

Lecture 12

What is Language? ماهي اللغة؟

A number of definitions have been suggested but we will consider the following composite definition.

هناك العديد من الاقتراحات لتعريفها ولكن سوف ندرس التعابير المركبة التالية

- 1- Language is systematic. اللغة هي التنظيم
- 2- Language is a set of arbitrary symbols. هي مجموعه من الرموز التحكميه
- 3- Those symbols are primarily vocal, but may also be visual. قد تكون رموز اساسيه صوتيا، وربما ايضا مرئيه.
- 4- The symbols have conventionalized meanings to which they refer. اصطلاحيا هي الرموز التي تشير الى معنى
- 5- Language is used for communication. تستخدم وسيلة لاتصال
- 6- Language operates in a speech community or culture. تمارس في حديث المجتمع او تكون ثقافته
- 7- Language is essentially human, although possibly not limited to humans. هي اساس البشريه، وغير مقتصره فقط على بشريه.
- 8- Language is acquired by all people in much the same way; language and language learning both have universal characteristics. يتم اكتسابها بواسطه الناس في كثير من الطرق المتشابهه اللغه وتعليمها لها خصائص عالميه.

Schools of Thought in Second Language Acquisition مدارس لتعليم واكتساب اللغه الثانيه

While the general definitions of language, learning, and teaching offered above might meet with the approval of most linguists, psychologists, and educators, points of disagreement become apparent after a little probing of the components of each definition.

التعاريف السابقه العامه للغه والتعلم والتعليم المقدمه اعلاه ربما توافقو معظم اللغويين عليها و علماء النفس، والمربي ، ونقاط الخلاف واضحه بعد التحقق من بعض التعاريف

For example, is language primarily a “system of formal units” or a “means for social interaction”? Or for better retention, should a teacher emerge from equally knowledgeable scholars, usually over the extent to which one viewpoint or another should receive primacy.

على سبيل المثال ، اللغه اساس "وحدة النظام الرسمي " او " وسائل التفاعل الاجتماعي " او لتثبيت افضل ينبغي ان يبرز استاذ من الاساتذة المتساويين في معرفه ، وعادة في وجهات النظر يجب ان تتلقى او تثبت الافضليه .(يعني اذ اجتمعوا الدكاتره ومستواهم العلمي متساوي ويتناقشون في تعريف اللغه فتكون الاجابه الافضل والقريبه هي التي تثبت او تتلقى للجميع)

Yet, with all the possible disagreements among applied linguists and SLA researchers, some historical patterns emerge that highlight trends and fashions in the study of second language acquisition. These trends will be described here in the form of three different schools of thought—primarily in the fields of linguistics and psychology—that follow somewhat historically. وبعض الطرق او الانماط SLA بين اللغويين وباحثين الـ ووجهات النظر: الاتجاهات والاساليب في دراسة اللغه الثانيه المكتسبه . هذي الاتجاهات سوف يتم وصفها في 3 مدارس مختلفه التفكير ، الاساسيه في مجال اللغويات وعلم النفس التي تتبع تاريخيا لحد ما.

In the 1940s and 1950s, the structural, or descriptive, school of linguistics, with its advocates—Leonard Bloomfield, Edward Sapir, Charles Hockett, Charles Fries, and others—prided itself in a rigorous application of scientific observations of human languages.

في عام 1940s and 1950s التركيب او التوصيف ، مدارس اللغويات ، مع المؤيدين لها Leonard Bloomfield, Edward Sapir, Charles Hockett, Charles Fries وغيرهم . يتباهون في تطبيقات دقيقة من الملاحظات العلمية للغة البشرية .

Only “publicly observable responses” could be subject to investigation. The linguist’s task, according to the structuralist, was to describe human languages .And to identify the structural characteristics of those languages. An important axiom of structural linguistics was that languages can differ from each other without limit, and that no preconceptions could apply across languages.

فقط "يمكن ادراك استجابتها علنا" ويمكن فحصها او التحقق منها . مهام لغويه استنادا لتركيب ، او وصف اللغة البشرية. والتعرف على خصائص تركيب لتلك اللغات ، وكانت من مهام التركيب اللغوي اختلافها عن بعضها البعض بدون حدود ، ولا يمكن تطبيق التصورات السابقة عبر اللغات .

Of further importance to the structural or descriptive linguist was the notion that language could be dismantled into small pieces or units and that these units could be described scientifically, contrasted, and added up again to form the whole. كانت نظرية ان اللغة تستطيع تفكيكها الى قطع صغيره او وحدات صغيره و تلك الوحدات تستطيع وصفها علميا ، متناقضه ، واضافه مرة اخرى الى كامل تكوينها

Among psychologists, a behavioral paradigm also focused on publicly observable responses—those that can be objectively perceived, recorded, and measured. The scientific method was rigorously adhered to, and therefore such concepts as consciousness and intuition were regarded as mentalistic, illegitimate domains of inquiry.

وضمن علماء النفس ، مثال السلوك يمكن ادراك استجابتها علنا ويستطيع النظر لها بموضوعيه ، وتدوينها ، وقياسها. وكانت طريقة المنهج العلمي ملتزمه ب الدقه . وبالتالي فهي تعتبر المفاهيم مثل الوعي والبدايه تكون ذهنيه او عقليه ، لذلك فهي مجالات غير منطقيه للتحقيق

The unreliability of observation of states of consciousness, thinking, concept formation, or the acquisition of knowledge made such topics impossible to examine in a behavioral framework.

فهي غير موثوقه لرصد حالات الوعي والتفكير وتكوين المفاهيم ، او اكتساب المعرفة من هذي المواضيع ، المستحيل دراستها في اطار سلوكي

Typical behavioral models were classical and operant conditioning, rote verbal learning, instrumental learning, discrimination learning, and other empirical approaches to studying human behavior. كانت فعالة التكييف . تتعلم اللفظ بشكل سريع . وتعليم آلي ، وتعليم تمييزي (متحيز) ، ونهج تجريبي اخر لدراسة السلوك البشري

You may be familiar with the classical experiments with Pavlov’s dog and Skinner’s boxes; these too typify the position that organisms can be conditioned to respond in desired ways, given the correct degree and scheduling of reinforcement.

قد تكون مألوفه مع التجارب الكلاسيكيه :مع كلب بالفوف وصندوق سكينرز(كانو يختبرون تكيف البشر بتجاربههم مع الحيوانات وكانت تجربتهم الشهيرة مع الكلاب واختبار جوعهم من العاب وكذلك غرفة سكينر الي كان يعمل صندوق ويضع فيه فنران ويغلقه وينظر مدى استجابتهم للتكيف الجديد) يصنف أيضا موقف أن الكائنات الحية يمكن أن تكون متكيفة للرد بطرق المرغوبه، بالنظر إلى درجة الصحة وجدولة الاسهامات.

In the decade of the 1960s, generative transformational linguistics emerged through the influence of Noam Chomsky and a number of his followers. Chomsky was trying to show that human language cannot be scrutinized simply in terms of observable stimuli and responses or the volumes of raw data gathered by field linguists.

في 1960s هذا العام اوجدت اللغويات الانتقاليه من خلال تاثير نعومي شومسكي وعدد من اتباعه ، حيث حاول نعومي اظهار ان لغة الانسان لايمكن التدقيق ببساطه من حيث المثيرات او الاستجابات التي يلاحظها او مجلد البيانات الصريحه التي تم جمعها في مجال اللغة

The generative linguist was interested not only in describing language (achieving the level of descriptive adequacy) but also in arriving at an explanatory level of adequacy in the study of language, that is, a "principled basis, independent of any particular language, for the selection of the descriptively adequate grammar of each language" (Chomsky. 1964, p. 63).

كان اللغوي ليس مهتم فقط بوصف اللغة "نجاح مستوى الوصفيه المكافئ" ولكن ايضا التوصل الى مستوى تفسيري للكفاء في دراسة علم اللغة وهذا هو "اساس المبادئ ، المستقله عن أي لغة معينه لاختيار قواعد كافيه ووصفيه من كل لغة " (تشكومسكي ص ٦٣)

Similarly, cognitive psychologists asserted that meaning, understanding and knowing were significant data for psychological study. Instead of focusing rather mechanistically on stimulus-response connections, cognitivists tried to discover psychological principles of organization and functioning.

وبنفس الطريقة ، اكد علماء النفس الإدراكي نفس المعنى وفهم ومعرفه وبيانات هامه لدراسة النفسيه ، بدل من التركيز الالي على استجابة العلاقات المؤثره والمدرک يحاول اكتشاف مبادئ نفسيه لتنظيم والعمل ،

Lecture 13

Constructivism: A Multidisciplinary Approach

Constructivism is hardly a new school of thought. Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky, names often associated with constructivism, are not by any means new to the scene of language studies. Yet, in a variety of poststructuralist theoretical positions, Constructivism emerged as a prevailing paradigm only in the last part of the twentieth century, and is now almost an orthodoxy.

A refreshing characteristic of constructivism is its integration of linguistic, psychological, and sociological paradigms, in contrast to the professional chasms that often divided those disciplines in the previous century. Now, with its emphasis on social interaction and the discovery, or construction, of meaning, the three disciplines have much more common ground.

What is Constructivism?

First, it will be helpful to think of two branches of constructivism: **cognitive** and **social**. In the **cognitive** version of constructivism, emphasis is placed on the importance of learners constructing their own representation of reality. “Learners must individually discover and transform complex information if they are to make it their own, [suggesting] a more active role for students in their own learning than is typical in many classrooms” (Slavin, 2003, p.257-258).

Social constructivism emphasizes the importance of social interaction and cooperative learning in constructing both cognitive and emotional images of reality.

The champion of social constructivism is Vygotsky (1978), who advocated the view that “children’s thinking and meaning-making is socially constructed and emerges out of their social interactions with their environment” (Kaufman, 2004, p.304).

One of the most popular concepts advanced by Vygotsky was the notion of a **zone of proximal development (ZPD)** in every learner: the distance between learners’ existing developmental state and their potential development. Put another way, the ZPD describes tasks that a learner has not yet learned but is capable of learning with appropriate stimuli.

The ZPD is an important facet of social constructivism because it describes tasks “that a child cannot yet do alone but could do with the assistance of more competent peers or adults” (Slavin, 2003, p. 44).

Vygotsky’s concept of the ZPD contrasted rather sharply with Piaget’s theory of learning in that the former saw a unity of learning and development while the latter saw stages of development setting a precondition, or readiness, for learning (Dunn & Lantolf, 1998).

First Language Acquisition

Everyone at some time has witnessed the remarkable ability of children to communicate. How can we explain this fantastic journey from that first anguished cry at birth to adult competence in a language? From the first word to tens of thousands? These are the sorts of questions that theories of language acquisition attempt to answer.

Using the schools of thought referred to previously, an extreme **behaviorist position** would claim that children come into the world with a **tabula rasa**, a clean slate bearing no preconceived notions about the world or about language, and that these children are then shaped by their environment and slowly conditioned through various schedules of reinforcement.

At the other **constructivist extreme** is the position that makes not only the cognitivist claim that children come into this world with very specific innate knowledge, pre dispositions, and biological timetables, but that children learn to function in a language chiefly through interaction and discourse.

Issues in First Language Acquisition

Competence and Performance

Competence refers to one's underlying knowledge of a system, event, or fact. It is the nonobservable ability to do something, to perform something. **Performance** is the overtly observable and concrete manifestation or realization of competence. It is the actual doing of something: walking, singing, dancing, speaking.

In reference to language, **competence** is one's underlying knowledge of the system of a language—its rules of grammar, its vocabulary, all the pieces of a language and how those pieces fit together.

Performance is actual production (speaking, writing) or the comprehension (listening, reading) of linguistic events.

Comprehension and Production

One of the myths that has crept into some foreign language teaching materials is that **comprehension** (listening, reading) can be equated with competence, while production (speaking, writing) is **performance**.

It is important to recognize that this is not the case: **production** is of course more directly observable, but **comprehension** is as much performance—a “willful act” to use Saussure's term—as production is.

Lecture14

Cross-Linguistic Influence and Learner Language

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH)

In the middle of the twentieth century, one of the most popular pursuits for applied linguists was the study of two languages in contrast. CAH claimed that the principal barrier to second language acquisition is the interference of the first language system with the second language system,

and that a scientific, structural analysis of the two languages in question would yield a taxonomy of linguistic contrasts between them which in turn would enable linguists and language teachers to predict the difficulties a learner would encounter.

A well known model was offered by Stockwell, Bowen, and Martin (1965), who posited what they called a **hierarchy of difficulty** by which a teacher or linguist could make a prediction of the relative difficulty of a given aspect of the target language.

Fossilization

The relatively permanent incorporation of incorrect linguistic forms into a person's second language competence has been referred to as **fossilization**.

Fossilization is a normal and natural stage for many learners, and should not be viewed as some sort of terminal illness.

Vigil and Oller (1976) provided a formal account of fossilization as a factor of positive and negative affective and cognitive feedback. They noted that there are two kinds of information transmitted between sources (learners) and audiences (in this case, native speakers); information about the **affective** relationship between source and audience, and **cognitive** information—facts, suppositions, beliefs.

Affective information is primarily encoded in terms of kinesic mechanisms such as gestures, tone of voice, and facial expressions, while **cognitive** information is usually conveyed by means of linguistic devices (sounds, phrases, structures, discourse). The feedback learners get from their audience can be either positive, neutral, somewhere in between, or negative.

Categories of Error Treatment

Types of Feedback

Recast: An implicit type of corrective feedback that reformulates or expands an ill-formed or incomplete utterance in an unobtrusive way.

L: I lost my road.

T: Oh, yeah, I see, you lost your way. And then what happened?

Clarification request: An elicitation of a reformulation or repetition from a student.

L: I want practice today, today. (grammatical error)

T: I'm sorry? (clarification request)

Metalinguistic feedback: provides “comments, information, or questions related to the well formedness of the student’s utterance”.

L: I am here since January.

T: Well, okay, but remember we talked about the present perfect tense?

Elicitation: A corrective technique that prompts the learner to self-correct. Elicitation and other prompts are more overt in their response.

L: (to another student) What means this word?

T: Uh, Luis, how do we say that in English? What *does*?

L: Ah, what does this word mean?

Explicit correction: A clear indication to the student that the form is incorrect and provision of a corrected form.

L: When I have 12 years old

T: No, not *have*. You mean, “when I was 12 years old

Repetition: The teacher repeats the ill-formed part of the student’s utterance, usually with a change in intonation.

L: When I have 12 years old ...

T: When I *was* 12 years old...

انتهى المقرر

اذ استفتتو منه امي و ابي اولي مني بدعواتكم

بالتوفيق