Chapter 1 : Multilingualism - Wikipedia

In such bilingual/multilingual jurisdictions, one basic legal principle of interpretation is that the law in different official languages is equally authentic and is deemed the [Show full abstract].

Psychology[edit] A study in has shown that using a foreign language reduces decision-making biases. It was surmised that the framing effect disappeared when choices are presented in a foreign tongue. As human reasoning is shaped by two distinct modes of thought: Therefore, those who speak two languages have better critical thinking and decision making skills. The utilitarian option was chosen more often in the fat man case when presented in a foreign language. However, there was no difference in the switch track case. List of multilingual countries and regions A bilingual sign in Brussels , the capital of Belgium. In Brussels, both Dutch and French are official languages. Almost all railway stations in India have signs like these in three or more languages English, Hindi and the local language. Multilingual sign at Vancouver International Airport , international arrivals area. Text in English, French, and Chinese is a permanent feature of this sign, while the right panel of the sign is a video screen that rotates through additional languages. Three or four languages are shown: While Filipinos themselves are anglophone , such signs cater to the growing number of Koreans and other foreigners in the country. A Train name found in South India written in four languages: Kannada, Hindi, Tamil and English. Boards like this are common on trains which pass through two or more states where the languages spoken are different. Multilingualism was common in the past: Some states can have multilingual policies and recognize several official languages, such as Canada English and French. In some states, particular languages may be associated with particular regions in the state e. When all speakers are multilingual, linguists classify the community according to the functional distribution of the languages involved: Typical diglossic areas are those areas in Europe where a regional language is used in informal, usually oral, contexts, while the state language is used in more formal situations. Some writers limit diglossia to situations where the languages are closely related, and could be considered dialects of each other. This can also be observed in Scotland where, in formal situations, English is used. However, in informal situations in many areas, Scots is the preferred language of choice. A similar phenomenon is also observed in Arabic-speaking regions. The effects of diglossia could be seen in the difference between written Arabic Modern Standard Arabic and colloquial Arabic. However, as time goes, the Arabic language somewhere between the two have been created what some have deemed "Middle Arabic" or "Common Arabic". Because of this diversification of the language, the concept of spectroglossia [41] has been suggested. In a typical ambilingual area it is nearly impossible to predict which language will be used in a given setting. True ambilingualism is rare. Ambilingualism also can manifest in specific regions of larger states that have both a clearly dominant state language be it de jure or de facto and a protected minority language that is limited in terms of distribution of speakers within the country. This tendency is especially pronounced when, even though the local language is widely spoken, there is a reasonable assumption that all citizens speak the predominant state tongue e. Canada; Spanish in Catalonia vs. This phenomenon can also occur in border regions with many cross-border contacts. An example of this is the Balkans. In cases of an unspecified number of languages, the terms polyglossia, omnilingualism, and multipart-lingualism are more appropriate. Multilingualism between different language speakers[edit] Whenever two people meet, negotiations take place. If they want to express solidarity and sympathy, they tend to seek common features in their behavior. If speakers wish to express distance towards or even dislike of the person they are speaking to, the reverse is true, and differences are sought. This mechanism also extends to language, as described in the Communication Accommodation Theory. In many cases, code-switching is motivated by the wish to express loyalty to more than one cultural group,[citation needed] as holds for many immigrant communities in the New World. Code-switching may also function as a strategy where proficiency is lacking. Such strategies are common if the vocabulary of one of the languages is not very elaborated for certain fields, or if the speakers have not

developed proficiency in certain lexical domains, as in the case of immigrant languages. This code-switching appears in many forms. If a speaker has a positive attitude towards both languages and towards code-switching, many switches can be found, even within the same sentence. This results in speakers using words like courrier noir literally mail that is black in French, instead of the proper word for blackmail , chantage. Sometimes a pidgin language may develop. A pidgin language is a fusion of two languages that is mutually understandable for both speakers. For example, many linguists believe that the Occitan language and the Catalan language were formed because a population speaking a single Occitano-Romance language was divided into political spheres of influence of France and Spain, respectively. Bilingual interaction can even take place without the speakers switching. In certain areas, it is not uncommon for speakers each to use a different language within the same conversation. This phenomenon is found, amongst other places, in Scandinavia. Most speakers of Swedish , Norwegian and Danish can communicate with each other speaking their respective languages, while few can speak both people used to these situations often adjust their language, avoiding words that are not found in the other language or that can be misunderstood. Using different languages is usually called non-convergent discourse , a term introduced by the Dutch linguist Reitze Jonkman. Another example is the former state of Czechoslovakia , where two closely related and mutually intelligible languages Czech and Slovak were in common use. Most Czechs and Slovaks understand both languages, although they would use only one of them their respective mother tongue when speaking. For example, in Czechoslovakia it was common to hear two people talking on television each speaking a different language without any difficulty understanding each other. This bilinguality still exists nowadays, although it has started to deteriorate after Czechoslovakia split up. English, Chinese, Tamil and Malay Urdu, Hindi and English on a road sign in India Multilingualism at the linguistic level[edit] Models for native language literacy programs[edit] Sociopolitical as well as socio-cultural identity arguments may influence native language literacy. While these two camps may occupy much of the debate about which languages children will learn to read, a greater emphasis on the linguistic aspects of the argument is appropriate. In spite of the political turmoil precipitated by this debate, researchers continue to espouse a linguistic basis for it. This rationale is based upon the work of Jim Cummins Sequential bilingualism In this model, learners receive literacy instruction in their native language until they acquire a "threshold" literacy proficiency. Some researchers use age 3 as the age when a child has basic communicative competence in their first language Kessler, The phases children go through during sequential acquisition are less linear than for simultaneous acquisition and can vary greatly among children. Sequential acquisition is a more complex and lengthier process, although there is no indication that non-language-delayed children end up less proficient than simultaneous bilinguals, so long as they receive adequate input in both languages. Simultaneous bilingualism In this model, the native language and the community language are simultaneously taught. The advantage is literacy in two languages as the outcome. However, the teacher must be well-versed in both languages and also in techniques for teaching a second language. Coordinate model[edit] This model posits that equal time should be spent in separate instruction of the native language and of the community language. The native language class, however, focuses on basic literacy while the community language class focuses on listening and speaking skills. Being a bilingual does not necessarily mean that one can speak, for example, English and French. Outcomes[edit] This section has an unclear citation style. The references used may be made clearer with a different or consistent style of citation and footnoting. His work sought to overcome the perception propagated in the s that learning two languages made for two competing aims. The belief was that the two languages were mutually exclusive and that learning a second required unlearning elements and dynamics of the first in order to accommodate the second Hakuta, The evidence for this perspective relied on the fact that some errors in acquiring the second language were related to the rules of the first language Hakuta, How this hypothesis holds under different types of languages such as Romance versus non-Western languages has yet to undergo research. Another new development that has influenced the linguistic argument for bilingual literacy is the length of time necessary to acquire the second language. While previously children were believed to

have the ability to learn a language within a year, today researchers believe that within and across academic settings, the time span is nearer to five years Collier, ; Ramirez, An interesting outcome of studies during the early s however confirmed that students who do successfully complete bilingual instruction perform better academically Collier, ; Ramirez, These students exhibit more cognitive elasticity including a better ability to analyse abstract visual patterns. Students who receive bidirectional bilingual instruction where equal proficiency in both languages is required perform at an even higher level. Examples of such programs include international and multi-national education schools. Multilingualism in computing[edit] Dual language Hebrew and English keyboard With emerging markets and expanding international cooperation, business users expect to be able to use software and applications in their own language. Multilingualised software supports multiple languages for display and input simultaneously, but generally has a single user interface language. Support for other locale features like time, date, number and currency formats may vary as the system tends towards full internationalisation. Generally a multilingualised system is intended for use in a specific locale, whilst allowing for multilingual content. An internationalised system is equipped for use in a range of locales, allowing for the co-existence of several languages and character sets in user interfaces and displays. In particular, a system may not be considered internationalised in the fullest sense unless the interface language is selectable by the user at runtime. Translating the user interface is usually part of the software localization process, which also includes adaptations such as units and date conversion. Many software applications are available in several languages, ranging from a handful the most spoken languages to dozens for the most popular applications such as office suites , web browsers , etc. Due to the status of English in computing , software development nearly always uses it but see also Non-English-based programming languages , so almost all commercial software is initially available in an English version, and multilingual versions, if any, may be produced as alternative options based on the English original. Nelson and Camerum Lerum have continued to drive development of the tools, working with third parties and standards bodies to assure broad availability of multilingual app development is provided. Languages used on the Internet Multilingualism in the workplace[edit] Globalization has led the world to be more deeply interconnected. English has become an important working knowledge mainly in multinational companies, but also in smaller companies. NGO workers are also faced with multilingualism when intervening on the field and use both linguistic and non-verbal strategies to communicate [48]. Multilingualism in English speaking countries[edit] According to Hewitt entrepreneurs in London from Poland, China or Turkey use English mainly for communication with customers, suppliers and banks, but their own native languages for work tasks and social purposes. Even in English speaking countries immigrants are still able to use their own mother tongue in the workplace thanks to other immigrants from the same place.

Chapter 2 : Heritage Language Development in Interlingual Families - | Martin Guardado - calendrierdelasc

Communication Skills Better With Bilingual / Multilingual Kids Researcher Katherine Kinzler recently wrote an op-ed in the New York Times about a study she conducted with other researchers and a follow-up study, both of which underlined the social advantages of bilingualism and that communication skills were better with bilingual / multilingual.

Many NLP systems are based on lexical data. The development costs of such data are a major drawback in such NLP systems. For this, we had to specify and develop tools to manage a lexical database containing information complete and detailed enough to be usable for a wide range of applications. This paper presents our project and details the tools, frameworks and structures used to manage such a database. We will also show some research problems still to be addressed in this context. The LexALP information system: Standard techniques used in multilingual terminology management fail to describe legal terminologies as they are bound to different legal systems and terms do not share a common meaning. In the LexALP project, we use a technique defined for general lexical databases to achieve cross language interop In the LexALP project, we use a technique defined for general lexical databases to achieve cross language interoperability between languages of the Alpine Convention. In this paper we present the methodology and tools developed for the collection, description and harmonisation of the legal terminology of spatial planning and sustainable development in the four languages of the countries of the Alpine Space. This paper presents a new project, called Papillon [Papillon00]. Its goal is to build a French-English-Japanese multilingual lexical database by using interlingual links and to extract from it digital bilingual French-Japanese and Japanese-French dictionaries. These dictionaries will be available un These dictionaries will be available under the terms of an open source licence. This project, initiated by some computational linguists, aims at being useful and open to all those who are interested in Japanese and French. A seminar was organized on the of August in Tokyo [Planas00]. It was devoted to discussions aiming at reaching a general consensus on the structure and content of the database, and to decide some technical aspects of database development, i. Show Context Citation Context The monolingual dictionaries will be linked only through a pivot dictionary of interlingual links called acceptions. These acceptions will also be linked together by refinement links. Multilingual Legal Terminology on the Jibiki Platform: To this purpose, LexALP uses the Jibiki platform to build a term bank for the contrastive analysis of the specialised terminology used in six different national legal systems and four different languages. In this paper we present how a generic platform like Jibiki can cope with a new kind of dictionary. French Italian trasporto intraalpino traffico intraalpino trafic intra-alpin transport intra-alpin c The motivation of the Papillon project is to encourage the development of freely accessible Multilingual Lexical Resources by way of on-line collaborative work on the Internet. For this, we developed a generic community website orig-inally dedicated to the diffusion and the devel-opment of a particu For this, we developed a generic community website orig-inally dedicated to the diffusion and the devel-opment of a particular acception based multilin-gual lexical database. The generic aspect of our platform allows its use for the development of other lexical databases. Adapting it to a new lexical database is a matter of description of its structures and interfaces by way of XML files. In this paper, we show how we already adapted it to other very different lexical databases. We also show what future developments should be done in order to gather several lexical databases developers in a common network. An interlingual acception serves as a placeholder bearing links to lexies and links between axies4. This simple mechanism allows for the coding of translations. As an example, figure 1 shows how we

Keeping opening lines of communication in any office can be a challenge. As the U.S. workforce becomes increasingly diverse and multilingual, the task can prove even more difficult.

This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License , which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. Globalization imposes challenges to the field of behavioural neurology, among which is an increase in the prevalence of bilingual aphasia. Thus, aphasiologists have increasingly focused on bilingual aphasia therapy and, more recently, on the identification of the most efficient procedures for triggering language recovery in bilinguals with aphasia. Therapy in both languages is often not available, and, thus, researchers have focused on the transfer of therapy effects from the treated language to the untreated one. This paper discusses the literature on bilingual aphasia therapy, with a focus on cross-linguistic therapy effects from the language in which therapy is provided to the untreated language. Fifteen articles including two systematic reviews, providing details on pre- and posttherapy in the adult bilingual population with poststroke aphasia and anomia are discussed with regard to variables that can influence the presence or absence of cross-linguistic transfer of therapy effects. The potential for CLT of therapy effects from the treated to the untreated language depends on the word type, the degree of structural overlap between languages, the type of therapy approach, the pre- and postmorbid language proficiency profiles, and the status of the cognitive control circuit. Bilingualism Is a Distinctive Feature of Globalization Contemporary society is characterized by a bilingual or multilingual mode of communication. Whether for historic, economic, or migration reasons, bilingualism is no longer exceptional, but most often the rule. Whereas some countries have a history of bilingual and polyglot modes of communication, the era of globalization has contributed to the promotion of bilingualism around the world. Nowadays, bilingualism provides better career opportunities in all sectors of the economy and human activity, a fact that has motivated a wider interest in second language learning. Parents are increasingly choosing bilingual education as a result of evidence suggesting that bilingual children may develop specific cognitive advantages [1 , 2], including enhanced intellectual development, greater creativity and flexibility, and openness to cultural diversity. For all of these reasons, social, educational, healthcare, and political policies are expected to adapt to such multilingual and multicultural societies. Bilingual Aphasia Aphasia is an acquired language disorder resulting from brain damage. It refers to a breakdown in the ability to formulate, retrieve, or decode the arbitrary symbols of language. It is usually acquired in adulthood [3]. The bilingual population is large and growing worldwide; therefore, bilingual aphasia is becoming more and more frequent. The complexity of the behavioural patterns observed in bilingual aphasia is big, since it concerns two or more languages, whose recovery does not always follow equivalent patterns. Moreover, given the almost endless possible combinations of language pairs, the issue of bilingual aphasia therapy is a big challenge. Thus, even the most avant-garde educational policies aimed at training bilingual speech-language pathologists are likely to provide only partial solutions to the clinical management of this population [4 , 5]. Consequently, the study of cross-linguistic-language-therapy effects is likely to become an unavoidable topic in the field of aphasiology in the years to come. From a neurorehabilitative perspective, bilingualism imposes a certain number of challenges regarding the assessment and intervention provided to bilingual clinical populations, particularly, those that suffer from cognitive impairment. The complexity of this issue extends well beyond the linguistic knowledge required to interact with the patient so as to detect impaired language abilities. Beyond language, there is communication, that is, the ability to decode the pragmatics that characterize a specific linguistic community. This is essential for the proper understanding of communicative behavior, meaning, what is normal, and what is not, in the context of a given culture. The issue of language impairment in bilinguals has interested cognitive neuroscientists for more than a century. In particular, the study of bilingual aphasia first focused on the variety of aphasia patterns characterizing bilingual clinical populations [5 â€" 8].

Furthermore, the development of testing procedures that take into consideration the linguistic particularities gave raise to bilingual aphasia tests for a variety of language pairs, among which the BAT [9 , 10] developed for more than 59 languages and the Multilingual Aphaisa Examination developed in six languages [11], along with tests normalized in several languages, such as the Aachen Aphasia [12 â€" 14], and the Boston Diagnostic Aphasia Examination [15 â€" 18]. These tests provide a linguistically valid assessment of bilingual aphasia. More recently, aphasiologists have focused on the complex issue of bilingual aphasia language therapy, with the purpose of developing the most efficient procedures for triggering language recovery in this population. This is a relatively new field, and a complex one, given that it requires juggling the complexities of bilingual language processing, which amounts to more than simply the additive processing of two languages. Aims The purpose of this paper is to discuss the literature on bilingual aphasia therapy, with a focus on the cross-linguistic effects that language therapy provided in one of the two languages of the patient may or may not have on the untreated language. This paper will discuss a number of factors with CLT potential: Finally, the main clinical implications of research findings on cross-linguistic transfer of therapy effects CLTE in bilingual aphasia therapy will be discussed, with the purpose of proving intervention efficacy in bilingual populations with language impairment, while optimizing health care efficiency in terms of resource training and allocation. This research will contribute to intervention efficacy in bilingual populations with language impairment, while optimizing health care efficiency in terms of resource training and allocation. Methods The evidence discussed in this paper was collected from the following databases: The key words bilingual, aphasia, cross-language, generalization, cognates, naming treatment, and transfer guided the search. This resulted in fifteen articles, two of which received the largest weight in the analysis, since they were systematic reviews [19 , 20] with an A-level recommendation that witnesses for good quality patient-oriented research, according to the AFF taxonomy [21]. The remaining articles report case series, or single-case design studies whose level of evidence is much lower; however, all of these were selected because they respected a number of criteria that allowed some degree of generalization of the reported findings. Specifically, the inclusion criteria consisted the following: Cross-Linguistic Effects in Bilingual, Healthy, and Brain Damaged Populations Understanding the mechanisms that rule cross-linguistic transfer in bilingual healthy populations highlights the functioning of the bilingual language system. There is convergent evidence on the fact that the speech of a bilingual person reflects the influence of one language on the other [22 , page 5]. This influence, which results from similarities and differences between the target language and any other previously acquired language, is referred to as cross-linguistic influence or cross-linguistic transfer CLT [22 , page 27]. Similarities and differences can be observed at different levels of language processing, namely, the word level, the syntax, and phonology levels, as well as the proficiency level. Thus, the study of CLT effects among healthy bilinguals provides clues about the mechanisms that rule CLTE, some of which have been exploited in bilingual aphasia therapy. Cognates, Clangs, and Noncognates There is extensive evidence on CLT effects with cognates and clangs, as opposed to noncognates [23 , 24]. Cognates are formally equivalent words whose meanings may be identical or almost so [25 , page 73] e. Evidence for the effects of CLT is reflected in faster response times for cognates as compared to noncognates in picture naming [23 , 26 â€" 31], as well as in word recognition and word translation [30 , 32 â€" 34]. It has also been argued that cognates are processed as efficiently as monolinguals process mother tongue [35 , 36]. Accordingly, cross-linguistic therapy effects with cognates in cases of bilingual aphasia have been examined. Roberts and Deslauriers [30] showed that highly proficient bilinguals with aphasia could better name cognates than non-cognates, and they also produced distinct error types for each target. Specifically, errors with cognates were no response and target descriptionâ€"the latter having a communicative valueâ€"whereas noncognates resulted in semantic errors as well as language switching errors [30]. Finally, although the evidence of a cognate effect in bilingual aphasia therapy is not unanimous [30 , 37 , 38], a generalization of therapy effects with cognates has been reported in a case of Spanish-English bilingual aphasia. Thus, Kohnert [37] reported cross-linguistic generalization of therapy effects from treated L1 Spanish to untreated L2 English for cognates only. Language

treatment consisted of lexical semantic retrieval strategies such as word recognition, semantic association, and cueing [37]. Conversely, Kurland and Falcon [38] report an interference effect with cognates, following intensive language therapy with a semantic approach, in a case of a Spanish-English bilingual with chronic and severe expressive aphasia. The patient presented a lesion in the basal ganglia, a component of the corticosubcortical network sustaining the inhibition of the nontarget language; this network includes the left precentral cortex, the anterior cingulate, the inferior parietal lobule, and the basal ganglia [39]. Clangs, or homophones, also share phonological similarities with mother tongue words, but, unlike cognates, clangs refer to different concepts. The evidence of a clang effect in bilinguals is not convergent; thus, some authors argue that both orthographic and phonological similarity are required to facilitate word recognition [40 , 41], whereas others claim that processing clangs imposed an extra cognitive load resulting from the inhibition of the nontarget semantic representation [42 , 43]. In line with this claim, a recent functional connectivity study shows that healthy adults recruit a cognitive control network to process clangs [44]. The extent to which clangs may facilitate cross-linguistic therapy effects in bilinguals with aphasia has not yet been tested; however, the findings within healthy populations [42 â€" 45] suggest that clangs may become particularly difficult in cases of bilingual aphasia, given that brain damage entails decreased cognitive resources [46]. There is also a lack of convergence regarding CLTE with noncognates. Kurland and Falcon [38] reported successful CLTE for noncognates only, after therapy with a semantic approach. However, with a similar therapy approach, Kohnert [37] failed to report such an effect and instead found one with cognates. It is not easy to draw any conclusions given that such a small number of studies have compared cognates and noncognates, particularly because factors other than word type may have influenced therapy results in either language, including lesion location and extension as well as cross-linguistic similarities and differences. Structural Similarities and Differences across Languages The degree of structural overlap across languages plays a major role in the potential for CLTE [19 , 20]. For example, Goral et al. Measurements in the treated language English as well as in the two nontreated languages Hebrew L1 , and French L3 were collected after each treatment block. An improvement in pronoun and gender agreement in the treated language L2 as well as in the nontreated L3 was observed following the treatment block on morphosyntactic skills in English. Also, there was an improvement in speech rate in English and in French following the second block, but no changes were observed in Hebrew. The authors concluded that selective CLT from L2 to L3 resulted from the structural similarities between English and French, as compared to a lack of similarity between English and Hebrew. These findings were interpreted as the result of structural similarities between French and English, as compared to French and German. However, there is also the possibility that the results in German reflect a plateau effect resulting from the fact that poststroke proficiency in German was higher than in the other two languages [48]. As discussed by Faroqui et al. Pre-Morbid and Post-Morbid Proficiency in Either Language A number of studies provide evidence for cross-linguistic transfer of therapy effects CLTE from the treated, less proficient second language, to the untreated and better preserved mother tongue. Kiran and Iakupova [49] administered semantic therapy in L2 English and measured naming on trained and untrained words both in L2 and L1 Russian. The authors [49] suggest that CLTE reflects the strengthened connections between the weaker English language and the stronger Russian language. Likewise, CLTE was reported following intensive semantic therapy in L2 English in the case of a native Spanish bilingual individual with chronic, severe expressive aphasia [38], particularly on naming tasks. The authors argued that although CLTE from premorbid less proficient language L2 to premorbid more proficient language L1 had been successful, all gains considered that the patient benefited more from therapy in L1 than from therapy in L2. There is evidence that balanced bilingualism contributes to CLTE [27 , 50 , 51], and, in cases of unbalanced bilingualism, transfer is observed from the less proficient language to the dominant language. Similarly, Edmonds and Kiran [50] investigated the CLT of gains achieved following therapy with Semantic Feature Analysis to treat naming deficits by examining three English-Spanish bilinguals with aphasia, all of whom received a semantic therapy in Spanish Participant 1 and in English and Spanish Participants 2 and 3. Therapy effects were tested

on treated items, untreated items, and translations; results showed that both within- and cross-language therapy effects were related to premorbid language proficiency. Specifically, Participant 1, a premorbid balanced bilingual, showed CLTE to the untreated English items, whereas Participants 2 and 3 who were more proficient in English showed within-language generalization to semantically related items, but no CLT to the untreated Spanish items. Moreover, though following treatment in Spanish, Participants 2 and 3 did not show any within-language generalization; they did show CLT to English, their dominant language. Thus, this data supports the idea that better CLTE is observed from the less proficient L2 to the more proficient language L1. In another study, the authors [27] provided semantic therapy in Spanish to two Spanish-English bilinguals, one of them English dominant and the other one a balanced bilingual. Thus, some studies [27 , 38 , 49 â€" 51] provide evidence that premorbid proficiency in either language modulates CLTE, arguing that CLTE occurs more easily from a less proficient language to the dominant language in unbalanced bilinguals, whereas balanced bilingualism facilitates CLTE no matter which language is treated. Thus, it has been shown that the less proficient L2 relies upon the stronger L1 lexicon, whereas, at high proficiency levels, L1 and L2 lexicons are mostly overlapping [19 , 52]. Nevertheless, it is difficult to draw a final conclusion, as some of these studies did not report poststroke proficiency states [27 , 50]. A different point of view on the impact of proficiency is presented by Goral [53], who claims that it is postmorbid proficiency that determines the extent of CLTE. In all cases, CLTE occurred when the therapy was offered in the language with higher postmorbid proficiency, regardless of premorbid proficiency. This is also the case in the limited only for cognates CLTE in an L1 and L2 premorbidly highly proficient Spanish L1 and English L2 bilingual suffering from nonfluent aphasia reported by Kohnert [37]. This patient showed improvement after receiving therapy in both languages; however, CLTE was seen only when therapy was administered in the language with higher postmorbid proficiency L1. Similarly, Croft et al. As this postmorbid more proficient language also happened to be L1, the authors took these results as evidence for successful CLTE from L1 to L2, despite the fact that not all participants who were treated in L1 showed successful CLTE. Another case of unsuccessful CLT despite the balanced proficiency both at premorbid and postmorbid proficiency was reported by Abutalebi and colleagues [55]. The patient was a highly proficient, balanced Spanish L1 Italian L2 bilingual, who had become severely anomic in both languages following aphasia, and involuntary language interference, was observed. Unsuccessful CLTE in this case may result from the therapy approach chosen phonological approach ; however, another possibility is that involuntary language switching and unsuccessful CLTE resulted from damage to areas involved in cognitive control. However, there is also evidence that choosing an appropriate therapy approach i.

Chapter 4 : INTERLINGUAL - Definition and synonyms of interlingual in the English dictionary

Journal of Multilingual Communication Disorders, 3 (2), - MacLeod, A. N., & Stoel-Gammon, C. (). What is the impact of age of second language acquisition on the production of consonants and vowels among childhood bilinguals?

The Glitterlings and Interlingual Classrooms: What is Oxford International Early Years: The Glitterlings is an Interlingual story and play-based English Language course which is the first of its kind. Interlingual Teaching and Learning is, in fact, the essence of the course and what is unique about it. The EYFS combined with the Interlingual Teaching and Learning Goals ITLGs ensure the needs of young learners are met in a creative and dynamic way that allows the child and the teacher to become involved in a mutual learning process where each one learns from the other. Learning is not the sole domain of children: To this end, teaching and learning goals are grouped together to facilitate the Interlingual approach and to provide a more genuine setting for mutual learning to take place. Interlingual teachers hold parent meetings to inform them about interlingual teaching and learning and discuss the tasks that parents can fullfil such as: By sharing knowledge with parents, teachers can bring about change that will benefit the child as an individual and improve the school community as a whole. Every parent is a valuable resource that teachers and children can count on to diffuse and extend the multilingual, multicultural ethos of the school. In Glitterling environments children know that their home language is valued and respected and they learn that there is a place for all languages in the classroom. The Joy of Multilingual and Multicultural Learning The Interlingual Glitterling classroom empowers children for lifelong learning and enables them to act effectively and powerfully in their personal lives and on the global stage. The nine stories are based around exciting, global themes that are charming, relevant and engaging for children. They help children discover the joy of learning about multilingualism and multiculturalism. They challenge them to think beyond the limits of the classroom walls and introduce them to a world of languages beyond their own and the language of instruction. There is cultural and linguistic authenticity in everyday play. Glitterling classrooms are places where international mindedness is seen in action, internationalism is felt and Interlingual children learn who they are in the context of the classroom and the broader society. They learn to work within an international framework of tolerance and respect. We can change our way of thinking through changing what happens in classrooms. Through such genuine experiences with other languages in the formative years of schooling we can set a trend of international mindedness that will be a step towards our world becoming better, more genuinely democratic, pluricultural and plurilingual. Eithne provides support and consultancy for schools wishing to implement inclusive, ESL and mother-tongue policies. Eithne is the mother of three bilingual children and lives with her family on a hilltop outside Rome.

Chapter 5 : Hire Multilingual or Bilingual Language Experts Jobs, Recruitment

(Constable,), and bilingual/multilingual couples (Piller & Takahashi,), among other terms in use. The terms most commonly used in this chapter are interlingual and linguistically.

Martin Guardado Guardado, Martin. Heritage language development in interlingual families. The final publication is available at http: Despite such an increase, families of mixed linguistic background are minimally represented in the literature. This is incompatible with the current global increase and social reality of this family type. The ethnolinguistic diversification of family composition worldwide calls for more targeted research with a growing demographic that grapples with an amplified complexity of issues. Therefore, the chapter provides a succinct overview of a selection of topics of fundamental importance, such as family language policy, an emerging area traditionally discussed only tangentially in related scholarship. It then describes the deployment of various family language policies and the relative effectiveness of implementing these communication arrangements. Moreover, the chapter highlights some of the ways in which the social, linguistic and political circumstances of interlingual families may pose challenges related to policies and practices where various power relationsâ€"particularly genderâ€"are implicated. It is shown that heritage language research with the children of parents who do not share a mother tongue has begun to establish key foundational knowledge regarding the factors that impact their linguistic lives, but also reaffirms the recent call made by scholars about the need for further research around interlingual family language policy, socialization and related issues. Finally, the chapter puts forward possible directions for future research and knowledge dissemination among key stakeholders. Interlingual, intermarriage, mixed union, linguistically intermarried, one parent-one language Introduction While the use of the term heritage language HL is relatively new, in the last decade there has been a significant increase in its use to refer to research historically bearing the labels of mother tongue, home language, bilingualism, language maintenance, language loss, language attrition, and so on He, This growing scholarship has arguably advanced the body of knowledge in these related research areas in important ways. These families must contend with several languages in daily life, coupled with the potential for conflict that cultural differences in beliefs and practices may pose around childrearing and other issues. For instance, in a U. Given the co-existence of two or more HLs and cultures in interlingual families, childrearing becomes significantly more challenging compared to monolingual and even bilingual families Blum-Kulka, These parents face unique parenting challenges due to often competing and contradictory linguistic ideologies and cultural values. It is argued that these and other elements complicate their family dynamics, including metalinguistic negotiations, decision-making around family language policies, and the implementation of patterns of language use among all family members. Thus, there is a pressing global need to better understand HL issues in children who grow up in interlingual families given the rapid rate at which the diversity of populations is currently increasing in many parts of the world Wang, Thus, this chapter provides a state-of-the-art review of research from across contexts and language groups with families whose parents do not share a mother tongue. The growth of linguistic intermarriage The accumulated research around HLs has advanced this area of study significantly, although it generally presumes and focuses on families whose parents share the same mother tongue. The terms most commonly used in this chapter are interlingual and linguistically intermarried families. This definition differs somewhat from the usage sometimes found in the literature. For instance the typology of interlingual family proposed by Yamamoto , p. In her view, these families are interlingual in relation to the societal language. In Canada, the number of non-Anglophone speakers has grown steadily with each consecutive national census, and as of , first generation Canadians those who were born outside of Canada and their children accounted for The proportion of the Canadian population who reported using a language other than French or English at home has been increasing steadily as a result of this demographic trend. In Quebec, the most multilingual province in Canada, However, the linguistic landscape of Quebec homes is rapidly changing as well. The census showed that the use of

French as the only language spoken at home has steadily declined in this city since , indicating that the presence of languages brought by immigrants continues to be on the rise. In line with the above trends in Canada and internationally, the growth of interlingual families globally has been noted in relation to various countries, including Norway Constable , Japan Yamamoto, , Australia Oriyama, , and Canada Minami, In the latter, this type of exogamy has increased rapidly since at least the census Castonguay, , and most dramatically over the year period between and The total number of married and common-law couples in mixed unions increased from 2. Strikingly, out of the total of Japanese Canadian couples reported in this census, the group with the highest incidence of forming partnerships or marrying outside of their group, approximately It was also reported that the likelihood of mixed couples to have children was much higher than for non-mixed unions. Indeed, the little Canadian research that has examined the processes of HL socialization and maintenance in the children of linguistically intermarried couples demonstrates that the challenges they face in this regard are significantly intensified compared to families whose parents share the same mother tongue e. A growing body of research with monolingual and interlingual families has documented the multiplicity of forces that impact the policies, practices and outcomes related to HL development at various levels e. This work has also shown the situated, socially constructed and contested ways in which identity is tied to the HL Abdi, ; Blackledge et al. Last but not least, communication dynamics emerging from power relations within families, cultural production, child agency, resistance, and many other issues have been 3 examined based on naturalistic interactions in homes and communities Guardado, a, , It is not surprising that one of the most common themes found in scholarship with interlingual families is its multifaceted nature Jackson, ; Lanza, ; Minami, ; Okita, ; Yamamoto, , Given that the issues involved are significantly intensified and embedded within added complications, language use patterns in interlingual families are considerably more fluid Yamamoto, While language is an important index of personal and ethnic identity for linguistic minorities Jedwab, , this link is particularly marked for parents in interlingual families, and more so for mothers when they are full-time child care providers without employment, familial or other social networks outside the home. Although officially Francophone, English has a high status and strong presence in society, and many immigrant and indigenous languages are often heard on the streets. In this highly multilingual milieu, parents in interlingual relationships grapple with many more complications compared to parents in other settings. On the one hand, with their partners they may use French, English or other languages for family communication, and their children invariably bring the French language from school. Although research has shown that HL maintenance is significantly higher in Quebec than in other Canadian regions e. In fact, using official census data, Swidinsky and Swidinsky found that in Canadian families where only one parent was foreign born, which fits the interlingual family definition used in this chapter, HL maintenance was significantly lower. This finding complicates the topic in the Quebecois context considerably, in particular in relation to interlingual families and more so in the city of Montreal where English and many other languages interact in society. A variety of associated complications have been examined in several international contexts, such as Japan and the UK. He argues that these families need to negotiate, among other things, the terms and characteristics of the interactions among family members. Okita , based on research in the UK, posits that an example of this complexity can be found in the variety of dilemmas habitually faced by interlingual families in relation to childrearing dynamics and family language planning. This complexity is arguably also closely related to the often-mentioned emotionally demanding, time consuming and labour intensive nature of HL development in interlingual families. These and other issues, which are at the centre of HL socialization in interlingual families, are discussed below. The emergence of family language policies Discussions of home language policy and management have traditionally occurred as a side issue within HL scholarship Kopeliovich, ; Spolsky, , but this focus has recently emerged as an area of study in its own right. Most commonly discussed under the title of family language policy in recent years, this area of research brings together several interrelated fields and topics that include language policy and planning, second language acquisition King et al. As a fairly recent addition to HL scholarship, language policy within the home context has been conducted

mostly in interlingual 4 families King et al. A central research focus on interlingual families is not surprising given the additional complications brought about by competing languages in such family configurations. While the choice itself to use a particular language in homes where parents have a mother tongue in common may be less problematic, for interlingual families the decision making process can be a highly political Jackson, ; Liamputtong, ; Piller, a , gendered Lyon, ; Minami, ; Pavlenko, and even emotional affair Okita, ; Yamamoto, Tsushima and Guardado conducted a study with Japanese-descent mothers living in Montreal, Canada, who had formed partnerships with non-Japanese men. The mothers reported experiencing various feelings of guilt and anxiety as a result of their status as the only native speakers of the HL in their families and therefore the sole linguistic resource, making HL development their responsibility. Among the anticipated outcomes of raising children proficient in Japanese, the mothers foregrounded the mother-child bonding as well as overall family bonding. Therefore, for them this was arguably a high-stakes endeavour they did not take lightly. Piller a explains that pervasive asymmetrical power relations in interlingual families on many dimensions can generate a variety of conflicts. Indeed, one of the parents is often positioned in an unfavourable position in the relationship, be it as non-native speaker, migrant, female, economically dependent, or other positionings based on national and cultural background, or all of the above. Jackson concluded that the HL development of children in linguistically intermarried families tends to be more complex and politicized due to the need to negotiate a variety of processes related to developmental issues and the overall relations and interactions in the family. Given that gender is a fundamental organizing principle across ethnolinguistic and cultural groups Gordon, , it is not particularly unexpected that one of the most persistent imbalances of power in the language policy decision-making process of interlingual families is related to gender. Mothers have traditionally been seen as the primary caregivers Tannen, , socializers and transmitters of the mother tongue and this is also the case for interlingual families. Thompson posits that although in certain contexts fathers are increasingly more involved in parenting, mothers are still the primary care-givers. The expectations regarding multilingual parenting also more often than not seem to rest on mothers Minami, ; Okita, ; Pavlenko, Moreover, research in various settings shows that in interlingual families, the language spoken by mothers influence the language developed by children at home Luk, ; Lyon, , which may be heard as a predictable result. This outcome, however, may mask a more definitive and critical role played by gender power relations in interlingual families. Even though the languages used by mothers are generally most likely the ones to be passed on to their children, the language spoken by a mother in an interlingual relationship may be that of the father. Although discussions around the imbalances in terms of gender power relations often presume a disadvantage against women, as evidently shown in the above example, there seem to be instances in interlingual families where the opposite may be true given particular contextual factors. Language policies come about differently in different interlingual families, although certain patterns have been identified. When decisions are made consciously, several factors have been found to impact the process and final decision. King and Fogle have specifically explored the sources of influence in this decision-making process. As a highly educated group, particularly the mothers, it is not surprising that they had reviewed relevant multilingual parenting literature and were familiar with certain popularly held notions about bilingualism. For instance, King and Fogle reported that parents sometimes cited research related to cognitive advantages, and even augmented it, and alluded to aspects of the critical period hypothesis, claiming that earlier exposure to multiple languages was better. Expert and popular advice was only heeded when it matched their beliefs and the way they had learned, but was dismissed as ineffective when it contradicted them. Another source of influence seemed to come from unsuccessful parenting practices observed in other families. The participating mothers committed to avoiding such 6 pitfalls by engaging in parenting strategies that differed from observed practices they viewed as detrimental. Lacking the confidence to challenge their recommendations and without access to reliable alternative knowledge, some of them abandoned the promotion of the HL in their families. A final factor affecting the decision making process of family language policies that cannot be ignored is related to beliefs and values about language held by society and individuals.

Language ideologies can be understood as sets of beliefs and values held by community members about the worth of their languages and also about how, when, with whom and in what contexts or circumstances these linguistic resources should be used Ochs and Schieffelin, Therefore, these ideologies also powerfully inform family policies about HL use in and outside the home. Thus, language ideologies are central to the success of HL development Guardado, in press; King et al. The deployment of family language strategies It is general practice for interlingual couples to select one of their native languages as their language of communication, which is often the dominant societal language Romaine, , but not necessarily in all cases. In fact, many interlingual couples have native languages that do not match that of their community, posing potential challenges in terms of their language planning choices and communication patterns. The research literature on interlingual parenting has identified several family communication arrangements and has attempted to investigate the relative effectiveness of each of these. Regardless of the terminology, the format in an OPOL household is that each parent speaks a different language to their children, which may be his or her native language or some other language, often the societal language. The expectation is that the child will use a different language to communicate with each parent. The common language of communication between the parents may be the societal language or a different one, sometimes the language in which the couple started their relationship e. Although widely used and often acclaimed as the best method for raising children bilingually in interlingual family situations e. This outcome dissimilarity has been attributed to a variety of circumstances and factors. She posited that families that were consistent in their strategy use were more successful in raising bilingual children. Billings found OPOL to be generally successful, although it led to active bilingualism in only half of the cases. She posits that this variability poses questions about the forces that cause different results under similar conditions within families. HLAH consists of both parents selecting the minority language for family communication. This assumes that only one heritage language is involved or promoted and that the societal language is the native language of one of the parents.

Chapter 6 : Aphasia Therapy in the Age of Globalization: Cross-Linguistic Therapy Effects in Bilingual Aphasia

Most children (monolingual and bilingual) develop speech, language, and communication without any problems. There is a subset of children who present problems in their speech and language development.

Chapter 7 : International School Community

CSD offers a Bilingual and Multicultural certificate (with an emphasis on Spanish/English bilingual populations) to students at the M.A. level in Speech Language Pathology to foster the development of the competencies required to serve bilingual individuals with communication disorders.

Chapter 8 : Multilingual Communication Skills â€" TALK Corporate Language Training

*First Joint Conference on Lexical and Computational Semantics (*SEM), pages , Montreal, Canada, June , Â´ c Association for Computational Linguistics.*