Keynote 2: Language Education and Language in Education in Globalised World

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LANGUAGE LANDSCAPE IN COMPULSORY EDUCATION SECTOR IN ENGLAND

- EAL in **secondary schools** (8% in 2000, 15.7% in 2015, 17% in 2019),
- EAL in **primary schools** (8.7% in 2000, 20.1% in 2015, 21% in 2019) (DfE, 2019).
- 75% of primary and 100% of secondary schools have ‘EAL’ learners.
- Approximately 350 different languages are spoken by pupils in mainstream schools.

PLASC data (Schools Census, 2013); National Census data, 2011; DfE (School Census, 2019).
Educational objectives focus on teaching and assessing the language knowledge

Educational contexts (where learning is happening) vs instructional methods (how learning is happening)

Primary vs secondary objectives

CBI

CLIL

EAL

TBLT

CLIL

TBLT

CBI

Languages teaching objectives / Language knowledge assessment

L2 proficiency is the focus of assessment

Taught by L2/ESOL teacher

TESOL Pedagogy

Learning L2 as a subject

One subject area from the entire Grade / Form / Key Stage curriculum

Language-based syllabus (L2 skills and L2 use)

L2 proficiency is the focus of assessment

Taught by L2/ESOL teacher

CBI Pedagogy

Learning L2 as a subject

One subject area from the entire Grade / Form / Key Stage curriculum

Language-based syllabus (L2 skills and L2 use) + individual topics for lessons from variety of subject areas (not necessarily tied up to the school’s curriculum)

L2 proficiency is the focus of assessment

Taught by L2/ESOL teacher

Sample chart for demonstration purposes only
Language in Education

EAL Pedagogy (England)
(similar to immersion education in Canada)
Learning L2 [implicit (in class) - explicit (withdrawal) continuum] alongside mainstream subject syllabus
Integrated into all subject areas from the entire Grade / Form / Key Stage curriculum
Content-based syllabus with subordinate language learning goals (L2 skills for immediate L2 use)
Subject knowledge is the focus of assessment (L2 is/can be assessed to track EAL learners' language development)

CLIL Pedagogy (Europe)
(somewhat similar to bilingual education in the USA)
Learning L2 [implicit (in class) - explicit (soft CLIL) (withdrawal) continuum] alongside mainstream subject syllabus
Integrated into one or several (STEM*) subject area(s) from the entire Grade / Form / Key Stage curriculum
Content-based syllabus; L2 learning is a 'bonus' (soft CLIL class is similar to a well supported EAL class)
Subject knowledge is the focus of assessment (L2 development is NOT assessed)

Sample chart for demonstration purposes only

EAL specific issues
Teacher does not share L1 with learners => effective pedagogical translanguaging is difficult
Learners come with no/very limited English but no/very limited EAL support is available to schools
Resources are available for materials development but time & expertise are limited

CLIL specific issues
Class teacher who is also a language teacher often struggles with identifying learning priorities in a content-based class (something always has to be sacrificed in the time given)
What a learner already knows (pre-instructional knowledge)

ELL learner

Information beyond learner’s current level of cognitive development

ELL specific support provided through the medium of A TARGET Language Only

ELL specific support allowing SOME use of learner’s FIRST LANGUAGE (Teacher initiated and controlled)

ELL non-specific, good mainstream teaching practice

ELL specific support allowing UNRESTRICTED use of learner’s FIRST LANGUAGE (Learner initiated and controlled)
Translanguaging (modern definition) — is the dynamic process whereby multilingual language users mediate complex social and cognitive activities through strategic employment of multiple semiotic resources to act, to know and to be. (Garcia and Wei, 2014).

Translanguaging (original term) — is a pedagogical practice which switches the language mode in bilingual classrooms — for example, reading is done in one language, and writing in another. (Cen Williams (1994) cited in Baker, 2001)

Translanguaging in the classroom — is a process by which students and teachers engage in complex discursive practices that include ALL the language practices of ALL students in a class in order to develop new language practices (OA: target language) and sustain old ones (OA: first/native language), to communicate and adapt to social and cognitive activities through strategic employment of multiple semiotic resources to act, to know and to be. (Garcia and Wei, 2014: 121).

Code-switching — is the bilingual's ability to select the language in response to external cues and according to the properties of the linguistic system. (Meisel, 1989)

Code-mixing — is the practice of combining elements from each language because the speaker does not know how to differentiate between them. (ibid.)

RECOMMENDATIONS
(developed by S. Hesson with adaptation by O. Garcia)

**When students are...**

### READING

- **Assign** bilingual reading materials for mutual assistance.
- **Provide** multilingual reading translations — when possible.
- **Provide/encourage** multilingual reading material for research projects.

### WRITING

- **Allow** students to audio record ideas first using all their language resources, before writing.
- **Assign** students bilingual writing partners for mutual assistance.
- **Have** students pre-work using all their language resources, then select one language (ENG) for final writing.
CLIL and EAL shared issues

Where class teacher is not a language teacher, teaching language or focusing on linguistic aspects of the discipline is difficult (impossible?)

In Europe teacher training is provided for both content areas and English language; In the UK there are MA Programmes in EAL and there is an integration of the component into ITE Programmes, but this is very limited and insufficient in breadth and depths of focus.

ELLs need to develop not only essential survival language skills (BICS, Cummins, 1979) but also CALP (including development of critical thinking skills and academic [+subject specific] language that comes with them)
ACADEMIC / SUBJECT-SPECIFIC LANGUAGE USE

- Start teaching and eliciting academic and scientific language from learners actively at lower stages of schooling (primary school) - despite its largely ‘optional’ nature - in order to prepare learners better for later stages of schooling (secondary phase).

Our data suggested that many learners, both EAL and native speakers, did not know such subject-specific terminology and academic language as: absorb, amount/of, attract, beaker, canine, molar, decay, condense, evaporate/evaporation, feature, grow/th, nutrition, producer, property, reproduce/reproduction, separate, type, vapour, water cycle.’

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Academic language proficiency is the abilities to construct meaning from oral and written language, relate complex ideas and information, recognize features of different genres, and use various linguistic strategies to communicate (Dutro & Moran 2003).

Academic language is the set of words, grammar and discourse strategies used to describe complex ideas, higher-order thinking processes, and abstract concepts (Zwiers, 2014: 22).

ELTs perform poorly in mainstream classes not only because they lack academic language preparation but also because their teachers lack preparation to teach them this language (Bartolome, 1998; Scarcella, 2003; Valdes, 2001).

Adopted from Zwiers (2014)
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

One way to foster student abilities to get academic things done with language as part of an evolving set of tools and skills used to construct and communicate ideas.

TOOLS:

Words = content-specific; technical: respiration, habitat; Words and phrase sets extend across the language continuum from concrete to abstract: biological, ecological and human (theories) words).

Grammar = sociocultural; standard: courtesy, literacy; content-technical words, (Kucan, 2013) are important for a variety of educational goals and help mature users to communicate complex ideas: feature, require, tend, dimension, account, correspond, reflect, represent, evaluate.

Importance of academic vocabulary knowledge (Scarcella, 2003; Stahl, 1999). The danger is in overfocusing on individual words, particularly if that focus is on accumulating definitions to do well on tests. When this happens, connected and in-depth understandings of content concepts and practice in disciplinary thinking get pushed aside.

SKILLS:

- For constructing ideas use various tools that logically and clearly connect sentences and paragraphs. E.g.: Connectives: therefore, however, whereas, because; prepositions: behind, between, without; pronouns: each other, themselves, it.
- Use terms that describe higher-order thinking skills: differ, contrast, analyse, theory, estimate, filter, model, link, evidence, establish, consequences, aspects.

Words = content-specific, technical: respiration, habitat

Words and phrases = extend across the curriculum from concrete to abstract (philosophical and hard-to-visualize words): photosynthesis, democracy, balancing equations

General but sophisticated words, tier 2 words, (Kucan, 2013) are used across a variety of domains and help mature users communicate complex thoughts: feature, require, tend, dimension, account, correspond, reflect.

In middle grades and early high school especially, students need to know and use many new terms on the abstract side of the continuum (Zwiers, 2014: 25).

Adopted from Zwiers (2014)

Importance of academic vocabulary knowledge (Scarcella, 2003; Stahl, 1999). The danger is in overfocusing on individual words, particularly if that focus is on accumulating definitions to do well on tests. When this happens, connected and in-depth understandings of content concepts and practice in disciplinary thinking get pushed aside.

Learners must be able to work on their SKILLS of communicating ideas.

Adopted from Zwiers (2014)


Academic Word List: includes academic words which are useful for learners of English. The list contains 570 words. The Academic Word List is divided into 10 frequency bands.

Terms and Tactics for Building Academic Sentences

To Describe a Sequence

To Give an Example

To Set a Stage

To Show Results

To Conclude

Examples:

- For example
- In this example
- In this case
- In this situation

- On this occasion
- In this instance

- ...in practice such as
- ...in practice, probably, likely
- ...in practice, probably unlikely
- ...in practice, probably, likely

- Nevertheless, however, on the other hand
- Nevertheless, however, on the other hand
- Nevertheless, however, on the other hand

- Here's how
- Here's how
- Here's how

- Therefore, accordingly
- Therefore, accordingly
- Therefore, accordingly

- As a result
- As a result
- As a result

- Conclusively
- Conclusively
- Conclusively

Regardless of the data they had gathered, they proceeded with the next phase of the project. Except for a handful of rebels concealed in the surrounding hills, all hope was lost. They wound their way through the forest, with some trepidation, for they had heard many stories of its dangers.

Adopted from Coxhead (2000)
Functions of academic language

• To describe complexity

Describe complex concepts as clearly as possible (Scheppegrell, 2004). E.g. in science there are complex relationships among the systems in the human body, complex calculations of chemical reactions, complex geological forces that change the planet.

• To describe higher-order thinking

Academic language is used to describe complex thinking processes (higher order thinking skills). These include cognitive processes that are used to comprehend, solve problems, and express ideas (Facione, 1990; Swartz, 2001).

Bloom’s taxonomy of thinking skills (Bloom et al., 1956)
Knowledge → Comprehension → Application → Analysis → Synthesis → Evaluation

Extended list of cognitive functions (Valdez-Pierce & O’Malley, 1992; Wiggins & McTighe, 1998):
Analysing, seeking information, comparing, informing, explaining, predicting, classifying, justifying, hypothesizing, solving problems, synthesizing, persuading, emphasizing, interpreting, evaluating and applying.

• To describe abstraction

Describe abstract concepts – ideas or relationships that cannot be easily acted out, pointed to or illustrated with images. E.g.: On the other hand these two scientists had differing views on the topic of evolution. (views = thoughts which are abstract).

Adopted from Zviars (2014)

Cognitive discourse Functions (CDF)

Dalton-Puffer (2016)

CDF – are patterns which emerge from the needs humans have when they deal with cognitive content for the purposes of learning, representing, and exchanging knowledge

Features of academic grammar

Long sentences (often have multiple clauses)
Students must be trained to quickly and automatically break down long sentences and process and interpret the clauses. They must recognize what is subordinate and, more important, what is the main point of the sentence in the main clause. Many subordinate clauses begin with words such as: although, before, if, despite.

Passive voice
Places more emphasis on the object than the subject. E.g.: The radius is then plugged [by someone who is not named here…] so, the object is missing in this sentence.

Nominalisation (turning verbs or adjectives into noun phrases)
Purpose – to condense lengthy explanations into a shorter form. E.g.: revolution, personification, cancellation, reunification. The virus adapted to survive outside the body by mutation allowed it to be passed on by casual contact.

Condensed complex messages
Because complex texts pack a lot of meaning into a word or phrase, students must process more ideas per sentence. This technique allows proficient readers to free up thinking space for processing the main points that the author or speaker intends to communicate. E.g.: the word “photosynthesis” implies a complex process involving several components. If the author and the reader share the understanding, the processes do not need to be stated/described again. One form of condensation is use of acronyms (CLIL, ELL, SEN, etc.)

Clarity
Expressing ideas efficiently and effectively without overcomplicating them.

Language acquisition process

Stephen Krashen’s input hypothesis, i + 1 (1985)
Learner must get comprehensible input (mixture of structures already [i] and structures not yet acquired, but just beyond learner’s current level of competence [i+1]) in order to advance.

Lev Vigotsky Zone of Proximal Development (1978)

Swain’s Comprehensible Output Hypothesis
‘Comprehensible output’ refers to the need for a learner to be ‘pushed toward’ the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently, and appropriately (1985: 249)

Long’s Interaction Hypothesis (1985)
Interaction hypothesis proposes that language acquisition is strongly facilitated by the use of the target language in interaction (which involves negotiation of meaning).

Negotiation of Meaning (Ellis, 1994)
Negotiation of meaning happens when the learner or the interlocutor – attempts to remedy breakdown in communication by engaging in interactional work to secure mutual understanding.
### Analysis

#### Transcript

1. T. **What is ice?**
   - **Student name** what is ice? Cause I said how are ice cubes made?

2. S. **Ice is not ice.**
   - **Paragraph**

3. T. **It doesn’t matter, because it is part of science, it’s part of you.**
   - **Modal verb**
   - **Scaffolding via rephrasing**

4. S. **Water**

5. T. **I bet you can’t spell it.**
   - **Academic word list**
   - **Prompting explicit message**

6. T. **Ok, let’s see if you can spell it.**
   - **Academic word**

7. T. **What is ice?**
   - **Student name**

8. S. **Ice is not ice.**
   - **Paragraph**

9. T. **So it just depends on what.**
   - **Academic word**
   - **Language**

10. S. **No.**

11. T. **Ice is not ice.**
    - **Academic word list**
    - **Prompting explicit message**

12. S. **It’s not.**

13. T. **No, that’s not it.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

14. S. **Ice is not ice.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

15. T. **That’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

16. S. **No, it’s not.**

17. T. **Ice is not ice.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

18. S. **It’s not.**

19. T. **Yes, that’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

20. S. **It’s not.**

21. T. **That’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

22. S. **It’s not.**

23. T. **Ice is not ice.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

24. S. **It’s not.**

25. T. **That’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

26. S. **It’s not.**

27. T. **That’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

28. S. **It’s not.**

29. T. **That’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

30. S. **It’s not.**

31. T. **That’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

32. S. **It’s not.**

33. T. **That’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

34. S. **It’s not.**

35. T. **That’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

36. S. **It’s not.**

37. T. **That’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

38. S. **It’s not.**

39. T. **That’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

40. S. **It’s not.**

41. T. **That’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

42. S. **No, it’s not.**

43. T. **That’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

44. S. **No, it’s not.**

45. T. **That’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

46. S. **No, it’s not.**

47. T. **That’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

48. S. **No, it’s not.**

49. T. **That’s right.**
    - **Academic word**
    - **Language**

50. T. **What is ice?**
    - **Student name** what is ice? Cause I said how are ice cubes made?

51. S. **I don’t know.**

52. T. **I bet you can’t spell it.**
    - **Academic word list**
    - **Prompting explicit message**

53. T. **Ok, let’s see if you can spell it.**
    - **Academic word**

54. S. **Ice is not ice.**

55. T. **What is ice?**
    - **Student name**

56. S. **Ice is not ice.**

57. T. **That’s right.**

58. S. **Ice is not ice.**

59. T. **That’s right.**

60. S. **No.**

61. T. **Ok, let’s see if you can spell it.**
    - **Academic word list**
    - **Prompting explicit message**

62. S. **It’s not.**

63. T. **No, that’s not it.**

64. S. **Ice is not ice.**

65. T. **That’s right.**

66. S. **No.**

67. T. **That’s right.**

68. S. **It’s not.**

69. T. **That’s right.**

### Analysis of discourse from 4.5 min transcript only

#### Content

- **Academic words**
- **Language**

### Analysis

#### Academic words

- **Word Count**
- **Percentage**

#### Language

- **Paragraph**
- **Academic word list**

### Feedback

#### Sublist 1

- **Conciseness**
- **Specificity**

#### Sublist 4

- **Conciseness**

#### Sublist 7

- **Topic**
- **Conciseness**

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**See also:** [AWL (academic words)](https://www.lexitor.ca)
Key findings

- Verbs – everyday language (make, turn, put, happen) – common
- More specialised verbs (melting, pouring, freezing, boiling) – common
- Nouns – technical / specialised language (heat, temperature) – common
- Passive voice – adequate use / relatively common
- Use of modal verbs – relatively common (used more frequently by teacher)
- Words from the academic word list – uncommon (occur, specific)
- Teacher modelling language (providing prompts) – common (prompts: when... because... speak in full sentences... offering sentence starters...)

CDF progression: Define/Describe (initiation) → Describe (exploration via scaffolding) → Define (definition / confirmation) → Explain (deeper understanding) → Report (wider application / making connections). Next task could be (ML) (outside measuring / estimating temperature of objects)

- Working within learners’ ZPD; language and subject-content scaffolding though interaction; comprehensible input (more so for ENS than ENNS learners)
- Key focus is on acquisition of subject-matter rather than on academic language development.

Higher-order thinking skills’ development is well supported. Focus on development of (supportive, K2 words) discipline-specific vocabulary is evident.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ATTENTION!

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