Lesson-19

RESEARCHING BILINGUALISM

Topic No. 101-105

Traditional second or foreign-language programs often aim to use only the target language in instruction, whereas bilingual education programs always include some form of more than one language in at least some parts of instruction. Although the approach may be different, the development of some type of bilingualism is accomplished in both language-teaching programs.

Language-teaching programs in the twenty-first century increasingly integrate language and content, therefore, coming to resemble bilingual education; and bilingual education programs are paying more attention than ever to explicit language instruction also.

Lesson-20

BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Topic No. 106-110

Throughout the world, bilingual education practices are becoming more popular than ever, and we use the term "bilingual education" because it enables us to link to the research, scholarship, policy, and practice of the last fifty years. We also use it because bilingual education is centered in schools where curriculum and assessment are mostly linear, inducing educators to think of language acquisition in similar ways. Thus, usually children are initially schooled bilingually, that is, in two languages, even when the intent is to develop proficiency in more than two languages, or even when many more than two separate languages are used in instruction.

Beneficiaries: The overarching principle of this book is that some form of bilingual education is good for all education, and therefore good for all children, as well as good for all adult learners. This is a principle that we have always held; one that was well established by Fishman (1976). Bilingual education is good for all language majorities, that is, powerful ethno-linguistic groups, as well as language minorities, those without power. Bilingual individuals enjoy cognitive and social advantages over monolinguals. As Fishman (1978b: 47) has said: "In a multilingual world it is obviously more efficient and rational to be multilingual than not."

Lesson-23

LANGUAGING, EDUCATION AND LANGUAGE CONSTRUCTION

Topic No. 122-126

Dialects: For linguists, the term "dialect" is a neutral term used for variants of a specific language. Romaine (1994) defines dialect as "a subordinate variety of a language," and refers to regional dialects, associated with a place, social dialects, associated with social class, and historical dialects referring to ancestors of present language varieties. There are also ethnic dialects spoken by ethnolinguistic groups.

Dialects and Varieties: Many lay people also assume that dialects are varieties of a language that are mutually intelligible, that is, speakers are able to understand each other. However, mutual intelligibility has little to do with language, and more to do with people, since it is people who understand each other. Many cases contradict the assumption that dialects are mutually intelligible whereas languages are not. For example Hindi and Urdu, though mutually intelligible are considered two languages.

Pidgins and Creoles: Pidgins are defined by linguists as languages that come into being in contact situations, and are used by speakers with different language backgrounds to communicate, typically to trade or in plantation contexts. For us, they are just another manifestation of how people language. Structurally speaking, pidgins are simplified; that is, they have little morphology and limited syntax, and they are not mutually intelligible with the language from which they derive their lexicon. Pidgins are always learned as second languages.

In contrast, when pidgins become nativized and standardized, and adopted as the language of the home by a majority of the population, they are known as creoles. Creoles are said to be lexically and structurally complex, and are learned as first languages. Michel De Graff (1999) has argued against what he calls "creole exceptionalism," that is, the idea that because creoles had no time to incorporate the parent-languages' complex grammars, and because they are so new, creoles are similar to each other and different from other languages.

Lesson-24

LANGUAGING AND LANGUAGE

Topic No. 127-132

Standardization of Language: Standardization is not an inherent characteristic of language, but the result of a deliberate process. Standardization occurs by fixing and regulating such features as the spelling and the grammar of a language in dictionaries and grammar books which are then used for prescriptive teaching of the language. The term standard language is often used in opposition to standard is "vernacular:" the local language practices. Coulmas (2005: 215) defines standard as "a prestigious variety of language, providing a written institutionalized norm as a reference form for such purposes as language teaching and the media." The standard norm is decided and codified by a central group, disseminated through the institutions of the state such as education and then usage is constantly policed and users dissuaded from divergent practices, both formally and informally.

Standardization of Language and Literacy: Standardization and literacy are intrinsically linked, because, as Romaine has pointed out, "the acquisition of literacy presupposes the existence of a codified written standard, and standardization depends on the existence of a written form of language" (1994: 86).Since, literacy relies on the standard, the standard language itself is taught explicitly in school, and it certainly needs to be taught. Without its acquisition, language minority children will continue to fail and will not have equal access to resources and opportunities. However, the exclusive use of a standard variety for school has important implications for bilingual education. Without a lot of caution, the school's insistence on using only the standard variety of the home language can be detrimental, and may even aggravate the linguistic insecurity that many minority speakers feel.

Lesson-25

LANGUAGES IN EDUCATION

Topic No. 133-137

Imposition of Standard Language: Powerful groups impose their language on the less powerful. In some countries, children are schooled in a language spoken only by a powerful minority within the country, and not by the majority of speakers. This educational practice privileges those who spoke the imposed language at home, severely curtailing educational opportunities for those who were schooled in a language they did not understand. This guarantees that the power stays in the hands of the Indigenous elite.

Linguicism: This racism that is associated with language is what ToveSkutnabb-Kangas (2000) has termed "linguicism."There are many examples worldwide of using language to limit educational and occupational opportunities to those who speak the privileged language. This actually accentuates social differences, since they can only be acquired through formal education and not everyone has access to school. Pennycook (2002) has also shown how language use in education may create "docile" people, able to cooperate in their own exploitation.

Lesson-26

IMPOSITION OF STANDARD LANGUAGE: REASONS

Topic No. 138-141

Balanced Bilingualism: Balanced bilingualism presents a picture of children and adults who are equally competent in two languages in all contexts and with all interlocutors. Although this is still a widely accepted idea, especially among educators, it has long been recognized that such a form of bilingualism does not exist. The belief in balanced bilingualism holds that a bilingual is like two persons, each fluent in one of the two languages.

Translanguaging: Translanguaging, or engaging in bilingual or multilingual discourse practices, is an approach to bilingualism that is centered, not on languages as has been often the case, but on the practices of bilinguals that are readily observable. These worldwide translanguaging practices are seen here not as marked or unusual, but rather are taken for what they are, namely the normal mode of communication that, with some exceptions in some monolingual enclaves, characterizes communities throughout the world. When describing the language practices of bilinguals from the perspective of the users themselves, and not simply describing bilingual language use or bilingual contact from the perspective of the language itself, the language practices of bilinguals are examples of what we are here calling translanguaging. We borrow this term from Cen Williams (cited in Baker, 2001) who used it to name a pedagogical practice which switches the language mode in bilingual classrooms, for example, reading is done in one language, and writing in another. Translanguagings are multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds. Translanguaging therefore goes beyond what has been termed code-switching, although it includes it, as well as other kinds of bilingual language use and bilingual contact. Translanguaging for us extends what Gutiérrez and her colleagues have called "hybrid language use," that is, a "systematic, strategic, affiliative, and sense-making process" (Gutiérrez, Baquedano-López, and Alvarez, 2001: 128).

Lesson-27

BILINGUALISM AND TRANSLANGUAGING

Topic No. 142-146

Code-switching: Code switching is the process of going back and forth from one language to the other. Code-switching may be of at least two types. The first type, intra-sentential, refers to instances in which the switch occurs within the boundaries of a clause or a sentence or intra-sentential between two or more sentences. Far from being a sign of inadequacy or sloppy language usage or lack of knowledge, it has been shown that codeswitching is a sophisticated linguistic skill and a characteristic of the speech of fluent bilinguals. For some, code-switching refers to the bilingual's ability to select the language in response to external cues and according to the properties of the linguistic system; code-mixing on the other hand, refers to combining elements from each language because the speaker does not know how to differentiate between them (Meisel, 1989). **Code mixing** is usually accompanied by reduction in the linguistic forms and the uses of that language as a result of a process of language attrition or loss.

Lesson-28

TRANSLANGUAGING FRAMEWORK

Topic No. 147-152

Subtractive Bilingualism: When monoglossic ideologies persist, monolingualism and monolingual schools are the norm, it is generally believed that children who speak a language other than that of the state should be encouraged to abandon that language. In this model, the student speaks a first language and a second one is added while the first is subtracted. The result is a child speaks only the second language.This bilingualism is characterized by increasing loss of linguistic features of the first language. Additive bilingualism for prestigious groups and the elite has always been additive, a model under which the second language is added to the person's repertoire and the two languages are maintained. Despite the benefits of this approach, bilingualism here is still seen from the perspective of a monolingual norm.

Recursive Bilingualism: The concept is used in cases when bilingualism is developed after the language practices of a community have been suppressed. When a community engages in efforts to revitalize their

language practices, this is called recursive bilingualism as, for example in the case of the Maori of Aotearoa/New Zealand, individuals are not starting from scratch and adding simply a second language.

Dynamic Bilingualism: Dynamic bilingualism draws attention to the fact that bilingualism is not simply linear but dynamic, drawing from the different contexts in which it develops and functions. In the linguistic complexity of the twenty-first century, bilingualism involves a much more dynamic cycle where language practices are multiple and ever adjusting to the multilingual multimodal terrain of the communicative act. With language interaction taking place on different planes including multimodalities, that is, different modes of language (visuals as well as print, sound as well as text, and so on) as well as multilingualism, it is possible for individuals to engage in multiple complex communicative acts that do not in any way respond to the linear models of bilingualism proposed above. For us, this model of dynamic bilingualism is closely related to plurilingualism.

Plurilingualism: Plurilingualism is helpful in that it enables us to shed concepts of balanced bilingualism, or the idea that children be equally competent in two languages in all contexts and with all interlocutors. It extends the mastery of two or more standard languages to include hybrid language practices. Thus the concept of plurilingualism confirms the idea that one plus one does not always equal two. Increasingly, the world seeks to develop bilingual citizens who function within the plurilingual dynamics of the twenty-first century. For example, Posner (1991) suggests the concept of polyglot dialogue with everyone speaking their language, but understanding everyone else's.

Lesson-29

MODELS OF BILINGUALISM

Topic No. 153-160

Semilingualism: The obsession with monolinguals as the norm of reference has led to the proposal of the concept of semilingualism, referring to the unequal performance of bilingual children in their two languages when compared to monolingual children (see Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukomaa, 1976). The development of sociolinguistics has expanded our understandings of the languaging practices of bilinguals; that is, their discursive practices, and how these in turn are affected by social and political constraints. This increased understanding has led scholars to abandon the concept of semilingualism, no longer considering it a useful characterization.

Language Dominance: The dominant bilingual was defined as one for whom competence in one of the languages was superior to the competence in the other. Objecting to the use of speed tests to determine language dominance of bilinguals, Fishman et al. (1971) argued that where bilingualism is socially

constructed, and not merely an occupation or hobby, the concept of language dominance as determined by speed tests is irrelevant. Bilinguals are much more than just two monolinguals, and often, as we will see, it is difficult to disentangle abilities and functioning in one language from that in the other.

Mother tongue: Another common concept now challenged is that of mother tongue. The United Nations defines mother tongue as "the language usually spoken in the individual's home in his early childhood, although not necessarily used by him at present." This directive states that member states should promote the teaching of the mother tongue and the culture of the country of origin in the education of migrant workers' children. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) argue "One may be a native speaker of a language even though one's mother was not [. . .]. It is not a useful term, but it is, nonetheless [. . .] widely used." In addition, Mother tongue tends to be used for language minorities and much less so for language majorities. The term therefore tends to be a symbol of separation of minority and majority, or those with less, as opposed to those with more power and status."

Lesson-30

QUESTIONING ASSUMPTIONS

Topic No. 161-165

Bilingual Abilities: Depending on the reasons for using their languages, bilinguals may have only oracy abilities in one language or the other – the ability to listen and speak – and not literacy abilities – the ability to read and write either language or vice versa or they may have, as the Deaf do, signacy, that is, the ability to interpret and produce signs. Any one of these language abilities may be manifested in different combinations among bilingual individuals. Productive bilingual abilities mean that bilinguals are capable of speaking, writing and producing signs in more than one language. Receptive bilingual abilities mean that they may understand, read or attend to, or interpret, signs in more than one language, although they cannot speak, write, or produce signs in more than one language. There are four circumstances that often produce receptive or passive bilinguals: 1. Children of immigrant or minority backgrounds whose home languages are not promoted in the wider society are often able to understand their parents and elders, but are incapable of speaking the language themselves. 2. Deaf children who are born to hearing parents, and whose education excludes the use of sign language, may not develop the ability to productively sign the standardized sign languages. 3. Those who have learned a language in traditional language programs may understand, read, and interpret the language learned well, although they may be incapable of speaking, writing, or producing signs. 4. Bilingualism can also be a consequence of language function, that is, the use to which one puts either language. In fact, language ability and language function are often interrelated, since one has to have the possibility to function and use a specific language or two

languages in order to develop ability to engage in language practices that use either or both of the languages.

Elective vs. obligatory bilingualism: Some individuals choose to develop bilingual abilities, often the result of studying the language in school or through personal effort. That is, their bilingualism is optional. This type of bilingual has been referred to as "elite bilingual" by Fishman (1977b) and "elective bilingual" by Valdés and Figueroa (1994). Other individuals are forced to develop bilingual abilities. That is, their bilingualism is obligatory. For example, immigrants, indigenous peoples, and minorities who are forced to learn and use only language practices that are not those of the home. Hence, they are obligatory bilinguals. Valdés and Figueroa (1994) call them "circumstantial bilinguals.

Children's bilingual development: Another important concept is whether children become bilingual either simultaneously, acquiring the two languages more or less at the same time in the home,or sequentially, that is, acquiring the second language at a later stage and usually once they go to school. Simultaneous bilingualism has been referred to as the acquisition of "bilingualism as a first language" (Swain, 1972). In the twenty-first century, the concepts of sequential and simultaneous bilingualism seem to work less well, as some children go to school earlier and participate in complex multilingual encounters, in reality and virtual reality, with ease and frequency from an early age. The "milestones" of bilingual development and their timing are the same as those for monolingual children. There is no evidence that the fact that children growing up with two languages have to process more variation in the input has an effect on the rate of acquisition: on the whole, bilingual and monolingual children reach the milestones of development within similar age ranges. There is no evidence that bilingual children differ from monolingual children except for the fact that they produce mixed utterances in addition to monolingual ones; that is, they translanguage from an early age and young bilingual children know usually by the second year of life how to make the choice of whether to use one language or the other, or a mix of the two.

Lesson-31
BILINGUAL ABILITIES AND BILINGUAL DEVELOPMENT
Topic No. 166-169

Adults' Bilingual Development: Many adolescents who immigrate become bilingual through participation with their peers and through schooling. Adults also can develop bilingual fluency and biliteracy fluency, and reach high levels of competence when they study a second language in a well-designed educational program (Rivera and Huerta-Macías, 2008). The European Commission introduced Erasmus, an exchange program that encourages university students from different European countries to study for part of their degree in a different language in another country. This has now been extended to

other parts of the globe under the name Erasmus-World. Tribal Colleges that are fully accredited and operated by American Indian tribes in the United States offer Native American language and culture courses.

Child vs. Adult Bilingualism: Many have proposed that there are advantages to the early introduction of a second language in school (Cenoz and Genesee, 1998: 28). This is based on the widespread belief that earlier is better for bilingualism yet, there seem to be no age-related differences in the process of language learning. Starting to acquire a second language in childhood is not in itself a sufficient condition for the development of full bilingualism. Genesee (2004: 555) summarizes the arguments saying: "Notwithstanding some compelling arguments" (e.g., Long, 1990; Scovel, 1988), empirical evidence in favor of a critical period for L2 acquisition has been equivocal, with some studies claiming evidence for the critical period and others evidence against it.

Lesson-32

ADULT VS. CHILD BILINGUALISM

Topic No. 170-174

Language shift or maintenance: Fishman (1968) argues that "The study of language maintenance and language shift is concerned with the relationship between change (or stability) in language usage patterns on the one hand, and ongoing psychological, social or cultural processes, on the other hand, in populations that utilize more than one speech variety for intra-group or for inter-group purposes." Language shift or maintenance does not happen in a vacuum, it occurs only when certain societal conditions are present:

1. Co-existence of more than one language – bilingualism;
2. Differences in power, value, and status conferred on each of the two languages that lead the group to maintain or abandon the home language;
3. Pressure in political, economic, or social forms from one of the two language groups.

The process of language shift among immigrant populations tends to take place over three generations in countries such as the United States or Australia. In situations of language shift, forms and uses are reduced (De Bot and Clyne, 1994) and eventually this leads to groups shifting their use of one language to another. In cases of minoritized languages, this may lead to language death.

Language and Identity: Nationalist ideologies throughout the world continue to link language to identity uni-directionally. Language, as constructed, is not only a simple identity marker, but is capable of generating imagined communities and of constructing particular loyalties (Anderson, 1983: 133). Language, then, has much more than a semiotic and symbolic function; it also has a rhetorical function, used to discursively construct identity and solidarity. There is a reciprocal role between language and identity; that is, language use influences the identity formation of the group, while at the same time, the identity of the group influences the patterns of attitudes and language uses. Individual and social identity are mediated by language with speakers creating speech acts as acts of projection in which "the individual creates for himself the patterns of his linguistic behaviour so as to resemble those of the group or groups with which from time to time he wishes to be identified, or so as to be unlike those from whom he wishes to be distinguished.

Language Ideologies: Language ideologies represent the cultural system of ideas about social and linguistic relationships, in addition to political and moral interests. Attitudes, values, and beliefs about language are always ideological, and are enmeshed in social systems of domination and subordination of groups, relating to ethnicity, class, and gender. One of the most popular ideologies is precisely that there is, or that there has to be, a link between language and identity, but it is important to recognize that this is a result of the homogenizing work of school in imposing a national standard. Blommaert (1999: 10) says that linguistic ideologies are produced and reproduced through what people say and do not say, and do and do not do, through language itself. The study of language ideologies focuses, then, on the sociohistorical, sociopolitical, and socioeconomic conditions that affect the production of social meanings in relationship to language and to discourses.

Lesson-33

BILINGUALISM: LANGUAGE MAINTENANCE AND SHIFT

Topic No. 175-180

Three components of language policy (Spolsky, 2004):

1. **Language management** – also known as language planning, language intervention, language engineering, or language treatment, and referring to direct efforts to manipulate the language situation
2. **Language practices** – the habitual pattern of selecting among varieties that make up its linguistic repertoire; related to what Hymes (1967) calls ethnography of speaking
3. **Language beliefs or ideology** – the beliefs about language and language use

The interactive way in which language is planned (or unplanned) and dictated from the top down, and the ways in which it is interpreted, negotiated (or planned) from the bottom up makes it impossible to differentiate between one level and the other and language beliefs and ideology interact with the two levels. \ Three dimensions of the language policy (LP) enterprise:

Focused on the linguistic dimension, the three dimensions of the language policy (LP) enterprise are:

1. **Corpus planning**: Changing the form of the language itself through standardization (standardizing language forms), graphization (developing a writing system), modernization (coining new words and terms)
2. **Status planning**: Modifying the status and prestige of the language
3. **Acquisition planning**: Developing new users of the language.Acquisition planning is especially relevant to those of us interested in bilingual education because school is the most important agent in acquisition planning

Seven goals of language policy by Ager (2001):

1. Identity, as when states impose certain languages as a link to specific identities. For example, France has maintained that it is a perfect hexagon and that only French is tied to French identity, thus silencing, until very recently, the other languages of France – Basque, Breton, Catalan, Corsican, Flemish, German, and Occitan.
2. Ideology, as when states or groups impose different languages or standards as a result of an ideology. An example is the United States' recent federal law, No Child Left Behind, mandating students' annual progress reports that are based on written Standard English assessments (Menken, 2005, 2008).
3. Image creation, as when states try to ensure that a favorable view is taken of their history and language by projecting its language. It is well known, for example, that the British Council and the U.S. government have supported the greater use of English in international communication (Phillipson, 1992).
4. Insecurity, as when states or groups are wary of others and their languages.
5. Inequality, as when states or groups act on language in order to correct inequalities in society. This is the case, for example, of non-sexist language that came to be used especially during the 1970s and 1980s
6. Integration with a group. This was the case when, for example, in Wales, fol- lowing the Education Act of 1870, Welsh children were not only required to learn English in school, but prohibited from speaking Welsh.
7. Instrumental motives, as when groups or individuals acquire a second language because it will give them advantages, usually economic ones, in the market or in careers. This is the case especially of English throughout the world.

Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) outline 7 different kinds of LP activities that schools must carry out:

1. Determining which languages are to be taught within the curriculum
2. Defining the teacher-supply and identifying who would teach language

3. Determining what segment of the population will be exposed to language education
4. Determining the model and methodology that will be employed, the materials to be used, how and by whom the material will be prepared, and how it will be disseminated
5. Defining the assessment processes used for initial placement, in-course testing,and output summative testing
6. Defining the assessment processes for teacher performance and system performance
7. Determining how to support the activity fiscally and physically

Language as Right: Critical theory was adopted to study the role of language in asymmetrical power relations between speakers. As such, language rights became an important field of study (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000), with an individual's right to use and learn his or her home language becoming recognized as a basic human right.

Skutnabb-Kangas and Phillipson (1994) have identified two broad categories of Linguistic Human Rights:

1. **Individual rights**: The right of every person "to identify positively with their mother tongue, and to have that identification respected by others" (1994: 2). This includes an individual's right to learn and use their home language, including in education, as well as to learn one of the official languages in one's country of residence.
2. **Community rights**: "The right of minority groups to exist" (1994: 2). This includes the right to establish and maintain schools and other educational institutions, with control of curricula.

Kinds of LHRs: Skutnabb-Kangas (2000, 2006)

1. Expressive, or non-instrumental rights which ensure people's capacity to enjoy a secure linguistic environment in their home language and a group's fair chance of cultural self-reproduction.
2. Instrumental rights which ensure that language not be an obstacle to meaningful participation in the democratic process and public institutions, and to social and economic opportunities.
1. Positive and Negative linguistic human rights

Skutnabb-Kangas (2006) also proposes human rights can be negative or positive.

- Negative linguistic human rights refer to the right not to be discriminated against on the basis of language.
- Positive linguistic human rights refer to the maintenance and development of identity through the freedom to practice unique aspects of minority life.

LANGUAGE POLICY AND LANGUAGE RIGHTS

Topic No. 181-184

Bilingual Allocation: Bilingual allocation refers to the time allotments given to one language or the other in bilingual education. Every school has to decide how many class periods will be dedicated to instruction through one language or the other. The most equitable distribution of languages (although not necessarily the most adequate) is, of course, a 50:50 allocation, where half the subjects are taught in one language, and half in the other. The most extreme, but perhaps one of the most popular ones is a 90:10 distribution, with one language used 90 percent of the time, and the additional language used only 10 percent of the time. Bilingual allocation, especially in multiple multilingual educational programs, is often even more complex, with languages being weaved in and out. For example, a bilingual education program in India might start out with a 90:10 allocation, with 90 percent of the time devoted to a tribal language, and 10 percent of the time to the regional language in the earliest primary grade but soon afterwards, the tribal language might be phased out, and English introduced. Although the regional language might be prevalent at first, English might eventually be used 90 to 100 percent of the time, especially in tertiary education.

Lesson-35

BILINGUALISM IN THE CURRICULUM

Topic No. 185-188

Strict Separation: Bilingual education programs following additive bilingual frameworks usually follow this structure. This is usually what happens, for example, in prestigious bilingual education, immersion bilingual education, and maintenance bilingual education programs. Decisions as to how the languages are to be separated follow one of four strategies: time-determined separation; teacher-determined separation; place-determined separation; subject-determined separation.

1. Time-determined In this case, the school makes a decision as to when one language or the other is used. There are different alternatives as to how the languages are divided:
    - ❖ half- or part-day
    - ❖ alternate-day
    - ❖ alternate-week
2. **Teacher-determined:** Here one teacher speaks only one language, and the second teacher solely speaks the other language. There are different manifestations of teacher-determined languagestructuring:

a. **Two Teachers, Two Classrooms**: This is the strictest of this teacher-determined separation. It combines teacher-determined with time determined separation. Here one teacher teaches in one language at some time of day, while at the same time another teacher teaches in the other language. At an alternate time, the two teachers switch children.
b. **Two Teachers, One Classroom**: Another arrangement is to have two teachers within one classroom who speak only one language to the students but are able to facilitate their learning in the other language because they themselves are bilingual. This is the usual arrangement when there are enough resources, especially in early childhood.

3. **Place-determined:** This refers to situations where one particular classroom is used for instruction in one language, and a different classroom for instruction in the other. This is the structure used in many European classrooms and also in many Canadian immersion bilingual education programs. In each room, only one language is displayed and used by the teacher and the children. Most secondary schools also use this arrangement. In some classrooms, the left side is for one language, the right for the other. In others, different colors are used for the two languages. For example, in the United States it is quite common, as we have said, for teachers to write in blue for English and red for Spanish. of multilingualism in general.
4. **Subject-determined:** This occurs when different subjects are taught through one or another language. Bilingual secondary schools most often use this arrangement – with some teachers teaching an academic subject in one language, and others teaching other subjects in the other language. Although some bilingual education programs teach all subjects in the two languages to all students, this may not be necessary.

Lesson-36
BILINGUAL ARRANGEMENTS
Topic No. 189-193

Flexible Convergent: Flexible language use that drives towards convergence, that is, whose goal is to encourage language shift, is used in subtractive bilingual frameworks, and generally follows two patterns:

- Random code-switching
- Monoliterate bilingualism

Random Code-switching: It is well recognized that bilingual communities code-switch as a way to achieve their full range of expression. That is, just as monolingual communities style-switch from more formal to more informal registers, bilingual communities code-switch because they have at their disposal more than one code.

Monoliterate Bilingualism: This bilingual arrangement requires that literacy be reserved only for the dominant language. The local vernacular is never read or written; it is merely used to support understandings and instruction. An example of this monoliterate bilingual arrangement is the one used in Mali. Since 1994, Malian teachers have used what they call pédagogieconvergente (convergent pedagogy) in which there is convergence, or simultaneous use of both the children's mother tongues and French. During the first stages and until fifth grade, when French becomes the medium of instruction, the thirteen national languages, Bambara and Fulfulde being the most prevalent, are used to encourage dialogue and storytelling, with French only used in written expression (Traore, 2001).

Lesson-37
BILINGUAL ARRANGEMENTS: FLEXIBLE CONVERGENT
Topic No. 194-197

Five flexible multiple bilingual arrangements can develop the multiplicity of multilingual practices that are important today:

- Responsible code-switching both ways
- Preview/view/review
- Translanguaging
- Co-languaging
- Cross-linguistic work and
- awareness

Lesson-38
FLEXIBLE MULTIPLICITY
Topic No. 198-203

Responsible Code-Switching: Responsible code switching means to carefully control the quantity and quality of switching between languages in the classroom so as to serve the objective of the lesson.Van der Walt, Mabule, and De Beer (2001) caution, however, that teachers must monitor both the quantity and the quality of their codeswitching. In terms of quantity, the main part of classroom instruction needs to take place in the language being developed. As to quality, teachers should code-switch to offer meaningful

instructional support and not merely to give orders, instructions, call attention, discipline, or follow the language input of the child. That is, code-switching cannot be simply random.

In an autonomous region of Italy, bilingual education for all was introduced at kindergarten in 1983, at primary school in 1988, and in the middle school (ages 10 to 13) in 1994, backed up by extensive research from Italian, French, and Swiss specialists. Teachers and learners alternate between languages in order to eliminate linguistic obstacles. By exploiting both languages intelligently and in a relaxed fashion for pedagogic reasons, teachers use code-switching effectively. The goal is not to teach code-switching, but to capitalize on its natural occurrence in order to transmit knowledge and skills.

Lesson-39

RESPONSIBLE CODE-SWITCHING: TWO WAYS

Topic No. 204-209

Translanguaging_Flexibility and Advantages: Cen Williams sees four advantages to translanguaging which are deeper understanding of the subject matter, development of competence in the weaker language, home–school co-operation, and integration of fluent speakers with early-level learners (as discussed by Baker, 2001). Baker (2001) clarifies that translanguaging is not about code-switching, but rather about an arrangement that normalizes bilingualism without functional separation. What makes translanguaging different is that the assignment of one language to be input or output is systematically varied so that students get an opportunity to use both languages receptively (understanding and reading) and productively (reading and writing). Baker adds that this kind of deliberate and systematic concurrent use of two languages is especially useful at the secondary and tertiary level. In most bilingual curriculum, translanguaging is even more flexible than what Cen Williams describes.

Example: In an advanced biology class given to secondary school, the students use that text alongside one written in Spanish that offers complementary material on the same topic. The instructional dialogue between teacher and students takes place mostly in Spanish but because students have to write the Advanced Placement examination in English, students write in both languages. Spanish is used most of the time in writing but English essays, based on those first drafted in Spanish, are carefully prepared.

Example:In a fifth-grade dual-language classroom in the United States, the children learn social studies in Spanish and although the New York State test is offered in both English and Spanish, all, except for one of the students in this class, choose to answer the exam in English.

Lesson-40

OTHER BILINGUAL STRATEGIES

Topic No. 210-213

Co-languaging: Co-languaging means using both languages simultaneously. Use of technology also affects the ways in which curriculum is structured and instruction is delivered. For example, in Africa, a university's efforts to integrate students and include non-Afrikaans-speaking students rest on delivering the curriculum in a bilingual mode in the power point, with Afrikaans and English co-present. Having both languages present on the screen, each in a different color, enables the inclusion of all students while reserving room for Afrikaans, the language traditionally used in the university.

Cross-Linguistic: Work and Awareness Many bilingual education programs blend language-separation arrangements with flexible convergence types. Although some subjects are taught through one or the other language, a part of the curriculum is reserved for bringing the two or more languages together for contrastive analysis. Here, vocabulary, structures, and discourse patterns are contrasted. At other times, there is an instructional space for bilingual children to do cross-linguistic work which allows them to translanguage, using both languages flexibly, in much the same way as experienced bilingual authors, and bilingual communities, often do. For example, much attention is paid to how bilingual literary authors use cross-linguistic strategies for different effects, as the students' abilities to reproduce these in writing are expanded. Other times, actual languaging of bilingual communities is critically examined, as children reflect on this cross-linguistic use and its purpose and effect.

Lesson-42

BILINGUAL PRACTICES: TRANSLANGUAGING

Topic No. 221-225

Convergent Teaching: What characterizes convergent bilingual teaching is the use of the two languages concurrently in ways that subordinate one language to the other following a flexible convergent arrangement. The teacher's intent is always to develop a language of power or to make content in the

majority language understood. Thus, when the minority language is used, its only purpose is to support instruction in the majority language.

Immersion: The belief here is that the two languages are best developed in isolation. What characterizes this model of bilingual teaching is the explicit carving out of a space for both languages so that each would function with the privilege of a majority language. Thus, all schools using this bilingual teaching have a clear and explicit language policy of teaching monolingually for bilingualism. This immersion bilingual teaching is often used when the minority language has to be protected because of the encroachment of the majority language, or in cases where one of the languages is being revitalized.

Multiple Bilingual Teaching: Schools that adopt multiple bilingual teaching have a clear language policy that includes not only the development of bilingual proficiency, but also the translanguaging practices and plurilingual values of multilingual awareness and linguistic tolerance. Thus, the two or more languages are always used in combination– neither concurrently nor separately, but in a blending of the two practices.

Lesson-43

MODELS OF BILINGUAL TEACHING

Topic No. 226-230

Grammatical Approach: The grammatical approach emphasizes the rules and structure of the language that is being acquired. Students are explicitly taught language rules and sentence structures and are engaged in much practice. In general, the grammatical approach relies on three distinct methodologies the grammar-translation method, the direct method, and the audio-lingual method.

Communicative Approach: Whereas the grammatical approach was based on behavior ,the communicative approach is derived from a constructivist theoretical frame work that suggests that language learning occurs as students draw meaning from experience and interpersonal interaction. The two most important language learning methods under the communicative approach are: immersion instruction and integrated content-based instruction(ICB).

Cognitive Approach: The cognitive approach emerged in the1980sas a view of learning based on the process of children's construction of meaning by using thinking and reasoning strategies. That is, learning is recognized to be as much cognitive as it is social and interactive. The emphas is on this approach is on the learner's metacognitive processes, that is, the active control over the cognitive processes that are used in learning (Flavell, 1979). The cognitive approach also emphasizes the students' interactions with text and discourse structures present in the classroom. It distinguishes between three types of knowledge:

declarative knowledge, what we know; procedural knowledge, what we know how to do; and conditional knowledge, the knowledge of when, why, or where to use information and skills.

Lesson-44

BILINGUAL EDUCATION-APPROACH AND METHODS

Topic No. 231-235

Social Justice	Social Practice
1.Equity 2.Language of child/ language tolerance 3.Expectations and rigor 4.Assessment	1.Interactions and involvement 2.Language 3.Collaboration and group work 4.Relevance

Cummins (1986) has named the pedagogy that derives from the inter section of these two principles reciprocal interactional-oriented pedagogy and on a more recent occasion (2000), transformative pedagogy. Good pedagogy that ignores the social justice principle is in effective for bilingual instruction and good pedagogy that falls only under the social justice principle without potentializing learning as social practice is also ineffective for students who are developing bilingualism.