaching of English, including academic English, to speakers of other languages (Block two: Teaching English)