Chapter 2
How Language Varies: Everyday Registers and Academic Registers

Chapter Overview

In this chapter, the concept of language variation is introduced through examining the different features of everyday registers and academic registers with examples from everyday life and academic contexts. In particular, Jim Cummins' concepts of 'BICS' and 'CALP' are both delineated and enriched with insights from genre and register theory from the Sydney School. Ahmar Mahboob's three-dimensional framework integrating language variation theories and register theory is further discussed to explore possible ways of using L1 academic linguistic resources in scaffolding the learning of L2 academic registers.

2.1 BICS and CALP

How language varies has important educational implications. If language varies according to its use in different contexts, then students need to develop language proficiencies appropriate for use in different contexts. Regarding this, Cummins (1980/2001) has proposed two dimensions of language proficiency: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Fig. 2.1). We use BICS in our everyday life, such as in conversations with family members and friends, informal interactions with shop assistants when we go shopping or casual chit-chat on Facebook, WhatsApp, Twitter or Internet forums. In contrast, we use CALP to understand and discuss academic topics in the classroom and to read and write about these topics in school assignments and examinations. BICS are said to be used in *context-embedded* conversations and this means that the conversation is often face-to-face and offers many cues to the listener such as facial expressions, gestures and concrete objects of
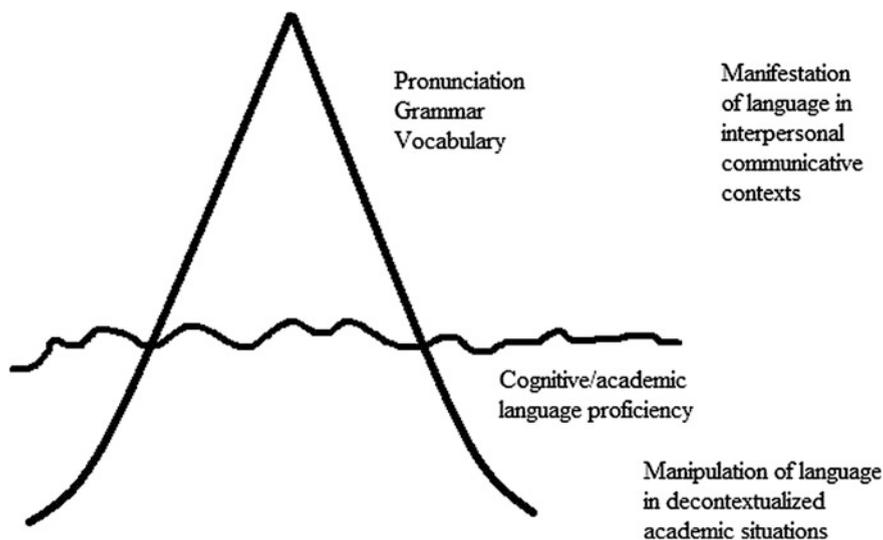
Fig. 2.1 The 'iceberg' representation of different aspects of language proficiency (redrawn based on Cummins 1980/2001, p. 112; reproduced here by permission of Professor Jim Cummins and the National Association of Bilingual Education)

reference. CALP, on the other hand, is said to be necessary for *context-reduced* communication, such as those that take place in the classroom where there are supposed to be fewer non-verbal cues and the language is more abstract. However, in recent developments of new media interactions, this face-to-face context can often be a virtual one such as that of a Skype or WhatsApp conversation. It is, therefore, better to conceive of BICS and CALP not as discrete categories but as lying on a continuum. Similarly, it is best not to see spoken and written modes as discrete categories but as discrete categories but as lying on a '*mode continuum*' (Derewianka 2014, p. 165). As Derewianka pointed out, it is important to provide ample support and explicit guidance to students, especially English language learners (ELLs), as they move from the everyday spoken mode to the formal academic written mode in their school studies. Similarly, the same can be said about helping students to move comfortably between BICS and CALP in their school career, as mastery of CALP does not come naturally and requires explicit instruction even for L1 speakers.

Derewianka's point reinforced the one made by Cummins when he proposed the distinction between BICS and CALP to explain why linguistic minority children learning English as an additional language (EAL) in North American contexts seemed to be mastering BICS much faster (e.g. 3–5 years) than CALP (e.g. 7–15 years). He recommended that school teachers should attend to students' need to develop CALP even when they seem to be speaking EAL fluently in everyday interpersonal contexts. In Cummins' conception, CALP is associated with cognitive and memory skills and is thus a major determinant of educational success. It is,

however, important to note that the development of both BICS and CALP is dependent on the quality of adult–child or teacher–student interactions, as Cummins pointed out:

> It should be noted that the development of CALP is not independent of interpersonal communication. On the contrary, as suggested by Wells' (1979) longitudinal study, the quality of communication between adults and children, both in the home and school, is a primary determinant of CALP development. The point is that in L1, certain aspects of BICS reach a developmental plateau considerably sooner than CALP, and thus proficiency in L1 BICS carries no implications in regard to level of development of L1 CALP, despite the fact that the development of both is dependent on interpersonal communication. (Cummins 1980/2001, p. 114)

In L2 or EAL contexts, Cummins summarized the research literature and concluded that while proficiency in L2 BICS seems to be independent of both L1 and L2 CALP, L1 CALP and L2 CALP are related and he proposed the Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) model of bilingualism (Fig. 2.2). Cummins' proposal is particularly useful in policy contexts where the development of students' L1 CALP is neglected and only L2 CALP is being emphasized (e.g. linguistic minority children in Canada or the USA). In Southeast Asian contexts where many modernizing states are in a rush to design language acquisition policies to privilege the learning of EAL (see review in Lin and Man 2009), Cummins's advice serves as a useful reminder that L1 CALP must not be neglected and L2 CALP can well build on L1 CALP (Gibbons 2009) (more on this in Sect. 2.4).

Having considered Cummins' notions of BICS and CALP, and his CUP model of bilingualism, let us look at Text 2.1 and Text 2.2 and see which one is more associated with a BICS context and which one is more associated with a CALP context.
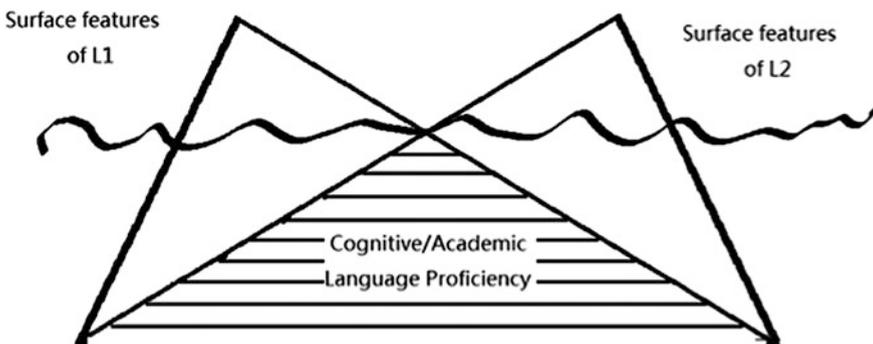

Fig. 2.2 The 'dual-iceberg' representation of bilingual proficiency (redrawn based on Cummins 1980/2001, p. 118; reproduced here by permission of Professor Jim Cummins and the National Association of Bilingual Education)

Text 2.1

- Angel: Hello, Adrian?
- Adrian: Good morning Angel! How're you today?
- Angel: I'm fine! I've been up for a couple of hours working on my computer—
- Adrian: Oh, that's good!
- Angel: Are there lessons for me to see today?
- Adrian: Um…, Ms. Bussie hasn't replied to my email yet—don't know if she's got something arranged…
- Angel: I see, in that case, I'd like to stay home to work this morning, and if she's got back to you, just give me a call, and I'll come back to school.
- Adrian: No problem! Have a productive day!
- Angel: Thanks Adrian! You have a good day too! Bye-bye!
- Adrian: Bye-bye!

Text 2.2

Flowering plants

are classified as high-class plants. At the adult stage, they produce flowers which develop into fruits and seeds after being pollinated and fertilized. Tulips, water lilies, mangoes and bananas are examples of flowering plants.

Application Scenario 2.1

Compare Text 2.1 and Text 2.2 in terms of content and the overall communicative purpose. Can you infer the different kinds of contexts where each text is likely to occur? Discuss in pairs some of the following questions:

- In Text 2.1, what are Adrian and Angel talking about? What's their role relationship likely to be? What's the channel or medium of this exchange? How is this talk organized (into stages)? Is the text originally in the spoken or written mode?
- What is the purpose of (and what has been achieved in) this conversation?
- In Text 2.2: Who is likely to be the author, and to whom is the author writing this text? What's the role relationship between the author and the reader? What's the channel or medium of this text? How is the text organized (into stages)? Is the text originally in the spoken or written mode?

2.2   Genre and Register Theory

While Cummins' conceptions of BICS and CALP provide broad orientations in understanding the differences between everyday language and academic language, a theory of language and, in particular, Michael Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan's work in register theory as well as Jim Martin and David Rose's work in genre theory will help us elaborate what BICS and CALP mean in functional linguistic terms. It will also help us gain a deeper understanding of how students can be helped to master L2 CALP and how L1 CALP can facilitate this in the process.

> *Application Scenario 2.2: Analysing the Linguistic Patterns of Text 2.1 and Text 2.2*
> Let us revisit Text 2.1 and Text 2.2 in *Application Scenario 2.1* above. Re-examine the linguistic features of each text, e.g. How are they different in terms of choices of vocabulary and grammatical patterns? Which text seems to be easier to understand and produce? If someone is learning EAL, what are the different kinds of linguistic patterns that this person needs to master in order to participate competently in these different kinds of contexts? Do you have a *metalanguage* (i.e. a special '*language*' to talk and think about language) to discuss these linguistic patterns?

To have a metalanguage to analyse and talk about Texts 2.1 and 2.2, we can draw on the concepts from register theory (Halliday and Hasan 1976): *field* (what's the subject matter), *tenor* (who are involved) and *mode* (what's the channel). When we produce a text, we are constantly making (subconscious) choices among different vocabularies, grammatical patterns and different ways of organizing or structuring the text. The choices we make will depend on the overall purpose and situation of the communication. As Derewianka (1990) explained, the choices we make in a text depend on:

1. The relationship between the participants: speaker/listener; writer/reader (i.e. the tenor)
2. The subject matter of the text (i.e. the field)
3. The channel of communication: written or spoken (i.e. the mode)

These three factors together determine the register of the text (Derewianka, 1990, p.18)

To understand the different concepts in genre and register theory developed by researchers of the Sydney School (Martin and Rose 2008; Rose and Martin 2012), we can think of a culture as consisting different conventional ways of doing things (or different social processes), including different ways of organizing texts to achieve social purposes. These different ways of organizing texts to achieve different purposes are called different genres. In Sydney School genre theory, genre is

Fig. 2.3 Analysis of the schematic structure of Text 2.1

defined as a 'staged, goal-oriented, social process' (Rose and Martin 2012, p. 54). It is said to be 'staged' and 'goal-oriented' because a genre typically goes through different rhetorical stages to achieve its primary goal or social purpose. To understand how genre and register theory can deepen our understanding of how different texts are organized and produced, let us focus our analytical attention on Text 2.1 again. Figure 2.3 shows an analysis of the rhetorical stages (or schematic structure/genre structure) of Text 2.1. It can be seen that the primary communicative or social purpose of the exchange seems to be one of the requesting information and action (and responses to these requests) and it goes through a recognizable sequence of stages:

1. Greetings,
2. Opening casual talk,
3. Request (for information),
4. Response (offering information),
5. Request (for action),
6. Response (offering a promise), and
7. Closing sequences.

Text 2.1 thus has as its primary goal the achievement of requests for information and actions among colleagues in the field of school lesson visits arrangement. If we have collated and analysed a larger corpus of similar texts (spoken exchanges like this), we can establish with more certainty the features of this kind of genre and perhaps even give the genre a tentative name (e.g. 'workplace request'). Similarly, we can analyse the genre (or schematic) structure of Text 2.2. Figure 2.4 shows an
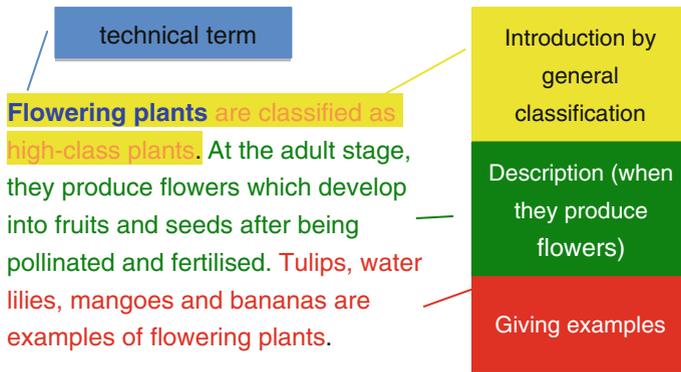
Fig. 2.4 Analysis of the schematic structure of Text 2.2

analysis of the schematic structure of Text 2.2. It follows a simpler but nonetheless recognizable sequence of stages to achieve its purpose:

1. Introduction by classification,
2. Description, and
3. Exemplification.

The primary communicative purpose of Text 2.2 seems to be that of providing a description of a topic (i.e. it belongs to the genre of descriptive texts, more on genres in Chap. 3). It first introduces the topic ('flowering plants') by classifying it as a specific type of plants ('high-class plants'). Then, it provides a description of when ('at the adult stage') they produce flowers and the processes involved ('…flowers…develop into fruits and seeds after being pollinated and fertilized'). In this way, the text is structured systematically, with its primary purpose of providing information on a general class of things or phenomena (flowering plants). Researchers of Sydney School genre theory have analysed numerous school texts and come up with systematic taxonomies of recurrent school genres (together with detailed description and illustration of different stages in different genres) so that school teachers can provide their students with explicit support and guidance in learning to read and write in different school genres (see Martin and Rose 2008; Rose and Martin 2012, more on this in Chap. 3). Under their genre classification system, Text 2.2 is an example of the genre, *descriptive report*.

To understand how register theory can help us analyse how a text is patterned, crafted or constructed, let us ask the following questions: How do differences in the three dimensions (field, tenor, mode) of the context of communication affect the choices made among the lexical (i.e. vocabulary) and grammatical patterns? While Text 2.1 seems to be about the arrangement of lesson visits in a school (the field) between Angel and Adrian, who seem to be friends or colleagues (the tenor), Text 2.2 is about a school science curricular topic—flowering plants (the field), and the writer of Text 2.2 seems to be using a formal tone addressing the reader who is likely to be a

student reading the text (the tenor). Text 2.1 takes the spoken mode, which is a usual mode in everyday social interactions, while Text 2.2 takes the written mode, which is common in school or academic contexts. It can be seen that Text 2.1 exemplifies 'the casual, fluid language characteristic of the spoken mode', while Text 2.2 exemplifies 'the heavily crafted, compressed written mode' (Derewianka 2014, p. 165).

Comparing the two texts, we find that everyday conversations (e.g. Text 2.1) seem to be characterized by the use of shortened forms (e.g. 'I've'), first and second personal pronouns (e.g. 'I', 'you'), simple sentences (e.g. 'I'm fine'), exclamations (e.g. 'Oh, that's good!'), hesitations (e.g. Um…) and a relative lack of technical terms. These lexical and grammatical choices have the potential of communicating personal and emotional involvement. Although the exchange does not take place in a face-to-face conversation and is mediated by the telephone, the 'here-and-now' context still seems to be shared by the conversation participants (Angel and Adrian) who are engaged in synchronous, dialogic communication, taking turns to speak to each other. The conversation participants also seem to share a lot of tacit background understanding and knowledge about the subject matter (field) being discussed (e.g. Ms. Bussie and her role in arranging lesson visits and Angel and her primary interest in visiting classes in the school).

In contrast, a school science text (Text 2.2), which belongs to the genre of *descriptive report*, is characterized by a higher frequency of technical terms (e.g. 'pollinated'), use of the passive voice, complex sentence patterns (e.g. 'At the adult stage, they produce flowers which develop into fruits and seeds after being pollinated and fertilized') and a general lack of personal pronouns. These lexico-grammatical choices have the effect of communicating detachment or social distance (i.e. to achieve a specific value on the dimension of tenor). In fact, the text producer (the writer of Text 2.2) is usually not in the 'here-and-now' context of the text receiver (the reader of Text 2.2). The communication is asynchronous and the text is more monologic than dialogic although a good writer often has the reader in mind and anticipates the reader(s)'s possible needs and points of view as the writer produces a text.

Also, comparing the two texts from the angle of speech acts or rhetorical functions, we see some everyday interpersonal speech acts such as 'request', 'response' and 'promise' in Text 2.1, whereas Text 2.2 involves the functions of 'classifying', 'describing' and 'exemplifying' an entity of academic interest (flowering plants). One can say that Text 2.1 is an example of an everyday register, while Text 2.2 is an example of an academic register. In functional linguistic terms, we can say that the author of these two texts has made different linguistic choices (i.e. in choosing different types of vocabulary and grammatical patterns and achieving different rhetorical functions) to achieve different sets of values on the dimensions of field, tenor and mode of the two different registers.

Summarizing the discussion above, we can say that texts are organized and constructed in different ways according to their genre (purpose) and register (field, tenor, mode); the genre shapes the overall organization or structuring of the text (e.g. what kinds of stages through which the text unfolds to achieve its overall purpose), while the register shapes the lexico-grammatical patterns or linguistic choices made in constructing the text (Derewianka 1990).

Application Scenario 2.3: Analysing the following text
What about the very text that you are reading now? What are the values on the dimensions of field, tenor and mode that are affecting the linguistic choices that I am making as an author of this text? It seems that this text that I am producing has some features of texts in the spoken mode (e.g. use of first and second personal pronouns such as 'I' and 'you' to signal more social involvement and less social distance between the writer and the reader) and does not fit neatly into the categories of everyday registers or academic registers. Why have I made these linguistic choices? What are my communicative purposes?


The above discussion leads us to conclude that different theories and concepts (e.g. Cummins' notions of BICS, CALP, the Sydney School's genre and register theory) are attempts by educators and linguists to help us understand *how language varies* (or how texts vary) according to different communicative purposes and different contextual factors. In other words, language in use in authentic contexts is not one single homogeneous entity (even though we might tend to say things such as the English language, the Chinese language, the Spanish language, everyday language and academic language). Instead, we can more fruitfully think of language as a repertoire of genres and registers which are chosen according to the overall communicative purpose and the aspects of field, tenor and mode in different contexts of communication. That is, when we use language to communicate in different contexts for different social purposes, we are constantly making different linguistic choices at all levels, from genre selection (choices about which genre to use—how to organize a text into different stages), to lexico-grammatical choices (which words, phrases, clauses or sentence patterns to use), to grapho-phonological choices (which spellings, font type and size, or which pronunciations and intonations to use, etc.). These theoretical considerations have important implications for education. For instance, if we can have a framework that describes how language varies (i.e. how texts vary) according to the user(s), according to use and according to mode, then we can systematically design our curriculum materials to help students master these variations in language patterning (or linguistic features) in different contexts (e.g. shifting confidently between everyday and academic contexts—which are, however, not discrete, binary categories but are often lying on a continuum). This brings us to a consideration of Ahmar Mahboob's work in the next section.

2.3   Mahboob's Three-Dimensional Framework of Language Variation: Everyday and Specialized Fields; Global and Local Tenors; and Spoken and Written Modes

Up to now, the reader might have the impression that the spoken mode is often associated with everyday registers and the written mode is strongly associated with academic registers. However, this does not need to be the case. For instance, in everyday interactions, we are increasingly using written email (asynchronous communication) to supplement face-to-face or mediated conversations (synchronous communication). In academic contexts, there are also important spoken modes of communication (e.g. oral presentations, lectures, seminar discussions) that go side by side with written communication. Increasingly, multimodality (i.e. using multiple modes of communication including spoken, written modes and images, music, videos, gestures, etc.) characterizes both our everyday and academic communication.

Ahmar Mahboob (2014) has proposed a useful framework to capture the criss-crossing of these different continua along the dimensions of field, tenor and mode. Figure 2.5 shows Mahboob's conceptualization of how the continuum of spoken-written modes criss-crosses with the continuum of social distance between the users. Language users can be said to be located on a social (tenor) continuum between the global and local poles. For example, family members or friends living in the same locale can be said to be located closer to the local pole of the social distance continuum; international business clients can be said to be located closer to the global pole of the social distance continuum. In Fig. 2.5, on the left-hand side, in the *local written* and *local oral* quadrants, we can find texts such as local newspapers, magazines, fiction, textbooks, radio and television. These are usually

Fig. 2.5 Criss-crossing the spoken-written continuum with the continuum of social distance (*Source* Mahboob 2013; reproduced by permission of Dr. Ahmar Mahboob)
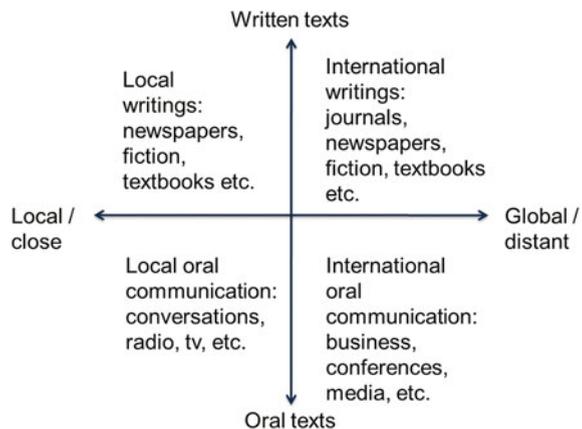
mediated in the local, familiar languages of the language users (can be first lan-
guages of the home or local community languages). On the right-hand side of the
diagram, in the *global written* and *global oral* quadrants, we can find texts such as
international newspapers, journals, textbooks, fiction, business conferences and
media. One aspect of this framework that is interesting to discuss is the *ontogenetic*
development of language (i.e. an individual's trajectory of language development,
more on this in Chap. 3). We all, regardless of which first language we speak,
develop language first in everyday, local and oral contexts (e.g. the family and the
local communities) and then develop understandings of language use in the other
domains including technical or specialized ones (often through formal education).
This relates to Cummins' notions of BICS and CALP as well as Sydney school
genre and register theory. That is, we all first develop BICS in our local familiar
languages (L1s) (e.g. language(s) of the family and the local communities in which
we live) and then later we learn to communicate with CALP both in our familiar
first/local languages (L1s) or L2/L3 (additional languages) usually in formal edu-
cation. Likewise, we also usually learn BICS in an additional language with formal
instruction (e.g. in L2 language lessons in schools or adult learning centres).
However, it is also possible to pick up BICS in an additional language such as in the
situation of the immigrant child in the host country, or in the context of
multiethnic/multilingual neighbourhoods. To summarize these various combina-
tions of possible situations, we can look at the three-dimensional model of
Mahboob (2013, 2014, in press) in Fig. 2.6. Mahboob's framework draws on the
three concepts (field, tenor, mode) of register theory to map out the diverse pos-
sibilities of how language and texts vary according to the different aspects of the
context of language use. The sociolinguists' current consensus about how
language/texts vary can thus be summarized as follows:

Fig. 2.6 The Mahboobian framework of language variation for education (*Source* Mahboob 2013; reproduced by permission of Dr. Ahmar Mahboob)
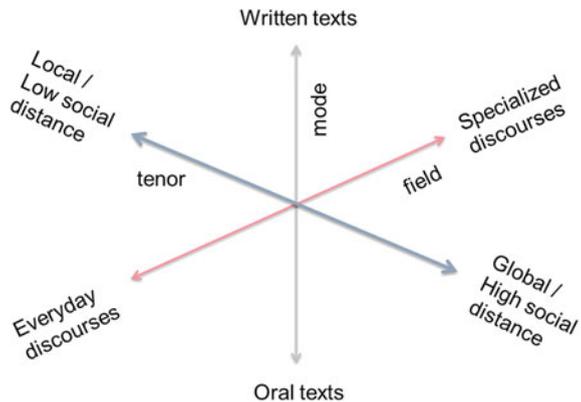
What would most (socio)linguists agree on about the nature of language variation?

1. Language varies based on whether we are talking to people in our community (local) or people outside our community (global),
2. Language varies based on whether we are speaking or writing, and
3. Language varies based on whether we are engaged in everyday or specialized discourses.
   (Summary based on ideas from Mahboob 2014)

In this framework (see Fig. 2.6), we can identify eight different domains in which language varies depending on the combinations of different values on the three dimensions of field, tenor and mode of the context of communication. The first four domains include language variations that reflect local usage, and they can vary in the following ways:

1. Local everyday written,
2. Local everyday oral,
3. Local specialized written,
4. Local specialized oral,

This local usage can be done in one local language or multiple local languages depending on the context. For example, in neighbourhoods in Yaumatei (an area in Hong Kong where there are many different ethnic groups living together for a long time), local communication among neighbours can be done in everyday, informal and local varieties of languages. This local usage will also be found in similar contexts in other places, such as 'hawker centres' (local everyday eating places) in Singapore, where different varieties of local languages can be heard (e.g. Hokkien, Cantonese, Mandarin, Singlish). However, local usage can also involve specialized discourses. For example, in the Jade Market in Yaumatei in Hong Kong, specialized local usage can be found (e.g. specialized jade-related vocabulary is used). Similarly, when birdwatchers in the Maipo wetland area in Hong Kong meet in the field, local usage that involves specialized, birdwatching discourses (e.g. in Cantonese, Mandarin and English) can be heard (e.g. names of birds found in the Maipo wetland area, specialized vocabulary related to the birds' features and behaviour). In the same vein, local usage can also involve written modes. For example, instances of local everyday written usage can be found in neighbourhood posters (e.g. a poster looking for a lost pet). Likewise, examples of local specialized written usage can be found in the newsletters and web sites of local societies such as the Hong Kong Birdwatching Society.

In Mahboob's three-dimensional framework of language variation (Fig. 2.6), the other four domains involve global usage that varies with the dimension of written/oral and the dimension of everyday/specialized:

5. Global everyday written,
6. Global everyday oral,
7. Global specialized written, and
8. Global specialized oral.

These four domains of language usage differ from the first four domains in that they refer to contexts of language usage where participants need to communicate with people who do not share their local ways of using language. Globally oriented everyday written usage, for example, can be found in international editions of newspapers and magazines, which avoid local colloquialisms to make the text accessible to wider communities of readers. Global everyday oral usage can be found in interactions between people coming from different parts of the world when they are conversing about everyday casual topics. In contrast to global everyday usage, global specialized usage is involved when people coming from different parts of the world discuss specialized topics (e.g. in a paper presentation session in an international academic conference). This can involve spoken usage (e.g. academic presentations and discussions in a specialized conference on marine biology) or written usage (e.g. international research journal articles). In using this framework, however, it must be pointed out that there is considerable variation within each of these eight domains depending on the specific aspects of each context of communication (Mahboob 2014). This framework, however, provides us with an overall sociolinguistic 'road map' to chart out the different possible domains in which a student will need to develop different appropriate kinds of language proficiencies (e.g. BICS, CALP). The framework can thus inform our work in curriculum planning. Although more future research is needed to further elaborate this framework, Mahboob has pointed the possible way forward in our efforts to build an integrated model to analyse important features of everyday and academic language proficiencies (i.e. how people construct different types/styles of language and texts according to the needs of different contexts of communication), a distinction first proposed in the BICS and CALP concepts of Cummins.

2.4 Revisiting the Concept of CALP: What Is Common to L1 and L2 CALPs?

To continue with the theorizing work started by Cummins (see Sect. 2.1), we need to ask a further question: What do L1 and L2 CALPs share in linguistic terms? By drawing on genre and register theory as well as Mahboob's framework of language variation, we can reach some tentative conclusions about the nature of CALP and what seems to be shared by CALPs in different languages.

It seems that Cummins' prototypical CALP would map onto the 7th domain of Mahboob's three-dimensional framework and BICS would map onto the 1st and 2nd domains. We must also pay attention to the oral mode of CALP (i.e. in the 8th domain) and students need to be assisted to produce globally oriented, spoken, specialized texts as these are not the same as BICS in Cummins' conceptualization. These globally oriented spoken academic texts share features of both CALP and BICS implying that students need to learn both how to engage the audience in a formal oral academic presentation and how to articulate academic content using the

appropriate academic register for the content. Students would also need to be supported in developing language proficiencies in the 5th and 6th domains, as in the globalized world, most of our graduates will need to communicate with people from different parts of the world not only on specialized topics but also on everyday casual topics (e.g. in casual informal dinner parties with international business clients after the formal business meetings, or in informal email exchanges).

The next question to ask would be: how are CALPs in different languages (e.g. L1, L2, L3…) similar or different? Would a good foundation of CALP in one language be beneficial to learning CALP in another language? To address this question, we can draw insights from genre theory and register theory. From the systemic functional linguistic perspective, we can see language as a system of systems of choices (i.e. nested systems) for making meaning, and there are different choices to be made at different systemic levels, e.g. the more global textual level (e.g. genre structuring) and the more local lexico-grammatical level (more on this in Chap. 3). The textual level involves choices of different ways of structuring the text through stages to achieve the overall communicative purpose of the genre (e.g. compare Text 2.1 with Text 2.2), while the lexico-grammatical level involves choices of words, clauses and sentence patterns to signal different values on the dimensions of field, tenor and mode (register). With this linguistic understanding, the next question for us to ask would be: What would a student gain by having built a good foundation in CALP (in both spoken and written modes) in one language when he/she approaches the task of learning CALP in another language, and vice versa?

It seems that students who have developed a good foundation in CALP in one language are likely to have an enhanced *metalinguistic awareness* (i.e. awareness of how language works and varies across different contexts). They will be more likely to be aware that CALP involves the need to instantiate a certain set of values in academic registers (e.g. the need to turn dynamic *processes* into static *entities*), and different languages offer different concrete lexico-grammatical choices to achieve them. This is similar to Cummins' notion of surface features of L1 and L2. These surface features will be different in different languages (e.g. the lexico-grammatical choices will be different in L1 and L2). However, the overall communicative purposes of academic genres and their textual schematic structuring (i.e. the stages through which a text in a certain genre unfolds to achieve its overall purpose) will tend to be similar. For instance, an academic science text describing flowering plants is likely to have a similar overall purpose and textual structuring whether it is in L1 or L2. Given the increasingly globalizing trends in academic discourses, the genres and texts in academic contexts across different societies (i.e. in the 7th and 8th domains in Mahboob's framework of language variation) are likely to be sharing more similarities than differences.

In Mahboob's three-dimensional framework (Fig. 2.6), the texts in the 7th domain will tend to share similar information structuring features (given their shared *academic* field, *global* tenor and *written* mode) even though these texts might be produced in diverse languages. To illustrate this scenario, let us look at the *bilingual notes approach* reported in Lin (2013). Figure 2.7 shows a school science laboratory report which is written in the students' L1 (Chinese) and L2 (English),

5.　觀察 表 1：紅椰菜汁在不同化學品中的顏色				5.　Observation　(i.e. What do I observe?) Table 1：The colour of red cabbage juice in different chemicals			
化學藥品	紅椰菜汁 的顏色			Chemicals	**The color of red cabbage juice**		
	實驗前		**實驗後**		**Before**		**After**
酸 1 (鹽酸)		轉為		acid 1 (hydrochloric acid)		change to	
酸 2 (醋酸)				acid 2 (acetic acid)			
鹼 1 (氫氧化鈉)				alkali 1 (sodium hydroxide)			

Fig. 2.7 實驗報告 Laboratory Report (Reproduced here by permission of the teachers, Mr. CHEUNG Kwok-wa and Mr. CHOO-KAN Kwok-wing)

with the 2 versions laid out side by side for easy comparison by the Secondary 2 (Grade 8) Hong Kong students, who were learning EAL. CALP is needed to read and write this laboratory report. While the surface features (or lexico-grammatical features) of this academic text is different in L1 (Chinese) and L2 (English), the generic structure (or information structuring through genre stages) to achieve the overall communicative goal is similar. By juxtaposing the L1 and L2 versions of the laboratory report, students are led to draw on their L1 CALP to facilitate their understanding of the L2 academic text, thus also facilitating their learning of the L2 'surface features' (or L2 lexico-grammatical features).

In this chapter, we have focused on introducing the concept of language variation and the various concepts and theories attempting to understand language variation. We have introduced Jim Cummins's conceptions of BICS and CALP and have discussed how these conceptions can be further enhanced by the genre theory

and register theory from the Sydney School and Mahboob's three-dimensional framework of how language varies according to the overall purpose of communication (genre) and the field, tenor and mode (register) of communication. All these theoretical concepts have educational implications as they inform us about the different features of everyday language styles and academic language styles and the different kinds of proficiencies that students will need to develop in different domains of communication. In the next chapter, we shall take a closer look at Sydney School genre theories, and how they can help both content teachers and language teachers develop a common vocabulary or *metalanguage* to collaborate in their cross-curricular efforts to support students learning content in an L2 or EAL.

Chapter Summary Points

- Language variation theories including Cummins' notions of BICS and CALP, genre theory and register theory of the Sydney School, the Mahboobian Framework of language variation (8 broad domains of different kinds of language usage)
- Educational implications of theories of language variation: different features of academic language styles and everyday language styles and why students need to be supported in moving between everyday language styles and academic language styles in different contexts
- How to use these concepts and theories of language variation to analyse different texts (e.g. everyday texts; school academic texts)
- How CALP in one language (e.g. L1) can support the learning of CALP in another language (e.g. L2) and vice versa.

End-of-Chapter Discussion Questions

1. While the concepts of BICS and CALP can offer teachers a quick understanding of the differences between everyday language styles (and texts) and academic language styles (and texts), what are some of the limitations of these 2 concepts? How can genre theory and register theory of the Sydney School and Mahboob's three-dimensional framework help overcome some of these limitations?
2. Can you analyse the lexico-grammatical features of this chapter, e.g. Are there many technical terms? What about the grammatical patterns? Do these features resemble those of everyday conversations or academic texts?
3. Can you analyse the field, tenor and mode of this chapter? Does this chapter fit neatly into the category of academic texts? Why? Why not?
4. Which domain of the Mahboobian Framework (Fig. 2.6) would you place this chapter into? Is it possible to have examples of language usage that border on two or more domains? Give examples and justify your decision.
5. What is the main argument of this chapter? To what extent do you agree or disagree with the main argument of this chapter? Explain your answer.

References

Cummins, J. (1980/2001). The entry and exit fallacy in bilingual education. In C. Baker & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *An introductory reader to the writings of Jim Cummins* (pp. 110–138). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters. [This paper was originally given as a keynote address at the Workshop on 'Comparative Review of Identified District Continua' sponsored by the National Origin Desegregation LAU Centre, at the 9th Annual Bilingual Bicultural Education Conference (NABE), San Diego State University, Anaheim, California, April, 1980].

Derewianka, B. (1990). *Exploring how texts work*. Australia: Primary English Teaching Association.

Derewianka, B. (2014). Supporting students in the move from spoken to written language. In A. Mahboob & L. Barratt (Eds.), *Englishes in multilingual contexts* (pp. 165–182). Dordrecht: Springer.

Gibbons, P. (2009). *English learners, academic literacy, and thinking: Learning in the challenge zone*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.

Lin, A. M. Y. (2013). Towards paradigmatic change in TESOL methodologies: Building plurilingual pedagogies from the ground up. *TESOL Quarterly, 47*(3), 521–545.

Lin, A. M. Y., & Man, E. Y. F. (2009). *Bilingual education: Southeast Asian perspectives*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Mahboob, A. (2013). *World Englishes, identity management and education* [PowerPoint slides]. Seminar presented at the L1 & L2 Academic Literacies Seminar Series, Faculty of Education, University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam, Hong Kong.

Mahboob, A. (2014). Language variation and education: A focus on Pakistan. In S. Buschfeld, T. Hoffmann, M. Huber, & A. Kautzsch (Eds.), *The evolution of Englishes* (Vol. 2, pp. 267–281). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Mahboob, A. (in press). Understanding language variation: Implications of the NNEST lens for TESOL teacher education programs. In J. de Dios Martinez Agudo (Ed.), *Native and non-native speakers in English language teaching: Implications and challenges for teacher education*. Boston: De Gruyter Mouton.

Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2008). *Genre relations: Mapping culture*. London: Equinox.

Rose, D., & Martin, J. R. (2012). *Learning to write, reading to learn: Genre, knowledge and pedagogy in the Sydney School*. Bristol: Equinox.

Wells, G. (1979). Describing children's linguistic development at home and at school. *British Educational Research Journal, 5*(1), 75–89.

Language Across the Curriculum & CLIL in English as an
Additional Language (EAL) Contexts
Theory and Practice
Lin, A.
2016, XII, 251 p. 43 illus., Softcover