

APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Prof. Dr. Hasanuddin, M.Hum.



**LANGUAGE EDUCATION PROGRAM
POST GRADUATE PROGRAM
GORONTALO STATE UNIVERSITY**

APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Prof. Dr. Hasanuddin, M.Hum.



Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of linguistics that identifies, investigates, and offers solutions to language-related real-life problems. Some of the academic fields related to applied linguistics are education, psychology, computer science, communication research, anthropology, and sociology.

Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of linguistics. Major branches of applied linguistics include bilingualism and multilingualism, computer-mediated communication (CMC), conversation analysis, contrastive linguistics, sign linguistics, language assessment, literacies, discourse analysis, language pedagogy, second language acquisition, lexicography, language planning and policy, interlinguistics, stylistics, pragmatics, forensic linguistics and translation.

The course is designed to enable students to have a more thorough and comprehensive knowledge the materials of Applied Linguistics. We hope that students have a comprehensive knowledge about the field of Applied Linguistics. The discussion of the materials focus on (1) Introduction to Applied Linguistics, (2) language behavior and language learning, (3) approaches to language learning, (4) contrastive analysis, (5) error analysis, (6) critical discourse analysis, (7) applied linguistics and methods of teaching language, (8) applied linguistics and language testing, and (9) approaches to language testing. We hope students to learn and apply the materials.



Penerbit Deepublish (CV BLOK UTAMA)
Jl. Elang 6 No.3, Drono, Sempor, Karanganyar, Ngawi, Sleman
Jl. Kaliurang Km 9,3 Yogyakarta 55581
Telp/Fax : (0274) 4533427
Email : deepublish@mail.com

 Penerbit Deepublish  www.deepublish.co.id  @deepublisher



APPLIED LINGUISTICS

deepublish / publisher

UU No 19 Tahun 2002 Tentang Hak Cipta

Fungsi dan Sifat hak Cipta Pasal 2

1. Hak Cipta merupakan hak eksklusif bagi pencipta atau pemegang Hak Cipta untuk mengumumkan atau memperbanyak ciptaannya, yang timbul secara otomatis setelah suatu ciptaan dilahirkan tanpa mengurangi pembatasan menurut peraturan perundang-undangan yang berlaku.

Hak Terkait Pasal 49

1. Pelaku memiliki hak eksklusif untuk memberikan izin atau melarang pihak lain yang tanpa persetujuannya membuat, memperbanyak, atau menyiarkan rekaman suara dan/atau gambar pertunjukannya.

Sanksi Pelanggaran Pasal 72

1. Barangsiapa dengan sengaja dan tanpa hak melakukan perbuatan sebagaimana dimaksud dalam pasal 2 ayat (1) atau pasal 49 ayat (2) dipidana dengan pidana penjara masing-masing paling singkat 1 (satu) bulan dan/atau denda paling sedikit Rp 1.000.000,00 (satu juta rupiah), atau pidana penjara paling lama 7 (tujuh) tahun dan/atau denda paling banyak Rp 5.000.000.000,00 (lima miliar rupiah).
2. Barangsiapa dengan sengaja menyiarkan, memamerkan, mengedarkan, atau menjual kepada umum suatu ciptaan atau barang hasil pelanggaran Hak Cipta sebagaimana dimaksud dalam ayat (1), dipidana dengan pidana penjara paling lama 5 (lima) tahun dan/atau denda paling banyak Rp 500.000.000,00 (lima ratus juta rupiah)

APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Prof. Dr. Hasanuddin, M.Hum

 deepublish
glorify and develop the intellectual of human's life



deepublish | publisher

Gg. Elang 6, No 3, Drono, Sardonoharjo, Ngaglik, Sleman
Jl. Kaliurang Km. 9,3 – Yogyakarta 55581
Telp/Faks: (0274) 4533427
Hotline: 0838-2316-8088
Website: www.deepublish.co.id
e-mail: deepublish@ymail.com

Katalog Dalam Terbitan (KDT)

HASANUDDIN

Applied Linguistics/oleh HASANUDDIN.--Ed.1, Cet. 1--
Yogyakarta: Deepublish, Agustus 2014.

xii, 141 hlm.; 23 cm

ISBN 978-Nomor ISBN

1. English

I. Judul
420

Desain cover : Herlambang Rahmadhani
Penata letak : Cinthia Morris Sartono

**PENERBIT DEEPUBLISH
(Grup Penerbitan CV BUDI UTAMA)**

Anggota IKAPI (076/DIY/2012)

Isi diluar tanggungjawab percetakan

Hak cipta dilindungi undang-undang

Dilarang keras menerjemahkan, memfotokopi, atau
memperbanyak sebagian atau seluruh isi buku ini
tanpa izin tertulis dari Penerbit.

KATA SAMBUTAN

Rektor Universitas Negeri Gorontalo

Pertama-tama marilah kita memanjatkan puji dan syukur kehadirat Allah SWT, karena atas izin, rahmat dan petunjukNYA sehingga kita masih senantiasa berkarya demi kemajuan daerah khususnya Provinsi Gorontalo. Saya selaku Rektor menyambut dengan gembira dan penuh apresiasi atas penerbitan buku dosen di lingkungan Universitas Negeri Gorontalo.

Penerbitan buku ini dirangkaikan dengan program Tahun Buku 2014 Universitas Negeri Gorontalo yang telah dicanangkan pada Januari 2014. Hal ini merupakan suatu gagasan dan upaya yang sungguh-sungguh para dosen sebagai ilmuwan yang patut kita teladani. Betapa tidak, menulis dan menerbitkan karya seperti ini adalah sebuah pekerjaan mulia.

Buku yang ditulis oleh para dosen ini mengulas berbagai macam disiplin ilmu berdasarkan keahlian masing-masing dosen yang bersangkutan. Oleh sebab itu menurut pemahaman saya, buku ini sangat penting untuk dibaca, baik oleh pengambil kebijakan maupun kalangan akademisi dan mahasiswa yang ingin mendalami lebih jauh konsep berbagai disiplin ilmu. Saya berharap kiranya buku ini dapat memberi manfaat bagi masyarakat umum. Akhirnya, atas nama Rektor dan Civitas Akademika Universitas Negeri Gorontalo menyampaikan selamat kepada penulisnya. Semoga usaha dan gagasan yang baik ini dapat disambut dengan penuh suka cita. Selamat membaca.

Gorontalo, Medio Agustus 2014
Rektor Universitas Negeri Gorontalo



Dr. Syamsu Qamar Badu, MPd.
16808690

deepublish / Publisher

PREFACE

The course is designed to enable students to have a more thorough and comprehensive knowledge the materials of Applied Linguistics. We hope that students have a comprehensive knowledge about the field of Applied Linguistics. The discussion of the materials focus on (1) Introduction to Applied Linguistics, (2) language behavior and language learning, (3) approaches to language learning, (4) contrastive analysis, (5) error analysis, (6) critical discourse analysis, (7) applied linguistics and methods of teaching language, (8) applied linguistics and language testing, and (9) approaches to language testing. We hope students to learn and apply the materials..

I am indebted to the administration of Gorontalo State University whose cooperation and services made in relating to this book. These include Dr. H. Syamsu Qamar Badu, M. Pd as the Rector, Prof. Dr. Hj. Moon Hidayati Otoluwa, M.Hum. From the bottom of my heart, I would like to express my deepest gratitude and sincerest appreciation to my father and my mother, my brothers and my sisters for their encouragement and prayers for me. Especially to my father and my mother, my sincere thanks and appreciation are extended for bringing me as I am now.

Finally, I would like to dedicate this book to my wife St. Roskina Mas, my sons: Fadlih A.Hasanuddin, Abdi Dzul

Ikram Hasanuddin, and Arham F.Hasanuddin, who exerted much understanding and patience for my busy tasks for preparing this book. Thanks to all of them for their solemn prayers for my achievement and success so far. I wish this course materials will bring them some meaning in their lives.

Gorontalo, May 2014

H F

CONTENTS

KATA SAMBUTAN REKTOR UNIVERSITAS GORONTALO	v
PREFACE.....	vii
CONTENTS.....	ix

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION	1
Short Description.....	1
Basic Competence.....	1
Introduction.....	1
The definition.....	2
History of Applied Linguistics.....	3
Summary.....	5
Questions.....	6

CHAPTER 2

LANGUAGE BEHAVIOR AND LANGUAGE LEARNING.....	7
Short Description.....	7
Basic Competence.....	7
Introduction.....	7
Language Behavior.....	8
Language Learning	13
<i>A Behavioristic Approach</i>	14
<i>A Mentalistic Approach</i>	15
<i>A Procedural Approach</i>	16

Summary	18
Questions	20

CHAPTER 3

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS	21
Short Description	21
Basic Competence	21
Introduction to Contrastive Analysis	21
Contrastive Analysis in a New Dimension	24
Summary	27
Comprehension Questions	28

CHAPTER 4

ERROR ANALYSIS	29
Short Description	29
Basic Competence	29
Introduction	29
Error Analysis (EA): its roots and development	31
Description and Explanation of Errors	34
Summary	35
Comprehension Questions and Application	37

CHAPTER 5

CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS	39
Short Description	39
Basic Competence	39
Introduction	39
What is Critical Discourse Analysis?	39

Conceptual and Theoretical frameworks.....	42
Summary.....	56
Question and Tasks.....	56

CHAPTER 6

APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE TEACHING: THE ORAL APPROACH AND COMMUNITY LANGUAGE

LEARNING.....	57
Short Description.....	57
Basic Competence.....	57
Introduction.....	58
Approach.....	60
<i>Theory of Language</i>	60
<i>Theory of Learning</i>	60
Design.....	61
Objectives.....	61
<i>The Syllabus</i>	61
<i>Types of Learning and Teaching Activities</i>	62
Learner Roles.....	62
<i>The Role of Instructional Materials</i>	63
Procedure.....	63
Community Language Learning.....	63
Approach.....	68
<i>Theory of Language</i>	68
<i>Theory of Learning</i>	69
Design.....	70
Objectives.....	70
<i>The Syllabus</i>	71
<i>Types of Learning and Teaching Activities</i>	71
Learner Roles.....	72

<i>Teacher Roles</i>	72
<i>The Role of Instructional Materials</i>	72
Procedure	73
Summary	73
Questions and Application.....	75

CHAPTER 7

COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AND LANGUAGE TEACHING	77
Short Description	77
Basic Competence	77
Introduction.....	77
Communicative Language Ability	78
Communicative Competence.....	82
<i>Theoretical Basis of Communicative Competence</i>	83
<i>The Components of Communicative Competence</i>	84
Communicative Language Teaching	85
<i>Objectives of CLT</i>	86
<i>Teaching Materials</i>	87
Procedure	89
Summary	89
Questions	92

CHAPTER 8

APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND METHODS OF TEACHING LANGUAGE	93
Short Description	93
Basic Competence	93
Grammar-Translation Method.....	94

The Direct Method	97
Suggestopedia	101
Approach	102
<i>Theory of Language</i>	102
<i>Theory of Learning</i>	103
Design	104
<i>Objective</i>	104
<i>The syllabus</i>	105
<i>Types of learning and teaching activities</i>	105
<i>Learner roles</i>	106
Procedure.....	107
The Silent Way	108
Approach	110
<i>Theory of Language</i>	110
<i>Theory of Learning</i>	110
Design	111
<i>Objectives</i>	111
<i>Syllabus</i>	112
<i>Types of learning and teaching activities</i>	112
<i>Learner Roles</i>	112
<i>Teacher Roles</i>	114
<i>The Role of Instructional Materials</i>	114
Summary.....	116
Questions and Application Tasks	119
REFERENCES.....	121

deepublish / Publisher

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Short Description

This chapter is introductory chapter that describes terms of linguistics or definition, history of applied linguistics, and applied linguistics. This chapter is reviewed from Guy Cook (2003) in his book in applied linguistics and other linguist like Douglas L. Rideout from Montreal University, Department of Linguistics and Translation.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain applied linguistics in terms of

- Definition of applied linguistics
- History of applied linguistics
- Applied linguistics today
- Evaluation and correction of errors

Introduction

At its inception in the late 1950's, Applied Linguistics was principally concerned with language teaching, especially second / foreign language teaching, to the point that the two terms basically became synonymous (Strevens 1992: 11). Over time, the field grew and expanded to include other sub-fields unrelated to second / foreign language teaching, such as language policy and planning, forensic linguistics, clinical linguistic, critical discourse analysis, translation and interpretation, and lexicography. However, this close association with second / foreign language teaching still remains, and it is thus not surprising that some

introductory books to applied linguistics deal exclusively with language teaching (Roger T. Bell's *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics: Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* (1981)). Other introductory books present a somewhat larger scope to the field, yet still dedicate a large amount of space to second / foreign language teaching (W. Grabe and R. Kaplan's *Introduction to Applied Linguistics* (1992)).

Applied Linguistics by Guy Cook presents a short, informative introduction to the field of applied linguistics. While the wide scope, yet limited depth, of the book does not allow its use as the principal text for an academic course in Applied Linguistics, it has its place in the field. For the general public or novice linguistics, this book provides an easy to understand introduction to the field, facilitating possible further, more advanced introductory readings to the field. For the academic linguist, Guy Cook's book would serve as a very useful bridge to more advanced introductions to Applied Linguistics.

The definition

Applied Linguistics (AL) provides the theoretical and descriptive foundations for the investigation and solution of language-related problems, especially those of language education (first-language, second-language and foreign-language teaching and learning), but also problems of translation and interpretation, lexicography, forensic linguistics and (perhaps) clinical linguistics. As far as the Research Assessment Exercise is concerned, research in AL is assessed by the Linguistics panel, and covers areas of basic research in the general territory of Linguistics - parts of discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, language acquisition - as well as language-related research in specialized areas such as pedagogy and the theories of translation and lexicography. The main distinguishing characteristic of AL is its concern with professional activities whose aim is to solve 'real-world' language-based problems, which means that research touches on a particularly wide range of issues - psychological, pedagogical, social, political and economic as well as linguistic. As a consequence, AL research tends to be interdisciplinary.

It is generally agreed that in spite of its name AL is not simply the 'application' of research done in Linguistics. On the one hand, AL has to look beyond Linguistics for relevant research and theory, so AL research often involves the synthesis of research from a variety of disciplines, including Linguistics. On the other hand, AL has been responsible for the development of original research in a number of areas of Linguistics - e.g. bilingualism, literacy, genre.

Beyond this agreement, there is at least as much disagreement within AL as within Linguistics about fundamental issues of theory and method, which leads (among other things) to differences of opinion about the relationships between the two disciplines

History of Applied Linguistics

The term 'applied linguistics' refers to a broad range of activities which involve solving some language-related problem or addressing some language-related concern. It appears as though applied linguistics, at least in North America, was first officially recognized as an independent course at the University of Michigan in 1946. In those early days, the term was used both in the United States and in Great Britain to refer to applying a so-called 'scientific approach' to teaching foreign languages, including English for nonnative speakers. Early work to improve the quality of foreign language teaching by Professors Charles Fries (University of Michigan) and Robert Lado (University of Michigan, then Georgetown University) helped to bring definition to the field as did the 1948 publication of a new journal, *Language Learning: A Quarterly Journal of Applied Linguistics*.

During the late 1950s and the early 1960s, the use of the term was gradually broadened to include what was then referred to as 'automatic translation'. In 1964 following two years of preparatory work financed by the Council of Europe, the Association Internationale de Linguistique Appliquée (the International Association of Applied Linguistics usually referred to by the French acronym AILA) was founded and its first international congress was held in Nancy, France. Papers for the congress

were solicited in two distinct strands—foreign language teaching and automatic translation.

Applied Linguistics Today

Over the intervening years, the foci of attention have continued to broaden. Today the governing board of AILA describes applied linguistics 'as a means to help solve specific problems in society...applied linguistics focuses on the numerous and complex areas in society in which language plays a role.*' There appears to be consensus that the goal is to apply the findings and the techniques from research in linguistics and related disciplines to solve practical problems. To an observer, the most notable change in applied linguistics has been its rapid growth as an interdisciplinary field. In addition to foreign language teaching and machine translation, a partial sampling of issues considered central to the field of applied linguistics today includes topics such as language for special purposes (e.g. language and communication problems related to aviation, language disorders, law, medicine, science), language policy and planning, and language and literacy issues. For example, following the adoption of English as the working language for all international flight communication by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), some applied linguists concerned themselves with understanding the kinds of linguistic problems that occur when pilots or flight engineers from varying backgrounds communicate using a nonnative language and how to better train them to communicate in English more effectively.

Some applied linguists are concerned with helping planners and legislators in countries develop and implement a language policy (e.g. planners are working in South Africa to specify and to further develop roles in education and government not only for English and Afrikaans but also for the other nine indigenous languages) or in helping groups develop scripts, materials, and literacy programs for previously unwritten languages (e.g. for many of the 850+ indigenous languages of Papua New Guinea).



Other applied linguists have been concerned with developing the most effective programs possible to help adult newcomers to the United States or other countries, many of whom have limited if any prior education, develop literacy in the languages which they will need for survival and for occupational purposes. Other topics currently of concern to applied linguists are the broad issue of the optimal role of the mother tongue in the education of culturally and linguistically diverse students, the language of persuasion and politics, developing effective tools and programs for interpretation and translation, and language testing and evaluation.

In the United Kingdom, the first school of applied linguistics is thought to have opened in 1957 at the University of Edinburgh with Ian Catford as Head. In the United States, a nonprofit educational organization, the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL), was founded in 1959 with Charles Ferguson as its first Director. CAL's mission remains to 'promote the study of language and to assist people in achieving their educational, occupational, and social goals through more effective communication'. The organization carries out its mission by collecting and disseminating information through various clearinghouses that it operates, by conducting practical research, by developing practical materials and training individuals such as teachers, administrators, or other human resource specialists to use these to reduce the barriers that limited language proficiency can pose for culturally and linguistically diverse individuals as they seek full and effective participation in educational or occupational opportunities.

Summary

At its inception in the late 1950's, Applied Linguistics was principally concerned with language teaching, especially second / foreign language teaching, to the point that the two terms basically became synonymous (Strevens 1992: 11). Over time, the field grew and expanded to include other sub-fields unrelated to second / foreign language teaching, such as language policy and planning, forensic linguistics, clinical

linguistic, critical discourse analysis, translation and interpretation, and lexicography. *Applied Linguistics* by Guy Cook presents a short, informative introduction to the field of applied linguistics.

Applied Linguistics (AL) provides the theoretical and descriptive foundations for the investigation and solution of language-related problems, especially those of language education (first-language, second-language and foreign-language teaching and learning), but also problems of translation and interpretation, lexicography, forensic linguistics and (perhaps) clinical linguistics. On the one hand, AL has to look beyond Linguistics for relevant research and theory, so AL research often involves the synthesis of research from a variety of disciplines, including Linguistics.

Today the governing board of AILA describes applied linguistics 'as a means to help solve specific problems in society...applied linguistics focuses on the numerous and complex areas in society in which language plays a role.'In addition to foreign language teaching and machine translation, a partial sampling of issues considered central to the field of applied linguistics today includes topics such as language for special purposes (e.g. language and communication problems related to aviation, language disorders, law, medicine, science), language policy and planning, and language and literacy issues. British studies, business English, children's literature, corpus linguistics, curriculum and syllabus planning, discourse analysis, discourse intonation, English as an international language, ESP and EAP, forensic linguistics, genre analysis, innovation and evaluation in ELT, integrational and systemic linguistics, language, culture and social change, language policy, lexical studies, lexicography, media studies, new Englishes, stylistics, teacher development, translation studies.

Questions

1. What is applied linguistics?
2. Describe the history of applied linguistics.
3. Analyze the term of applied linguistics.

CHAPTER 2

LANGUAGE BEHAVIOR AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Short Description

This chapter explains language behavior and language learning that consists of grammar and language behavior, observation in the study of grammar and language behavior, language learning, and approaches to language learning.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain language behavior and language learning that covers

- Grammar and language behavior
- Language learning
- Approaches to language learning

Introduction

This chapter presents knowledge's and ideas about language behavior and language learning in general and touch upon a number of questions concerning language behavior and language learning. 'Perspectives' is the key word in this chapter. It touches a number of questions concerning language behavior and language learning that can be discussed. For language behavior, these surveys may be psycholinguistically or sociolinguistically oriented that refer to Clark and Clark (1977), Palermo (1978), and Hudson (1980).

The discussion of language behavior is focused on a structural approach to the phenomenon of 'language' as opposed to a procedural or functional approach and the consequences of these differences in approach for what is considered relevant data for a theory of language behavior.

The discussion of language learning is paid attention to a number of different theories how children learn language. The theoretical orientations will be in that order: a behavioristic one, a mentalistic one, and a procedural one.

Language Behavior

Grammar and Language Behavior

Language is the most important medium of human communication. It is both unique to the species and universal within that same species : only humans can learn to make use of verbal communication, and all human behavior essentially different from animal behaviour : language behaviour essentially different from animal behaviour. It presupposes both sender (speaker or writer) and receiver (listener or reader) of verbal information. The former uses an auditory in fig. 2.1

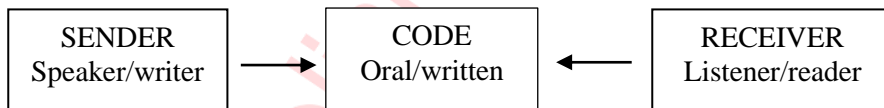


Fig. 2.1 Schematic representation of language behavior

Depending on the nature of the channel (auditory or visual) and the direction of communication (sender or receiver) we can distinguish the following four variants of language behavior :

	Language production	Language comprehension
Oral language behavior	speaking	listening
Written language behavior	writing	reading

Fig. 2.2. Variants of language behavior

In a number of respects, oral and written language behaviour are very different phenomena. We shall discuss these differences at the end of this chapter.

The concept of communication presupposes an intention to communicate. Fig.2.1, however, only displays the sending and receiving of verbal information, nor what the listener does with the information he has received. Speakers develop a speech plan with specific intentions, and then execute this plan in the shape of temporally organized speech. Listeners identify this speech and then use this interpretation in a specific way (for instance by answering a question or carrying out a command).

The process of language production consists of two phases: a planning phase and an execution phase. The planning phase consists of **goal, planning, process, and plan**; while the execution phase comprises **plan, execution, process, and action** leading to articulation of the speech organs, writing, the use of gestures or signs. In every one of these phase and their components, feedback or monitoring takes place, which often allows for an immediate correction in planning or execution processes. The role of the planning phase is therefore to develop a plan (Nur, 1994). Speakers develop a speech plan with specific intentions, and then execute in the shape of temporally organized speech. Listeners identify this speech stream in a specific way (as a question, promise, command, declaration, etc.), and then use this interpretation in a specific way (for instance by answering a question, or carrying out a command). These different steps in language behavior (production and reception) can be presented in figure 2.

3

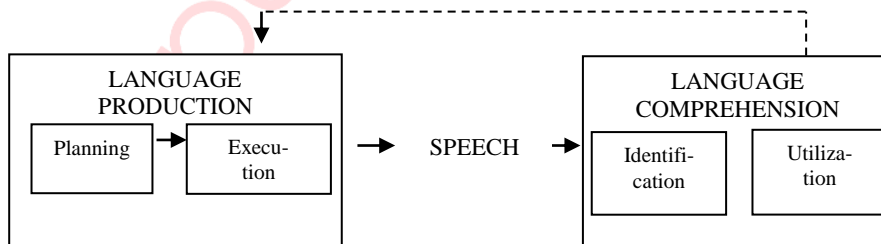


Figure 2.3 Language behavior

In order for the plan to match the goal, the speaker has to base the plan on an analysis of the given situation and its resources (linguistic knowledge) with regard to the goal. The situation can be very formal due to participants' role or topic being talked. The strong influential factors in speech situations are the participants and the relation between them, the topics, and the purpose of communication.

The planning processes in first language communication are normally subconscious and highly automatic. However, planning in the second or foreign language process can be, more or less, conscious depending on the linguistic knowledge. The monitoring controls much of the plan and the execution of the plan by referring to the linguistic rules and items that have been learned and acquired (Krashen, 1987).

The problems may come up both in planning and execution phases, that is, insufficient linguistic resources in the former, and concern about fluency and accuracy in the latter. Accordingly, communication strategies may operate in both phases; planning and execution. The whole processes of speech production are described in the following figure.

Speech is based on linguistic code. Both speakers and listeners must be acquainted with this code that consists of a series of hierarchically ordered units represented in figure 2.5. A series of hierarchically ordered units consist of phonemes, words, constituents, sentences, and texts.

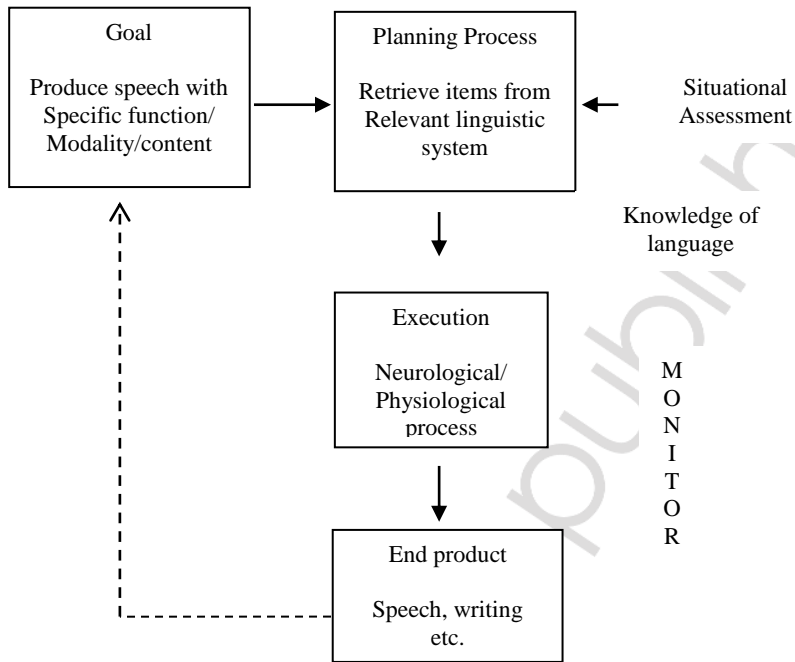


Figure 2. 4 A model of speech production(adapted from Faerch and Kasper, 1983:25)

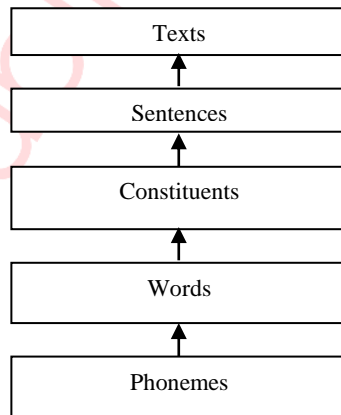


Figure 2.5 Hierarchical structure of the linguistic code

All of these linguistic units exhibit a large number of universal characteristics. Each language, for instance, has vowels and consonants, and phonemes with distinctive features and distributional characteristics. Furthermore, each language has function words and content words. At the constituent level, one can distinguish between nominal and verbal constituents in all languages, and comparable syntactic relations hold between two types of constituent such as subject, object, and predicate. At the sentence level, it is possible in any language to perform various types of speech acts, e.g., question vs statement, direct vs indirect speech acts and finally, sentences may be combined into texts, e.g. monologues, or dialogues.

Psycholinguistic research into language behavior covers all the levels listed in figure 2.6. The higher level of these procedures is, the less automatic the language behavior will be, and decision times will be longer. At the most elementary level, that of phonemic procedures, we already find quite complex behavior in the production and comprehension of language.

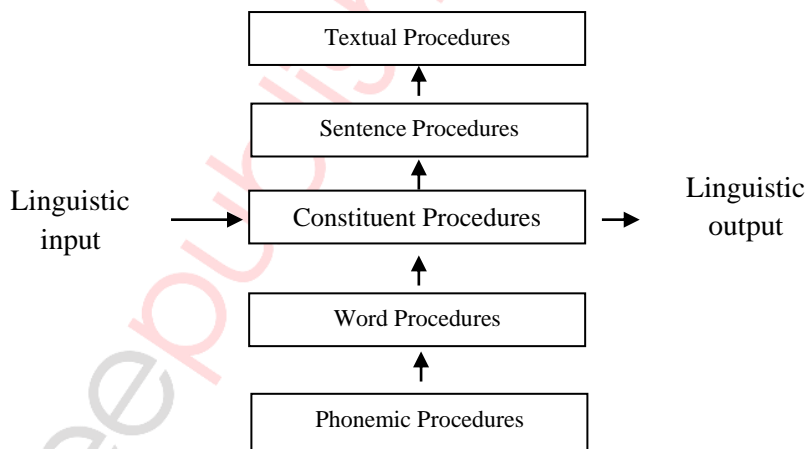


Figure 2.5 Hierarchical structure of the linguistic code

Language production and language comprehension process are so complex because the creative possibilities at each of the levels, are always producing and comprehending new words, constituents, sentences, and texts. Within production and comprehension of language, and the development of both forms of language behavior, we can further distinguish such as speech vs writing, first (native) language vs second language, and normal vs impaired language behavior.

Language Learning

Language learning is based on the development of the hierarchy of skills listed in figure 2.5. The research into language learning has increased enormously in the last 20 years. Dale (1976) and De Villiers and De Villiers (1978) give an excellent outline of these developments.

For the theory of language learning, the development from a behavioristic to mentalistic psychology has been crucial importance. Behaviorists theories base on observable behavior in the description and explanation of learning behavior, while mentalistic theories base on structure and mechanisms of the mind for such description and explanation. Behavioristic ideas about language learning are based on a theory of learning which is focused on the role of environment, both verbal and non verbal. Mentalistic ideas about language learning are based mainly on theoretical linguistics assumptions which focus on the innate capacity of any child to learn any language.

Behavioristic and mentalistic ideas about language learning have led researchers to take extreme positions that develop a procedural approach to language learning. This procedural approach, while maintaining a mentalistic outlook, exhibits a renewed interest in the structure and function of children linguistic input, away from innate versus learned linguistic ability, and towards the children capacity to discover structure in the language around them. The discussion of these three approaches to the process of language learning will be discussed in the following subsection.

A Behavioristic Approach

Behaviorist or connectionist learning theories explain behavior using an SR-model that is established between stimulus or stimulus situation (S) and the organism's response (R) to this stimulus. In behaviorist psychology, behavior of humans and animals may be learned. That behavior will be limited only to the most elementary types of learning that is seen as an argument in favour of its fundamental characters: the more general the learning theory is, the more valuable it is. The theory has to explain the learning behavior of all animate beings, no allowance is made, for explanation of human behavior, for such non-observable, especially human factors as plans, intentions, attitudes.

The main representative of this approach is Skinner (1957) that defined the notion of reinforcement. If a certain action repeatedly leads to a positive or a negative result, the odds of recurrence or non-recurrence of this action will increase. Skinner speaks of positive reinforcement if the action is not repeated. If an action is seen as a response as to a certain stimulus, positive reinforcement could also be defined as increase in the probability of occurrence of a response to a stimulus as a result of the fact that this response, being correct, is rewarded. Negative reinforcement, then, can be defined as a decrease in the probability of occurrence of a response as a result of the fact that this response, being wrong, is punished.

Skinner (1957) moreover states that the analysis of language behavior is done by tracing the factors influencing this behavior in which these factors describe stimulus and response. Each stimulus follows verbal or non-verbal stimulus and there is a stimulus situation causing somebody to respond with an utterance. According to Skinner, language behavior can be studied through observation of the world around the language users; that is, through external factors. One important external factor in the language process is the frequency of utterance that is used in the child environment. In the behaviorists' view, children imitate language in their environment to a considerable degree, and imitation is a strong contributing factor in the language learning process. In addition, reinforcement is needed to arrive at a higher level of language proficiency. In this way, the

environment encourages the child to produce grammatical utterances, while not encouraging ungrammatical utterances.

A Mentalistic Approach

Verbal behavior delivers the first serious attack on the behaviorist ideas about language learning. Chomsky (1959) argues that human behavior is more complex than animal behavior and certain language behavior is so complex than animal behavior. According to Chomsky, a description of language behavior cannot be just a description of external stimuli and responses, but it has to be a description of the innate ability of human beings to learn a language.

In 1960 Chomsky has developed a revolution of ideas about language learning. Until that time, most attention has been paid to the external linguistic factors. After 1960, the contribution of the main factor in the learning process of the child itself, began to play more dominant role. The revolution was strongly influenced by the rapid rise of a new development in linguistics with Chomsky's Transformational-Generative Grammar (TG) that was a source of inspiration for all sorts of experiments in language learning research.

In TG it is assumed that the ability to learn language is innate; the so called Language Acquisition Device or LAD that enables the child to make hypothesis about the structure of language in general. This is not a conscious process. The hypothesis the child subconsciously set up are tested in its use of language, and continuously matched with the new linguistic input by the child obtains by listening to is said in its immediate environment.

Children imitate words and structures which adults in their environment use. These deviations are systematic. Systematic deviations from the language of adults are strongly evidence against which reduces the learning of language to imitative behavior.

Els et al (1984) give examples of overgeneralization that occur in nonlinguistic rules for instance, the plural nouns (mouses, mans) and past form of the verb (comed, goed). Overgeneralization is often made by a

child who learn a language. The child imitates that all the plural nouns have to be added by s or es ending. Beside that he thinks that all past-form verbs are added by -ed ending.

The following consideration demonstrate that the frequency of words and structure used in the child environment has considerably less influence on its language development that behaviorist theory tends to suggest: (1) overgeneralization of rules in past-tense formation occurs especially in those verbs which are frequent in adult language use, the so-called 'irregular verb', (2) function words and word endings show relatively little variation in English (e.g. the two articles a(n)/ the or the past tense of the verb, -ed), (3) in a longitudinal multiple case study, investigated the acquisition order of 14 so called grammatical morphemes (word endings and function words). It turned out that the acquisition order for those grammatical morphemes was quite similar for all children.

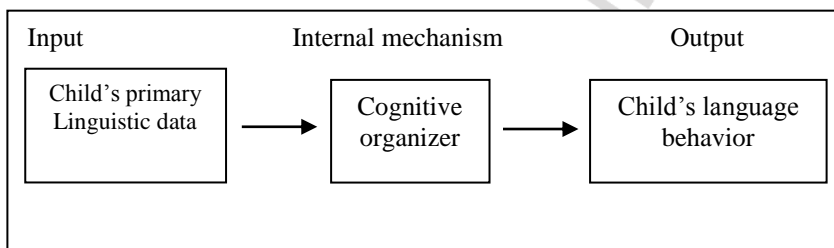
Behaviorists see parental approval as one of the most important types of reinforcement in the language learning process: (1) the hypothesis that reinforcement will lead to dominance of grammatically correct sentences is based on the assumption that parental approval and disapproval are dependent on the grammatical acceptability of the child's utterance; (2) even if the child only uses a very primitive linguistic system, communication, specially with his parents, is possible. The child will, however, start to produce more complex utterances at a later stage.

A Procedural Approach

Chomsky rejects Scinnerian behaviorism, and he concludes that we need a theory of grammar which will establish the formal properties of grammar. This, however, leaves us with the following problem: although such a study, even if successful, would by no means answer the major problems involved in the investigation of meaning and the causation of behavior, it surely will not be unrelated to those (Chomsky, 1959). In a linguistic theory, Chomsky establishes what is learned, does not establish the actual operation of the process of learning. However, this gap between

the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of language learning that have to be explained the process of language learning.

The procedural approach to language development in which the interaction between internal and external factors is once again central, is of a more recent date. The starting point in this approach, which remains a mentalistic one, is children’s cognitive capacity to discover structure in the language around them. Both children comprehension and production of language are seen as based on a continuously expanding and changing system of discovery procedures as presented as follows:



The input/output system in language development

The output can be considered based on two questions: (1) what is the structure and function of the input? (2) what does the child’s cognitive organization consist of, that is causes these differences between input and output?

In accordance with two questions, we consider two separated explanations related to these questions. **First**, One of the assumption of mentalistic approach to language learning was originally that children’s linguistic input is completely unstructured. Under this assumption, there is no difference between what is said to children and what is said to adults: both contain ungrammatical utterances, false starts, slips of the tongue, and other kinds of speech errors. A result of this assumption was that there was any interest in the actual linguistic input children receive. De Villiers and De Villiers in Ellis et al (1984) summarize our knowledge of differences between adult-child and adult-adult speech, They divided into four types of

differences. The four types are (1) phonological differences that are characterized by higher pitch, slower speech, and distinct pauses between utterances, and also phonological simplification; (2) syntactic differences that are indicated by shorter and less varied utterance length, many partial/complete repetition, many constituents uttered in isolation, transformationally less complex, more imperative and questions to young children; (3) semantic differences that are observed that more limited vocabulary use, but with unique words for objects and many diminutives, reference invariably to the here and now; words have concrete referents and there are few references to the past; and more limited range of semantic relation; and (4) pragmatic differences that are more directive, imperative, questions, and more deictic utterances.

Second, Even if modifications in children's linguistic input are helpful to learning, we are left with the problem of how to explain the differences between children input and output. Slobin (1973) has described children's cognitive organization of language that has presented the basis of data from a large number unrelated language, formulating a number of operating principles which have played an important role in the literature on language learning. Clark and Clark (1977) have recorded and reformulated these operating principles that consist semantic coherence and surface structure. Semantic coherence is focused on (1) look for systematic modifications in the forms of words, (2) look for grammatical markers that indicate underlying semantic distinctions clearly and make semantic sense, and (3) avoid exceptions. Surface structure is focused on (1) pay attention to the ends of words, (2) pay attention to the order of words, prefixes, and suffixes, and (3) avoid interruption or rearrangement of linguistic units.

Summary

This chapter explains language behavior and language learning that consists of grammar and language behavior, observation in the study of grammar and language behavior, language learning, and approaches to language learning. This chapter presents knowledge's and ideas about

language behavior and language learning in general and touch upon a number of questions concerning language behavior and language learning. It touches a number a number of questions concerning language behavior and language learning that can be discussed. The discussion of language learning is paid attention to a number of different theories how children learn language.

Language is the most important medium of human communication. Fig. 2.1 Schematic representation of language behavior. The process of language production consists of two phases: a planning phase and an execution phase. The planning phase consists of **goal, planning, process,** and **plan**; while the execution phase comprises **plan, execution, process,** and **action** leading to articulation of the speech organs, writing, the use of gestures or signs. Furthermore, each language has function words and content words. Psycholinguistic research into language behavior covers all the levels listed in figure 2.6.

Within production and comprehension of language, and the development of both forms of language behavior, we can further distinctions such as speech vs writing, first (native) language vs second language, and normal vs impaired language behavior.

The research into language learning has increased enormously in the last 20 years. For the theory of language learning, the development from a behavioristic to mentalistic psychology has been crucial importance. Behavioristic ideas about language learning are based on a theory of learning which is focused on the role of environment, both verbal and non verbal. Mentalistic ideas about language learning are based mainly on theoretical linguistics assumptions which focus on the innate capacity of any child to learn any language.

Behavioristic and mentalistic ideas about language learning have led researchers to take extreme positions that develop a procedural approach to language learning. In behaviorist psychology, Behavior of humans and animals may be learned. Skinner (1957) moreover states that the analysis of language behavior is done by tracing the factors influencing this behavior in which these factors describe stimulus and response. According

to Skinner, language behavior can be studied through observation of the world around the language users; that is, through external factors. One important external factor in the language process is the frequency of utterance that is used in the child environment. In the behaviorists' view, children imitate language in their environment to a considerable degree, and imitation is a strong contributing factor in the language learning process.

Verbal behavior delivered the first serious attack on the behaviorist ideas about language learning. Chomsky (1959) argues that human behavior is more complex than animal behavior and certain language behavior is so complex that it is beyond animal behavior. In 1960 Chomsky has developed a revolution of ideas about language learning. In TG it is assumed that the ability to learn language is innate; the so-called Language Acquisition Device or LAD that enables the child to make hypothesis about the structure of language in general. Children imitate words and structures which adults in their environment use. Systematic deviations from the language of adults are strongly evidence against which reduces the learning of language to imitative behavior.

Overgeneralization is often made by a child who learns a language. The input/output system in language development. One of the assumptions of the mentalistic approach to language learning was originally that children's linguistic input is completely unstructured. Slobin (1973) has described children's cognitive organization of language that has presented the basis of data from a large number of unrelated languages, formulating a number of operating principles which have played an important role in the literature on language learning.

Questions

1. Explain the variants of language behavior.
2. Describe schematic representation of language behavior.
3. Mention and explain two phases of language production processes.
4. Compare four approaches to language learning.

CHAPTER 3

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

Short Description

This chapter describes a background of contrastive analysis, the contrastive analysis hypothesis, contrastive analysis in a new dimension, and the objectives of contrastive analysis.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain and apply contrastive analysis that consists

- Background of contrastive analysis
- The contrastive analysis hypothesis
- A new dimension of contrastive analysis
- The objective of contrastive analysis

Introduction to Contrastive Analysis

A systematic comparative study analyzing component wise the differences and similarities among languages was clearly recognized towards the end of 19th century and the beginning of 20th century, especially in Europe (Grandgent, 1928; Vietor, 1894 and 1903; Passy, 1912; Mathesius, 1928 and 1936). The term 'Contrastive linguistics' was suggested by Whorf (1941), for comparative study which is giving emphasis on linguistic differences. Meanwhile contrastive linguistics has been redefined as 'a subdiscipline of linguistics concerned with the comparison of two or more languages or subsystems of languages in order

to determine both the differences and similarities between them'(Fisiak, 1981: 1).

The Publication of Robert Lados Book 'Linguistics across cultures' in 1957 marks the real beginning of modern applied contrastive linguistics. In later studies, as an alternative for contrastive linguistics, the term 'Contrastive analysis' is used (Ramaswamy 1988: 7). Contrastive Analysis is the method of analyzing the structure of any two languages with a view to estimate the differential aspects of their systems, irrespective of their genetic affinity or level of development. Contrastive analysis of two languages become useful when it is adequately describing the sound structure and grammatical structure of two languages, with comparative statements, giving due emphasis to the compatible items in the two systems. It is assumed that learning of second language is facilitated whenever there are similarities between that language and mother tongue. Learning may be interfered with when there are marked contrasts between mother tongue and second language (Nickel, 1971:).

The contrastive analysis emphasises the influence of the mother tongue in learning a second language in phonological, morphological and syntactic levels. Examination of the differences between the first and second languages help to predict the possible errors that can be made by L2 learners (Krishnaswamy, Verma, Nagarajan 1992). Contrastive analysis is not merely relevant for second language teaching but it can also make useful contributions to machine translation and linguistic typology. It is relevant to the designing of teaching material for use in all age groups. Chaturvedi (1973) suggests the following guiding principles for contrastive study:

(i) To analyse the mother tongue and the target language independently and completely. (ii) To compare the two languages item-wise-item at all levels of their structure. (iii) To arrive at the categories of a) similar features b) partially similar features. c) dissimilar features - for the target language. (iv) To arrive at principles of text preparation, test framing and target language teaching in general.

This type of study will provide an objective and scientific base for second language teaching. While learning a second language if the mother tongue of the learner and the target language both have significantly similar linguistic features on all the levels of their structures there will not be much difficulty in learning the new language in a limited time. For knowing the significantly similar structures in both languages the first step to be adopted is that both languages should be analysed independently. After the independent analysis, to sort out the different features of the two languages, comparison of the two languages is necessary. From this analysis it is easy to make out that at different levels of structures of these two languages there are some features quite similar and some quite dissimilar.

According to the popular assumptions of the contrastive analysis, the structural similarities will lead to facilitation and differences will cause interferences in the context of second/foreign language learning situations. This is however only a prediction and a partial understanding of the problems and prospects of a second/foreign language situation. The learner's problems are not always constrained to the predictions of a contrastive study. Teachers' competence, motivation and attitude of learners, teaching methods and instructional materials are the other variables that can significantly influence second/foreign language teaching. However, a contrastive grammar is highly useful for a motivated teacher and a learner for a more effective process of teaching and learning.

Contrastive analysis is a systematic comparison of specific linguistic characteristics of two or more languages that aims (1) to provide insight into similarities and differences between languages, (2) explain and predict problems in L2 learning, and (3) develop course materials for language teaching

The contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

This hypothesis has two versions, the **strong** version, and the **weak** version. The strong version is the one which most of the supporters of this theory base their claims, although it was unrealistic and

impracticable. However, the weak version does have possibilities for usefulness, although even this is suspect to some linguists.

The strong version

"It is possible to contrast the system of one language (the grammar, phonology and lexicon) with the system of a second language in order to *predict* the difficulties which a speaker of the second language will have in learning the first language, and to construct reading materials to help her learn that language."

This theory makes a lot of demands of linguists. For example, the theory requires linguistics to have:

1. a set of linguistic universals formulated within a comprehensive linguistic theory which deals with syntax, semantics and phonology.
2. a theory of contrastive linguistics in which they can "plug in" linguistic descriptions of the two languages to be compared.

Wardhaugh (1974) calls this a "pseudo-procedure" - a procedure which linguistics claim they could follow, in order to achieve definitive results, if only there were enough time.

The weak version

"The linguist uses the best linguistic knowledge available to him in order to account for the observed difficulties in second-language learning."

This approach makes fewer demands of contrastive theory than the strong version. The starting point of this approach is provided by real evidence from such phenomena as faulty translation, learning difficulties and residual foreign accents.

Contrastive Analysis in a New Dimension

Traditional contrastive analyses are all conducted along the horizontal dimensions necessarily involved in comparing an element or a class of elements in L1 with an equivalent element or a class of elements in L2 and/or vice versa. Traditional contrastive analysis compare specific elements of L1 and L2 belonging the same statements. These statements

must be based on semantic consideration associated with the notion of **equivalence** (the notion of equivalence is the most important one because only equivalent systems, constructions and rules are comparable) and also on structural considerations associated with the notion of **congruence**. The systems (phonological, morphological, syntactic...) or subsystems (plosives, non-finite clauses...) or various types of constructions (passive con. relative con.) can be compared.

The horizontally organized contrastive analyses of systems constructions across languages are originated with Lado and they resulted in inventories of differences and similarities between the compared items. These differences and similarities were categorised according to their difficulty in the process of second language acquisition. And these attempts resulted in **hierarchies of difficulties**. the phenomenon involved in these difficulties was called **interference** (difficulty in learning a sound, word or construction in a second language as a result of differences with the habits of the native language) attempts were made to relate “hierarchies of difficulties” to contrastive statements concerning degrees of difference across languages.

Approximative systems: deviant linguistic systems employed by foreign learners in an attempt to utilize the target language (Nemser). This system can be seen as an intermediate stage on the horizontal axis.

Interlanguage: Selinker replaces Nemser’s approximative systems with the term interlanguage. According to Selinker there are five factors that shape interlanguage.

- Language transfer
- Transfer of training
- Strategies of second language learning
- Strategies of second language communication
- Overgeneralization of target language linguistic material

Widdowson claimed that these processes are variations of simplification strategy which lies at heart of communicative competence. According to him **simplification** is a result of an attempt to adjust the language behaviour to the interests of communicative

effectiveness. The learner's linguistic behaviour is controlled by a set of rules.

- reference rules: they constitute the learner's knowledge of the foreign language, his linguistic competence
- expression rules: they are used to generate a certain linguistic behaviour meeting the communicational needs of the learner.

Errors result from the learner's attempt to use reference rules as expression rules. There is always a deficit of reference rules and learners have to simplify their expression rules to communicate effectively. That's why Widdowson sees learner's errors as an evidence of success not as failure.

Corder suggests that it might be possible to regard "standard" codes as "elaborated" forms of basic simple codes such as pidgins, creoles, interlanguages and all types of "reduced" registers. This proposal assumes the existence of some universal process of elaboration or complication involved in all types of language learning. Though universal, the process would of course involve language specific "complication rules". Ex: the development of a pidgin into a creole would be a case of progressive complication, and the development of the learner's language into the target language.

Interlanguage and approximative systems are relatively independent of "transfer" from the mother tongue. Recent studies in error analysis has shown that there exists a common body of errors pointing to some universal learning strategies. It is obvious that large numbers of errors can not be explained by the transfer theory. Three of Selinker's processes are connected with the transfer and two are responsible for the formation of interlanguage. (strategies of second language learning and strategies of communication) these two are directly responsible for simplification.

A foreign language learner, in his attempt to compensate for the deficit in reference rules available to him in the target language, can always resort to the process of **lexicalization** of forms which are less elaborate by being closer to the basic forms. The resulting sentences are deviant.

Syntactic transformations determine the syntactical structure of sentences and their sequence. (syntactic structure account for surface structure of sentence)

Minor lexicalization insert function (prepositions, articles, conjunctions..) words and belong to syntactic transformations.

Major lexicalization insert content words (adjectives, nouns, verbs...)

Early lexicalizations result in syntactically simplest constructions characterized by the absence of function words. within contrastive generative grammar **complication** can be defined as the gradual shift of place at which major lexicalization occur from the deepest level of representation (the semantic level, to the level of shallow structure)

According to contrastive generative grammar each language has its specific **pattern of complication** . It states that equivalent sentences across languages have identical semantic inputs, equivalent sentences across languages have language specific **complication routes** according the fact that such sentences exhibit structural and lexical differences. A foreign learner can lexicalize prematurely (constructions that are not elaborated enough) or he may pursue a complication route characteristic of his native language.

Summary

A systematic comparative study analyzing component wise the differences and similarities among languages was clearly recognized towards the end of 19th century and the beginning of 20th century, especially in Europe (Grandgent, 1928; Vietor, 1894 and 1903; Passy, 1912; Mathesius, 1928 and 1936). The term 'Contrastive linguistics' was suggested by Whorf (1941), for comparative study which is giving emphasis on linguistic differences.

Chaturvedi (1973) suggests the following guiding principles for contrastive study:

(i) To analyse the mother tongue and the target language independently and completely. (ii) To compare the two languages item-

wise-item at all levels of their structure. (iii) To arrive at the categories of a) similar features b) partially similar features. c) dissimilar features - for the target language. (iv) To arrive at principles of text preparation, test framing and target language teaching in general.

This hypothesis has two versions, the **strong** version, and the **weak** version. The strong version is the one which most of the supporters of this theory base their claims, although it was unrealistic and impracticable. However, the weak version does have possibilities for usefulness, although even this is suspect to some linguists

Approximative systems: deviant linguistic systems employed by foreign learners in an attempt to utilize the target language (Nemser). This system can be seen as an intermediate stage on the horizontal axis.

Interlanguage: Selinker replaces Nemser's approximative systems with the term interlanguage. According to Selinker there are five factors that shape interlanguage.

- Language transfer
- Transfer of training
- Strategies of second language learning
- Strategies of second language communication
- Overgeneralization of target language linguistic material

Comprehension Questions

1. Explain the historical background of contrastive analysis.
2. What are contrastive analysis hypothesis?
3. What are approximative system and interlanguage as a new dimension of contrastive analysis?

CHAPTER 4

ERROR ANALYSIS

Short Description

This chapter describes a background of error analysis, concepts of error analysis, and description and explanation of errors. In this chapter, I am going to discuss the significance of evaluating Error Analysis (EA) studies in 1970s and early 1980s and set the proper perspective toward the use of learner corpora in analysing learner language errors in order to better understand the process and sequence of acquisition of English as a second/foreign language.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain and apply error analysis that consists

- Identification of error
 - Description of errors
 - Explanation of errors
 - Evaluation and correction of errors
-
-

Introduction

Before 1960s, when the behaviouristic viewpoint of language learning was prevailing, learner errors were considered something undesirable and to be avoided. It is because in behaviourists perspectives, people learn by responding to external stimuli and receiving proper reinforcement. A proper habit is being formed by reinforcement, hence learning takes place. Therefore, errors were considered to be a wrong response to the stimulus, which should be corrected immediately after they

were made. Unless corrected properly, the error became a habit and a wrong behavioural pattern would stick in your mind.

This viewpoint of learning influenced greatly the language classroom, where teachers concentrated on the mimicry and memorisation of target forms and tried to instill the correct patterns of the form into learners' mind. If learners made any mistake while repeating words, phrases or sentences, the teacher corrected their mistakes immediately. Errors were regarded as something you should avoid and making an error was considered to be fatal to proper language learning processes.

This belief of learning was eventually discarded by the well-known radically different perspective proposed by N. Chomsky (1957). He wrote in his paper against B.F. Skinner, that human learning, especially language acquisition, cannot be explained by simply starting off with a "tabula rasa" state of mind. He claimed that human beings must have a certain kind of innate capacity which can guide you through a vast number of sentence generation possibilities and have a child acquire a grammar of that language until the age of five or six with almost no exception. He called this capacity "Universal Grammar" and claimed that it is this very human faculty that linguistics aims to pursue.

This swing-back of pendulum toward a rationalistic view of language ability lead many language teachers to discredit the behaviouristic language learning style and emphasize cognitive-code learning approach. Hence, learners were encouraged to work on more conscious grammar exercises based on certain rules and deductive learning began to be focused again. This application of new linguistic insights, however, did not bear much fruit since Chomsky himself commented that a linguistic theory of the kind he pursued had little to offer for actual language learning or teaching (Chomsky 1966).

In the school of applied linguistics, however, this shift towards the innate human capacity raised a growing interest in the learner's powers of hypothesis formation as he moves towards the bilingual competence sufficient for his communicative needs. One major result of this shift of attention was an increasing concern in the monitoring and analysis of

learner language. The concepts of 'interlanguage' and 'approximative system' presented challenging areas of descriptive enquiry.

In 1970s and early 80s, a large number of papers on error analysis were published throughout the world. However, it lost its attention and enthusiasm gradually as more and more criticism was made against the approach and method of error analysis. As the present writer makes an attempt to analyze learner language computer, it is essential to review the previous work of error analysis and identify what it aimed to achieve and how it failed. Otherwise, it could be just a repetition of what was already done a decade ago and not very much meaningful. Error analysis using learner corpora must be significantly different from traditional error analysis, in quality and quantity. I would like to show the readers whether that is really the case.

I will first review some classic articles on error analysis by Corder, Selinker, Richards, among others and try to establish what the original purpose of error analysis was like or what it intended to do. Then I will describe the criticisms against error analysis in 80s and early 90s and summarize what traditional error analysis failed to offer. Next, I will introduce recent research results on the role of negative evidence in language learning and data-driven learning in order to show the effectiveness of giving feedback to learners about their common errors in a new language learning perspective. Finally, I would like to make a systematic comparison between traditional error analysis and "learner corpus-based" error analysis so that hopefully I can convince the readers of the powers of learner corpora in systematic investigation of learner language.

Error Analysis (EA): its roots and development

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) claims that the study of SLA can be said to have passed through a series of phases defined by the modes of inquiry researchers have utilized in their work: contrastive analysis, error analysis, performance analysis and discourse analysis (p.81). As we look into the roots and development of error analysis, let us first overview

contrastive analysis so as to gain better insight into how error analysis became more popular among SLA researchers.

Contrastive Analysis

Before the SLA field as we know it today was established, from the 1940s to the 1960s, contrastive analyses were conducted, in which two languages were systematically compared. Researchers at that time were motivated by the prospect of being able to identify points of similarity and difference between native languages (NLs) and target languages (TLs). There was a strong belief that a more effective pedagogy would result when these were taken into consideration. Charles Fries, one of the leading applied linguists of the day, said: "The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner." (Fries 1945: 9)

Robert Lado, Fries' colleague at the University of Michigan, also expressed the importance of contrastive analysis in language teaching material design:

Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture - both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practised by natives. (Lado 1957, in Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991:52-53)

Lado went on to say a more controversial position, however, when he claimed that "those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult" (Lado 1957:2). This conviction that linguistic differences could be used to predict learning difficulty produced the notion of the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH): "Where two languages were similar, positive transfer would occur; where they were different, negative transfer, or interference, would result." (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991: 53)

Corder (1967): Introduction of the Concept 'Error Analysis'

It was S.P. Corder who first advocated in ELT/applied linguistics community the importance of errors in language learning process. In Corder (1967), he mentions the paradigm shift in linguistics from a behaviouristic view of language to a more rationalistic view and claims that in language teaching one noticeable effect is to shift the emphasis away from *teaching* towards a study of *learning*. He emphasises great potential for applying new hypotheses about how languages are learned in L1 to the learning of a second language. He says "Within this context the study of errors takes on a new importance and will I believe contribute to a verification or rejection of the new hypothesis." (in Richards 1974:21)

Corder goes on to say that in L1 acquisition we interpret child's 'incorrect' utterances as being evidence that he is in the process of acquiring language and that for those who attempt to describe his knowledge of the language at any point in its development, it is the 'errors' which provide the important evidence.(ibid.: 23) In second language acquisition, Corder proposed as a working hypothesis that some of the strategies adopted by the learner of a second language are substantially the same as those by which a first language is acquired. (It does not mean, however, the course or sequence of learning is the same in L1 and L2.) By classifying the errors that learners made, researchers could learn a great deal about the SLA process by inferring the strategies that second language learners were adopting. It is in this Corder's seminal paper that he adds to our thinking by discussing the function of errors for the learners themselves. For learners themselves, errors are 'indispensable,' since the making of errors can be regarded as a device the learner uses in order to learn. (Selinker 1992: 150)

Selinker (1992) pointed out the two highly significant contributions that Corder made: "that the errors of a learner, whether adult or child, are (a) not random, but are in fact systematic, and are (b) not 'negative' or 'interfering' in any way with learning a TL but are, on the contrary, a necessary positive factor, indicative of testing hypotheses. (ibid:151) Such contribution in Corder (1967) began to provide a framework for the study

of adult learner language. Along with the influence of studies in L1 acquisition and concepts provided by Contrastive Analysis (especially language transfer) and by the interlanguage hypothesis (e.g. fossilization, backsliding, language transfer, communication and learning strategies), this paper provided the impetus for many SLA empirical studies.

Els et al (1984) state a series of steps of error analysis are (1) identification of errors, description of errors, explanation of errors, evaluation of errors, and prevention/correction of errors. Error analysis cannot always be easily identified. First of all, the notion of error presupposes a norm, and norms, are dependent on, amongst other things, the medium (spoken or written language), and the relation between speaker and hearer.

Description and Explanation of Errors

There is a very close connection between the notion of error and the notion of interference in the early literature subject. Interference is a notion which derives from skill research in psychology. In Bilodeau 1966 (in Van Els, et al., 1984) state that a standard work on the history of skill research and those factors which facilitate the learning of skills. The central question is under what condition the learning of new skills facilitated by skills already learned. All new skills are learned on the basis of existing skills, and skill research has shown a keep interest in the phenomenon of *transfer* in which distinction is made between proactive and retroactive transfer. Pro-active transfer is transfer of existing skills onto new skills, and retro-active transfer is transfer of new skills onto existing skills.

In both cases, transfer may be positive or negative. Positive transfer, or facilitation, is transfer of a skill x which facilitates the learning or has a positive influence on the command of skill y because of similarities between both skills. Negative transfer or interference, is a transfer of a skill x which impedes the learning or has a negative influence on the command of a skill y because of differences between both skills.

We have distinguish between *interlingual* and *intralingual* L2 learning problems: in the first case, the learning problem is caused by the

structure of L1; in the second case, it is caused by the structure of L2. Interlingual problems depend on linguistic differences between L1 and L2 and are traditionally interpreted as interference problems are by definition not predictable on the basis of CA.

Overgeneralization such as *seed (saw)* can be found in both L1 and L2 learning. Corder stresses that L1 and L2 learners have the cognitive capacity for making hypothesis about the language they are learning and that both use many similar procedures or strategies.

A distinction between errors of competence and errors of performance was suggested by Corder (1971): errors of competence are the result of the application of rules by the L2 learners which do not correspond to L2 norm; errors of performance are the result of mistakes in language use and manifest themselves as repeats, false starts, correction or slips of the tongue. Errors of performance occur frequently in the speech of both native speakers and L2 learners.

Summary

Before 1960s, when the behaviouristic viewpoint of language learning was prevailing, learner errors were considered something undesirable and to be avoided. Errors were regarded as something you should avoid and making an error was considered to be fatal to proper language learning processes.

This swing-back of pendulum toward a rationalistic view of language ability lead many language teachers to discredit the behaviouristic language learning style and emphasize cognitive-code learning approach. One major result of this shift of attention was an increasing concern in the monitoring and analysis of learner language. Error analysis using learner corpora must be significantly different from traditional error analysis, in quality and quantity. Then I will describe the criticisms against error analysis in 80s and early 90s and summarise what traditional error analysis failed to offer. Next, I will introduce recent research results on the role of negative evidence in language learning and data-driven learning in order to show the effectiveness of giving feedback

to learners about their common errors in a new language learning perspective. Finally, I would like to make a systematic comparison between traditional error analysis and "learner corpus-based" error analysis so that hopefully I can convince the readers of the powers of learner corpora in systematic investigation of learner language.

Robert Lado, Fries' colleague at the University of Michigan, also expressed the importance of contrastive analysis in language teaching material design:

This claim is still quite appealing to anyone who has attempted to learn or teach a foreign language. This conviction that linguistic differences could be used to predict learning difficulty produced the notion of the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH): "Where two languages were similar, positive transfer would occur; where they were different, negative transfer, or interference, would result." It was S.P. Corder who first advocated in ELT/applied linguistics community the importance of errors in language learning process. By classifying the errors that learners made, researchers could learn a great deal about the SLA process by inferring the strategies that second language learners were adopting. For learners themselves, errors are 'indispensable,' since the making of errors can be regarded as a device the learner uses in order to learn. Els et al (1984) state a series of steps of error analysis are (1) identification of errors, description of errors, explanation of errors, evaluation of errors, and prevention/correction of errors. Error analysis cannot always be easily identified.

The central question is under what condition the learning of new skills facilitated by skills already learned. Pro-active transfer is transfer of existing skills onto new skills, and retro-active transfer is transfer of new skills onto existing skills.

Language, 35, pp.26-58.

Chomsky, N. (1966) Research on language learning and linguistics. Corder, S.P. (1967) The significance of learners' errors. Reprinted in J.C.Richards (ed.) (1974, 1984) *Error Analysis: Perspectives on Second*

Language Acquisition. Fries, C.C. (1945) *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*. Larsen-Freeman, D. & Long, M. (1991) *An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research*

Comprehension Questions and Application

1. What is error analysis?
2. How to do error analysis for language learners?
3. Make direct observation and record a language classroom interaction and apply the steps of error analysis.

deepublish / publisher

CHAPTER 5

CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Short Description

This chapter describes critical discourse analysis, discourse analysis and society, conceptual and theoretical framework written by **Teun A. van Dijk** who is professor of discourse studies at the University of Amsterdam. After earlier work in literary studies, text grammar and the psychology of text comprehension, his research in the 1980s focused on the study of news in the press and the reproduction of racism through various types of discourse. In each of these domains, he published several books and many articles. His present research in 'critical' discourse studies focuses on the relations between power, discourse and ideology

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain and apply discourse analysis that consists

- Discourse analysis
- Conceptual and framework of discourse

Introduction

What is Critical Discourse Analysis?

Critical Discourse Analysis is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance and inequality are enacted, reproduced and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. With such dissident research, critical discourse analysts take explicit position, and thus want to understand, expose and ultimately to resist social inequality.

Some of the tenets of Critical Discourse Analysis can already be found in the Critical Theory of the Frankfurt School before the Second World War (Rasmussen, 1996). Its current focus on language and discourse was initiated with the 'critical linguistics' that emerged (mostly in the UK and Australia) at the end of the 1970s (Fowler, Hodge, Kress & Trew, 1979; see also Mey, 1985).

CDA, as it is commonly abbreviated, has counterparts in 'critical' developments in sociolinguistics, psychology and the social sciences, some already dating back to the early 1970s (Birnbaum, 1971; Calhoun, 1995; Fay, 1987; Fox & Prilleltensky, 1997; Hymes, 1972; Ibañez & Iñiguez, 1997; Singh, 1996; Thomas, 1993; Turkel, 1996; Wodak, 1996). As is the case in these neighboring disciplines, CDA may be seen as a reaction against the dominant formal (often 'asocial' or 'uncritical') paradigms of the 1960s and 1970s.

CDA is not so much a direction, school or specialization -- next to the many other 'approaches' in discourse studies. Rather, it aims to offer a different 'mode' or 'perspective' of theorizing, analysis and application throughout the whole field. We may find a more or less critical perspective in such diverse areas as pragmatics, conversation analysis, narrative analysis, rhetoric, stylistics, sociolinguistics, ethnography, or media analysis, among others.

Discourse analysis and society

Crucial for critical discourse analysts is the explicit awareness of their role in society. Continuing a tradition that rejects the possibility of a 'value-free' science, they argue that science, and especially scholarly discourse, are inherently part of, and influenced by social structure, and produced in social interaction. Instead of denying or ignoring such a relation between scholarship and society, they plead that such relations be studied and accounted for in their own right, and that scholarly practices should be based on such insights. Theory formation, description and explanation, also in discourse analysis, are socio-politically 'situated', whether we like it or not. Reflection on the role of scholars in society and

the polity thus becomes inherent part of the discourse analytical enterprise. This may mean, among other things, that discourse analysts conduct research in solidarity and cooperation with dominated groups.

Critical research on discourse needs to satisfy a number of requirements in order to effectively realize its aims:

- As is often the case for more marginal research traditions, CDA research has to be 'better' than other research in order to be accepted.
- It focuses primarily on *social problems* and political issues, rather than on current paradigms and fashions.
- Empirically adequate critical analysis of social problems is usually *multidisciplinary*.
- Rather than to merely *describe* discourse structures, it tries to *explain* them in terms of properties of social interaction and especially social structure.
- More specifically CDA focuses on the ways discourse structures enact, confirm, legitimate, reproduce or challenge relations of *power* and *dominance* in society.

Fairclough & Wodak (1997: 271-280) summarize the main tenets of CDA as follows:

1. CDA addresses social problems
2. Power relations are discursive
3. Discourse Constitutes Society and Culture
4. Discourse does ideological work
5. Discourse is historical
6. The link between text and society is mediated
7. Discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory
8. Discourse is a form of social action.

Whereas some of these tenets have also been discussed above, others need a more systematic theoretical analysis, of which we shall present some fragments here as a more or less general basis for the main principles of CDA (for details about these aims of critical discourse and language studies, see, e.g., Caldas-Coulthard & Coulthard, 1996;

Fairclough, 1995; Fairclough & Wodak, 1997; Fowler, Hodge, Kress & Trew, 1979; Van Dijk, 1993b).

Conceptual and Theoretical frameworks

Since CDA is not a specific direction of research, it does not have a unitary theoretical framework. Within the aims mentioned above, there are many types of CDA, and these may be theoretically and analytically quite diverse. Critical analysis of conversation is very different from an analysis of news reports in the press or of lessons and teaching at school. Yet, given the common perspective and the general aims of CDA, we may also find overall conceptual and theoretical frameworks that are closely related. As suggested, most kinds of CDA will ask questions about the way specific discourse structures are deployed in the reproduction of social dominance, whether they are part of a conversation or a news report or other genres and contexts.

Thus, the typical vocabulary of many scholars in CDA will feature such notions as 'power', 'dominance', 'hegemony', 'ideology', 'class', 'gender', 'race', 'discrimination', 'interests', 'reproduction', 'institutions', 'social structure' or 'social order', besides the more familiar discourse analytical notions.

It comes as no surprise that also CDA research will often refer to the leading social philosophers and social scientists of our time when theorizing these and other fundamental notions. Thus, reference to the leading scholars of the Frankfurter Schule and to the contemporary work by Habermas (for instance on legitimation and his last 'discourse' approach to norms and democracy) is of course common in critical analysis. Similarly, many critical studies will refer to Foucault when dealing with notions such as power, domination and discipline or the more philosophical notion of 'orders of discourse'. More recently, the many studies on language, culture and society by Bourdieu have become increasingly influential, for instance his notion of 'habitus'. From another sociological perspective, Giddens' structuration theory is now occasionally mentioned.

These influences also show that one main tradition of critical studies, viz., the neo-marxist one, as for instance inspired by Gramsci, has now become increasingly replaced by other approaches. It is beyond the scope of this chapter to detail (and criticize) these various philosophical and sociological roots and influences in contemporary CDA. Also, it should be borne in mind that although several of these social philosophers and sociologists make extensive use of the notions of language and discourse, they seldom engage in explicit, systematic discourse analysis. Indeed, the last thing critical discourse scholars should do is to uncritically adopt philosophical or sociological ideas about language and discourse that are obviously uninformed by the advances in contemporary linguistics and discourse analysis. Rather, the work referred to here is mainly relevant for the use of fundamental concepts about the social order and hence for the meta-theory of CDA.

Thus, instead of an extensive review of philosophical and sociological work that might be relevant for the CDA enterprise, I shall rather focus on a number of basic concepts themselves, and thus devise a theoretical framework that critically relates discourse, cognition and society.

Macro vs. Micro

Language use, discourse, verbal interaction and communication belong to the micro-level of the social order. Power, dominance and inequality between social groups are typically terms that belong to a macro-level of analysis. This means that CDA has to theoretically bridge the well-known 'gap' between micro and macro approaches, which is of course a distinction that is a sociological construct in its own right (Alexander, et al., 1987; Knorr-Cetina & Cicourel, 1981). In everyday interaction and experience the macro and micro level (and intermediary 'meso-levels') form one, unified whole. For instance, a racist speech in parliament is a discourse at the micro-level of social interaction in the specific situation of a debate, but at the same time may enact or be a

constituent part of legislation or the reproduction of racism, at the macro-level.

There are several ways to analyze and bridge these levels, and thus to arrive at a unified critical analysis:

- (a) *Members-Groups*: Language users engage in discourse *as* members of (several) social groups, organizations or institutions; and conversely, groups thus may act 'by' their members.
- (b) *Actions-Process*: Social acts of individual actors are thus constituent part of group actions and social processes, such as legislation, newsmaking or the reproduction of racism.
- (c) *Context-Social Structure*. Situations of discursive interaction are similarly part or constitutive of social structure, such as a press conference may be a typical practice of organizations and media institutions. That is, 'local' and more 'global' contexts are closely related, and both exercise constraints on discourse.
- (d) *Personal and Social Cognition*: Language users as social actors have both personal and social cognition: personal memories, knowledge and opinions, as well as those shared with members of the group or culture as a whole. Both types of cognition influence interaction and discourse of individual members, whereas shared 'social representations' govern the collective actions of a group. Thus, cognition is also the crucial interface (or with a biological metaphor: the missing link) between the personal and the social, and hence between individual discourse and social structure.

More specifically focusing on the discourse dimension of these various levels or dimensions of 'mediation' between the macro and the micro, the same principles may apply to the relations between (a) specific instances of text and talk (e.g., a news report), (b) more complex communicative events (all actions involved in producing and reading news reports), (c) news reports in general, as a genre, and (d) the order of discourse of the mass media (see also Fairclough & Wodak, 1997: 277-278).

Power as control

A central notion in most critical work on discourse is that of power, and more specifically the *social power* of groups or institutions. Summarizing a complex philosophical and social analysis, we'll define social power in terms of *control*. Thus, groups have (more or less) power if they are able to (more or less) control the acts and minds of (members of) other groups. This ability presupposes a *power base* of (privileged access to) scarce social resources, such as force, money, status, fame, knowledge, information, 'culture' or indeed various forms of public discourse and communication (of the vast literature on power, see, e.g., Lukes, 1986; Wrong, 1979).

Different *types of power* may be distinguished according to the various resources employed to exercise such power: The coercive power of the military and of violent men will rather be based on force, the rich will have power because of their money, whereas the more or less persuasive power of parents, professors or journalists may be based on knowledge, information or authority. Note also that power is seldom absolute. Groups may more or less control other groups, or only control them in specific situations or social domains. Moreover, dominated groups may more or less resist, accept, condone, comply with or legitimate such power, and even find it 'natural'. Indeed, the power of dominant groups may be integrated in laws, rules, norms, habits and even a quite general consensus, and thus take the form of what Gramsci called 'hegemony' (Gramsci, 1971). Class domination, sexism and racism are characteristic examples of such hegemony. Note also that power is not always exercised in obviously abusive acts of dominant group members, but may be enacted in the myriad of taken-for-granted actions of everyday life. Similarly, not all members of a powerful group are always more powerful than all members of dominated groups: Power is only defined here for groups as a whole.

For our analysis of the relations between discourse and power, thus, we first find that access to specific forms of discourse, e.g., those of politics, the media or science, is itself a power resource. Secondly, as suggested earlier, action is controlled by our minds. So, if we are able to

influence people's minds, e.g., their knowledge or opinions, we indirectly may control (some of) their actions. And, thirdly, since people's minds are typically influenced by text and talk, we find that discourse may at least indirectly control people's actions, as we know from persuasion and manipulation.

Closing the discourse-power circle, finally, this means that those groups who control most influential discourse also have more chances to control the minds and actions of others.

CDA focuses on the *abuse* of such power, and especially on *dominance*, that is, on the ways control over discourse is abused to control people's beliefs and actions in the interest of dominant groups, and against the best interests or the will of the others. 'Abuse' in this case may be (very roughly) characterized as a norm-violation that hurts others, given some ethical standard, such as (just) rules, agreements, laws or human rights principles. In other words, dominance may be briefly defined as the illegitimate exercise of power.

Simplifying these very intricate relationships even further for this chapter, we shall split up the issue of discursive power into three basic questions for CDA-research:

- a. How do (more) powerful groups control public discourse?
- b. How does such discourse control mind and action of (less) powerful groups, and what are the social consequences of such control, such as social inequality?
- c. How do dominated groups discursively challenge or resist such power.

Access and discourse control

We have seen that among many other resources that define the power base of a group or institution, also *access to*, or *control over* public discourse and communication is an important 'symbolic' resource, as is the case for knowledge and information (Van Dijk, 1996).

Most people only have active control over everyday talk with family members, friends or colleagues, and passive control over, e.g., media

usage. In many situations, ordinary people are more or less passive targets of text or talk, e.g., of their bosses or teachers, or of the authorities, such as police officers, judges, welfare bureaucrats or tax inspectors, who may simply tell them what (not) to believe or what to do.

On the other hand, members of more powerful social groups and institutions, and especially their leaders (the elites), have more or less exclusive access to, and control over one or more types of public discourse. Thus, professors control scholarly discourse, teachers educational discourse, journalists media discourse, lawyers legal discourse, and politicians policy and other public political discourse. Those who have more control over more --and more influential-- discourse (and more discourse properties) are by that definition also more powerful. In other words, we here propose a discursive definition (as well as a practical diagnostic) of one of the crucial constituents of social power.

These notions of discourse access and control are very general, and it is one of the tasks of CDA to spell out these forms of power. Thus, if discourse is defined in terms of complex communicative events, access and control may be defined both for the *context* and for the *structures of text and talk* itself.

Context Control

Context is defined as the (mentally represented) structure of those properties of the social situation that are relevant for the production or comprehension of discourse (Duranti & Goodwin, 1992; Van Dijk, 1998). It consists of such categories as the overall definition of the situation, setting (time, place), ongoing actions (including discourses and discourse genres), participants in various communicative, social or institutional roles, as well as their mental representations: goals, knowledge, opinions, attitudes and ideologies.

Controlling context involves control over one or more of these categories, e.g., determining the definition of the communicative situation, deciding on time and place of the communicative event, or on which participants may or must be present, and in which roles, or what

knowledge or opinions they should (not) have, and which social actions may or must be accomplished by discourse (Diamond, 1996).

It is thus that the contexts of a parliamentary debate, a board meeting, a trial, a lecture, or a consult with one's doctor are usually controlled by (members) of dominant groups. Thus, only MPs have access to a parliamentary debate, and only they may speak (with permission of the Speaker or Chair, and for a specific amount of time) and represent their constituencies, vote on a Bill, and so on. In a trial, only juries or judges have access to specific speaking roles and genres such as verdicts. Secretaries may have access to board meetings, but often only in the role of silently writing the minutes. A CDA-approach specifically focuses on those forms of context control that are in the best interests of the dominant group.

The Control of Text and Talk

Crucial in the enactment or exercise of group power is the control over the structures of text and talk. Relating text and context, thus, we already saw that (members of) powerful groups may decide on the (possible) discourse *genre(s)* or *speech acts* of an occasion. A teacher or judge may require a direct answer from a student or suspect, respectively, and not a personal story or an argument (Wodak, 1984a, 1986). More critically, we may examine how powerful speakers may abuse of their power in such situations, e.g., when police officers use force to get a confession from a suspect (Linell & Jonsson, 1991), or when male editors exclude women from writing economic news (Van Zoonen, 1994).

Similarly, genres typically have conventional *schemata* consisting of various *categories*. Access to some of these may be prohibited or obligatory, as when opening or closing a parliamentary session is a prerogative of the Speaker, and some greetings in a conversation may only be used by speakers of a specific social group, rank, age or gender (Irvine, 1974).

Vital for all discourse and communication is who controls the *topics* (semantic macrostructures) and topic change, as when editors decide what

news topics will be covered (Gans, 1979; Van Dijk, 1988a, 1988b), professors what topics will be dealt with in class, or men may control topics and topic change in conversations with women (Palmer, 1989; Fishman, 1983; Leet-Pellegrini, 1980; Lindegren-Lerman, 1983). As with other forms of discourse control, such decisions may be (more or less) negotiable among the participants, and depend very much on context, that is on how participants interpret the communicative situation.

Although most discourse control is contextual or global, even local details of *meaning*, *form* or *style* may be controlled, e.g., the details of an answer in class or court, choice of lexical items or jargon in courtrooms, classrooms or newsrooms (Martin Rojo, 1994). In many situations volume may be controlled and speakers ordered to 'keep their voice down' or to 'keep quiet', women may be 'silenced' in many ways (Houston & Kramarae, 1991), and in some cultures one need to 'mumble' as a form of respect (Albert, 1972). The public use of specific words may be banned as subversive in a dictatorship, and discursive challenges to culturally dominant groups (e.g., white, western males) by their multicultural opponents may be ridiculed in the media as 'politically correct' (Williams, 1995). And finally, action and interaction dimensions of discourse may be controlled by prescribing or proscribing specific speech acts, and by selectively distributing or interrupting turns (see also Diamond, 1996).

Across levels, what we may conclude from many critical studies is the prominence of overall strategy of *Positive Self-Presentation* of the dominant ingroup, and *Negative Other-Presentation* of the dominated outgroups (Van Dijk, 1993a, 1998b). The polarization of Us and Them that characterizes shared social representations and their underlying ideologies is thus expressed and reproduced at all levels of text and talk, e.g., in contrastive topics, local meanings, metaphor and hyperbole, and the variable formulations in text schemata, syntactic forms, lexicalization, sound structures and images.

In sum, virtually all levels and structures of context, text and talk can in principle be more or less controlled by powerful speakers, and such power may be abused at the expense of other participants. It should

however be stressed that talk and text do not always and directly enact or embody the overall power relations between groups: It is always the context that may interfere, reinforce or otherwise transform such relationships. Obviously not all men are always dominant in all conversations (Kotthoff & Wodak, 1997; Tannen, 1994a), nor all whites or professors, for that matter.

Mind control

If controlling discourse is a first major form of power, controlling people's minds is the other fundamental way to reproduce dominance and hegemony. Note though that 'mind control' is merely a handy phrase to summarize a very complex process. Cognitive psychology and mass communication research have shown that influencing the mind is not as straightforward a process as simplistic ideas about mind control might suggest (Britton & Graesser, 1996; Glasser & Salmon, 1995; Klapper, 1960; van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983). Recipients may be quite autonomous and variable in their interpretation and uses of text and talk, also as a function of class, gender or culture (Liebes & Katz, 1990). But although recipients will seldom passively accept the intended opinions of specific discourses, we should on the other hand not forget that most of our beliefs about the world are acquired through discourse.

Within a CDA-framework, 'mind control' involves more than just acquiring beliefs about the world through discourse and communication. The element of power and dominance in this case enters the picture in various ways, e.g., as follows:

- (a) Unless inconsistent with their personal beliefs and experiences, recipients tend to accept beliefs (knowledge and opinions) through discourse from what they see as authoritative, trustworthy or credible sources, such as scholars, experts, professionals or reliable media (Nesler, et al. 1993). In this sense, powerful discourse is (contextually) defined in terms of the perceived power of its authors; for the same reasons, minorities and women may often be perceived as less credible (Andsager, 1990; Khatib, 1989; Verrillo, 1996).

- (b) In some situations participants are obliged to be recipients of discourse, e.g., in education and in many job situations. Lessons, learning materials, job instructions, and other discourse types in such cases may need to be attended to, interpreted and learned as intended by institutional or organizational authors (Giroux, 1981).
- (c) In many situations there are no other public discourses or media that may provide information from which alternative beliefs may be derived (Downing, 1984).
- (d) And, closely related to the previous points: Recipients may not have the knowledge and beliefs needed to challenge the discourses or information they are exposed to (Wodak, 1987).

These four points suggest that discursive mind control is a form of power and dominance if such control is in the interest of the powerful and if the recipients have 'no alternatives', i.e., no other sources (speakers, writers), no other discourses, no other option but to listen or read, and no relevant other beliefs to evaluate such discourses. If freedom is defined as having the opportunity to think and do what one wants, then such lacking alternatives are by definition a limitation of the freedom of the recipients. And limiting the freedom of others, especially in one's own interest, happens to be one of the definitions of power and domination.

Whereas these conditions of mind control are largely *contextual* (they say something about the participants of a communicative event), other conditions are *discursive*, that is, a function of the structures and strategies of text or talk itself. In other words, given a specific context, certain meanings and forms of discourse have more influence on people's minds than others, as the very notion of 'persuasion' and a tradition of 2000 years of rhetoric may show.

Analyzing the mind

In order to analyze the complex processes involved in how discourse may control people's minds, we would need to spell out the detailed mental representations and cognitive operations studied in cognitive science. Since even an adequate summary is beyond the scope of this chapter, we'll

only briefly introduce a few notions that are necessary to understand the processes of discursive mind control (for details, see, e.g., Graesser & Bower, 1990; Van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983; Van Oostendorp & Zwaan, 1994; Weaver, Mannes & Fletcher, 1995).

A first useful distinction is usually made between personal or *episodic memory*, and *social memory*. The first may be defined as the store of experiences or subjective representations, called *mental models*, consisting of the specific knowledge and opinions people have accumulated during their lifetime. Also the experience of the ongoing situation, interaction and discourse is thus represented in a mental model, which we call a *context model* (Van Dijk, 1998b). The second type of memory consists of the *social representations*, such as more general and abstract socio-cultural knowledge, attitudes or ideologies, people share with other members of a group. Although this distinction is often quite clear, it should be noted that groups may also share beliefs about 'collective experiences' or specific historical events, as is typically the case for the Holocaust.

Thus, an everyday story will typically be based on a mental model of a personal experience, whereas a party program or racist slogans rather express the beliefs of a group. Of course, because language users are not just individuals but may also speak or write as members of (several) groups, their discourses may also express socially shared mental representations of these groups. Within a group, social representations are typically *presupposed* (while taken for granted) by the discourses of group members.

Discursive mind control may now be defined as the control of the mental models and/or social representations of other people. Such control is a form of domination (power abuse), if it is in the interest of the powerful and against the best interests of those who are thus controlled (persuaded, manipulated). Obviously, for the purposes of CDA-research, interested in social power and domination, it is the control of social representations of a group that is most relevant for analysis. Such control may affect both the knowledge (factual beliefs) of a group, as well as the

socially shared opinions (evaluative beliefs), such as attitudes and ideologies, of the group.

The discourse strategies of mind control

Now we have elementary insight into some of the structures of the mind, and what it means to control it, the crucial question is how discourse and its structures are able to exercise such control. As we have seen above in the analysis of control over discourse, such discursive influence may be due to *context* as well as to the *structures of text and talk themselves*.

Contextually based control derives from the fact that people not only understand and represent text and talk, but also the whole communicative situation. People are not merely influenced, persuaded or manipulated by properties of discourse, but also by those of speakers or writers, such as their (perceived) power, authority or credibility (Giles & Coupland, 1991). Similarly, also other factors of the situation (time, place, circumstances, roles and wishes of participants) may be involved in how communicative events control our minds. CDA typically studies how context features (such as the properties of language users of powerful groups) influence the ways members of dominated groups define the communicative situation in 'preferred context models' (Martin Rojo & Van Dijk, 1997).

More crucially, CDA focuses on how *discourse structures* influence mental representations. Thus, at the *global level* of discourse, *topics* may influence what people see as the most important information of text or talk, and thus correspond to the top levels of their mental models. Expressing such topics in the news *schema category* of a Headline, may even more powerfully influence how an event is defined in terms of such a 'preferred' mental model, for instance when crime of minorities is typically topicalized and headlined in the press (Duin, et al., 1988; Van Dijk, 1991). Similarly, argumentation may be persuasive because of the social opinions that are 'hidden' in its implicit premises, and that thus may be taken for granted by the recipients. Thus, immigration may thus be restricted if it is presupposed in a parliamentary debate that all refugees are 'illegal'.

Similarly, at the *local level* , in order to understand discourse *meaning* and *coherence* , people may need models featuring beliefs that remain implicit (presupposed) in discourse. This is a typical feature of manipulation: To communicate beliefs implicitly, that is without actually asserting them, and with less chance that they will be challenged. Similarly, local meanings may be strategically employed to influence the formation of social representations by generalizations of models. This is why in much racist discourse speakers will not just tell a story about a specific event (which may be of little social consequence), but tend to add various forms of generalizations ('This always happens like that', or 'They are all the same')(van Dijk, 1984, 1987).

Lexical and syntactic surface structures (style) may vary as a condition of context, including the opinions of speakers (Giles & Coupland, 1991; Scherer & Giles, 1979), as the political use of the well-known lexical pair 'freedom fighter' vs. 'terrorist' shows. Much traditional work in critical linguistics focuses on such a 'biased' use of words, which is obviously intended to influence the opinions represented in the models of recipients. The same is true for the use of *rhetorical figures* such as metaphors, similes, hyperboles or euphemisms, which may emphasize or de-emphasize opinions, for instance within the general strategy of positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation in much racist or nationalist discourse (see below).

Speech acts are largely defined by context models, but whether or not an utterance is interpreted as a threat or as good advice may vitally influence text processing (Colebrook & McHoul, 1996; Graesser, et al. 1996). The many *interactional dimensions* of discourse, such as turn taking and sequencing, are also based on, and influence the updating of models. Power and authority of speakers as enacted by turn control, may at the same time enhance the perceived credibility of speakers and hence the construction of models as being 'true'.

Complications

With these few examples, we see how various types of discourse structure may influence the formation and change of mental models and social representations. If dominant groups, and especially their elites largely control public discourse and its structures, they thus also have more control over the minds of the public at large. However, as suggested before, such control has its limits. The complexity of comprehension and the formation and change of beliefs, are such that one cannot always predict which features of a specific text or talk will have which effects on the minds of specific recipients.

With these brief remarks about the relations between discourse structures and mental structures, the theoretical circle that relates society and discourse, via cognition, has been closed. That is, we have a (still very general) picture of how discourse is involved dominance (power abuse) and in the production and reproduction of social inequality. It is the aim of CDA to investigate these relationships in more detail.

I should be stressed again, however, that the picture just sketched is very schematic and general. The relations between the social power of groups and institutions, on the one hand, and discourse on the other, as well as between discourse and cognition, and cognition and society are vastly more complex. There are many contradictions. There is not always a clear picture of one dominant group (or class, or institution) oppressing another one, controlling all public discourse, and such discourse directly controlling the mind of the dominated. There are many forms of collusion, consensus, legitimation and even 'joint production' of forms of inequality. Members of dominant groups may become dissidents and side with dominated groups, and vice versa -- members of dominated groups may take and defend opinions that are consistent with those of the dominant elites. Opponent discourses may be adopted by dominant groups, whether strategically to neutralize them, or simply because also dominant power and ideologies may change, as is for instance quite obvious in ecological discourse and ideology. In other words, the complexities may be more interesting than the overall picture.

Summary

Our critical analysis of some passage of D'Souza's *The End of Racism* shows what kind of discursive structures, strategies and moves are deployed in exercising the power of the dominant (white, western, male) group, and how readers are manipulated to form or confirm the social representations that are consistent with a conservative, supremacist ideology. The overall strategy is the combined implementation, at all levels of the text, of the positive presentation of the ingroup and the negative presentation of the outgroup. In D'Souza's book, the principal rhetorical means are those of hyperbole and metaphor, viz., the exaggerated representation of social problems in terms of illness ("pathologies", "virus"), and the emphasis of the contrast between the Civilized and the Barbarians. Semantically and lexically, the Others are thus associated not simply with difference, but rather with deviance ("illegitimacy") and threat (violence, attacks). Pragmatically, argumentative assertions of the depravity of black culture, are combined with denials of white deficiencies (racism), with rhetorical mitigation and euphemization of its crimes (colonialism, slavery), and semantic reversals of blame (blaming the victim). Social conflict is thus cognitively represented and enhanced by polarization, and discursively sustained and reproduced by derogating, demonizing and excluding the Others from the community of Us, the Civilized.

Question and Tasks

1. What is critical discourse analysis?
2. What are framework of critical discourse?
3. Find out a text on a newspaper and analyze their political discourse of government election.

CHAPTER 6

APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE TEACHING: THE ORAL APPROACH AND COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING

Short Description

The terms Oral Approach or Situational Language Teaching are familiar with few language teachers in the 1980s. These terms refer to an approach to language teaching developed by British applied linguists from the 1930s to the 1960s. Oral Approach and Situational language Teaching has shaped the design of many used EFL textbooks, and courses. Therefore, this chapter also explains approach, design, and procedure in Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching. This chapter also describes background of community language learning. It is also described approaches that are used in community language learning in which theory of language and theory of learning to be covered. Design and procedure of teaching by using community language learning are also described and explained.

Basic Competence

1. Students are able to explain and apply approaches and methods in language teaching that cover:
 - Oral Approach in language teaching
 - Situational language teaching
 - Approach and method, design, and procedure
 - Theory of language
 - Theory of learning

2. Students are able to explain and apply community language learning that cover:
 - Background of community language learning
 - Approaches that relate to community language learning.
 - Design and procedure of applying community language learning.

Introduction

The origins of this approach begin with the work of British applied linguists in the 1920s and 1960s. Beginning at this time, a number of applied linguists developed the basis for a principled approach to methodology in language teaching. Harold Palmer and A.S. Hornby were the most prominent figures in British twentieth-century language teaching. (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

One of the first aspects of method design to receive attention was the role of vocabulary. In the 1920s and 1930s several large-scale investigations of foreign language vocabulary were undertaken. The research came from two quarters. First, there was a general consensus among language teaching specialists, such as Palmer, that vocabulary was one of the most important aspects of foreign language learning. A second influence was the increased emphasis on reading skills as the goal of foreign language study in some countries. This led to the development of principles of vocabulary control, which were to have a major practical impact on the teaching of English in the following decade.

Parallel to the interest in developing rational principles for vocabulary selection was a focus on the grammatical content of a language course. Palmer had emphasized the problems of grammar for the foreign learner. He was directed toward developing classroom procedures suited to teaching basic grammatical patterns through an oral approach. Besides, Hornby and other British applied linguists analyzed patterns which could be used to help internalize the rules of English sentence structure. Moreover, classification of English sentence patterns was incorporated into the first dictionary for students of English as a foreign language, developed

by Hornby, Gatenby, and Wakefield and published in 1953 as *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*.

The Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching

Palmer, Hornby, and other British applied linguists from the 1920s onward developed an approach to methodology that involved systematic principles of selection (procedures by which lexical and grammatical content was chosen) gradation (principles by which the organization and sequencing of content were determined), and presentation (techniques used for presentation and practice of items in a course).

Richards and Rodgers (1986) have explained some supported development of the Oral Approach that was accepted British approach to English language teaching by the 1950s that described the standard methodology textbooks of period, such as French (1948-50), Gurrey (1955), Frisby (1957), and Billows (1961). Its principles are seen in Hornby's famous Oxford Progressive English Course for Adult Learners (1954-6) and in many other more recent textbooks.

Pittman was also responsible for the situationally based materials developed by the Commonwealth Office of Education in Sydney Australia, used in the English programs for immigrants in Australia. These were published for worldwide use in 1965 as the series Situational English. The main characteristics of the approach that Richards and Rodgers stated as follows:

1. Language teaching begins with the spoken language. Material is taught orally before it is presented in written form.
2. The target language is the language of the classroom.
3. New language points are introduced and practiced situationally.
4. Vocabulary selection procedures are allowed to ensure that an essential general service vocabulary covered.
5. Items of grammar are graded following the principle that simple forms should be taught before complex ones.
6. Reading and writing are introduced once a sufficient lexical and grammatical basis is established.

Approach***Theory of Language***

The theory of language underlying Situational Language Teaching can be characterized as a type of British “structuralism”. Speech was regarded as the basis of language, and structure was viewed as being the heart of speaking ability. Palmer, Hornby, and other British applied linguists had prepared pedagogical descriptions on the basic grammatical structures of English, and these were to be followed in the developing methodology. They developed principal classroom activity in the teaching of English structure will be the oral practice of structures. This oral practice of control sentence patterns should be given in situations design to give the greatest amount of practice of English speech to the pupils.

The theory of that knowledge of structures must be linked to situations in which they could be used gave situational language teaching one of distinctive features. This may be have reflected the functional trends in British linguistics since thirties. Many British linguists had emphasized the close relationship between the structure of language and the contexts and situations in which language is used. British linguists such as Firth and Halliday developed powerful views of language in which meaning, contexts, and situations were given a priment place. The emphasis now is on the description of language activity as part of the whole complex of events which, together with the participants and relevant objects, make up actual situations (Halliday, McIntosh, and Stevens 1964).

Theory of Learning

Situational Language teaching is based on on behaviorist habit-learning theory. This theory said that learning is a mechincal process of habit formation and proceeds by means of the frequent reinforcement of a stimulus-response sequence (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) The simplicity and directness of this theory had an enormous impact on learning psychology and on language teaching. It provided the theoretical underpinning of the widely used Audiolingual Method of the 1950s and

1960s. This method laid down a set of guiding methodological principles, based firstly on behaviorist stimulus-response concept and secondly on an assumption that second language language learning should reflect and imitate the perceived process of mother tongue learning.

Situational Language teaching, like the Direct method, adopts an inductive approach to the teaching of grammar. The meaning of words or structure is not to be given through explanation in either the native tongue or the target language but is to be induced from the way the form is used in a situation. Explanation is therefore discouraged, and the learner is expected to deduce the meaning of a particular structure or vocabulary items from the situation in which is presented. The learner is also expected to apply the language learned in a classroom to situation outside the classroom.

Design

Objectives

The objectives of the Situational Language Teaching method are to teach a practical command of the four basic skills of language, goals it shares with most methods of language teaching. But the skills are approached through structure. Accuracy in both pronunciation and grammar is regarded as crucial, and errors to be avoided at all costs. Automatic control of basic structures and sentence patterns is fundamental to reading and writing skills, and this is achieved through speech work (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

The Syllabus

Situational Language Teaching is a structural syllabus and a word list. A structural syllabus is a list of the structures and sentence patterns of English, arranged according to their order presentation. Structures are always taught within sentences, and vocabulary is chosen according to how well it enables sentence patterns to be taught. Frisby in Richards and Rodgers (1986) give an example of the typical structural syllabus around which situational teaching was based:

	Sentence patter	Vocabulary
1 st lesson	This is	book, pencil, ruler
	This is	desk
2 nd lesson	These are	Chairs, picture, door
	Those are	window
3 rd lesson	Is this ...? Yes it is	watch, box. Pen
	Is that ...? Yes, it is	blackboard.

Types of Learning and Teaching Activities

Situational language teaching refers to a situational approach to presenting new sentence patterns and a drill based manner of practicing them. Pitman in Richards and Rodgers (1986) state that the situation will be controlled carefully to teach the new language material that use of concrete objects, pictures, and relia, which together with actions and gestures can be used to deconstrate the meanings of new language items.

The form of new words and sentence patterns is demonstrated with examples and not through grammatical explanation or description. The meaning of new words and sentence pattern is not conveyed through translation. It is made clear visually (with objects, pictures, action and mime). Wherever possible model sentences are related and taken from a single situation (Devies, Rpberts, and Rossner in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:38).

Learner Roles

In the presentation stage of the lesson, the teacher serves as a model, setting up situations in which the need for the target structure is created and then modeling the new structure for students to repeat. Then the teacher ‘becomes more like the skillfull conductor of an orchestra, drawing the music out of the performers’ (Byrne 1976:2). The teacher is required to be a skilled manipulator, using questions, commands, and other cues to elicit correct sentences from the learners. Lesson are hence teacher directed, and the teacher sets the pace.

During the practice phase of the lessons, students are given an opportunity to use the language in less controlled situations, but the teacher is ever on the lookout for grammatical and structural errors that can form the basis of subsequent lessons. Pittman (1963) in Richards and Rodgers (1986) summarize the teacher's responsibilities as dealing with (1) timing, (2) oral practice, to support the textbook structures, (3) revision (i.e. review), (4) adjustment to special needs of individuals, (5) testing, and (6) developing language activities other than those arising from the textbook.

The Role of Instructional Materials

Situational language teaching is based on both a textbook and visual aids. The textbook contains organized lessons planned around different grammatical structures. Visual aids may be produced by the teacher or may be commercially produced; they consist of wall charts, flashcards, pictures, stick figures, and so on. The visual element together with a carefully graded grammatical syllabus is a crucial aspect of Situational Language Teaching.

Procedure

Situational Language Teaching procedures vary according to the level of the class, but the procedures at any level aim to move from controlled to freer practice of structures and from oral use sentence patterns to their automatic use in speech, reading, and writing. Pittman (1963:173) gives an example of a typical lesson plan as follows: (1) pronunciation, (2) revision (to prepare for new work if necessary), (3) presentation of new structure or vocabulary, (4) oral practice (drilling), and (5) reading of materials on the new structure or written exercises.

Community Language Learning

Community language learning (CLL) is the name of a method that is developed by Charles A. Curran and his associates. Curran was a specialist in counseling and a professor of psychology at Loyola University,

Chicago. His application of psychological counseling techniques to learning is known as Counseling-Learning. Community Language Learning represents the use of Counseling-Learning theory to teach languages. If we view the comparison between Counseling-Learning Method and another language teaching methods, this method is less in the technique, but tends to the human relationship. Curran introduced counseling-Learning method in 1961. This method is focused on students.

In this technique, Curran emphasized to the uniqueness of each person. Counseling interested to the insight and self-awareness to the achievement of each person that can stimulate personal development, satisfaction, and good relationship with other people. The emphasis of activities that is oriented to the collective tasks had brought some people, included Curran himself, to direct Community-Learning as Community Language Learning. According to Curran, those activities are more than a group process. He felt that our problems were the tendency in solving the problems than make a relationship with other people.

Curran said that the counselor should know the necessity of each person in achieving his or her personal satisfaction. That satisfaction needs interaction with other people that will produce appreciation and understanding on both sides. One of the interactions, especially in language classroom, is communication that is produced by students' collective efforts that are aimed to the tasks settlement. The procedures that are followed in Counseling-Learning language class are simple. The students (client in Curran's terminology) sit in a circle. The teacher (knower or counselor expert or counselor teacher) standing outside the circle. The teacher or knower can handle one client or three clients or one teacher or knower can handle the whole group.

The first phase, the teacher can use *tape recorder*. But, the sound that is recorded is just the sound of clients when they are speaking in target language. Curran felt that this activity can increase the students' new identity in using foreign language and helps them to be *counselor-expert*.

In this method, the students just ask to communicate each other about anything. They start the dialogue in mother tongue, and the *knower*,

outside the circle, translates into target language. Then, the students express in target language about what they have just heard from the *knower*. Because the *knower* is outside the circle, the questions cannot be asked to the *knower*. Someone who includes in the circle will try to answer the question. *Overhear* is important in this phase. Same as Silent Way, there is a silent period and reflection when someone is considering what she or he has just heard. If recording has done, it can be played when the lesson will be closed. The student can ask the *knower* to write down the dialogue in the blackboard and explain all the things related to the grammatical structure. It can be simply handled.

Curran has developed this method in lecture. He used four counselors of students. While the process of teaching and learning, these counselors paraphrased or summarized what they have just heard. If their perception is true, it means the teachers can continue their work.

The very amazing thing that can make the students happy is their responsibility of their learning activities. The students need the teacher when they want and they do not need the teacher when they know what they want to do. Same as Silent Way, the students help each other. When they start to acquire target language, the dialogue will be gratifying. The students can use mother tongue but turn to use target language quickly. *Knower* gives the translation if there is a student who gives the sign by raising his or her hand (need some helps).

At the end of the activities, the color signs are used. Red color will be flamed if the students make some mistakes; yellow color will be flamed if there is a suitable idiom or suitable way in paraphrasing the utterances; green color will be flamed if the students' utterances are true. Blue color refers to the ability of the native speaker. The students express their comments about their satisfaction in uttering sentence by sentence with another member in the circle while receive the warm support from the silence and symbolization.

In a good relation of *knower-client*, they believe and respect each other. The *client* tries to be same as the language and personality of the *knower*. Curran identified five stages of *clients'* developments. First,

embryonic stages. In this stage, there is a total dependence to the teacher. Second, *self-assertion stage*, where the students start to show their independency. Third, *birth stage*, when the students speak independently although not perfect. Fourth, *reversal stage* when the students are ready to get correction. Fifth, *independent stage*, where the students are able to repair their speaking style.

There are some limitation of this method. One of those limitations is exercise that is needed by the knower to be an ideal one. If she or he is not a native speaker, she or he should have a competence in acquiring the target language perfectly. The knower has to master psychological sector, to solve the problem that occur between students. The knower also has to master linguistic sector in solving the problems of phonology and grammatical structure of the target language. The characteristics of the power of this method are affective and cognitive. La-Forge who demonstrates this method in University of Michigan during six months, have reported the high motivation of the clients. He emphasized that the value of silent period is for learning and understanding what have been stated.

As have explained at the previous explanation above that Counseling-Learning represents the use of Community Language Learning that is developed by Curran and his associates. Why is it called as Community Language Learning? Because the learners learn or acquire their foreign language in a community or in a group. In teaching and learning process the students are asked by the teacher to make a circle and then they discuss each other about the message that will be conveyed. As we can see at the following procedures of Community Language Learning.

1. A group of learners sit in a circle.
2. A students whispers a message in the native language (L1)

The students can convey what in their thinking, about their daily activities by using native language or mother tongue. But, it is better for them to convey the message that has relation to the topic that has given by the teacher. It helps them to master the material that is being learned, also, they can improve their speaking ability.

3. The teacher translates it the foreign language (L2)

The teacher should translate the message that has conveyed by the students, by using foreign language. So that, the students know the translation of the message that they have conveyed in the foreign language. The teacher in Community Language Learning classroom has to have competences in directing the students in learning the foreign language.

4. The student repeats the message in the foreign language into a cassette.

In this procedure, the students have to be able to repeat the message that has translated by the teacher. It can improve their comprehension in listening of what the teacher said. While repeating the message that has translated by the teacher, the students record what they are conveying by using tape recorder.

5. Students compose further messages in the foreign language with the teacher's help.

It can help the students' writing ability in composing messages in foreign language. The teacher has to manage what the students are doing. The teacher should help the students in composing the message in foreign language. So that, they know what they should compose. Sometimes, some students do not have many supply words. The teacher should help them in finding the suitable words that will be used in their writing.

6. Students reflect about their feelings.

Sometimes, the techniques of Community Language Learning described as *humanistic techniques*, as defined by Moskowitz (1978)...

Blend what the student feels, thinks, and knows with what he or she is learning in the target language. Rather than self-denial being the acceptable way of life, self-actualization and self-esteem are ideals the exercises pursue. (The techniques) help build rapport, cohesiveness, and caring tht far transcend what is already there...help students to be themselves, to accept

themselves, and be proud of themselves... help foster a climate of caring and sharing in the foreign language class. (Moskowitz 1978: 2)

Approach

Theory of Language

As the students of Curran, La-Forge (1983) has attempted to be more explicit about this dimension of community language learning theory, and we draw of his account for the language theory underlying the method. La-Forge reviews linguistic theory as the prelude to presenting CLL model of language. He seems to accept that language theory must start, though not end, with criteria for sound features, the sentence, and abstract model of language. The foreign language learners' tasks are "to apprehend the sound system, assign fundamental meanings, and to construct a basic grammar of the foreign language."

A theory of language built on "basic sound and grammatical patterns" does not appear to suggest any departures from traditional structural position of the nature of language. But, the recent writing of CLL components deal at great length with what they call an alternative theory of language, which is referred to as *language as social process*. La-Forge begins by suggesting that language, as social process is "different from language as communication." The social process model is different from earlier information-transmitting models, La-Forge suggest because communication is more than just a message being transmitted from a speaker to a listener. The speaker is the same time both subject and object of his own message. Communication involves not just the unidirectional transfer of information to the other, but also the very constitution of the speaking subject in relation to each other.

The social process view of language is then elaborated in terms of six qualities or sub processes:

1. The whole person process
2. The educational process
3. The interpersonal process

4. The developmental process
5. The communicative process
6. The cultural process

A theory of language built on “basic sound and grammatical patterns” does not appear to suggest any departures from traditional structuralist position on the nature of language. However, the recent writings of Community Language Learning proponents deal at great length with what they call an alternative theory of language, which is referred to as *Language as Social Process*.

La-Forge elaborates on the interactional view of language underlying Community Language Learning. “Language is people; language is person in contact; language is person in response.” Learner exchanges depend in intimacy, as the class becomes community of learners. Tranel (1968) notes that “the students of the experimental group were highly motivated to learn in order to avoid isolation from the group.” *Intimacy* then appears to be defined here as the desire to avoid isolation.

Interaction between learners and knower is initially dependent. The learners tells the knower what she or he wishes to say in the target language , and the knower tells the learners how to say it. These two types of interaction may be said to be microcosmically equivalent to the two major classes of human interaction—interaction between equals (symmetrical) and interaction between unequal (asymmetrical) (Munby 1978). They also appear to represent examples of (a) interaction that changes in degree (learner to learner) and (b) interaction that changes in kind (learner to knower). That is learner-learner interaction is held to change in the direction of increasing intimacy and trust, whereas learners-knower interaction is held to change in its very nature from dependent to independent.

Theory of Learning

The CLL view of learning is contrasted with two other types of learning, which Curran saw as widespread and undesirable. The first of this describes a putative learning view long popular in Western culture. In

this view, “the intellectual and factual process engagement and involvement of the self” (Curran 1972:58). The second of learning is the behavioral view. Curran refers to this kind of learning as “animal learning,” in which learners are “passive” and their involvement limited (Curran 1976: 84). In contrast, CLL advocates a holistic approach to language learning, since “true” human learning is both cognitive and affective. This is termed *whole-person learning*. Such learning takes place in a communicative situation where teachers and learners are involved in “an interaction...in which both experience a sense of their own wholeness” (Curran 1972: 90). Within this, the development of the learner’s relationship with the teacher is central. The process is divided into five stages and compared to the ontogenetic development of the child. In the first, “birth” stage, feelings of security and belonging are established. In the second, as the learner’s abilities improve, the learner, as child, begins to achieve a measure of independence from the parent. By the third, the learner “speaks independently” and may need to assert his or her own identity, often rejecting unasked-for advice. The fourth stage sees the learner as secure enough to take criticism, and by the last stage, the learner merely works upon improving style and knowledge of linguistic appropriateness. By the end of the process, the child has become adult. The learner knows everything the teacher does and can become knower for a new learner.

Design

Objectives

The explicit linguistic or communicative objectives are not defined in the literature on Community Language Learning because recently linguistic or communicative objectives are specified only in social terms. The introductory of conversation courses in a foreign language is the most thing that described in Community Language Learning. It is assumed that the teacher can successfully transfer his or her knowledge and proficiency in the target language to the learner, which implies that attaining near-native like mastery of the target language is set as a goal.

The Syllabus

Community Language Learning is most often used in the teaching of oral proficiency, but with some modifications, it may be used in the teaching of writing. As we have seen at the procedures of Community Language Learning, that the learners try to compose a writing about messages by using foreign language. In this sense then a CLL syllabus emerges from the interaction between the learner's expressed communicative intentions and the teacher's reformulations of these into suitable target language utterances. Specific grammatical points, lexical patterns, and generalizations will sometimes be isolated by the teacher for more detailed study and analysis, and subsequent specification of these as a retrospective account of what the course covered could be away of deriving a CLL language syllabus. Each CLL course would evolve its own syllabus, however, since what develops out of teacher-learner interactions in one course will be different from what happens in another.

Types of Learning and Teaching Activities

CLL combines innovative learning tasks and activities with conventional one. They include (1) *translation* in which learners form a small circle and then they express their idea or message in their mother tongue and finally teacher translates their message into target language, (2) group work in which learners may engage in various group tasks such as small group discussion of a topic, preparing a conversation, (3) recording in which students record conversations in the target language, (4) transcription in which students transcribe utterances and conversations they have recorded for practice, (5) analysis in which students analyze and study transcription of a target language, (6) reflections and observation in which students reflect and report of their experience of the class, (7) listening in which students listen a monologue from the teacher in class interaction, and (8) free conversation in which students engage in free conversation with the teacher or other students.

Learner Roles

In community language learning, learners become members of a community – their fellow learners and the teacher – and learn through interacting with members of the community. CLL learners are grouped in a circle of six to twelve learners. Richards and Rodgers (1986) state that learning is a ‘whole person’ process, and the learner at each stage is involved not just in the accomplishment of cognitive tasks but in the solution of affective conflicts. They state five stages of language learning to the stage of human growth (1) the learner is like the infant, (2) the child achieves a measure of independence from the parent, (3) the separate-existence stage in which learners begin to understand others directly in the target language, (4) may be considered “a kind of adolescence” the learner functions independently, and (5) the independent stage in which learners refine their understanding of register as well as grammatically correct language use.

Teacher Roles

The teacher’s function derives from the functions of the counselor. A counselor’s clients are people with problem, who in a typical counseling session will often use emotional language to communicate their difficulties to the counselor. More specific teacher roles are, like those of the students, keyed to the five developmental stages. In the early stage of learning, the teacher operates in a supportive role, providing target language translation, and model for imitation and then interaction may be initiated by the students, and teacher monitors learner utterances.

The Role of Instructional Materials

Teaching materials may be developed by the teacher as the course develops, although these generally consist of little more than summaries on the blackboard or overhead projector of some of linguistic features of conversations generated by students. Conversations may also be transcribed and distributed for study and analysis, and learner may work in groups to produce their own materials.

Procedure

The learners are linked in some way to knowers or a single knower as teacher. The first class may begin with a period of silence, in which learners try to determine what is supposed to happen in the language class. In the later classes, learners may sit in silence while they decide what to talk about. The teacher may then form the class into facing lines for three-minute pair conversations. The following this the class might be reformed into small groups in which a single topic, chosen by the class or the group, is discussed. In the intermediate or advanced class a teacher may encourage groups to prepare paper drama for presentation to the rest of the class.

Summary

Procedures associated with Situational Language Teaching in the fifties and sixties are an extension and further development of well-established techniques advocated by the earlier Oral Approach in the British school of language teaching. They continue to be part of the standard set procedures advocated in many current British methodology texts, and as we noted above, textbooks written according to the principles of Situational Language Teaching continued to be used in many parts of the world. In the mid-sixties, however, the view of language, language learning, and language teaching underlying Situational Language Teaching was called into question. But because of principles of Situational Language Teaching, with its strong emphasis on oral practice, grammar, and sentence patterns, conform to the situations of many practically oriented classroom teachers, it continues to be widely used in the 1980s.

This chapter describes background of community language learning. It is also described approaches that are used in community language learning in which theory of language and theory of learning to be covered. Design and procedure of teaching by using community language learning are also described and explained. Community language learning (CLL) is the name of a method that is developed by Charles A. Curran and his associates. Community Language Learning represents the use of

Counseling-Learning theory to teach languages. Curran introduced counseling-Learning method in 1961. This method is focused on students.

The emphasis of activities that is oriented to the collective tasks had brought some people, included Curran himself, to direct Community-Learning as Community Language Learning. The procedures that are followed in Counseling-Learning language class are simple. The students (client in Curran's terminology) sit in a circle. The teacher (knower or counselor expert or counselor teacher) standing outside the circle. The teacher or knower can handle one client or three clients or one teacher or knower can handle the whole group. Then, the students express in target language about what they have just heard from the *knower*. The students can use mother tongue but turn to use target language quickly. First, *embryonic* stages. Third, *birth stage*, when the students speak independently although not perfect. Why is it called as Community Language Learning? Because the learners learn or acquire their foreign language in a community or in a group. As we can see at the following procedures of Community Language Learning are (1) a group of learners sit in a circle, (2) a students whispers a message in the native language (L1) (3) the teacher translates it the foreign language (L2), (4) the teacher should translate the message that has conveyed by the students, by using foreign language, (5) the teacher in Community Language Learning classroom has to have competences in directing the students in learning the foreign language, (6) the student repeats the message in the foreign language into a cassette, and (7) students compose further messages in the foreign language with the teacher's help.

It can help the students' writing ability in composing messages in foreign language. The teacher has to manage what the students are doing. The teacher should help the students in composing the message in foreign language. Students reflect about their feelings.

As the students of Curran, La-Forge (1983) has attempted to be more explicit about this dimension of community language learning theory, and we draw of his account for the language theory underlying the

method. La-Forge begins by suggesting that language, as social process is “different from language as communication.” The educational process

The interpersonal process

The developmental process

The communicative process

La-Forge elaborates on the interactional view of language underlying Community Language Learning. “Language is people; language is person in contact; language is person in response.” Learner exchanges depend in intimacy, as the class becomes community of learners. Interaction between learners and knower is initially dependent. The learners tells the knower what she or he wishes to say in the target language , and the knower tells the learners how to say it.

Curran refers to this kind of learning as “animal learning,” in which learners are “passive” and their involvement limited (Curran 1976: 84). In contrast, CLL advocates a holistic approach to language learning, since “true” human learning is both cognitive and affective. The learner knows everything the teacher does and can become knower for a new learner.

The introductory of conversation courses in a foreign language is the most thing that described in Community Language Learning. As we have seen at the procedures of Community Language Learning, that the learners try to compose a writing about messages by using foreign language.

In community language learning, learners become members of a community – their fellow learners and the teacher – and learn through interacting with members of the community. CLL learners are grouped in a circle of six to twelve learners.

In the early stage of learning, the teacher operates in a supportive role, providing target language translation, and model for imitation and then interaction may be initiated by the students, and teacher monitors learner utterances.

Questions and Application

1. What are the main characteristics of the oral approach and situational language teaching?

2. What theory of language is used in the oral approach and situational language teaching?
3. What theory of language learning is used in the oral approach and situational language teaching?
4. How to design the oral approach and situational language teaching?
5. Describe the procedure of applying the oral approach and situational language teaching that can be used junior high school students
6. Describe a background of community language learning.
7. What theory of language underlying in community language learning?
8. What theory of language learning underlying in community language learning?
9. What is the objectives of CLL?
10. Mention and explain types of learning and teaching activities of CLL.
11. What are the roles of learners, teacher, and instructional materials in CLL?
12. Develop lesson plan and teaching materials for Senior High School Students.

CHAPTER 7

COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

Short Description

Communicative language ability provides a broad basis for development and use of language. This description is consistent with earlier work in communicative competence. Bachman (1990) recognizes that the ability to use language communicatively involves knowledge of or competence in the language, and the capacity for implementing, or using this competence. The implementation of this competence is characterized by the process in which the various components interact. This chapter also describes theoretical basis of the communicative competence and the acquisition of communicative competence. Finally, issues in communicative language teaching are also presented.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain and apply communicative competence and language teaching that cover

- Communicative language ability
 - Theories of communicative competence
 - Issues in communicative language teaching
-
-

Introduction

Communicative language ability can be described as consisting of both knowledge, or competence, and the capacity for implementing, or

executing that competence in appropriate, contextual communicative language use. This essentially how Candlin (1986) has described communicative competence:

the ability to create meanings by exploring the potential inherent in any language for continual modification in response to change, negotiating, the value of convention rather than conforming to establish principle. In sum ... a coming together of organized knowledge structures with a set of procedures for adapting this knowledge to solve new problems of communication that do not have ready-made and tailored situations (Candlin 1986:40).

Communicative language teaching has been adopted as an official method of teaching English in Indonesia. Huda (1999) states that in the 1984 English curriculum of the secondary school, it is known as communicative approach, and in the 1994 curriculum as meaningful approach. Today in the 2004 curriculum of secondary school, it is known as competency based curriculum. Actually the development of curriculum from time to time is characterized by a decision maker of Department of Education in Indonesia.

Communicative Language Ability

Communicative language ability provides a broad basis for development and use of language. This description is consistent with earlier work in communicative competence. Bachman (1990) recognizes that the ability to use language communicatively involves knowledge of or competence in the language, and the capacity for implementing, or using this competence. The implementation of this competence is characterized by the process in which the various components interact with each other and with the context in which language use occurs.

An early framework for describing language proficiency is that incorporated in skills and component models. These models distinguish skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) from components of language (grammar, vocabulary, phonology), but do not indicate how skills and knowledge are related. It is not clear whether the skills are

simply manifestations of the knowledge components in different modalities and channels.

A more serious limitation of skills/components was its failure to recognize the full context of language use – the context of discourse and situation (Bachman, 1990). Halliday's (1976) description of language functions, both textual and illocutionary, and van Disk's (1977) delineation of the relationship between text and context, clearly recognize the context of discourse. Hymes (1982) further recognizes the sociocultural factors in the speech situation. What has emerged from these ideas is an expanded conception of language proficiency whose distinguishing characteristic is its recognition of the importance of context beyond the sentence to the appropriate use of language. This context includes both the discourse, of which individual utterances and sentences are part, and the sociolinguistic situation which governs, to large extent, the nature of that discourse, in both form and function.

Communicative language ability can be described as consisting of both knowledge, or competence, and the capacity for implementing, or executing that competence in appropriate, contextual communicative language use. This essentially how Candlin (1986) has described communicative competence:

the ability to create meanings by exploring the potential inherent in any language for continual modification in response to change, negotiating, the value of convention rather than conforming to establish principle. In sum ... a coming together of organized knowledge structures with a set of procedures for adapting this knowledge to solve new problems of communication that do not have ready-made and tailored situations (Candlin 1986:40).

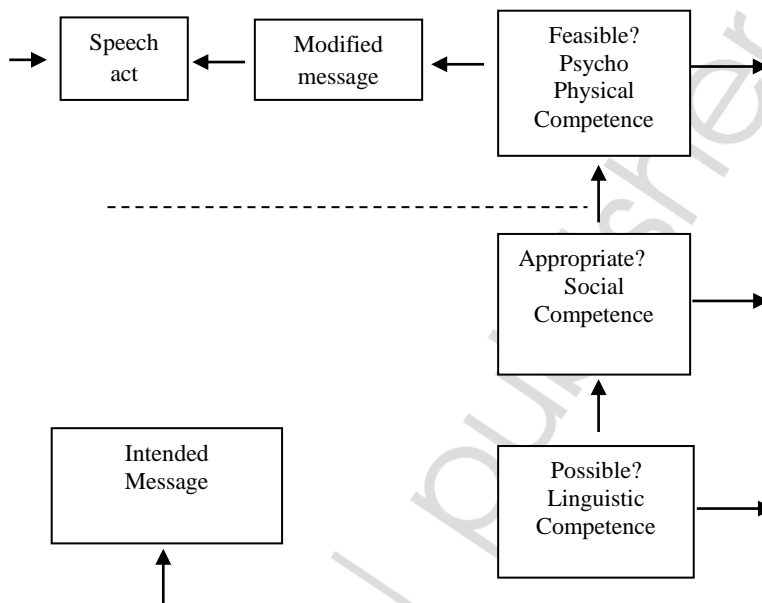


Figure 5.1 Communicative Competence (Bell, 1983:211)

The model 5.1 suggests that a message needs to be processed three times in terms of its possibility, appropriateness, and feasibility, and that each question may need to be asked more than once for each message. A message needs to be possible not only in terms of its form but also in terms of contents. Similarly, its appropriateness depends on the social constraints acting upon it, and its feasibility upon the extent to which the user can create the form of the message.

Bell (1978), moreover, specifies communicative competence as an attempt to define not only how a user is able to judge what is grammatical but also how he is able to recognize what is acceptable as a speech act in a social situation. Further he presents a figure of communicative competence as presented on the next page

Bachman (1990:84) moreover states that the framework of communicative language ability consists of three components: language competence, strategic competence, and psychological mechanisms.

Language competence comprises, essentially, a set of specific knowledge components that are utilized in communication via language. Strategic competence is the term used to characterize the mental capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualized communicative language use. Strategic competence thus provides the means for relating language competencies to feature of the context of situation in which language use takes place and to the language user's knowledge structures (sociocultural knowledge, 'real-world' knowledge). Psychological mechanisms refer to the neurological and psychological processes involved in the actual execution of language as a physical phenomenon (sound, light). The interactions of these components of communicative language ability with the language use context and language user's knowledge structures are illustrated in figure 5.2.

Frameworks of communicative competence have included several different components associated with what we call language competence. In describing a theoretical framework for specifying an individual's communicative language competence in a second language, Munby (1978) includes 'linguistic encoding' (the realization of language use as verbal forms), 'sociocultural orientation' (contextual appropriacy and communicative needs), 'sociosemantic basis of linguistic knowledge', and 'discourse level of operation'.

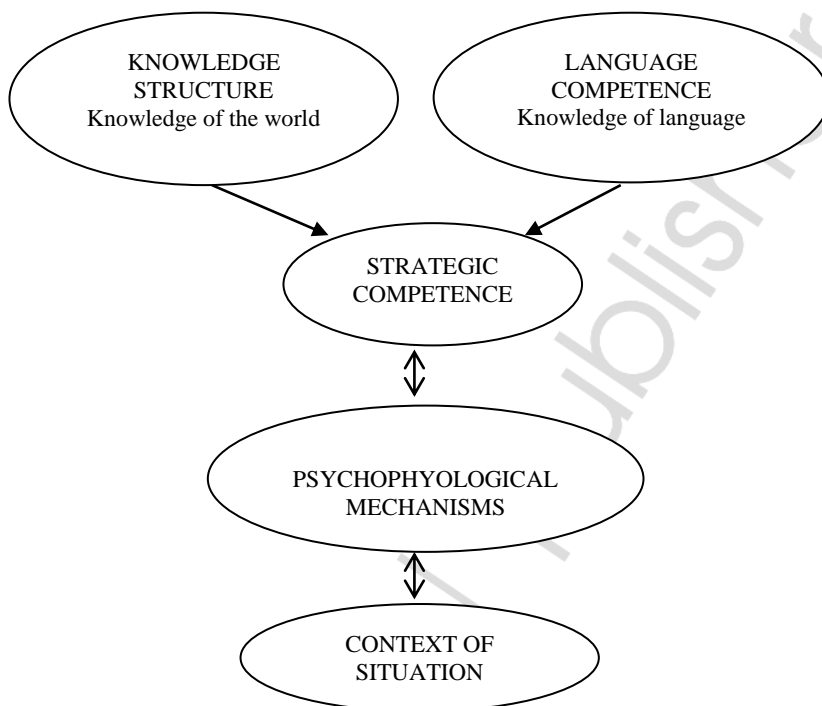


Figure 5.2 Components of communicative language ability
Communicative language use (Bachman, 1990:85)

Communicative Competence

Huda (1999) has raised two problems in applying communicative approach in teaching English at junior and senior high schools. First is related to the choice of skills needed to be taught to the students. In the teaching of English there is the problem of which skills: Is it sufficient to teach reading skills and grammar, or, should it also include speaking skills. The second problem deals with the methods of developing the communicative competence in the students. This second problem encompasses two issues: the syllabus and the teaching learning strategies best suited for the materials.

In order to answer of the questions of materials and strategies, first we need to agree the concept of communicative competence. It will be discussed the communicative competence from linguistics and psycholinguistics perspectives. Finally, the process of the acquisition of communicative competence will be reviewed.

Theoretical Basis of Communicative Competence

The term ‘communicative competence’ was first issued by Dell Hymes (1972) as a reaction against the concept of language competence proposed by Chomsky (1965). Chomsky’s understanding of language competence was more psycholinguistic in nature, while Hyme’s concept was more sociolinguistic. The term communicative competence subsequently received various interpretations, most based on sociolinguistic studies.

The generative-transformational grammar (Chomsky, 1965) distinguishes two kinds of language structures, i.e., surface structure and deep structure. An utterance spoken or written has a surface structure which serves as a manifestation of the deep structure. The utterance may differ in form of the deep structure, but the meaning contained is essentially the same. Look at the examples below.

<i>Have a drink</i>	(surface structure)
<i>(Would you) please have a drink?</i>	(deep structure)

Chomsky classified language competence into two. They are competence and performance. Competence is the ideal ability of a speaker in a language. Competence describes a complete and perfect knowledge of a language – reflected in a dialogue between the speaker and the hearer in an ideal situation. On the other hand, performance is the realization of the competence in the form of utterances which can be heard or read by others. Performance deals with an utterance in an actual situation; therefore, it can sometimes be less than perfect.

Chomsky claims that competence is an ideal, not a real situation. Hymes (1972) rejected the concept that competence - defined by Chomsky – was a reflection of one’s ability in language. On the contrary, a

speaker who just masters the ideal style cannot be said to have mastered the language in its actual term. Hymes maintained that such competence was just on the level of 'linguistic competence' which is limited to one's mastery of grammar rules as well as social norms related to language use. A speaker who can use language with the appropriate style according to the situation and speaker-listener relationship is one who can be justly said to have mastered the communicative competence. Brown (1987) in Huda (1999) states that the communicative competence is the competence which enables us to transmit and interpret messages and give meaning in the interaction between individuals in a specific context. Therefore, the notion of communicative competence brings with it two aspects, i.e., the psycholinguistic and the socio-cultural aspects.

The Components of Communicative Competence

The concept proposed by Hymes was subsequently developed by other linguists who also included two aspects. One development often cited in references is the model developed by Canale. According to Canale (1983) communicative competence consists of four domains of knowledge and skills. They are grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence.

Grammatical competence involves the mastery of language codes both verbal and non verbal, such as vocabulary, derivation, sentence formation, pronunciation, spelling, and semantics. This competence is required for the understanding and expressing literal meaning of an utterance.

Sociolinguistic competence deals with socio-cultural and discourse rules. Sociolinguistic competence relates to the extent an utterance is expressed understood correctly in different sociolinguistic contexts, which in turn depend on certain factors such as speaker-learner status, the objective of the interaction, and the rules and norms of interaction. The appropriateness involves form as well as meaning (appropriateness).

Discourse competence is concerned with the mastery of ways to combine grammatical forms and meaning to produce either a spoken or

written utterance wholly in various forms. Unity of an utterance can be attained through form cohesion and meaning coherence. Cohesion is the relationship between utterances and grammatical structure devices to enable one to interpret the meaning of a discourse. Coherence is the relationship among several meanings in utterance (text).

Strategic competence consists of the mastery of both verbal and nonverbal communication strategies used by a speaker to (1) make up for the weakness in communication due to the limitations of circumstances, and (2) to strengthen the effectiveness of communication. For instance, the paraphrasing strategy is used when a speaker forgets a certain grammatical structure.

Communicative Language Teaching

The origins of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) are to be found in changes in the British language teaching tradition from the late 1960s. Until then, Situational Language Teaching represented the major British approach to teaching English as a foreign language. In Situational Language Teaching, language was taught by practicing basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities.

Wilkins (1972) proposed a functional or communicative definition of language that could serve as a basis for developing communicative syllabuses for language teaching. Wilkins's contribution was an analysis of the communicative meaning that a language learner needs to understand and express. Rather than describe the core of language through traditional concepts of grammar and vocabulary, Wilkins attempted to demonstrate the systems of meanings that lay behind the communicative uses of language. He described two types of meaning: notional categories (concepts such as time, quantity, location, frequency, and sequences) and categories of communicative function (requests, denials, offers, complaints).

The Communicative Approach or simply Communicative Language Teaching has expanded. Both American and British proponents now see it as an approach (not a method) that aims to (1) make communicative

competence the goal of language teaching and (2) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. Little Wood (1981: 1) states that one of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language.

Finocchiaro and Brunfit in Richards and Rodgers (1986:67-68) contrast the major distinctive features of the Audiolingual Method and the Communicative Approach, according to their interpretation as in the following.

Audiolingual	Communicative Language Teaching
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Attends to structure and form more than meaning 2. Demands memorization of structure-based dialogue 3. Language items are not necessarily contextualized 4. Language learning is learning structures, sounds, or words 5. Native speaker-like pronunciation is sought 6. Grammatical explanation is avoided 7. Linguistic competence is the desired goal. 8. Accuracy in terms of formal correctness, is a primary goal 	<p>Meaning is paramount Dialogue, if used, center around communicative functions, and are not normally memorized Contextualization is a basic premise Language learning is learning to communicate Comprehensible pronunciation is sought Any device which helps the learner is accepted – varying according to their age, interest, etc. Communicative competence is the desired goal. Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.</p>

Objectives of CLT

Huda (1999) claims that the teaching objectives of CLT is the development of communicative competence, that is the ability to use English for communication in real-life situations as opposed to classroom situations. Piepho in Richards and Rodgers (1986) discusses the following levels of objectives in a communicative approach: (1) an integrative and content level (language as a means of expression), (2) a linguistic and

instrumental level (language is a semiotic system and an object of learning); (3) an affective level of interpersonal relationships and conduct (language as a means of expressing values and judgments about oneself and others); (4) a level of individual learning needs (remedial learning based on error analysis); and (5) a general educational level of extra-linguistic goals (language learning within the school curriculum). The objective of language teaching is not limited to ability to produce grammatical sentences, but also the ability to incorporate pragmatic aspects in language skill that is suitable utterances for the context of communication.

The objective of language teaching is divided according to four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Huda (1999) states that an adequate system of classification of language skills includes three criteria: the medium (the actual physical means whereby the language system is manifested in usage), the mode (the way in which the language system is realized as use in acts of communication), and the manner (the kind of social activity involved in communication).

Specific objectives of communicative language teaching is according to the needs of the students. Some people learn a foreign language in order to communicate with their fellow professionals in their field, and some to make trips to foreign countries, and some others wish to academic purposes. In addition, CLT is designed to develop either a full language competence (embracing the four language skills, following the traditional system of classification) on contradicts the objective of English instruction in the secondary school, i.e. the development of speaking skill.

Teaching Materials

A variety of materials have been used to support communicative approaches to language teaching. The communicative approaches influence the teaching materials and the quality of classroom interaction and language use. Richards and Rodgers (1986) consider three kinds of materials currently used in CLT and label these text-based, task based, and realia.

There are many textbooks designed to direct and support Communicative Language Teaching. Their table of contents sometimes suggest a kind of grading and sequencing of language practice not unlike those found in structurally organized texts. Some of these are written around structural syllabus, with slight reformatting to justify their claims to be based on a communicative approach. Morrow and Johnson's *Communicate* (1979), for example, has none of the usual dialogues, drills, or sentence patterns, uses visual cues, taped cues, pictures, and sentence fragments to initiate conversation. Watcyn-Jones's *Pair Work* (1981) consists of two different texts for pair work, each containing different information needed to enact role plays and carry out other pair activities.

Jones (1979) in Richards and Rodgers (1986) gives an example of function of English in communication as follows:

1. Talking about yourself, starting a conversation, making a date
2. Asking for information: question techniques, answering techniques, getting further information
3. Getting people to do things: requesting, attracting attention, agreeing and refusing
4. Talking about past events: remembering, describing experiences, speculating
5. Conversation techniques: hesitating, holding the floor, bringing another speaker.

A variety of games, role plays, simulations, and task-based communication activities have been prepared to support Communicative Language Teaching classes. These typically in the form of one-of-a-kind items: exercise handbooks, cue cards, activity cards, pair-communication practice materials, and student-interaction practice booklets. In pair communication materials, there are typically two sets of material for a pair of students, each set containing different kinds of information. Sometimes the information is complementary, and partners must fit their respective parts of the "jigsaw" into a composite whole. Others assume different roles relationships for partners (interviewer and interviewee). Still others provide drills and practice material in interactional formats.

Many components of Communicative Language Teaching have advocated the use of “authentic”, “from life” materials in the classroom. These include language-based realia, such as signs, magazines, advertisement, and newspaper, or graphic, or visual sources around with communicative activities can be built, such as maps, pictures, symbols, graphs, and charts. Different kinds of objects can be used to support communicative exercises.

Procedure

Classroom procedures in *Situational language Teaching* vary according to the level of the class, but procedures at any level aim to move from controlled to freer practice of structures and from oral use of sentence patterns to their automatic use in speech, reading, and writing. Pittman gives an example of a typical lesson plan:

The first part of the lesson will be stress and intonation practice....The main body of the lesson should then follow. This might consist of the teaching of a structure. If so, the lesson would then consist of four parts:

1. Pronunciation
2. Revision (to prepare for new work if necessary)
3. Presentation of new structure or vocabulary
4. Oral practice (drilling)
5. Reading of material on the new structure, or written exercises.

Summary

Communicative language ability provides a broad basis for development and use of language. This description is consistent with earlier work in communicative competence. Bachman (1990) recognizes that the ability to use language communicatively involves knowledge of or competence in the language, and the capacity for implementing, or using this competence. This chapter also describes theoretical basis of the communicative competence and the acquisition of communicative

competence. Finally, issues in communicative language teaching are also presented.

Students are able to explain and apply communicative competence and language teaching that cover (1) communicative language ability (2) theories of communicative competence, (3) issues in communicative language teaching. Communicative language ability can be described as consisting of both knowledge, or competence, and the capacity for implementing, or executing that competence in appropriate, contextual communicative language use.

Communicative language ability provides a broad basis for development and use of language. This description is consistent with earlier work in communicative competence. Bachman (1990) recognizes that the ability to use language communicatively involves knowledge of or competence in the language, and the capacity for implementing, or using this competence. Communicative language ability can be described as consisting of both knowledge, or competence, and the capacity for implementing, or executing that competence in appropriate, contextual communicative language use.

Bachman (1990:84) moreover states that the framework of communicative language ability consists of three components: language competence, strategic competence, and psychological mechanisms. Language competence comprises, essentially, a set of specific knowledge components that are utilized in communication via language. Strategic competence is the term used to characterize the mental capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualized communicative language use. Strategic competence thus provides the means for relating language competencies to feature of the context of situation in which language use takes place and to the language user's knowledge structures (sociocultural knowledge, 'real-world' knowledge).

Frameworks of communicative competence have included several different components associated with what we call language competence. In describing a theoretical framework for specifying an individual's communicative language competence in a second language. The term

'communicative competence' was first issued by Dell Hymes (1972) as a reaction against the concept of language competence proposed by Chomsky (1965). Chomsky's understanding of language competence was more psycholinguistic in nature, while Hyme's concept was more sociolinguistic. The generative-transformational grammar (Chomsky, 1965) distinguishes two kinds of language structures, i.e., surface structure and deep structure. (deep structure)

Chomsky classified language competence into two. They are competence and performance. Competence is the ideal ability of a speaker in a language. According to Canale (1983) communicative competence consists of four domains of knowledge and skills. They are grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence. The origins of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) are to be found in changes in the British language teaching tradition from the late 1960s. Until then, Situational Language Teaching represented the major British approach to teaching English as a foreign language. In Situational Language Teaching, language was taught by practicing basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities.

Wilkins (1972) proposed a functional or communicative definition of language that could serve as a basis for developing communicative syllabuses for language teaching. The Communicative Approach or simply Communicative Language Teaching has expanded. Both American and British proponents now see it as an approach (not a method) that aims to (1) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (2) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. The objective of language teaching is divided according to four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Specific objectives of communicative language teaching is according to the needs of the students.

A variety of materials have been used to support communicative approaches to language teaching. The communicative approaches influence the teaching materials and the quality of classroom interaction and language use. There are many textbooks designed to direct and support

Communicative Language Teaching. Many components of Communicative Language Teaching have advocated the use of “authentic”, “from life” materials in the classroom.

Questions

1. Describe and explain a communicative language ability framework.
2. Analyze the relationship components of communicative language ability in communicative language use according to Bachman (1990).
3. Explain theoretical basis of communicative competence.
4. Compare between audiolingual and communicative language teaching.

CHAPTER 8

APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND METHODS OF TEACHING LANGUAGE

Short Description

This chapter describes Grammar-translation Method, Direct Methods, suggestopedia, the silent way and their application. Each method discusses separately and applies according to the theory language and theory of learning. Suggestopedia is a method developed by the Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator Georgi Lozanov. Suggestopedia is a specific set of learning recommendations derived from Suggestology. Therefore, this chapter describes approach that is used in suggestopedia. Design of suggestopedia consists of objectives, the syllabus, types of learning and teaching activities, learner roles, teacher roles, the role of instructional materials. Finally, the procedure of teaching by using suggestopedia is also explained.

Finally it also describes background of the silent way. It is also described approaches that are used in the silent way in which theory of language and theory of learning to be covered. Design and procedure of teaching by using the silent way are also described and explained.

Basic Competence

1. Students are able to understand a brief history of language teaching that consists of :
 - explain Grammar-Translation Method and its application
 - understand language teaching innovation in the nineteenth century
 - understand reform movement

- understand the Direct Methods and its application.
2. Students are able to explain and apply suggestopedia that cover:
 - Background of suggestopedia
 - Approaches that relate to suggestopedia
 - Design and procedure of applying suggestopedia
 3. Students are able to explain and apply the silent way that cover
 - Background of the silent way
 - Approaches that relate to the silent way.
 - Design and procedure of applying the silent way.
-
-

Grammar-Translation Method

Grammar translation method was first known in the United States as the Prussian Method, (A book by B. Sears, an American Classic Teacher, published in 1845 was entitled *The Ciceronian or the Prussian Method of Teaching the Elements of the Latin Language* (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Richards and Rodgers stated the principle characteristics of the Grammar-Translation Method were these:

- (1) The goal foreign language study is to learn a language in order to read its literature or in order to benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development that result from foreign language study. Grammar-Translation Method is a way of studying language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by the application of knowledge by translating sentences and texts into the target language.
- (2) Reading and writing are the major focus; little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening.
- (3) Vocabulary selection is based on reading texts used, and words are taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study, and memoration. Grammar rules are presented and illustrated, a list of vocabulary items are presented with their translation equivalents.

- (4) The sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice, and the focus on the sentence was an attempt to make language learning easier.
- (5) Accuracy is emphasized. Students are expected to attain high standards in translation.
- (6) Grammar is taught deductively – that is, by presentation and study of grammar rules, which are then practiced through translation exercises. In most Grammar-Translation texts, a syllabus was followed for the sequencing of grammar points through out a text.
- (7) The students' native language is the medium of instruction. It is used to explain new items and enable comparison to be made between the foreign language and the student's native language.

Grammar-translation methods dominated European and foreign language teaching from 1840s to 1940s and modified forms and it continues to be used in some parts of the world today. Grammar-translation method has been used by thousands of school learners, for whom foreign language learning meant of a experience of memorizing of unusable grammar rules and vocabulary and attempting to produce perfect translations. Although the Grammar-Translation Methods often creates frustration for students, it makes few demands on teachers. It is still used in situations where understanding literary texts in the primary focus of foreign language study and there is little need for a speaking. Contemporary texts for teaching of foreign languages at college level often reflect Grammar-Translation Principles. These texts are frequently the products of people trained in literature rather than in language teaching or applied linguistics. Consequently, though it may be true to say that the Grammar Translation Method is still practiced.

In the mid and late nineteen century opposition to the Grammar-Translation Method gradually developed in several European. This reform Movement laid the foundations for the development of new ways of teaching languages and raised controversies that have continued to the present day.

Toward the mid-nineteenth century several factors contributed to a questioning and rejection of the Grammar-Translation Methods. Increased opportunities for communication among Europeans created a demand for oral proficiency in foreign languages. Initially this created a market for conversation books intended for private study, but language teaching specialists also turned their attention to the way modern languages were being taught in secondary schools. New approaches to language teaching were developed by individual language teaching specialists, like C. Marcel, T. Prendergast, and F. Gouin (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

The Frenchman C. Marcel (1793-1896) refereed to child language learning as a model of language teaching, emphasized the importance of meaning in learning, proposed that reading be taught before other skills, and tried to locate language teaching within a broader educational framework. The Englishman T. Prendergast (1806 -1886) was one the first to record the observation that children use contextual and situational cues to interpret utterances and that they use memorized phrases and routines in speaking. He proposed the first structural syllabus that learners be taught the most basic structural patterns occurring in the language. The Frenchman F. Gouin (1831-1896) is the best known of these mid-nineteenth century reformers. He developed to teaching a foreign language based on his observations of children use of language and he believed that language learning was facilitated through using language. His method used situations and themes as ways of organizing and presenting oral language.

Gouin has developed his first lesson of a foreign language that the following series would be learned:

I walk toward the door.	I walk.
I draw near the door.	I draw near.
I draw nearer to the door.	I draw nearer.
I get to the door.	I get to.
I stop at the door.	I stop.
I stretch out my arm.	I stretch out.
I take hold of the handle.	I take hold.
I open the door.	I open.

I pull the door.	I pull.
The door moves.	moves.
The door turns on its hinges.	Turns.
The dooe turns and turns	turns
I open the door wide.	I open.
I let go of the handle.	Let go.

(Tirone in Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

Gouin's emphasis on the need to present new teaching items in a contexts that makes their meanings of utterances, are practices that later became part of such approaches and methods as Situational Language Teaching and Total Physical Response.

The work of individual language specialists like this reflects the changing climate of the times in which they worked. Educators recognized the need of speaking proficiency rather than reading comprehension, grammar, or literary appreciation as the goal of foreign language programs. There was interest in how children learn languages which develop teaching principles from observation of child language learning.

But the ideas and methods of Marcel, Prendergast, Gouin, and other innovators are developed outside of education and hence lacked the means for wider dissemination, acceptance, and implementation. This began to change toward the end of the nineteenth century. Teachers and linguists began to write about the need for new approaches to language teaching and this effort became the Reform Movement in language teaching.

The Direct Method

Marcel, Prendergast, and Gouin had promoted alternative approaches to language teaching, but their ideas failed to received widespread support or attention. From 1880s, however, Henry Sweet in England, Wilhelm Victor in Germany, and Paul Passy in French began to provide the intellectual leadership needed to give reformist ideas greater credibility and acceptance. Linguists emphasized that speech rather than the written word, was the primary form of language. The international Phonetic Association was founded in 1886, and its International Phonetic

Alphabet (IPA) was designed to enable the sounds of any language to be accurately transcribed. One of the earliest goals of association was to improve the teaching of modern languages that advocated:

1. The study of the spoken language;
2. Phonetic training in order to establish good pronunciation habits;
3. The use of conversation text and dialogues to introduce conversational phrases and idioms;
4. An inductive approach to the teaching of grammar;
5. Teaching new meanings through establishing association with the target language rather than by establishing association with the mother tongue.

Henry Sweet (1845 -1912) argued that sound methodological principles should be on scientific analysis of language and a study of psychology. In his book *The Practical Study of Languages* (1899) he set forth principles for the development teaching methods that included:

1. Careful selection of what is to be taught;
2. Imposing limits on what is to be taught;
3. Arranging what is to be taught in terms of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing;
4. Grading materials from simple to complex.

Victor, Sweet, and other reformers in late nineteenth century shared many beliefs about the principles on which a new approach to teaching foreign languages should be based, and they advocated for teaching a language which believed that

1. The spoken language is primarily and that this should be reflected in an oral-based methodology;
2. The findings of phonetics should be applied to teacher and to teacher training;
3. Learner should hear the language first, before seeing it in written form;

4. Words should be presented in sentences, and sentences should be practiced in meaningful context – that is, grammar should be taught inductively;
5. Translation should be avoided, although the mother tongue could be used in order to explain new words or to check comprehension.

These principles provided the theoretical foundation for a principled approach to language teaching, one based on a scientific approach to the study of language and language learning. But parallel to ideas put forward by members of the Reform Movement was interest in developing principles for language teaching out of naturalistic principle of language learning. This led to what have been termed *natural methods* and led to the development of what came to be known as the Direct Method.

Other reformers toward the end of the century likewise turned their attention to naturalistic principles of language learning, and for this reason they are referred to a natural method. In various times throughout the history of language teaching, attempts have been made to make second language learning more like first language learning. In the sixteenth century, for example, Montaigne described how his son to speak Latin well. L. Sauveur (1826–1907) tried to apply natural principles to language classes who used intensive oral interaction in the target language and his method soon became referred to as the Natural Method.

The German scholar F. Franke wrote on the psychological principles of direct association between forms and meanings in the target language (1884) and provided a theoretical justification for a monolingual approach to teaching. According to Franke, a language could best be taught by using it actively in the classroom. Rather than using analytical procedures that focus on explanation of grammar rules in classroom teaching, teachers must encourage direct and spontaneous use of the foreign language in the classroom. Learners would then be able to induce rules of grammar. The teacher replaced the textbook in the early stages of learning and speaking began with systematic attention to pronunciation. Known words could be used to teach new vocabulary, using mime, demonstration, and pictures.

These natural language principles provided the foundation for what came to be known as the Direct Method, which refers to the natural method. The Direct Method was introduced in Germany and in France, and also in the United States that was promoted by Paul Passy and Maximilian Berlitz in successful commercial language schools. In practice it stood for the following principles and procedures:

1. Classroom interaction was conducted exclusively in the target language.
2. Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.
3. Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progress organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.
4. New teaching points were introduced orally.
5. Grammar was taught inductively.
6. Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, pictures, abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas.
7. Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.
8. Concrete pronunciation and grammar were emphasized.

The Direct method was quite successful in private language schools, such as those of the Berlitz chain, where paying clients high attention and motivation and the use of native speaking teachers was the norm. But it was difficult to implement in public secondary school education. It overemphasized and distorted the similarities between the naturalistic first language learning and classroom foreign language learning and failed to consider the practical realities of the classroom. The Direct Method was perceived to have several drawbacks. First, it required teachers who were native speakers or who had native-like fluency in the foreign language. Second, the Direct Method tried to teach conversation skills that was considered impractical in view of the restricted time available for foreign language teaching. Finally, it offered innovation at the level of teaching procedures, but lacked a thorough methodological basis.

What became of the concept of method as foreign language teaching emerged as a significant educational issue in the nineteenth and the

twentieth centuries? We have seen from this historical survey some of the questions that prompted innovation and new directions in language teaching in the past:

1. What should the goals of language teaching be? Should a language course try to teach conversational proficiency, reading, translation, or some other skill?
2. What is the basic nature of language, and will this affect teaching method?
3. What are the principles for the selection of language content in language teaching?
4. What principles of organization, sequencing, and presentation best facilitate learning?
5. What should the role of the native language be?
6. What process do learners use in mastering a language, and can these be incorporated into a method?
7. What teaching techniques and activities work best and under what circumstances?

Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia is a method developed by the Bulgarian psychiatrist educator George Lozanov. Suggestopedia is a specific set of learning recommendations derived from Suggestologia, which Lozanov describes as a “science...concerned with the systematic study of the nonrational and /or nonconscious influences” that human beings are constantly responding to (Stevick 1976:42). The most conspicuous characteristics of suggestopedia are the decoration, furniture, and arrangement of the teacher.

Lozanov acknowledges ties in tradition to yoga and Soviet psychology. From raja yoga, Lozanov has borrowed and modified techniques for altering states of consciousness and concentration, and the use of rhythmic breathing. From Soviet psychology Lozanov has taken the notion that all students can be taught a given subject matter at the same level of skill. Lozanov claims that his method works equally well whether or not students spend time on outside study. Soviet psychology also stresses

the learning environment, and Lozanov similarly specifics the requirements of an optimal learning environment in great detail.

Suggestopedia can perhaps be best understood as one of the range of theories of that purport to describe how attentiveness is manipulated to optimize learning and recall. A number of researchers have attempted to identify the optimal mental states for facilitating memorization and facilitating recall. The continuum in figure 10.1 displays labels for various states of attention that have been examined for their facilitation of inhibition of memorization.

A most conspicuous of Suggestopedia is the centrality of music and musical rhythm to learning. Suggestopedia thus has a kinship with other functional uses of music, particularly therapy. Lozanov might have described this incident as the use of music to assist in the “liberation from discrete micro psycho traumata, for destruction of incompatible ideas about the limits of human capabilities” (Lozanov 1978: 252).

Gaston (1968) defines three function of music in therapy

- To facilitate the establishment and maintenance of personal relations
 - To bring about increase self-esteem through increase self-satisfaction in musical performance
 - To use the unique potential of rhythm to energize and bring order.
- This last function seems to be the one last Lozanov calls upon in his use of music to relax learners as well as to structure, pace, and punctuate the presentation of linguistic material.

Approach

Theory of Language

Lozanov does not articulate a theory of language, nor does it seem he is much concerned with any particular assumptions regarding language elements and their organization. However, Lozanov does occasionally refer to the importance of experiencing language material in “whole meaningful texts” (Lozanov 1978: 268) and notes that the suggestopedia course directs “the students not to vocabulary memorization and acquiring habits of speech, but to act of communication”.

In describing course work and text organization Lozanov refers most often to the language to be learned as the material. One feels that the linguistic nature of the material is largely irrelevant and that if the focus of a language course was, say, memorization of grammar rules, Lozanov would feel a suggestopediac approach to be the optimal one.

Theory of Learning

Suggestion is at the heart of Suggestopedia. To many, suggestion conjures up visions of the penetrating stare, swinging cat's eye, and monotonically repeated injunction of the hypnotist. Lozanov acknowledges the likelihood of this association of suggestopedia to suggestopedia but claims that his own views separate suggestopedia from the "narrow clinical concerns of hypnosis as a kind of static, sleep like, altered state of consciousness" (1978:3).

There are several principles theoretical components through which desuggestion and suggestion operate and that set up access to reserves.

Authority

People remember best and are most influenced by information coming from an authoritative source. Lozanov dictates a variety of prescription and proscription aimed at having suggestopedia student experience the educational establishment and the teacher as source having great authority. Lozanov appears to believe that scientific-sounding language, highly positive experimental data, and true-believer teachers constitute a ritual placebo system that is authoritatively appealing to most learners.

Infantilization

Authority is also used to suggest a teacher – student relation like that of parent to child. In the child's role the learner takes part in role playing, games, songs, and gymnastic exercise that help "the older student regain the self-confidence, spontaneity and receptivity of the child" (Bancroft 1972: 19)

Double – Planedness

The learner learns not only from the effect of direct instruction but from the environment in which the instruction takes place.

Intonation, Rhythm, and Concert Pseudo – Passiveness

Varying the tone and rhythm of presented material helps both to avoid boredom through monotony of repetition and to dramatize, emotion alize, and give meaning to linguistics material.

The musical background helps to induce a relaxed attitude, which Lozanov refers to as concert pseudo – passiveness. This state is felt to be optimal to learning, in that anxieties and tension are relieved and power concentration for new material is raised. because the role of music is central in suggestopedic learning, it needs to be considered in somewhat more detail.

The type of music is critical to learning success. The rate presentation of material to be learned within the rhythmic pattern is keyed to the rhythm. They note that musical rhythms affect body rhythms, such as heartbeat, and that researchers have noted that” with a slow heartbeat, mind efficiency takes a great leap forward” (1979:63) . finally, they observe that only human but vegetable subjects thrive under sixty-beat stimulation . suggestopedia learning is consequently built on particular type of music and a particular rate of presentation.

Design

Objective

Suggestopedia aims to delivered advance conversational proficiency quickly. It apparently bases its leaning claims on student mastery of prodigious lists of vocabulary pairs and, indeed, suggest to the students that it is appropriate that they set such goals for themselves. Lozanov states categorically “, the main aims of teaching is not memorization, but the understanding and creative solution of problem”. As learners goals he cited increased access an understanding and creative solution of problem. However, because students and teachers place a high value on vocabulary recall, memorization of vocabulary pairs continues to be seen as an important goal to the suggestopedic method.

The syllabus

A suggestopedia course lasts thirty days and consists of ten units of study. Classes are held four hours a day, six days a week. The central focus of each unit is a dialogue consisting of 1,200 words or so, with an accompanying vocabulary list and grammatical commentary. The dialogues are graded by lexis and grammar.

There is a pattern of work within each unit and a pattern of work for the whole course. Unit study is organized around three days: day 1 – half a day, day 2 – full day, day 3 – half a day. On the first day of work on a new unit the teacher discusses the general content (not structure) of the unit dialogue. The learners then receive the printed dialogue with the native language translation in parallel column. The teacher answers any questions of interest or concern about the dialogue. The dialogue is then read the second and third time in ways to be discussed subsequently.

The whole course also has a pattern of presentation and performance. On the first day a test is given to check the level of the students' knowledge and to provide a basis for dividing students into two groups, one of new beginners and one of modified (false) beginners. The teacher then briefs the students on the course and explains the attitude they should take toward it.

During the course there are two opportunities for generalization of material. In the middle of the course students are encouraged to practice the target language in a setting where it might be used, such as hotels and restaurants. The last day of the course is devoted to a performance in which every student participates. The students construct a play built on the material of the course.

Types of learning and teaching activities

The types of activities that are more original to Suggestopedia are the listening activities, which concern the text and text vocabulary of each unit. These activities are typically part of the "pre-session phase", which takes place on the first day of a new unit.

The students first look at and discuss a new text with the teacher. In the second reading, students relax comfortably in reclining chairs and listen to the teacher read the text in a certain way. During the third reading the material is acted out by the instructor in a dramatic manner over a background of the special musical form described previously.

Learner roles

Students volunteer for a Suggestopedia course, but having volunteered, they are expected to be committed to the class and its activities. Learners must not try to figure out, manipulate, or study the material presented but must maintain a pseudo-passive state, in which the material rolls over and through them. Students are expected to tolerate and in fact encourage their own "infantilization". In part this is accomplished by acknowledging the absolute authority of the teacher and in part by giving themselves over to activities and techniques designed to help them regain the self-confidence, spontaneity, and receptivity of the child. Such activities include role playing, games, songs, and gymnastic exercise (Bancroft 1972: 19)

Teacher Roles

The primary role of the teacher is to create situations in which the learner is most suggestible and then to present linguistic material in a way most likely to encourage positive reception by the learner.

Lozanov lists several expected teacher behaviors that contribute to these presentations.

1. Show absolute confidence in the method
2. Display fastidious conduct in manners and dress
3. Organize properly and strictly observe the initial stages of the teaching process, this includes choice and play of music as well as punctuality.
4. Maintain a solemn attitude towards the session.
5. Give test and respond tactfully to poor papers
6. Stress global rather than analytical attitudes towards material maintain a modest enthusiasm.

The Role of Instructional Materials

Materials consist of direct support materials, primarily text and tape, and indirect support materials, including classroom fixture and music.

The text organized around the ten units described earlier. The text book should have emotional force, literary quality, and interesting characters. Language problems should be introduced in a way that does not worry or distract students from the content.

Although not language materials, the learning environment plays such a central role in Suggestopedia that the important elements of the environment need to be briefly enumerated. The environment (the indirect support materials), comprises the appearance of the classroom (bright and cheery), the furniture (reclining chairs arranged in a circle), and the music (Baroque largo, selected for reason discussed previously).

Procedure

We have tried here to characterize a class as described in the Suggestopedia literature while pointing out where the actual classes we have observed varied considerably from the description.

Bancroft (1972) notes that four hour language class here three distinct parts. The first part we might call an oral review section. Previously learned material is used as the basis for discussion by the teacher and twelve students in the class. This session may involve what are called micro-studies and macro-studies. In micro-studies specific attention is given to grammar, vocabulary, and precise questions and answers. A question from a micro study might be, "What should one do in a hotel room if the bathroom taps are not working?" In the macro-studies, emphasis is on role playing and wider-ranging, innovative language constructions.

In the second part of the class new material is presented and discussed. This consists of looking over a new dialogue and its native language translation and discussing any issues of grammar, vocabulary, or

content that the teacher feels important or that students are curious about. The teacher's attitude and authority is considered critical to preparing students for success in the learning to come. The pattern of learning and use is noted, so that students will know what expected.

The third part – the séance or concert session – is the one by which Suggestopedia is best known. Since this constitutes the heart of the method, we will Lozanov as to how this session proceeds.

At the beginning of the session, all conversation stops for a minute or two, and the teacher listen to the music coming from a tape-recorder. He wait and listens to several passages in order to enter into the method of the music and then begins to read or recite the new text, his voice modulated in harmony with the musical phrase. The students follow the text in their text books where each lesson in translated into the mother tangué. Between the first and second part of the concert, there are several minutes of solemn silence. In some cases, even longer pauses can be given to permit the students to stir a little. Before the beginning of the second part of the concert, there are again several minutes of silence and some phrases of the music are heard again before the teacher begins to read the text. Now the students close their textbooks and listen to the teacher's reading. At the end, the students silently leave the room. They are not told to do any homework on the lesson they have just had except for reading it cursorily once before going to bed and again before getting up in the morning.(Lozanov 1978: 272)

The Silent Way

The silent way is the name of a method of language teaching devised by Caleb Gattegno's name is well known for his revival of interest in the use of colored wooden sticks called Cuisenaire rods and for his series words in color, an approach to the teaching of initial reading in which sound are coded by specific color.

The silent way represents Gattegno's venture into the field of foreign language teaching. It is based on the premise that the teacher

should be silent as much as possible in the classroom and the learner should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible.

The silent way shares a great deal with other learning theories and educational philosophies. Very broadly put, the learning hypotheses underlying Gattegno's work could be stated as follows:

1. Learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned
2. Learning is facilitated by accompanying (mediating) physical object,
3. Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned.

Let us consider each of these issues in turn :

- The educational psychologist and philosopher Jerome Bruner distinguishes two traditions of teaching that which takes place in the expository mode and that which takes place in the hypothetical mode in the expiatory mode "decisions covering the mode and pace and style of exposition are principally determined by the teacher as expositor the student as the listener.
- The rods and the color coded pronunciation charts (called Fidel charts) provide physical foci for student learning and also create memorable images to facilitate student recall.
- The silent way is also related to a set of premises that we have called "problem solving approaches to learning". These premises are succinctly represented in the words of Benjamin Franklin:

Tell me and I forget,
Teach me and I remember,
Involve me and I learn

In the language of experimental psychology, the kind of subject involvement that promotes greatest learning and recall involves processing of material to be learned at the "greatest cognitive depth" (Craik 1973). Or for our purposes, involving the greatest amount of problem solving activity. "Memory research has demonstrated that the learner's memory benefits from creatively searching out, discovering and depicting" (Bowers and Winzenz 1970)

In the silent way the teacher's strict avoidance of repetition forces alertness and concentration on the part of the learners" (Gattegno 1972; 80).

Approach

Theory of Language

Gattegno takes an openly skeptical view of the rule of linguistic theory in language teaching methodology. He feels that linguistic studies "may be a specialization, that carry with them a narrow opening of one's sensitivity and perhaps serve very little towards the broad end in mind"(Gattegno 1972; 84).

Gattegno views language itself as a substitute for experience, so experience is what gives meaning to language" (Gattegno 1972; 8).we are not surprised than to see simulated experiences using tokens and picture charts as central elements in silent way teaching.

By looking at the material chosen and the sequence in which it is presented in a silent way classroom, it is clear that the silent way takes a structural approach to the organization of language to be taught.

Gattegno sees vocabulary as a central dimension of language learning and the choice of vocabulary as crucial. He distinguishes between several classes of vocabulary items.

- The semi luxury vocabulary consist of expression common in the daily life of the target language culture, this refers to food, clothing travel, family life, and so on.
- The luxury vocabulary is used in communicating more specialized ideas such a political or philosophical opinions.

The most important vocabulary for the learner deals with the most functional and versatile words of the language, many of which may not have direct equivalents in the learner's native tongue.

Theory of Learning

Like many other method proponents, Gattegno makes extensive use of his understanding of first language learning processes as a basic for

deriving principles for teaching foreign language to adults. Gattegno recommends, for example that the learner needs to “return to the state of mind that characterized a baby’s learning surrender” (Scoot and Page 1982; 273)

The learning system is activated only by way of intelligent awareness. “the learner must constantly test his powers to abstract, analyze, synthesize and integrate.” (Scoot and page1982: 273).

The artificial approach that Gattegno proposes is based on the principle that successful learning involves commitment of the self to the language acquisition through the use of silent awareness and then active trial. Gattegno’s repeated emphasis on the primacy of learning over teaching places a focus on the self of the learner, on the learner’s priorities and commitments.

But the silent way is not merely a language teaching method. Gattegno sees language learning through the silent way as a recovery of innocence “a return to our full powers and potentials”. Gattegno aims is not just second language learning, it is nothing less than the education of the spiritual powers and of the sensitivity of the individual.

Design

Objectives

The general objectives of the silent way method are to give beginning level students oral and aural facility in basic elements of the target language. The general goal of set for language learning is near native fluency in the target language, and correct pronunciation and mastery of the prosodic elements of the target language are emphasized.

Gattegno states that the Silent Way teaches learners how to learn a language and the skill developed through the process of learning a foreign or second language can be employed in dealing with “unknowns” of every type.

The method, we are told, can also be used to teach reading and writing, and its usefulness is not restricted to beginning level students. Most of the examples Gattegno describes however as well as the classes

we have observed, deal primarily with a basic level of aural/ oral proficiency.

Syllabus

The silent way adopts a basically structural syllabus, with lessons planned around grammatical items and related vocabulary. Gattegno does not, however, provide details as to the précis selection and arrangement of grammatical and lexical items to be covered. There is no general silent way syllabus.

Vocabulary is selected according to the degree to which it can be manipulated within a given structure and according to its productivity within the classroom setting. In addition to preposition and numbers, pronoun, quantifiers, words dealing with temporal relation, words of comparison are introduced early in the course, because they “refer to oneself and to others in the numerous relations of everyday life” (Stevick 1979).

Types of learning and teaching activities

Learning tasks and activities in the silent way have the function of encouraging and shaping student oral response without oral instruction from or unnecessary modeling by the teacher.

Basic to the method are simple linguistic tasks in which the teacher models a word, phrase, or sentences and then elicits learner responses. Learner then go on to create their own utterances by putting together old and new information. Charts, rods, and other aids may be used to elicit learner responses. Teacher modeling is minimal, although much of the activity may be teacher directed. Responses to commands, question, and visual cues thus constitute the basis for classroom activities.

Learner Roles

Gattegno sees language learning as a process of personal growth resulting from growing student awareness and self challenge. The learner first experiences a “random or almost random feeling of the area of

activity in question until one finds one or more cornerstones to build on. Then starts a systematic analysis, first by trial and error, later by directed experiment with practice of the acquired sub areas until mastery follows” (Gattegno 1972: 79)

Learner are expected to develop in dependence, autonomy, and responsibility.

- Dependence

Independent learners are those who are aware that they must depend on their own resources and realize that they can use “ the knowledge of their own language to open up some things in anew language “ or that they can “ take their knowledge of the first few word in the new language and figure out additional words by using that knowledge “ (Stevick 1980: 42)

- Autonomy

The autonomous learner chooses proper expressions in a given set of circumstance and situation. “the teacher cultivates the student’s autonomy by deliberately building choices into situations” (Stevick 1980: 42)

- Responsibility

Responsible learners know that they have free will to choose intelligently and carefully is said to be evidence of responsibility. The absence of correction and repeated modeling from the teacher requires the students to develop inner criteria and to correct themselves. The absence of explanation requires learners to make generalization, come to their own conclusion, and formulate whatever rules they themselves feel they need.

In order to be productivity members of the learning groups, learner thus have to play varying roles. At times one is an independent individual. At other times a group members. A learner also must be a teacher, a student, part of a support system, a problem solver, and self evaluation. And it is the student who is usually expected to decide on what role is most appropriate to a given situation.

Teacher Roles

Teachers are exhorted to resist their long standing commitment to model, remodel, assist, and direct desired students responses, and Silent way teachers have remarked upon the arduousness of self restraint to which early experience of the silent way has subjected them.

The teacher uses gesture, charts, and manipulative, in order to elicit and shape student responses and so must be both facile and creative as a pantomimist and puppeteer. In sum, the silent way teacher, like the complete dramatist, writes the script, chooses the props, sets the mood, models the action, designates the players, and is critic for the performance.

More generally, the teacher is responsible for creating an environment that encourages student risk taking and that facilitates learning. This is not to say that the silent way teacher becomes one of the groups. In fact observers have noted that the silent way teachers often appear aloof or even gruff with their students. The teacher's role is one of neutral observer neither elated by correct performance nor discouraged by error. Students are expected to see the teacher as a disinterested judge, supportive but emotionally uninvolved.

The Role of Instructional Materials

The silent way is perhaps as well known for the unique nature of its teaching materials as for the silence of its teacher. The materials consist mainly of a set of colored rods, color code pronunciation, and vocabulary wall charts, a pointer, and reading/writing exercise, all set of which are used to illustrate the relationship between sound and meaning in the target language.. the materials are designed for manipulation by the students as well as by the teacher, independently and cooperatively in promoting language learning by direct association.

The pronunciation charts, called "Fidels" have been devised for a number of a language and contain symbols in the target language for all of the vowel and consonant sounds of the language. The symbols are color

coded according to pronunciation, thus if a language processes two different symbols for the same sound, they will be colored alike.

Class often begin by using Fidel charts in the native language, color coded in an analogous manner, so that students learn to pair a sound with its associated color.

There may be from one to eight of such charts, depending upon the language. The teacher uses the pointer to indicate the sounds symbol for the students to produce, where native language Fidel are used, the teacher will point to a symbol on one chart and then to its analogue on the fidel on the other language.

In the absence of native language charts or when introducing a sound not present in the native language the teacher give one clear. Audible model after indicating the proper Fidel symbol in the target language. The chart are hung on the wall and serve to aid in remembering pronunciation and in building new word by sounding out sequences of symbols as they pointed to by the teacher or student.

The content of word charts will vary from language to language, but the general content of the vocabulary charts (Gattegno: 1972) is paraphrased below:

- Chart 1 the word rod, colors of the rods, plural marks, simple imperative verbs, personal pronouns, some adjectives and question words.
- Charts 2, 3 remaining pronouns, words for “here” and “there” , of , for and name.
- Charts 4 numbering
- Charts 5,6 words illustrating size, space, and temporal relationship, as well as some concepts difficult to illustrate with rods, such as order, causality, condition, similarity, and difference
- Charts 7 words that qualify, such as adverb
- Charts 8, 9 verbs, with cultural references where possible
- Charts 10 family relationship
- Charts 11, 12 words expressing time, calendar elements, season days, week, months, year, etc.

Other materials that may be used include books and worksheets for practicing reading and writing skills, picture books, tapes, video tapes, films, and other visual aids. Reading and writing are sometimes thought from beginning and student are given assignment to do outside the classroom at their own pace.

These materials are of secondary importance and are used to supplement the classroom use of rods and charts. Choice and implementation depends upon need as assessed by teachers and students.

Procedure

A Silent way lesson typically follows standard format. The first part of the lesson focused on pronunciation. Depending on student's level. The class might work on sounds, phrases, or even sentences designated on the field chart. At the beginning stage, the teacher will model the appropriate sound after pointing to a symbol on the chart. Later, the teacher will silently point to individual symbol and combination of symbol, and monitor students utterances.

The teacher may say a word and have a student guess what sequence of symbols comprised the word. The pointers used to indicate stress, phrasing, and intonations. Stress can be shown by touching certain symbols more forcibly than others when pointing out a word. Intonation and phrasing can be demonstrated by tapping on the chart to the rhythm of the utterances.

Summary

Grammar-Translation Method is a way of studying language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by the application of knowledge by translating sentences and texts into the target language.

Contemporary texts for teaching of foreign languages at college level often reflect Grammar-Translation Principles.

There was interest in how children learn languages which develop teaching principles from observation of child language learning. Teachers

and linguists began to write about the need for new approaches to language teaching and this effort became the Reform Movement in language teaching. In various times throughout the history of language teaching, attempts have been made to make second language learning more like first language learning. Grammar was taught inductively. Some important questions to be developed are:

What should the goals of language teaching be? Should a language course try to teach conversational proficiency, reading, translation, or some other skill?

What is the basic nature of language, and will this affect teaching method?

What are the principles for the selection of language content in language teaching

Suggestopedia has probably received both the most enthusiastic and the most critical response any of the so called new methods. Suggestopedia also received a scathing review in the TESOL Quarterly, a journal of somewhat more restricted circulation than *Parade* (Scovel 1979).

Scovel take special issue with Lozanov's use (and misuse) of scholarly citation, terminological jargon, and experimental data and states that "a careful reading of (Suggestology and outlines of Suggestopedya) reveals that there is precious little in Suggestology which is scientific" (1979: 257).

Lozanov makes no bones about the fact that Suggestopedia is introduced to students in the context of a "suggestive-desuggestive ritual placebo system" (Lozanov 1978: 267), and that one of the tasks of the Suggestopedic leader is to determine which current ritual placebo system might be yoga, it might be hypnosis, it might be biofeedback, it might be experimental science.

The silent way represents Gattegno's venture into the field of foreign language teaching. Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned.

The rods and the color coded pronunciation charts (called Fidel charts) provide physical foci for student learning and also create memorable images to facilitate student recall.

In the silent way the teacher's strict avoidance of repetition forces alertness and concentration on the part of the learners" (Gattegno 1972; 80). Gattegno sees vocabulary as a central dimension of language learning and the choice of vocabulary as crucial. Like many other method proponents, Gattegno makes extensive use of his understanding of first language learning processes as a basic for deriving principles for teaching foreign language to adults. Gattegno's repeated emphasis on the primacy of learning over teaching places a focus on the self of the learner, on the learner's priorities and commitments.

But the silent way is not merely a language teaching method. Gattegno sees language learning through the silent way as a recovery of innocence "a return to our full powers and potentials". The general goal of set for language learning is near native fluency in the target language, and correct pronunciation and mastery of the prosodic elements of the target language are emphasized.

Gattegno states that the Silent Way teaches learners how to learn a language and the skill developed through the process of learning a foreign or second language can be employed in dealing with "unknowns" of every type. Charts, rods, and other aids may be used to elicit learner responses. Teacher modeling is minimal, although much of the activity may be teacher directed. Gattegno sees language learning as a process of personal growth resulting from growing student awareness and self challenge. "the teacher cultivates the student's autonomy by deliberately building choices into situations" (Stevick 1980: 42)

The materials are designed for manipulation by the students as well as by the teacher, independently and cooperatively in promoting language learning by direct association. Class often begin by using Fidel charts in the native language, color coded in an analogous manner, so that students learn to pair a sound with its associated color.

In the absence of native language charts or when introducing a sound not present in the native language the teacher give one clear. Audible model after indicating the proper Fidel symbol in the target language. The content of word charts will vary form language to language, but the general content of the vocabulary charts (Gattegno : 1972)

Questions and Application Tasks

1. What are the principle characteristics of grammar-translation method?
2. What are principles and procedure direct method?
3. What are differences between grammar-translation method and direct method?
4. Design syllabus and lesson plan by using grammar-translation method for Junior High Scholl students.
5. Design syllabus and lesson plan by using direct method for Senior High School students.
6. Prepare teaching materials according to task 1 and 2.
7. Describe background suggestopedia.
8. What is functions of music in suggestopedia?
9. What theory of language underlying in suggestopedia?
10. What theory of language learning underlying in suggestopidea?
11. How to design suggestopedia in teaching English at Junior High School students?
12. What are the teacher roles in suggestopedia?
13. Arrange the procedure of teaching English by using suggestopedia in Senior High School students.
14. Explain a background of the silent way.
15. Mention and explain the learning hypotheses underlying Gattegno's work.
16. What are theory of language and language learning underlying in the silent way.
17. Design and apply lesson plan for junior high school students by using the silent way.

120

18. Compare the procedure of teaching English by using the silent way and situational language teaching.
19. Develop syllabus and teaching materials by using the silent way.

deepublish / publisher

REFERENCES

- Agger, B. (1990). *The decline of discourse: reading, writing, and resistance in postmodern capitalism*. London: Falmer Press.
- (1991). *A critical theory of public life. Knowledge, discourse, and politics in an age of decline*. London: Falmer Press.
- (1992). *Cultural studies as critical theory*. London: The Falmer Press.
- (1992). *The discourse of domination. From The Frankfurt School to Postmodernism*. Evanston, IL: Northwestern University Press.
- Albert, E. M. (1972). Culture patterning of speech behavior in Burundi. In J. J. Gumperz & D. Hymes (Eds.), *Directions in sociolinguistics: The ethnography of communication*. (pp. 72-105). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Alexander, J. C., Giesen, B., Muench, R., & Smelser, N. J. (Eds.). (1987). *The micro-macro link*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Andsager, J. L. (1990). Perceptions of Credibility of Male and Female Syndicated Political Columnists. *Journalism Quarterly*, 67(3), 485-491.
- Ang, I. (1982). *Watching Dallas: Soap opera and the melodramatic imagination*. London: Methuen.
- Apple, M. W. (1979). *Ideology and curriculum*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Aronowitz, S. (1988). *Science as power: discourse and ideology in modern society*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

- Atkinson, P., Davies, B., & Delamont, S. (Eds.). (1995). *Discourse and reproduction. Essays in honor of Basil Bernstein*. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.
- Bachem, R. (1979). *Einfuehrung in die Analyse politischer Texte. (Introduction to the analysis of political discourse)*. Muenchen: Oldenbourg Verlag.
- Bachman, L.F. (1990). *Fundamental Consideration in Language Testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Barker, A. J. (1978). *The African link: British attitudes to the Negro in the era of the Atlantic slave trade, 1550-1807*. London: Frank Cass.
- Bell, Roger T. (1981). *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics: Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Batsford Academic and Educational Ltd.
- Bergvall, V. L., & Remlinger, K. A. (1996). Reproduction, resistance and gender in educational discourse: the role of Critical Discourse Analysis. *Discourse & Society* 7(4), 453-479.
- Bernstein, B. (1975). *Class, Codes and Control. Volume 3, Towards a Theory of Educational Transmissions*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Bernstein, B. (1990). *The structuring of pedagogic discourse*. London: Routledge.
- Birnbaum, N. (1971). *Toward a critical sociology*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Boden, D. (1994). *The business of talk. Organizations in action*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Bourdieu, P. (1984). *Homo academicus*. Paris: Minuit.
- Bourdieu, P. (1989). *La noblesse d'etat. Grandes ecoles et esprit de corps*. Paris: Minuit.

- Bourdieu, P., Passeron, J. C., & Saint-Martin, M. (1994). *Academic discourse. Linguistic misunderstanding and professorial power.* Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Bradac, J. J., Hemphill, M. R., & Tardy, C. H. (1981). Language Style on Trial: Effects of "Powerful" and "Powerless" Speech upon Judgments of Victims and Villains. *Western Journal of Speech Communication*, 45(4), 327-341.
- Britton, B. K., & Graesser, A. C. (Eds.). (1996). *Models of understanding text.* Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Brown, J.D. (1996). *Testing in Language Programs.* New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Bruhn Jensen, K. (1995). *The social semiotics of mass communication.* London: Sage.
- Burton, F., & Carlen, P. (1979). *Official discourse. On discourse analysis, government publications, ideology and the state.* London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Caldas-Coulthard, C. R., & Coulthard, M. (Eds.). (1996). *Texts and Practices: Readings in Critical Discourse Analysis.* London, England: Routledge.
- Calhoun, C. (1995). *Critical social theory.* Oxford: Blackwell.
- Cameron, D. (1992). *Feminism and linguistic theory. Second Edition.* London: MacMillan.
- Cameron, D. (Ed.). (1990). *The feminist critique of language. A reader.* London: Routledge.
- Carbo, T. (1992). Towards an interpretation of interruptions in Mexican parliamentary discourse. *Discourse & Society*, 3(1), 25-45.
- Carbo, T. (1995). *El discurso parlamentario mexicano entre 1920 y 1950. Un estudio de caso en metodologia de analisis de discurso.*

- (Mexican parliamentary discourse between 1920 and 1950. A case study in the methodology of discourse analysis). 2 vols. Mexico: CIESAS and Colegio de Mexico.
- Castles, S., & Miller, M. J. (1993). *The age of migration. International population movements in the modern world*. London: MacMillan.
- Chilton, P. (1988). *Orwellian language and the media*. London: Pluto Press.
- Chilton, P. (1996). *Security metaphors. Cold War discourse from containment to common house*. Bern: Lang.
- Chilton, P. (Ed.) (1985). *Language and the Nuclear Arms Debate: Nukespeak Today*. London and Dover, New Hampshire: Frances Printer.
- Chilton, P., & Lakoff, G. (1995). *Foreign Policy by Metaphor*. In C. Schaeffner & A. L. Wenden (Eds.), *Language and Peace*. (pp. 37-59). Aldershot: Dartmouth.
- Chomsky, N. (1959) A review of B.F. Skinner's *Verbal Behavior*. *Language*, 35, pp.26-58.
- Chomsky, N. (1966) *Research on language learning and linguistics. Report of the Northeast Conference, 1966*, pp. ??
- Chomsky, N. 1965. *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Colebrook, C., & McHoul, A. (1996). *Interpreting Understanding Context*. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 25(3), 431-440.
- Collins, R., Curran, J., Garnham, N., Scannell, Schlesinger, P., & Sparks, C. (Eds.). (1986). *Media, culture and society*. London: Sage.
- Connolly, W. E. (1983). *The terms of political discourse*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

- Corder, S.P. (1967) The significance of learners' errors. Reprinted in J.C.Richards (ed.) (1974, 1984) *Error Analysis: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition*. London: Longman, pp. 19 - 27 (Originally in *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 5 (4))
- Corder, S.P. 1983. *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Coulthard, R. M. (Ed.). (1994). *Advances in Written Text Analysis*. London: Routledge.
- Danet, B. (Ed.) (1984). *Legal discourse*. Text 4, nrs. 1/3. special issue.
- Davis, H., & Walton, P. (Eds.) (1983). *Language, Image, Media*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Davis, K. (1988). *Power under the microscope. Toward a grounded theory of gender relations in medical encounters*. Dordrecht: Foris.
- Derian, J. D., & Shapiro, M. J. (1989). *International/Intertextual relations*. Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath.
- Diamond, J. (1996). *Status and power in verbal interaction. A study of discourse in a close-knit social network*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Dines, G., & Humez, J. M. M. (Eds.). (1995). *Gender, race, and class in media. A text-reader*. London, CA: Sage.
- Djiwandono, M, Soenardi. 1996. *Tes Bahasa dalam Pengajaran*. Bandung; Penerbit ITB.
- Djiwandono, M, Soenardi. 1986. *Kemampuan Berbahasa dan Penilaiannya dalam Pengajaran Bahasa: Pidato Pengukuhan pada Penerimaan Jabatan Guru Besar IKIP Malang*. IKIP Malang.
- Dorfman, A., & Mattelart, A. (1972). *Para leer el Pato Donald. Comunicacion de Masa y Colonialismo. (How to read Donald Duck. Mass communication and colonialism)*. Mexico: Siglo XXI.

- Dovidio, J. F., & Gaertner, S. L. (Eds.). (1986). *Prejudice, discrimination, and racism*. Orlando, FL: Academic Press.
- Downing, J. (1984). *Radical Media: the political experience of alternative communication*. Boston: South End Press.
- Drew, P., & Heritage, J. (Eds.). (1992). *Talk at work. Interaction in institutional settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Duin, A. H., Roen, D. H., & Graves, M. F. (1988). Excellence or malpractice: The effects of headlines on readers' recall and biases. National Reading Conference (1987, St. Petersburg, Florida). National Reading Conference Yearbook, 37, 245-250.
- Duranti, A., & Goodwin, C., (Eds.). (1992). *Rethinking Context: Language as an Interactive Phenomenon* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Duszak, A. (Ed.). (1997). *Culture and styles of academic discourse*. Berlin: Mouton De Gruyter.
- Ebel, R.L. and Frisbie, D.A. 1986. *Essentials of Educational Measurements*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Edelman, M. J. (1977). *Political language: Words that succeed and policies that fail*. New York: Academic Press.
- Edelman, M. J. (1985). *The symbolic uses of politics*. Second Edition. Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.
- Ehlich, K. (Ed.). (1989). *Sprache im Faschismus. (Language under fascism)*. Frankfurt: Suhrkamp.
- Ehlich, K. (Ed.). (1995). *The discourse of business negotiation*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Essed, P. J. M. (1991). *Understanding everyday racism: An interdisciplinary theory*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

- Fairclough, N. L. (1989). *Language and power*. London: Longman.
- Fairclough, N. L. (1989). *Language and power*. London: Longman.
- Fairclough, N. L. (1992). *Discourse and social change*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Fairclough, N. L. (1995). *Critical Discourse Analysis: The Critical Study of Language*. Harlow, England: Longman.
- Fairclough, N. L. (1995). *Media Discourse*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Fairclough, N. L. (Ed.). (1992). *Critical Language Awareness*. London: Longman.
- Fairclough, N. L., & Wodak, R. (1997). Critical discourse analysis. In T. A. van Dijk (Ed.), *Discourse Studies. A multidisciplinary introduction*. Vol. 2. *Discourse as social interaction*. (pp. 258-284). London: Sage.
- Fay, B. (1987). *Critical Social Science*. Cambridge: Polity Pres.
- Ferree, M. M., & Hall, E. J. (1996). Rethinking Stratification from a Feminist Perspective: Gender, Race, and Class in Mainstream Textbooks. *American Sociological Review*, 61(6), 929-950.
- Fisher, S. (1995). *Nursing wounds. Nurse practitioners, doctors, women patients, and the negotiation of meaning*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.
- Fisher, S., & Todd, A. D. (Eds.). (1986). *Discourse and institutional authority. Medicine, education, and law*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Fishman, P. (1983). Interaction: The work women do. In B. Thorne, C. Kramarae, & N. Henley (Eds.), *Language, gender and society* (pp. 89-101). New York: Pergamon Press.
- Fowler, R. (1991). *Language in the news. Discourse and ideology in the press*. London: Routledge.

- Fowler, R., Hodge, B., Kress, G., & Trew, T. (1979). *Language and control*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Fox, C. J., & Miller, H. T. (1995). *Postmodern public administration. Toward discourse*. London, CA: Sage.
- Fox, D. R., & Prilleltensky, I. (1997). *Critical psychology. An introduction*. London: Sage.
- Fries, C.C. (1945) *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Gamson, W. A. (1992). *Talking Politics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Gans, H. (1979). *Deciding what's news*. New York: Pantheon Books.
- Geis, M. L. (1987). *The language of politics*. New York: Springer.
- Giles, H., & Coupland, N. (1991). *Language: Contexts and consequences*. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.
- Giroux, H. (1981). *Ideology, culture and the process of schooling*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Glasgow University Media Group. (1976). *Bad news*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Glasgow University Media Group. (1980). *More bad news*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Glasgow University Media Group. (1982). *Really bad news*. London: Writers and Readers.
- Glasgow University Media Group. (1985). *War and peace news*. Milton Keynes & Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- Glasgow University Media Group. (1993). *Getting the message. News, truth and power*. Edited by John Eldridge. London: Routledge.

- Glasser, T. L., & Salmon, C. T. (Eds.). (1995). *Public opinion and the communication of consent*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Grabe, W. & Kaplan, R. (1992). *Introduction to Applied Linguistics*. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company
- Graber, D. A. (1980). *Crime news and the public*. New York: Praeger.
- Graesser, A. C., & Bower, G. H. (Eds.). (1990). *Inferences and text comprehension. The psychology of learning and motivation*, Vol. 25. New York: Academic Press.
- Gramsci, A. (1971). *Prison notebooks*. New York: International Publishers.
- Groundlund, Norman E. 1986. *Measurement and Evaluation in Teaching*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Guespin, L. (Ed.). (1976). *Typologie du discours politique (Typology of political discourse)*. Langages 41.
- Hackett, R. A. (1991). *News and dissent. The press and the politics of peace in Canada*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Haghighat, C. (1988). *Racisme "scientifique". Offensive contre l'egalite sociale. ("Scientific" Racism. An attack against social equality)*. Paris: L'Harmattan.
- Hall, S., Hobson, D., Lowe, A., & Willis, P. (Eds.). (1980). *Culture, Media, Language*. London: Hutchinson.
- Hardt, H. (1992). *Critical communication studies. Communication, history, and theory in America*. London: Routledge.
- Hartley, J. (1982). *Understanding News*. London and New York: Methuen.
- Hartmann, P., & Husband, C. (1974). *Racism and the mass media*. London: Davis-Poynter.
- Hasanuddin. 2003. *Language Testing*. Gorontalo: IKIP Press.

- Herman, E. S. (1992). *Beyond hypocrisy. Decoding the news in an age of propaganda: including A doublespeak dictionary for the 1990s.* Illustrations by Matt Wuerker. Boston, MA: South End Press.
- Herman, E. S., & Chomsky, N. (1988). *Manufacturing consent. The political economy of the mass media.* New York: Pantheon Books.
- Herman, E. S., & Chomsky, N. (1988). *Manufacturing consent. The political economy of the mass media.* New York: Pantheon Books.
- Hirschman, A. O. (1991). *The rhetoric of reaction. Perversity, futility and jeopardy.* Cambridge, MA: The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.
- Hodge, R., & Kress, G. (1988). *Social semiotics.* London: Polity Press.
- Hodge, R., & Kress, G. R. (1993). *Language as ideology.* London: Routledge.
- Holly, W. (1990). *Politikersprache. Inszenierungen und Rollenkonflikte im informellen Sprachhandeln eines Bundestagsabgeordneten.* (Politician's language. Dramatization and role conflicts in the informal speech acts of a Bundestag delegate). Berlin: De Gruyter.
- Houston, M., & Kramarae, C. (Eds.). (1991). *Women speaking from silence.* *Discourse & Society*, 2(4), special issue.
- Hymes, D. (Ed.). (1972). *Reinventing anthropology.* New York: Vintage Books.
- Ibañez, T., & Öñíguez, L. (Eds.). (1997). *Critical social psychology.* London: Sage.
- Irvine, J. T. (1974). *Strategies of status manipulation in the Wolof greeting.* In R. Bauman, & J. Sherzer, J. (Eds.), *Explorations in the ethnography of speaking.* (pp. 167-191). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Jaeger, S. (1988). *Rechtsdruck. Die Presse der neuen Rechten.* ("Rechtsdruck": The press and the new right). Bonn: Dietz.
- Jaeger, S. (1992). *BrandSaetze. Rassismus im Alltag.* ('Brandsaetze' -- Inflammatory Sentences / Firebombs. Racism in everyday life). DISS-Studien. Duisburg: DISS.
- Jaeger, S., & Link, J. (1993). *Die vierte Gewalt. Rassismus und die Medien.* (The Fourth Power. Racism and the Media). Duisburg: DISS.
- Jaworski, A. (1983). Sexism in textbooks. *British Journal of Language Teaching* 21(2), 109-113.
- Johnson-Laird, P. N. (1983). *Mental models.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Katz, P. A., & Taylor, D. A. (Eds.). (1988). *Eliminating racism. Profiles in controversy.* New York: Plenum Press.
- Kedar, L. (Ed.). (1987). *Power through discourse.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Khatib, S. M. (1989). Race and Credibility in Persuasive Communications. *Journal of Black Studies*, 19, 361-373.
- Klapper, J. T. (1960). *The effects of mass communication.* New York: Free Press.
- Klaus, G. (1971). *Sprache der Politik.* (Language of politics). Berlin: VEB Deutscher Verlag der Wissenschaften.
- Knorr-Cetina, K., & Cicourel, A. V. (Eds.). (1981). *Advances in social theory and methodology. Towards an integration of micro- and macrosociologies.* London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Kotthoff, H., & Wodak, R. (Eds.). (1997). *Communicating Gender in Context.* Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Kramarae, C., Schulz, M., & O'Barr, W. M. (Eds.). (1984). *Language and power.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

- Kress, G., & Van Leeuwen, T. (1990). *Reading images*. Victoria: Deakin University Press.
- Lakoff, R. T. (1990). *Talking power. The politics of language*. New York: Basic Books.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. & Long, M. (1991) *An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research*. New York: Longman.
- Lauren, P. G. (1988). *Power and prejudice. The politics and diplomacy of racial discrimination*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Lavandera, B. R. (1986). Intertextual relationships: Missing people in Argentina. *Georgetown University Round Table in Language and Linguistics*. (pp. 121-139). Washington: Georgetown University Press.
- Lavandera, B. R., Garcia Negroni, M. M., Lopez Ocon, M., Luis, C. R., Menendez, S. M., Pardo, M. L., Raiter, A. G., & Zoppi-Fontana, M. (1986). Analisis sociolingüístico del discurso político. *Cuadernos del Instituto de Lingüística 1(1)*. Buenos Aires: Instituto de Lingüística, Universidad de Buenos Aires.
- Lavandera, B. R., Garcia Negroni, M. M., Lopez Ocon, M., Luis, C. R., Menendez, S. M., Pardo, M. L., Raiter, A. G., & Zoppi-Fontana, M. (1987). Analisis sociolingüístico del discurso político (II). *Cuadernos del Instituto de Lingüística*. Buenos Aires: Instituto de Lingüística, Universidad de Buenos Aires.
- Lee, M. A., & Solomon, N. (1990). *Unreliable sources. A guide to detecting bias in news media*. Carol Pub. Group.
- Leimdorfer, F. (1992). *Discours academique et colonisation. Themes de recherche sur l'Algerie pendant la periode coloniale. (Academic discourse and colonization: Research on Algeria during the colonial period)*. Paris: Publisud.

- Liebes, T., & Katz, E. (1990). *The export of meaning: Cross-cultural readings of 'Dallas'*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Lindgren-Lerman, C. (1983). Dominant discourse: The institutional voice and the control of topic. In: H. Davis, & P. Walton, (Eds.) *Language, image, media*. Oxford: Blackwell, 75-103.
- Lindgren-Lerman, C. (1983). Dominant discourse: The institutional voice and the control of topic. In: H. Davis, & P. Walton, (Eds.) *Language, image, media*. Oxford: Blackwell, 75-103.
- Linell, P., & Jonsson, L. (1991). Suspect stories: Perspective-setting in an asymmetrical situation. In Ivana Markova, & Klaus Foppa (Eds.), *Asymmetries in dialogue. The dynamics of dialogue*. (pp. 75-100). nd; Barnes & Noble Books/Bowman & Littlefield Publishers: Harvester Wheatsheaf.
- Lukes, S. (Ed.). (1986). *Power*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Manoff, R. K., & Schudson, M. (Eds.). (1987). *Reading the news*. New York: Pantheon Books.
- Martin Rojo, L. (1994). Jargon of delinquents and the study of conversational dynamics. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 21(3), 243-289.
- Martin Rojo, L. (1995). Division and rejection: from the personification of the Gulf conflict to the demonisation of Saddam Hussein. *Discourse & Society*, 6(1), 49-79.
- Martin Rojo, L., & Van Dijk, T. A. (1997). "There was a problem, and it was solved!" Legitimizing the Expulsion of 'Illegal' Immigrants in Spanish Parliamentary Discourse. *Discourse & Society* 8(4), 523-567.
- Matouschek, B. M., Wodak, R., & Januschek, F. (1995). *Notwendige Massnahmen gegen Fremde? Genese und Formen von rassistischen Diskursen der Differenz*. Wien: Passagen-Verlag.

- Mercer, N. (1995). *The guided construction of knowledge. Talk amongst teachers and learners.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Mey, J. L. (1985). *Whose language. A study in linguistic pragmatics.* Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Miles, R. (1989). *Racism.* London: Routledge.
- Mishler, E. G. (1984). *The discourse of medicine. Dialectics in medical interviews.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Mumby, D. K. (1988). *Communication and power in organizations: discourse, ideology, and domination.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Mumby, D. K. (Ed.). (1993). *Narrative and social control. Critical perspectives.* Newbury Park: Sage.
- Mumby, D. K., & Clair, R. P. (1997). Organizational discourse. In T. A. van Dijk (Ed.). (1997). *Discourse as social interaction. Discourse Studies. A multidisciplinary introduction. Volume 1.* (pp. 181-205). London: Sage.
- Nesler, M. S., Aguinis, H., Quigley, B. M., & Tedeschi, J. T. (1993). The Effect of Credibility on Perceived Power. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 23(17), 1407-1425.
- Ng, S. H., & Bradac, J. J. (1993). *Power in language.* Newbury Park: Sage.
- Nimmo, D. D., Sanders, K. R. (Eds.). (1981). *Handbook of political communication.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- O'Barr, W. M., Conley, J. M., & Lind, A. (1978). The Power of Language: Presentational Style in the Courtroom. *Duke Law Journal*, 14, 266-279.
- Osler, A. (1994). Still Hidden from History: The Representation of Women in Recently Published History Textbooks. *Oxford Review of Education*, 20(2), 219-235.

- Palmer, M. T. (1989). Controlling Conversations: Turns, Topics and Interpersonal Control. *Communication Monographs*, 56(1), 1-18.
- Pasierbsky, F. (1983). *Krieg und Frieden in der Sprache. (War and Peace in Language)*. Frankfurt: Fischer.
- Pecheux, M. (1969). *Analyse automatique du discours*. Paris: Dunod.
- Pecheux, M. (1982). *Language, Semantics and Ideology*. New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Puette, W. J. (1992). *Through jaundiced eyes. How the media view organized labor*. Ithaca, NY: ILR Press.
- Radtke, I. (Ed.). (1981). *Die Sprache des Rechts und der Verwaltung. Volume II of Deutsche Akademie fuer Sprache und Dichtung, Die oeffentliche Sprachgebrauch. (The language of the law and the administration. Volume II of the German Academy of Language and Literature, Official Language Use)*. Stuttgart: Klett-Cotta.
- Rasmussen, D. M. (Ed.). (1996). *The Handbook of Critical Theory*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Said, E. W. (1979). *Orientalism*. New York: Random House (Vintage).
- Schaeffner, C., & Porsch, P. (1993). Meeting the challenge in the path to democracy: Discursive strategies in government declarations in Germany and the former GDR. *Discourse & Society* 4(1), 33-56.
- Schaeffner, C., & Wenden, A. L. (Eds.). (1995). *Language and peace*. Aldershot: Dartmouth.
- Scherer, K. R., & Giles, H. (Eds.) (1979). *Social markers in speech*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Seidel, G. (Ed.). (1988). *The nature of the right. A feminist analysis of order patterns*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Shapiro, M. J. (Ed.). (1984). *Language and politics*. New York University Press.

- Shohat, E., & Stam, R. (1994). *Unthinking Eurocentrism. Multiculturalism and the media*. London: Routledge.
- Shuy, R. W. (1992). *Language crimes. The use and abuse of language evidence in the Court Room*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Sierra, M. T. (1992). *Discurso, cultura y poder. El ejercicio de la autoridad en los pueblos hñahñus del Valle del Mezquital*. (Discourse, culture and power. The exercise of authority in the hñahñu (Otomi) villages of the Mezquital Valley). Gobierno del Estado de Hidalgo: Centro de Investigaciones y Estudios Superiores en Antropología Social.
- Singh, R. (Ed.). (1996). *Towards a Critical Sociolinguistics*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Co.
- Smith, D. E. (1991). Writing women's experience into social science. *Feminism and Psychology*, 1(1), 155-169.
- Solomos, J., & Wrench, J. (1993). *Racism and migration in Western Europe*. Oxford: Berg.
- Steiner, E. (1985). Towards a critical linguistics. In P. Chilton (Ed.), *Language and the nuclear arms debate: Nukespeak Today*. (pp. 213-230). London: Pinter.
- Tannen, D. (1994). *Gender and discourse*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Tannen, D. (1994). Talking from 9 to 5. How women's and men's conversational styles affect who gets heard, who gets credit, and what gets done at work. New York: Morrow.
- Ter Wal, J. (1997). *The reproduction of ethnic prejudice and racism through policy and news discourse. The Italian case (1988-1992)*. Florence: Doctoral Thesis European Institute.
- Thomas, J. (1993). *Doing critical ethnography*. Newbury Park: Sage.

- Thorne, B., Kramarae, C. & Henley, N. (Eds.). (1983). *Language, gender and society*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Turkel, G. (1996). *Law and society. Critical approaches*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- UNESCO. (1977). *Ethnicity and the media*. Paris: Unesco.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1984). *Prejudice in discourse*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1987). *Communicating racism: Ethnic prejudice in thought and talk*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1987). *Schoolvoorbeelden van racisme. De reproductie van racisme in maatschappijleerboeken (Textbook examples of racism. The reproduction of racism in social science textbooks)*. Amsterdam: Socialistische Uitgeverij Amsterdam.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1988a). How 'They' hit the headlines. *Ethnic minorities in the press*. In G. Smitherman-Donaldson & T. A. van Dijk (Eds.), *Discourse and Discrimination*. (pp. 221-262). Detroit, MI: Wayne State University Press.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1988b). *News as discourse*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1988c). *News Analysis. Case studies of international and national news in the press*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 1988.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1991). *Racism and the press*. London: Routledge.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1992). *Discourse and the Denial of Racism*. *Discourse and Society*, 3(1), 87-118.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1993a). *Elite discourse and racism*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1993b). *Principles of Critical Discourse Analysis*. *Discourse and Society* 4(2), 249-83.

- Van Dijk, T. A. (1996). Discourse, Power and Access. In Caldas-Coulthard, Carmen Rosa, & Coulthard, Malcolm (Eds.), *Texts and Practices: Readings in Critical Discourse Analysis*. (pp. 84-104). London, England: Routledge.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1998a). *Ideology. A multidisciplinary study*. London: Sage.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1998b). Towards a Theory of Context and Experience Models in Discourse Processing. In H. van Oostendorp & S. Goldman (Eds.), *The construction of mental models during reading*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Van Dijk, T. A., & Kintsch, W. (1983). *Strategies of discourse comprehension*. New York: Academic Press.
- Van Els et al. 1984. *Applied Linguistics and the Learning and Teaching of Foreign Languages*. Edawrd Arnold: Victoria Australia.
- Van Leeuwen, T. J. (1993). Genre and Field in Critical Discourse Analysis: A Synopsis. *Discourse and Society* 4(2), 193-223. []
- Van Leeuwen, T. J. (1995). Representing Social-Action. *Discourse & Society*, 6(1), 81-106.
- Van Leeuwen, T. J. (1995). *The grammar of legitimation*. London School of Printing, School of Media.
- Van Leeuwen, T. J. (1996). The representation of social actors. In C. R. Caldas-Coulthard & M. Coulthard (Eds.), *Texts and practices. Readings in Critical Discourse Analysis*. London: Routledge.
- Van Oostendorp, H., & Zwaan, R. A. (Eds.). (1994). *Naturalistic Text Comprehension*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Van Zoonen, L. (1994). *Feminist media studies*. London: Sage.
- Verrillo, E. (1996). Who Is Anita Hill? A Discourse-Centered Inquiry into the Concept of Self in American Folk Psychology. In Ragan,

- Sandra L., Bystrom, Dianne G., Kaid, Lynda Lee, & Beck, Christina S. (Eds.), *The Lynching of Language: Gender, Politics, and Power in the Hill-Thomas Hearings*. (pp. 61-83). Urbana, IL: University Illinois Press.
- Weaver, C. A., Mannes, S., & Fletcher, C. R. (Eds.). (1995). *Discourse comprehension. Essays in honor of Walter Kintsch*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Wellman, D. T. (1993). *Portraits of white racism*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- West, C. (1984). *Routine complications: Troubles with talk between doctors and patients*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Wetherell, M., & Potter, J. (1992). *Mapping the language of racism: Discourse and the legitimation of exploitation*. Chichester: Columbia University Press.
- Whillock, R. K., & Slayden, D. (Eds.). (1995). *Hate speech*. London, CA: Sage.
- Wilkes, A. L. (1997). *Knowledge in minds. Individual and collective processes in cognition*. Hove: Psychology Press.
- Williams, J. (Ed.). (1995). *PC Wars. Politics and theory in the academy*. New York: Routledge.
- Willis, P. (1977). *Learning to Labour: How Working Class Kids Get Working Class Jobs*. London: Saxon House.
- Wilson, C. C., & Gutierrez, F., (1985). *Minorities and the media*. Beverly Hills, Ca., & London: Sage Publications.
- Wilson, J. (1990). *Politically speaking*. Cambridge: Blackwell.
- Wodak, R. (1984a). *Determination of guilt: Discourses in the courtroom*. In C. Kramarae, M. Schulz, & W. M. O'Barr, (Eds.). *Language and power*. (pp. 89-100). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

- Wodak, R. (1984b). The Language of Love and Guilt: Relationships between Mothers and Daughters from a Socio- and Psycholinguistic Point of View. *Resources for Feminist Research / Documentation sur la Recherche Feministe*, 13(3), 21-25.
- Wodak, R. (1985). The interaction between judge and defendant. In: T. A. Van Dijk (Ed.), *Handbook of Discourse analysis*. Vol. 4. *Discourse analysis in society* (pp. 181-191). London: Academic Press.
- Wodak, R. (1987). 'And Where Is the Lebanon?' A Socio-Psycholinguistic Investigation of Comprehension and Intelligibility of News. *Text*, 7(4), 377-410.
- Wodak, R. (1991). Turning the tables: Anti-semitic discourse in post-war Austria. *Discourse & Society*, 2, 65-84.
- Wodak, R. (1996). *Disorders of discourse*. London: Longman.
- Wodak, R. (1997). *Gender and discourse*. London: Sage.
- Wodak, R. (Ed.). (1989). *Language, Power and Ideology. Studies in political discourse*. Amsterdam: Bejamins.
- Wodak, R., & Kirsch, P. (Eds.). (1995). *Totalitaere Sprache (Totalitarian languages)*. Vienna: Passagen Verlag.
- Wodak, R., & Menz, F. (Eds.). (1990). *Sprache in der Politik - Politik in der Sprache. Analysen zum oeffentlichen Sprachgebrauch. (Language in politics - politics in language. Analyses of public language use)*. Klagenfurt: Drava.
- Wodak, R., de Cillia, R., Bluemel, K., & Andraschko, E. (1987). *Sprache und Macht*. Wien: Deuticke.
- Wodak, R., de Cillia, R., Reisigl, M., Liebhart, K., Hofstaetter, K., & Kargl, M. (1997). *Diskursive Konstruktion nationaler Identitaet (The discursive construction of national identity)*. Frankfurt am Main: Suhrkamp.

- Wodak, R., Menz, F., Lutz, B., & Gruber, H. (1985). Die Sprache der Maehtigen - die Sprache der Ohnmaechtigen. Der Fall Hainburg. (The language of the powerfull - the language of the powerless. The case of Hainburg). Wien: Arbeitsgemeinschaft fuer politische Bildung.
- Wodak, R., Nowak, P., Pelikan, J., Gruber, H., de Cillia, R., & Mitten, R. (1990). "Wir sind alle unschuldige Taeter". Diskurshistorische Studien zum Nachkriegsantisemitismus ("We are all innocent perpetrators" Discourse historic studies in post war antisemitism). Frankfurt/Main: Suhrkamp.
- Wrong, D. H. (1979). Power: Its forms, bases and uses. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Zimmermann, H. D. (1969). Die politische Rede. Der Sprachgebrauch Bonner Politiker. (Political Speech. Language use of Bonn's politicians). Stuttgart: Kohlhammer.