Revitalization "Handbook":

Mapping Language Classifications, Goals, and Methodologies

by

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ABSTRACT

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Revitalization Handbook: Mapping Language Classifications, Goals, and Methodologies
Thesis directed by Dr. Maria Thomas-Ruzic and Dr. David Rood

According to Cowell (2012), the language revitalization literature and speech communities' efforts have been characterized by three major swings over the past fifty years: additional language teaching methods, "revitalization" emphasis, and now an anthropological approach. This thesis is a "revitalization manual" that brings the three waves together, redefining troublesome areas while maintaining useful concepts. By considering certain pre-existing literature helps identify the benefits of a usage-based demographics/domain assessment for each individual language such that achievable goals are matched to language teaching methodologies, creating a system of revitalization that works within the ideological frameworks of the speech communities. Such a system contributes to new, more nuanced measures of "success" for revitalization efforts and outcomes. Four languages—Irish Gaelic, Hawaiian, Arapaho, and Wichita—and their various efforts to reverse their conditions are examined as case study examples for understanding usage-based domain assessment. These case languages also contribute to the refined classification typology proposed, and the mapping of language teaching methods to revitalization efforts based on achievable goals for success.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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PREFACE

I began this thesis project with a general interest in the revitalization of endangered/indigenous languages and past experience in additional language teaching methods; I want to combine the two in an attempt to understand how one could inform the other. My efforts have taken me on a journey through the "three waves of revitalization efforts" as identified by Cowell (2012). My final product offers a manual for future language revitalization/planning efforts, including a matrix that maps classifications, goals, usage-based domains, and teaching methods in a way that asks planners and speech communities to define success based on manageable tasks rooted in their individual needs, ideologies, and resources.

In the project's early stages, I tried to undertake the relationship between two branches of linguistic study, revitalization and language acquisition, in the same way many others had before me. I was functioning in the framework Cowell (2012) claims to be the first wave of revitalization efforts—saving language through second language principles. Yet, I quickly realized there is more involved than simply treating the endangered language as a "foreign" language to be studied. Rather, the indigenous language tends to be the more "native" language of the land and has become endangered due to political-historical, cultural, and ideological shifts in the speech community. Furthermore, it is often the case that effective teachers are in short supply, the "speaker" and the "teacher" are rarely one and the same person, and/or they have limited "teacher training" in language-teaching methods.

My initial focus was to explore a broader application of methods rather than the challenge of supplying teacher training. One reason for this is my personal belief that training learners (in addition to teachers) greatly aids in the language learning process. By training the learner, life long education for individuals becomes the focus over the temporary lessons in a language

classroom. Therefore, I assert the general application of methods (both in training teachers and learners) as a means of helping revitalize a language.

In becoming more aware of the complexity behind teaching endangered languages, I found myself shifting to the philosophy and literature of the second wave—identifying the need for language "classifications" and revitalization "goals" that account for the socio-cultural demographics of a speech community. Yet, drawbacks exist in this approach as well. Several main "drawbacks" or oversights include the importance of language status, communities' cultural and linguistic ideologies, and language learners' motivation levels. My dissatisfaction with prior "levels of endangerment" models has directed me to create a type of assessment based on individual languages' domains of use to help set realistic goals. These goals, ideally, serve as ways of raising/improving a language's status in the community by reversing negative ideologies and creating reasons outside of a classroom setting to learn the target language.

My four "focus" languages (Irish Gaelic, Hawaiian, Arapaho, and Wichita) provide a sampling of usage-based domains assessments. For the purposes of this thesis, I have limited my research to pre-existing literature of these languages, conference sessions, and interviews (primarily with projects' leading linguists). By examining the four sample languages in this way, I have been able to create a framework that accounts for individual linguistic and cultural variations. In future research, interviews and experiences with speech community members will provide a more "holistic," *in situ* understanding of the current/potential domains of use and the ideologies surrounding a given language. Such interviews paired with the matrix presented in this thesis (specifically in Chapter VI: Conclusions) can hopefully contribute to revitalization efforts' strategic planning.

CHAPTER I: Introduction

Global Context

In the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) field, the

concept of English as a "global language" or "lingua franca" is often addressed (Guilherme,

2009). Debates about teaching "native" pronunciation to "native" idioms surface in the field's

journals, textbooks, and conferences (Guilherme, 2009; Celce-Murcia &Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

A high demand for TESOL instructors on a global scale and high levels of learner motivation

because of a desire to conduct business, travel, and socialize in the target language. Therefore,

the field of TESOL continues to expand, and the quality of teacher training, language materials,

and access forums improve.

Thus we have, on the one hand, the grand expansion of English and other "global" languages,

such as Spanish, French, Arabic, and German; on the other, we have the corresponding loss of

linguistic diversity as less known indigenous languages become **endangered** (at risk of

disappearing from speech communities' use) as speakers' motivation shifts from using the

indigenous language to using the "global" languages. Additionally, first-language acquisition in

the home of indigenous languages becomes a rare thing in the speech communities; and teacher

training and instructional materials development may be limited.

General Situation ("endangered languages" globally and in NA)

Approximately 2,387 languages around the world are endangered; in North America

alone, 85 languages are "in trouble" and 151 are "dying" (Lewis et al, 2013). Reasons for this

loss of linguistic diversity include: linguistic contact (languages interacting with others creating

new forms of communication) (Hagege, 2009); negative ideologies (Hagege, 2009; Grenoble &

Whaley, 1997); globalization (the lessening of diversification on a global scale), and emergent

technology increasing the spread of lingua francas (Bradley & Bradley, 2002; Fishman, 1991; Romaine, 2008b).

Language is not the only thing at risk of being overpowered by a global/technological world—culture is also at risk. The Native American cultures and languages have been disappearing along with the language. In recent decades, however, efforts have been established to avoid such fates. Through trial and error, some have been successful to some extent, while others seem to have had no negligible impact. I hope to pull from these past experiences to shape a new model for efforts to work from and a new understanding of success for efforts to strive for.

Focus Language Sample and Rationale

The language sample chosen for this thesis includes Irish Gaelic, Hawaiian, Arapaho, and Wichita to give as broad of a sample of "endangered" languages in as small a sample as possible. According to traditional standards, each language represents a different level of endangerment; thus each helps round out my argumentation regarding revitalization efforts and methodology applications. Furthermore, my personal study and interest has led me to encounter the language sample in varying ways. In my undergraduate program, I encountered, researched, and taught myself Irish Gaelic through various **self-access** means. Through my Irish Gaelic research, an interest in endangered languages began, encouraging me to study the structure of Wichita and looking into Arapaho and Hawaiian as an extension of my thesis project.

Purpose of Study

Beyond personal interest and interaction with the languages, I have found other, more compelling, reasons to pursue applying teaching methodologies to revitalization efforts. First, as a TESOL professional participating in the expansion of English, I feel it is important to advocate for the preservation of language learners' cultural and linguistic heritages. An additional

rationale falls in line with other scholars addressing the topic of indigenous languages and

teaching additional languages: maintaining a language as a **heritage** (cultural or familial)

language is an avenue to maintaining a community's culture and an individual's sense of identity

(Brenzinger, 2007; Fishman, 1991; Bauman, 1980; Hinton & Hale, 2001; Bradley & Bradley,

2002); knowing the structure of more than one language can help improve learning/academic

skills and ability to study a language—both first and additional (Diaz-Rico, 2008); access to a

heritage language can bridge generational gaps in a community and help achieve academic

success (Diaz-Rico, 2008).Whatever the final motivation may be for an effort, many linguists,

anthropologists, speech communities, elders, and interested individuals are trying to **revitalize,**

or reverse the condition/fate of, endangered languages around the world*;* a deeper understanding

of the various factors behind languages' conditions can contribute to doing so successfully.

Integrating the "Three Swings": Thesis statement

Over the years, as Cowell (2012, 2013)[1] identifies, indigenous language revitalization

efforts have amassed into three waves: (1) teaching "foreign language" in the 1970s and 1980s

(2) "revitalization" as a specialized field in the 1990s, and (3) the anthropologic approach. The

further the efforts go in the process of language revitalization, the clearer it becomes that there is

more to it than preserving the use of a linguistic system. Ideological, identity, and cultural shifts

are also occurring and language loss can be seen as a byproduct of the shifts (Kroskrity & Field,

2009; Cowell, 2012; Kipp, 2000; Cooper, 1989). This thesis is a "revitalization manual" that

brings the three waves together, redefining troublesome areas and maintaining useful concepts.

An examination of the pre-existing literature helps identify the benefits of a usage-based

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[1] Cowell (2013) explains that the waves identified in Cowell (2012) are based on his perspective and that much of the literature still exists in the "second wave," while he and a few others (Mühlhauser, 2002; St. Clair and Bush, 2002; Edwards, 2007; and Meek, 2010, as cited in Cowell, 2012) focus on the anthropologic components of revitalization.

demographics/domain assessment for each individual language such that achievable goals are matched to language teaching methodologies, creating a system of revitalization that works within the ideological frameworks of the speech communities. The resulting matrix helps to identify relevant strategies and redefine "successes" in revitalization efforts.

Organization of Thesis

Chapter Two presents the current literature surrounding the "second swing" or "revitalization-frenzy swing" and identifies the three "drawbacks" to the existing models. This chapter lays the groundwork for what has been discussed previously and what "problem" I will address in the following chapters. Chapter Three introduces the framework—usage-based domains—for evaluating a language's status, explores the two components of the framework, and then broadly applies to framework to the four focus languages in a case study. Chapter Four applies the usage-based assessment to redefine the understanding of endangerment status and restructure goals for revitalization to be more achievable. Chapter Five evaluates current additional teaching methodologies, literature on indigenous-language teaching methodologies, and examines how current methodological approaches might better serve revitalization efforts. Chapter Six, the conclusion, brings the discussions together into a final "matrix" that illustrates the relationship between usage-based domains, realistic goals/language classifications, and teaching additional language methodology. Implications of the matrix and overall conclusions of the thesis are also addressed in this section.

CHAPTER II: Context/Background

Terminology: "language endangerment" and "revitalization"

According to Hinton and Hale (2001), "A language that is not a language of government, nor a language of education, nor a language of commerce or of wider communication is a language whose very existence is threatened in the modern world. […] These imperiled tongues have come to be known as '**endangered languages**'" (p. 3). In essence, a language is endangered when it is not a dominant means of communication in at least one sphere: government, education, business, or community life. The spheres or domains of use help identify a language's status, determine appropriate goals, and map these to language teaching instruction and methodology for revitalization efforts.

The efforts of individuals, linguists, and communities to reverse the endangered status of languages are the core principles of **language revitalization**. Hinton and Hale (2001) uses "language revitalization" to refer to language efforts that develop programs to change the language's status. Defining revitalization in these terms allows languages with drastically different demographics to be endangered and in need of revitalization. Attempts to reverse either a language that is no longer spoken or a language that is still a first language of children but threatened by a dominant language are seen as "revitalization efforts." The umbrella terms of endangerment and revitalization defined above help in examining reasons for language endangerment and in evaluating languages' statuses based on individualized features.

Literature Review of Endangerment/Revitalization

The language endangerment and revitalization literature typically addresses a language's demographics in relation to its "status" or classification. The number of speakers, age of speakers, and so forth are often used to group languages into certain categories. Brenzinger (2007)

identifies nine core factors affecting the languages' level of endangerment, as based on

UNESCO's reports. These factors address many of the key, mostly demographic-like questions

to be considered any time a language's endangerment status is assessed and revitalization efforts

proposed.

Factor 1	Intergenerational language transmission
Factor 2	Absolute number of speakers
Factor 3	Proportion of speakers within the total population
Factor 4	Loss of existing language domains
Factor 5	Response to new domains and media
Factor 6	Material for language education and literacy
Factor 7	Governmental and institutional language attitudes towards their own language
Factor 8	Community members' attitudes towards their own language
(Factor 9	Amount and quality of documentation)

<div align="right">(Brenzinger, 2007, p. x-xi)</div>

The literature uses these "demographics" to rate a language on a three or eight-degree

scale. Krauss (2007) in his article "Classification and Terminology for Degrees of Language

Endangerment" classifies languages into one of three categories—safe, endangered, and

extinct—by loosely using the nine factors as a guide for placement. In Table 1, Krauss' (2007)

lays out his schema for classifying languages according to degree of viability.

Table 1: Schema for classifying languages according to degree of viability

'safe'			*a+*	
Endangered	*In decline*	*Stable*	*a*	*All speak, children & up*
		Instable; eroded	*a-*	*Some children speak; all children speak in some places*
		Definitively endangered	*b*	*Spoken only by parental generations and up*
		Severely endangered	*c*	*Spoken only by grandparental generation and up*
		Critically endangered	*d*	*Spoken only by very few, of great-grandparental generation*
extinct			*e*	*No speakers*

<div align="right">(Krauss, 2007, p. 1)</div>

According to this schema, 'safe' languages are those in which children are still acquiring the language from their parents and are predicted to do so in the future. Extinct languages are considered to be any language that no longer has speakers. Endangered languages, according to Krauss (2007), are all languages in between 'safe' and extinct and can be subdivided into two categories. Two subcategories of Krauss' endangered include "stable […] being learned as mother-tongue by the children" and "in decline," or at varying stages of speaker use (2007, p. 3). The "in decline" category breaks further into four subcategories trying to draw distinctions between languages in terms of their "vitality." Vitality in essence is the level of endangerment; it expresses how far from losing all native speakers the language is. In the end, Krauss' (2007) three-category schema is comprised of seven levels.

Fishman's (1991) famous eight stages of language endangerment are also known as Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (GIDS). Though often referenced by those working with endangered languages, they are not much better at addressing the conundrum of endangerment models being too broad in terminology yet too narrow in criterion. Like Krauss' schema, the stages describe, assess, and scale a language's threatened nature based on the given demographics. Unlike Krauss' schema, Fishman's GIDS focuses only on levels or "stages" of endangerment and ignores "safe" and "extinct" classification. GIDS also accounts for more social, political, educational, and media factors than Krauss' schema.

The GIDS divides the factors into eight stages—the greater the "stage" number, the greater the linguistic endangerment; the higher numbers (stage 1 being the highest) imply that all other stages (to some degree) also apply (Fishman, 1991, p87). Therefore, stage one has some components of all the other stages. Fishman summarizes the eight GIDS stages as follows:

Stage 8 on the GIDS (Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale): most vestigial users of Xish are socially isolated old folks and Xish needs to be re-assembled from their mouths and memories and taught to demographically unconcentrated adults.

Stage 7 on the GIDS: most users of Xish are a socially integrated and ethnologically active population but they are beyond child-bearing age.

Stage 6 on the GIDS: the attainment of intergenerational informal oralcy and its demographic concentration and institutional reinforcement.

Stage 5 on the GIDS: Xish literacy in home, school and community, but without taking on extra-communal reinforcement of such literacy.

Stage 4 on the GIDS: Xish in lower education (types a and b) that meets the requirements of compulsory education laws.

Stage 3 on the GIDS: use of Xish in the lower work sphere (outside of the Xish neighborhood/community) involved in interactions between Xmen and Ymen.

Stage 2 on the GIDS: Xish in lower governmental services and mass media but not in the higher spheres of either.

Stage 1 on the GIDS: some use of Xish in higher level educational, occupational, governmental and media efforts (but without the additional safety provided by political independence).

(Fishman, 1991, p. 87-109)

Statement of Problem: Three drawbacks to current models

On the one hand, both the GIDS and Krauss' schemata give terms and needed classification to revitalization efforts. If the level of endangerment can be identified, then the revitalization efforts have a beginning point to reverse the language's fate. On the other hand, the models face three main drawbacks: inability to accept the fluidity, or dynamism, of languages; lack of established outcome goals; and failure to clearly express methods for shifting a language from one category to the next.

Regarding the first drawback, the classifications are restricting and fail to deal with languages and socio-cultural factors as dynamic and not linear in their development. Some languages like Irish may be educational languages (compliant with Fishman's (1991) Stage 4) but lack a strong sense of literacy or oral competency within the home and community (Stage 5), as discussed in later). Not every language falls perfectly on a linear scale, and the resulting

challenges of classification may make it difficult to set realistic linguistic goals for the

revitalization effort.

The lack of, and need for, outcome goals are the second drawback to these models. While

Fishman (1991) promotes the potential to shift from one stage to the next as improving the state

of a language, the direct goals, domain uses, and so forth are not clearly laid out. Cowell notes

that goals tend not to be established clearly or early on. Rather a linguist may sit down with a

language group wanting to fully revive their language and through long conversations and

talking around the issue, a vague understanding may be reached (personal communication,

February 2013). Many communities begin a revitalization project believing they want a "full

revitalization" but do not necessarily have the means to make the language a national language

or dominant language as in the case of Hebrew. Fishman (1991) does not address this point

regarding adequate means. He asserts that a language may be able to shift from Stage 8 to a

higher stage with time and effort, but may never reach Stage 1 depending on a given set of

factors. Furthermore, Fishman does not specify what language instruction methodology and

ideology redefinition is involved when a language shifts from one stage to another; this lack of

specificity in the process is the third drawback to the models.

Reyhner et al. (1999) in "Some basics of Indigenous language revitalization" elaborates

on Fishman's model by suggesting ways of expanding a given domain or increasing immersion

experiences in correlation to Fishman's eight stages. In Figure 1, Reyherner et al. (1999) presents

their assertions of using approaches and methods like "language apprenticeships" and Total

Physical Response in alignment with Fishman's stages.

Figure 1: from Reyhner (1999).

Figure 1. Suggested Interventions Based on Different Stages of Language Endangerment [Adapted from Fishman's (1991, pp. 88-109) Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale for Threatened Languages].

Current Status of Language	Current Status of Language Suggested Interventions to Strengthen Language
Stage 8: Only a few elders speak the language.	Implement Hinton's (1994) "Language Apprentice" Model where fluent elders are teamed one-to-one with young adults who want to learn the language. Dispersed, isolated elders can be connected by phone to teach others the language (Taff, 1997).
Stage 7: Only adults beyond childbearing age speak the language.	Establish "Language Nests" after the Maori and Hawaiian, models where fluent older adults provide pre-school child- care where children are immersed in their indigenous language (Anonby, this volume; Fishman, 1991).
Stage 6: Some inter-generational use of language.	Develop places in community where language is encouraged, protected, and used exclusively. Encourage more young parents to speak the indigenous language in home with and around their young children.
Stage 5: Language is still very much alive and used in community.	Offer literacy in minority language. Promote voluntary programs in the schools and other community institutions to improve the prestige and use of the language. Use language in local government functions, especially social services. Give recognition to special local efforts through awards, etc.
Stage 4: Language is required in elementary school.	Improve instructional methods utilizing TPR (Asher, 1996), TPR-Storytelling (Cantoni, this volume), and other immersion teaching techniques. Teach reading and writing and higher level language skills (Heredia & Francis, 1997). Develop two-way bilingual programs where appropriate where non-speaking elementary students learn the indigenous language and speakers learn an international language. Need to develop indigenous language textbooks to teach literacy and academic subject matter content.
Stage 3: Language is used in places of business and by employees in less specialized work areas.	Promote language by making it the language of work used throughout the community (Palmer, 1997). Develop vocabulary so that workers in an office could do their day-to-day work using their indigenous language (Anonby, this volume)
Stage 2: Language is used by local government and in the mass media in the minority community.	Promote use of written form of language for government and business dealings/records. Promote indigenous language newsletters, newspapers, radio stations, and television stations.
Stage 1: Some language use by higher levels of government and in higher education.	Teach tribal college subject matter classes in the language. Develop an indigenous language oral and written literature through dramatic presentations and publications. Give tribal/ national awards for indigenous language publications and other notable efforts to promote indigenous languages.

(Reyhner, et al, 1999, pg vii)

While Reyhner et al.'s model attempts to address one of the GIDS' drawbacks and to suggest ways to expand linguistic domains in response to shifting from one stage to the next, it still lacks three things:

(1) ability of a language to exhibit a range of stages in various domains;

(2) clear understanding/articulation of realistic goals for use of the language;

(3) direct application of foundational methodologies for teaching and learning an endangered

language.

The rest of the paper will therefore address these three drawbacks by proposing a new

model incorporating comprehensive usage-based assessments, appropriate goal setting, and

applicable language teaching methodology. The suggested model will take into account realistic

demographic features of a language, the desired linguistic goals for a language, and appropriate

language-instruction methodologies to use for each category.

CHAPTER III: Case Studies[2]

In this chapter, I hope to introduce a type of assessment/analysis based on individualistic

components of each language. The goal is not to try and fit every language into the same model

of endangerment, like past frameworks do. Rather, my goal is to allow previous models,

terminology, and their drawbacks to help highlight the need for approaching each language

individually, and based on factors/features that are not purely statistical (number of L1 speakers)

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[2]   Like many scholars, activists, and linguists before me, I began this section wanting to
conduct a case study of different efforts to help refine what components are needed to create a
"successful" revitalization project. I initially picked three languages to focus on, and that turned
into five languages (Hebrew, Irish Gaelic, Hawaiian, Arapaho, and Wichita) with others on the
outskirts with unique features or contributions to add (including Breton, Miami, etc). I was ready
to conclude that there are four primary domains of use (political, social, educational, and self-
access) that must be considered when examining the health, life, and revitalization of an
endangered language (see Appendix D for my initial argumentation). Yet, languages are unique
and no matter how many times we try to "tame" them into neat categories or boxes, they break
the mold. The model I was creating (presented now in Appendix D) essentially fell prey to the
same flaws that Fishman, Krauss, and others' models have—an inability to account for the
diverse and unique nature of every language, speech community, and speaker culture. Therefore,
what I now propose is the usage-based demographic assessment approach.

or generalized. To achieve this goal, I will first introduce the two-folds of "usage-based

demographics analysis/assessment" and then apply the approach to the four focus languages.

The focus languages are Irish Gaelic, Hawaiian, Arapaho, and Wichita. These languages

were chosen because they provide a balance of perspective in regard to unique demographics,

appropriate goals, and success stories. While usage-based analysis of a language should be

extremely extensive/in-depth, this case study's goal is not to give a comprehensive report on all

of the languages, but show the general principles behind the usage-based assessment and how it

can be complemented with appropriate goals and useful teaching methods. Showing the larger

number of languages illustrates how the proposed assessment is individualistic, not just

formulaic.

Usage-based demographics

The usage-based demographic assessment approach I propose is two-fold in nature—*fold*

one being a general introduction to the language and its speech community; *fold two* being an

extensive examination of language specific domains of use. First, we take a general demographic

look at a language from a general linguistic/statistic standpoint. The demographic look includes

number of speakers, number of first language speakers, general use of language, language

policies at the governmental and educational levels, and so forth. The reason for this fold is to

gain a general familiarity with the linguistic context of use and features. This familiarity is

merely an initial conversation. It should not be seen as the dictating factors for success—it is not

that all languages with a certain number of speakers will be able to achieve the same goal. Rather,

this is an introduction to the language from a linguistic as well as from a partial social standpoint.

Fold One: Becoming Acquainted –Demographic Features.

When interacting with an endangered language, it is useful to first understand its overall

"health" based on a given set of general statistics/demographics. Most of the demographical

information provided in Table 2 and Table 3 is compiled from the Summer Institute of

Linguistics, Inc. (SIL)'s *Ethnologue: Languages of the World, Seventeenth edition* (Lewis, et al.

ed., 2013), and some supplementary material was obtained through other resources and is

presented in *italics*. *Ethnologue* typically includes information about a language' population,

global location, use, dialects, typology, language development, and language status based on the

Expanded Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (EGIDS). I consolidate *Ethnologue*'s

demographic descriptions placing the information into my own chart to highlight governmental

views/policies, educational use, and technology development as separate categories and

subcategories of their pre-existing format.

Table 2: Demographics of Irish Gaelic and Hawaiian (adapted from *Ethnologue* data)			
		Irish Gaelic	Hawaiian
Statistics:			
	Total speakers (globally)	< 20,000 (Salminen, 2007).	8,000 can speak and understand it (1993 K. Haugen).
	Total L1 Speakers:		2000 census lists 27,200 L1 speakers
	Population	72,000 in Ireland (2006 census).	237,000 in Hawaii (1996 Hawaii State Department of Health)
	Location	Western isles northwest and southwest coasts; Galway, part of Mayo, Kerry, Donegal, Meath, Cork, and Waterford. Also in Canada, United Kingdom, United States.	Hawaiian Islands, mainly Ni'ihau island, Island of Hawai'i, some on all other islands; some in every state.
Structure:			
	Dialects	Connacht (Western Irish), Donegal (Northern Irish, Ulster), Munster-Leinster (Southern Irish).	Lexical similarity: 79% with Rarotongan [rar], 77% with Tuamotuan [pmt], 76% with Tahitian [tah] (Elbert), 71% with Maori [mri] (Schütz), 70% with Marquesan [mqm], 64% with Rapa Nui [rap].

	Typology	VSO	VSO
Socio-cultural:			
	Language Use/social-domains	Widely used as L2 in all parts of the country (2007). A number of children learn the language but the number is decreasing (2007).	Young speakers are being trained in immersion courses and also very old speakers exist, but relatively few adult and middle-aged speakers, which results in lack of communication situations for active use. All domains. 500 older adults; children 2 years old and older learn it as L2: 1,000 ages up to 15; 350 ages 15 to 25 (1997 R. Henze). Also use Hawaii Creole English [hwc] or English [eng].
	Government Policies	Statutory language of national identity (1937, Constitution, Article 8(1)).; government encourages language use	Statutory provincial language in State of Hawaii (1978, Hawaii Constitution, Article 15(4)), co-official with English.
	"Co-language"	*English*	English
Educational:			
	Primary	*Taught in primary and secondary schools.*	Punana Leo private schools offer Hawaiian immersion programs (as L2) for about 800 from 2-year-old ethnic Hawaiians up to high school.
	Higher ed.	*Taught at university level.*	The University of Hawaii offers 2 Master's degrees and a PhD. in the Hawaiian language.
Materials/Development:			
	Media	New media. Radio programs	New media.
	Internet	*Appendix A for relevant websites*	
	Documentation	Grammar exists; Bible translation: 1685–1981	Dictionary; Grammar; Bible
Language status:			
	EGIDS level	6b (Threatened)	2 (Provincial)

Table 3: Demographics of Arapaho and Wichita (adapted from *Ethnologue* data)			
		Arapaho	Wichita
Statistics:			
	Total speakers (globally)	1,000 (Golla 2007), decreasing.	1 (2008 B. Levy)
	Total L1 Speakers:	No L1 speakers in Oklahoma.	
	Ethnic Population	5,940 (Golla 2007).	2,100 (Golla 2007).
	Location	Wind River Reservation, Wyoming; also associated with Cheyenne in western Oklahoma.	West central Oklahoma, Caddo county, Anadarko
Structural:			
	Dialects:	*Northern and Southern speech communities exist, though the differences are minor (Salzmann, 1965 as cited in Hinton & Hale 2001)*	Tawakoni, Waco. Similar to Kitsai [kii] and Pawnee [paw].
	Typology	*Polysynthetic*	*Polysynthetic*
Socio-cultural:			
	Language Use/social-domains		
	Government Policies	Tribal Language Policy (Appendix B)	
	"Co-language"	*English*	*English*
Educational:			
	Primary	Bilingual education efforts begun on Wind River Reservation in the 1980s. Arapaho Language Lodge established in 1993 a successful immersion program	
	Higher ed.	*Wyoming University; CU-Boulder language/linguistics courses*	
Materials/Development:			
	Media	Films (*Bambi* (Greymorning, 2001)	
	Internet	*The Arapaho Project: Educational Website (http://www.colorado.edu/csilw/newarapproj2.htm)*	*Official Site of the Wichita and Affiliated Tribes (http://www.wichitatribe.com/wichita_tribe_home.htm)*
	Documentation	Bible portions: 1903.	Extensive efforts to document and preserve the language by Wichita Documentation Project (2007).
Language status:			
	EGIDS level	6b (Threatened).	8b (Nearly extinct).

The four languages that are the focus of the study appear on each chart in order of greatest "health" to most endangered based on the EGIDS—Irish debatably being the "safest" and Wichita the most "threatened" based on traditional scales. *Ethnologue* cites Irish once as being level 1 (National) on the EGIDS but in the official report uses 6b (threatened). For thoroughness, the charts above include the EGIDS as a means of classifying the languages' endangerment status. However, as argued previously, there are several flaws to such a measuring scale. For example, Irish Gaelic and Arapaho have the same 6b rating on the EGIDS. Yet, their demographics are extremely different; the EGIDS loses the "contrastive" status of languages.

Ethnologue attempts to account for this complication in their developed "Language Cloud" (Lewis et. al, 2013). *Ethnologue*'s "Language Cloud" (Figure 2) gives a slightly more defined understanding of the languages' status and how they are classified in the same "endangerment" status while having vastly different demographic influences. The "Language Cloud" accounts for most of the recorded languages and marks for two properties: population on the vertical axis and endangerment level (or EGIDS level) on the horizontal axis (refer to Appendix C for *Ethnologue*'s complete explanation).

Figure 2: *Ethnologue's Language Cloud (Lewis et al., 2013)*
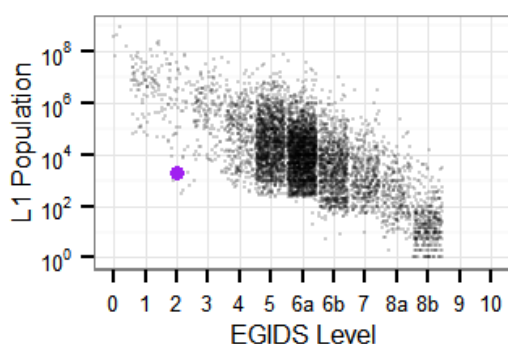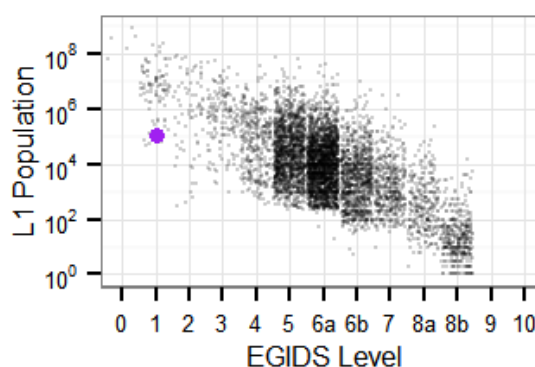
Figure 2.a: Hawaiian   Figure 2.b: Irish Gaelic
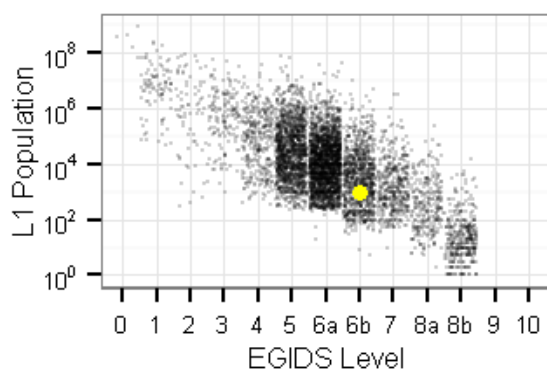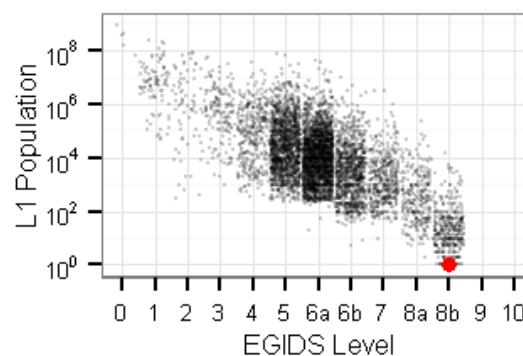
Figure 2.c: Arapaho   Figure 2.d: Wichita

(Lewis et. al., 2013)

On the Language Cloud, every recorded living language (and some merely documented

ones) receives a dot on the graph (Lewis et. al, 2013). When highlighting one language, it is

marked with a colored dot that correlates to a level of endangerment based on the EGIDS scale

with 1 being well developed or "safe" and 8-10 being in danger or extinct. The colored dots to

appear for the five focus languages include purple (EGIDS 0-4), yellow (EGIDS 6b-7), and red

(8a-9). For purposes of the language cloud, the EGIDS and color correlation are explained as

follows:

> Purple = Institutional (EGIDS 0-4) — The language has been developed to the
> point that it is used and sustained by institutions beyond the home and community.
>
> Yellow = In trouble (EGIDS 6b-7) — Intergenerational transmission is in the
> process of being broken, but the child-bearing generation can still use the
> language so it is possible that revitalization efforts could restore transmission of
> the language in the home.
>
> Red = Dying (EGIDS 8a-9) — It is too late to restore natural intergenerational
> transmission through the home; a mechanism outside the home would need to be
> developed.
>
> (Lewis et. al., 2013)

Finally, the placement of a language on the language cloud may not correlate with the

demographic description presented above. Irish Gaelic is one example of this as it is presented to

have an EGIDS of 6b above and is marked with a purple dot on the language cloud. *Ethnologue*

explains,

> […] a separate EGIDS estimate is made for every country in which a language is
> used. Our method for calculating the EGIDS level for the language as a whole is
> not to take an average of all countries, but to report the highest level (that is, most
> safe) for any country. The logic here is that if the EGIDS level of a language is
> taken as a predictor of its likely longevity, then its longevity will be determined
> by where it is the strongest. (Lewis et al. 2013)

Ethnologue takes levels of endangerment from a one-dimensional line with restricting

categories to a more comprehensive model. Rather than placing each language on the exact point

of an EGIDS level, "the dots are "jittered" (that is, the horizontal placement is random within a

band around the grid line for the level)" (Lewis et.al., 2013). This model begins to account for

more than just number of speakers or places of use to consider socio-cultural and sometimes

educational roles to help classify the language on a ten-point endangerment scale that is not

perfectly linear. However, these charts still do not identify or illustrate 1) the unique usage based

domains that each language has as strengths or points to be strengthened, nor 2) how these

statuses should correlate to an outcome goal and methodology use.

Fold Two: Usage-based Domains.

The existing drawbacks lead to the question: Is there a model that is neither too

restricting nor too general for individual characteristics of a language? Cowell (2013) claims that

there is no such model in existence, and that the general format of any model may fall prey to the

same drawbacks as others. Cowell (2013) also emphasizes the importance of language use and

finding meaningful contexts for use to occur. In essence, there is a need for a usage-based

approach to revitalization efforts, to which an analysis of usage-based domains is fundamental as

the second fold.

The second fold to the usage-based demographic analysis is a more general look at the

unique and language-specific domains of use for a given language. This is where the heart and

soul of the language, its speech community, and potential to grow exists. Warner (2001) asserts,

> A language cannot be perpetuated in a single domain such as the school or the
> church. Children [and learners in general] will need to be able to communicate
> their feelings, hopes, opinions, and thoughts in Hawaiian [or the target language]
> in all domains of life if the language is to truly survive. Planners for indigenous or
> native languages should be aware of this from the start and work to build various
> domains into their models and strategies for language and cultural regenesis from
> their inception. (p. 141)

It is important for planners of indigenous or native languages to identify domains of use from the

start as a means of finding smaller achievable goals to help drive the revitalization effort forward.

The **domains of use** are the places, situations, and contexts in which the target language is a

means of communication. The domains of use range from in daily life (like shopping or talking

to a friend) to more scholarly domains (reading a book, writing a text) to religious or ritualistic

domains (prayer, ceremonies, dances, etc.) and even to current technological domains (Facebook,

Skype, texting, etc). As Warner (2001) identifies, the more domains of use a speaker has for a

given language, the "safer" the language will be; however, not every revitalization effort needs to

strive for expansion into every domain to be a successful effort (Chapter 4 addresses this further).

Still, finding the unique domains of use connected to heritage, culture, and identity of the speech

community is an essential starting point.

Four predominant categories/domains of use

To some extent, the identified domains of use can be organized into one or more of four categories—**political** (anything government related), **social** (community/culture, peers, elders, or family related), **educational** (school systems, formal materials, methodologies), and **self-access** (ability to interact with/obtain the language on an individual basis, especially in relation to developing technologies). The four categories should serve as a springboard for identifying language-specific domains of use, not as a constraining, set category to which a language is ascribed. Rather than trying to assert a perfect model/mix for a language to increase use in one very broad general domain, identifying the four overarching domains can inform planning based on realistic, culturally based features and goals.

Each speech community has a unique culture that can help drive the use of a language forward. While the decline and even disconnect from the heritage culture greatly impacts the decline of the language use, there are still places in which the reversal of one can help shape the future of the other. For example, the maintenance of traditional hula (dance) and related linguistic discourse in the Hawaiian culture as a tourist attraction has helped maintain the use of the language in the domain of dance (Cowell, 2012). The issue of culture loss is not a simple one, by any means, and should not be taken as such here. The negative ideologies related to a culture and a language may be deeply rooted in a wide variety of complex issues. My goal is not to ignore these complexities, nor is it to unpack all of them. Rather, my assertion is that examining ways in which language use can be expanded in a speech community by looking at pre-existing cultural traditions of the speech community—places of use, rituals, songs, and so forth—can allow revitalization efforts effectively to assess the individual language, appropriately set goals for future linguistic use, and efficiently utilize language teaching methods.

Case Study: "Domains of Use" Examples

A case study on the usage-based domains of the four focus languages (Irish Gaelic, Hawaiian, Arapaho, and Wichita) illustrates these domains and shows how they are unique to each language. Some domains overlap; the overlap should not be viewed as a constant pattern that language revitalization efforts should force on languages but serve as an idea of what type of domain to look for in any given language. The lists of domains presented (Tables 4-7) do not compose the complete story; rather, they provide a sample of what "usage-based domains" can look like for a given language. First, a brief introduction to the language and its revitalization efforts is provided; then a chart summarizes previously existing and potential domains of use. To compile the sample lists of usage-based domains, various articles, journals, and testimonials are referenced.

Irish Gaelic.

In 1937, Irish Gaelic was established as a dual national language in the Republic of Ireland (English being the other), and in 2007 it became an official language of the European Union (EU) (Romaine, 2008). The language, surrounding ideologies, educational policies, and governmental involvement in revitalization efforts have been of great interest to many as a case study for future efforts, especially since the results are debatably dubbed "failure" (Romaine, 2008; Hindley, 1990; Carnie, 1996). Romaine (2008) argues that the furthering decline of language use must be observed on a global scale to acknowledge that in comparison with other languages affected by the rapid increase of globalization and use of global languages, Irish Gaelic is in better shape than many smaller languages.

One factor for this is the government and education policies regarding language use which "…led to the creation of new non-traditional users and new domains of use" (Romaine,

2008, p. 18). The domains of use have spread beyond the primary and secondary classroom to a global level (primarily with the establishment of Irish Gaelic as an EU official language;) now, there is a global (or at least European) need for translators, especially bilingual/trilingual Irish speakers (Romaine, 2008). This in turn heightens the demand for continued education in the language, and it increases learner motivation.

The increase in political and global use of Irish Gaelic is not the only usage-based domain in which expansion of the domain equates to expansion of the language. Developing more literary works, and content-based classes, in the target language is proposed to increase the use (Ni Gallachair, 2008, p. 194); students study the language in school, but then need an outlet or situation to use the language in. I have consolidated material from various scholars, journals, and articles to create Table 4, which highlights various domains of use that either have been expanded or could be furthered to create a demand in use, which in turn creates greater motivation for learners to study and retain the language.

Table 4: Irish Gaelic—Domains of Use to Consider for Language Expansion			
	Usage-based Domains	Description	References
Political	European Union	Official documents, records, and transcripts of meetings will be translated into the target language. Furthermore, jobs as translators and interpreters are created.	(Romaine, 2008)
	"Place names" Policy	Maintaining the original language's spelling and pronunciation of various places (including towns, perishes, landmarks, etc) helps maintain the speech community's connection to the locations and historical linguistics.	(Mac Giolla Easpaig, 2008)
Educational	Content-based Classes	Expanding to content-based classes means teaching more than general "communication" skills (conversations, vocabulary, etc). Rather, one or more "content" course (i.e. history, literature, science, etc) would be taught in the target language.	(Ni Gallachair, 2008)
	Literature, Poetry, &	Developing and opening access to literary works in the target language creates a new domain and	(Ni Gallachair, 2008; O

	Folklore	a new demand for studying the language.	Muirthile, 2008; Nic Eoin, 2008)
	Dictionaries (reference resources)	Greater number of dictionaries and reference resources helps increase learner autonomy and access to the language.	(Nic Phaidin, 2008)
*Social/ Self-Access	Music	Understanding historical contexts of music, lyrics, and pairing the ancient traditions with new ones can bring a richer understanding of both the new majority language and the target language.	(O Laoire, 2008)
	Media	There are national television and radio stations, daily and weekly newspapers, internet magazines, *Blogs,* and more. Yet, more areas for expansion have not been tapped into and the quality is not always as strong as it should be.	(Delap, 2008; Cotter, 2001)
Self-Access/ Technology	Websites:	Refer to Appendix A	(Ni Gallachair, 2008)
	Internet Magazine	Beo.ie is a monthly publication that offers interesting advanced articles with instant translation options for less advanced speakers.	(Ni Gallachair, 2008)
*While some of these domains can be viewed as "social," they are also rooted in technology and more individual use/interaction. It is in this way that the more general categories can break down very quickly, and why they should be used and more general starting points for finding new domains in a language community, rather than trying to label domains of use that are already identified and being expanded.			

Table 4 incorporates few "social" domains, partially because so much of the Irish focus

in the literature has been on education, governmental policies, and technology. That does not

mean there are not "social" domains" or that there cannot be an expansion of the language into

"everyday" life of the people. However, as most scholars agree, English has a very strong hold

on the community linguistically, and a full shift from English to Irish is highly improbable, if not

impossible due to the level of erosion that occurred on the language pre-interventions (Romaine,

2008). Still, success can be found by developing domains in which the language can be used. For

example, expanding the global use through EU inclusion or development of radio and online

programs (the concept of successful efforts as based on redefined goals and usage-based domains

will be the primary discussion of Chapter 4). Irish Gaelic has been a model of revitalization in

Europe for many efforts to study, especially in regards to education policy and now globalization

with the expansion into the EU.

   Hawaiian.

   Hawaiian, an indigenous language in what is now the United States, "represents the

flagship of language recovery, and serves as a model and a symbol of hope to other endangered

language," especially in the USA (Hinton & Hale, 2001 p. 131). Yet, as with Irish Gaelic, the

primary location in which expansion has occurred thus far is in the school system—the

educational immersion programs have played an immense role in expanding the language, but

the domains of use have primarily revolved around academia (Warner, 2001, p. 141). Warner

(2001) argues, "If Hawaiians harbor ant genuine hope of reviving the language, it must be

revived in domains outside as well as inside the classroom" (p. 141). Wong (1995) identifies

sports, especially softball, as one such domain in which the language can expand beyond the

classroom. Table 5, compiled from many sources, maps out several usage-based domains

identified in the literature that can help increase Hawaiian's stability as a language.

Table 5: Hawaiian—Domains of Use to Consider for Language Expansion			
	Usage-based Domains:	Description:	References:
Educational	Graduate Programs	Having higher education programs offered in the target language gives further validity to studying the language in primary school.	(Wilson & Kamana, 2001)
Social/ Economical	Sports	If the target language is to thrive, it should expand beyond a single domain, like school, and into other community oriented domains, like sports including softball leagues.	(Wong, 1995; Warner, 1999b)
	Play-writes	A newly developing domain for language use, rooted initially in hula and oli, is theatrical plays performed completely in the target language.	(Warner, 2001)
	Hula (dance) and oli (chant)	These traditional acts of culture tended to maintain their use of the language, especially with the support of tourism.	(Warner, 2001; Cowell, 2012)

		However, pairing meaning to the lexical items used in these contexts is another way language expansion in a domain may occur.	
Self-access/ Technology	CALL & Hawaiian	Partnering with Apple Computer, Inc. to translate Macintosh operating systems into the target language allows the immersion schools to function in current, technologically advanced ways in the target language. Furthermore, e-mail, computer-based school lessons, and more can all occur at the same rate that a "flourishing" language class would.	(Warschauer & Donaghy, 1997)
	Hawaiian-language computer system	The highly sophisticated system allows for use of Hawaiian spelling symbols, icons and directions in various computer based domains including chat rooms, central calendars of events, and a dictionary.	(Wilson & Kamana, 2001)

Table 5 does not include any "political" domains because the educational policies on language

use in the classroom are extensive. The revitalization efforts struggled to gain legal permission

from the United States' government to have a bilingual school. Table 5 focuses, instead, on the

social and technological domains as they illustrate the possibilities of pairing domains with rich

cultural histories and the advancements in technology use that have been achieved.

Arapaho.

Arapaho is a member of the Algonquian language family and spoken by the Arapaho

tribes located primarily in Wyoming and Oklahoma (Hale, 2001). Over the years, efforts to

reverse the decline in language and culture vitality were initiated; immersion preschools/schools

were established, and projects to develop a written grammar, record the language, and create

language materials emerged (Greymorning, 2011). Still, the use of the language in daily life is

limited, and even declining. In an interview, Cowell (2013) describes that occasions to use the

language must be developed in order to truly develop the language. The occasions mentioned

equate to domains where language use is preferred, or essential, to communicate or where

knowledge of the language gives some greater insight into heritage, culture, or identity. In Table

6, I present several such domains identified in the resources that either exist or could potentially

be created for the Arapaho speech community.

Table 6: Arapaho—Domains of Use to Consider for Language Expansion			
	Usage-based Domains	Description:	References:
*Political/ Social	Street names	Many of the local streets have or could have names in the target language. Then community members could learn the names and meanings as one way of expanding language use.	Cowell, 2013
Social	Drum circles		Cowell, 2013
	Prayers	Certain prayers are often recited at given occasions. Memorizing the prayers and then eventually learning what they mean is another heritage domain in which use can occur.	Cowell, 2013
Educational	Materials/ Textbooks	Further developing reading materials and language learning texts is one way of increasing use in educational circles, and it can increase interest if there are more materials in target language.	(C' Hair, 2013; Cowell, 2013)
Self-Access/ Technology	Media: *Bambi*	Translating Disney's *Bambi* was one step towards creating a new media-based domain of use. However, it seems that access to even the one primary film is difficult to obtain.	(Greymorning, 2001; C'Hair, 2013)
	Social networks	Creating online forums for communication helps increase interlocutors and connect speakers who would otherwise be isolated based on distance.	
*The politics of Native American education systems, policies, and government tend to be extremely complicated due to tribal, state, and federal levels of government (Cowell, 2013, personal communication). Therefore, I avoid giving a list of political domains of use. However, these complexities should not be ignored in a more comprehensive report and revitalization plan.			

The domains of use for Arapaho are unique in that some currently do exist (*Bambi*, prayers, etc),

but are fairly limited and are more "potential filled." Still, this means that the opportunities to

expand in a small number of domains may be highly rewarding for the effort.

Wichita.

Unlike Irish Gaelic, Hawaiian, and Arapaho, Wichita—a member of the Caddoan language family—does not have an educational program that other efforts look to, nor does it gain much attention in the literature primarily due to the fact that there is only one fluent native speaker left. Still, the Wichita Language Documentation Project has produced a collection of data—audio, video, and grammatical sketches. Therefore, Wichita serves as an example for revitalization efforts of languages that seem dire.

While there is only one fluent speaker, there have been at least two adult speakers who have even attempted the Master-apprentice method of learning the language (described in Chapter 5) and have taught several language courses (Rood, November, 2012; Parton, 2012). The University of Colorado—Boulder offers courses in the structure of the language, and a few language lesson materials have been developed. The tribes official website even has a page focused on learning the language—though it is primarily vocabulary based, not communicative or interactive (Wichita Language Class—website link).

Table 7, which I have consolidated material from a variety of sources, presents the few current domains of use along with theoretical domains to show the potential for the language to still exist, though the existence most likely will be in a different way from the other less endangered languages presented above. The focus may be more on rote memorization, grammar translation (to preserve the traditionally oral stories), or online language lessons for the curious general public.

Table 7: Wichita—Domains of Use to Consider for Language Expansion			
	Usage-based Domains	Description	References:
Social	Inter-tribal language "contests"	During intertribal gatherings, children often compete in language use contests; the linguistic focus is often on animals or colors, but could be expanded to interactional components.	(Rood, 2012)
Educational/ Material development	Language classes	Several courses have been offered to children, though interest seems to be declining in recent years; between 2006-2009 around 10 sets of 9-week courses with 12-20 participants were conducted.	(Parton, 2012)
	Structure courses (focused on heritage texts)	A linguistics structures course was offered focusing on the grammar (Rood, 1996), folklore, and other documented artifacts.	CU-Boulder (Fall 2012)
	Language lesson materials (with audio)	Several language lessons with accompanying audio recordings exist and have been used. However, no comprehensive lesson text exists.	(Parton, 2012; Rood, 1992)
Self-Access/ Technology	Computer-based dictionary	"We obtained the FLEX Database but we haven't been able to utilize it yet."	(Parton, 2012)
	Web pages (vocabulary-based)	The tribe's webpage has a link to target language vocabulary (primarily focusing on animal terms).	Wichita Language Class (website link)
	Web pages (communicative based)	Including the pre-existing language lessons (Rood, 1992) and corresponding audio recordings on the website is one domain expansion that could occur.	

Despite limited resources and past observations related to domains, Wichita's revitalization efforts may still be able to create manageable goals based on expanding a given domain. Success is still an option, even though there is only one native fluent speaker left.

By evaluating each language based on pre-existing and potential domains of use, revitalization efforts can begin to move from a limiting model of revitalization to a tailored, language-specific analysis that focuses on expanding the use of the language in concrete, manageable ways. Not every domain of use necessarily increases—that is dependent on the goals

set (Chapter 4 covers this in greater detail), but the expansion of the language into a new domain, or increasing the use in a previously existing domain may help maintain morale, culture, and use of the language.

CHAPTER IV: Language Status and Revitalization Strategies and Goals

Having established the usage-based approach to assessing a language, it is now equally important to reexamine the current typology related to understanding the language's endangerment status, potential success level, and achievable goals. Chapter 4 examines the shortcomings of the current typology and proposes new considerations related to a language's status and potential outcomes based on realistic goals embedded in expanding identified usage-based domains. The shortcomings revolve primarily around terminology use, non-descript goals, and a lack of concrete strategies to accomplish the goals.

The current shortcomings with "status" and "success"

Through the Fishman-like models of evaluating an endangered language, "living" languages tend to be viewed as successful languages spoken by a wide number of individuals in multiple domains of use, "dead" languages are not spoken, and "endangered" languages are spoken limitedly. A "successful" revitalization then is understood as one in which the language has reached healthy "living" status or stability. Such "back-and-white" definitions make it difficult for a revitalization effort to be a realistic one, in terms of its goals. Speech communities start out wanting their language to be fully revived like Hebrew, or at least they want "success" to come from their labors. But what is success when it comes to "saving" a language? Putting into place a more comprehensive and differentiated scale of "success" for language revitalization efforts may help in this struggle to classify, revitalize, and teach languages. If clear goals are set

based on a realistic understanding of the languages' multifaceted status then appropriate methods of language instruction can be applied and help achieve set goals.

In *A Guide to issues in Indian language retention* focusing on North American contexts, Bauman (1980) agrees that realistic goals must be set and implemented through effective procedures. Like Fishman (1991), Krauss (2007), and others, Bauman accepts the phenomenon that languages fall into varying levels of decline and cannot reverse their paths easily. In fact, he asserts that reversing the fluency level of all speakers may be an unrealistic task, and the community "… may have to settle for some retention programs with less encompassing goals" (Bauman, 1980, p. 4). Yet, it appears that his definition of success refers to the reversal of the language from "extinction" to "flourishing," or what Krauss (2007) would call "safe/stable." The levels of retention are viewed as steps towards the better goal, and programs may have to progress one step at a time through the varying statuses. Bauman (1980) provides clear and concise "strategies" for taking the language a step closer to safety in increments, unlike Krauss and Fishman. Bauman (1980) pairs language status to retention strategies, which have potential to be useful "goals" (Table 8).

Examining Bauman's status in light of strategy pairing reveals useful terminology and processes. As illustrated in Table 8 taken from Bauman (1980), there are five levels of endangerment corresponding to five retention strategies.

Table 8: *Language Survival Status and Corresponding Retention Strategy*

Status	Strategy
flourishing	prevention
enduring	expansion
declining	restoration
extinct	revival

(Bauman, 1980, p. 6)

Bauman's goal behind the status-strategy pairing is not to tell communities what to do in their

revitalization efforts, but to identify appropriate and available resources provided by previous

efforts. In some sense, the five statuses presented by Bauman parallel Krauss' or even Fishman's

levels of endangerment, but all require a redefinition or reapplication of sorts.

Reevaluating Statuses and Successful Goals

Looking at previous definitions and comparing them to one another helps establish the

new framework for revitalization efforts that is based on equally admirable and achievable goals.

Some traditional terms do not need to change drastically, while others seem inadequate.

Bauman's terms serve as a good starting place for directing this process of shaping the

terminology; therefore, the following section examines Bauman's terms and offers some

alternatives.

Flourishing: Majority and Minority Languages

Bauman (1980) first defines "flourishing" languages. Bauman's term "flourishing" can

be compared to Krauss' (2007) "stable" classification, i.e., a language with many speakers

(children and up) and used in a variety of domains. A flourishing language has five properties: 1)

speakers of all ages, some monolingual speakers, 2) an increase in population correlates with an

increase in number of speakers, 3) used in all communicative "domains/situations," 4) adapts to

changing culture, 5) increase in speaker literacy. Fishman's (1991) Stages One and Two

contribute to understanding the nature of flourishing languages by defining the "communicative

domains" (3rd property above): use in higher-education, the home, and local/national government

as well as media and social circles.

As such, I propose that "flourishing" languages can be divided into two categories:

majority and minority (immigrant) languages. Majority languages are typically thought of as

English, Spanish, French, etc that have an impact linguistically on a global scale. These languages have governmental, educational, social, and self-access backing and are often thought of as the lingua francas of our ever-expanding globalization. The majority language is also viewed as the language "threatening" or interacting with the minority and indigenous languages.

Minority languages are likely majority languages in some locations; however, they become minority languages in contact with another speech community in which a majority language is used more. Another way to think of minority languages is as "immigrant." For example, in Southern California, the governmental, educational, and social language predominantly is English; however, there is a strong sense of Spanish as a minority language, though it is a majority language in neighboring Mexico and other locations around the world.

Bauman most likely would consider his category of "enduring" to be similar to minority languages described above. There are still many speakers, a certain amount of bilingualism, use of a majority language in one or a few domains, and limited literacy (Bauman, 1980). I view these languages as "flourishing" or stable in some sense; they just may not be the majority language in a given context. They should still be observed and maintained as to not lose ties to culture, heritage, and use, but they may be of a different category than those that are "endangered," or they may be both endangered and minority depending on language context.

Endangered (Bauman's "Declining")

Endangered languages are those in decline; they are losing speakers and their communication domains are diminishing. According to Bauman (1980), declining Native American languages possess the following properties:

1. There are proportionately more older speakers than younger.
2. Younger speakers are not altogether fluent in the language.
3. The number of speakers decreases over time, even though the population itself may be increasing

4. The entire population is bilingual and English is preferred in many situations.
5. The language begins to conform to and resemble English
6. The population is essentially illiterate in the language.

(p. 10)

Bauman's "declining" status corresponds to Krauss' "instable/eroded" and "definitively

endangered" categories. I prefer use of the term "endangered" to refer to a language in which the

number of speakers, the range of communicative domains, and the communities' appreciation for

the language is diminishing.

One of two types of retention outcome goals is most suitable for these "endangered"

languages: **return** or **maintenance**. Return here means that the language will be restored to a

broader context of use, thus increasing the number of L1 and/or L2 speakers in an increased

number of domains. Maintenance refers to the process of protecting the domains of use currently

in place, instructing speakers in the language use without striving for an increase in use or

transforming the language into a flourishing one. A community can achieve success based in

relation to either goal when striving for the appropriate outcome.

Obsolescent, not "Extinct"

One of the most difficult categories/statuses for languages to face is that of "critically

endangered" (Krauss, 2007), "extinct" (Bauman, 1980) or Stage 7/8 (Fishman, 1991). These

differing terms all refer to the languages in which speakers are few in number and primarily of

older isolated generations. Levels of documentation may vary for all of these scholars' terms, but

in the end, according to traditional linguistic standards, the language is close to death. Krauss and

Bauman agree that when there are no speakers, the language is "extinct," or "dead." Both

acknowledge that documentation may exist, but the language is no longer "living." Bauman

(1980) argues, "if a language is not spoken it is effectively dead, no matter how many written

materials exist in it" (p. 6). This conclusion, however, appears unnecessarily restricting and can

hinder understanding and approaches to an endangered language by restricting "success" to efforts producing fluent speakers and several communicative domains—a paralyzing understanding of success. Rather, accepting a broader understanding of success based on achievable goals set from the beginning offers a sense of hope and achievement.

Languages that are no longer spoken or have only a handful of remaining elderly speakers fall into the category of obsolescent with two potential outcomes—revitalization of one or more communicative domains, or *classical-ization*. The term "extinct" then is would be saved purely for languages that truly are gone; there are no speakers left and no documentation. I believe obsolescent languages should have one of two outcome goals and be assessed by a different understanding of success: **revival** or "***classicalization*."** The first and commonly referenced goal is revival. It should begin on a small scale, as Bauman and others agree, expanding the number of speakers and speech domains one step at a time. The process of revival does not have to refer to an expansion of every domain and a dramatic increase in L1 speakers. Rather, a successful effort may be one that simply broadens one area of the self-access domain of communication or the educational domain.

Thus, the end goal for both types of obsolescent languages need not be full revivals, or shift to "minority language" status. The goal may simply be to expand one domain of use in one subtle way. For example, Irish Gaelic's expansion of the language into the formal classroom did not mean that the language use spread also into the home and other social situations. Need Irish Gaelic revitalization efforts be considered "unsuccessful" because Gaelic is still limited in use and "endangered"? The same is true for Breton, Navajo, and others. Their successes should not be rated based on full revitalization or failure, but on differing achievable goals.

Furthermore, I propose that an additional category or "goal" be used: "**classical**" or "**heritage**." Scholars, teachers, and learners have no issue accepting Greek and Latin as "classical languages"—languages documented, studied, and read, and used in specific limited contexts (rituals, religious ceremonies/prayers, etc) (Hagege, 2009). A language need not be considered "extinct" if there is documentation and there are individuals willing to study the structures, literatures, and traditions of a language and its speech community (Hagege, 2009). Therefore, "classical" or "heritage" language use should be examined as an achievable and admirable goal for revitalization efforts.

The Five Statuses and Seven Outcome Goals

The outcome of revitalization efforts based on redefined terms and goals can be summarized to have five statuses with seven potential outcome goals. In Table 9, I allow useful terms from Bauman and others be paired with refined goals to illustrate the relationship between status and goal as I have come to see it.[3] The proposed typology should not be viewed as static, but rather dynamic and informed by the usage-based demographics of the language. The classifications should be viewed as on a continuum, with places where distinction between one category and the next may not be black-and-white. For example, a language may be both an immigrant language, and in a given region may also be viewed as endangered.

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[3] Table 9 illustrates my initial understanding of language classifications. I strove to work within the construct of "wave two" literature, but still produced a model filled with drawbacks. Appendix E is the same table with an additional column: "drawbacks." While I see the shortcomings of this model, it still serves as a basis for creating the model incorporating usage-based domains "status".

Table 9: *Language Classification—the proposed typology*

"status"/desired status	"strategy"	Goal
Majority/ Global (flourishing)	Lingua franca	Goal is to be accepted globally as a primary form of communication and is the preferred governmental, educational, and social (technological) language (even on a global scale).
Minority/Immigrant (flourishing)	Expansion/fortification	The language has a fairly large number of speakers, including L1 speakers in at least one region globally. Bilingualism is a key factor in that the language is widely used in more than one domain, but has a second language that is used in one or more domains as well.
Endangered	a) Return *(type of retention)*	Reverse the loss of L1 speakers/communication domains so that it will be reestablished as a more dominant/diverse language within a given community. It may even be the final goal to shift from restoration to being a minority or global language.
	b) Maintenance *(type of retention)*	Number of native speakers declining or no L1 transfer of language in the home, but want the language to be preserved or maintain the same level of use in same number of domains.
Obsolescent	a) Revival *(type of restoration)*	Was used very limitedly, or "sleeping" and will become language of use in one or more oral communication domains.
	b) Classical *(type of restoration)*	Literature, structure, etc are formally taught, but use in communicative domains is limited/non-existent
Extinct	"death"	(no records/speakers)

This typology should help guide decisions about what type of strategy to implement (retention or restoration, revival or classicalization, etc.). This mapping of status, strategy, and goal hopefully will allow the definition of "success" to change and become more achievable overall. The terms should help begin to shape an understanding of what potential statuses and goals may exist not only for the language as a whole but also for specific, concrete usage-based domains.

Classifications and Goals for Usage-Based Domains

It is one thing to create cover terms and a system of labeling language and another to apply the typology in a useful/meaningful way. Fishman, Krauss, and even Bauman create typologies that fall short. Here, I want to apply the above concepts to specific languages, more specifically, their domains of use. Through this application, it becomes clear that a language may easily fall into two categories dependent on region and even within a given region as some domains of use may be "flourishing" while others are unused. Seeing the domains of use in such light helps clarify the need for setting specific, manageable goals based on domains of use. For example, goals to expand one domain rather than all domains can be set and then strategies to meet the goal become easier to create. In teaching strategies, this process is essentially the **needs assessment** (identifying the learner's—or in this case, speech community's—needs, desires, and ideologies surrounding the target language) and then appropriate, manageable goals can be set and then met through appropriate methodologies.

Looking at usage-based domains from the four focus languages illustrates the relationship between status-strategy-goals and domains of use. Chapter Three identified a small sample of domains of use for Irish Gaelic, Hawaiian, Arapaho, and Wichita. Below, Tables 10 and 11 represent a small sampling of usage-based domains from Irish Gaelic and Arapaho to illustrate the relationship between the statuses and the potential expansion of each domain based on appropriate goals set. The examples presented in the two tables are informed by research conducted for the compilations in Tables 4 & 6 above and supply rudimentary examples of what a more in-depth analysis would expand upon.

Table 10: Irish Gaelic Status of Usage-Based Domains				
		Usage-based Domains		
		Political	Educational		Social/self-access
		European Union	Primary education	Content Classes	Blogs
Status of Usage-based Domain	Majority:	Target language is one of the primary languages used in EU meetings, documents, and other discourses. New vocabulary and creative production in the language are used/developed.	Target language is required as a subject in all 1-4 grade schools. New vocabulary and create production in the language is used/developed.	All subject courses are taught in target language. New vocabulary and create production in the language is used/developed.	The primary language bloggers use in the speech community is the target language. Appropriate vocabulary and new/creative use of language exists.
	Minority:	Target language is an official language of the EU; all EU documents are translated into target language; used orally in some discourses.	Target language is often taught, though not required, in all 1-4 grade schools.	At least half of the subject (content) courses are taught in target language.	Several blogs exist in the speech community that are written fully in the target language.
	Endangered:	Target language is an official language of the EU; all EU documents must be translated into target language.	Target language sometimes taught 1-4, and not in all four years.	Two or fewer subjects are taught in target language. Language lessons are fully in target language.	The target language is used occasionally (or limitedly) in the blogging domain.
	Obsolescent	Not an official language, few documents translated (and done so only by country of origin, not EU).	Target language rarely if ever taught in 1-4 grades.	One or fewer subjects (often only the target language "subject") are taught in target language	Few lexical items of the target language exist in the blogging domain, and is limited in use.
	Non-existent	Not used in the EU domain (not "official")	Target language is never taught in 1-4 grades.	No subjects taught in target language. Communicative class may exist, but not "content-based"	No blogs use the target language.

Table 11: Arapaho Status of Usage-based Domains					
		Usage-based Domains			
		Social		Social/self-access	
		Street names (adapted from Cowell, 2013)	Drum Groups (adapted from Cowell, 2013)	Media	Educational Website (Language & Culture Lessons)
Status of Usage-based Domain	Majority:	All street names are in target language; speech community produces and understands the meaning to all names.	Drum groups sing and understand meaning of all lyrics; use target language to converse. New songs are written in target language	Majority of Television shows and movies are in target language with easy access to all of them	Entire website is in the target language (possibly with a bilingual option); language lessons rooted in all domains of use are presented.
	Minority:	Most to all street names are in target language; speech community produces and understands most of the words.	Drum groups sing in target language and understand the meaning of most of the lyrics.	Many television shows and movies are in target language; divided fairly equally between target language and majority language.	Most of the website is in the target language (possibly with a bilingual option); language lessons cover all main domains (eating, etc) and some others.
	Endangered:	Many of the street names are in target language; speech community produces and understands some of the words.	Drum groups sing in target language, understand meaning of most/some of the lyrics.	Few television shows and movies are in target language; or limited use of language in media. Access to these may be difficult.	The website offers usage-based lessons of major domains (including food, etc).
	Obsolescent	Many of the street names are in target language; speech community produces but does not understand some of the words.	Drum groups sing in target language, understand meaning of few to none of lyrics.	Little to no media in target language; or limited use in media. access to what does exist is extremely difficult.	The website offers a few language lessons in scattered domains of use. Or the website offers only vocabulary based lessons.
	Non-existent	Meaning of the words has been lost in speech community and/or street names are not in target language.	Drum groups sing in target language but do not understand any of the meanings or do not sing in target language.	No television shows or films exist in target language.	No website exists in which the language is used or taught.

A "needs assessment" for revitalization efforts may look like the charts above; this assessment makes it easier to identify a small step or goal in a revitalization effort, such as expanding use of the language in one or a few domains rather than just stating that the language efforts need to increase speakers and all domains. Strategies, including teaching methodologies, may then be applied to help achieve set goals in a given domain.

While teaching methodologies tend to be viewed as confined to the classroom, the approach I take is that training the language learner as well as the language teacher can be a more fruitful process than just training the teacher alone. Furthermore, if language learning is restricted to the classroom, learner motivation may stay low limiting the potential for expansion. Learner motivation remains low, unless there is a strong reason or context for learners to use the language outside a classroom. Therefore, the methods and opportunities to learn expand beyond the traditional context of "classroom" into other domains (i.e. Arapaho's drum groups, Hawaiian's hula, Wichita's website, etc). The relationship between methods and non-traditional domains is two-fold.

First, the method is a means of teaching or learning the language. Individual strategies map well with certain contexts and serve the purpose of achieving a given goal. For example, teaching the target language in a drum group setting may best utilize methods like grammar translation and audio-lingualism (discussed further in Chapter V). The general strategies imply that the learners have access to either the written lyrics and the translations in both the target language and English or the audio recordings of the lyrics with general contexts revealing the meaning. The mapping of goals to strategies is the focus of Chapter 5.

The second fold addresses the interplay between methods in the classroom being driven/influenced by the expansion of domains outside the classroom. The expansion of domains

of use ("non-traditional education contexts") can help transform negative ideologies about a language and increase learner motivation by creating a valued context in which the language is used. Expanding domains and targeting ideological understandings of culture in this way helps create the "demand" for language and language instruction. The language teaching methods can be applied in or beyond the classroom in response to and support of developing usage-based domains.

CHAPTER V: Methodologies of Teaching Additional Languages

and Revitalization of Indigenous Languages

While rewriting language status definitions and reevaluating important domains of linguistic use are of great importance to helping in revitalization efforts, another component must also be reexamined—the role of additional language teaching methodologies. Traditionally, having children learn the language in the home, as a first language (L1), is the ideal way to increase a language's use. However, many indigenous languages do not have the demographics for first language acquisition to be the means of passing on language. Therefore, second language learning and teaching principles should inform in appropriate relation the achievable, desirable outcome status goal of a revitalization effort. To best match method to goal, principles of second language acquisition should be considered.

Terminology for Teaching Additional Languages

Some key terms in this discussion include "additional language learning," language "acquisition," "natural" versus "artificial" learning, and "methods/methodology." Most of these terms have controversial undertones or various definitions assigned to them throughout the literature. The usage of the terms depends on assumptions various scholars/methods have

regarding language learning and teaching. This section attempts to use the definitions and terms most effective in depicting the importance of the additional-language teaching field to the efforts of revitalization.

Additional Language.

As Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) identify, the terms "second" and "foreign" language study can be rather limiting and inaccurate. Many speakers learning a new language have already studied at least one other language, making the "second" language term technically inaccurate. Furthermore, "foreign" language is generally used to refer to the study of an additional language in a context where the target language is not the larger community's language (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). The term foreign language in the context of studying an indigenous language is also often seen as offensive as it is technically more the original language of the land than the dominant language (Inertribal Conference, 2013). For the purposes of this paper, the terms "additional language" and "target language" will be used interchangeably to refer to a language being learned that is other than the speaker's first or primary language.

Language Learning versus Acquisition or "Natural Approaches."

While not all scholars make a distinction between *language acquisition* and *language learning* (Lightbown & Spada, 2006), the difference plays a unique role in endangered language teaching. Krashen defined acquisition as "'unconscious' learning, which takes place when attention is focused on meaning rather than language form" (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 202; Krashen, 1981). In contrast, he defined language "learning" as a conscious process in which error correction is explicit and difficult material is slowly introduced as ways to help learners maintain linguistic forms (Krashen, 1981). Fishman (1991) makes the distinction in relation to

transmitting language from one generation to the next versus teaching through methods, teachers, and classrooms. In relation to endangered languages, not all languages can be "acquired" according to the traditional methods because parents not knowing/not speaking the language cannot provide linguistic environment needed and the domains in which the language are used are not conducive to "unconscious learning" through exposure and interaction. The current paper will use the term language learning to encompass the process of adding an additional language to one's linguistic repertoire primarily through direct instructional methods

> *"Methods."*

Today the usefulness of the term "method" is debatable in the language-teaching field, because it is often too vague or undefined; it is also controversial because traditionally the language-teaching field focused on debates about which method was best at the exclusion of others (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). However, I find it is a useful term to use, once succinctly defined and when all methods are seen as tools to best achieve varying goals. According to Larsen-Freeman and Anderson's definition (2011), a method is "a coherent set of links between the actions of a teacher in a classroom and the thoughts that underlie the actions. The actions are the techniques, and the thoughts are the principles" (p.1). The purpose here is not to debate which method is "better" based on current field beliefs, but define the methods and relate them to the established goals of a revitalization effort. Different goals suggest different techniques and principles (methods) and the relationship between outcome goal and method should be explicit to instructors and learners.

Methods Overview

The entire field of additional language teaching is dedicated to the mission of pairing learning processes, desired outcome goals, and methods in effective ways. As the field of

additional language teaching emerged and grew, so did the theories, approaches, and methodologies' discourses. Theorists believed languages were learned in a specific manner and created "methods" that then helped in teaching a language based on given assumptions about the cognitive process of language learning and the desired goals of learning a language. I have come to view goals as "strategies" that can be used to achieve a given goal in any given context. Understanding the original theories about acquisition are useful in so far as they help produce a matching of goal to method. No one method is preferred over the others in general, but a given method may be preferred over another in a specific context.

An overview of these methods provides a foundation to then examine indigenous language instruction as a component of revitalization efforts. The following section draws extensively from Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011), a secondary source that effectively summarizes the field, the current methodologies, and applications. The section outlines key historical methods in rough chronological order (Grammar Translation, Audio-Lingual, Total Physical Response, communicative, and content-based), mirroring Larsen-Freeman and Anderson' (2011) organization in *Techniques & Principles in Language Teaching*.

i. *Grammar Translation.*

Grammar Translation is a traditional approach, and often seen to be the oldest, to teaching additional languages. The method was known for a time as the "Classical Method" because it originated as a method for teaching the classical languages Latin and Greek (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). The premise of this method is that reading and writing are the primary skills the students will learn and that they will do so through rote memorization of vocabulary lists, grammar rules, and first language equivalents to a target language concept (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Some scholars, teachers, and students promote this method

in the study of additional languages as the best because assessment options are straightforward (exams with translation from target language to first language) and progress tracked systematically.

    ii. *Audio-Lingual.*

In contrast with Grammar Translation, which focuses on literacy, the Audio-Lingual method focuses on oral communication skills. The method incorporates principles from structural linguistics and behavioral psychology by claiming that by conditioning students to respond to stimuli with a grammatically accurate reply, they will learn to produce and understand the target language (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

    iii. *Total Physical Response.*

James Asher developed a method known as Total Physical Response (TPR). The method belongs to a category of methodology referred to as the Comprehension Approach. TPR and related methods attempt to follow the patterns of first language acquisition in second language learning processes. Listening comprehension is the most important skill in this set of approaches. Learners will hear the target language for a given amount of time before being expected to produce the target language (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

TPR specifically deals with the connection between comprehensible input and physical actions in response. A teacher will say something in the target language, act it out for students, and expect students to then act out what is being said (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). The connection between language and action targets the storage of new language material through physical interaction. No direct attention is given to grammar rules or linguistic forms, as they are not explicitly taught in first-language acquisition settings.

vi. Communicative.

The communicative language teaching (CLT) method supports the notion that learning a

language should revolve around the communicative goals of language use. The method roots

itself in the concept that "language [is] fundamentally social" (Halliday, 1973, as cited in Larsen-

Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Therefore, communicative competence gains more attention than

linguistic competence in the language classroom (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

Classroom activities target this goal by covering meaningful content and linguistic forms that can

be applied to a conversation as quickly as possible. Instructors seek "authentic language" to use

in lessons and teach general skills to identify what a speaking partner is communicating.

v. *Content-based Language Learning.*

Another branch of language teaching approaches is that of "strong version" of the

communicative approach. Howat (1984) describes the difference between "strong" and "weak"

versions of communicative approaches as being the difference between teaching in the target

language and teaching how to communicate in the target language (as cited in Larsen-Freeman &

Anderson, 2011). The difference is that between content/task-based instruction and CLT. Both

focus on the importance of communication and communicative skills; however, "weak" focuses

more dominantly on general communication terms and principles while the "strong" focuses on

using the language to teach another subject matter (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). While

the terms "weak" and "strong" can be controversial, the primary principle shared by the two

categories is important to note here, especially in regards to current perspectives on the

importance of content-based instruction.

vi. Technology and "Technology-based Self-access."

Finally, as the field of additional language teaching expands, it strives to remain up-to-date with technologies available. In many ways, technology has always played a role in the language classroom (via blackboards, text books, audio recordings, etc) (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson , 2011). Yet, the integration of technology into language instruction has expanded to include enhanced learning experiences (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Enhanced learning experiences through technology range from creating global speech communities to creating a strong personal (web-based) identity in the target language by using blogs, Facebook, and other platforms. Essentially, technology has expanded in language instruction from being a resource or material to also being a *method* or "at least a significant methodological innovation" (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, YR). The use of technology, especially **Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL)**, has helped with both learner autonomy and community development as the use of language becomes emphasized in new ways (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

While Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) identify learner autonomy as one of the benefits of technology, Benson (2001) warns against technology and self-learning methods as potentially hindering autonomous learning. According to Benson (2001), autonomy is "the capacity to take charge of one's own learning" and is not synonymous necessarily with self-instruction. Still, **self-access** through technology has become an incredibly extensive means of obtaining and expanding language materials, unique learning contexts, and domains of use. Self-access in this sense parallels Gardner and Miller's (1999) umbrella definition of "an environment for learning involving resources, teachers, learners, and the systems within which they are organized" (as cited in Benson, 2001, p. 114). In a traditional sense, self-access programs were not necessarily web-based or technology centered (rather more material-access centered). Yet,

most self-access is now technology based as learners can interact with materials, lessons,

speakers, and language independently through the web (Benson, 2001), and can even be viewed

as its own method to language learning.

Literature Review: Teaching Indigenous Languages

The literature on indigenous language teaching branches from the field of additional

language teaching and focuses on the same general methodological discourse, socio-cultural

factors, and linguistic challenges that the branch of teaching flourishing languages does. Hinton

(2001) explains that "…much of the theory and methodology of teaching world languages can

also be applied to endangered languages" (p. 180). However, this branch of language teaching

comes with some additional factors unique to the nature of the language, like cultural sensitivity

and ideology, linguistic and political oppression, generational gaps, and limited resources.

Hinton (2001) calls attention to the fact that teaching endangered languages is one of the greatest

challenges of revitalization efforts and that those planning to teach should be aware of the vast

differences between teaching a "flourishing language" and an endangered one.

Indigenous Language Teaching Methods.

Due to the unique nature of endangered language instruction, the literature tends to

incorporate two principles—one principle explores traditional classroom methodologies, like

TPR, immersion, and CLT, for teaching the target language. The other deals with issues of

language learning in community settings. Most argue that both must be present to be successful

in language revitalization and preservation efforts. By examining the current literature, we find

that a fair amount has been done regarding applying second language acquisition

methods/theories, especially during the first wave of revitalization efforts (Cowell, 2012).

Comparing this literature to the general background of teaching additional language methods

reveals how the application of teaching methods has been neither comprehensive nor paired with achievable goals.

"Approach Based."

Hinton (2001) takes an "approach" based view on the issue of teaching/learning endangered languages, as opposed to a "methods." According to Hinton (2001), there are five primary instructional approaches to language revitalization: "(1) school-based programs; (2) children's programs outside the school (after school programs, summer programs); (3) adult language programs' (4) documentation and materials development; and (5) home-based programs" (p. 7). In some sense, the "approaches" merely parallel domains in which language is used; in another sense, some become the platform through which instructional methods are applied. "School-based programs" are the forum for communicative language teaching, content-based classes, and immersion programs. Approach-based teaching identifies these "domain-based" programs without unpacking the politics of establishing the various programs, the difficulty for native speakers to teach without training in language teaching methods, or the complex socio-cultural factors of use. Therefore, others have turned to common methods of language instruction to help advance the language.

The "Immersion" Method.

One of the most commonly discussed methods to teaching indigenous languages seems to be "immersion" based (Hinton, 2001; Arviso & Holm, 2001). According to Hinton (2001). Immersion based teaching emerged during WWII as a means of quickly teaching soldiers the languages they would be encountering in the military. The founding principles of this method are oral-based, and when in the school system, the extensive interaction with the language for a condensed number of young speakers is "the best way to jump-start the production of a new

generation of fluent speakers for endangered languages" (Hinton, 2001, p. 181). A good number

of the scholars and articles focusing on teaching Native American indigenous languages cite the

Hawaiian efforts and development of immersion schools as a model to follow (Wilson &

Kamana, 2001). The term "immersion" throughout the literature seems to be widely applied to

any program in which contact with the communicative nature of the language is valued and oral

competency is the guiding principle. The aim seems to be providing a context in which only or

primarily the target language is used, though due to complex political restrictions, full

"immersion" contexts seem to be underscored and the methods of communicative teaching

applied.

In terms of Larsen-Freeman and Anderson's (2011) classification of methodologies,

immersion and bilingual programs are both "content-based" methods; however, immersion

programs differ from bilingual programs in the amount of contact time with the target language

in the school setting. A bilingual program splits content-based teaching between two languages,

while immersion programs spend the entire time teaching all the content courses in the target

language (Hinton, 2001, Larsen-Feeman & Anderson 2011). A third distinction may be helpful

to make here as well: content-based versus communicative methods. Content based focuses on

teaching the language by teaching other subject, material, thoughts, etc in the target language,

while communicative methods focus on overtly teaching how to communicate in the language

(basic conversations as opposed to a subject or cultural facet).

Both content-based methods (bilingual and immersion) arise, as does communicative, in

the Teaching Indigenous language literature. Commonly, the mention of bilingual programs

comes with a negative connotation and memory, e.g., the case of Spanish-English bilingual

programs in US public schools. Bilingual programs, at least as they have been realized based on

subtractive language learning principles, have been seen as unhelpful in reversing the

language/culture decline or the place where the imposing language and culture began to uproot

and displace the native culture (Hinton, 2001; Kipp, 2000; Real Bird, 2013; Kroskrity & Field,

2009). Therefore, the literature tends to support "immersion programs" especially since there

seems to be some successful examples (i.e. Hawaiian, Navajo, etc). While the terms may be

surrounded by negative memories or idealizations, the distinction Larsen-Freeman and Anderson

(2011) make may still be helpful to maintain (as will be discussed later in this chapter),

especially as we add in the distinction between content-based and communicative methodologies,

which are rarely seen as separate from "immersion" in the indigenous language teaching

literature.

"TPR" and Sign Language.

Not only does the distinction between content-based and communicative teaching

methods get blurred in the teaching indigenous language literature, but TPR and other

comprehension-approach methods also get lumped in with immersion. Still, TPR has been one of

the most influential approaches to teaching not only the indigenous language, but also embracing

the native culture (Reyhner, 1999; Kipp, 2000; Real Bird, 2013; C'Hair, 2013). The Native

American Cultural Communication Program, supported through Humbolt University in CA,

places an emphasis on the relationship between language and action (Bennett, 1996). The

students are expected to learn through action; the program, therefore, claims to follow the

principals of James Asher's TPR (Bennett, 1996).

Dr. Lanny Real Bird (2013) supports not only the use of learning Native American

languages through action, but also the use of Native American sign language to serve as the

action paired with the spoken language in TPR-like ways. During his presentation "Teaching to

Teach Native Conversation Using the Plains Sign Language," Real Bird (2013) asserted that the

culture and history of so many Native American languages is rooted in actions and sign.

Therefore, he claims that the use of sign language in the language classroom, like action-based

TPR instruction, will help the students remember the spoken language more efficiently in a

culturally familiar way (rather than an imposed instructional system like teacher-centered

classrooms). Overall, the use of TPR and Indian Sign Language in teaching indigenous

languages in North America is widely supported for its educational effectiveness and cultural

efficiency.

Combining Methods.

 While immersion, communicative, and TPR are the most commonly referenced methods

in the literature, most of the available literature focuses on the importance of integrating methods

and incorporating social factors, even if this is only in the organization or lack of distinction

between methods/typology.

Master-Apprentice.

One commonly referenced method for teaching indigenous languages pulling from other

methods/principles is the "Master-Apprentice" method founded in California (Hinton, 2001b).

The method was developed because teachers of a target indigenous language were not fluent and

encountered difficulties in teaching the language to younger learners due to their lack of fluency.

Furthermore, the regions did not have unifying languages, and therefore, the teachers/learners

were not able to all learn from the same instructor funded from a similar source. Therefore, the

Master-apprentice Language Learning Program was established as a means to pass language

from the last native speakers to a willing adult learner using principles from "TPR,

conversational competence models, linguistic elicitation techniques, the use of technology in

language learning, and just plain common sense" (Hinton, 2001b, p. 218). The founding

principles revolve around the ideas of using only the target language, preserving the language

through recordings, and eventually gaining fluency as the apprentice.

Integrating Methods and Socio-cultural Factors

While the Master-Apprentice method seems to work effectively in producing a strong

fluent speaker, it does not aid the effort to expand use among large numbers of speakers. The

method's principles of utilizing multiple methods combined with adding awareness of social

factors becomes useful in the language in a larger context. The foundational principles behind

Reyhner's (1999) article *Some Basics of Indigenous Language Revitalization* include both formal

instruction and communities' roles in indigenous language learning. The Stabilizing Indigenous

Languages symposiums (five in total between 1994 and 1999) identify the complex issues

surrounding teaching indigenous languages (Reyhner, 1999). The issues range from social

attitude to the language, to language learning policies in both the U.S. government and the tribal

government policies, to teacher training programs, and even the role of technology in the

processes.

Primarily, the collaborators from the fifth symposium follow Fishman's eight stages of

endangerment and assert that indigenous languages should be taught through TPR,

communicative language teaching, and/or immersion programs. The collaborators from the

fourth symposium agree with the methods and material development strategies, but disagree with

the use of Fishman's scale (Fettes, 1997). Overall, the value of the relationship between language

and speakers, and learning through action, communication, and community drive the ideologies

of these and other scholars.

The Native American Cultural Communication Program, supported through Humbolt University and the Center for Indian Community Development (Bennett, 1996), and Cantoni (2007) also place an emphasis on the relationship between language and action, cultural community, and scaffolding comprehensible input. Language, according to these frameworks, is learned and taught through action, collaboration, and communication; the programs, therefore, claims to follow the principals of James Asher's TPR (Total Physical Response), cooperative learning, and Communication-Based Instructions (ed. Bennett, 1996; ed. Cantoni, 2007). These collaborative methodological-anthropological approaches begin to shape the process of revitalizing, maintaining, and teaching indigenous languages in a positive way. They still follow some of the "older trends" in the field of language instruction, but there is room in them for expanding with the field.

Self-Access and Technology

One of the fastest growing areas of the language-teaching field is that of technology, and indigenous language teaching literature is aware of this expansion. Yet, it comes with its own set of complications, frustrations, and potentials. Reyhner (1999) argues that technology—specifically computer based instruction—can be useful in long-term preservation of a language, but ineffective and culturally controversial for teaching indigenous languages. In contrast, Fettes (1997) supports the wide use of technology (especially computers) by arguing it is faster to translate—especially with the help of technology—than to create new language materials.

The use of technology in indigenous language instruction, as in the general language-teaching field, revolves around both material development and self-access methods of language instruction. Use of technology for both can become culturally controversial in some indigenous speech communities. Similarly, the culturally accepted way of teaching may be in community

with an elder as the instructor guiding the students, so "self-teaching" or "self-access learning"

may not be valued or seems disrespectful to generational education (Real Bird, 2013). Still,

modernism and the generational shift towards technology provide strong rationale for utilizing

technology in teaching indigenous languages.

Applying methods to revitalization efforts

Choosing appropriate methods can be as difficult as setting appropriate goals for a

language, yet the two should inform one another as a speech community strives to maintain or

revitalize their language. The teaching indigenous languages literature seems to highlight

immersion as the preferred method, or even the idealized method as some programs seem to have

great success (success in the previous sense of fully reviving a language). However, the other

methods presented in the overview play unique roles in helping achieve new kinds of success

based on more manageable goals. The following section illustrates some of this interplay

between goals and methods to reveal a more rounded picture of how methods can help shape and

achieve language revitalization goals. Here it is important to acknowledge that both revitalization

and language teaching are dynamic processes that require knowing the language, the speech

community, and the individual learners. The suggested interplay between goals and methods

should not be taken as the only approach, but as a guideline.

i.   *Grammar Translation and Classicalization*

While Grammar Translation is often viewed as out of date or too form focused (lacking

communication focus), it still plays a large role in preserving language, teaching general

language principles for future application to language learning, and allowing a learner to connect

to heritage stories and artifacts. This approach was taken in the "Structures of Wichita Fall 2012"

course offered at the University of Colorado—Boulder. The students read a formal grammar of

the language, read cultural texts (i.e. stories, directions, recipes, songs, etc) in the target language

and then translated the cultural texts into English. This approach allowed the heritage artifacts to

be studied and the language to not be completely lost. In essence, grammar translation seems to

lend itself nicely to the classicalization goal of revitalization efforts. Eventually the thorough

knowledge of grammar can lead to oral production, but it need not do so.

ii. Audio-Lingual and expanding domains

The audio-lingual method is still extremely important when teaching indigenous

languages as it helps highlight phonetic differences and expose learners to the target language,

even when domains of use may be limited. This approach allows learners to be submerged in the

language which helps create a need to understand the language. Also, the audio recordings are a

great way to document a language and then also make the language more accessible online or in

other domains of self-access. Real Bird (2013) supports the use of language videos and audio

recordings with younger generations so that kids can learn on their own at home and then teach

others around them.

Audio-lingual strives to teach language through direct oral contact with the language,

even when meaning may not be clearly connected to an entity because eventually meaning is

created through language contact. Audio-lingual can be a great way to begin expanding domains

driving the speakers towards motivation to speak. As Kipp (2000) argues, status must be put

back into the language before speakers have the desire to learn it. Cowell (2013) also argues that

there must be reasons for learners to learn the language—the reasons can often come through a

desire to understand the language that they are coming in contact with. Even putting the oral

lessons online for learners to access the material is a huge step towards making the language

accessible and raising the motivations levels.

iii. TPR (Comprehension Approach)

As TPR is one of the most referenced methods in indigenous teaching literature, it need only be expanded on further. Through this method, the meaning of sentences and phrases can often become clearer to the learners as an action or a context is presented along side the verbal cues. Furthermore, if the use of sign language can also be brought into the process, then two cultural artifacts may be saved through the same learning context. It also tends to have a greater appeal to children and helps them retain the language (C' Hair, 2013). TPR has proven to be extremely beneficial as a means of teaching indigenous languages and further use of the method in non-traditional domains (outside of the classroom and in sports, dance, or other cultural contexts) may help strengthen revitalization efforts in a new way.

iv. Communicative and creating social interactions

Most of the literature argues for *use* of the language. Real Bird (2013) states that use is where the vitality of the language is produced. The use of language is the focus of both communicative and content-based courses. The distinction between the two types of methods may help achieve differing goals. Communicative classes focus on the language and the phrases needed to have a basic conversation in the language. This method may be best utilized in a context where the social domains are ready to expand or online language lessons are appropriate.

Most often, communicative language learning focuses on the most important phrases and basic needs of a speaker. Cowell (2013) mentioned that learners often are most intrigued by the greeting, eating, and activities conversations. These therefore are some of the top priorities for the webpage lessons. This method is great for maintaining the language and possibly even raising its status to a minority language. However, it is unlikely that a communicative method will fully revive the language; content-based courses may be more useful.

v. Content-based and creating sustainability

Content-based learning focuses not only on the use of language, but also the use of language by simply learning new material in the target language. Once endangered language classes begin to shift from simply teaching the language (the form, the basic conversations) to teaching new ideas, material, and subjects in the target language, then an increase in use can occur based on the fact that there are more domains and subjects to dialogue about. School no longer becomes a place where one subject is focused on the language, but the entire educational domain becomes a place where the language is used. The more content is accessible in the target language, the greater the demand to learn and use the language becomes.

vi. Technology and "Technology-based Self-access"

One of the fastest growing methods of making content more accessible and increasing domains of use is technology based. Through websites, social networking medias, films, and more, access to a given language has increased, and this should be true of indigenous languages as well as flourishing ones. Technology can quickly become a means of learning a language and networking with other learners to create spaces for communication/language use to occur. Putting language in domains of technology and self-access seem to open the door to new generations and their potentially preferred means of learning.

vii. Mixing Methods

While all of these methods seem to play different roles for each learner, effort, and teacher, they need not be exclusively used. Bringing together an array of methods is often the most successful approach to teaching any language. Having a firm grasp on the different methods' unique features, beliefs, and goals is essential, but the mixing of methods can often be the most successful strategy.

All in all, methods should be used inside and outside the classroom to achieve

manageable goals of expanding individual usage-based domains. Expanding the domains of use

outside the classroom can in return improve the state of the community's language ideologies,

increasing the need for more classroom based linguistic instruction rooted in methodology. The

effects and interplay of education, methodology use, domains of use, and ideology must be

identified and nurtured for an effort to find success based on any scale.

CHAPTER VI: Conclusions

The Final Mapping

The three strands of this thesis—usage-based assessment, achievable-goal setting, and

appropriate methodology application—should be interwoven together to provide a well-rounded,

success-bound approach to language revitalization planning. Mapping them together on one

matrix helps highlight languages', efforts', and teachers' needs to be dynamic and aware of the

contexts in which they function. Just as the distinction between statuses is not static (or set-in-

stone), the method choice and application is also fluid, though it should be well informed. Each

strand of the mapping should inform the other based on the dynamic nature of the language and

speech community itself. Through this type of mapping, individual languages' contexts should

be accounted for, a new understanding of success created, and teaching methodology applicable

in realistic and useful ways.

Table 12: *Mapping Usage-based Domains, Classification Goals, and Methodologies*

brings the three strands together in one of Irish Gaelic's domains of use to illustrate the interplay

between the three strands and their role in redefining successful revitalization efforts.

Table 12: *Mapping Usage-based Domains, Classification Goals, and Methodologies in Irish*				
		Irish Gaelic—Usage-Based Domains		
*Status of Domains		European Union (*Political*)		Potential, Applicable Teaching Methods/Strategies
	Maj	Target language is an official EU language. New terms for domain are being created. A primary "method" is "content" based to provide authentic interaction with language in a wide variety of subjects, especially related to the domain of the EU.	Content-based	
	Min	Target language is an official EU language and occasionally used in discourse outside of texts/meetings. A primary "method" is "communicative" to provide an understanding of the language as it applies to give discourses.	Communi-cative	
	End	Target language is an official EU language. A primary "method" is TPR to provide contact with the language and a general understanding of important action based terminology. Focus is to have a general grasp on the language for oral use.	TPR	
	Obs	Target language is not an official EU language, but home country may provide translation of official documents. A primary "method" is "audio-lingual" to provide oral contact with the language and expand towards greater understanding.	Audio-Lingual	
	N-E	Target language is not an official EU language. Grammar Translation is a key method as learners translate documents into target language and back to "dominant" language allowing them to increase their knowledge of language.	Grammar translation	
*The statuses of domains are the same as those in Chapter Four: Maj (Majority), Min (Minority), End (Endangered), Obs (Obsolescent), N-E (Non-existant).				

Table 12 illustrates the relationship between status/goals, usage-based domains, and teaching

methods. Through this mapping, revitalization efforts can approach planning with awareness to

the individual language, its speech community, and resources while applying broader concepts

(goals and methods) in beneficial ways. The goal of this mapping is to help set a framework for

efforts not to be restricted to, but to work with and create an individualized plan.

Discussion/Implications

         Mapping goals/statuses, usage-based domains, and methods implies that language

revitalization efforts may have a firmer starting point. The goal to approaching revitalization

with the awareness to these components is that efforts can take the model as a beginning

framework to assessing the linguistic climate. Rather than beginning at wave 1 assumptions and

inefficiently spending time rediscovering the drawbacks of current models, those involved in

revitalizing a language can beginning by targeting the languages' specific domains of use and

speech communities' ideologies related to the language. The nature of these conclusions emerges

as a "handbook" for future language revitalization efforts.

Conclusion

  The strands—usage-based domains assessment, achievable-goal setting, and appropriate

methodology application—(individually or together) may serve as a beginning to dialogue for

any speech community or revitalization effort of Indigenous languages. The goal is to further the

conversation beyond merely using additional teaching language methodology or language

endangerment classification without considering communities' language ideologies and

individual languages' usage-based domains. Evaluating the potential domains of use specific to

the target language and identifying possible places for intermediate growth (slowly expanding

one domain of use, rather than all domains at one time) establish achievable outcome goals for a

revitalization effort to base its scale of success off of; it also targets negative ideologies by

helping put status into language in specific contexts allowing speaker motivation to increase.

  A new understanding of success (achieving goals set based on expanding given,

culturally significant domains of use) allows critics, like those of Irish Gaelic who deem the

efforts a failure, to be silenced. The revitalization effort has taken large steps towards expanding

the educational and political domains of use, both within Ireland and the global context around it.

A new goal for success, one that may be more easily achieved, helps lower the sense of

hopelessness and encourages efforts to continue moving forward.

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Appendix A: Appendix of Relevant Websites [from Ni Ghallachair, 2008]

(My thanks to Eamann O hEigeartaigh of the Language Centre, NUI Maynooth for this list)

Acmhainn http://www.acmhainn.ie/
Before You Know It http://www.byki.com/fls/iris/irish
Beo http://www.beo.ie/index.php
Blas http://www.bbc.co.uk/northernireland/blas/
An Chrannog—Focloir http://www.crannog.ie/focloir.htm
An Chrannog—Seanfhocail http://www.crannog.ie/mam.htm
CRAMLAP http://www.cramlap.org
Cumann na Matamaitic, Colaiste na Trionoide http://www.maths.tcd.ie/gaeilge/gaelic.html
Daltai na Gaelige http://www.daltai.com/home.htm
Focal.ie. http://www.focal.ie/Home.aspx
An Foclaoi Beag http://www.csis.ul.ie/focloir/
Gaeilige.ie http://www.gaeilge.ie/
Gaelic-L Dictionary http://www.smo.uhi.ac.uk/~smacsuib/focloir/gaelic-1/index.html
Gaelport http://www.gaelport.com/
Gaeltalk http://www.gaeltalk.net/index1.html
Irish Dictionary online http://www.englishirishdictionary.com/dictionary
Tobar http://www.tobar.ie/
An Tobar (Focloir) http://www.smo.uhi.ac.uk/~smacsuib/bng/tobar/
Teastas Eorpach na Gaeilge http://www.teg.ie/
Turas taeanga http://www.rte.ie/tv/turasteanga/learning_irish.html
Vicipeid http://ga.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pr%C3%ADomhleathanach
Vifax http://www.nuim.ie/language/vifax.shtml

Appendix B
Language Policy for the Northern Arapaho Tribe Declaration

LANGUAGE POLICY FOR THE NORTHERN ARAPAHO TRIBE

DECLARATION

The Arapaho language is a gift from the Creator to our people and shall therefore be treated with respect.

Our language is the foundation of our cultural and spiritual heritage; without it we could not exist in the manner that our Creator intended.

Because education is the transmission of culture and values, we declare that Arapaho education shall be the means for the transmission of the Arapaho language, culture, and values.

It shall be the policy of the Northern Arapaho Tribe that no member of the Tribe shall be coerced by any outside authority or system to deny or debase the Arapaho language.

We declare that the Northern Arapaho Tribe's language policies shall manifest consideration of the whole person, incorporating high academic achievement with the spiritual, mental, physical, and cultural aspects of the individual within the Arapaho family and the Northern Arapaho Tribe. This shall be the Tribe's standard for excellence in education.

We declare that the Northern Arapaho people must have genuine freedom of access to excellence in education and that we shall carry out our obligation to uphold the values which will enable our present and future generations to survive.

In keeping with Article 27 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations, we, the government of the Northern Arapaho Tribe, declare that all persons within the Wind River Reservation borders belonging to non-Arapaho ethnic, religious, or linguistic minorities shall not be denied the right, in community with other members of their group, to enjoy

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their own culture, to profess and practice their own religion, or to use
their own language.

We, therefore, set forth the following language policy statements to
reaffirm our commitment to the promotion, protection, preservation, and
enhancement of our Arapaho language, culture, and tradition. Such language
and culture policies shall hereafter be in effect within the boundaries of
the Wind River Reservation and shall be applicable to all schools, institu-
tions, and programs of the Reservation that serve the Northern Arapaho people.

SECTION 1. AUTHORITY

The authority to establish these language policies that shall pertain to
all tribal members and to all education programs of the Northern Arapaho Tribe
is derived from international law, United States federal law, and the inherent
sovereign power of the Northern Arapaho Tribe to determine educational policies,
and is reinforced in the doctrine established in Worcester v. Georgia 31 U.S.
(6 Pet.) 515.

United States constitutional law concerning Indian tribes is unique and
separate from the rest of American jurisprudence. Indian law encompasses
Western European international law, specific provisions of the U.S. Constitution,
precolonial treaties, numerous treaties of the United States with Indian tribes,
a body of Congressionally enacted Public Laws, an entire volume of the United
States Code, and numerous decisions of the U.S. Supreme Court and lower Federal
Courts.

While states do not have inherent power (jurisdiction) within Indian
reservations (United States v. Kagama, 11 U.S. 375,384 [1866] and Bryan v.
Itasca County, 426 U.S. 373 [1976]), the Northern Arapaho Tribe shall, on a
government-to-government basis, work cooperatively with any state.

The authority of the Northern Arapaho Tribe to establish language and

Appendix C
Ethnologue's Explanation of Language Clouds (taken from Lewis et al., 2013)

This graph [Figure 2] shows the place of this language within the cloud of all living languages. Each language in the world is represented by a small dot that is placed on the grid in relation to its population (in the vertical axis) and its level of development or endangerment (in the horizontal axis), with the largest and strongest languages in the upper left and the smallest and weakest languages (down to extinction) in the lower right. The population value is the estimated number of first language (L1) speakers; it is plotted on a logarithmic scale (where $10^0 = 1$; $10^2 = 100$; $10^4 = 10,000$; $10^6 = 1,000,000$; $10^8 = 100,000,000$). The value for the development versus endangerment dimension is the estimated level on the EGIDS scale. (See the pages on Development and Endangerment for a fuller explanation.)

The language in focus is represented by a large, colored dot. When the population is unknown, a color-coded question mark appears at the bottom of the grid. When there are no known L1 speakers, an X appears at the bottom of the grid. The color coding matches the color scheme used in the summary profile graphs on the navigation maps for the site. In this scheme, the EGIDS levels are grouped as follows:

- Purple = Institutional (EGIDS 0-4) — The language has been developed to the point that it is used and sustained by institutions beyond the home and community.
- Blue = Developing (EGIDS 5) — The language is in vigorous use, with literature in a standardized form being used by some though this is not yet widespread or sustainable.
- Green = Vigorous (EGIDS 6a) — The language is unstandardized and in vigorous use among all generations.
- Yellow = In trouble (EGIDS 6b-7) — Intergenerational transmission is in the process of being broken, but the child-bearing generation can still use the language so it is possible that revitalization efforts could restore transmission of the language in the home.
- Red = Dying (EGIDS 8a-9) — It is too late to restore natural intergenerational transmission through the home; a mechanism outside the home would need to be developed.
- Black = Extinct (EGIDS 10) — The language has fallen completely out of use and no one retains a sense of ethnic identity associated with the language.

The EGIDS level indicated by the large, colored dot may be higher than the EGIDS level reported in the main entry for the language. This is because a separate EGIDS estimate is made for every country in which a language is used. Our method for calculating the EGIDS level for the language as a whole is not to take an average of all countries, but to report the highest level (that is, most safe) for any country. The logic here is that if the EGIDS level of a language is taken as a predictor of its likely longevity, then its longevity will be determined by where it is the strongest.

Each dot in the cloud is gray at the level of 20% black. As dots are superimposed on each other, the spot gets darker. Thus a spot of total black indicates that at least 5 languages are at the same spot in the cloud. The population scale is continuous; thus the placement in the vertical axis corresponds exactly to population. The EGIDS scale, however, is discrete. Rather than placing all of the dots for a given EGIDS level exactly on the grid line for that level, the dots are "jittered" (that is, the horizontal placement is random within a band around the grid line for the level).

Appendix D: My Original *Four Domains Argument*

The following is my original analysis of the domains of use. Initially, I attempted to consolidate the domains of use into four categories: political, social, educational, and self-access/technological. However, it became clear that such categorization became restricting/confusing. Therefore, I left the useful concepts in the paper (using these categories to help guide the search for specific usage-based domains) and present the original argumentation here in Appendix D.

Some of the most extensive research conducted in the area of teaching endangered languages as a means of revitalization focuses the efforts of Modern Hebrew and Irish Gaelic. The discussion often includes other languages, but primarily for a specific contribution they have made to the understanding of language revitalization or to help illustrate the creation of language endangerment "statuses." Breton, a debatably "successful" effort in France, elicits attention for their use of media and education in revitalization instruction efforts. Navajo, a Native American language, forges the trails of indigenous-language, elementary to collegiate-level bilingual education. Even in Hebrew and Gaelic, specific contributions surface in the literature. In Hebrew, the focus tends to be on political and socio-historical factors that led to its successful revival, and in Irish Gaelic, the focus tends to be on educational policies.

The common focus areas to surface can be grouped into one of four domains: political, social (socio-cultural and historical), educational (methods, materials, policies), and self-access. The role of government, use of language in local and national governments, and general political support behind the language influence the health and stability of a language. The "political" domain of use refers to both the policies set in place by government related to a language and the use of a given language in the political spheres. The "social" domain includes the speech

communities' ideologies about the language, their use of the language in daily life, and other

socio-cultural uses of the language. Essentially, the social domain dictates the day-to-day

demand for language use and the common spheres in which the language is accepted, rejected, or

underappreciated. This category also accounts for language use in the home. Whether the parents

are raising their children to learn the language as an L1 or not is of great importance to

understanding this domain of use.

Many argue that if home-life doesn't support the language, then educational policies will

not be sufficient in "saving" a language. However, educational domains of use play an immense

role in language learning/teaching and it is in this domain that methodologies of language

learning instruction play the greatest role. The education domain encompasses not only language

lessons or use in a classroom, but also the educational policies set in place for the language

learning. Educational also includes the creation, development, and use of unique materials and

methods related to the learning of a given language. Traditionally, the use of technology may

have fallen into this educational domain. However, in recent decades, the role of technology and

"self-access" has expanded and now demands its own category—self-access being the ability to

interact with/obtain the language on an individual basis, especially in relation to developing

technologies.

By conducting a case study looking at the domains and their applicable languages, a table

can be created to help articulate important domains of revitalization, define

"successful/unsuccessful" efforts and "achievable/unachievable" goals, and create a framework

through which current methodologies can best equip learners of endangered languages. First, this

chapter/section explores the general demographics/statistics of five primary languages (Hebrew,

Irish Gaelic, Navajo, Arapaho, and Wichita) and then identifies the languages'

relation/contributions to the dialogue as seen through the four categories—political, socio-

linguistic, educational, and self-access; other languages may enter the dialogue here, but only as

they are applicable to a give domain. A summary of the results in chart form allows the

following sections/chapters to redefine language revitalization "success/outcome goals" and

reveal the role of methodologies in revitalization efforts of endangered languages.

To follow Ethnologue's attempt at providing a multi-dimensional approach to

understanding language endangerment, I will now explore in greater depth the structural, socio-

cultural, educational, and self-access "domains" of these five languages (and a few others when

appropriate) and then expand this demographic approach into an outcome-goal driven language-

teaching methodology supported understanding of revitalization.

*At this point I shifted my focus and the case study is now in the form of usage-based domains of
the four languages (Irish Gaelic, Hawaiian, Arapaho, and Wichita).*

Appendix E: Table 13—Proposed Classifications & Goals (with "drawbacks)

Table 13 below is my reassessment of Table 9 from Chapter VI above. Table 9 presents a

proposed typology compiled from a reevaluation of current literature, especially focusing on

Bauman's (1980) terms. However, the "new" or proposed classification system still falls prey to

several drawbacks that the other models in "wave two of revitalization." Table 13 focuses on the

"drawbacks" I have identified.

Table 13: *Proposed Classifications & Goals (with "drawbacks")*			
Status	*Strategy*	*Goal*	*"Drawbacks"*
Majority/ (flourishing)	Lingua franca	Become a global language.	How many "majority" languages can exist? Is www "global"?
Minority (flourishing)	Expansion/ fortification	Become 2nd language next to a majority language	Can it be minority language if it's not a majority language somewhere else?
Endangered	a) Return	Reverse loss of L1 domains to reestablish high proficiency/use	How can one reverse the loss? What is "high proficiency/use"? How many speakers/domains must be increased to be "successful"?
	b) Maintenance	Preserve language; maintain level of use current domains.	How maintain a language? Isn't language always expanding or declining, not ever "static"?
Obsolescent	a)Revival	A language not spoken becomes used orally in 1+ domains	How many domains to "revive"? What is the difference between Hebrew and Wichita?
	b) Classical	Heritage texts and linguistic structure taught, but oral use is limited/non-existent	If not spoken, is it still a language? If it is spoken again, is it a "new" language?
Extinct	"death"	(no records/speakers)	Linguists consider "non-spoken" languages to be dead