Editorial

Dear BAAL members,

Welcome to number 111 of the BAAL newsletter. With the conference season upon us it is great to see BAAL members presenting their research and (re-)connecting with colleagues as far afield as Rio de Janeiro where the AILA World Congress takes place at the time I write this. And of course it is also time to think about BAAL’s annual meeting in early September this year in Leeds. This will be a very special event for BAAL as it will be our 50th annual meeting. There is still time to register for this event.

This edition of BAAL News begins with rather good news, as a fellowship of the Academy of Social Sciences was conferred on our BAAL nominee John Knagg OBE, Senior Advisor, English and Exams, British Council. We took this as an opportunity to invite John to our inaugural “10 questions” interview (and I would like to draw your attention to his answer to the final questions, in case you meet him at a conference).

This issue of BAAL News also features an introduction to IRIS, a repository of research instruments and tools for use in second language research that many readers will find useful. On the topic of research, Jean-Marc Dewaele shares his thoughts on sampling in applied linguistic research, something most of us will have considered—and perhaps struggled with—at some point or other. And as usual, this edition contains two PhD reports (this time of students working with very different populations) as well as reports on our SIGs, seminars and workshops.

With best wishes,

Bettina Beinhoff
Newsletter Editor
10 Questions to ... John Knagg

At the recent awards of Fellow of the Academy of Social Sciences, a fellowship was conferred on our BAAL nominee John Knagg OBE, Senior Advisor, English and Exams, British Council. The AcSS fellowship is in recognition of John’s “pioneering engagement work between the British Council and the social science academic community”.

Many BAAL members will know of John’s positive influence on the policies and practices of the British Council globally in socially relevant areas, through schemes for supporting academic research on English Language Teaching (ELT). His work, and his dissemination of applied linguistics work to audiences around the world, has led to a step change in the level of engagement of the British Council and its practitioner community with researchers and social scientists.

Here are his answers to our 10 questions:

1. What does the Fellowship of the Academy of Social Science mean to you?
   “It’s a great honour obviously and I was delighted that BAAL was willing to look beyond academics and researchers to nominate for this honour.”

2. Tell us about a project you are currently working on.
   “I’m looking forward to the publication of our new research into the English Medium Instruction (EMI) situation in schools in Africa and India – in collaboration with EDT and the Open University. I’ve been working for a few years on developing understanding in the British Council and its partners worldwide on the risks (and sometimes benefits) of EMI, and on establishing a clear preference for a mother-tongue based multilingual education approach.”

3. Which other current project that you are not currently involved in are you excited about?
   “So many things – work on languages in conflict situations, like Joe Lo Bianco’s work, and in refugee camps; also the growing number of projects that use video to allow teachers to see other teachers’ classroom practice, in a profession notorious for its closed classroom doors.”

4. Which research output are you proudest of and why?
   “I don’t see myself as a researcher - I’m more proud of establishing and growing the British Council schemes that encourage high quality and relevant research and scholarship and make it freely available to practitioners globally – I’m thinking of the outputs from our ELT Research Award scheme, Masters Dissertation Award, and our commissioned volumes – all available of www.teachingenglish.org.uk”

5. When did you first encounter applied linguistics?
   “Shortly after starting work as an unqualified English teacher in Greece, purely as a result of being a “native speaker” (and I’m now rather ashamed of being appointed on that basis). My first book was Pit Corder’s “Introducing Applied Linguistics” and I still remember and use his concepts of “insights, implications, and applications” of theory and research to practice.”
6. **Does applied linguistics mean the same to you now as it did then?**

   “Not really. When I did my Masters at Edinburgh all my classmates were experienced teachers from all over the world, and all our teachers had been teachers and teacher educators before moving to a more academic setting. I described applied linguistics to my family as “the science of language teaching”. Now the concept seems to be much wider, yet there seem to be many more applied linguists without previous practitioner experience.”

7. **What kind of research or activity would you like to see more of in applied linguistics?**

   “Well, I’m into language teaching and learning of course. I’d prefer to see more research which involves teachers and learners at primary and secondary schools as opposed to the more easily researched university settings. I also feel there’s a real lack of research into the effectiveness of technology in language learning, and of the potential and limitations of self-managed learning.”

8. **When and how did you first hear about BAAL?**

   “I was introduced by my then British Council colleague Susan Sheehan who convinced me that BAAL was the best way to engage with the academic ELT community in the UK.”

9. **What do you value most about your BAAL membership?**

   “The events above all, the main annual conference and SIG events – they give a great opportunity to engage and share ideas with experts across the range of applied linguistics, from many universities.”

10. **What is the one question that you wish people would ask you?**

    “If I’m in a philosophical mood it might be something like “is this a question?”, but most of the time I’d prefer “may I get you another drink, John?” – even though that might not be a question either.”
IRIS: The Database of Instruments, Materials and Data for Research into Second Languages

Sophie Thompson\textsuperscript{a}, Emma Marsden\textsuperscript{a}, Luke Plonsky\textsuperscript{b} & Alison Mackey\textsuperscript{b}

\textsuperscript{a}University of York; \textsuperscript{b}Georgetown University

IRIS (www.iris-database.org) is a repository of research instruments and tools for use in second language research. The freely accessible resource is designed to facilitate research for researchers, students and teachers. IRIS contains more than 3000 materials. These include different kinds of tests for a wide range language features in a variety of languages, such as, grammaticality judgement tests, elicited imitation tasks, as well as teaching intervention activities, interview protocols, observation schemes, questionnaires, software scripts, sound and video files, among many more types of materials. IRIS is searchable by the kind of material you are looking for, the sort of research you are interested in, the names of researchers who have contributed them, learner characteristics (e.g. age, first language, proficiency), the language being learned and the type of instruction, among many other parameters. The materials available on IRIS are free to download, can be adapted to suit your own requirements, and have all been used in peer-reviewed studies on language learning and teaching.

IRIS also now hosts data, of all types. At the cutting edge of open science practice, holding open data improves the transparency of the research process, facilitates replicability (as detailed comparisons can be drawn with previous participant groups), and it allows future studies to carry out analyses that include data from previous studies. Holding open data has been associated with better reporting and increased citations (Piwowar & Vision 2013; Wicherts, Bakker & Molenaar 2011).

Since its launch in 2012, with initial support from the UK’s Economic and Social Research Council as well as long-term support, recently extended, from The British Academy, IRIS has attracted a great deal of interest internationally, with more than 32,000 hits and over 17,000 downloads. In the last year there have been over 5,000 downloads and the number of hits has almost doubled. The following leading journals now use or are about to use Open Science badges (an initiative of the Center for Open Science). These badges are kitemarks that recognise authors hold their materials, or data, on IRIS: Language Learning, Studies in Second Language Acquisition, The Modern Language Journal, Applied Linguistics and Linguistic Approaches to Bilingualism.

This level of activity shows the increasing use and impact of IRIS in language learning and teaching research. It is also a sign of the field’s growing recognition of the place and value of replication and, more generally, open science practices.

IRIS is endorsed by virtually all leading academic journals in the field, including TESOL Quarterly and Foreign Language Annals, and research associations, including BAAL and AAAL, and by top investigators in the area of language learning and teaching. Consequently, new research instruments are regularly uploaded to the site, making...
a range of high quality tools available. Furthermore, IRIS now also holds two “Special Collections” containing a high proportion of all grammaticality judgement tests and self-paced reading tasks published in second language research. These can be found under the “special collections” button on the IRIS search page.

IRIS has already been used by researchers, teachers and students to help investigate a wide range of substantive topics. Researchers can use IRIS to teach research methods, share materials, to increase the impact and exposure of their work, and to replicate and build on the work of their colleagues. Using instruments from IRIS can assist the field in overcoming the lack of a ‘collective memory’ and the paucity of replication studies on language learning and teaching research. Using and adapting existing materials helps to inform us about the generalizability of findings to different settings, participant demographics, target languages, and so forth. Graduate students can adapt instruments to investigate a wide range of areas such as linguistic identity, motivation, cross-linguistic influence, sentence processing, testing. Teachers are able to use or adapt instruments from IRIS, for example, for assessing learners’ needs, considering how best to give feedback or design teaching materials, or understanding how learners are motivated. In summary, IRIS is a user-friendly, searchable, easily-accessible database which can be used as a resource by all those involved in second language research. If you cannot find some specific materials that you are looking for, you can request these via the Request Materials button on the site.

For more information, please see the FAQ on the IRIS website or contact iris@iris-database.org. Follow us on Facebook: https://www.facebook.com/irisdatabase/

References:


IRIS Advisory Group: Alison Mackey (Chair of group & co-founder) Frank Boers, Patsy Duff, Rod Ellis, Tess Fitzpatrick, Susan Gass, Jonas Grandfelt, Claudia Harsch, Jan Hulstijn, Carrie Jackson , Claire Kramsch, Craig Lambert, Jin Limin, Meg Malone, Paul Kei Matsuda, Tim McNamara, David Mellor, Atsushi Mizumoto, Lourdes Ortega, Magali Paquot, Andrea Révész, Leah Roberts, Rob Schoonen, Norman Segalowitz, Peter Skehan, Roumyana Sla bakova, Annie Tremblay, Nicole Ziegler
Sampling: A thorny issue in social sciences
by Jean-Marc Dewaele, Birkbeck, University of London

Imagine for a moment that you are a novice political scientist collecting data on British people’s attitudes towards Brexit. You’ve decided to interview 100 random people on Trafalgar Square on a Sunday. You’re in luck that afternoon: lots of people are happy to answer your questions. Had you looked a little closer, you’d have recognised the blue EU flags with golden stars being waved, you’d have recognised Nick Clegg addressing the crowd and you wouldn’t have been so surprised that evening that 99% of your sample was opposed to Brexit. Constituting a representative sample of a population can give researchers a serious headache. Although the above example is a bit extreme, it is easy for applied linguists to underestimate the consequences of using less-than-perfect sampling strategies.

The gold standard is probability sampling, which aims to constitute a ‘representative sample’ of the general population. It relies on random sampling: ‘whereby a sample is drawn such that each member of the population has an equal probability of being included in that sample’ (Ness Evans & Rooney, 2013: 126). This rarely happens in our field but that it not really a problem because we ‘are typically testing theories, not generalizing to entire populations’ (p. 127). However, random assignment of participants to groups is very important as it is ‘an important assumption of several statistical procedures’ (p. 127).

The reason applied linguists do not use random sampling is that we cannot afford it. It is expensive. NatCen Social Research based in London, for example, uses a random online and telephone panel (http://www.bsa.natcen.ac.uk/) covering the UK. It is based on the British Social Attitudes representative sample. The cost for using that panel (2,446 people aged over 18) is more than £1,000 per question. It is expensive because creating a truly representative sample of the UK population, based on the Postcode Address File, is very complex and time-consuming. Moreover, the panel members need to be contacted by telephone as some may not have Internet access. Another way of doing random sampling is through random digit dialling (RDD), which again is very expensive because many calls must be made to get one working residential number (https://www.icpsr.umich.edu/icpsrweb/instructors/setups/notes/sampling-telephone.jsp). Depending on the target group the sample size needs to be increased to allow for statistical analysis. So for example, if the researcher knows (or estimates) that the target group are about 5 per cent of the UK population, in order to find them in a random sample, large numbers of people will have to contacted - contacting 100 will yield only 5 participants; contacting 1000 will yield about 50 and so on. One way to limit the cost of random sampling is through weighting of the data set, but that is only marginally helpful, as sometime it is difficult to even calculate the weights (Comânaru, personal communication, 28/11/2016).

Moreover, opinion polls during the 2015 national elections in the UK that were based (in theory) on stratified random sampling (i.e. a combination of categorization and randomization where random samples are taken for particular groups in the population) got the predicted election outcome spectacularly wrong. An inquiry found that the pollsters got the outcome of the general election wrong because of unrepresentative poll samples (http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/uk-politics-35347948).

Non-probability sampling is more common in our field, so named because ‘it is impossible to specify the probability of selecting any one individual’ (Ness Evans & Rooney, 2013: 131). Non-probability sampling is easier to use, is
cheaper to carry out as no effort is made to ensure that the sample reflects the characteristics of the general population. As Dörnyei explains, there are ‘strategies that try to achieve a trade-off, that is, a reasonably representative sample using resources that are within the means of the ordinary researcher’ (Dörnyei, 2007: 97).

There are different types of non-probability sampling: Quota sampling where the goal is to select participants with particular characteristics until sufficient numbers have been reached. This would be used, for example, for a study on gender effects in SLA, where an equal number of male and female language learners would be needed. The second procedure is referral sampling, also called snowball sampling because participants recruit their friends, who spread the call for participation to their friends, and so on (Ness Evans & Rooney, 2013).

Researchers need to be very cautious ‘in generalizing the results to populations that may differ from our sampled population’ (Ness Evans & Rooney (2013, p. 132). Applied linguists typically use convenience sampling as they typically collect data from their own students who represent a “captive” participant pool. Students are gently coerced in participating to obtain a partial course credit or to earn a little money. They are smart, accessible, willing, experienced in filling out questionnaires and answering questions, and they are cheap. Such a sample is fine, as long at the researcher realises that the results are not automatically generalizable to the whole (even student) population. A sample of students – preferably from different institutions - is fine for research on students’ opinions but it would be inadequate for broader research, for example, on the opinions of the British population on Brexit.

Self-selection bias is inevitable in our field. Since we cannot force people to participate (and even if we could, the data might be of poor quality), only those who are interested in the topic of the investigation and have opinions about it will be willing to spend time filling out an online questionnaire, or being interviewed on it. The bias does not undermine the research but it requires the researchers to be very careful with the interpretation of the results. In Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014, 2016), for example, we used an online questionnaire to collect data on the positive and negative classroom emotions from 1746 foreign language learners from all over the world. As is typical in research on language and emotion (Dewaele, to appear), we had a large proportion of female participants (74%), of university-level participants (88%), and the average age was 24 years. We were pleased that the mean scores for Foreign Language (FL) Enjoyment were significantly higher than for FL Classroom Anxiety. We then realised that we could not conclude that FL learners in general report experiencing more enjoyment than anxiety in class. The sample might have been very large in applied linguistic research but it was very likely that learners who liked FL learning much were more likely to fill out the questionnaire. Those who disliked the FL classes were less likely to participate. Hence, our participants represented a sample of the more motivated FL learner population. To conclude, it is fine to work with non-random samples as long as the necessary caveats are included about the generalisability of the findings.

References


**PhD research report:**

**Code-Switching & Social identity construction among Arabic-English bilinguals**

by Hanan Ben Nafa (Manchester Metropolitan University)

My PhD project is an ethnographic study investigating the code-switching (CS) practice of a friendship group of five adult, female, non UK-born, Arabic-English bilinguals based in Manchester, UK. In the past, bilingual speakers’ linguistic choices were believed to portray a static, homogenous identity, creating binary associations between a code and its inherent social values that bilingual speakers may not necessarily consider relevant. Later, by incorporating ‘stance’ as an analytic approach (Jaffe, 2009), many studies of CS addressed how different CS moves are used to shift speakers' stances and (re)construct unique bilingual identities, creating what is called a 'new' space (Finnis, 2013). However, one particular, communicative purpose for which CS is deployed, which has not been examined in many existing studies of CS that is linked to multifaceted identities, is that of performing evaluative acts and expressing attitudes through CS.

To examine these evaluative acts further, my project mainly utilises the appraisal model (Martin & White, 2005) to explore speakers' temporary, individual and relational stances where the former are making evaluations (e.g. expressing feelings through 'AFFECT'). Through a moment-by-moment analysis of recordings of naturally-occurring peer interactions and semi-structured interviews, it has been found that a change in language is translated into a shift in attitude or stance. The temporary or interactional aspects of these bilingual participants’ identities, which are negotiated through CS moves, can be attributed to the different stances my participants take up in their group interactions. It has also been found that these stances are considered a significant resource through which bilingual speakers position themselves differently and negotiate multi-faceted aspects of their identities and thus, create different interactional effects. The main purpose CS is utilised for in this study is making evaluative statements, such as expressing emotions and shows of excitement. I argue that these stances shifts are related to the social meanings and values my bilingual participants associate with each language or language group. Further, long examples of interactional data demonstrate how the way in which CS is utilised by this group of (late) bilinguals can be regarded as an implicit sign of the process of emotional acculturation (De Leersnyder et al., 2011). A process where bilingual speakers/sojourners carry out evaluation through making use of (emotional) expressions or attitudes they adopted as a result of the socialisation process they have gone through in the host society.
My interest in my PhD topic grew out of a quite personal experience. Weeks after moving to the UK to study in 2009, I started noticing myself striving to sound a like an English ‘native’ speaker. My positive experience in the UK made acquiring ‘standard’ English and speaking it fluently a relatively easy task, and perhaps enjoyable. I then gradually noticed myself code-switching into English in my everyday conversations with Arabic speakers who have a good command of English. In 2011, I was reunited with my friends whom I knew as a teenager and who happen to have also received the same scholarship and moved to the UK. What was interesting is that they were also code-switching as often as I did then. What was intriguing for me personally was the positive impact English started to have on my self-perception. Switching between the two languages have become a very convenient, and even the preferred, way of communicating with my fellow bilingual friends.

I then became interested in the reasons we code-switch for and how is this practice related to our self-presentation and identity construction as Arabic-speaking individuals. What I found after conducting some research for my MA thesis is my participants (same participants for my PhD) do not actually use both languages to express the same idea, as is has been widely believed. Instead, they code-switch to express a certain idea that can be better out in one language, and not the other. Soon, it became clear to me that CS offers more choices for bilingual speakers to choose from, particularly for making subtle communicative moves, and achieve identity-related purposes.

As is the case with all PhD students, my journey was not far from challenging, on many aspects. The main aspect is dealing with obstacles along the way, such as the time where your project focus starts to shift. The most challenging for me so far has been dealing with shift and have the patience to perceive it as a positive sign that my project is probably developing and going somewhere more interesting. This shift happened in the first half of my second year after one of my supervisory team suggested what I found later to be a more effective and a systematic approach for my study, which is the ‘Appraisal Model’. It took me a long time to get grips with this approach and apply it to my data. Another challenging, which is I am still facing, is to keep the same level of enthusiasm you had about your research topic when you thought about your PhD proposal three years ago! Being immersed in the same topic and researching/writing about the same topic can be a bit tricky at points, especially towards the end of the PhD journey when all a PhD student worries about is finishing writing up their thesis.

Having said that, there were many good moments along the way and things to be proud of. Throughout my PhD, I managed to find the time to present at a number of conferences at which I met amazing colleagues and met who might be my external examiner. As an academic, I am very interested in disseminating my research to the wider public and telling people about what I work on, in an enjoyable and an accessible way. This encouraged me to write a couple of blogs and informal articles addressing issues that the public and ‘non-academic’ bilinguals would love to know more about. I find the task of writing accessibly and communicating my research to people outside academia very rewarding, and it is one of the ways I follow to try to keep myself going and stay enthusiastic about my topic.

References:

PhD research report:  

Language use and language attitudes in Malawian universities 

by Colin Reilly (University of Glasgow) 

It’s been suggested that ill-fitting language policies within Africa have led to many citizens being disenfranchised as they are unable to properly access their own education systems (Djite, 2008). Access to basic services such as education is crucial for social and economic development (Sen, 1999). Increasing this engagement with education is viewed as an essential part of both the process and goal of individual and national development. My interest in the complex interaction between language policy, education, and development is what drove me start my PhD which focuses on language-in-education policy in Malawi.

Malawi is a multilingual country, with around thirteen Malawian languages being spoken. While English holds a prestigious role, and is treated as the official language, Chichewa is the most widely spoken language and regarded as the national language of the country. There are varied strong opinions surrounding language use in Malawi; a local footballer recently caused a stir for using some Chichewa in his post-match interview (https://www.maravipost.com/malawi-barren-draw-mauritius-dalitso-sailesis-chichewa-interview-draws-mixed-reaction/) rather than sticking to English. My research highlights the ways in which these languages co-exist within higher education, exploring: how translanguaging is used to achieve various educational and social functions; how students and staff make use of their multilingual linguistic repertoire to facilitate teaching, learning and socialising in their institutions; and the impact this could have on educational language policy.

In 2014 the introduction of the ‘New Education Act’ signalled a new phase in language-in-education policy for Malawi. This changed the medium of instruction, from one which adopted mother tongue in the first four years before switching to English, to a straight-to-English, English-only policy. This policy mainly affects the initial stages of education and there is no similar nationwide language-in-education policy for tertiary level. The announcement of this new policy was not without controversy and there is now increased debate around the appropriateness of English versus Malawian languages for use in education and the suitability of current language policies in Malawi (Chiwanda, 2014; Gwengwe, 2014).

Language policies in Malawi are often criticised, in part due to the lack of sociolinguistic study undertaken prior to their development (Moyo, 2001). It has been suggested that sociolinguistic studies play an important role in the implementation of successful language policies (Kishindo, 2008) as they provide an insight into the sociolinguistic reality of the people whom the policy affects (Romaine, 2002). While most research into language use in education in Malawi has focused on primary education there has been little research into the actual language use in tertiary level education in Malawi.
During my fieldwork, I spent one month conducting participant observation at a private university and made 200 hours of participant recordings. I then spent three months conducting interviews across all public universities. In total, I interviewed 27 staff and 71 students and conducted 8 student focus groups.

While my analysis is ongoing, my initial findings suggest that there is a tension between language use and attitudes in the universities and a monolingual, English-only language-in-education policy approach.

My focus group discussions centred on evaluating three potential language policies for use in universities in Malawi: English-only; Chichewa-only; English and Chichewa. Students discussed the advantages and disadvantages of each scenario in turn and were then asked to rate them. Seven of the eight focus groups chose an English and Chichewa policy as their most favoured option, followed by English-only and then Chichewa-only. While the English and Chichewa scenario was most favoured, groups did differ in how they thought this should be implemented. Some thought that having separate English streams and Chichewa streams would work best, while most thought that allowing each language to be used when necessary in the classroom would be the ideal scenario.

In my interviews the majority of participants agreed that English is the most suitable language to use in university in Malawi with 92% of students and 100% of staff agreeing. However, a smaller majority (69% of students and 65% of staff) of participants agreed that the use of English and Chichewa together at university would be suitable.

Importantly, this is at odds with the new language-in-education policy which covers the primary stages of education. It is also a reflection of the actual language practices which students and staff are engaged in. The Malawian university is a multilingual environment in which several languages are used for both pedagogical and social functions – I frequently observed staff and students translanguage both inside and outside of class. However, the lack of a clearly defined language policy means that ‘different lectures do things in different ways’ – although some lecturers use Chichewa in their classes and allow their students to so do, some do not allow any Chichewa to be spoken in their classes at all. Students then need to adapt their learning for these different linguistic environments.

Key themes arising when discussing language are, amongst others, Background; Language Skills/Rules; Graduate Prospects. Students noted that ‘background is the most important thing’. As students have attended different types of secondary school, it is acknowledged that ‘we understand English in different levels’. While a pass in English is necessary for a student to be admitted to university, students have been found to have inadequate English skills for pursuing tertiary level education (Kamwendo 2003). This affects language use at the university as lecturers will use Chichewa to accommodate learning.

There are a variety of sociolinguistic ‘rules’ which students must follow which dictate the suitability for using different languages in different contexts. Students want to be seen as people who are skilled in English and feel they will be ridiculed for failing to speak ‘correctly’ in class. Conversely, speaking too much English outside of class is also criticised and can lead to teasing and accusations of being ‘pompous’ or ‘boastful’.

Finally, students acknowledge that they need English if they are to leave Malawi for employment or postgraduate studies, or to attain a professional graduate job in Malawi. However, it’s also acknowledged that they’ll need Chichewa if they are to work in Malawi in jobs that involve close engagement with people of different backgrounds – such as journalist, nurse, or doctor.

At a policy level, the prevailing ideology is a monolingual one. However, Malawi is a multilingual country. The lives of
student and staff are multilingual. My research has found that Malawian universities are, in practice, multilingual environments. Crucially, key stakeholders in Malawian universities are not opposed to a policy which embraces more than one language.

I’d be happy to talk in more detail about my research with anyone who might be interested! Feel free to contact me at c.reilly.1@research.gla.ac.uk or on Twitter @ColinFReilly

References


BAAL/Cambridge University Press Seminar:

Minority Languages in New Media: Towards language revitalisation in Europe and Africa
(Aston University, Birmingham, 27-28 April 2017)

Background

The seminar focused on emerging trends in the use of minority languages in new media within the European and African contexts. The aim was to create the opportunity to highlight research which are currently being undertaken into minority language contexts to establish what the current pressing issues and emergent ideas are, and to highlight how current research into minority languages can provide innovative ways to address the preservation and revitalisation of minority languages. This includes the ways in which minority languages are supported through their presence in new media, and how minority language users are making use of their languages in digital landscapes traditionally dominated by global languages such as English.

Summary of the seminar

Over the course of two days, 18 participants based in 10 countries met to discuss the use of over 10 European and African minority languages in new media. The seminar was kicked off by our first keynote Jonathan Morris who spoke on New Media and Welsh-language Socialisation among Young People. Morris provided a thorough discussion of digital language policies in Wales and the emerging new media landscape for the language. He suggested that new media could provide an opportunity for nurturing positive attitudes towards the Welsh language through relevant, interesting content for speakers.

Shan Miriam Pritchard and Natalie Lloyd Jones continued the discussion on the Welsh context in their paper The Welsh language within the digital age, providing some initial findings from two ongoing research projects funded by the European Social Fund. Their studies show that access to a variety of Welsh media allow speakers more opportunities to engage in Welsh media consumption and that speakers perceive the language to be one which is modern and useful.

Irene Russo and Claudia Soria then presented on Digital Language Diversity on New Media: the DLDP Survey about European Minority Languages Speakers. This was a report on a major research project into the use of four European minority languages on new media- Basque, Breton, Karelian and Sardinian. One major findings from the report was that the key civic actors in digitally revitalising minority languages is a middle-aged, bilingual, who is not a language professional but is active in revitalisation activities.

The next paper was from Susanna Sacks, who provided our first paper on the African context titled WhatsApp Poetics: The Structure Style of Chichewa Poetry Groups on Whatsapp. Sacks reported on the use of English and Chichewa across two different Malawian poetry WhatsApp groups. She found that the language use of the two groups differed, crucially reporting that the online dynamics of interaction within the group closely mirrored offline
interactions. The first day of the seminar ended with an interactive workshop, in which participants developed project proposals to make the web more multilingual across a range of contexts.

Day two opened with a keynote by Lutz Marten - *Contexts of claiming digital space for African community languages*. The talk developed an analysis of the use of African community languages in digital space against the historical and contemporary contexts of the use of African languages in public spaces. A crucial element of Marten’s paper was to stress that digital spaces of African languages are often extensions of existing (offline) functions and spaces.

We then had a presentation from Polina Fomina who discussed *The status of the Breton language in France and in the world*. Fomina suggested that while French has a strong influence on Breton speakers, it has not totally replaced Breton in all communicative functions.

The next presentation was supplied by Mohamed Azmy Mohamed. *Towards a community media achieving Multilingualism: NubaTube Channel* addressed community efforts to revitalise the Nubian language. Mohamed suggested that Youtube is a key platform in revitalising languages. Gertrud Reershemius gave a paper on *Autochtonous Heritage Languages and Social Media: Writing and Bilingual Practices in Low German on Facebook*. Reershemius suggested that social network sites have the potential to provide new mediatized spaces for speakers which can instigate sociolinguistic change. Similarly, Merryn Davies-Deacon examined how Breton speakers use their language on Facebook on the topic *Facebook as a potential site for non-standard Breton*. She highlighted that respelling is often sufficient for a word used in French to be accepted in Breton and that new speakers are not homogenous in their lexicon or orthography.

The seminar ended with a round-table discussion led by Felix Ameke as the discussant. This exhilarating discussion drew out several issues that arose during the seminar. The key point was that the use of minority languages in digital media often does not occur in isolation, but in combination of majority languages and/or other minority languages which often leads to multilingual language use.

**Outcomes**

We are currently in the process of establishing a research network for individuals working on minority language use in new media. A Twitter account, @MinorityLang, and a website were setup as part of the seminar for information dissemination and documentation of research projects.

**Elvis Yevudey** (Aston University): yevudeye@aston.ac.uk

**Colin Reilly** (University of Glasgow): c.reilly.1@research.gla.ac.uk
BAAL/Routledge research development workshop programme:

Language and identity in law and evidence
David Wright and Natalie Braber, Nottingham Trent University

This project aimed to bring BAAL members (both students and academics) together with experts in Forensic Linguistics. It aimed to explore the ways in which identity and language are intertwined in legal and evidential contexts. This workshop allowed for a focused discussion of how language use and linguistic analysis can assist law enforcement and legal proceedings, as well as introducing those attending to cutting-edge tools and techniques used in the field by experts.

Linguists are increasingly being consulted by the police and legal teams to aid in investigations or to provide expert witness testimony. This may involve the linguist analysing some textual (written) or recorded (oral) evidence, and offering an opinion as to the individual or individuals who are responsible for producing that evidence. Often such evidence and analysis can offer important investigative clues to police, or can incriminate (or not) a suspect and be used as evidence in court. Essentially, these are tasks of analysing linguistic identities, whether that is written idiolectal styles or distinctive voices. The methods and practices used by linguists facing such forensic questions must adhere to scientific standards, particularly those of admissibility of evidence.

The workshop, which ran in September 2016, proposed to address different manifestations of identity in forensic contexts, and provide a space in which they can all be discussed and developed. The workshop consisted of the following five sessions:

Dr Alison Johnson (University of Leeds) and David Woolls (CFL Software Ltd): ‘Identity and Identification: Why n-grams work in authorship attribution’. This was a hands-on workshop on using lexical analysis software in identifying authors of disputed criminal documents.

Dr Dominic Watt (University of York): ‘By his speech shall ye know him: Developments in the use of forensic voice comparison evidence by the UK courts’. This was a hands-on workshop on the use of acoustic software to compare speech samples of criminal and suspect voices.

Dr Amanda Potts (Cardiff University): ‘Women who kill: Methods to explore the doubly deviant identity in English sentencing remarks’. Hands-on workshop on the use of corpus linguistics software in analysing the representations of female murderers in UK sentencing remarks.

Dr Nicci Macleod (Aston University): ‘Assuming identities online: Applying sociolinguistics to undercover online policing’. This was a paper and discussion on the training of police officers in assuming linguistic identities of children in monitoring paedophile activity online.

Dr Claire Hardaker (Lancaster University): ‘Surviving (and analysing) the mean tweets of the internet: An introduction to FireAnt’. Paper and discussion on language and identity in Twitter rape threats.

These sessions highlighted and develop the view of forensic linguistics as an application of theories and methods
from sociolinguistics and discourse analysis, particularly with regard to *identity* and offered a forum for a focused discussion of how language use and linguistic analysis can assist law enforcement and legal proceedings.

Using experts in these areas ensured the highest quality sessions to engage those attending the workshop. Around 40 individuals, including undergraduate and postgraduate students as well as early career researchers and established academics attended the event. This included participants from Nottingham Trent University and other UK universities, but also staff and students from The United States of America and Saudi Arabia. On the day, many participants provided very positive feedback, stating that this day had helped them consider the importance of considering the interdisciplinary connections between forensic linguistics, sociolinguistics and applied linguistics. Many participants welcomed the fact that this workshop included more traditional-style papers as well as interactive workshops which allowed them to carry out data analysis and practice the methods discussed during the workshops.

The workshop included great discussion between participants and presenters – as sessions were interactive and there was plenty of time during lunch breaks (with a nice hot lunch!) to discuss with each other and the speakers what had been discussed. The event was a great success and participants were able to engage with and contribute to fascinating fields of research in fields of forensic linguistics.

We hope that this workshop could lead to the application for, and the formation of, a Forensic Linguistics BAAL Special Interest Group, which could be an important forum for fostering and developing this expanding field of applied linguistics.
Language and Media SIG:
Language, New Media and Alt.Realities
(University of Reading, 21 April 2017)

This year’s BAAL Language and New Media SIG event, hosted by Rodney Jones (University of Reading), took up the important issue of how the semiotic affordances, information architectures and communicative practices associated with digital media are affecting people’s constructions and interpretations of ‘reality’ and ‘truth’. The event included two plenaries, by Caroline Tagg and Philip Seargeant (Open University) and by Colleen Cotter (Queen Marys London) and eight other speakers, both applied linguists and journalism scholars. Three important themes emerged: firstly, the need to understand ‘news’ if we are to understand fake news; secondly, the importance of the social over the epistemic in people’s interactions with fake news on social media; and, thirdly, the important empirical work that applied linguists can contribute as we attempt to make sense of ‘alt.realities’.

The need to understand news values and practices in tackling these issues was a point raised by Cotter’s plenary talk on news and the social media ecosystem. Cotter, a former-journalist-turned-linguist, provided a historical and wide ranging analysis of the ways in which news has been shaped by technologies as well as highlighting continuities in the newsroom, such as journalists’ belief in balance and accuracy and their adherence to truth. This historical depth is a crucial first step in understanding the impact that social media use may be having on how news is produced and received. In relation to this, it is also necessary to take into account the continued importance of journalists in the social media environment. As Korina Giaxoglou (Open University) showed in her discussion of the online ‘ecstatic’ sharing of critical moments in the Greek crisis, it is journalists rather than ordinary users who are able to exploit the affordances of Twitter to leak information and challenge mainstream narratives. A response to fake news must therefore take traditional media practices as well as online news-sharing sites into account.

The importance of social processes in shaping people’s online engagement with news was evident across talks. Reporting on a survey of Facebook users, Tagg and Seargeant showed how the principle of ‘online conviviality’ – the desire to avoid conflict – encouraged users not to engage with posts they found offensive (that is, with posts expressing views with which they disagreed) but instead to block offensive users or unfriend them. These attempts to attend to the diverse relationships maintained through the site thus had the effect of creating ‘filter bubbles’, rather than (or alongside) Facebook’s personalisation algorithm. The need to understand users’ own stances and social purposes is crucial if technological-based solutions to fake news is to work, with research – such as Patrick Kiernan’s (University of Birmingham) work on trolling in a cycling forum – highlighting the fact that playfulness and subversion, rather than an interest in the truth, can often guide users’ online decisions. The importance of taking user behaviour on board was also prompted by Abdulmalik Yusuf Ofemile’s (University of Nottingham) talk on how users interact with smart agents. As well as training robots to recognise and respond to linguistic and non-linguistic cues from their human interactants, consideration should also be given to the ways in which users may modify their behaviour to accommodate to the robot. Despite the importance of recognising the intersection of the social and the epistemic, however, it is also necessary to bear in mind the way in which site affordances and technological design decisions (and the companies that design them) shape what is possible for users to do online; for example, as
Giakoglou showed, the ways in which Twitter is now used for the ecstatic sharing of news is shaped by its original design as an ego-centred micro-blogging site.

Given the importance of the social to understanding alt.realities online, applied linguistics research can make an important empirical contribution. Many of the talks showed how existing linguistic and related concepts and theories can be applied to digital media data. Dolors Palau Sampio (Universitat de València) showed how linguistic analysis of conversational and rhetorical features such as vocatives and modal deixis can be used to understand how clickbait is shaping news headlines. Teresa Spilioti (Cardiff University) showed how metaphor – specifically Musolff’s ‘metaphor scenarios’ – can be used to understand how online news explainers render financial news accessible to a lay audience. Diana Ben-Aaron (University of Suffolk) showed how research into traditional ‘hard news’ interviews can be used to analyse interviews conducted in cars, part of a wider infotainment genre which may be seen as substituting for real news in the social media environment. Finally, Ruth Page (University of Birmingham) showed how social semiotic theory and subjectification can be used to explain news stories on Snap Chat, shedding light on the new ways in which mobile affordances enable citizen journalists and photographers to represent themselves and relate to their audiences. What also emerged as important is interdisciplinary collaboration between applied linguists and journalism and media scholars – collaborations which were already behind a number of the research projects discussed at the seminar and which can be facilitated by events like these.

We did not, as Rodney Jones pointed out in his introduction, solve the world’s problems as they relate to political and civic debate online and the dissemination of fake news; but we did begin to bring together ways in which we might contribute.

By Caroline Tagg
Language in Africa SIG:

Language without Borders: Multilingual Communication in Africa and the Diaspora

(University of Reading, 12 May 2017)

The Language in Africa SIG (LiASIG) conference this year provided a valuable opportunity to hear from early, mid and late career researchers and doctoral students concerning a range of topics within the theme of multilingual communication in Africa and the Diaspora. A total of 13 papers were presented with research carried out in Botswana, Cameroon, Gambia, Kenya, Malawi, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal and Uganda. Topics discussed included the underlying paradigms of societal and individual multilingualism, language and literacy acquisition and learning, language policies, and the fundamental effects of these on development, whether defined economically or in terms of well-being. The forthcoming LiASIG Colloquium on Language and Development at the BAAL Conference 2017 will extend these themes.

Translanguaging was a recurrent topic throughout the day, highlighted in several papers which focused on the use of translanguaging in education in Africa. Katherine Spowage, in her paper Challenging the monolingual classroom: Translingual interaction in Rwandan schools, discussed the recent English as Medium of Instruction (EMI) policy in Rwanda. Having discussed the problems which an EMI system can have, she concluded that, ultimately, adopting a policy which embraces translanguaging can improve the education system for all stakeholders.

The theoretical nature of Spowage’s paper was complemented by Eowyn Crisfield: Translanguaging teaching in Kenya: Challenges and opportunities. Using the practical example of a “dual-language” policy in a prestigious private Kenyan high school, Crisfield contrasted the initial (failing) policy of dividing the week between English as Medium of Instruction (Mol) and Kiswahili as Mol with the current process of adopting a pedagogical approach based on translanguaging. She highlighted that such an approach can be beneficial for student engagement.

Annukka Kinnaird’s Low-cost quality mother-tongue primary education in Sub-Saharan Africa – a dream or reality? Focused on literacy teaching at primary level in Cameroon. She illustrated that even with limited financial assistance effective programmes can be implemented.

The complex sociolinguistic environments which are evident in the African education system were also discussed by Colin Reilly in his paper Student attitudes towards university language policy in Malawi – a multilingual solution? He found that students had positive attitudes towards the use of a multilingual language policy, which is at odds with recent policy changes in Malawi favouring an English-only Mol.

Onyedikachi Grace Abiodun-Ekus’ exploration of Language choice for the Deaf in Nigeria outlined the difficulties facing Nigerian Deaf citizens, as their linguistic needs are not appropriately catered for. She called for the immediate need to intervene to support Deaf citizens’ welfare. Omola Mercy Odu in Definitely endangered? The initiatives of indigenes in saving Olukumi, reported research on Olukumi, spoken by the people of Ugbodu in Delta State, Nigeria. She presented current efforts which are being undertaken to ‘save’ Olukumi, mainly involving youth in online activities. Christian Adebayo in his paper, Discursive construction of multilingualism in education language policy for
lower primary school classes in Nigeria, explored how official educational language policies are implemented in practice in a multilingual setting. He stated that a key factor influencing implementation of Mother Tongue education in Nigeria is the disparity in language-in-education policies in public and private schools. Marianne Aaron, in Traditional African communalism and education, discussed the influence that communalism has on parental aspirations for their child’s education and suggested that communalism can have a role to play in an authentic African education.

Boikanyego Sebina further explored the boundaries between languages, looking at the effects of language contact in Botswana in The influence of L2 English on the speech rhythm of L1 Setswana in the speech of Setswana-English bilingual children aged 6-7 years. Sebina studied Setswana L1 children (bilinguals) who were educated through English, with those who were not (Setswana monolinguals). Sebina found that there is an effect on the speech of bilingual L1 Setswana speakers, with their L1 rhythmic pattern diverging from that of monolingual speakers.

A main theme which emerged throughout the day was the conceptualisation of language, and how we analyse both languages and language speakers in African contexts through a Western lens. Our keynote speaker was Professor Friederike Lüpké of SOAS, leader of the Leverhulme funded Crossroads Project (2014-18) which investigates multilingualism and language contact between three languages spoken at the “crossroads” – a group of neighbouring villages in the Casamance area of Senegal. Lüpké drew upon this research in her paper Multilingualism without borders: perspectives on language and development in multilingual Casamance in which she questioned whether views of language and language communities as discrete entities work effectively in African contexts. Instead, Lüpké proposes a view of language and language use which allows speakers to index a variety of identities in their different speech contexts. This forms the basis for an innovative project – Language-Independent Literacy for Inclusive Education in Multilingual Areas (LILIEMA) – being piloted in Casamance, in which each person in the literacy class can develop skills in the context of the vocabulary of their own mother tongue.

Rachel Watson continued this theme in Fluid Boundaries: Linguistic Boundaries and Multilingual Discourse in Casamance. she adopted a Prototype Theory model for analysing the speech of multilinguals in Casamance, illustrating how speakers use features which can be considered prototypical of specific languages to index their own identities and those of the individuals with whom they are interacting.

In our final session, the focus was on translation and interpreting. Enoch Sebuyungo focused on Translating administrative documents from French to English for a Ugandan audience, arguing that steps must be taken to increase the effectiveness of translation practices through greater focus on pragmatics. He also called for thorough evaluation of translations, as they affect both national concerns and individual lives. Jill Karlik discussed Non-professional interpreting in a Gambian church, developing Wilt’s Frames of Reference model to look at the common practices of “natural”, non-professional interpreters in multilingual communities in African churches.

The day concluded with the LiASIG AGM, confirming the election of new Committee members, and discussing the theme for next year’s conference. This will be held in early May at SOAS.

By Colin Reilly
Language, Gender and Sexuality SIG:

Language, Discrimination and Conflict

(University of Nottingham, 27 April 2017)

The tenth BAAL Language, Gender and Sexuality SIG event, hosted by Lucy Jones (University of Nottingham) and Jai Mackenzie (University of Birmingham), aimed to address issues of discrimination and conflict as they are played out through language. At this event, we explored the ways in which discrimination and conflict may be linguistically constructed, rationalised, and defused. The event was timed to immediately precede the 24th Annual Lavender Language and Linguistics conference, also held at The University of Nottingham and organised by Lucy Jones. The overlapping themes of the two events and the international appeal of the Lavender Linguistics conference was a significant factor in encouraging a large number of new members to attend this event. There were forty-five delegates in total, twenty of whom were PhD students, making for a stimulating day of conversation and debate.

The event included two plenary talks, which bookended the day. The first was by Professor Celia Kitzinger (University of York), who spoke about gender and sexuality in talk-in-interaction, and the second was by Dr. Erez Levon (Queen Mary University of London), who gave a presentation titled ‘Negotiating subjective conflict: Language and the dialogical self’. In between these two talks, eight short-format talks took place over two parallel sessions: for the first time at this event, the organisers had circulated an open call for papers. Seventeen proposals were received in total, showing an excellent range of research projects and clear interest in the event, and the eight most relevant and highest quality abstracts were selected for presentation. These eight talks were given by speakers at all stages of their careers, including PhD students, early career researchers, and established academics up to Professor level. Presentations were given by speakers who had travelled to Nottingham from around the UK as well as from Germany, Australia, India, and Canada. The event was officially closed with a roundtable discussion that brought the group together to consider key issues and themes arising from the day’s talks. The majority of delegates then took part in an informal networking event arranged at a nearby bar on the University of Nottingham campus.

Three important themes emerged from this event. Firstly, a number of papers considered the struggles that take place around the access to and creation of ‘official’ meanings around gender and sexuality, and who has the power to create and reproduce these meanings. Melanie Burns, for example, outlined the issues associated with language and marriage in Australia, demonstrating how it was only after the question of same-sex marriage began to be raised that a government decision was made to officially define marriage within the Marriage Act as ‘between a man and a woman’. Similarly, Lisa Armstrong showed how a lack of clear definition of what ‘sexual harassment’ is in policies used within the Canadian hospitality industry makes it difficult for female staff to distinguish between what is acceptable and discriminatory practice. In related talks, Arpita Kanjilal explored conflicts between official and in-group definitions of ‘Hijra’ identity, whilst Eva Nossem showed how dictionary definitions of categories relating to gender and sexuality such as ‘gender queer’, ‘lesbian’, and ‘gay’ across a range of languages may conflict with the way individuals who see themselves as part of these groups define them.

Feminism and sexism in online media contexts was a second key theme. Presentations showed how struggles between different groups with opposing interests are played out in social media contexts, including Sophie Payne’s
account of online feminist groups such as The Everyday Sexism Project, and Louise Mullany and Dimitra Vladimirou’s consideration of online responses to Nottinghamshire Police’s recent categorisation of misogyny as a hate crime. Mullany and Vladimirou, importantly, highlighted the corporate responsibility of sites like Twitter to control (hetero) sexism and other forms of online abuse in these spaces. Presentations also focused on the reproduction of heteronormative and discriminatory practice through the media, with Robert Lawson and Mark McGlashan showing how an online ‘pick up artist’ community plays an important role in reinforcing misogynistic beliefs about women, and Laura Coffey-Glover demonstrating that the controversial record *Blurred Lines* is interpreted by listeners as representative of how ‘all men’ feel about women.

Finally, a popular theme in the roundtable discussion was the practical and ethical concerns that arise for academics researching conflict and discrimination in a range of contexts. Discussants emphasised the importance of considering the needs of groups who are being researched, especially in ethnographic studies, as well as some of the difficulties that may be presented in researching marginalised and/or vulnerable groups, such as gaining trust and offering reciprocal benefits.

This thought-provoking event offered many reminders that there is still much work to be done to investigate the ways in which language can ignite and perpetuate discriminatory practice and, importantly, how language can also be a tool for resisting and challenging such practices. Papers covered a range of theoretical, methodological and analytical approaches for the study of language, gender and sexuality – from corpus linguistics to conversation analysis to critical discourse studies – reminding delegates of the diversity of research taking place in this exciting field. The day also confirmed that the struggles and challenges that are played out around meanings associated with gender and sexuality continue to be a key area for applied linguistic research.

At the Annual General Meeting, which took place during the lunch break, it was agreed that the eleventh SIG event would be hosted in 2018 by Pia Pichler at Goldsmiths, University of London.

![Delegates from the event de-briefing after a busy day](image_url)

*By Jai Mackenzie*
Book Reviews


This book is a well-rounded and comprehensive account of the concept of Community Translation (CT), an emerging sub-field that has been, until recently, neglected and under-researched. With the current refugee crisis and the movement of different groups of people into diverse parts of the world where their first language is not spoken, Community Translation is a well-timed book that highlights the urgency of further exploration of CT. In line with the often-overlooked social perspective that the book takes toward CT, the main thesis of the book is ensuring minority group speakers’ access to information critical to their settlement in host communities. It does so by discussing issues related to reception as well as readership, and pointing out the poor attention paid to translator training and promotion of practice. The book embarks on a significant social mission, empowering the powerless, at a time where CT is facing several challenges. Thus, the authors call for a collaboration between the interested parties, be they academics, practitioners, commissioners or policy makers.

The book opens by explaining what CT is and what is it not, avoiding it being confused with other similar practices, such as ‘Public Service Translation’. CT is an area that addresses the need for provision of written language services, making communication between service providers/governmental sectors (using the majority language) and service recipients (minority language speakers) possible. This definition necessarily gives rise to three issues around CT that need to be tackled: power imbalance, language imparity and audience diversity. These issues refer to the existing asymmetry, in terms of language and knowledge, between the two groups: majority language speakers and their clients. This asymmetry is a result of the lack of cultural and administrative parallel between the societies from which minority group speakers come and the host society. In addition, the diverse nature of the multilingual community, whose members belong to different linguistic, ethnic, and educational backgrounds, further complicates community translators’ task. The chapter closes with a number of issues that need to be addressed to overcome these challenges, for instance, the need to generate more research in the field and make translation services a human right. Encouraging good practice among translators is also discussed through providing various examples, ranging from Canada and Australia to South Africa.

The second chapter highlights the centrality of the reader who should be the focus of translators’ attention while translating. To ensure this, the chapter highlights the invaluable role of translators in achieving this goal. Therefore, issues associated with translators’ task of transferring meaning and functioning as cultural mediators between the host community and the target reader are raised. The chapter also discusses translators’ stance and whose perspective they may take to ‘iron out cultural differences’ (p.35) between text producers and text readers. The authors then move on to give two examples of the cultural issues that community translators may face. Such issues manifest themselves not only linguistically, but also in terms of text layout and presentation that vary from one language group to another.

The next chapter discusses some theories and approaches in translation studies in general, pointing out how each contributed to developing a holistic approach to CT. The central focus in CT on audience is reiterated in this chapter where the authors explicitly argue for adopting a ‘reader-oriented’ approach. To meet the needs of target readers, translators need to make decisions regarding the way in which they may meet these needs and the possibility of
turning translation into a process of ‘reproduction’, ‘mediation’ or ‘contextualisation’. Based on previous experiences of community translators, the chapter concludes that translators will always need such decision, for example, remaining faithful to the text or prioritising understanding.

The next two chapters (4 and 5) provide specific examples of documents and situations or events that may pose a number of challenges to translators. Official documents are a clear example of texts where translators’ intervention and local knowledge of both host and target communities is critical. This is particularly true when translating birth or educational certificates where big differences between the cultural and legal conventions followed by different language groups exist. The chapter then presents a case study of the Hajj, an Islamic event where hugely diverse groups are clustered in one place, rendering communication more important than ever. This event is used to illustrate the need for flexibility and considering unconventional modes of translation, such as audio and visual media, depending on the target audience’s needs. Despite efforts made by authorities, inappropriate accommodation to pilgrims’ various languages and poor implementation of translation quality measures were reported.

The sixth chapter offers an in-depth discussion of the concept of 'quality,' not only of the linguistic aspects of a text, but also the 'production' side of the target text. More importantly, the authors argue that translation quality is better achieved through a successful management of the relation between translators and agencies. It is the role played by agencies in ensuring quality, such as appropriate selection and briefing of translators, is of great significance. To follow up on the topic of quality, the seventh chapter is dedicated to a specific translation quality measure, that is the process of revision of other translators' work. The chapter defines the revision process and distinguishes it from other processes, such as proofreading and editing. While the earlier occurs within a bilingual capacity, the latter two often occur within a monolingual mode. The chapter ends with a number of steps to be taken to manage the revision process and ensure its neutrality, for instance, providing community feedback and creating needed terminology.

The penultimate chapter provides various (teaching and training) resources and useful literature related to the sub-field of CT. The resources include a range of books and articles that cover different languages and communities, and societal sectors. The book concludes by highlighting the need for implementing technology to further the development of CT practice. The authors also anticipate the potential effects of the advances in communication technology on the extent of the 'locality' of communities that CT serves.

The book is very engaging and easy to follow, enriched with illustrative examples from different parts of the world. Such a book is very likely to be incorporated, if not already, into the syllabus of different translation courses and is a useful resource for academics working within the field of translation studies. It is an insightful training or practical guide for both beginning and experienced community translators and practitioners. Further, the book is accessible enough that I expect it will be of interest to different readerships and is a good starting point for those interested in gaining a general overview of the area.

By Hanan Ben Nafa, Manchester Metropolitan University

Jan Hulstijn explores the notion of language proficiency in native and non-native speakers by presenting theories of Basic, and Higher, Language Cognition (BLC and HLC) in this well-written book. It has two well-argued and justified parts. In the first part, Hulstijn presents both his BLC and HLC theory as well as his theoretical scientific background, whilst in the second part, he presents selected empirical research to explain language proficiency with native and non-native speakers and the relationship between literacy in a first (L1) and in a second language (L2), which demonstrates the context and extent of both theories.

In the first part, Hulstijn explains his theoretical background and sets this theoretical foundation. He starts by explaining the line of scientific inquiry that he follows. He adopts the critical rationalist viewpoint (Popper, 1959) and, as a good researcher, Hulstijn unravels some fundamental questions concerning language acquisition. He presents the views of two main linguistic schools, the generative and the usage-based schools of linguistic theory. He continues by explaining his theory of BLC and HLC and defining its terms. Hulstijn is interested in both deep and straightforward explanations of this theory, and constructs a balanced explanation including the views of his own critics. At the same time, he builds the construct of his theory by narrowing down his definitions, as well as finding similarities and differences in contrast to other linguistic models, those of Bernstein, Cummins, Bialystok and Cook. He looks at implications for both groups, native and non-native speakers. The theory is discussed with the aim of increasing our understanding of, first, the phenomenon of language acquisition, and, secondly, of the commonalities and differences between L1 and L2 speakers. Hulstijn states corollaries which constitute his theory and he opens academic debate for both support and for Popperian falsification of his theory.

The second part of the book is focused on research evidence. As a beginning, commonalities and differences in the language proficiency of native speakers are examined. The fact that literature on what adult L1 speakers actually know, or what might be performance norms for an L1, does not exist is taken into consideration. Hulstijn reviews studies that look at effects of age and level of education with the focus on the oral domain and suggests areas for further research.

Hulstijn focuses the next chapter on the components of language proficiency. He presents some methodological and conceptual issues and then reviews empirical studies that looked at the nature of components of L2 proficiency in a wide sense first, and, then, in the four integrated skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking. Hulstijn tries to cast explanatory light upon issues that correlational studies present, such as error-free measurement, variability, relative weight of components, collinearity, positive manifold, reliability and validity. He manages to offer explanations of statistical terms and research examples applied to linguistics in ways that smooth his reader’s understanding of components of language proficiency and the ways they might act together. In his discussion, he concludes that it is difficult to find evidence of a psychological trait model, and that only the relative contributions of components skills can be used to explain differences in integrated skills such as reading comprehension, composition writing etc. He finally highlights conceptual matters that need to be taken into consideration in order to interpret correlational studies.

Hulstijn examines the relationships between L1 and L2 literacy. He explores theoretical claims of scholars such as
Cummins, Goodman, Clarke and Alderson and reviews studies that focus on writing and reading. The studies reviewed offer some answers to the complex analysis of associations between L1 and L2 literacy.

He also carefully explores language proficiency in research on L2 acquisition and bilingualism. He addresses the problem of assessing and comparing language proficiency in each of the languages of bilinguals and multilinguals in parallel and equally salient ways, and offers some methodological recommendations.

In the last chapter of part two, Hulstijn looks at the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) from the perspective of BLC and HLC theory and examines whether CEFR can be applied to native speakers. He presents some issues demonstrated by CEFR levels, but, at the same time, he critically analyses convergences and divergences of the CEFR framework. Further empirical research is suggested in order to give a deeper insight into these CEFR issues.

Hulstijn’s book offers stimulating reading for researchers, undergraduate and postgraduate students of linguistics, language assessors and anyone else interested in the similarities and differences of native and non-native speakers and language proficiency. The book is very well structured and signposted. He writes in a clear and concise manner, describing what he explores in each chapter, and how this theory gets involved in every practical attempt at empirical study, giving specific examples of studies and analysing their methodological or conceptual problems. Hulstijn presents himself as very even-handed towards other scholars and researchers, and he does justice in his appreciation of their achievements. He presents his theory in an honest, fair and scientific manner without any effort to hide from his critics or avoid areas that might need to be re-examined and further researched. From the beginning, he acknowledges and rehearses his own standpoints, and his scientific roots. Finally, important points are always summarised at the end of each chapter.

A wealth of footnotes and appendices are also provided for clarification and further information on specific issues, always accompanied with a number of extensive and comprehensive references.

Even though the topic areas are intricate and complex, it is difficult for readers to feel lost or academically misguided, because Hulstijn is very good at presenting facts and theory, summarising empirical studies, and putting forward methodological and conceptual problems, keeping the reader consistently on the track of his argument. He manages to present different approaches in an explanatory manner and bring them together in a conciliatory way that minimises confusion. The book could be considered as a seminal work for the presentation and analysis of complex phenomena such as language proficiency. Hulstijn, with his high academic style, has managed to present all the facets of a complicated linguistic phenomenon in a way that invites sober and well-rounded academic debate.

Reference:


By Argyro Kanaki, University of Dundee

English and Marr’s *Why do linguistics?* is an "overview of sociolinguistics" book reminiscent of Mooney and Evans (1999) or any other number of introductory texts suitable for undergraduate courses. The book is replete with examples of language in society, collected personally by the authors themselves, and is ripe material for challenging students to broaden their perspectives of language in varying social situations and genres. While not a handbook, it does set out to offer answers to the question posed in the title, and in doing so establishes a solid foundation for advanced work in applied linguistics.

The book is divided into three "Parts", each part further subdivided into five chapters, making a total of 15 distinct thematic explorations of language in use. Most chapters begin with a short introduction and conclude with a short list of suggested readings, offering ample material for readers to further explore any of the dozens of linguistic phenomena described throughout the book. Part One, "Reflective linguistics", is an overview of language in society and begins with several authentic examples of real-world discourse. As the reader will soon discover, and as the authors point out in the final remarks of Chapter 15, most of the personally collected examples derive from their experience in London, a city they describe as "super-diverse" (Vertovec, 2006), a term used to describe the "vast range of cultures and contexts" which can produce any number of "jarring outcomes" with regards to the use of English as both a first and second language (p. 30). For the reader, this makes the book distinctly British in content, a quality that the authors hope does not distract from the main objective of the material, namely that developing an intimate knowledge of language has great benefit beyond academia. While an understanding of British language and culture would enhance the reading experience, a lack thereof does not detract from the authors' aim.

Part One continues its overview of linguistics and communication by addressing some of the more prominent issues to emerge from language use in it social settings. Most notable are the sections on defining "text" and multimodality (Chapter 1), correctness and standard varieties of English (Chapter 2), phatic language (Chapter 3), and language diversity, including language planning, shift, diglossia, codes, and translanguaging (Chapter 4). Chapter 5 ends Part One with a comparison of languages regarding lexis, inflection, syntax, phonology, ideologies, and the idea of Chomsky's Universal Grammar. Indeed, it is with a broad stroke of the linguistic brush that the uninitiated is offered in Part One a peek into some of the problems and potentials of language and culture. The authors concede as much in the conclusion to Chapter 5, choosing the apt metaphor of "whetting the appetite" for the subsequent ten chapters (p. 92).

Part Two, "The study of language", builds on the communication-based foundation of Part One, and sets out to offer the reader some "foundational linguistic tools" to develop their own "analytical repertoire" (p. 97). Chapter 6 begins by offering some metalinguistic distinctions regarding semantics and pragmatics, phonetics and phonology, and grammar, or morpho-syntax. Chapter 7 addresses several key concepts in discourse analysis, including context, genre, register, mode, and thematic arrangement, among others. Chapters 8 and 9 address spoken language and written language, respectively. Part Two concludes with Chapter 10 which discusses word choice and semiotic resources, including categories, shift, and modalizing with regards to authority, ideology, and arrangement. Overall, Part Two is constructed systematically, with Chapters 6 and 7 offering an analytical framework, Chapters 8 and 9
showing how that framework can be employed to analyze language, and Chapter 10 offering a glimpse into how we, from a more personal standpoint, shape our own communication to achieve specific communicative purposes.

Part Three "Why do linguistics?", contrary to the first ten chapters which slowly honed the reader's understanding of linguistics and language in use, broadens the field of view and sets out to offer a plausible answer to the question posed in the title: Why do linguistics? The answer is multifaceted and broadly begins with linguistic knowledge as a contribution to "the social world", "the educative process", "our general knowledge", "globalization", and "connectivity between people" (p. 189). In more detail, Chapter 11 addresses translanguaging, code mixing and switching, idiosyncratic language use, and repertoires. Chapter 12 addresses linguistic ignorance and language education for both L1 and L2 individuals. Chapter 13, perhaps the most dense chapter of the book, looks at language as a taught subject in school and delves into the history of Modern Foreign Language (MFL) and Knowledge about Language (KAL) in the UK school system. Chapter 14 looks at language in the workplace, and Chapter 15 concludes the book by laying out four claims for the study of linguistics: 1) it promotes critical thinking; 2) it defines us as humans beings and so should be considered part of our general knowledge base; 3) it empowers; and 4) it is fun, which is an attempt to evict the idea of linguistics from its academic housing. In the words of the authors, "We...suggest that doing linguistics is fun because it adds a new dimension to our everyday interactions and experiences" (p. 264).

Overall, Why do linguistics? is an accessible book for initiates to the field of linguistics, offering plenty of real-world examples, definitions of key terms, opportunities for applications of linguistic frameworks, and even a bit of history. The material builds to Chapter 15, constantly referring back to previous chapters, and delivers the potentially dense material in succinct, digestible amounts. It offers an ample number of texts as suggested readings for further explorations of key concepts, and introduces to the reader all of the relevant research and researchers, including Blommaert, Cameron, Carter, Coulthard, Crystal, Fairclough, Gee, Halliday, Kress, and Scollon, among many others. I will most likely be introducing this book to my undergraduate students and may even rely on it for some examples for my Language and Culture course.

References


By Mario Leto, Meiji University, Japan

In recent years, there has been an endless stream of books on how to write research papers or reports, Dörnyei (2007) and Bitchener (2010) being two examples. But this book is very suitable for new researchers when they step into the field of applied linguistics.

The book consists of three major parts: general considerations for writing on quantitative research (Chapters 2 to 5), writing about specific statistical procedures (Chapters 6 to 12) and publishing quantitative research in applied linguistics (Chapters 13 to 15). In addition, in order to help the readers understand abstract statistical terms, the author provides a Glossary of Key Terms.

Chapter 1, The Introduction, states the target readers of the book, i.e., novice researchers and graduate students. Then the author elaborates on the common components of writing in quantitative research, such as literature review, research question(s) and research methods. In this chapter, the author reminds readers to consider the purposes of writing and text varieties (graduate texts or published texts), text purpose, audience, expectations, norms and conventions.

Chapters 2 to 5 constitute the first part, which describes the essential components of writing about quantitative research. Chapters 6 to 12 select the most frequently used statistical techniques used in quantitative applied linguistics research, namely, T-test, ANOVA (ANCOVA, MANOVA), regression, correlation, factor analysis, structural equation modelling and non-parametric tests. In these chapters, the author does not speak too much about the statistical theories, instead, she clearly unfolds the essential points concisely by dividing each chapter into different sections: an introduction with lists of key points, technical information including steps of statistical processing, writing about the statistical technique with examples from different sources, common shortcomings and effective guidelines for writing about this technique point by point. After a short summary of the whole chapter, the author lists questions to help the readers reflect on what they have learned in this chapter. In the last two sections Further reading and Sources of examples, the author suggests good books and articles for the readers.

The last part, composed of three chapters (Chapters 13 to 15), mainly discusses the issue of publishing quantitative research in applied linguistics academic journals, and writing books or book chapters. Chapter 15 briefly introduces three major academic writing styles, APA, MLA and Chicago. After this chapter, there is a resource pool of useful websites and books on carrying out and reporting quantitative research.

The problematic issues related to quantitative studies, especially for novice researchers, are how to select the appropriate techniques and draft a convincing report. Although there have already been numerous books talking about data processing in applied linguistics, there is still need for a concise handbook for these researchers. This book meets the need. Unlike some books which first present statistical formulae, Woodrow, standing on the side of an applied linguist, doesn’t make many efforts to explain statistical theory, but goes directly to summarize core conditions for a certain statistical analysis. In order to demystify complex statistical procedures, she elaborates the steps one-by-one and cites ample examples from key international journals, like *Language Learning, TESOL QUARTERLY, Applied Linguistics*, etc. and well-written PhD theses, to explain how to practice it in real studies. For instance, when talking about Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) in applied linguistic research, Woodrow uses four
examples (example 11.2 to 11.5) to tell readers what is involved in describing the steps in SEM analysis and what parameters need to be evaluated for confirming a model. In order for early career researchers to learn how to produce high-quality reports, Woodrow provides possible common shortcomings and effective guidelines at the end of each point. She selects different examples from various types of texts to analyze what should be contained in an unpublished dissertation but should not be necessary in an academic article. For example, reliability and validity are two essential components in quantitative research. They should be reported in a dissertation in detail but are not a must in a journal article, which is illustrated by the author with four examples (examples 3.1 to 3.4).

This book is friendly to read not only because of the clear and concise structures I mentioned, but also the simple language Woodrow uses. Statistics can be complicated and mysterious for applied linguists, especially for those who have less or no solid mathematics base. Considering this barrier, Woodrow develops the whole book using scientific but not obscure language. She puts her own understanding into the texts and makes visible what’s between the lines. In the glossary, each statistical term has a lively definition and is easy to understand. The simple language and good organization of the book will ease the pressure on researchers with no background in statistics who feel anxious about learning how to run statistical procedures.

What’s more, this book carefully captures current trends in the application of statistics in applied linguistics. SEM, one of the advanced statistical methods for exploring the relationship between latent variables and observed variables, has attracted attention in applied linguistics in the most recent decade. In this book, the author tells the readers how to carry out such research and produce a report. The last but not the least impressive point is the attention to effect size in quantitative applied linguistics. This parameter is key for meta-analysis and explaining inferential statistical analysis. But it is not always talked about in research articles or books in applied linguistics. In this book, the author elaborates on how to calculate and explain effect size from Chapter 6 to 12.

All in all, this book acts as a really good reference book and provides great help to researchers in conducting quantitative research efficiently. It offers a body of guidelines for new researchers in the field of applied linguistics when they write about quantitative research.

References


By Honggang Liu, Northeast Normal University, China

This volume is aimed at beginning researchers, and has a double aim: introducing them to the lognistics software toolbox, while at the same time providing a critical look at the toolbox and the research topics for which it can be used. The book has 11 chapters, organized in six parts reflecting major research areas: processing vocabulary data, measuring lexical variation, sophistication and originality, estimating vocabulary size, measuring lexical access, assessing aptitude for L2 vocabulary learning and modelling vocabulary growth. Each of the chapters is structured in the same way. First, there is an introduction about what the software tool does – of varying length, depending on complexity of the programme. This is followed by a practical instruction on how to use the tool and a research paper using (a precursor of) the tool – in most cases the first paper to do so. Then, there is a reflection on this paper and a survey of possible research questions. The research questions are of different types, some focusing on the application of the tools, some focusing on the fine-tuning of the tools. A few read more like discussion questions or questions for further reflection, and are harder to operationalize.

The first chapter introduces tools that allow the user to make wordlists from short texts and compare such lists. It draws attention to the problems of doing automated word counts, and introduces basic notions like Zipf’s law, vocabulary load and vocabulary coverage. The second chapter introduces a programme to calculate D – a measure of lexical diversity introduced by Malvern et al. (2004) as a more stable alternative to type/token ratio. The chapter again sounds a critical note, demonstrating that D does not always reliably distinguish between groups of different levels, which indicates that lexical richness may not be fully captured by lexical diversity measures. It is exactly this point that is taken up in the next chapter, introducing $P_{\text{lex}}$ as a way of measuring lexical sophistication. $P_{\text{lex}}$ uses frequency information, and as such is similar to Nation and Laufer’s (1998) lexical frequency profiles; the difference lies in the fact that $P_{\text{lex}}$ uses a sampling method, and is less dependent on text length; it also yields a single factor, Lambda, as output, which makes it easier to compare scores across texts. $P_{\text{lex}}$ is the first example of several ‘engineering solutions’ developed by Paul Meara – these start from an attempt to find a working solution to a problem, while the theoretical grounding needs to be developed. This is also why the authors emphasize that many of the tools are ‘work in progress’, to be refined on the basis of further experimental research. Chapter 4 introduces another way of looking at lexical sophistication. It introduces two programmes (LexSig and SigSorter) that yield ‘signatures’ in binary code on the basis of a comparison of the vocabulary of a text to a wordlist of ten items occurring in 50% of a corpus of texts of which the text in question is a part. The idea is that signatures can be used to distinguish between texts of different levels. Chapter 5 approaches the relation between vocabulary and proficiency in another way. Rather than take a written (or spoken) text as a starting point, $V_{\text{Unique}}$ uses a picture to elicit adjectives as a test of lexical originality. The elicited data can be compared to (a) all other data collected so far, (b) a stable set of 100 upper intermediate/advance FL, (c) a stable set of 100 native speakers; the latter two comparisons can be used as benchmarks. At present, the authors are still exploring ways of scoring the data; at the same time, they envisage other possible uses relating to estimating vocabulary size or lexical availability.

Vocabulary size measures are the topic of the next two chapters. Chapter 6 focuses on Meara’s version of the Yes/No test. Test takers are presented with 200 items (100 real/100 artifacts) and asked to say ‘yes’ only if they know the meaning of the target word. This, together with a guessing correction based on the number of ‘false alarms’, results
in a score of vocabulary size between 0 and 10000 items. Although the authors take care to explain the formula for the calculation—something they do throughout the book—the table with reference values (6.1) is hard to interpret because the names of the values do not match those used in the formula. Like many other size measures, this measure also relies on sampling, and as such it is also sensitive to the existence of cognates and other related words. Chapter 7 introduces V_Size, which was developed as an alternative for one of the uses originally proposed for Laufer and Nation’s (1995) Lexical Frequency Profile (LFP), viz. the measuring of free productive vocabulary. Where the LFP yields a description of the range of vocabulary used in a specific writing task, V_size calculates a score for vocabulary range based on random 100-word samples of a text — this means it can also be used with the short texts typical of less proficient users. It then matches these scores to a number of theoretical profiles for different vocabulary sizes based on Zipf’s law. V_Size uses different lists from other LFP-measures, and also allows for manual adjustment of the proposed frequency level of a word so that topic effects can be neutralized. Like other LFP measures, V_Size may be task dependent, and like all existing frequency counts, it does not take into account polysemy and the fact that different meanings of words can have different frequencies. The willingness of Meera and Miralpeix to explore uncharted territory comes fully to the fore in chapter 9. V_Capture is a programme that was built to simulate the capture/recapture technique (Petersen, 1896) used to make estimates of animal populations. In spite of the fact that the two situations are not fully analogous, which means the Petersen estimate cannot be taken as absolute size measure, the method does show promise in that it allows comparisons of performances and/or tasks.

The three final chapters each deal with a different topic. Q_Lex attempts to measure lexical accessibility using a variant of the lexical decision task, Llama_B uses a 20-item picture/nonsense word learning task to assess aptitude for vocabulary learning, and Mezzofanti is an experimental tool to model vocabulary growth. Meera has always been a strong advocate of modelling as an alternative technique to gain an insight into longitudinal vocabulary development (acquisition or loss). The reason is that modelling is “a useful way of generating ideas for future research” (p. 233). Like many of the other tools, this one allows the user to manipulate parameters in an attempt to get as close as possible to the messy realities of learning a language, without losing control.

In sum, this book more than lives up to its promise. It provides young researchers with a range of ideas and the tools to start exploring them. At the same time it is a thorough introduction to the issues involved in vocabulary research, and takes a critical look at both issues and tools. And although I probably no longer qualify as a novice researcher — age forbids — I still find that it opens up a wealth of new perspectives and ideas for research.

By Paul Pauwels, University of Leuven

The Cambridge Guide to Research in Language Teaching and Learning covers 36 core areas of second language research in one volume and, in the process, offers up-to-date information from experts in the field about a wide variety of types of research. It does so in considerable depth, but without getting bogged down in the intricacies of any particular research method. The book is aimed at an audience of “students of research” — that is, pre-service or in-service language teachers interested in research methods, as well as those studying research methods in Bachelor, Masters or PhD programmes around the world.

The overall organization of the book helps readers to see the connections between and among the chapters. The book includes four main sections (and subsections) as follows:

- Primary Considerations;
- Getting Ready (including Preliminary Decisions, Choosing a Research Method, and Choosing a Research Type);
- Doing the Research (including Preliminary Steps, Data Gathering, and Reporting Findings);
- Research Contexts.

The introduction written by the editors gives a brief explanation of research in language teaching and learning and how it has evolved since the early 1980s. They go on to explain how the proliferation of research options described in this book makes it difficult to define the notion of research in such a way that it fits all of the various types of research in our field, yet is precise enough to be meaningful. For the purposes of this book, they have used the version that appeared in Brown (2004, p. 478): “any systematic and principled inquiry in applied linguistics”. They then go on to talk about “research literacy” and how helping readers develop this notion is one of the primary purposes of this book.

Each section begins with a set of questions to consider before reading the chapters involved. One way to review the chapters would be to revisit these questions to see how our answers have changed and expanded. This is followed by discussion questions and references at the end of each chapter, providing multiple opportunities for reflection, discussion and further reading.

In Section 1, the book addresses primary considerations that researchers should consider before setting up a research project. The four chapters in this section examine why we read and do research, how we critique the research of others, how we get funding and grants to support our research, and how research can be used to improve classroom teaching and learning.

In Section 2, Getting Ready, the chapters are about the issues involved in getting ready to do research, and thus, they examine ideas that need to be considered before starting a research project. It is organized into three sections on: A) Preliminary Decisions; B) Choosing a Research Method; and C) Choosing a Research Type. In Section 2A, the chapters cover the preliminary decisions that need to be made in a research project. While there are only two chapters, they are important ones about framing and defining a research project and deciding upon a research methodology. In Section 2B, Choosing a Research Method, the chapters cover the issues involved in choosing a research method on a fairly global level. There are four chapters that help us understand what general paradigms researchers are currently working in: quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods. In Section 2C, Choosing a Research Type, the chapters cover the issues involved in choosing a specific research type within the more global quantitative, qualitative, or mixed
methods paradigms. There are ten chapters in this section to help us think more specifically about some of the many research types in our field.

In Section 3, the chapters are about actually doing research, and thus, they examine ideas that need to be considered while conducting research projects. It is organized into three sections on: A) Preliminary steps; B) Data gathering; and C) Reporting findings. In Section 3A, the chapters cover the preliminary steps that need to be taken. These five chapters cover the important issues of doing a literature review and creating a research niche, conducting research ethically, dealing with human subjects reviews, creating effective research questions, and setting up sampling procedures that will serve the research well. In Section 3B, Data Gathering, the chapters cover the data-gathering processes necessary for any research. The seven chapters cover the processes of conducting interviews, constructing questionnaires, conducting focus groups, using introspective methods, designing and using rubrics, conducting diary studies, and analyzing data statistically. In Section 3C, Reporting Findings, the chapters cover the reporting of the findings that come out of a research project. The two chapters cover the important issues of presenting research and publishing research.

Section 4 is about research contexts. It consists of two chapters, one about using research for language programme evaluation, and the other comparing language teacher research across six continents. Chapter 35 begins by discussing the differences between the notions of research methods and programme evaluation then turns to contextual factors that may influence the choices of research strategies. Chapter 36 summarizes 68 language teacher research studies where all of the teacher researchers were systematically reflecting on their own teaching practices whilst addressing a wide range of topics and issues.

*The Cambridge Guide to Research in Language Teaching and Learning* does not explicitly take a stance regarding any specific type of research and though the chapters may sometimes present opposing, overlapping, and conflicting views and approaches, the aim is not to convince readers of a particular view or set of views, but to empower them to make fully informed choices about their own research interests. Altogether this volume is a very useful collection and serves to provide all “students of research” with a comprehensive overview of research methods in second language teaching and learning. The strengths of this volume are the practical advice on how to improve effectiveness in any research and the wealth of suggested readings and resources for further study in all of the areas of research covered.

As a final note on readership and usability, some of the chapters in this book require some previous understanding of research in language teaching and learning; notably Chapter 9 on Research Paradigms in Second Language Research. Readers may require additional reference materials or support to fully understand the scope and implications of this book. Aside from this, the book is generally well organized and is written in an informal and accessible voice, however, at times relies on a certain familiarity with linguistic terminology which should not be problematic for readers of *BAAL News* but may be a potential barrier for those at the beginning of their studies in this field.

References


*By Jodi Wainwright, National Institute of Applied Sciences, Bourges, France.*
The following books have been received for review. If you would like to review one of these books, please contact the Reviews Editor, Professor Christopher J Hall, School of Languages and Linguistics, York St John University (c.hall@yorksj.ac.uk). Your review should be submitted as an email attachment in MS Word within two months of receiving the book.


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BAAL/ROUTLEDGE WORKSHOP PROGRAMME 2017

Date: 18th - 19th January 2018

Organisers: Sally Zacharias, Dr Agnes Marszalek and Dr Marcello Giovanelli

Keynote speakers:  
Dr Wendy Anderson University of Glasgow  
Dr Ellen Bramwell University of Glasgow  
Professor Alice Deignan University of Leeds  
Dr Marcello Giovanelli Aston University  
Professor Jeannette Littlemore University of Birmingham  
Dr Jessica Mason Sheffield Hallam University  
Professor Elena Semino Lancaster University

COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS IN EDUCATION

The purpose of this workshop is to explore what recent research in the field of cognitive linguistics can offer education. Departing from traditional and functional approaches to language, cognitive linguistics provides teachers a unique way of exploring meaning and the relationship between thought and language. Recent research shows that applying a cognitive perspective in the classroom has very clear benefits for all teachers interested in literacy. However, as this is a relatively new field, the parameters have not yet been fully agreed upon by linguists. Therefore, this event is a step towards achieving more clarity and consensus, as well as offering established researchers, ECRs, postgraduate researchers and those interested in embarking on research in this area a space in which to discuss how a research agenda might be usefully taken forward. There are a number of 20 minute slots for ECRs and postgraduate researchers to present their research relating but not exclusively to any of the workshop’s objectives:

- To explore what recent research in cognitive linguistics can offer education. This includes language teaching (both L1 and L2) and content teaching at all levels of education; higher, secondary and primary.
- To consider how the principles of cognitive linguistics can be best applied in teaching by sharing and demonstrating new methods and techniques.
- To investigate the evidence that applying these principles can be beneficial to the learner.
- To examine the obstacles in carrying out research in this area and consider how these can be overcome.

If you are interested, we invite you to submit a 150 word abstract to cognitivelinguisticsglasgow@gmail.com by 30th November 2017. During an extended lunch break, all participants are invited to give a poster presentation, if they wish. Places are limited to 35 and will be allocated on a first-come first served basis. The cost of the day is £35 (concessions available), which includes lunch and refreshments. The main event will take place on Friday 19th January, with an afternoon networking session for ECRs and PGRs on 18th January 3-5pm.

Event’s website: https://baalroutledgeworkshopcognitivelinguistics.wordpress.com

Supported by the Poetics and Linguistics Association.
### BAAL News Submission Deadlines

As always, the BAAL newsletter is looking forward to receiving submissions from members, be they reports from event, research developments, or discussion points. BAAL News is normally published twice a year: a winter issue, and a summer issue.

Please note that the submission deadline for the forthcoming issue is:

**07 January 2018** for the Winter Issue 2018 (appears in January 2018)

Please submit all material by email, with the subject line 'BAAL news' to:

bettina.beinhoff@anglia.ac.uk

Unless there is a very special reason, please submit material in Times New Roman, 12pt, left aligned (not justified). Please do not use text boxes, or try to format your contribution in any other way, as this complicates the reformatting. Contributions are limited to a maximum of 1000 words. Thank you.
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The British Association for Applied Linguistics

The aims of the Association are to promote the study of language in use, to foster interdisciplinary collaboration, and to provide a common forum for those engaged in the theoretical study of language and for those whose interest is the practical application of such work. The Association has around 1000 members, offers awards and an annual Book Prize. Individual Membership is open to anyone qualified or active in applied linguistics.

Applied linguists who are not normally resident in Great Britain or Northern Ireland are welcome to join, although they will normally be expected to join their local AILA affiliate in addition to BAAL. Associate Membership is available to publishing houses and to other appropriate bodies at the discretion of the Executive Committee. Institution membership entitles up to four people to be full members of BAAL.

Chair
Tess Fitzpatrick
Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics
Swansea University
Swansea SA2 8PP
t.fitzpatrick@swansea.ac.uk

Membership Secretary
Jess Briggs
Department of Education
University of Oxford
Oxford OX2 6PY
jess.briggs@education.ox.ac.uk

Membership administration
Andy Cawdell, Administrator
c/o Dovetail Management Consultancy
PO Box 6688
London SE15 3WB
email: admin@BAAL.org.uk
The British Association for Applied Linguistics

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