

# **BILINGUALISM**

**(ENG512)**

**Notes based on  
Short Question  
Lesson 1 to 22**

### **What is bilingualism?**

Bilingualism refers to the state of a linguistic community in which **two** languages are in contact with the result that two codes can be used in the same interaction and that a number of individuals are bilingual (societal bilingualism).

Titone (1972) says bilingualism is the individual's capacity to speak a second language while following the concepts and structures of that language rather than paraphrasing his or her mother tongue.

### **What is Bilinguality?**

Bilinguality is the psychological state of an individual who has access to more than one linguistic code as a means of social communication. The degree of access will vary along with a number of dimensions which are psychological, cognitive, psycholinguistic, social psychological, social, sociological, sociolinguistic, sociocultural and linguistic.

### **What are the contradictions within definitions of bilingualism?**

Definitions of bilingualism range from a native-like competence in two languages to a minimal proficiency in a second language and raise a number of theoretical and methodological difficulties.

Titone (1972) says bilingualism is the individual's capacity to speak a second language while following the concepts and structures of that language rather than paraphrasing his or her mother tongue.

Between these two extremes one encounters a whole array of definitions as, for example, the one proposed by

They lack precision to be operationalized, while they also do not specify what is meant by native-like competence, which varies considerably within a monolingual population. These definitions also refer to a single dimension of bilinguality, namely the level of proficiency in both languages, thus ignoring non-linguistic dimensions. Language, in the first place a tool which is developed and used to serve a

### **What are the functions of language?**

There are number of functions but main function of language are social and psychological, both social and psychological, can be classified in two main categories: communicative functions and cognitive functions. Functions of language are universal but the linguistic forms vary across languages and cultures.

### **Define the levels of language processing.**

There are at least two levels of language processing:

**Functional level**, where all the meanings and intentions to be expressed are represented; and

**Formal level**, at which all the surface **forms** used in the language are represented.

### **Write a note on language Behavior and society relationships.**

Although the study of language can be conducted at several levels of analysis, the nature of language behavior like that of other complex human behaviors remains the same regardless of the level of analysis across the following:

- (1) There is a constant interaction between the dynamics of language behavior at the societal level and language behavior at the individual level.
- (2) There is a constant and complex mapping process between the form of language behavior and the function it is meant to fulfil.
- (3) Language behavior is the product of culture and as such it follows the rules of acculturated behavior.
- (4) Self-regulation is a characteristic of all higher-order behaviors and therefore of language behavior. By this we mean that a behavior is not a mere response to stimuli but that it takes into account past experiences; furthermore, it does not follow a pattern of trial and error but is an evaluative response calling upon the individual's cognitive and emotional functioning adapted to a given situation.
- (5) Finally, one concept central to this dynamic interaction between the societal level and the individual level is valorization. By valorization we mean the attribution of certain positive values to language as a functional tool, which will facilitate the fulfilment of communicative and cognitive functioning at all societal and individual levels.

In addition, when two languages are in contact there can be a state of equilibrium between the two languages in which case the use of both languages is constant and predictable. This equilibrium is not unlike the one existing in ecological systems. Any change of the relation between the two languages, due to a change in form–function mapping or to a change in valorization at any level, will provoke a change in language behavior of individuals.

### **How language behavior was changed by literacy?**

Introducing an individual to the language used in literacy, mainly through the means of learning to read and write, will induce changes in his or her language behavior. For example, processing a written text calls to a greater extent on the use of de contextualized language. When few people were literate, the behavior of individuals was changed with little effect on the social structures. As more and more people become literate, linguistic forms are mapped on to new cognitive functions; when a critical mass is reached, a need for new social institutions such as schools (form) are created. In turn, these institutions serve the function of literacy; as the need to fulfill this function continues to grow, new norms, which evolve into a recognized fundamental right for education (form), are created. This, in turn, shapes individual behavior: when schooling becomes compulsory, all individuals in a given society are expected to master reading and writing, thus shaping their own individual behavior.

### **Describe relation between linguistic form and function.**

The two-level mapping between function and linguistic form is based on the assumption that linguistic forms are developed to express meanings and communicative intentions. As language develops, form–function mapping is not necessarily a one-to-one correlation: a single form can be

mapped on to different functions ,e.g. *it's cold in here* might have a referential function, meaning *the temperature is low* ,or an instrumental-regulatory function meaning *turn on the radiator*. Conversely a single function may be served by several linguistic forms: an order can be expressed by an imperative, an interrogative, etc.

### **How a Language Change?**

Language is never static but changes over time. Pidginisation is an example in this regard which is developed for the purpose of minimal communication between individuals/ groups, speaking mutually unintelligible vernaculars. In the pidginisation process, limited and simplified linguistic forms are developed. As the need for communication or function increases in the society, new forms are created by the speakers. Gradually these new forms serve extended functions until pidgin evolves into a creole (form) as it becomes the mother tongue of the next generation, and thereby serves new functions.

### **What are the reasons for language change?**

The forms of language undergo constant changes due to social changes, political changes, migrations, religious impacts, role of governance, emergence of new technologies and contact with other languages. New forms apply to old functions, as when a new expression is used by teenagers; in the same way old forms apply to new functions, as for example; the English words *ave* in sing a computer; or new forms can be developed for new functions (e.g. new terminology).

### **What is language Valorization?**

Language valorization is a process in which one language is preferred in multilingual context than any other language of that society. Certain functions of language are valorized more than others, e.g. the cognitive function in school. If different varieties of language, e.g. accents, are present in the society, one variety may be valued to the detriment of others. A similar situation happens in the case of multilingual societies. One or more languages will be highly valued, while others will be devalorized.

### **How we analyze language behavior?**

To sum up language behavior, we will focus on different societal and individual levels: societal (institutions, groups and social classes), social networks and interpersonal relations, individual (developmental, socio-affective, cognitive and neuropsychological processes as well as language behavior). At each of these levels, language behavior is dynamic: there are constant interactions amongst the determining factors within and between the different levels.

### **What are the development aspects of Language Behavior According to Pinker(1996)?**

Modeling of language behavior has been developed more at individual level than at societal level. Generally these models are rooted in a larger framework of psychological theorizing. According to Pinker(1996), a comprehensive theory of language acquisition must consider the following aspects:

- The state of the child at the onset of acquisition;
- The linguistic input and its context;
- The mental algorithms that turn this input into knowledge about the language;
- The end state of the process, i.e. a grammatically competent speaker,
- The evolution of the process, i.e. what children understand and produce during the acquisition process.

Linguistic and psychological approaches to language acquisition differ in the emphasis they put on to and the relative importance they attribute to each of these aspects.

### **How a child develops a language according to Bruner?**

According to Bruner(1975a), before developing language the child learns some communicative functions through cooperative actions, which are arrived at through joint attention with the adults who are interacting with the child. The child is initially equipped with a set of predispositions to construe the social world and to act upon our construal(Bruner,1990). Through interactions with others he will develop a pre-linguistic readiness for meaning, i.e. context sensitivity and a sense of functions before linguistic forms are accessed.

### **Write a note on monolingual situation.**

Even in monolingual situation, in addition to its communicative and cognitive functions, language has a social function. By this we mean that any utterance carries a social meaning in that, it reflects the position of its speaker in the power relations in the society which confers a particular social value to this utterance. It can be said that the whole social structure is present in every language interaction and that every interaction is mapped onto the social structure.

Languages and varieties of language (accents, dialects, sociolects, and codes) have a recognized value on the linguistic market (Bourdieu, 1982) and can be placed on a hierarchical scale. Variations in discourse (i.e. in language behavior) are a result of the interplay between the objective dynamic forces of the market and the way in which the individual perceives, evaluates and responds to these forces.

Different language varieties and their values are learned in particular markets. The structures of social networks influence the individual's language behaviour and group solidarity can lead to the maintenance of local, non-standard norms, and resistance to linguistic change; whereas a loose and simplex network can lead to change in language (Milroy, 1980).

### **Define Bilingual Situation in detail.**

When two or more languages are in contact, their relative functional use and relative valorization is very important. A state of functional equilibrium may also exist. In the case of diglossia, different use of each language is determined at the societal level. In that case we have a predictable form—function mapping. However, if the equilibrium is disrupted at one level, it will disrupt the equilibrium at all other levels. A change in the relative use of the two languages in the social networks, e.g. when the individual has a new network because of a job change, will inevitably provoke a change in the language behaviour of the individual. A change in the use of two languages

at the societal level, for example, introducing a compulsory language of schooling, will bring about a change in the use of language in the social network, hence in the interpersonal interactions and the language behaviour of the individual. When enough individuals start changing their language behaviour (e.g. using French instead of English), this will in turn modify language use.

### **What is language shift?**

Language shift is defined as the change from the use of one language to the use of another language across generations; language attrition is a shift occurring within one individual. In both cases, it refers to the loss of functions, forms and language skills. The shift is complete when parents of one generation cease to transmit their language to their children and when the latter are no longer motivated to acquire an active competence in that language.

### **What is language attrition?**

Language attrition is a shift of language occurring within one individual.

### **On What principles language behaviour is based?**

**Language behaviour is based on the following five principles:**

- (1) There is a constant interaction between the societal and the individual dynamics of language.
- (2) There are complex mapping processes between the form of language behaviour and the functions it serves.
- (3) There is a reciprocal interaction between culture and language.
- (4) Self-regulation characterizes all higher-order behaviours, and therefore language.
- (5) Valorization is central to these dynamic interactions.

### **What is relative competence?**

Competence in one language relation to other language is called relative competence either in Balanced bilinguality or Dominant bilinguality

### **What is Balanced bilinguality?**

Balanced bilinguality is the equal proficiency in both languages

### **What is Dominant bilinguality?**

A state in which an individual has higher proficiency in one language than other.

### **Write down the Age of acquisition of language behaviour.**

- childhood (before the age of 11);
- adolescence (11-17 yrs),
- adult (after 17 yrs)
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### **What is Endogenous bilinguality?**

Endogenous bilinguality is the presence of both languages in the community environment

### **What is Exogenous bilinguality?**

Exogenous bilinguality is the absence of the second language in the community. Some members of the community speak a second language that has no or few native speakers in the community

### **What is Additive bilinguality?**

In additive bilinguality both/all the languages are encouraged equally and equal status is given to the all languages in a society.

### **What is Subtractive bilingualism?**

In **Subtractive bilingualism**, one language is encouraged at the expense of the other, leading to cognitive disadvantage).

### **Cultural identity:**

#### **What is Bicultural bilinguality?**

Bicultural identity is the condition of being oneself regarding the combination of two cultures

#### **What is Mono cultural bilinguality? (Let it be confirmed at your own)**

Mono cultural identity is the condition of being oneself regarding the member of single culture.

#### **What is Acculturated bilinguality?**

Acculturation is the process of changing so that you become more like people from a different culture, or of making someone change in this way to follow both cultures. While being Acculturated bilinguality mean speaking both language with adopting cultures as well. PM Imran Khan is example of Acculturated bilinguality

#### **What is Deculturated bilinguality?**

ambiguous membership and anomic identity. ( Anomic is one who fail to identify himself being a member of culture.

#### **What is language contact?**

It is inevitable perhaps that an enormous amount of 'language contact' takes place when we speak of 'language contact'; we are therefore talking about people speaking different languages coming into contact.

#### **Describe Societal Bilingualism.**

Sociolinguists have shown how monolingual behaviour varies according to a number of parameters such as, e.g. role relation, relative status of speakers and languages, topics, domains, etc. which apply to language-contact situations and that the state of bilinguality interacts with these.

The bilingual community is either composed of two groups speaking two different languages as

their mother tongue along with a small number of bilinguals speaking both languages, or a small number of both groups speaking a third common language, used as a lingua franca; or, as in the case of an language, exogenous some members of the community speak a second language that has no or few native speakers in the community. Any of these languages may be an official language of the community. Every bilingual community is situated between the two poles of a continuum, ranging from a set made up of two unilingual groups each containing a small number of bilinguals to a single group with a more or less large number of members using a second language for specific purposes.

### **What is Territorial bilingualism?**

Territorial bilingualism is a situation in which each group finds itself mostly within its own politically defined territory with the two (or more) languages having official status in their own territory; the official status of the other national language(s) varies considerably from country to country. Examples of territorial bilingualism include Belgium, Canada and India.

### **Define the term Diglossic?**

A bilingual community can be described as diglossic, that is, two languages are spoken by a variable section of the population, but they are used in a complementary way in the community, one language or variety having a higher status than the other and being reserved for certain functions and domains.

### **Define Comparative Measurement of Bilinguality.**

The most frequently used technique for measuring the various dimensions of bilinguality consists in taking measures in each of the bilingual's two languages and comparing them. However, a direct comparison between measures in two languages is extremely difficult even when it is possible because we need a clear definition of what a native speaker's competence in that language is, which is very difficult to operationalize.

#### **Monolingual Competence**

At times monolingual competences of a bilingual speaker are compared with monolingual standards in each language. This comparative approach is the only valid one when bilinguality is measured on the 'additive— subtractive' dimension. Here a comparison is made between cognitive measures obtained for bilinguals and monolinguals.

### **What is the distinction between the compound and coordinate bilingual?**

The distinction between the compound and coordinate bilingual is one of semantic representations; it implies that for the coordinate bilingual, there is a greater semantic **independence** between his two linguistic codes, while for the compound there is greater semantic **interdependence** between the two codes. How can the degree of semantic independence and interdependence be measured? This is through language biographies, self-evaluation and judgments of bilingual production.

### **What are the measures of Bilingual Specificity?**

Translation and verbal flexibility are only measures in which the bilingual's behaviour is viewed

as the sum of two monolingual behaviours. A bilingual also develops patterns of behaviour that are unique to his state of bilinguality (Grosjean, 1985a). For example, when bilinguals communicate with each other they can make simultaneous use of the resources of each of their languages, for example by borrowing words from one language while using the other (loan words) or by developing mixed or switched codes which are governed by their own specific rules. There is an attempt to correlate the degree of balance of bilinguals with a high level of competence in rule-governed code-switching.

### **What are the measures of Cognitive Correlates of Bilinguality?**

A considerable amount of empirical evidence suggests that a correlation between the development of bilinguality and cognition exists. The results of these studies are apparently contradictory in so far as they show either a cognitive advantage or a cognitive disadvantage of bilingual development as compared to monolingual development because the concepts of cognitive advantage and disadvantage are defined by reference to monolinguals.

### **What are the measures of Affective Correlates of Bilinguality?**

There is always a cognitive and an affective aspect to development. The affective component of bilingual development has to do with the relationships between the bilingual individual and his two languages. Since language is a social phenomenon, all affective reactions towards it are not limited to the language but applies also to the individuals and groups who speak that language.

### **What is the measurement of Bilinguality in Cultural Minorities?**

The measures of bilinguality previously mentioned are not applicable to all situations of languages in contact; and in particular, there are difficulties when we try to use them in a cultural-minority situation. This is especially critical in the case of the education of cultural-minority children because they follow curricula in the language of the majority, which is usually their weaker language Cummins (1984a), psychometric tests of academic language proficiency are not appropriate for the assessment of minority children because these children have not reached the level of development required for these tests.

### **Define Language contact situation.**

Language contact situations arise when speakers of different languages are put in a position that they need to interact with each other. There are several reasons for language contact. These reasons can be individual and voluntary, structural and non-voluntary i.e. where there is little individual choice for language use. For example, in a migrant situation, where everyone has to use the dominant language of the host country, other key factors resulting in language are political factors (for example, new language laws or colonialism, globalization, war or invasion); resettlement of people; religious affiliation; oppression, culture and identity negotiation, economy, education and technology and immigration.

### **Who is a bilingual?**

The discussion revolves around how much proficiency in two languages is required by an individual to be labeled as a bilingual. A bilingual may be balanced where there is equal proficiency

in both languages but this is a rare phenomenon. More often than not individuals have unequal proficiency in different languages across different skills. Usually this individual proficiency is in harmony with different functions associated with different languages.

Any construct of bilingualism incorporates within it a concept of language. This is again problematic because language definitions are also contested. Language is simultaneously, a linguistic, cognitive and social phenomenon.

- The linguistic phenomenon is evident in its structure and its composition of form,
- Cognitive aspect is related to the mental processes involved in language knowledge,
- Social dimension is related to issues of power (for example, the difference between language and variety) in society.

### **What is the difference Language and Dialect?**

The differences between dialect and languages are made on the basis of size. Language is believed to be a larger repertoire of linguistic items and subsuming dialects. The difference between a dialect and language is also explained in terms of their mutual intelligibility i.e. where two languages may not be mutually understood by speakers, the dialect of a language might be mutually understood. Lastly, a language holds more prestige than a dialect. However, these distinctions are not inherent qualities of a language or a dialect.

Several dialects are not mutually intelligible while some languages are mutually intelligible but still considered languages. The example, Urdu and Hindi can be cited here. Hence, the difference between the dialect and language is related to the power and status of its speakers.

### **How dialect becomes a language?**

Dialects may undergo a deliberate process of standardization that expands its vocabulary and its functions to give it a status of language. Language formation is a result of a deliberate decision-making.

### **Write down the Positive and negative aspect of multilingual society?**

Multilingual countries are often thought to have certain problems which monolingual states do not. On the practical level, difficulties in communication are one. It should be pointed out that there is no scientific evidence to show that multilingual countries are particularly disadvantaged, in socio economic terms, compared to monolingual ones. Although, it might be true that linguistic uniformity and economic development reinforce each other; in other words, economic wellbeing promotes the reduction of linguistic diversity.

Multilingualism is an important resource at both the societal and personal levels. For a linguistically diverse country to maintain the ethnic-group languages alongside the national or official language(s) can prove to be an effective way to motivate individuals while unifying the nation. Additionally, a multiethnic society is arguably a richer, more exciting and stimulating place to live in than a community with only one dominant ethnic group. For the multilingual speaker, the availability of various languages in the community repertoire serves as a useful interactional resource.

Typically, multilingual societies tend to assign different roles to different languages; one language may be used in informal contexts with family and friends, while another for the more formal situations of work, education and government. The favoured languages tend to be those that are both international and particularly valuable in multilingualism, as a national and personal resource requires careful planning.

### **How Language Planning is difficult in multilingual context?**

Multilingualism is a problem for government. The process of governing requires communication both within the governing institutions and between the government and the people. This means that a language, or languages, must be selected as the language for use in governing. However, the selection of the 'official language' is not always easy, as it is not simply a pragmatic issue. For example, old colonial language as official language though pragmatic will not, however, is a good choice on nationalist grounds. In many other multilingual countries which do not have a colonial past, such as China, deciding which language should be selected as the national language can sometimes lead to internal and ethnic conflicts.

### **How it is problematic for selecting a language for education in a multilingual country?**

Similarly, selecting a language for education in a multilingual country is often problematic. In some respects, the best strategy for language in education is to use various ethnic languages. After all, these are the languages the children already speak, and school instruction can begin immediately without waiting until the children learn the official language. Some would argue, however, that access to standard language is more important.

### **How a language is planned?**

Language planning is not simply a matter of standardizing or modernizing a corpus of linguistic materials, nor is it a reassignment of functions and status. It is also about power and influence. The dominance of some languages and the dominated status of other languages are partly understandable if we examine who are in positions of power and influence, who belong to elite groups that are in control of decision-making, and who are in subordinate groups, upon whom decisions are implemented. It is more often than not the case that a given arrangement of languages benefits only those who have influence and privilege.

### **Mental Representation of Languages and acquisition**

A frequently asked question is whether a bilingual speaker's brain functions differently from that of a monolingual's brain. Quantitative analyses of the existing data often show that differences between them are the exceptions rather than the rule. Bilinguals do not seem to vary from monolinguals in neurological processes; the lateralization of language in the brains of the two groups of speakers is also similar.

A related issue concerns the mental representation of a bilingual's two languages and the processing emanating from such representation. Evidence exists for both separate storage and shared storage of the two languages in the bilingual's brain, resulting in the suggestion that bilinguals have a

language store for each of their two languages and a more general conceptual store. There are strong, direct interconnecting channels between each of these three separate stores. The interconnections between the two languages comprise association and translation systems, and common images in the conceptual store act as mediators.

Speakers of different proficiency levels or at different acquisitional stages vary in strength and directness of the interconnections between the separate stores in language processing; for instance, those who are highly proficient in two languages may go directly from a concept to the target language, while those whose second language is weaker than their first tend to use the first language to mediate.

Although the more general definitions of bilingualism would include people who understand a second language in either spoken or written form or both but do not necessarily speak or write it, a more common usage of the term refers to someone who can function in both languages in conversational interaction. Bilingual speakers choose to use their different languages depending on a variety of factors, including the type of person addressed and different situations and contexts.

### **Write a detailed note on Code Switching**

There is a widespread impression that bilingual speakers code-switch because they cannot express themselves adequately in one language. This may be true to some extent when a bilingual is momentarily lost for words in one of his or her languages. However, code-switching is an extremely common practice among bilinguals and takes many forms. It has been demonstrated that code-switching involves skilled manipulation of overlapping sections of two (or more) grammars. Some suggest that code-switching is itself a discrete mode of speaking, emanating from a single code-switching grammar.

One important aspect of the code-switching grammar is that the two languages involved do not play the same role in sentence making. Typically one language sets the grammatical framework, with the other providing certain items to fit into the framework. Code-switching; therefore, is not a simple combination of two sets of grammatical rules but grammatical integration of one language in another.

The possible existence of a code-switching grammar calls into question the traditional view of the bilingual as two monolinguals in one person. One consequence of the 'two-in-one' perspective is that bilingual speakers are often compared to monolinguals in terms of their language proficiency. For example, some researchers have suggested that bilingual children had smaller vocabularies and less developed grammars than their monolingual peers, while their ability to exploit the similarities and differences in two sets of grammatical rules to accomplish rule-governed code-switching was not considered relevant.

In some experimental psycholinguistic studies, tests are given without taking into account that bilingual speakers may have learnt their two languages under different conditions for different purposes, and they only use them in different situations. It is important to emphasize that bilingual speakers have a unique linguistic and psychological profile; their two languages are constantly in different states of activation; they are able to call upon their linguistic knowledge and resources according to the context and adapt their behaviour.

In addition to the social use of code-switching, some bilinguals regularly change their speech production from one language to another in their professional life. Interpreters and translators, for

example, switch between languages as a routine part of their job. Often we think of professional interpreters and translators as special people with highly developed language skills in each of their languages. In fact, even they are rarely perfectly balanced in two languages. They are trained to translate from the 'passive' to the 'active' language. They are also trained to think rapidly of appropriate wording of ideas and produce words from a restricted area of meaning.

Another group of bilinguals engage themselves in cross-modality language production. This is the case with speech-sign bilinguals who, in addition to the oral modality, use the manual-visual modality in everyday communication. They are special in one aspect, i.e. the two different modalities allow for production of the two languages. In other words, one can speak and sign at the same time.

### **What was the Negative Attitudes towards multilingualism in 20<sup>th</sup> century.**

From the early nineteenth century to about the 1960s, there was a widespread belief that bilingualism has a detrimental effect on a human being's intellectual and spiritual growth. The early research on bilingualism and cognition tended to confirm this negative viewpoint, finding that monolinguals were superior to bilinguals on intelligence tests. However, serious issues regarding these discredit the evidence.

### **Write a note on Semilingualism.**

A bilingual who could not acquire full competence in any of the languages were termed as 'semilinguals'. They were believed to have linguistic deficits in six areas of language (see Hansegard, 1975; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1981):

1. Size of vocabulary
2. Correctness of language
3. Unconscious processing of language
4. Language creation
5. Mastery of the functions of language
6. Meanings and imagery

It is significant that the term 'semilingualism' emerged in connection with the study of language skills of people belonging to ethnic minority groups. Research which provided evidence in support of the notion of 'semilingualism' was conducted in Scandinavia and North America and was concerned with accounting for the educational outcomes of submersion programs where minority children were taught through the medium of the majority language. However, these studies, like the ones conducted also had serious methodological flaws and the conclusions reached by the researchers were misguided.

- First language may be specific to a context; a person may be competent in some contexts but not in others.
- Second, bilingual children are still in the process of developing their languages. It is unfair to compare them to some idealized adults.
- Third, the comparison with monolinguals is also unfair.
- Fourth, if languages are relatively underdeveloped, the origins may not be in bilingualism per se, but in the economic, political and social conditions that evoke under-development.

## **Write a note on Language Rights.**

Since the 1960s, there has been a political movement, particularly in the US, advocating language rights. In the US, questions about language rights are widely discussed, not only in college classrooms and language communities but also in government and federal legislatures. The legal battles concerned not just minority language vs. majority language contests, but also children vs. schools, parents vs. school boards, state vs. the federal authorities, etc.

The kind of rights, apart from language rights, that minority groups may claim include: protection, membership of their ethnic group and separate existence, non-discrimination and equal treatment, education and information in their ethnic language, freedom to worship, freedom of belief, freedom of movement, employment, peaceful assembly and association, political representation and involvement, and administrative autonomy.

## **What are the Communicative Advantages of bilingualism?**

**1.Relationships with parents and extended family :**Where parents have differing first languages, the advantage of children becoming bilingual is that they will be able to communicate in each parent's preferred language. Being a bilingual allows someone to bridge the generations.

**2.Community relationships:** Bilingual has a chance to communicate with a wider variety of people than a monolingual.

**3.Transnational communication:** One barrier between nations and ethnic groups tends to be language and bilinguals can bridge that.

**4.Language sensitivity:** Being able to move between two languages may lead to more sensitivity in communication because bilinguals are constantly monitoring which language to use indifferent situations, they may be more tuned to the communicative needs of those with whom they talk.

## **What are the Cultural Advantages of bilingualism?**

Another advantage of being a bilingual is having two or more worlds of experience. Bilingualism provides the opportunity to experience two or more cultures. The monolingual may experience a variety of cultures; for example, from different neighbours and communities that are using the same language but have different ways of life. The monolinguals can travel to neighbouring countries and experience other cultures as a passive on looker. However, to penetrate different cultures requires the language of that culture. To participate and become involved in the core of a culture requires knowledge of the language of that culture.

## **What are the Economic Advantages of bilingualism?**

There are also potential economic advantages to being bilingual. A person with two languages may have a wider portfolio of jobs available. As economic trade barriers fall, as international relationships become closer, as unions and partnerships across nations become more widespread, an increasing number of jobs are likely to require be a person to be bilingual or multilingual.

## **What are the Cognitive Advantages of bilingualism?**

More recent research has shown that bilinguals may have some advantages in thinking, ranging from creative thinking to faster progress in early cognitive development and greater sensitivity in

communication. For example, bilinguals may have two or more words for each object and idea; sometimes corresponding words in different languages have different connotations.

### **What are the Disadvantages of bilingualism?**

Some problems, both social and individual, may be falsely attributed to bilingualism. For instance, when bilingual children exhibit language or personality problems, bilingualism is sometimes blamed. Problems of social unrest may unfairly be attributed to the presence of two or more languages in a community. However, there are possible disadvantages of bilingualism tend to be temporary. Some bilingual children may find it difficult to cope with the school curriculum in either language for a short period of time. However, these are challenges that bilingual people have to face. The individual, cognitive, social, cultural, intellectual and economic advantages, bilingualism brings to a person make all the efforts worthwhile.

A more complex problem associated with bilingualism is the **question of identity** of a bilingual. However, it has to be said that for many bilingual people, identity is not a problem. While speaking two languages, they are resolutely identified with one ethnic or cultural group. Some immigrants, for instance, desperately want to lose the identity of their native country and become assimilated and identified with the new home country, while some others want to develop a new identity and feel more comfortable with being culturally hyphenated.

### **What are the four essential characteristics of bilingualism?**

Four essential characteristics of bilingualism are degree; function (external & internal); alternation and interference.

### **Define the terms Degree, Alternation and Interference. (Characteristics of bilingualism)**

#### **1. Degree**

The first and most obvious thing to do in describing a person's bilingualism is to determine how bilingual he is for the bilingual may not have an equal mastery of all four basic skills in both languages. It is necessary to test each of these skills separately if we are to get a picture of the extent of his bilingualism. To get an accurate description of the degree of bilingualism, different types and models of language tests have now been developed.

Functions: The degree of proficiency in each language depends on its function, that is, on the uses to which the bilingual puts the language and the conditions under which he has used it. These may be external or internal.

#### **2. Alternation**

Bilingualism also relates to the degree to which the bilingual and his hearers have mastered both languages determine the amount of alternation which take place from one language to the other. This in turn depends on his fluency in each language and on its external and internal functions. Then we need to know under what conditions does alternation from one language to another take place? What are the factors involved? The three main factors seem to be topic, person, and tension. Rate and proportion of alternation may vary greatly in the same individual according to the topic about which he is speaking, the person he is speaking to, and the tension of the situation in which he speaks.

### **3. Interference**

The characteristics of degree, function, and alternation determine the interference of one language with another in the speech of bilinguals. Interference is the use of features belonging to one language while speaking or writing another. The description of interference must be distinguished from the analysis of language borrowing. The former is a feature of “parole”; the latter of “langue.” The one is individual and contingent; the other is collective and systematic. In contradistinction to the consistency in use of borrowed features in the speech of the community is the vacillation in the use of foreign features by its bilingual individuals. In the speech of bilingual; interference is not the same at all times and under all circumstances. The interference may vary with the medium, the style, the register, and the context which the bilingual happens to be using. Interference also varies with the style of discourse used, e.g. descriptive, narrative, conversational, etc. The type and amount of interference noted in the recounting of an anecdote may differ considerably from that noted in the give-and-take of everyday conversation. Interference may also vary according to the social role of the speaker in any given case. This is what the Edinburgh School has called register. Within each register, there are a number of possible contexts, each of which may affect the type and amount of interference depending on the context and the interlocutor. In each of these contexts, the interference may vary from situation to situation. In the last analysis, interference varies from text to text. It is the text; therefore, within a context or situation used at a specific register in a certain style and medium of a given dialect, that is the appropriate sample for the description of interference

#### **What are the External Functions of bilingualism.**

The external functions of bilingualism are determined by the number of areas of contact and by the variation of each in duration, frequency, and pressure. The areas of contact include all media through which the languages were acquired and used. The amount of influence of each of these on the language habits of the bilingual depends on the duration, frequency, and pressure of the contact. These may apply to two types of activities: either comprehension or expression as well.

##### **Contacts**

The bilingual’s language contacts may be with the languages used in the home, community, school, mass media and correspondence.

##### **Variation in Contacts**

Contacts with each of the above are as may vary in duration, frequency, and pressure. They may also vary in the use of each language for comprehension(C) only, or for both comprehension and expression(E).

**Duration:**The amount of influence of any area of contact on the bilingualism of the individual depends on the duration of the contact. A 40 years old bilingual who has spent all his life in a foreign neighborhood is likely to know the language better than one who has been there for only a few years.

**Frequency:** The duration of contact is not significant, however, unless we know its frequency. Frequency for the spoken language may be measured in average contact-hours per week or month; for the written language it may be measured in average number of words.

**Pressure:**In each of the areas of contact, there may be a number of pressures which influence the bilinguals in the use of one language rather than the other. These may be economic, administrative,

cultural, political, military, historical, religious, or demographic.

1. *Economic*: For speakers of a minority language in an ethnic community, the knowledge of the majority language may be an economic necessity.
2. *Administrative*: Administrative workers in some areas are required to master a second language.
3. *Cultural*: In some countries, it may be essential, for cultural reasons, for any educated person to be fluent in one or more foreign languages.
4. *Political*: The use of certain languages may be maintained by the pressure of political circumstances.
5. *Military*: A bilingual who enters the armed forces of his country may be placed in situations which require him to hear or speak his second language more often than he otherwise would.
6. *Historical*: The languages a bilingual learns and the extent to which he must learn them may have been determined by past historical events. If the language of a minority has been protected by treaty, it may mean that the minority can require its children to be educated in their own language.
7. *Religious*: A bilingual may become fluent in a language for purely religious reasons. A person entering a religious order may have to learn Latin, Greek, Coptic, Sanskrit, and Arabic.
8. *Demographic*: The number of persons with whom the bilingual has the likelihood of coming into contact.

### **What are the Internal Functions of bilingualism?**

Bilingualism is not only related to external factors; it is also connected with internal ones. These include non-communicative uses, like internal speech, and the expression of intrinsic aptitudes, which influence the bilingual's ability to resist or profit by the situations with which he comes in contact.

**Uses:** A person's bilingualism is reflected in the internal uses of each of his languages. Some bilinguals may use one and the same language for all sorts of inner expressions. This language has often been identified as the dominant language of the bilingual. Other uses include, diary writing, counting, praying etc.

**Aptitude:** In describing bilingualism, it is important to determine all those factors which are likely to influence the bilingual's aptitude in the use of his/her languages or which in turn may be influenced by it. These may be listed as follows:

1. **Sex:** If sex is a factor in language development, as past research into the issue seems to indicate, it is also a factor in bilingualism (see Peal and Lambert, 1962).

**Age:** Persons who become bilingual in childhood may have characteristics of proficiency and usage different from those who become bilingual as adults. It does, however, show a great deal of forgetting on the part of the child. Indeed, the child's reputed ability to remember is matched by his ability to forget. For him, to be a bilingual may simply mean a transition period from one native language to another.

3. **Intelligence:** Although it seems safe to include intelligence as a factor in bilingualism, we have as yet been unable to discover its relative importance. Experimental research into the problem

has mostly been limited to selected samples of persons of the same intellectual level.

**4.Memory:** If memory is a factor in imitation, it is also a factor in bilingualism; for the auditory memory span for sounds immediately after hearing the misrelated to the ability to learn languages.

**5.Attitude:** The attitude of a bilingual towards his languages and towards the people who speak them will influence his behavior with in different are as of contact in which each language is used. The attitude of the speaker may be regarded as an important factor in the description of his bilingualism.

**6.Motivation:** It seems obvious that the motivation for acquiring the first language is more compelling than the motivation for learning a second. For once the vital purposes of communication have been achieved, the reasons for repeating the effort in another language are less urgent. In the case of simultaneous childhood bilingualism, however, the need for learning both languages may be made equally compelling. This may not be so for the person who becomes bilingual as an adult.

### **How can language choice-patterns be described?**

The basic conceptual problem in this connection is to provide for the variety of patterns that exist in stable form within a group's multi-lingual settings throughout the world in such a way as to attain factual accuracy. Some of the controlling regulatory factors in language choice are as follows:

**(a) Group membership:** This factor must be viewed not only in a purportedly objective sense, i.e., in terms of physiological, sociological criteria (e.g., age, sex, race, religion, etc.), but also, and primarily, in the subjective socio-psychological sense of reference group membership.

The very existence of certain reference groups seems to depend largely on location, setting or other environmental factors rather than on group consciousness or group-experience as such. It also seems unnecessarily difficult to analyze language choice within large, complex, literate societies in terms of the enormous repertoire of shifting reference groups which these provide. Thus, while we may admit that the concept of reference group membership enables us to recognize some invariables of habitual language choice in stable multilingual settings it does so only at a considerable risk, while leaving many exceptional cases in the dark.

**(b)The regulatory factor of situation:** This term has been used to designate a large (and, at times, confusing) variety of considerations. Indeed, it has been used to designate various separate considerations as well as their co-occurrence. Each of these aspects of "situation" may shed light on certain regularities in language choice on particular social occasions. However, the possible co-occurrence of so many variables must also make it exceedingly difficult to use the concept "situation," for analytic purposes.

We can therefore, limit our use of this term to considerations of "style" alone, and attempt to cope with the other itemized features in other ways and in their own right. Situational styles pertain to considerations of intimacy-distance, formality-informality, solidarity—non-solidarity, status (or power) equality-inequality, etc. Thus, certain styles within every language (and, in multilingual

settings, certain languages in contrast to others) are considered by particular interlocutors to be indicators of greater intimacy, informality, equality, etc.

Not only do multilinguals frequently consider one of their languages more dialectal, more regional, more sub-standard, more vernacular-like, more argot-like than the others, but, in addition, they more frequently associate one of their languages with informality, equality, solidarity than the other. As a result, one is more likely to be reserved for certain situations than the other. Thus, neither reference group membership nor situational style, alone or in concert, fully explain(s) the variations that can be noted in habitual language choice in multilingual settings or the organization of any particular multilingual setting.

**(c) Topic:** Even when reference group and situation agree in requiring a particular language, it is not uncommon to find that topic succeeds in bringing another language to the fore. The implication of topical regulation of language choice is that certain topics are somehow handled better in one language than in another in particular multilingual contexts. Thus, some multilingual speakers may “acquire the habit” of speaking about topic x in language X partially because that is the language in which they were trained to deal with this topic.

Topics tell us little about either the process or the structure of social behaviour. However, they usually exhibit patterns which follow those of the major spheres of activity in the society under consideration. We may be able to discover the latter if we enquire why a significant number of people in a particular multilingual setting at a particular time have received certain kind of training in one language rather than in another. Thus, while topic is doubtlessly a crucial consideration in understanding language choice variance, we must seek a means of examining and relating individual, momentary choices to relatively stable patterns of choice that exist in their multilingual setting as a whole

## **Introduction; Institutional Contexts; Contexts-Micro Social Dynamics; Governmental Administration; Domain and Role Relations**

### **What are the nine domains of multilingual setting recommended by Schmidt-Rohr?**

The nine domains of multilingual setting recommended by Schmidt-Rohr are:

1. the family,
2. the playground and street,
3. the school (subdivided into language of instruction, subject of instruction, and language of recess and entertainment),
4. the church,
5. literature,
6. the press,
7. the military,
8. the courts, and
9. the governmental administration.

Subsequently, other investigators either added or found that fewer domains were sufficient in

particular multilingual settings.

### **Write down the main source of variance in language behavior.**

Variance in language behaviour in multilingual settings is likely to be exceedingly complex. For high lighting patterns of language choice in multilingual settings, it would seem appropriate to distinguish at least between the following sources of variance:

**1. Media variance: writing, reading and speaking:** Degree of mother tongue maintenance or displacement may be quite different in each of these very different media. Where literacy has been attained *prior* to interaction with an “other tongue” reading and writing use of the mother tongue may resist displacement longer than speaking usage.

**2. Role variance:** Degree of maintenance or shift may be quite different in conjunction with *inner speech* (the language of thought, of talking to one’s self,), *comprehension* (decoding, for self), and *production* (encoding, for others). There is some evidence that language shift is most resistant to inner speech.

**3. Situational variance:** Degree of maintenance or shift may be quite different in conjunction with *more formal*, *less formal* and *intimate* communication (Fishman,1965a). Language shift is resisted more in intimate situations.

**4. Domain variance:** Degree of maintenance or shift may be quite different in each of several distinguishable domains of language behaviour.

### **What are the two step process of verbal communication and how it is affected?**

Verbal communication may be seen as a two-step process.

Step 1: Speakers take in clues from the outside and translate them into appropriate behavioral strategies. This step parallels the perceptual process by which referential meanings are converted into sentences.

Step 2: These behavioural strategies are in turn translated into appropriate verbal symbols.

It has been shown that aside from purely linguistic and stylistic rules, the form of a verbal message in any speech event is directly affected by:

1. The participants, i.e. speakers, addressees, and audiences;
2. The ecological surroundings; and
3. The topic or range of topics (Hymes, 1964; Ervin-Tripp, 1964).

### **What is relation/difference between setting, situation and event..**

Setting is used to indicate the way in which natives classify their ecological environment into distinct locales. This enables us to relate the opportunities for action to constraints upon action provided by the socially significant features of the environment. The socio-ecological restrictions on personnel and activities still allow for a wide range of socially distinct happenings, for example school is used for class, all denoting a framework of specific status sets, i.e. systems of complementary distributions of rights and duties.

Alternative social definitions of the situation may occur within the same setting, depending on the opportunities and constraints on interaction offered by a shift in personnel and/or object of the interaction. Such definitions always manifest themselves in what we would prefer to call a social

event. Events center around one or at the most a limited range of topics and are distinguishable because of their sequential structure. They are marked by stereotyped and thus recognizable opening and closing routines.

The distinction between situation and event can be clarified if we consider the behaviour of Hemnes residents who are sometimes seen in the community office, first transacting their business in an officially correct manner, and then turning to one of the clerks and asking him to step aside for a private chat. The norms which apply to the two kinds of interaction differ; the break between the two is clearly marked. Therefore, they constitute two distinct social events, although the personnel and the locale remain the same. The terms setting, social situation, and social event as used here can be considered three successively more complex stages in the speaker's processing of contextual information. Each stage subsumes the previous one in such a way that the preceding one is part of the input affecting the selection rules of the next stage. Thus, a speaker cannot identify the social situation without having made some decision as to the nature of the setting.

### **Define Situational Switching.**

When within the same setting the participants' definition of the social event changes, this change may be signaled among others by linguistic clues. The notion of situational switching assumes a direct relationship between language and the social situation. The linguistic forms employed are critical features of the event in the sense that any violation of selection rules changes members' perception of the event. Situations also differ in the amount of freedom of choice allowed to speakers. Some like greetings, petitions, and similar routines described by Albert (1972) similarly seem strictly determined.

### **Write a note on Markedness model.**

This markedness model assumes that all linguistic code choices are indexical of a set of rights and obligations holding between participants in the conversational exchange. Markedness model means that all speakers have mental representations of a matching between code choices and rights and obligation sets. That is, they know that for a particular conventionalized exchange, a certain code choice will be the unmarked i.e. it will be a realization of an expected rights and obligations set between participants. They also know that other possible choices are more or less marked because they are indexical of other than the expected rights and obligations set. While the theory is universal, actual associations are speech community specific with speakers knowing what code choice is unmarked and which others are marked for exchanges conventionalized in the community. The rights and obligations balance for a speech event is derived from whatever situational features are salient to the exchange such as status of participants, topic, etc. The salient features will not be the same across all types of exchanges; they are, however, relatively constant across speech events under a single type of exchange. The model calls for a markedness continuum: speakers operate with degrees of markedness not categorical distinctions. They perceive one or more choices are more unmarked than others and among marked choices some are more marked than others. Further, the same choice is not necessarily unmarked for all participants in the same exchange.

### **Define Social network in context to bilingualism.**

A social network may be seen as a boundless web of ties which reaches out through a whole society, linking people to one another, however remotely but for practical reasons social networks are generally ‘anchored’ to individuals, and interest focuses on relatively ‘strong’ first-order network ties; i.e. those persons with whom ego directly and regularly interacts. This principle of ‘anchorage’ effectively limits the field of network studies, generally to something between 20 and 50 individuals.

Close-knit social networks seem to have a particular capacity to maintain and even enforce local conventions and norms, including linguistic norms. Even passive ties which entail an absence of regular contact, but are valued by ego as a source of influence and moral support (Examples are physically distant relatives or friends, such ties being particularly important to migrant families) offer sociolinguists to investigate relatively clearly definable communities. Thus, network analysis offers a basis for understanding the social mechanisms that underlie this process of language maintenance, the converse of language shift. Network analysis can also illuminate the social dynamics involved in this kind of inter-group difference.

### **Define the idea of triggering argued by Michael Clyne.**

Michael Clyne argues that the grammatical constraints and the grammatical models of code-switching cannot be substantiated universally. He further develops the idea of ‘triggering’, which he proposed in his earlier work namely, an item of ambiguous affiliation—i.e. one belonging to the speakers’ two systems triggers off a switch from one language to another. He points out that trigger words are not part of the switch, but indicative of the psycholinguistic process by which the bilingual speaker plans and produces his or her speech.

### **What are the types of code Mixing**

By far the most frequent type of mixing to be reported involves whole lexical items, both content and function words. Some investigators have found that content words, and especially nouns, are the most frequently mixed lexical items. Others have reported specifically that adverbs, articles, pronouns, prepositions and conjunctions occurred in mixed utterances in descending order of frequency. Mixing at the level of the phrase has also been found. It is also reported when phrasal mixing occurred, the structural consistency of the utterances was maintained so that there were no lexical redundancies or syntactic errors. To the extent that this is generally true, it would argue against an interpretation of mixing in terms of linguistic confusion.

There have been reported examples of syntactic mixing, semantic mixing and pragmatic mixing also. Nevertheless, it is possible that bilingual children mix because they have heard mixing by their parents or other speakers in the environment. This makes it necessary to study the language models to which bilingual children are exposed in order to understand all possible sources of mixing. Rates of mixing vary from study to study and from case to case. Mixed utterances are reportedly more frequent in early stages of bilingual development and diminish with age.

**Challenges:** Reported rates of mixing are difficult to interpret or compare across studies owing to:

1. Differential exposure to the languages in question
2. The possibility of unequal or inequitable sampling of the child’s language use in different language contexts and/or with different interlocutors
3. The lack of an acceptable metric of language development with which to identify children at

comparable stages

4. Different operational definitions of mixing
5. Different histories

### **Write a note on adult code-switching.**

Studies of code-mixing in adults show it to be a sophisticated, rule-governed communicative device used by linguistically competent bilinguals to achieve a variety of communicative goals, such as conveying emphasis, role playing, or establishing socio-cultural identity. It has highly structured syntactic and sociolinguistic constraints. In particular, mixing of linguistic elements from one language into another is performed so that the syntactic rules of both languages are respected.

There is evidence to the effect that intra-sentential mixing increase in adult bilinguals as their competence in the two languages increases. Adult bilinguals also switch between languages as a function of certain sociolinguistic factors, such as the setting, tone and purpose of the communication or the ethno-linguistic identity of the interlocutor. This language behavior is referred to as code-switching (Sridhar and Sridhar, 1980).

### **In which stage children acquire code mixing?**

The period of language mixing just described is generally reported to be followed by linguistic differentiation. Investigators studying children with different language histories have reported that differentiation occurs during the third year of life. At this time, the child is thought to have developed or to be developing two separate representations of his/her language systems or, alternatively, to have overcome the linguistic confusion characteristic of the earlier stage. He or she begins to switch systematically between languages as a function of the participants, the setting, the function of the message (e.g. to exclude others), its form (e.g. narration), and to a lesser extent, the topic of conversation.

### **What is Unitary-Language System?**

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Language mixing during the early stages of bilingual development has been interpreted in general terms as evidence of a unitary-language system with undifferentiated phonological, lexical and syntactic subsystems. This would mean that ‘Words from the two languages did not belong to two different speech systems but to one...’ (In Hatch, 1978:27). Swain (1977) postulated a ‘common storage model’ of bilingual development according to which all rules of both languages are initially stored in a common location and subsequently tagged as appropriate for a particular language through a process of differentiation.

### **Write down Three stage model of language mixing by Volterra and Taeschner.**

Volterra and Taeschner (1978) have interpreted language mixing in terms of a three stage model:

1. Initial unification of both lexical and syntactic subsystems
2. Differentiation of the lexicon but continued unification of syntax
3. Finally, differentiation of both the lexicon and syntax

### **Why children use code-mixing?**

A number of other more specific explanations of bilingual mixing have been suggested. By far the most frequent of these is that bilingual children mix because they lack appropriate lexical items in one language but have them in the other language and, effectively, they borrow from one language for use in the other. Mixing may also decline as the child 'comes to recognize adult-imposed standards of behaviour and shows awareness of his own ability to meet them.' If this is indeed the case then differentiation would be more an issue of developing sociolinguistic competence than of underlying psycholinguistic separation of the language systems.

### **Write a note on Researcher Identity.**

The identity of the researcher is extremely important as it affects the aims and objectives of the research, the relationship with the people being studied and the choice of theoretical and methodological perspectives. Unfortunately, we do not always think about this question when we read other people's findings, or for various reasons the identity of the researcher is not made explicit in the research report. In studying the language behaviour of bilingual speakers, it is particularly useful to consider the following issues:

- Is the researcher monolingual or bilingual (in the appropriate languages for the study)?
- What is the ethnic origin and nationality of the researcher?
- Is the researcher male or female?
- What age group does the researcher belong to?
- What is the educational level of the researcher?
- What is the disciplinary background of the researcher (e.g. linguistics, psychology, neuroscience, speech therapy, sociology, education, administration and government, etc.)?
- What is the researcher's attitude towards bilingualism?

### **Which kinds of researchers are more suitable for research studies?**

In the existing literature, there is very little detailed documentation of how the linguistic background and competence of the researcher affects his or her relationships with the people and their language behaviour being studied, although it is generally accepted that if the linguistic competence of the researcher is compatible with that of the people being studied, data collection should be smoother and more successful. Native competence certainly helps the research to reveal some of the minute linguistic details, particularly of nonstandard language varieties (e.g. Trudgill, 1974).

The effects of age, gender and educational background of the researcher on the data that he or she collects and ultimately analyses have been discussed extensively by sociolinguists (e.g. Milroy, 1987). Successful investigation requires the researcher's sensitivity to the context of the study, willingness to overcome difficulties and honesty about his or her identity, attitude and research agenda.

### **What are the issues of researchers?**

The issue of the disciplinary background of the researcher is equally important, not because

different disciplinary traditions tend to have different research methods (e.g. sociologists tend to use questionnaires and interviews, and psychologists controlled experiments, and linguists tape recordings of conversation) but because their views are not always in agreement on what language is. For example, psychologists and neuroscientists may see languages as fairly clearly defined, discrete systems, each having its own name tag; in contrast, linguists, especially those with a sociolinguistic inclination, see language boundaries as fuzzy and problematic (see discussions in the section ‘Language as a socio-political issue’ of the Introduction). Even among the broad category of linguists, some maintain a distinction between ‘language’ and ‘speech’, whereas others believe such a distinction is unnecessary and fallacious. Consequently, some researchers insist that bilingual speakers possess two more or less discrete grammatical systems, while others argue that bilinguals have their own coherent system which cannot be judged by any monolingual norm. In practice, some researchers attempt to study bilinguals in two separate monolingual modes as well as a bilingual mode while others believe such an endeavour is completely fruitless and misguided.

### **Write down the issues with researchers in context to bilingualism.**

The most important issue related to the identity of the researcher is his or her attitude towards bilingualism. This is not a simple matter of seeing bilingualism as advantageous or disadvantageous to the individuals and the society. It is much subtler. Depending on their social and professional positions and personal interests, some bilingual researchers may believe that a generally positive portrayal of the speakers’ bilingual ability is more desirable, and their investigations are designed in such a way that the results will highlight ‘better’ skills of bilingual speakers. Others may insist that only certain types of bilingualism are acceptable. For instance, some bilingual researchers believe that speakers with high proficiency levels in both of their languages do not engage in code-switching; in other words, code-switching is a sign of linguistic deficiency. It is therefore important to have a clear understanding of the ideology of the researcher when reading a published research.

### **Differences in the research agendas lead to different choices of a specific media for research. Justify.**

Differences in the research agendas lead to different choices of a specific media for research. For example:

- Studies of the language development of bilingual children can be based on parental diaries, video-recording or audio-recording of children’s play and conversation, or standardized tests and checklists.
- Studies of the language attitudes and language ideologies can be based on analyses of written documents or interview data.
- Studies of language processing of bilingual speakers, on the other hand, are normally based on experiments.

### **How to judge the better method of researcher?**

There is no one method that is intrinsically better than others. Good methods are those that are appropriate for the research agenda and can provide evidence for answering the research questions.

We should be particularly aware of the possibility that style of research (e.g. ethnographic, experimental, survey, systematic observation) and use of tools (such as questionnaires, interviews, tape-recordings, tests, attitude scales) can carry with them a political ideology, a view of the person and a philosophy of knowledge. For example: surveys often aim for participative democracy whereas experiments are often about control; qualitative ethnographic observation aims for a holistic view of the person while quantitative variationist studies tend to fragment the person into variables; tape-recordings and detailed transcription of them aim for a ‘mirror reflection’, or a ‘positivist’ picture, of what actually happens, whereas in-depth interviews and critical analyses of them want to (re)construct particular versions of experience and reality.

We should also be aware of the fact that some researchers from specific disciplinary backgrounds (e.g. cognitive science, artificial intelligence) are carrying out research on bilingual speakers not with any interest in their bilingualism per se, but in order to validate theoretical models for some other purposes and contexts. Some of their findings may be interesting and relevant to bilingualism research generally, but they should be read with particular caution, as their methodologies are often driven by agendas which are not related to bilingualism at all.

### **What is bilingual education?**

We immediately think of someone who has a good command of two languages as bilingual; and the use of two languages in education as bilingual education but, as Cazden and Snow (1990) point out, bilingual education is “a simple label for a complex phenomenon.” Colin Baker (1993: 9), one of the most perceptive scholars in the field of bilingual education, suggests that sometimes the term bilingual education is used to refer to the education of students who are already speakers of two languages, and at other times to the education of those who are studying additional languages.

### **How bilingual education is different from traditional language education programs?**

Bilingual education is different from traditional language education programs that teach a second or a foreign language. For the most part, these traditional second- or foreign-language programs teach the language as a subject, whereas bilingual education programs use the language as a medium of instruction; that is, bilingual education programs teach content through an additional language other than the children’s home language. More than anything else, bilingual education is a way of providing meaningful and equitable education, as well as an education that builds tolerance towards other linguistic and cultural groups. In so doing, bilingual education programs provide a general education, teach in two or more languages, develop multiple understandings about languages and cultures, and foster appreciation for human diversity.

### **What is difference between monoglossic ideologies and heteroglossic ideology of bilingualism?**

Monoglossic ideologies of bilingualism and bilingual education treat each of the child’s languages as separate and whole, and view the two languages as bounded autonomous systems. We contrast this monoglossic language ideology to one based on Bakhtin’s (1981) use of heteroglossic as multiple voices. A heteroglossic ideology of bilingualism considers multiple language practices in interrelationship, and leads to other constructions of bilingual education.

### **Write a detailed note on bilingual education as a new prospect onward 20<sup>th</sup> century.**

Bilingual education, for us, is simply any instance in which children's and teachers' communicative practices in school that maximize learning efficacy and communication; and that, in so doing, foster and develop tolerance towards linguistic differences, as well as appreciation of languages and bilingual proficiency. Bilingual education in the twenty-first century must be reimagined and expanded, as it takes its rightful place as a meaningful way to educate all children and language learners in the world today. Bilingual education is here used to refer to education using more than one language, and/or language varieties, in whatever combination. In today's globalized world, bilingual education is at times criticized, on the one hand, because it is seen as maintaining separate linguistic enclaves, and, on the other, because it does not accommodate the linguistic heterogeneity of the times. For example, in the United States bilingual education is often blamed, first, for the ghettoization of U.S. Latino students in segregated classrooms, and, second, for the lack of attention paid in these programs to ethno-linguistic minorities other than Latinos.

However, these arrangements have much more to do with residential and social class segregation than with bilingual education per se. Although it is important to pay attention to all children with different ethno-linguistic profiles, it is Latino children who are often most in need of bilingual education programs in the U.S., for they constitute the greatest proportion of English-language learners in the country (approximately 75 to 79 percent), and yet receive but scant attention. Bilingual education is also often blamed because nations and states seeking legitimacy in the twentieth century have often claimed an immutable relationship between language and identity, using bilingual education as a means to strengthen that link (Heller, 1999).

### **How bilingual education is named differently in USA? (Dual language education)**

In the United States, the growth of immigration and migration, especially of Spanish speakers, has unleashed a reaction against bilingual education. The states of California, Arizona, and Massachusetts have declared bilingual education illegal and the term "bilingual education" is often attached only to programs for recently arrived immigrants that are transitional in nature, and not to programs that include speakers of English and where two languages are used throughout the child's education. In fact, these two-way bilingual education programs in the United States are now called, in many instances, **dual language education**, again silencing the word "bilingual."

### **How bilingual education is named in European Union.**

Within the European Union, bilingual education is being promoted under the banner of CLIL/EMILE, acronyms which refer to "Content and Language Integrated. The choice of CLIL/EMILE responds to the fact that the term "bilingual education" is politically loaded for certain European countries, even though these are bilingual programs that use more than one language in instruction.

### **Write a note on bilingual education in Canada and rest of the globe.**

In Canada, the persistent voices of First Nations peoples, and their efforts to revitalize and maintain their languages, continue to challenge the limitation of bilingual education only to the

languages of power: English and French, and the recognition of the multilingualism of many countries in Africa and Asia in particular has also served to question the viability of bilingual education in only two languages in a more complex socio- linguistic order.

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.

### **How bilingual education is good for students in global context?**

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.”

Bilingual education has the potential of being a transformative school practice, able to educate all children in ways that stimulate and expand their intellect and imagination, as they gain ways of expression and access different ways of being in the world. By using a language effectively, one can access information extend social networks and build self-worth.

Monolingual education has at times been used as a way to limit access and legitimate the linguistic practices of those already in power. Bilingual education has the potential to give access to languages of power and bilingual education can also legitimize minoritized language practices. As such, bilingual education can be transformative. As Lewis says (1978: 20, our italics): “Bilingual education has been advocated for entirely pedagogical reasons, while the fundamental rationale for the proposal is to bring about greater political, economic, and social equality because all forms of education are concerned with the redistribution of power or the maintenance of its current distribution.

### **Write a note on historical s of Bilingual education**

The use of two languages in education is not new. Bilingual schooling is at least 4,000 to 5,000 years old. Greek–Latin bilingual education was the way to educate boys from Roman aristocratic homes. Bilingualism was seen as a form of enrichment. Many schools have always practiced some form of bilingual education. It has always been common, for example, for the school text to be written in a language or a register different from that spoken by the school children. Translation of classical texts into vernaculars, one form of bilingual education, has always been central to the notion of schooling. The reading of sacred texts in one language, with the study of commentaries written in another language, and discussion in yet another language, has also been a traditional way of schooling many ethno-linguistic groups.

### **Write a note on Bilingual Education for All.**

Mother tongue instruction as a means of improving educational quality by building upon the knowledge and experience of the learners and teachers;

Bilingual and/or multilingual education at all levels of education as a means of promoting both social and gender equality and as a key element of linguistically diverse societies;

Language as an essential component of inter-cultural education in order to encourage understanding between different population groups and ensure respect for fundamental rights

Mühlhäusler's "ecological approach" (2000, 2002) calls for "a situation of equilibrium whereby languages automatically readjust themselves to fit into the environment, and perpetuate themselves through language contact, rather than isolation" (quoted in Tsai, 2005: 11). The challenge of bilingual schools in the twenty-first century is to prepare children to balance their own linguistic ecology (Fettes, 2003), enabling them to go freely back and forth in their overlapping languages and literacies. Children and educators have to be made aware of their ability to "self-regulate", as languages take on complementary and overlapping roles in different domains of communication (Mühlhäusler, 2000, 2002), but without external language management by the state or even the school itself.

Fettes has shown how today's linguistic "geo-strategies" which he defines as strategies designed to ensure the co-existence of particular languages or language types (2003: 44) are different from the "politico-strategies" of the twentieth century, in which one language was imposed on others in the state. One of the biggest changes in the globalized community of the twenty-first century is the blurring of territory that was clearly demarcated by language and culture. Although many territories had only given the appearance of being homogeneous, they provided a context, even if imagined, to enforce monolingual schooling. In the twenty-first century, however, we are aware of the linguistic complexity of the world in which monolingual schooling seems utterly inappropriate.

### **Write a note on globalization of bilinguality of language.**

The norms in the organization of work and methods of production brought about by new communication technology and globalization have greatly impacted languaging practices in the twenty-first century. National economies have become far more integrated in the global economy: money and workers have become much more mobile; the pace of technological change has accelerated. Increasingly, every language community must become aware of its position in a "dynamic world system of languages" characterized by vast and expanding differences in status and use. Many websites are using multilingual strategies. Although English is widespread other languages are used more and more.

Sociopolitical and socioeconomic changes have also resulted in dramatic population shift and this immigration is characterized by transnationalism; that is, the ability to go back and forth to the country of origin, aided by improved transportation and technology. All these population movements bring about changes in language use, and amplify the presence of bilingualism, as other languages are also becoming important.

### **Define the term glocalization**

What is different today from the ways in which people languaged in the nineteenth and twentieth century is that we can simultaneously and collaboratively engage in many different language practices at the same time, as happens in electronic instant messaging and chatting. Recently, the term “glocalization” has been coined to note the presence of the local in the global and vice versa. Roland Robertson defined glocalization as “the simultaneity, the co-presence of both universalizing and particularizing tendencies.”As national identities have become fragmented through the weakening of the nation-state construction, the relationship between language and identity remain relevant.