Endangered Languages
Language Planning Theory
Defense of the Mother Tongue

Miryam Yataco
Department of Teaching & Learning
Multilingual Multicultural Studies
Steinhardt School of Culture, Education & Human Development

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• Introduction: Endangered Languages
“According to the Foundation for Endangered Languages, there are approximately 6,000 to 7,000 living languages today. Of these, ten major languages constitute the native tongues of almost half of the world’s population. While not all of the remaining languages can be considered endangered, over half of them are.”

(Crystal 2000: 9; Foundation for Endangered Languages 2000).
Major languages in terms of numbers of speakers.
• Whatever the world’s linguistic diversity at the present, it is steadily declining, as local forms of speech increasingly become moribund before the advance of the major languages of the world. When a language ceases to be learned by young children, its days are clearly numbered, and we can predict with near certainty that it will not survive the death of the current native speakers.

• (Anderson, S. 2004 The Linguistic Society of America)
Around a quarter of the world’s languages have fewer than a thousand remaining speakers, and linguists generally agree in estimating that the extinction within the next century of at least 3,000 of the 6,809 languages listed by *Ethnologue*, or nearly half, is virtually guaranteed under present circumstances.

The threat of extinction thus affects a vastly greater proportion of the world’s languages than its biological species. (Anderson, S. 2004 The Linguistic Society of America)
Linguistic/cultural diversity on one hand and biodiversity on the other hand are correlated - where one type is high, the other one is usually too.

“Comparing the top 25 countries in terms of the number of endemic languages and the number of endemic vertebrates, conservationist David Harmon (1995) finds a high degree of overlap: 16 of the 25 top countries are on both lists. He has the same result when comparing languages and plants, languages and butterflies, etc - there is a high correlation between biological mega-diversity and rich linguistic diversity.”

• There is no reason for speakers of a “small” and perhaps unwritten languages to abandon that language simply because they also need to learn a widely used language such as Spanish, English or Mandarin.

Where there is no one dominant local language, and groups with diverse linguistic heritages come into regular contact with one another, multilingualism is a perfectly natural condition. (Anderson, S. 2004 The Linguistic Society of America)
“Factors such as the vitality of the language (number of speakers and number of domains); societal and cultural trends including migration and intermarriage; and language status and attitudes toward the language, among others, potentially contribute to the endangerment of a language.”

(Grenoble and Whaley 1998: viii–ix; see also the Endangered Languages and International Clearing House for Endangered Languages websites).
“When a language dies, a world dies with it, in the sense that a community’s connection with its past, its traditions and its base of specific knowledge are all typically lost as the vehicle linking people to that knowledge is abandoned.”

(Anderson, S. 2004 The Linguistic Society of America)
"Languages are today being killed and linguistic diversity is disappearing at a much faster pace than ever before in human history, and relatively much faster than biodiversity. [...]"

“...It is claimed that linguistic and cultural diversity are as necessary for the existence of our planet as biodiversity. [...]”

“Such a huge part of every culture is linguistically expressed that it is not wrong to say that most ethno cultural behaviours would be impossible without their expression via the particular language with which these behaviours have been traditionally associated.”

(Fishman, J 2000 Can Threatened Languages Be Saved?)
Education (in content and in practice), the legal system (its abstract prohibitions and concrete enforcements), religious beliefs and observances, the self-govern-mental operations, the literature (spoken and/or written), the philosophy of morals and ethics, the medical code of illnesses and diseases, greetings ... establishment of friendship ... are not only linguistically expressed but they are normally enacted, at any given time, via the specific language with which these activities grew up, have been identified and have been generationally associated."

(Fishman, J 2000 Can Threatened Languages Be Saved?)
“Specific languages are related to specific cultures and to their attendant cultural identities at the level of doing, at the level of knowing and at the level of being.”

- (Fishman, J 2000 Can Threatened Languages Be Saved?)
Language Planning: Theory
• **Language planning** is a deliberate effort to influence the function, structure, or acquisition of a language or language variety within a speech community.

  (Kaplan B., Robert, and Richard B. Baldauf Jr.)

  • It is often associated with government planning, but is also used by a variety of non-governmental organizations, and even individuals.
1- Goals of language planning

- The goals of language planning differ depending on how each nation defines its own language policy (Spolsky, B.), linked to linguistic rights. Generally, these include instituting changes for the benefit of communication.

- Planning or improving effective communication can lead to other social changes such as language shift or assimilation, in turn providing another rationale for planning the structure, function and acquisition of languages. (Cobarrubias & Fishman).
2 - Types of Language Planning

2.1- Status planning

“Status planning is the allocation or reallocation of a language or variety to functional domains within a society, thus affecting the status, or standing, of a language.” (J. Fishman 2000)
2.1.1 - Language status

Language status is a concept distinct from, though intertwined with, language prestige and language function. Strictly speaking, language status is the position or standing of a language vis-à-vis other languages (Edwards J. 1996).

A language acquires status according to the fulfillment of four attributes, described in the same year, 1968, by two different authors, Heinz Kloss and William Stewart. Both stipulated four qualities of a language that determine its status. While Kloss’s and Stewart’s respective frameworks differ slightly, they emphasize four common attributes:
• **1 - Language origin** – whether a given language is indigenous or imported to the speech community.

• **2 – Degree of standardization** – the extent of development of a formal set of norms that define use of standard language. How do we agree on what is standard usage in a L.? Agreement may take place among the regulators of a language, such as language academies, ministries of education, etc. Clearly, whether conscious or unconscious acceptance occurs, it must be done by some “significant” group of people. (Language planning processes as per Joan Rubin, Bjorn H. Jernudd, Jyotirindra Das Gupta/Joshua Fishman, Charles A. Ferguson. Gruyter 1977).

The concept of standardization is extremely complex and has been associated with language development and sociolinguistic typology.

(Ferguson 1968; Rubin 1977; Jrenudd/Das Gupta 1971).
3- Legal status or linguistic rights

- **One official language** (e.g. French in France and English in the United Kingdom)
- **Joint official language** (e.g. English and Afrikaans in South Africa; French, German, Italian and Romansh in Switzerland)
- **Regional official language** (e.g. Igbo in Nigeria; Marathi in Maharastra, India)
  - **Promoted language** – lacks official status on a national or regional level but is promoted and sometimes used by public authorities for specific functions (e.g. Spanish in New Mexico; West African Pidgin English in Cameroon)
- **Tolerated language** – neither promoted nor proscribed; acknowledged but ignored (e.g. Native American languages in the United States)
- **Proscribed language** – discouraged by official sanction or restriction (e.g. Euskera or Basque during Francisco Franco’s regime in Spain; Macedonian in Greece) (Wardhaugh, Ronald, 2008).
Language standardization

- It is impossible to provide a generally acceptable single formulation and formalization of standardization. It is expected that the following criteria would present a unified concept:
- 1- The degree to which the norms of standardization are made explicit. This refers to the identification and specification of norms of usage and corrections in both speaking and writing which are prescribed or explicitly recognized and valued by academies and standard writers and speakers.
- 2- The degree of uniformity characteristic of a standard variety. This is meant to account for the multiplicity of norms which may be indicative of regional variation, spoken and written differences and a range rather than a point of standardization. It is an open question whether multiplicity of norms may be considered as functional and indicative of elaborate language structure.
- 3- The degree of acceptability of a standard variety. This accounts for the spread of a standard variety among many different sections of people in different regions.
- The degree to which a standard variety is codified. This refers to the extent to which rules of pronunciation, modes of speaking and writing formalized and are variable in books or manuals.

(Ammon, U. Status and function of languages and language varieties De Gruyter, 1989)
- **Vitality** - the ratio, or percentage, of users of a language with respect to another variable, such as the total population. Vitality also has to do with how well a language is being maintained, either through oral or written communication.

- The most commonly used factor in evaluating the vitality of a language is whether or not it is being transmitted from one generation to the next Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (GIDS) (Fishman 1991). This is mentioned by Dr. Joshua Fishman in his book *Reversing Language Shift: Theoretical and Empirical Foundations* as *Intergenerational Mother Tongue Continuity*. Endangerment can be ranked on a continuum from stability to extinction. Even when a language is labeled as “safe,” it does not guarantee language vitality, because at any time speakers may cease to pass on their language to the next generation.

- Six graded aspects of endangerment may be distinguished with regards to Intergenerational Language Transmission:

**GIDS** (Fishman J.A., 1991)

- **Safe (6):** The language is spoken by all generations. There is no sign of linguistic threat from any other language, and the intergenerational transmission of the language seems uninterrupted.
- **Stable yet threatened (5):** The language is spoken in most contexts by all generations with unbroken intergenerational transmission, yet multilingualism in the native language and one or more dominant language(s) has usurped certain important communication contexts. Note that multilingualism alone is not necessarily a threat to languages.
- **Unsafe (4):** Most but not all children or families of a particular community speak their language as their first language, but it may be restricted to specific social domains (such as at home where children interact with their parents and grandparents).
- **Definitively endangered (3):** The language is no longer being learned as the mother tongue by children in the home. The youngest speakers are thus of the parental generation. At this stage, parents may still speak their language to their children, but their children do not typically respond in the language.
- **Severely endangered (2):** The language is spoken only by grandparents and older generations; while the parent generation may still understand the language, they typically do not speak it to their children.
- **Critically endangered (1):** The youngest speakers are in the great-grandparental generation, and the language is not used for everyday interactions. These older people often remember only part of the language but do not use it, since there may not be anyone to speak with.
- **Extinct (0):** There is no one who can speak or remember the language.
1- Language Policy

http://ccat.sas.upenn.edu/plc/clpp/

Briefly, Language Policy is related to government decisions, often expressed through legislation, around how languages are used both informally and in educational settings. In practice, LP regulates language use, thus establishing or restricting the rights of individuals or groups to use and maintain their mother language.

Although nations historically have often used language policies to promote one official language at the expense of others, many countries now have policies designed to protect and promote regional and ethnic languages whose viability is threatened.

2 Types of language policies

2.1 Policies of assimilation
2.2 Policies of non-intervention
2.3 Policies of differentiated legal status
2.4 Policies of promotion of the official language
2.5 Sectoral policies
2.6 Bilingualism or trilingualism policies
  2.6.1 Based on non-territorialized individual rights
  2.6.2 Based on territorialized individual rights
  2.6.3 Based on territorial rights
2.7 Linguistic internationalization policies
2.8 Strategic multilingualism policies
2.9 Mixed linguistic policies
  2.9.1 Non-intervention (official language) and sectoral policies for minorities
  2.9.2 Non-intervention (official language) and assimilation policy for minorities
  2.9.3 Promotion of the official language and differentiated for minorities
  2.9.4 Promotion of the official language and sectoral policies for minorities
  2.9.5 Promotion of the official language and non-intervention for other languages
  2.9.6 Promotion of the official language, assimilation policy and territorial bilingualism for minorities
Languages spoken in Spain:

**Spanish** (the official L.)

Galician

Euskera (Basque)

Catalan

Aragonés

Asturian (a variety of the Romani)

Leonese

Calo (a variety of Gascon & Occitane)

Aranese (a variety of Gascon & Occitane)

Leonese, Fala, Extremaduran.
The languages of Italy
Languages in the U.K.

The following are the Celtic languages in use in the country:

- **Welsh** – More than 20% of the population of Wales can speak Welsh, according to a 2001 survey. An estimated 200,000 Welsh speakers currently live in England.

- **Gaelic, Scottish** – The alternative names are Albannach Gaidhlig, Gàidhlig, Gaelic, Erse and Scots Gaelic. This family of languages is spoken in the USA, Canada and Australia. Scottish Gaelic has around 58,650 speakers (census 2001).

- **Gaelic, Irish** – alternative names are Erse, Gaeilge and Irish.

- **Cornish** – The alternative names are Kernowek, Kernewek and Curnoack. The main language speakers are individuals below 20 years of age. According to a survey taken in 2001, the language emerged as a native national minority language. In 2003, 500 speakers of Cornish were reported.
Indigenous Languages in South America

The status of a language is established by:

1 - Language origin
2 - Degree of standardization
3 - Official language policy
4 - Status of linguistic rights
5 - Vitality
2.1.2 - Functional domains

William Stewart outlines ten functional domains in language planning (Stewart 1968):

- **Official** - An official language "functions as a legally appropriate language for all politically and culturally representative purposes on a nationwide basis." Often, the official function of a language is specified in a constitution (linguistic rights & language policy).

- **Provincial** - A provincial language functions as an official language for a geographic area smaller than a nation, typically a province or region. (e.g. French in Quebec) (Cooper, R. 1989)

- **Wider communication** - A language of wider communication is a language that may be official or provincial, but more importantly, functions as a medium of communication across language boundaries within a nation (e.g. Hindi in India; Swahili language in East Africa) (Cooper, R. 1989).

- **International** - An international language functions as a medium of communication across national boundaries (e.g. English). (Cooper, R. 1989)
Functional domains

- **Capital** - A capital language functions as a prominent language in and around a national capital. (e.g. Dutch and French in Brussels, Cooper, R., 1989)

- **Group** - A group language functions as a conventional language among the members of a single cultural or ethnic group (e.g. Hebrew amongst the Jews (Cooper, R., 1989).

- **Educational** - An educational language functions as a medium of instruction in primary and secondary schools on a regional or national basis. (Urdu in Pakistan and Bengali in Bangladesh) (Cooper, R., 1989).

- **School subject** - A school subject language is a language that is taught as a subject in secondary school or higher education. (e.g. Latin and Ancient Greek in English schools) (Cooper, R., 1989)

- **Literary** - A literary language functions as a language for literary or scholarly purposes (Ancient Greek, Classical Latin)

- **Religious** - A religious language functions as a language for ritual purposes of a particular religion (e.g. Classical Arabic for the reading of the Qu'ran Cooper, R., 1989).
2.2 - Corpus Planning

Corpus planning refers to the prescriptive intervention in the forms of a language, whereby planning decisions are made to engineer changes in the structure of the language (Ferguson, Gibson 2008). Corpus planning activities often arise as the result of beliefs about the adequacy of the form of a language to serve desired functions (Hornberger, N. 2006).
Unlike status planning, which is primarily undertaken by administrators, corpus planning generally involves planners with greater linguistic expertise. There are three traditionally recognized types of corpus planning: graphization, standardization, and modernization. (Ferguson, Gibson 2008)
2.2.1 - Graphization

- Graphization refers to development, selection and modification of scripts and orthographic conventions for a language (Liddicoat, A. 2005). The use of writing in a speech community can have lasting sociocultural effects, which include easier transmission of material through generations, communication with larger numbers of people, and a standard against which varieties of spoken language are often compared (Ferguson, Ch.1968).
Charles Ferguson on Graphization

- Linguist Charles A. Ferguson made two key observations about the results of adopting a writing system. **First**, the use of writing adds another variety of the language to the community’s linguistic repertory. Although written language is often viewed as secondary to spoken language, the vocabulary, grammatical structures and phonological structures of a language often adopt characteristics in the written form that are distinct from the spoken variety. **Second**, the use of writing often leads to an unscientific belief that the written language is the ‘real’ language, and speech is a corruption of it.
“Written language is viewed as more conservative, while the spoken variety is more susceptible to language change. However, this view ignores the possibility that isolated relic areas of the language may be less innovative than the written form or the written language may have been based on a divergent variety of the spoken language.” (Ferguson, Ch. 1968).
Establishing Writing Systems

One of the earliest kinds of corpus planning, called for as a language takes an official, standard, and educational functions as a result of changed status is the developing of an orthography. Writing has not been invented very often, but more commonly it has been borrowed and adopted from one language to another. (Spolsky, 2007 pp. 72)
Establishing Writing Systems

“Most recent orthographies are slight modifications of other alphabets. The roman alphabet is most commonly used, under the influence of European languages. The Stalinist policy of linguistic centralization involved also changing the orthographies of many languages in the Soviet area of influence from Roman or Arabic scripts to the Cyrillic in which Russian and related language are written.”

(Spolsky, 2007 pp. 72)
"A major component of the Turkish Westernization movement was to change from Arabic to Roman script. Romanization has been proposed for Hebrew and Chinese, but with no success." (Spolsky, 2007 pp. 72)

- However, maintaining a non-Roman alphabet is a daunting task nowadays, developing an orthography might be the first step in the process of standardization and modernization. The task of developing mass literacy is a huge one. (Spolsky, 2007 pp. 72)
In establishing a writing system for a language, corpus planners have the option of using an existing system or inventing a new one. This is a particularly complex and laborious task for languages labeled as oral.
The Ainu of Japan chose to adopt the Japanese language’s katakana script as the writing system for the Ainu language.

Katakana is designed for a language with a basic CV syllable structure, but Ainu contains many CVC syllables that cannot easily be adapted to this script style. As a result, Ainu uses a modified katakana system, in which syllable-final codas are consonants by a subscript version of a katakana symbol that begins with the desired consonant.

The Ainu (アイヌ?) (also called Ezo in historical texts) are an indigenous ethnic group of Japan. Historically, they spoke the Ainu language and related varieties and lived in Hokkaidō, the Kuril Islands, and much of Sakhalin. Most of those who identify themselves as Ainu still live in this same region, though the exact number of living Ainu is unknown. Because of a history of discrimination against ethnic minorities in Japan, people of Ainu descent have tended to hide their identities. Therefore, it is almost impossible to estimate the total number of Ainu, much less those of mixed heritage. Official estimates of the Ainu population are at around 25,000, while unofficially the number is upwards of 200,000 people.

Information about Ainu language and writing system:
- Oral literature in Ainu
Sequoyah

**Sequoyah** Ssiquoya, (1767–1843), named in English **George Gist** or **Guess**, was a Cherokee silversmith who in 1821 created a Cherokee syllabary, making reading and writing in Cherokee possible.

The Cherokee Nation rapidly began to use his syllabary and officially adopted it in 1825. Their literacy rate rapidly surpassed that of surrounding European-American settlers.

(From Wikipedia)

http://www.powersource.com/gallery/people/sequoyah.html
Article by Wilma Mankiller
An example of an invented script:

The Cherokee Syllabary

The appearance of some Cherokee symbols indicates visual borrowing from the English alphabet, but the phonetic values of these symbols do not correspond to their counterpart in English.

In other words, Sequoyah took the shape of these English letters and assigned new syllabic values to them. Other signs do not resemble any English letter at all. Therefore, we can assume that were completely invented by Sequoya.

The following chart lists all 85 signs in the Cherokee syllabary. Traditional transliteration letters are used as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Da</th>
<th>Ra</th>
<th>Tl</th>
<th>Dl</th>
<th>Cu</th>
<th>Iv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sga</td>
<td>Oka</td>
<td>Pga</td>
<td>Ygl</td>
<td>Agl</td>
<td>Jgu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tha</td>
<td>Pga</td>
<td>Ahi</td>
<td>Fho</td>
<td>Thu</td>
<td>Chv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tla</td>
<td>Ole</td>
<td>Pli</td>
<td>Glo</td>
<td>Mlu</td>
<td>Ily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ma</td>
<td>Olme</td>
<td>Hmi</td>
<td>Sml</td>
<td>Ymu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ona</td>
<td>Thna Gnah</td>
<td>Anel</td>
<td>Hni</td>
<td>Zno</td>
<td>Anu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tqua</td>
<td>Oque</td>
<td>Puui</td>
<td>Vquu</td>
<td>Oquu</td>
<td>Equv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Us</td>
<td>Os</td>
<td>Ase</td>
<td>Bsi</td>
<td>Tso</td>
<td>Esu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lda Wta</td>
<td>Sde Tre</td>
<td>Jdi Tli</td>
<td>Vdo</td>
<td>Sdu</td>
<td>Odv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sda Ltl</td>
<td>Ltle</td>
<td>Ctl</td>
<td>Jtl</td>
<td>Tlu</td>
<td>Ptlv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gtsa</td>
<td>Yse</td>
<td>Rtsi</td>
<td>Ktsa</td>
<td>Jtsu</td>
<td>Ctsv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gwa</td>
<td>Owe</td>
<td>Ow</td>
<td>Ow</td>
<td>Owu</td>
<td>Owv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ya</td>
<td>Ye</td>
<td>Yi</td>
<td>Yo</td>
<td>Yv</td>
<td>Bv</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Sequoyah Museum
http://www.sequoyahmuseum.org/
2.2.2 - Standardization

- Standardization is the process by which one variety of a language takes precedence over other social and regional dialects of a language (Christian, D. 1988).

- This variety comes to be understood as supra-dialect and the ‘best’ form of the language (Ferguson, Charles A. 1968). The choice of which language takes precedence has important societal consequences, as it confers privilege upon speakers whose spoken and written dialect conforms closest to the chosen standard (Wiley, Terrance G. 2003).
Standardization

- The standard that is chosen as the norm is generally spoken by the most powerful social group within the society, and is imposed upon the less powerful groups as the form to emulate.

- This often reinforces the dominance of the powerful social group and makes the standard norm necessary for socioeconomic mobility (Ferguson, Gibson 2006). In practice, standardization generally entails increasing the uniformity of the norm, as well as the codification of the norm (Ferguson, Charles A. 1968).
Modernization is a form of language planning that occurs when a language needs to expand its resources to meet functions. Modernization often occurs when a language undergoes a shift in status, such as when a country gains independence from a colonial power or when there is change in language education policy. (Christian, Donna 1988). The most significant force in modernization is the expansion of the lexicon, which allows the language to discuss topics in modern semantic domains.
Modernization

Language planners generally focus on creating new lists and glossaries to describe new technical terms, but it is also necessary to ensure that the new terms are consistently used by the appropriate sectors within society. While some languages such as Japanese and Hungarian have experienced rapid lexical expansion to meet the demands of modernization, other languages such as Hindi and Arabic have failed to do so. Rapid lexical expansion is aided by the use of new terms in textbooks and professional publications, as well as frequent use among specialists.
Modernization

- Issues of linguistic purism often play a significant role in lexical expansion, but technical vocabulary can be effective within a language, regardless of whether it comes from the language’s own process of word formation or from heavy borrowing from another language (Ferguson, Charles A. 1968). Some languages tend to exclusively use language internal processes to create new lexical items, while others borrow extensively from other languages to derive new words as part of modernization.
Normativism & Prescriptivism

When languages are developing new orthographies, rules of writing are to be flexible. Ideas imposed by Western Education that writing rules are set, clear unambiguous and to be enforced without any flexibility are detrimental to speakers of the target language. The idea of “correctness” is a mark of developed literate societies. In societies who are new to Western literacy, flexibility has to be present. (Spolsky, B. pp 73-74)

Prescriptivism, therefore, is an understandable development in a mass education system where successful learning of prestige speech styles is a first step in social upward mobility. It is however, unfortunately accompanied by a mistaken belief that speakers of non standard varieties of a L. are less intelligent, or less inherently capable than standard speakers. When linguists argue that all languages are equally good, they are attempting to fight the common prejudices that standard languages and their speakers are inherently superior to non-standard or minority languages & their speakers. (Spolsky, B. pp73,74)

Four overarching language ideologies motivate decision making in language planning. (Cobarrubias & Fishman 1983)

The first, linguistic assimilation, is the belief that every member of a society, irrespective of his-her native language, should learn and use the dominant language of the society.

Linguistic assimilation stands in direct contrast to the second ideology, linguistic pluralism - the recognition and support of multiple languages within one society.
Examples include the coexistence of French, German, Italian, and Romansh in Switzerland and the shared status of English, Malay, Tamil, and Chinese in Singapore.

The third ideology, **vernacularization**, denotes the restoration and development of an indigenous language along with its adoption by the state as an official language. Examples include Hebrew in the state of Israel and Quechua in Peru.

The final ideology, **internationalization**, is the adoption of a non-indigenous language of wider communication as an official language or in a particular domain, such as the use of English in Singapore, India, the Philippines, and Papua New Guinea. English is a lingua franca in those countries.
Acquisition planning is a type of language planning in which a national, state or local government system aims to influence aspects of language, such as language status, distribution and literacy through education. Acquisition planning can also be used by non-governmental organizations, but it is more commonly associated with government planning.

(Liddicoat, A. J., and Baldauf, R. Jr. 2008)
Frequently, acquisition planning is integrated into a larger language planning process in which the statuses of languages are evaluated, corpuses are revised and the changes are finally introduced to society on a national, state or local level through education systems, ranging from primary schools to universities. This process of change can entail a variety of modifications, such as an alteration in student textbook formatting, a change in methods of teaching an official language or the development of a bilingual language program, only to name a few.

For example, if a government decides to raise the status level of a certain language or change its level of prestige, it can establish legislation that will require educators to teach only in this language or that textbooks are written using only this language’s script. This, would increase prestige of the language’s status. Accordingly, acquisition planning is often used to promote language revitalization, which can change a language’s status or reverse a language shift, or to promote linguistic purism. In a case where a government revises a corpus, new dictionaries and educational materials will need to be revised in schools in order to maintain effective language acquisition.

2.3.1 - Acquisition Planning & educational systems & settings.

- The educational systems of a designated government will have to plan national language acquisition decisions based on state and local evaluation reports. The responsibilities of education sectors vary by country; Robert B. Kaplan and Richard B. Baldauf describe the sectors’ six principal goals:
  - To decide what languages should be taught within the curriculum.
  - To determine the amount and quality of teacher training.
  - To involve local communities.
  - To determine what materials will be used and how they will be incorporated into syllabi.
  - To establish a local and state assessment system to monitor progress.
  - To determine financial costs.

3- Defense of the Mother Tongue

- There is also a growing concern over the treatment of multilingualism in education, especially in many countries that were once colonized (Mansor, S. 2005).

- Deciding which language of instruction would be most beneficial to effective communication on the local and state level is a task requiring thoughtful planning and is surrounded by debate.

- Some states prefer instruction only in the official language, but some aim to foster linguistic and social diversity by encouraging compulsory education in several mother tongue languages. Some states prefer a single language of instruction that supports national unity and homogeneity.

  (Fishman, Joshua A. Ed. Rubin, J., and Björn H. J. 1971)
“... linguistic rights should be regarded as basic human rights....”

Schools of indigenous children in el Chaco, Argentina (2008).
Escuela Cacique Taigoye, Argentina.
The role of indigenous languages in educational settings around the world.

- **Forms of “Education” of Indigenous Children: Crimes Against Humanity?**

- State education policies frequently force indigenous children whose mother tongue is an indigenous language into education through the medium of the dominant state language.

• These policies play an important role in language shift.

• An obvious effect of such policies is on the indigenous languages themselves; compared to the dominant language, they appear linguistically underdeveloped because there is no space for them in school.

• Another obvious effect is on attitudes: Children and parents tend to believe that their mother language is worth less than the dominant language.

• Robert Dunbar and Tove Skutnabb-Kangas
“Language, culture, customs and traditions are not anything we are born with, they have to be lived and taught, to be learned.”  
Robert Dunbar and Tove Skutnabb-Kangas

“If children are not surrounded by at least some adults and elders from their own group who (are allowed to) teach them their language, stories, customs, traditions, not only at home or in the community but also in school, these will not be learned proficiently. And if the children are not proficient in their language, the likelihood of them transferring it to their own children is seriously diminished.”  
Robert Dunbar and Tove Skutnabb-Kangas
The use of the dominant state language as the only language of instruction can have a marked negative impact on affected children. The children's mother tongue has often been either overtly or covertly marginalized or even forbidden. Not allowing children to be educated in their language, or preventing them from using it by cutting them off from grown-up proficient users, means “prohibiting the use of the language of the group in daily interactions or in schools.”

• This separation is most obvious when children have been removed from home and placed in residential schools. But it also occurs when all or most of the teachers come from the dominant group and do not speak the indigenous language.

Such policies have often resulted in serious physical as well as mental harm, from social dislocation to psychological, cognitive, linguistic and educational damage, and concomitant economic, social and political marginalization.

Quoting studies and statistics from the USA, Teresa McCarty writes about the consequences of “medium-of-instruction policies” (2003: 74):

“Indigenous and other minoritized students experience the lowest rates of educational attainment, the lowest family incomes, and, particularly among Indigenous youth, the highest rates of depression and teen suicides.”

Carlisle Indian School in Pennsylvania.
Why is language planning so essential?

- It is clear that governments are often aware of the adverse effects of forcing indigenous children to be educated through the medium of the dominant language.

- That countries persist in such policies, even armed with such knowledge, has been described as a form of linguistic and/or cultural genocide, or, in the words of Rodolfo Stavenhagen, “ethnocide.”

Such policies, implemented in the full knowledge of their devastating effects on speakers of minority and indigenous languages, constitute international crimes, including genocide, within the meaning of the United Nations’ 1948 Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide (the “Genocide Convention”), also known as a crime against humanity.


http://www.akha.org/content/education/formsofeducationasacrimelong.html
It is clear from many studies that the length of mother tongue-medium education is more important than any other factor in predicting the educational success of bilingual students. It is also much more important than socio-economic status.

(May & Hill 2003: 14, study commissioned by the Māori Section of the Aotearoa/New Zealand Ministry of Education; see http://www.minedu.govt.nz/).
• The worst educational results are obtained with students in total submersion programs where the students' mother tongues (L1s) are either supported partially or not at all.

• Dominant-language-only submersion programs “are widely attested as the least effective educationally for minority language students.”

• (May & Hill 2003: 14, study commissioned by the Māori Section of the Aotearoa/New Zealand Ministry of Education; see http://www.minedu.govt.nz/).
Indigenous and minority children are taught in "dominant languages ONLY," therefore, in a mode called subtractive teaching. In contrast to additive teaching, the subtractive approach seeks to replace and even remove the mother tongue from the educational equation.

Quotes from Dr. Skutnabb-Kangas's speech.
“The most important Linguistic Human Right (LHR) in education for indigenous peoples and minorities, if they want to reproduce themselves as peoples/minorities, is an unconditional right to mainly mother tongue medium education in non-fee state schools. This education (of course including teaching of a dominant language as a subject, by bilingual teachers) should continue minimally 8 years, preferably longer....”

At the rate at which languages are disappearing from the world, indigenous languages are at particular risk—the languages of the poor, the marginalized, and the disadvantaged. It is predicted that by 2100, most of the world's indigenous languages will no longer be learned by children or be completely extinct.

Since the world's biodiversity itself is encoded in small indigenous and local languages, their disappearance would spell the disappearance of the knowledge they contain. This, in turn, means the destruction of the basis for human life on earth.
Language Planning Goals

Linguists recognize eleven language planning goals (Moshir):

- Language Purification – prescription of usage in order to preserve the “linguistic purity” of language, protect language from foreign influences, and guard against language deviation from within
- Language Revival – the attempt to turn a language with few or no surviving native speakers back into a normal means of communication (Zuckermann).
- Language Reform – deliberate change in specific aspects of language, like orthography, spelling, or grammar, in order to facilitate use
- Language Standardization – the attempt to garner prestige for a regional language or dialect, transforming it into one that is accepted as the major language, or standard language, of a region
- Language Spread – the attempt to increase the number of speakers of one language at the expense of another
- Lexical Modernization – word creation or adaptation
- Terminology Unification – development of unified terminologies, primarily in technical domains
- Stylistic Simplification – simplification of language usage in lexicon, grammar, and style
- Interlingual Communication – facilitation of linguistic communication between members of distinct speech communities
- Language Maintenance – preservation of the use of a group’s native language as a first or second language where pressures threaten or cause a decline in the status of the language
- Auxiliary-Code Standardization – standardization of marginal, auxiliary aspects of language such as signs for the deaf, place names, or rules of transliteration and transcription
Language Planning: An Emerging Discipline

- L.P. has been a concern principally for pre- and post-structural linguists—since structuralists showed a strong negative reaction to LP (cf. Hall). However, the Prague School incorporated an interest in solving problems into their structural framework. By the late 1960s, scholars were developing LP as a sub-discipline of socio-linguistics. According to Jernudd and Neustupn, this sub-discipline has not yet mapped out its own terrain. There is, however, a vast literature, including discussions of LP efforts (Haugen, Kloss, Fishman et al.); basic principles (Rubin and Jernudd); and state-of-the-art texts (Tauli, Fishman, Cobarrubias and Fishman).

- An annotated bibliography exists prepared by Rubin & Jernudd, but there is a shortage of appropriate introductory textbooks. Kaplan and Baldauf is a welcome addition.

- Three periodicals, *Language Problems and Language Planning*, *Current Issues in Language Planning*, and the *Language Planning Newsletter*, are devoted to the field. In addition, the *Infoterm Newsletter* and *Terminologies Nouvelle* cover new terminology. Contributions can also be found in other journals, notably in the *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*. In the past decade, a more strongly critical dimension has developed (e.g. Phillipson, Pennycook, Skutnabb-Kangas and Phillipson; see also Kaplan and Baldauf).

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Juan Carlos Moreno Cabrera

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http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=d4B6Hu3z-4A ‘El nacionalismo espanol es el mas excluyente’
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Endangered Languages
Language Planning Theory
Defense of the Mother Tongue

- All material researched, compiled and edited by Miryam Yataco, Adjunct faculty member at Steinhardt School of Culture, Education and Human Development, New York University. All material used for educational purpose only. The material showed in this PPP is not for sale or ex-change it is for pedagogical use only. Sources have been cited if information was available.

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- You may contact the author at miryamyataco@gmail.com