PREFACE

In the curricular structure introduced by this University for the students of Post-Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue Post-Graduate course in a subject is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. I am happy to note that this university has been recently accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council of India (NAAC) with grade 'A'.

Keeping this in view, the study materials of the Post Graduate level in different subjects are prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis.

The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholarship is indispensable for a work of this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing, and devising of a proper layout of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an all-out involvement in 'layout of the materials and an involvement in 'invisible teaching', as well. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other.

The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials, the easier will it be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms with them through the counselling sessions regularly available at the network of study centres set up by the University.

Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts is still experimental—in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned.

Professor (Dr.) Subha Sankar Sarkar
Vice-Chancellor

Netaji Subhas Open University

Post Graduate Degree Programme

M A in English Language Teaching (PGEL)

Course Code : PGEL- 8 B (Elective Course)

Course Title: Application of Theories of ELT

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PGEL - 8B
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PGELT- 8B : Elective paper
Course Title: Application of Theories of ELT

Module-1 : Applied Linguistics-1

Module-2 : Applied Linguistics -2

Module-3 : Selection and Gradation

Module-4 : English Language Learners

PGEL- 8B : Elective paper
Course Title : Application of Theories of ELT

MODULE-1 : APPLIED LINGUISTICS-1

Unit 1 ❑ Concept of Applied Linguistics

Structure

1.1 Objectives

Having worked through this unit you should be able to:

(a) define applied linguistics

(b) become aware of its scope and theories, and

(c) understand its relationship with language pedagogy.

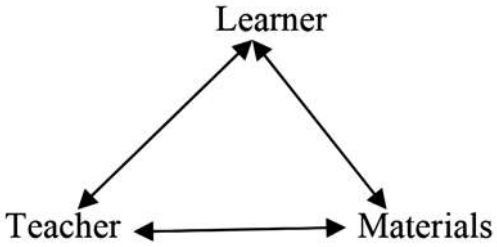
1.2 Introduction

The purpose of this unit is to understand what Applied Linguistics means, how it is treated as a discipline, the sources of knowledge that fed into it, and in particular, its

implications for English Language Teaching (ELT). This unit will also serve as a general background to the other units in this module.

1.3 Preliminary Idea of Applied Linguistics

Applied Linguistics is a classroom activity. It involves interaction among the learners and language teachers. The aim is to bring about a change in linguistic skills in the learners. This happens through a network of three-directional interactions: learners, teacher, and text materials. The teacher mediates between the learners and the learning materials in the process of interacting with the learners as well as the learning materials. During the process, the teacher and the learner participate in various activities, which may or may not contribute to the final outcome. During this process, the same things may go wrong and break down, while other things may operate smoothly, without any hitch. This relationship is diagrammatically represented as follows:



As an everyday practitioner, a language teacher has to keep in sight the ultimate outcome and at the same time be alert to what is taking place in the classroom and have to handle it instantaneously. This may be for controlling the classroom, rewarding or praising the learner, rebuking or punishing him, transacting techniques, facilitating the teaching objective, or for repairing the damage that has taken place within the process or activity. These activities not only involve verbal interactions but also 'doing' things within the classroom.

Just as a person who is able to drive a car may not be able to identify the fault if the car breaks down and may be completely at a loss as to how to repair the damage. Similarly, a classroom teacher may be able to handle the interaction between the learner and the teacher but may feel helpless if things begin to go wrong. Just as repairing a car requires the knowledge of how the parts of the vehicle operate individually and collectively and how they are interlinked, in the same way, the ability to control guide, and repair the teaching activity requires enough knowledge and insights of a teacher far

beyond the obvious activities within the classroom. In other words, one needs to have a holistic view of the process, and this is known as systems approach to language teaching. The science of applied linguistics helps one gain such insights.

What is the nature of this knowledge and insights? Is it systematic? Is it based on certain principles? If so, where do these principles derive from? It is believed that Applied Linguistics is an interdisciplinary area that provides systematic and informed answers to the questions raised in the previous paragraph. In the following sections, you will gather some ideas of how this discipline came to exist and what it is expected to contribute to language pedagogy in particular and the total field of language teaching in general.

1.4 Definition of Applied Linguistics

Oxford English Dictionary (2002)

Applied Linguistics is the branch of linguistics concerned with practical applications of language studies, for example, language teaching, translation, and speech therapy. Since applied linguistics is concerned with language problems as experienced in the real world, it might appear that the two areas of inquiry in effect converge into one.

Linguistics Society of America

The term 'applied linguistics' refers to a broad range of activities that involve solving some language-related problem or addressing some language-related concerns. It appears as though applied linguistics, at least in North America, was first officially recognized as an independent course at the University of Michigan in 1946. In those early days, the term was used both in the United States and in Great Britain to refer to applying a so-called 'scientific approach' to teaching foreign languages, including English for non-native speakers.Early work to improve the quality of foreign language teaching by Professors Charles Fries (University of Michigan) and Robert Lado (the University of Michigan, then Georgetown University) helped to bring definition to the field as did the 1948 publication of a new journal, *Language Learning: A Quarterly Journal of Applied Linguistics.*During the late 1950s and the early 1960s, the use of the term was gradually broadened to include what was then referred to as 'automatic translation'. In 1964 following two years of preparatory work financed by the Council of Europe, the *Association Internationale de Linguistique Appliquée (the International Association of Applied Linguistics usually referred to by the French acronym AILA*) was founded

and its first international congress was held in Nancy, France. Papers for the congress were solicited in two distinct strands—foreign language teaching and automatic translation.

British Council

Applied linguistics is a field of study that looks at how linguistics can help understand real-life problems in areas such as psychology, sociology, and education. It can be compared with theoretical linguistics, which looks at areas such as morphology, phonology, and lexis. Areas of applied linguistics of interest to teachers of languages include language acquisition, corpus studies, and sociolinguistics.For example, Linguistic Anthropology is a field of applied linguistics that links the analysis of linguistics and socio-cultural issues.The classroom studies in applied linguistics, which inform the ELTclassroom, include bilingualism, conversation and discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, language assessment, and language teaching itself.

1.5 Concept of Applied Linguistics

As the term Applied Linguistics implies, initially it referred to rather direct application of linguistic principles to either the analysis of language or to language pedagogy. The earliest illustrationsof such an application are the three books of Harold E. Palmer of England, namely, *The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages* (1917), *The Oral Method of Teaching Languages* (1921), and *The Principles of Language Study* (1922). All these books made an attempt to base language pedagogy on the theoretical disciplines of linguistics and psychology.

In this sense, the structural linguistics in America, from the very beginning, was concerned with the application of linguistic principles for analysis and description of the fast disappearing American-Indian languages. During World War II, guided by the belief that linguistic scholars could provide solutions to the language teaching problems faced in the learning of exotic languages, the Army called in linguists for their wartime language programmes known as the Army Specialized Training Programme (ASTP). Faced with such a task in language teaching, the linguists broke away from the traditions of conventional language teaching and developed certain approaches and sets of models and techniques derived from linguistic principles. The approaches can be expressed in the form five tenets stated here:

(a) Language is primarily speech, not writing

(b) A language is what the native speakers say; not what someone thinks they ought to say (as opposed to the 'hate mate fallacy')

(c) Languages are different (hate mate fallacy)

(d) A language is a set of habits (how languages are learnt) and

(e) Teach the language, not about the language(Language is a skill, not knowledge)

The set of techniques that are developed for the programme included mimicking the spoken model, memorization of the structures through repetition, and intensive practice on language drills.Apart from providing a specific framework for the Army Specialized Training Programme (ASTP), the five principles mentioned above influenced the content and design of teaching materials, classroom techniques, and specially teacher training till the sixties. For instance, the 'structural analysis of the language to be learnt' becomes the basis for the graded teaching materials used in teaching English.Oral skills were emphasized and practiced intensively. For the use of such materials and techniques teachers needed to be trained.

1.6 Scope of Applied Linguistics

Applied linguistics exhibits many disciplinary characteristics.These points reflect commonalities that most applied linguists would agree on.Applied linguistics has many subareas which generally define applied linguistics in ways quite similar to the problem-based list previously provided. Applied linguistics recognizes that linguistics must be included as a core knowledge base in the training and work of applied linguistics, although the purpose of most applied linguists' work is not simply to *apply* linguistics to achieve a solution. Moreover, direct applications of language knowledge is not necessarily a criterion that defines applied linguistics work. How one trains effective language teachers may involve research that does not refer directly to aspects of language knowledge, but rather to aspects of learning psychology (cognitive processes), educational practice (task developmentand sequencing), and social interactions (autonomy, status, turn-taking).

Applied linguistics is grounded in real-world language-driven problems and issues (primarily linked by practical matters involving language use, language evaluation, language contact and multilingualism, language policies, and language learning and teaching). There is also, however, the recognition that these practically driven problems have an extraordinary range, and this range tends to dilute any sense of common purpose or common professional identification among practitioners. It typically incorporates other

disciplinary knowledge beyond linguistics in its efforts to address language-based problems. Applied linguists commonly draw upon and are often well trained in areas of anthropology, computer programming, education, economics, English, literature, measurement, political science, psychology, sociology, or rhetoric.

Applied linguistics isan interdisciplinary field because many practical language issues are addressed through the knowledge resources of any single discipline, including linguistics. For example, genuinely to influence language learning, one must be able to call upon, at the very least, resources from educational theory, ethnomethodology (sociology), and learning theory as well as linguistics. It commonly includes a core set of issues and practices that are readily identifiable as work carried out by many applied linguists (e.g., second language assessment, second language curriculum development, second language learning, second language teaching, and second language teacher preparation).

Applied linguistics generally incorporates or includes several identifiable subfields: for example, corpus linguistics, forensic linguistics, language testing, language policy and planning, lexicography, second language acquisition, second language writing, and translation and interpretation. It often defines itself broadly in order to include issues in other language-related fields (e.g., first language composition studies, first language literacy research, language pathology, and natural language processing). The great majority of members in these other fields do not see themselves as applied linguists; however, the broad definition for appliedlinguistics licenses applied linguists to draw upon and borrow from these disciplines to meet their own objectives.Theseindicate the developing disciplinary nature of applied linguistics. There are certain difficulties for the field, and there are problems in attempting to define and differentiate the core versus the periphery. There are also problems in deciding how one becomes an applied linguist and what training (and what duration of training) might be most appropriate. But these problems are no more intractable than those faced by many disciplines, even relatively established ones.

The coming decades of research and inquiry in applied linguistics will continue thelines of investigation. Applied linguists will need to know more about computer technologies, statistical applications, sociocultural influences on research, and new ways to analyse language data. Testing and assessment issues will not be limited to testing applications but will also have a much greater influence on other areas of applied linguistics research. Issues such as validity, fairness, and ethics will extend into other areas of applied

linguistics. These issues will also lead to continued discussions on the most appropriate research methods in different settings. Additionally, applied linguistics will direct more attention to issues of motivation, attitudes, and affect because those factors potentially influence many language-based problems. Similarly, learning theories (as discussed and debated in educational and cognitive psychology) will become a more central concern in language learning and teaching. Finally, neuro linguistic research will undoubtedly open up new ways to think about language learning, language teaching, and how language is used.All of these issues also ensure that applied linguistics will remain essentially interdisciplinary. The resolution of language-based problems in the real world is complex, dynamic, and difficult. It seems only appropriate that applied linguists seek partnerships and collaborative research if these problems are to be addressed in effective ways.

1.7 Expert's Views on Applied Linguistics

Several experts have offered definitions of applied linguistics in recent decades, includingCrystal (1980: 20), Widdowson (183: 122), Richards *et al.* (1985: 29), Brumfit (1995: 27),Rampton (1997: 11) and others.Some of the recent views of the experts are summarised below.

Over the past decade, **Henry Widdowson**(2005) has argued consistently that applied linguistics is not an *interdisciplinary* discipline as much as a *mediating* field or domain between the theoretical plane of linguistics and language knowledge on the one hand and its applications to problems that arise in a number of real-world settings. As such, applied linguistics is problematic as a discipline or as an interdisciplinary field. Rather than create unique knowledge or work within unique disciplinary principles and resources, it is identified by its role mediating between theoretical knowledge from disciplines and practitioners who encounter real-world language problems.

According to **Jack C. Richards**, applied linguisticsfirst emerged as an attempt to provide a theoretical basis for the activities of language teaching. Later, it became an umbrella term for a variety of disciplines which focus on language issues in such fields as law, speech pathology, language planning, and forensic science. In the meantime, language teaching has evolved its own theoretical foundations, and these include second language acquisition, teacher cognition, pedagogical grammar, and so on.

Richard Hudson, applied linguistics (AL) provides theoretical and descriptive foundations for the investigation and solution of language-related problems, especially those

of language education (first-language, second-language, and foreign-language teaching and learning), but also problems of translation and interpretation, lexicography, forensic linguistics, and (perhaps) clinical linguistics.

Another noted scholar, **Susan Hunston** argues thatapplied Linguistics is the study of language in order to address real-world concerns. Another is that it is the study of language, and language-related topics, in specified situations. The real-world concerns include language learning and teaching but also other issues such as professional communication, literacy, translation practices, language and legal or health issues, and many more. Applied linguistics is practically-oriented, but it is also theory-driven and interdisciplinary. Models of how languages are learned and stored, for example, are 'applied linguistics', as are descriptions of individual language varieties that prioritize actual and contextualized language use.

According to **Vivian Cook,** another scholar of applied linguistics, the language teaching view of applied linguistics parallels TESOL or TEFL, by looking at ways of improving language teaching, backed by a more rigorous study of language. To many, however, applied linguistics has become synonymous with Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Some people are concerned with classroom language acquisition because of its teaching implications, drawing mostly on psychological models of language and language processing and social models of interaction and identity; others are concerned with SLA in natural settings.

In sum, applied linguistics is a discipline which explores the relations between theory and practice in language with particular reference to issues of language use. It embraces contexts in which people use and learn languages and is a platform for systematically address problems involving the use of language and communication in real-world situations. Applied linguistics draws on a range of disciplines, including linguistics. In consequence, applied linguistics has applications in several areas of language study, including language learning and teaching, the psychology of language processing, discourse analysis, stylistics, corpus analysis, literacy studies, and language planning and policies.

1.8 Summing Up

In this Unit, we have dealt with the definition of applied linguistics. Also, we have briefly discussed the rudimentary concepts of applied linguistics, referred to some expert's views on applied linguistics, and defined the scope of applied linguistics. We hope this Unit will help you make informed decisions relating to applied linguistics.

1.9 Review Questions

[1] What is the basic assumption behind applied linguistics?

[2] Give a complete definition of applied Linguistics.

[3] What are the major scopes of Applied Linguistics?

[4] How does applied linguistic relate to language pedagogy?

[5] In what ways does language description contribute to language pedagogy?

[6] What are the basic concepts of applied linguistics?

[7] What are the various influences that helped Applied Linguistic formulate its principles

[8] What are the five tenant of Applied Linguistics as stated by ASTP?

[9] Does Applied Linguistics help a teacher in teaching languages?

[10] Having read views from 5 experts, if you are asked to define the scope of Applied Linguistics, how would you do it?

1.10 Glossary of Terms

Bilingualism: It is the phenomenon of speaking and understanding two or more languages. The term can refer to individuals (individual bilingualism) as well as to an entire society (social bilingualism).

Corpus Analysis: It is a form of text analysis that allows one to make comparisons between textual data in one or across many languages based on large scale language data.

Discourse Analysis: It is a research method for studying written or spoken language in relation to its social context. It aims to understand how language is used in real-life situations. When you do discourse analysis, you might focus on the purposes and effects of different types of language.

English Language Teaching: It refers to the activity and industry of teaching English to non-native speakers. Many large editorial companies have ELT sections that publish books for English teachers and learners to use.

Foreign Language Learning: It is a process by which people learn languages in addition

to their native language(s). The language to be learned is referred to as the 'target language' (L2).

Interpretation: It is an explanation or a set of statements that are usually constructed to describe a set of facts that clarify the causes, context, and consequences of those facts. This description may establish rules or laws and may clarify the existing rules or laws in relation to any objects, or phenomena examined.

Language Planning: It is an attempt to influence how a language is used. This is usually done to make it possible to use the language for more subjects. Goals, objectives, and strategies are made to change the way a language is used. For many languages, there are special organizations that look after the language.

Language Policy: It is what a government does either officially through legislation, court decisions, or policy to determine how languages are used, cultivate language skills needed to meet national priorities, or to establish the rights of individuals or groups to use and maintain languages.

Language Processing: It is an intricate cognitive function that appears to be sensitive to different sorts of information, some linguistic, some not. It interacts with other cognitive functions, such as attention and memory, and on some accounts, these cognitive functions are embedded in language processing itself.

Language Testing: Its main focus is the assessment of first, second, or other languages in the school, college, or university context; assessment of language use in the workplace; and assessment of language in the immigration, citizenship, and asylum contexts. The assessment may include listening, speaking, reading, writing, an integration of two or more of these skills, or other constructs of language ability. Equal weight may be placed on knowledge (understanding how the language works theoretically) and proficiency (ability to use the language practically), or greater weight may be given to one aspect or the other.

Multilingualism: It is the ability of an individual speaker or a community of speakers to communicate effectively in three or more languages. It contrasts with monolingualism, the ability to use only one language. A person who can speak multiple languages is known as a polyglot or a multilingual.

Rhetoric: It is the art of persuasion, which along with grammar and logic, is one of the three ancient arts of discourse. Rhetoric aims to study the capacities of writers or speakers needed to inform, persuade, or motivate particular audiences in specific situations.

Second Language Acquisition: It is a process by which people learn a second language. Second-language acquisition is also the scientific discipline devoted to studying that process.

1.11 Books Recommended

[1] Allen, P.B. and Corder, S.P. (Eds.) (1973-1977). *The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics* (Vol. 1. Readings in applied Linguistics (1973); Vol. 2. Papers in Applied Linguistics (1975), Vol. 3. Techniques in Applied Linguistics (1974); Vol. 4. Testing and Experimental methods (1977). London and Oxford: Oxford University Press.

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[16] Wilkins, D.A. (1976) *Notional Syllabuses*. London: Oxford University Press.

Unit 2 ❑ Evolution of Applied Linguistics

Structure

2.1 Objectives

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to:

a. understand how Applied Linguistics has been established as a discipline today.

b. the various allied disciplines that promoted the growth of Applied Linguistics

c. appreciate the research in the field across the globe especially in America and Europe.

d. trace the development over a period of time and delineate its contemporary characteristic features

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this unit is to have a clear understanding about how Applied Linguistics developed and evolved as a discipline over the years. In this Unit, we shall try to gather some ideas onhow the discipline originated nearly a century ago; how it

has been treated by earlier scholars on either side of the Atlantic Ocean; how it has evolved as a major domain of research and application; how information, theories, and insights of many other disciplines have been incorporated here; how in the course of gradual change it has acquired the present shape and significance in a global perspective.

2.3 Origin of Applied Linguistics

In the first half of the last century, a group of linguists in America was demonstrating the use of linguistics in the teaching of English as a second language. This was being done at the *English Language Institute* of the *University of Michigan* in 1941 under the leadership of Charles C. Fries. Here, for preparing new teaching materials, an attempt was made "to interpret is a practical way for teaching the principles of modern linguistic sciences and to use the results of scientific linguistic research." Fries himself demonstrated how the sound system, the structures of the language, and the most useful lexical material, could be derived from existing linguistic knowledge and organized for language teaching purposes. According to Fries, the contribution of linguistics to pedagogy comprises the descriptive analysis of a language which forms the basis for building teaching materials. He further insisted that the descriptive analyses of both, the language to be studied and the native language of the learners are needed.

The comparison of such descriptions formed the basis of contrastive linguistic principle which then could provide a clue to the learning difficulties of the learner. The comparative study could identify similarities and differences between the two languages and linguists could then predict which areas of learning would be difficult or easy for the language learner.

Robert Lado applied the principles of contrastive linguistics systematically to the teaching of English as a second language. It was not meant to offer a new method of teaching but was a form of description that was applicable to curriculum development, the preparation and evaluation of teaching materials, the diagnosis of learning problems, and testing. Lado in fact outlined procedures for making comparisons in phonology, grammar, vocabulary, and the cultural aspects of languages.

Following such procedures, after the establishment of the *Centre for Applied Linguistics* in Washington in 1959, there was a spurt of contrastive studies, almost with all the major European languages and the Japanese. In the early sixties, contrastive linguistics became one of the most important means of relating linguistics to language teaching.

2.4 Applied Linguistics in Twentieth Century

Over the years, the term *applied linguistics* has been defined and interpreted in several different ways. In the following paragraphs we shall summarize the following characteristics of applied linguistics for each decade:

(a) In the 1950s:

- The term was commonly meant to reflect the insights of structural and functional linguists that could be applied directly to second language teaching.
- It was also used, in some cases, to refer to first language (L1) literacy and issues of language arts as well.

(b) In the 1960s:

- The term continued to be associated with the application of linguistics to language teaching and related practical language issues.
- At the same time, applied linguists became involved in matters of language assessment, language policies.
- The new field of second language acquisition (SLA) focuses on language learning, rather than on language teaching.
- By the late 1960s, we see a reinforcement of the centrality of second language teaching as applied linguistics, as well as an expansion into other realms of language use.
- Applied linguistics began to emerge as a genuine language-centred and problem-solving enterprise.

(c) In the 1970s:

- The broadening of the field of applied linguistics continued, accompanied by more overt specification of its role as a discipline that addresses real-world language-based problems.
- Although the focus on language teaching remained central to the discipline, it additionally took into its domain the growing subfields of language assessment, SLA, L2 literacy, multilingualism, language-minority rights, language policy and planning, and language teacher training.

- The notion of applied linguistics is driven by real-world language problems rather than by theoretical explorations of internalized language knowledge and (L1) language development.
- It acquires a separate identity which is different from formal linguistics and sociolinguistics.

(d) In the 1980s:

- The trends of the 1970s took hold and evolved as major points of departure from an earlier, no longer appropriate, 'linguistics applied' perspective.
- The central issue remained the need to address language issues and problems as they occur in the real world.
- Of course, because language is central to all communication, and because many language issues in the real world are particularly complex and long-standing, the emerging field has not simply been reactive, but rather, has been and still is, fluid and dynamic in its evolution.
- Definitions of applied linguistics emphasized both the range of issues addressed and the types of disciplinary resources used in order to work on language problems.
- Applied linguistics extended in a systematic way beyond language teaching and language learning issues to encompass language assessment, language policy, and planning, language use issues in professional settings, translation, bilingualism and multilingualism, lexicography, language and technology, and corpus linguistics.

(e) In the 1990s:

- A common trend was emerging to view applied linguistics as incorporating many subfields (e.g., education; English studies—including composition, rhetoric, and literary studies; modern languages)
- It also started to draw on many supporting disciplines in addition to linguistics (e.g., anthropology; policy studies; political sciences; psychology; public administration; and sociology).
- Combined with these two foundations (subfields and supporting disciplines) was the view of applied linguistics as problem-driven and real-world based rather than theory-driven and disconnected from real language use data.

- Applied linguistics evolved still further during the 1990s and 2000s, breaking away from the common framing mechanisms of the 1980s.
- A parallel co-evolution of linguistics itself needs to be commented upon to understand how and why linguistics, broadly defined, remains a core resource for applied linguistics.

2.5 Changes in Perspective in the Last Century

From the 1960s to the early 1990s, generative linguistics dominated the linguistics landscape. Although other competing formal theories (i.e., *tagmemics, systemic-functional linguistics, descriptive grammar, and others*) were always available, and sociolinguistics claimed language variation, spoken discourse analysis, and social uses of language as descriptive areas of inquiry, Chomsky's linguistics, and its offshoots, almost defined linguistics.

This situation was especially true for many practicing applied linguists during that time. However, the growing abstractness of generative linguistics, the assumption of a language acquisition device (LAD, an innate language-learning mechanism), and the assumption that a theory should be universally applicable to all languages have, for the most part, taken generative linguistics out of the running as a foundation for language knowledge that is relevant and applicable to real-world language uses and real-world language problems. In its place, applied linguists have been turning back to the following perspectives:

(a) More cognitive and descriptive approaches to language knowledge,

(b) Language explanations that are explicitly driven by attested language use rather than intuitions (corpus linguistics, descriptive grammars, sociolinguistics), and

(c) Theories of language representation that have more realistic applicability to the sorts of language issues explored by applied linguists.

Linguistics, viewed from this larger perspective, is still central to the overwhelming majority of applied linguistic areas of inquiry that are generally recognized as falling under the umbrella discipline of applied linguistics. After all, applied linguists, and training programs for applied linguists, universally recognize that language knowledge of various types is crucial for careful description and analysis of language, language learning, language uses and abuses, language assessment, so on and so forth.

Applied linguists has drawn on knowledge bases of phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and written discourse because they are relevant to an applied linguistics issue, even if a given area of applied linguistics may not draw specifically on this knowledge at all times (e.g., L2 teacher training, language policy, and planning). What has changed is the recognition that linguistic foundations do not need to be narrowly prescribed in a theoretical fashion. Rather, they must be relevant to language description in specific contexts and provide resources that help address language-based problems and issues in real-world contexts.

In applied linguistics research, the focus on discourse analysis, descriptive data analysis, and interpretation of language data in their social/cultural settingsindicate a shift in valuing observable language data over theoretical assumptions about what should count as data. One of the most useful perspectives that have arisen out of this evolution of more relevant linguistics has been the development of register analysis, genre analysis, and the resource of corpus linguistics as they apply to a wide range of language learning and language use situations.

All of these approaches to linguistic analysis, along with more refined techniques for discourse analysis, are now hallmarks of much-applied linguistics research. In fact, many applied linguists have come to see the real-world, problem-based, socially responsive research carried out in applied linguistics as the genuine role for linguistics, with formal linguistics taking a supporting role. It is the applied linguist who works with language in the real world, who is most likely to have a realistic picture of what language is, and not the theoretical linguist who sifts through several layers of idealization.

2.6 Trends in Applied Linguistics in the Twenty-First Century

Various developments have emerged over the last 20 years. These will continue to define applied linguistics in the coming decades. Some ideas about the new trends may be gathered from the following signposts:

Emphasis Area 1:

Research in language teaching, language learning, and teacher education is now placing considerable emphasis on notions of language awareness, attention and learning, ‘focus on forms’ for language learning, learning from dialogic interactions, patterns of teacher-student interaction, task-based learning, content-based learning, and teacher as a researcher through action research.

- Research in language learning has shifted in recent years toward a focus on information processing. This has been due to the importance of more general cognitive learning principles, the emergence of language ability from extended meaningful exposures and relevant practice, and the awareness of how language is used and the functions that it serves.
- Instructional research and curricular issues have centered on task-based learning, content-based learning, strategies-based instruction, and a return to learning centered on specific language skills.
- Language teacher development has also moved in new directions. Widdowson has argued forcefully that certain communicative orientations, with a pervasive emphasis on natural language input and authenticity, may be misinterpreting the real purpose of the language classroom context and ignoring effective frameworks for language teaching. He has also persuasively argued that applied linguists must support teachers throughout their mediation with all aspects of Dell Hymes's notion of Communicative Competence, balancing language understanding so that it combines grammaticality, appropriateness, feasibility, and examples from the attested.
- A further emphasis on language teacher education has been the move to engaging teachers in the practice of action research. The trend to train teachers as reflective practitioners inquiring into the effectiveness of teaching and learning in local classroom settings will increase in the coming decade.

Emphasis Area 2:

Emphasis is noted in discussions among applied linguists themselves on the role of critical studies. This term covers critical awareness, critical discourse analysis, critical pedagogy, student rights, critical assessment practices, and ethics in language assessment and language teaching.

- There are a number of criticisms of this general approach and its impact on more mainstream applied linguistics that highlights weaknesses in much of the critical studies theorizing.
- At present, the notion of critical studies also constitutes an emphasis that has not demonstrated strong applications in support of those who are experiencing 'language problems' of various types. The coming decade will undoubtedly continue this debate.

Emphasis Area 3:

Emphasis is on language uses in academic, disciplinary, and professional settings.

- This research examines ways in which language is used by participants and in texts in various academic, professional, and occupational settings.
- It also emphasizes how language can act as a gate-keeping mechanism or can create unfair obstacles for those who are not aware of appropriate discourse rules and expectations.
- In academic settings, the key issue lies in understanding how genre and register expectations form the basis for successfully negotiating academic work.

Emphasis Area 4:

Emphasis centres on descriptive (usually discourse) analyses of language in real settings and the possible application of analyses in corpus linguistics, register variation, and genre variation.

- A breakthrough application of corpus linguistics remains the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (Biber*et al.* 1999). It is based entirely on attested occurrences of language use in a very large corpus of English. (BNC)
- The key of the book does not lie in the corpus data themselves but in the innovative analyses and displays that define the uniqueness of the grammar.
- Other important applications of corpus linguistics include more teacher- and learner-directed resources.

Emphasis Area 5:

Emphasis in applied linguistics research addresses multilingualism and bilingual interaction in school, community, and work and professional settings or policy issues at regional and national levels.

- Because the majority of people in the world are to some extent bilingual, and because this bilingualism is associated with the need to negotiate life situations with other cultural and language groups, this area of research is fundamental to applied linguistics concerns.

- Multilingualism covers issues in bilingual education, migrations of groups of people to new language settings, equity and fairness in social services, and language policies related to multiple language use or the restriction thereof.

Emphasis Area 6:

Emphasis is on the changing discussion in language testing and assessment.

- During the past decade, the field of language assessment has taken on a number of important issues and topics that have ramifications for applied linguists more generally.
- Validity remains a major theme for language testers, and it has been powerfully reinterpreted over the last 10 years.
- In its newer interpretation, validity has strong implications for all areas of applied linguistic research and data collection and is not merely an issue for assessment practices.
- An additional shift in language assessment with significant implications for applied linguistics more generally is the greater emphasis being given to *assessment for learning* (sometimes discussed as *formative assessment*).
- Goals for assessment have shifted from assessing what students can do at a given moment to using assessment as a way to improve learning effectiveness on an on-going basis. The goal is to see continuous learner assessment for learning purposes. This trend is likely to grow considerably in the coming decade.
- More generally, emphases on technology applications, ethics in assessment, innovative research methodologies, roles of standardized assessment, standards for professionalism, and critical language testing are all reshaping language assessment and applied linguistics.

Emphasis Area 7:

Emphasis is paid to the resources and perspectives provided by neurolinguistics and brain studies associated with language learning and language use.

- The potential and the benefits of research in neurolinguistics and the impact of language learning on brain processing is perhaps not an immediate concern of applied linguistics. However, significant advances in the relations between brain function in gand language learning suggest that research insights from neurolinguistics may soon become too important to ignore.

- The impact of literacy training, literacy learning in different languages, and training with language disability learners on brain processing have accelerated in recent years. A sure sign of this change is the extraordinarily accessible explanations relating neuroscience to reading ability and the inclusion of neuroscience and reading comprehension on comprehension instruction.
- This emphasis will probably become an important sub-area of applied linguistics within the decade.

2.7 Evolution of Concepts of Applied Linguistics

A realistic history of the field of applied linguistics would place its origins at around the year 1948 with the publication of the first issue of the journal *Language Learning: A Journal of Applied Linguistics. The journal* referred directly to the activities of Fries, Lado, and other members of staff of the Institute.Although there are certainly other possible starting points, particularly from a British perspective, this dating still accords roughly with most discussions of the beginning of applied linguistics.It is from these activities that we get a picture of applied linguistics as a field of activity. Charles Fries sees applied linguistics as a hierarchical model.

(a) A descriptive linguist produces descriptions of the source and the target languages. An applied linguist then takes over in a dual role. First, he has to select and grade the structures taken from the original description to suit the relevant pedagogical purposes and prepare a contrastive description of the source and target languages so that areas of potential difficulty may be pinpointed.

(b) An applied linguist writes teaching materials illustrating patterns of the new language and providing special practice on difficult points. Emphasis is thus paid on the content, derived from the descriptions of the languages, and the methodology is not influenced in any direct way. The description categories are taken over, but organizing principles of the materials are derived from outside linguistics: relevance and pedagogy.

What has been described so far may be referred to as the first or earliest phase of the development of applied linguistics where linguistics is seen to apply directly to second language teaching, mainly in providing its content.

The second phase of development is one exemplified mainly by Pit Corder, associated with the *Centre for Applied Linguistics* at the *University of Edinburgh*. He diverges from the first phase in two ways. First, he acknowledges that the relationship between linguistics and classroom activities is an indirect one; and that the application can take place at various levels. He demonstrates this by distinguishing between three orders of application of linguistics, contributing in three different ways to language pedagogy (see Fig. 1 below).

Application	**Theory**	**Process**		**Data**
First order	linguistic and sociolinguistic	Description	↘	Language utterance
			↘	
Second order	linguistic and sociolinguistic	comparison and selection	↘	description of languages
			↘	
Third-order	linguistic socio-linguistic and psycholinguistic	Organization and presentation	↘	content of syllabus
			↘	
				teaching materials

Fig. 1: Pit Corder's view of the application of linguistics

However, he accepts the basic view that applied linguistics involves an application of linguistics. He looks upon it as an activity and asserts categorically that it is not a theoretical study, but something which makes use of the findings of theoretical studies.

The second point of divergence from the earlier phase lies in the fact that Corder envisages disciplines other than linguistics contributing to applied linguistics. We can see this cleanly from Fig. 1. At the first level of application, the concepts of theoretical linguistics are used to analyze language data leading to the description of a second language. On this basis, the second order of application determines the section of items. Such selection is helped by contrastive analysis and error analysis and will yield an

inventory or list of items from which the linguistic content of the syllabus as well as the teaching materials can be determined at the third level of application.

Corder, in effect, maintains a paradoxical position. By denying any theoretical status to applied linguistics, he assigns a narrow definition to it. At the same time, he is unable to maintain the stance that linguistics contributes significantly to the principle of designing a teaching programme. Consequently, he attempts to broaden the base of applied linguistics by conceding that other disciplines also feed into it.

The third phase in the development of applied linguistics is characterized by an attempt to establish it as a field in its own right, a discipline with an independent body of knowledge, one with an evolving methodology of its own- a theory independent of other disciplines to the extent that any theoretical formulation can be independent of the total body of human knowledge.

2.8 Summing Up

In this unit, we have discussed the origin and growth of applied linguistics as a separate area of study. The study of the evolution of applied linguistics as an independent discipline has contributed to a large extent to form and develop theories and models of applied linguistics and to understand how other disciplines play crucial roles in language pedagogy. We hope this unit will help us make informed decisions relating to language pedagogy.

2.9 Review Questions

[1] Name two issues which were debated during the evolution and development of applied linguistics as a discipline.

[2] What are the major contributions of Charles Fries in the development of Applied Linguistics as a separate discipline?

[3] What is the contribution made by Robert Lado? Is it useful today?

[4] If you are translating a text from one language to another, which aspect of Applied Linguistics is helpful to you?

[5] What are different systems of grammar that were in vogue when Applied Linguistics was emerging?

[6] What departures did Chomsky make to the development applied linguistics? How effective are they

[7] How does the approach of applied linguistics in the 1960s differ from that of the 1980s?

[8] How can you define Pit Corder's model of applied linguistics?

[9] What are the major advantages of Pit Corder's model?

[10] Does Applied Linguistics help a classroom teacher in teaching and testing his students?

2.10 Glossary of Terms

Approximative System Hypothesis: According to William Nemser (1971) who introduced this hypothesis, the acquisition of a second language includes systematic stages with an approximative system at each stage. A second language learner in different stages goes through different interlanguage, with each stage approximating to the Target Language by Nemser, and emphasizes the continual development of language through systematic stages. What a learner learns may undergo modifications and may be restructured gradually. The main difference between interlanguage and Approximative system hypothesis lies in the fact that the former believes the learner's language is a phenomenon between the first and second languages (intermediate status), while the latter emphasizes the dynamic essence of the learner's language (transitional and developmental)

Content: It refers to the terms, topics, etc. listed for teaching in a course or syllabus.

Contrastive Linguistics: It is a systematic comparison of the similarities and differences of two languages in their sound system, vocabulary and grammatical systems, following the principles of linguistics.

Curriculum: It is a technical term, usually in contrast with the term 'syllabus'. A curriculum usually includes a statement of the objectives, content, methodology and the scheme of evaluation procedures of a course of study.

Interlanguage: It is a linguistic system used by second language learners. Learners create this language when they attempt to communicate in the target language. Interlanguage is affected by the learner's native language as they use their native language knowledge to understand and organize the second language or to compensate for existing competency gaps.

Language Pedagogy: Methods of teaching languages. It takes place as a general school subject, in a specialized language school, or out of school with a rich selection of proprietary methods online and in books, CDs, and DVDs. There are many methods of teaching languages. Some have fallen into relative obscurity and others are widely used; still, others have a small following but offer useful insights.

Lexicography: The art and craft of dictionary-making. It is divided into two important groups. Practical lexicography is the art or craft of compiling, writing, and editing dictionaries. Theoretical lexicography is the scholarly discipline of analyzing and describing the semantic, syntagmatic, and paradigmatic relationships within the lexicon (vocabulary) of a language, developing theories of dictionary components and structures linking the data in dictionaries, the needs for information by users in specific types of situations, and how users may best access the data incorporated in printed and electronic dictionaries.

Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL): It is a theory of language centeredaround the notion of language function. While SFL accounts for the syntactic structure of language, it places the function of language as central (what language does, and how it does it), in preference to more structural approaches, which place the elements of language and their combinations as central. SFL starts at the social context and looks at how language both acts upon, and is constrained by, this social context.

Tagmemics: A tagmeme is the smallest functional element in the grammatical structure of a language. The term was introduced in the 1930s by the linguist Leonard Bloomfield, who defined it as the smallest meaningful unit of the grammatical form (analogous to the morpheme, defined as the smallest meaningful unit of the lexical form). The term was later adopted, and its meaning broadened, by Kenneth Pike and others beginning in the 1950s, as the basis for their tagmemics.

Translation: It is the communication of the meaning of a source language text by means of an equivalent target language text. The English language draws a terminological distinction between translating and interpreting; under this distinction, translation can begin only after the appearance of writing within a language community.

2.11 Books Recommended

[1] Biber, D., S. Johansson, G. Leech, S. Conrad, and E. Finegan (1999) *The Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. London: Longman.

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[18] Ortega, L. (2009) *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. London: Hodder Education.

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[20] Robinson, P. and N.C. Ellis (Eds.) (2008) *Handbook of Cognitive Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition*. New York: Routledge.

[21] Samuda, V. and M. Bygate (2008) *Tasks in Second Language Learning*. London: Palgrave.

[22] Seidlhofer, B. (Ed.). (2003) *Controversies in Applied Linguistics.* New York: Oxford University Press.

[23] VanPatten, B. and J. Williams (Eds.) (2007) *Theories of Second Language Acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

[24] Widdowson, H.G. (1979/1984) *Explorations in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Unit 3 ❑ Factors Affecting Applied Linguistics 1 (Psychology)

Structure

3.1 Objectives

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to:

a. identify factors that affect learning.

b. classify these factors according to their nature

c. realise the importance of psychological in learning language.

3.2 Introduction

Psychological factors play an important role in a learner's success or failure in acquiring and using a second language. A learner is one who is able to deal with learning situation employing his personal style because of the character traits he possesses. Individual and psychological factors affect the way we acquire a second language and the way we communicate with people. The purpose of this unit is to gather a deeper knowledge and understanding of specific psychological and personal factors affecting second language acquisition and the ability to manage them in order to be effective in our daily communication and interactions.

In this Unit, we describe the psychological factors in a human being who learns a second language. There are two types of factors that can affect second language learning: (a) External factors, and (b) Internal factors. It is found that external factors (e.g., *characteristic of a teacher, quality of teaching materials, physical or technical facilities, classroom, and school condition,* etc.) have consistently no relation with the success of learning a foreign language.

On the other hand, internal factors have a powerful impact on the overall learning effort and progress of a student. The student's psychological conditionsform a part of the internal factors, and influence foreign or second language acquisition. The psychological factor is a factor that is mentally or spiritually concerned with the aspects of students' acquisition. At least, there are four factors (e.g., *anxiety, attitude, aptitude, and motivation*) that influence the students' effort in second language acquisition. However, to cope with the psychological problems of learning a second language, scholars suggest a few strategies for managing language learning anxieties. Among them are preparation strategy, relaxation, positive thinking, peer-support, and labelled resignation are of high importance. Therefore, in maximizing the result of second language acquisition, these five strategies are considered important as an alternative solution.

3.3 Nine Factors that Influence Language Learning

Watching a student learn a second language is a lot like seeing them swim for the first time. Some students dive right in and are soon paddling around the deep end. Others take their time, dipping a toe in the water and gradually venturing out from the shore. It is common to believe that a student's skill in learning a second language comes naturally. This is not true. Some students pick up language skills faster than others. But

that does not mean that the ability to learn a new language is an attribute possessed by only a lucky few. When students start learning an additional language, some do soak up the knowledge faster than others. Yet it is not just the natural ability at work. We find that many internal and external factors influence how fast students pick up a new or second language. Nine factors that influence the process of language learning are summarized below.

[1] **Motivation:** When students realise the importance of understanding a language and can see how it directly affects their life, they learn it faster. We have found that a contextual, theme-based curriculum can help get students more excited to dive into language learning. When they are interested in learning a new language and they see meaningful connections to their lives, they begin to take risks to produce language, which helps them to acquire it, faster.

[2] **Support at Home:** It is found that exposure is an important factor in language comprehension and acquisition. If a student's family only speaks one language, they are not able to provide help when the students need it. It also matters how much value parents place on learning an additional language. Parents who prioritize language learning are more likely to push their children to keep trying even when it feels difficult.

[3] **Prior Linguistic Knowledge:** Once students have studied and acquired a language, their skill at learning another will increase. Language learners can transfer skills from one language to another because they can recognize the rules and patterns of language, even if the vocabulary is different.

[4] **Learning Environment:** Another key factor is how comfortable students feel in their language learning environment. Does their classroom feel cold and tense, or positive and relaxing? What arethe school's culture and beliefs about language learning? It is found that students' learning environment has an impact on their motivation—a low anxiety language learning environment increases the chance for acquisition.

[5] **Teaching Strategies:** The strategies a language teacher uses have a major impact on language learning. How does the teacher help students understand the concepts of a language? How does the teacher take different learning styles into account, as well as different levels of comprehension? For example, watching a film in the target language and writing and performing skits in the

target language reach multiple learning styles. Offering an immersion experience helps students connect language learning to their everyday lives, but rote vocabulary memorization and grammar drills create 'meaningless' language lessons.

[6] **Comprehensible Input:** How attainable does the language feel to the student? Linguist Stephen Krashen developed the 'input hypothesis' of second-language acquisition. In this context, the titular 'input' is the language curriculum. Krashen argues that teaching at just any level of difficulty is not sufficient: the input received by a student must be comprehensible. In other words, the curriculum must reach students at their current level and challenge them with activities and just one level beyond their current stage. If the students feel the material is out of reach, they tend to 'shut down' and have trouble engaging with the lesson. To make sure that students feel motivated to learn, it is important to ensure that they feel like they can progress to the next level of learning.

[7] **Student Personality:** Is the student an introvert or an extrovert? Students' personalities can affect how they learn a second language. Introvert students have been shown to take longer to acquire a language because they are more hesitant to make mistakes. Extrovert students, on the other hand, are more likely to go out on a limb and try out their newly learned vocabulary. To ensure that both personality types succeed, it is important to create an environment where students understand that mistakes are part of the learning process and it is more important to speak than to be perfect.

[8] **Student's Age:** How old are students when they start learning a foreign language? While students of all ages can learn a foreign language, there is a consensus that certain aspects are affected by the age of the learner. It becomes harder for students to have native pronunciation past their teen years. Some students also find that it is more difficult to fully acquire a foreign language as they get older, but this is not true of everyone.

[9] **Comfort in their Country of Residence:** How happy are students in the country where they are studying a language? A final factor in language learning is the learner's comfort in the current country of residence. Most children move to a new country because of a parent's job, not by choice. As a result, their motivation to learn a new language can depend on whether they are happy to be in a new place or if they have come kicking and screaming. Luckily, even

if a learner is unhappy at first, their attitude can shift if they feel welcomed by their teachers and supported by their parents.

TASK: Now that you are familiar with some of the factors that influence second language learning, could you recall your language learning experience (learning English) and state how many of these factors you had in your favour?

Your response:

3.4 Factor Types in Second Language Learning

We will quickly revise what we have said so far before moving forward. Second Language learning ultimately occurs in the mind of a learner, in other words, it is a cognitive affair. The mental structure or the mechanisms help organize the components of the language to which the learner is exposed. Looking at the phenomena of the teaching and learning process in general, the problem which is commonly faced by the students is not only in terms of linguistic problems, but it is also concerned with non-linguistic problems, which are mostly psychological. Besides, many factors influence the success of learning, especially learning English as a foreign language. It is observed that these factors can be classified into two groups, namely, Internal and External factors. The internal factor commonly involves the internal aspects of the learners such as physical condition, psychology or mental orientation, and anxiety, while external factors may cover any aspects out of the learners' point of view, such as environment, school, family, etc.

Some recent studies in second language acquisition suggest positive views towards the importance of exposure to linguistic input in promoting acquisition. It implies that teachers are required to use the target language and provide input as much as possible since the learners are at the initial stages. In practice, however, to use the target language in the classroom process teachers are not free from the dilemma, particularly when they are to teach beginners who still have low language proficiency. The dilemma is that on the one hand teachers are required to use the target language, while on the other hand, the learners still have inadequate language proficiency. Therefore, teachers are required to modify their language in such a way to be approximate with the level of the learner's proficiency. What characteristics do the teacher's language consist of when they are in such a dilemma? That question has been one of the crucial issues in second language learning.

Researchers found that external factors such as the behaviour of the teacher, classroom facilities, and school condition, teaching materials had consistently no relation

with the success of learning a foreign language. On the other hand, student's psychological conditions, as one of the internal factors, were the potential to influence foreign or second language acquisition. It is stated that the most important factor that influences the result of the study is the students' characteristics themselves. Scholars agree that affective variables such as attitude and motivation play a strong role in determining students' linguistic performance in class. Moreover, it is noted that the affective side of the learner is probably one of the most important influences on language learning success or failure. The affective factors which are dominantly related to a second language or foreign language learning are anxiety, attitude, aptitude, and motivation. In this Unit, our discussions are focused on how psychological problems such as anxiety, attitude, aptitude, and motivation influence the students in learning English as a foreign language.

3.5 Students' Psychological Factors in SLA

The psychological factor is a factor that is mentally or spiritually concerned with the aspects of students' language acquisition processes. It, at least, involves four factors, such as **anxiety, attitude, aptitude, and motivation** since they have been proved through some research findings.

3.5.1 Anxiety

Language anxiety is conceptualized as a situation-specific personality trait having two psychological components: emotional arousal and negative self-related cognition. It is noted that these components ostensibly interfere with the behaviour of students instrumental to language learning, and are more intense in people who possess high levels of language anxiety. Scholars state that second or foreign language learning is a complex task that is susceptible to human anxiety, which is associated with feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, and apprehension.

In addition, it is also found that the anxiety is provoked in the students while speaking English affected by their mother tongue. This happens especially when they speak the target language in public, in the presence of native speakers. Sometimes extreme anxiety occurs when English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners become tongue-tied or lost for words in a situation, which often leads to discouragement and a general sense of failure. Studies show that adults, unlike children, are concerned with how they are judged by others. They are very cautious about making errors in what they say, for making errors would be a public display of ignorance that would be an obvious occasion of 'losing face' in some cultures such as in India, China, and in other oriental countries.

Clearly, the sensitivity of adult learners in making mistakes has been the explanation for their inability to speak English without hesitation.

Certain personality patterns will cause students to react negatively to verbal instructions and commands. For example, students with high anxiety levels do not respond to motivational instructions such as "it is important that you do well," and "this will count double on your grade," etc. as well as people with lower anxiety levels. Most personalities respond more positively to praise than to punishment and blame. Thus, avoid saying "why can't you learn this? It is so simple. My other classes didn't have any trouble with it at all. Tomorrow you take the test whether you know it or not," otherwise the students will get frustrated.

3.5.2 Aptitude

Aptitude is defined as the desire or orientation to learn asseen in someone. It is stated that 'aptitude is consistently the best predictor of language learning success'. The existence of aptitude in foreign or second language learning is very influential. There is evidence in the research literature that some individuals have an exceptional 'aptitude' for language learning. A study shows that an American student who took a major in French, German, Russian, and Spanish shows that language aptitude is significantly associated with success in foreign language study. It is reported that a man, who is a native speaker of English and grew up in an English home, had his first true experience with a second language at the age of 15 with formal instruction in French. He also studied German, Spanish, and Latin while he was in high school. At age 20, he made a brief visit to Germany. It is reported that just listening to German spoken for a short time was enough for him to recall the German he had learnt in school. Later, the person worked in Morocco where he learned Moroccan Arabic through both formal instruction and informal immersion. He also spent some time in Spain and Italy, where he apparently 'picked up' both Spanish and Italian in a matter of weeks. There may be few learners like him, but many research works show that human beings exhibit a wide range of aptitude for learning a second language.

The work on developing Foreign Language Aptitude Tests has provided extensive evidence that there is a special factor or an aptitude for learning a foreign language. Studies have identified four factors that serve as components of an aptitude for foreign languages as follows:

[1] **Phonetic decoding.** This is an ability to discriminate among foreign sounds and to encode them in a manner such that they can be recalled later. This

would certainly seem to be a skill involved in successful second language learning.

[2] **Grammatical sensitivity.** This is the ability to recognize the function that words fulfil in sentences. It does not measure the ability to name or describe the function, but rather the ability to discern whether or not words in different sentences perform the same function. It appears logical that skills in being able to do this help in learning another language.

[3] **Inductive language-learning ability.** This is the ability to infer, induce, or abduct rules or generalizations about language from the sample of the language. A learner proficient in this ability is less reliant on well-presented rules or generalizations from a teacher or materials.

[4] **Memory and Learning.** Originally this was phrased in terms of association: the ability to make and recall associations between words and phrases in a native language and a second language. It is not so clear whether this type of association plays a major role in language learning, but the memory for language materials is clearly important.

It has been claimed that two of these factors (i.e., *phonetic decoding and memory and learning*), do not correlate highly with intelligence. Foreign-language learners may be better endowed in one or two of the factors. Certainly, the variance in aptitude that exists among foreign-language learners is as great as that of shoe size. In other words, every foreign language learner differs in degrees of aptitude one has. It varies from one to another.

3.5.3 Attitude

Attitude is defined as a manner of acting, feeling, or thinking that shows one's disposition, opinion, etc. An attitude develops as a result of experiences, both direct and vicarious, which are greatly influenced by people in the immediate environment: parents, teachers, peers; attitude toward self, in the target language and the people who speak it (peers in particular), and the teacher. It has been assumed that if we have a positive attitude toward the language learned, we will try hard to learn that language seriously.

Some studies show that there is a positive relationship between attitude and second language acquisition. It is found that the learner's ethnocentric tendencies and his attitude

toward the target language determine the success in learning a new language.In1949, a pioneering study was done on the topic of 'attitude toward learning a second language' and a year later, findings clearly showed many positive correlations between measures of attitude and attainment as a second language. One of the conclusions of this study was that the strength of the correlation between attitude and attainment tended to increase.

Student's attitude toward the language he learns may vary. He may feel excited, happy, confident, and adequate, or he may feel bored, frustrated, angry, and inadequate. For example, when he becomes confused in a pattern drill, he may feel frustrated. After having repeated the same sentence a number of times, he may feel bored. While composing a conversation with a fellow student, he may feel excited and elated. Having been handed back a test he failed, he may feel angry and inadequate. Those conditions may influence a student to decide whether he participates actively in the class or not; he does his homework or not; he continues his foreign language study or drops it.

An English teacher should have a big concern on the unfavourable students' attitudes by finding the causes and the possible solutions. Smith (1975) classifies some unfavourable students' attitude on foreign language learning as Dumbbell attitude, Irrelevant attitude, and Bored attitude.

(a) The Dumbbell Attitude

Probably one of the most prevalent negative aptitudes is what Smith calls the 'Dumbbell attitude'. The students meet with nothing but failure. He sees himself as a 'dumbbell' which may be something totally new for him, and certainly totally disagreeable. Studies on under-achievement in foreign language indicates that nearly 20 percent of FL students can be placed in this category, that is, the grade they get in a foreign language is at one letter-grade lower than what they ordinarily get in other subjects. No one's ego can endure consistent failure. The student will naturally react negatively to the cause of his feelings of stupidity and inadequacy. He will dislike foreign languages.

(b) The Irrelevant Attitude

Another kind of attitude is what Smith calls 'Irrelevant attitude'. The students with this attitude may have enrolled in a foreign language class for strictly utilitarian reasons: it meets the requirement, it brings him prestige or recognition in the community or among his friends, and it has certain vocational applications. Since he has little or no interest in

the study of language, he may become impatient with the slow process of language acquisition and feel that the meagre returns he is getting for all the effort expended are not meeting his expectations. He does not see the connection between what goes on in the foreign language class and the practical demands of his existence now or later.

(c) The Bored Attitude

There is the uninterested, bored attitude that students with this attitude find it difficult to tolerate the routine that often settles in the classroom. When we ask any youngster what he learned in school today, the response given may be "oh, the same old stuff" – in spite of the fact that it probably was not the same old stuff. It was just presented in the same way. Routine is expedient and often necessary for the overworked teacher who has neither time nor energy to innovate and to be creative.

3.5.4 Motivation

The socio-psychological factor that is frequently used to account for differential success in learning a second language is motivation. This has an intuitive appeal. It makes sense that individuals who are motivated will learn another language faster and to a greater degree. Furthermore, numerous studies have provided statistical evidence that indicates that motivation is a predictor of language-learning success. In some studies at the University of Western Ontario, USA, it was observed that motivation is a primary figure in the field of second language learning. "Motivation involves four aspects, a goal, effortful behaviour, a desire to attain the goal, and favourable attitude towards the activity in question" (Gardner, 1985). He differentiates between two types of motivation: integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivation refers to motivation that comes from a desire to integrate with the target language (TL) community; instrumental motivation comes from the rewards that might come from the learning (e.g. learning English in order to study mathematics in an English-speaking university). Integrative motivation is hypothesized to be a better predictor of a second language success than instrumental motivation.

Meanwhile, scholars divide motivation into (a) primary motivation, and (b) secondary motivation. Primary motivation lies in the interest that comes from the learner himself, and not from outside the learner. To get this type of response from learners should be a must for all teachers. If the teacher can make the learners feel that they want to learn, that they are interested, the subject they are studying is exciting. Secondary motivation, on the other hand, refers to the feeling of the learners that they must learn in order to pass a test, to avoid punishment, or to please their parents or their teachers.

Fostering student's motivation to attain a foreign language achievement is very important. Scholars advise teachers for fostering motivation as follows:

(a) **Freedom from fear:** Learners should not be embarrassed if they have not done their assignment, if they make an error in production, or if they cannot respond immediately.

(b) **Understanding:** Teachers must consider the socio-economic, cultural, and emotional background of the learners in order to help them maintain their pride in themselves.

(c) **Experiences:** Learners must engage in a wide variety of activities in order to fulfill their need for thinking, learning, doing, or choosing.

(d) **Love:** A teacher often has to take the role of substitute parents and be aware of the hunger for the affection of the learner who, rightly or wrongly, feels rejected by family or peers.

(e) **Belonging:** Learners should participate in the class 'community' in all facets of planning and decision making during the learning process.

(f) **Achievement and Actualization:** Learners should be helped to perfect today what they might have been able to do only haltingly yesterday. They should receive continuous feedback about their own aspirations and ideas.

(g) **Grouping and Individualization:** A teacher should be aware of the level at which each student is capable of operating at any moment in time, of his or her optimal way of learning, of the time he or she needs to learn and should gear classroom group and individual activities to take all these factors into account.

(h) **Success:** Learners should experience numerous small intermediate successes and attain short term goals which will then motivate him or her to continue working toward individual, school, community, or nation-wide goals (depending on his or her age level and learning).

To a large extent, motivation demands a well-balanced combination of the teachers' art and skills. It is not enough for the teacher to make use of psychological principles of whether schools to motivate learners. The teacher can also foster motivation through his or her own sense of security resulting from adequate linguistic and methodological preparation.

TASK: You have looked at four factors: Anxiety, Aptitude, Attitude and Motivation. Analyse yourself with respect to your language learning situation, and say how you were influenced by these factors.

Your response:

3.6 Types of Motivation

As a whole, motivation in second language acquisition may be thought of as the incentive, the need, or the desire that the learner feels to learn the second language. With regard to motivation, like all types of learning, motivation to learn a language is undoubtedly important in the success or lack of success in learning. According to scholars,there are three kinds of motivations that affect language acquisition: integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, and social group identification.

(a) **Integrative motivation:** It is defined as the desire to achieve proficiency in a new language in order to participate in the life of the community that speakers the language. It reflects a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group. The problem that occurs, in this case, is that if the learner feels that he is able to communicate with the intended society, usually he will stop to learn the language although the acquisition is considered low and not enough for a standard of acquisition.

(b) **Instrumental motivation:** It is defined as a desire to achieve proficiency in a new language for utilitarian reasons, such as getting a job. It reflects the practical values and advantages of learning a new language group. It is stated that attitude and motivation are related to achievement in second language learning and that integrative motivation orientation, in particular, makes more successful learning than the motivation of instrumental orientation. Students whose motivation to study a language as an instrument to get something, those who are categorized as having instrumental motivation, tend to have lower achievement than students whose integrative motivation.

(c) **Social group identification:** It is defined as the desire to acquire proficiency in a language or language variety spoken by a social group with which the learners identify. Conversely, the lack of identification with a given group may result in a learner not wanting to acquire the language or language variety spoken by that group. It is stated that the social group identification motive is similar to the integrative motive, but in our interpretation, goes beyond it.

Learners with an integrative motive for learning a new language would wish to participate in the social or cultural life of the target language speakers while retaining their identification with their own native language group.

3.7. Approaches to Help Students to Cope

It is argued that when students are confronted with a situation that they think will make them anxious, the most expected response is to avoid the situation and thus avoid the discomfort. However, in most language acquisition, avoidance is not a viable option; they are expected to find some way to cope with the anxiety. Three intervention approaches provide the basis for considering the types of strategies that the students use to cope with their language anxiety. If they think that their cognition (worry, preoccupations, and concerns) creates the anxiety, they may attempt to suppress or alter the thought processes related to language learning. Those who believe that emotional arousal (physiological responsiveness) is the primary concern may take steps to alleviate bodily reactions and tension. If students presume that anxiety occurs because they lack the requisite skills, they perceive that their anxiety is too much to cope with; they may not invest enough effort to reduce the anxiety.

Scholars suggest further that there are five strategies for coping with language anxiety, among of them are preparation strategy, relaxation, positive thinking, peer support, and labelled resignation.

(a) **Preparation**. It refers to attempts at controlling the impending threat by improving learning and study strategies (e.g., *studying hard, trying to obtain good summaries of lecture notes*). Use of these strategies would be expected to increase students' subjectively estimated mastery of the subject matter, and hence reduce the anxiety associated with the language class.

(b) **Relaxation**. It involves tactics that aim at reducing the somatic anxiety symptoms of the students. Typical terms are "I take a deep breath and I try to calm down".

(c) **Positive thinking**. It is characterized by it its palliative function of suppressing problematic cognitive process that underlies students' anxiety (e.g. *imagining oneself giving a great performance, trying to enjoy the tension*). These strategies are intended to divert attention from the stressful to positive and pleasant cues and bring relief to the anxious student.

(d) **Peer support**. It is distinguished by students' willingness to look for other students who seem to have trouble understanding the class and/or controlling their anxiety. For the anxious students, the realization that others are having the same problem may serve as a source of emotional regulation by social comparison.

(e) **Labelled resignation**. It is characterized by students' reluctance to do anything to alleviate their language anxiety (e.g. *giving up, sleeping in class).*Students reporting examples of resignation seem on minimizing the impact of anxiety by refusing to face the problem.

3.8 Summary

The description of student's psychological factors, such as anxiety, aptitude, attitude, and motivation contribute to the success in learning English as a second language. Those factors have significant evidence proved by some research findings mentioned earlier. In addition, three kinds of motivations also affect language acquisition: integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, and social group identification.

Five strategies are significantly considered for coping with language anxiety; among them are preparation strategy, relaxation, positive thinking, peer support, and labelled resignation. Preparation, refers to attempts at controlling the impending threat by improving learning and study strategies, relaxation, involves tactics that aim at reducing somatic anxiety symptoms, positive thinking, is characterized by it its palliative function of suppressing problematic cognitive process that underlies students' anxiety, peer seeking, is distinguished by students' willingness to look for other students who seem to have trouble understanding the class and/or controlling their anxiety, and students' reluctance to do anything to alleviate their language anxiety.

Finally, to maximize the result of second language acquisition, the five strategies illustrated above are important as an alternative solution for foreign language teachers. And, the second language teachers must have a great concern for the student's psychological factors during the process of language acquisition.

3.9 Review Questions

(a) What are the two types of factors that can affect second language learning?

(b) What are the nine factors that Influence Language Learning?

(c) What do you understand by Prior Linguistic Knowledge in Second Language Learning?

(d) What is the 'input hypothesis' of second-language acquisition?

(e) What are the students' Psychological Factors in SLA?

(f) What are the four factors in Foreign Language Aptitude Test?

(g) What are the three major types of Attitude of learners in SLA?

(h) What are the major means of motivation in SLA?

(i) What are the major types of motivations?

(j) What strategies are adopted to help learners in SLA?

3.10 Glossary of Terms

Disposition:

Disposition is a quality of character, a habit, a preparation, a state of readiness, or a tendency to act in a specified way that may be learned. Disposition is not a process or event in some duration in time, but rather the state, preparation, or tendency of a structure 'in waiting'.

Foreign language anxiety:

It is also known as Xenoglossophobia. It is the feeling of unease, worry, nervousness, and apprehension experienced in learning or using a second or foreign language. The feelings may stem from any second language context whether it is associated with the productive skills of speaking and writing or the receptive skills of reading and listening. Research has shown that foreign language anxiety is a significant problem in language classrooms throughout the world especially in terms of its strong relationship to the skill of speaking in a foreign or second language.

Inductive language learning:

An inductive approach to teaching language starts with examples and asks learners to find rules. It can be compared with a deductive approach that starts by giving learners rules, then examples, then practice. Learners listen to a conversation that includes examples of the use of the third conditional. The teacher checks that the students understand the meaning of its use through checking learners' comprehension of the

listening text, and only after this focuses on the form, using the examples from the text to elicit rules about the form, its use, and its pronunciation. Inductive approaches to presenting a new language are commonly found in course books and form part of a general strategy to engage learners in what they learn. Some learners may need an introduction to inductive approaches since they may be more familiar, and feel more comfortable, with a deductive approach.

Parental interference in learning:

Parents' involvement in children's education has several forms. Parents who are behaviourally involved participate in activities such as attending school functions and volunteering at the school. Parents who are cognitively involved expose their children to stimulating activities and materials, such as reading books or visiting cultural institutions. Parents who are personally involved communicate positively with their children about school matters. They convey that they value school and expect their children to as well. Many studies report on the effects of parent involvement on children's standardized achievement test scores, school grades, and school-based behaviour. As a whole, research suggests parents can have a positive effect on children's learning.

Phonetic decoding:

Also known as 'Phonics'. It is a method for teaching people how to read and write an alphabetic language (such as English, Arabic, and Russian). It is done by demonstratingthe relationship between the sounds of the spoken language (phonemes), and the letters or groups of letters (graphemes) or syllables of the written language. This is also known as the Alphabetic principle or the Alphabetic code.

3.11 Books Recommended

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[6] Kondo, D. (2004) *Strategies for Coping with Language Anxiety: The Case of Students of English in Japan.* ELT Journal. Vol. 58, No. 3, July.

[7] Krashen, S. (1996) *Under attack: The case against bilingual education.* Culver City: Language Education Associates.

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Unit 4 ❑ Factors Affecting Applied Linguistics 2 (Education Sociology),

Structure

4.1 Objectives

After going through the unit, you will be able to

- trace the changes in the view of relationship between theory and practice in Applied Linguistics
- explain the reason for the changes
- discuss the implications for language teaching

4.2 Introduction

It has been an intriguing area of study to explore the relationships between Applied Linguistics and other related disciplines concerning language use and language teaching

issues. Scholars trace the changes in the view of the relationship between theory and practice in Applied Linguistics, to explain the reason for those changes, and to discuss the implications for language teaching. Some general assumptions that serve as a context for this interface are also explored over the years. Such studies show possible forms of interaction between basic and applied science (linguistics in this case) and practical activities as well as present some implications to teacher education and the way these visions have permeated language education and foreign language teaching practices.

No matter how theorists differ regarding the scope and coverage of Applied Linguistics, it is noted as a way of relating basic disciplines with practical language use concerns. Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) is considered one of its typical domains. McCarthy (2001), in the foreword of his book, defined applied linguistics as the "relationship between knowledge, theory, and practice in the field of language". But a question that arises is "what kind of relationships we are dealing with?"

(a) For a long time, teachers, as well as other professionals, have turned to language science, psychology, sociology, and education theories to seek insight for possible solutions to some language teaching and learning problems.

(b) Among other tendencies in education, in general, and in language pedagogy in particular, critical approaches have been attempting to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

(c) One of the great new challenges for teachers, researchers, and theorists in the language field is not only to discover other ways of creating interaction between knowledge and practice but most important, how they can transform each other.

In this Unit, we shall present a set of general assumptions that will serve as a context and reference point for the dialogue for which we want to establish a critical approach. Second, we shall show four forms of interaction between basic, applied, and practice. Third, we shall present some implications for teacher education and the way these visions have permeated language education and foreign language teaching practices.

4.3 Toward A Critical Approach: Some Assumptions

For reasons of constraints of space we cannot explain in detail, what critical approaches are, where they come from, the way they have evolved, their tendencies

and strands, and how exactly they differ from traditional approaches. It is important, however, to state a set of basic ontological and epistemological assumptions because this set constitutes an essential requirement and a framework for our understanding.

According to Pennycook (2001: 5-8), there are different ways of being critical. From his perspective, being critical implies a set of characteristics: praxis, as a way of continuous reflexive integration of thought and action; a problematic stance, drawing connections between the macro and micro relations, seeing them as a problematic matter, understanding their historic evolution; looking for a possible change; self-reflexivity ("raising a host of new and difficult questions about knowledge, politics, and ethics" offering a vision of "what is preferable, and 'heterosis' or new and different ways of doing politics.

In our opinion, whatever the meaning of 'critical' could be, it would not be reduced to academic traditions and schools of thought. 'Critical' does not mean a simple theoretical stance or, even less so, a simple intellectual posture. Critical would mean true commitments and personal involvement with transformations. We would add that besides true commitments, personal involvements, wisdom, understanding, action, and reflection are requisites *sine qua non* (an essential condition; a thing that is absolutely necessary) for a real transformation.

As in the 19th century, Karl Marx stated that the aim of philosophers must be the transformation of the world and not a simple understanding of it. Wisdom is a mix of human instinct, intuition, common sense, inquisitive thought, knowledge, and imagination. Knowledge and reality (natural and social and human) do not map each other, in a one-to-one correspondence. Social and human phenomena, as well as natural ones, are systems or complex structures (made of different things or parts that are connected). Given their complex nature, social, natural, and human realities can, and should, be seen from different and complementary perspectives. No one perspective, discipline, model, theory, or approach is able to account for social reality as a whole. Social and human realities cannot be reduced to either general or particular principles.

This does not mean that social and human systems lack principles. The uniqueness of social systems and human beings would consist of a perfect combination, a synthesis, of general and particular characteristics. Hence, human beings can understand part of our difficulties, as social actors, to grasp them. Descriptions, explanations, comprehension, and understanding of phenomena are attempts to approximate reality. They all are partial and incomplete products of human knowledge seen from our experiences in our context and our position in the world. Human knowledge is a dialectical process that involves a certain level of abstraction, much intuition, creativity, and imagination, as well as logical

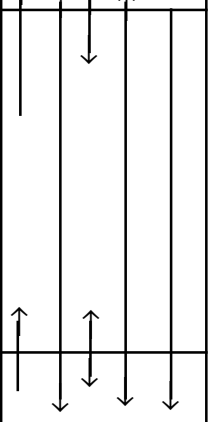
inference (induction, deduction) and a permanent contrast with reality. It is neither a mechanical reflection of the natural, social, and human world nor is it a linear process.

A holistic view of social and human reality is a process in permanent construction, a double way spiral. Each process and its corresponding product are a means and not an end in itself. They complement each other heuristically: analysis and synthesis processes; bottom-up, top-down, micro and macro, general and particular perspectives; simple and complex; inner and outer; patent and latent realities. Therefore, a holistic view is a permanent task and a challenge for all involved in research, theory, and practice. And a very definite characteristic of human knowledge is that it is socially constructed and that all people involved can contribute to it with their viewpoint from their own experience. It means that everybody has a role and a differentiated responsibility in the construction of a holistic view of the world. And all knowledge, even the most sophisticated, is subject to questioning and critics. It is in this frame that a fruitful dialogue could be established between theorists, practitioners, and applied linguists in language education.

4.4 Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching: Kinds of Relationships

Different terms have been used to refer to the idea of being 'applied' as well as different perspectives regarding its relationship to theory and practice. Stern (1992: 8) uses the terms 'buffer', 'intermediary', and 'interlevel' to refer to the role of applied linguistics. McDonough (2002: 17) uses the terms 'middle ground' and 'mediating position' and 'mediator'. On one hand, we may question whether it is just a semantic distinction, or whether it reflects any kind of ontological or epistemological assumption or stance. On the other hand, we wonder about the meaning of each of these words and their connotations. Does the meaning of the terms have any incidence in the way of seeing theory and research interaction and the role given to each other in the interaction? McCarthy (2001: 4) wonders about the kind of relationships between linguistics and applied linguistics. He establishes a dichotomy between hierarchy and partnership. McDonough (2002: 23) explores the relationship between theory and practice and points out that such relationships have "worried many workers in all areas of research, scholarship, teaching, and testing". We see four different kinds of relationships between applied linguistics and the teaching profession: (a) co-existence, (b) complementariness, (c) compatibility, and (d) collaboration.

Table 1: Aspects, models, actors/roles, relationships in applied linguistics to language teaching

Aspects	Stern's model	Campbell's model 1	Social Actors/ Roles	Relationships
Practice Practical activities (P) **Level 3**	Methodology Objectives Content Procedures Materials Evaluation Organization Planning and administration….	Pedagogy	Teachers Students Research teachers Practitioner	
Interlevel Applied sciences (A) **Level 2**	Context Language Teaching Learning Educational linguistics theory and research	Applied Linguistics	Applied linguists And Researchers Mediator	
Foundations Basic sciences (B) **Level 1**	History of language teaching Linguistics Sociology …	Linguistics And (???) Theoretician		

In order to trace the way in which the relationships between theory and practice have been considered in applied linguistics, let us refer to Table 1. It is based on the general model that Stern (1983: 44) presents as a conceptual framework for second language teaching. There, it is possible to identify three aspects (theory, application, and practice), social actors and their 'roles', i.e. theorists (theoreticians), applied linguists (mediators), and teachers (practitioners). We can separate the right column to show a set of possible relationships, represented by arrows. (B), (A), and (P) stand for BASIC, APPLIED, and PRACTICE, respectively. According to our guiding framework, the use

of the 'basic' instead of 'theory' will allow us to think of the possibility that theory, as one way of knowledge, can be generated at each level and to question some assumptions, which would be an exclusive responsibility of theoreticians. Stern (1992: 8) has traced various stages in the history of language teaching and the different factors that have influenced its development.

4.4.1 First Phase

The first stage in the relationship between theory and practice can be subdivided into three different periods. In the first period, language teaching was directly influenced by phonetics (from 1880 until World War I). A second period (1928-1940) relates to the growth of educational psychology and research in education (Stern, 1992: 8). A third period (1940-1965) is "characterized by the increasing influence of linguistics on language teaching." What do these three moments have in common? They are characterized by a unidirectional and hierarchical relationship and a lack of mediation. We can represent this relationship as (B) → (P). The problems arise at the practice level. But it is on the basic level where the questions are posed, and the solutions are given in terms of techniques and methods to be followed by practitioners. We can see the lack of an 'interlevel' in the following quote by Stern (1992: 8):

> "Just as there was a constant shift from one teaching method to another, the language-related sciences seemed to necessitate periodic changes from one underlying discipline to another or from one theory to a newer and better theory. It was in response to this concern that educational or applied linguistics evolved in the early 1960s as a buffer between linguistics and language teaching".

4.4.2 Second Phase

A second phase is characterized by a monodisciplinary, unidirectional, and hierarchical relationship, which has its starting point on the basic disciplinary or fundamental level; there, theorists developed theoretical knowledge. This knowledge constitutes the basis on the intermediate level where applied scientists mediate it in designing methods, techniques, and materials. These materials, along with directions, are given for implementation on the practice level. It could be considered as a way of preventing problems when theoretical principles go straight from the basic level to the practitioners without any filter, and with disappointing results. Practitioners are trained and they put models and approaches into practice. It seems to have been the mainstream vision in the case of applied linguistics for a long time. The first model proposed by the U.S.

linguist Campbell in 1980, by Stern (1983: 36) is a sample of that stage. The view of Campbell (1980), according to Stern (1983: 36), is that the mediator between the practitioner and the theorist has applied linguistics. Summing up we can represent it as follows:

$$(B) \rightarrow (A) \rightarrow (P).$$

This unidirectional and hierarchical vision between applied linguists, linguists, and language teachers could be traced in Corder's thought (1973). According to Byram (2000: 33), Corder's view is explicitly set out in his book, *Introducing Applied Linguistics*, a classic text. In this school of thought, a division of work is made and even the applied linguist is considered a consumer or user, and not a producer of theory. Corder believed that there was a clear hierarchy of responsibility between three groups of people.

(a) Linguists produced descriptions of languages.

(b) The immediate consumer of these descriptions was the applied linguist, whose job was to mediate the work of the linguist, by producing pedagogical grammars.

(c) These pedagogical grammars were turned into textbooks and teaching materials, and eventually reached the teachers, whose job it was to actually teach the language.

4.4.3 Third Phase

A third phase is represented by the model of Stern (1983: 44). In this conception, three important differences can be recognized.

(a) A multidisciplinary fundamental level, where other disciplines serve along with linguistics as basic sciences: the history of language teaching, sociology, sociolinguistics and anthropology, psychology and psycholinguistics, and educational theory.

(b) A two-way relationship exists between each of the levels, i.e. a basic level and an applied one, as well as between an applied level and a practical one. Both, theoreticians and applied linguists can produce theory, although this work is differentiated according to the nature of the two levels.

(c) On the most concrete level, practitioners continue to be users. This model is theory-driven, and above all, the interlevel's role is to mediate (act as a buffer)

between theory and practice, but not prescriptively, as in the previous stages. Summing up, we can represent it as follows:

$$(B+C+D+E+F) \leftarrow \rightarrow (A)\bullet \leftarrow \rightarrow (P).$$

The hierarchical relationship in this model is only partly broken. First, in Stern's view (1992), a kind of knowledge about language pedagogy derived from an objective, systematic, general, and comprehensive vision of reality would be the fundamental element to define the parameters for teaching choices and practices and to guide teachers to success. Second, it involves the way teaching practitioners and their questions are represented.

One of the most interesting aspects of this model is the way in which the practitioner is represented. In Stern's view, teachers need some 'parameters' to act. They do not fancy themselves as great theoreticians. They tend to believe in intuitive and practical approaches. They ask for recipes. They are quite negative about anything described as theoretical and often look askance at ivory tower research. Also, they do not seem to be aware that being practical does not mean being thoughtless. We wonder if such an image of teachers would explain the need for training them and if such interlocutors would be considered able to develop their own knowledge and to participate in a real dialogue with theorists and applied linguists. Knowledge would be an instrument of power. Would teachers be, in this image, empty recipients while those able to produce it in the more abstract levels deliver knowledge?

4.4.4 Fourth Phase

The fourth stage is represented by a triangular relationship between theory, application, and practice. They define these three types of research to carry out in the second language area. Diagram 1 is based on their proposal.

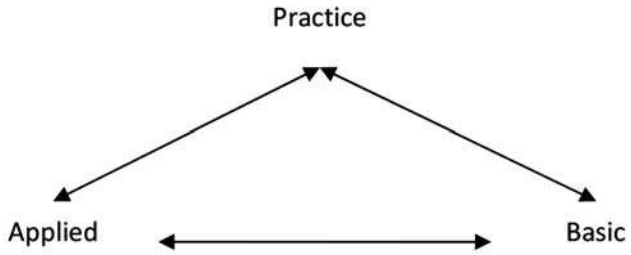


Diagram 1: Triangle relationships

The hierarchical relationship can be completely broken, as well as the dependence relationships. Each actor will have a high level of autonomy. Here, differing radically from the previous stage, everyone involved, theorists, applied linguists and mainly teachers, research-teachers, and teacher-researchers will have the opportunity to test theories and principles, to question them, and to discover new factors and relationships, and to formulate their own hypotheses. The mediation process remains functional, but it is not the exclusive role of any of the participants. Practitioners, applied linguists, and theorists can pose their own questions, decide where to ask or answer them: in the basic sciences, in the applied linguistics, or even the possibility of developing knowledge-based on reflection and action processes. In the field of language studies, the autonomy of basic disciplines has been guaranteed. McDonough (2002: 11) defines applied linguistics as an autonomous problem-solving discipline, with a similar status to linguistics and the other basic disciplines.

Everybody seems to agree that the problems applied linguistics is concerned with are real problems, of the real world, arising in practice. However, so far, it would seem to be that the questions posed and the answers given have been those ones of the theorists and the mediators and not those of the practitioners. This can be reflected in the claim of McDonough (2002: 12) that only until recently, challenging questions (what to teach, how to introduce vocabulary, why students make such type of errors, etc.) have had the chance to be posed and answered by teachers. In his view, bottom-up and grassroots questions posed by teachers have found expression in the activities of teachers doing research themselves. Despite the fact that these questions have been features of applied linguistics, they have been, to a certain degree, remained 'underrated' (McDonough, 2002: 12).

This last stage could be characterized as a reaction against the theory-driven model. As well it would seem to be originating a reaction in two different strands in applied linguistics in terms of the relationship of theory and practice. One of these strands maintains that applied linguistics is essentially a problem-driven discipline rather than a theory-driven one. McCarthy, a staunch supporter of this stand, broadens his stance in the following terms:

> "Applied Linguistics can (and should) not only test the applicability and replicability of linguistic theory and description but also question and challenge them where they are found wanting. In other words, if the relationship between linguistics and its applications is to be a fruitful partnership and neither a top-down imposition by theorists on practitioners […] nor a bottom-up cynicism levelled by practitioners

against theoreticians, then both sides of the linguistics/applied linguistics relationship ought to be accountable to and in regular dialogue with each other with regard to theories as well as practices" (McCarthy 2001: 4).

McCarthy refers to the phase 'bottom-up cynicism levelled by practitioners against theoreticians'. It relates with an epistemological aspect of the discipline, the forms of constructing knowledge, the nature of the inquiry, and the aims and the alternative methodological strategies. Applied linguistics, as an autonomous discipline, is concerned with different research methodologies in order to solve the problems and the questions posed. According to McDonough (2002), despite the existence of many traditions in applied linguists, two approaches can be distinguished, and these approaches complement and balance each other.

> The first, and perhaps the older one, is the pursuit of the interpretation and explanation, bringing to bear the theory, methods, and research results of other disciplines on the problems that present themselves; and the other is the collection of the results of direct research on the problems and the subsequent construction of theories around them (McDonough, 2002: 13).

The other strand is reflected in the critical stance assumed by critical applied linguistics. Pennycook, in the introduction of his book, refers to the critical applied linguistic concerns; address the distinction between theory and practice; and points out that he prefers to see theory and practice "as more complexly interwoven" and "to avoid the theory- into- practice direction" (Pennycook (2001: 3). This vision is represented with this spiral form or a permanent cyclical process.

4.5 Possible Reasons for Changes and their Implications

The term 'explanation' is very hard to use in the social sciences. Concerning human beings and social realities, the act itself of explaining becomes more difficult. Even more complicated is the case of human changes. We seem to perceive and interpret the external factors of the objective world as well as ourselves through a complex system in which our schemes of thought and subjective conditions interact. So the diversity and complexity lie in the ways by which we perceive, act, think, feel, behave, and express ourselves.

One way to explore the changes in viewing the relationships between theory, application, and practice in the field of applied linguistics could be by tracing the way forms of thinking have evolved within the discipline itself. This would be called an

'immanent change'. Another possibility is trying to relate it with external pressures that have modified certain traditions in the disciplines. A third possibility, related to the second one, is to see the changes that have occurred in a related field. We choose this last alternative.

The reason to choose this alternative might sound simplistic. Knowledge is a product of human beings. So we are not alone. We are part of social structures, and we participate in social events and interact with others in diverse forms. McDonough (2002: 7) states that the expansion of applied linguistics is due to four main reasons:

(a) The rise of the language teaching industry.

(b) The explosion of research in second language learning and acquisition is motivated by some of the same factors and by theoretical interest.

(c) The incorporation of more and different areas of research with relevance to language over the years.

(d) The ever-changing array of language problems in our societies.

Due to the factors stated above, change is the way of seeing the relationships between theorists, practitioners, and applied linguists. It is necessary to explain these changes and the implications for language teaching based on the theory of three cognitive interests proposed by Habermas for the human sciences. Grundy (1987) mapped Habermas's theory in the study of curriculum, in the general context of education. Education, linguistics, and applied linguistics are framed within the social sciences area. Language teaching is framed in the general context of education. Micro and macro relationships can be seen here.

Grundy's work (1987) about the curriculum is based on Habermas's work about knowledge and interest relationships in social sciences. Schematically speaking, Habermas conceptualizes that knowledge serves different interests and those interests are socially constructed (Cohen *et al.* 2002: 29). Also, Habermas identifies three kinds of interest: Technical, Practical, and Emancipatory. Depending on our cognitive interest, our aims and our forms of constructing knowledge vary.

Based on the terminology used in the table (Table 2), it is difficult to understand why the first, second, and third moment of applied linguistics and education could be associated with technical interest. However, it is important to remember that the most influential discipline in applied linguistics has been linguistics. Linguistic structuralism, both empiricism, and cognitive strands claims for a scientific objective description of language

Table 2: Cognitive interests, epistemology, LT curriculum, and AL

Cognitive interest	Aims	Epistemology	Curriculum	Applied Linguistics Language Teaching
(A) Technical	Prediction and control Success	Positivism and scientific style Laws Rules Prediction Control Passive research objects Instrumental Knowledge Quantitative Approaches	Controlled and controllable Uniform and Pre-determined Purposes Predictable purpose-oriented experiences Ordered Experiences effectively Organized Outcome evaluation	First, second and third phase Theory driven
(B) Practical	Understanding interpretative methodologies Interpretation	Hermeneutic Styles Qualitative approaches Acting subjects Interacting and language Meanings and intentions	Opening process Diverse Multidimensional Fluid Less monolithic power Problematic Relational	Fourth phase Problem-drivenstrand
(C) Emancipatory	Emancipation and freedom	Ideology Critical Style Praxis (action informed by reflection)	Social emancipation Equity Democracy Freedom Individual and collective empowerment	Four phase Critical Applied linguistics Interwoven

realities. Generative grammar tries to discover the rules and principles that determine the properties of languages.

Tollefson (1995: 1) claims that until recently, the socio-political and economic contexts had not been included in the preparation of most language education and ESL (English as a Second Language) teacher programmes. As a result, teachers and applied linguists could not establish links between educational practices and socio-political factors. In the preface of his book, Tollefson (1995: 1) attributes a great responsibility in widening the gap between teachers, who are interested in the pedagogy of language teaching and learning, and the researchers, who are interested in theories of language and society, to the development of applied linguistics as a distinct academic discipline.

In teaching practices, we can associate with curriculum planned, organized, and structured in advance, in general in a bureaucratic way and are imposed in an institutional hierarchy (some design and make decisions and others implement).

(a) Curriculum planning is unidirectional: beginning on a foundation level (where the philosophical and theoretical concepts are developed: conceptions about language, society, learning, and teaching are stated);

(b) It is followed by the policy level (where all decisions are made in advance: objectives, content, experiences, strategies, timing, levels, resources, as well as the criteria, ways, mechanisms, and moments of evaluating):

(c) It ends at the implementation level.

Just at this point, the process of evaluation starts. Quasi-experimental validation methods are used and quantitative methods are applied to validate curriculum proposals.

Teachers in general participate only on the implementation level. Their participation is reduced and the criteria of effectiveness and efficacy are imposed. The evaluation is standardized and is carried out in general by an external agent. Training is on the basis of their education and the updating process. Technical rationality is imposed. Innovation is reduced to the implementation of techniques and strategies and the introduction of new resources. Theory precedes action.

Practical rationality opposes instrumental rationality. Practical interest is reflected here. An emergent model arises with the development of alternative forms to knowledge and research. This is associated with the fourth stage in the relationship between theory and practice in applied linguistics to language teaching. Hermeneutical procedures and a subjective logic substitute the objectivist one. Small-scale projects are developed with the personal involvement of the research teachers along with the people involved in a

specific situation. The purpose is the understanding of the actions. Based on the definitions of the situation, teachers and students attempt to interpret the specific context and assign meanings to their learning and teaching actions.

Research processes in the classroom could promote the reflection of all participants. Teachers' actions are re-dimensioned, giving origin to new processes of awareness. Action research projects promote student participation. The climate and the relationships between the participants improve motivation. Action research projects permit teachers to carry out contextualized processes of observation, reflection, action, and evaluation in a different number of cycles. Any phase of the cycle could be the starting point. The theory is taken here just as a point of reference and can succeed or precede the practice in any stage of the cycle. Inductive processes could be taking place and new interpretations and meanings can arise. If possible, the participation of an external observer is important. The triangulation of information could contribute to a better interpretation of the experiences.

The **emancipatory interest** is associated with freedom and critical styles and approaches. The concept of ideology as well as action and reflection are central here. Teachers, students, and those involved in the process concerning equality and democracy. Understanding and interpreting are considered previous phases to the transformation of reality. Individual and collective empowerment and emancipation are promoted.

Many conflicts can arise in these kinds of projects. The opening of the process, the lack of outcomes defined in advance, the diversity of interests as well as the multidimensionality of aims can have negative effects on the participants: many of them feel they are wasting time because the process has more value than the results. Some teachers miss their capacities and possibilities of power and control over others. The general tendency is an attempt to go backward, retake control and power. Tradition exerts great pressure on the participants, especially in those contexts that reject the possibility of change. It is not a linear process: one step forward could be accompanied by two steps backward.

4.6 Summing UP

We have traced four stages in the way of viewing the relationships between theory and practice in applied linguistics. The predominant vision can be associated with technical interest. A new vision emerges with two strands. This vision can be related to practical and emancipatory interests. The most important consequence of this change of vision is

that practice achieves its autonomy. This permits new relationships between the three levels. Disciplines evolve. Paradigmatic changes bring with them a shift in ontological and epistemological assumptions. Changes in one discipline could be mapped on others. Changes dealing with a specific aspect (i.e., *conceptual, methodological, philosophical*) go hand-in-hand with a set of implications and consequences with different aspects.

Changes are reflected in the discourse and can be traced through it. Explanation of the conceptual or theoretical level demands a theory on a higher level, meta-conceptual and meta-theoretical. Sciences, their products, and practices are social in nature. So, they must be socially contextualized. Given the influence on language teaching today, it will be interesting to analyze the ways of seeing the relationship between theory and practice in the case of sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics.

4.7 Review Questions

[1] Why scholars are interested to explore the relations between Applied Linguistics and other related disciplines?

[2] What, according to Pennycook, are different ways of being critical?

[3] What, according to Karl Marx, are the aims of philosophers?

[4] What do you understand by 'buffer', 'intermediary' and 'interlevel' as used by Stern (1992) to refer to the role of applied linguistics?

[5] What are the four different kinds of relationships between applied linguistics and the teaching profession?

[6] Based on Stern (1992), explain the four phases in the history of language teaching.

[7] According to Corder, what kind of hierarchy of responsibility do you find between three groups of people involved in Applied Linguistics?

[8] Define the 'triangular relationship' between theory, application, and practice in applied linguistics.

[9] According to McDonough (2002), what are the main factors behind the expansion of applied linguistics?

[10] According to Habermas, what are the three kinds of cognitive interest do you find in applied linguistics?

4.8 Glossary of Terms

Emancipatory: The definition of emancipatory is something that relates to liberation or giving freedom. Emancipation is any effort to procure economic and social rights, political rights, or equality, often for a specifically disenfranchised group, or more generally, in the discussion of many matters.

Foreign Language Teaching (FLT): It involves teaching a foreign language at several levels concurrently, from beginning speakers of foreign languages to students who are approaching fluency. Instruction in foreign languages includes vocabulary, spelling, grammar, and accent, as well as the evolution and history of the language.

Hermeneutical procedures: Hermeneutics is the theory and methodology of interpretation especially the interpretation of biblical texts, wisdom literature, and philosophical texts. Hermeneutics is more than interpretive principles or methods used when immediate comprehension fails and includes the art of understanding and communication. Modern hermeneutics includes both verbal and non-verbal communication as well as semiotics, presuppositions, and pre-understandings. Hermeneutics has been broadly applied in the humanities, especially in law, history, and theology. Hermeneutics was initially applied to the interpretation, or exegesis, of scripture, and has been later broadened to questions of general interpretation. Hermeneutics and exegesis are sometimes used interchangeably. Hermeneutics includes written, verbal, and non-verbal communication while exegesis focuses upon the word and grammar of texts.

Heterosis: It refers to the phenomenon that progeny of diverse varieties of a species or crosses between species exhibit greater biomass, speed of development, and fertility than both parents. Various models have been posited to explain heterosis, including dominance, over-dominance, and pseudo-over-dominance.

Intermediary: It refers to a person who acts as a link between people in order to try and bring about an agreement; a mediator.

Monodisciplinary: It is a kind of research or activity that refers to research within a single discipline or body of specialized knowledge (such as medical versus dental).

Praxis: It is the process by which a theory, lesson, or skill is enacted, embodied, or realized. Praxis may also refer to the act of engaging, applying, exercising, realizing, or practicing ideas.

Self-reflexivity: As a process, reflexivity implies activity whereby the act of self-consciousness is determined or posited. Self- A reflexivity is a superior form of self-activity in which self-consciousness is produced, and it is sustained by any form of self-consciousness.

Unidirectional: Pertaining to only one direction where all component parts are aligned in the same direction in space.

4.9 Books Recommended

[1] Byram, M. (2000) Ed. *Routledge Encyclopaedia of Language Teaching and Learning*. London, Routledge.

[2] Chouliaraki, L. and Fairclough, N. (1999) *Discourse in Late Modernity: rethinking critical discourse analysis.* Edinburgh, Edinburgh University Press.

[3] Cohen, L. et al. (2000) *Research Methods in Education.* 5th Edition. London, Routledge Falmer

[4] Grundy, S. (1987) *Curriculum: Product or Praxis.* London, Falmer Press

[5] McCarthy, M. (2001) *Issues in Applied Linguistics.* Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

[6] McDonough, S. (2002) *Applied Linguistics in Education.* London, Arnold.

[7] Pennycook, A. (2001) *Critical Applied Linguistics: A Critical Introduction.* Mahwah, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

[8] Seliger, H. and Shohamy, E. (1989) *Second Language Research Methods.* Oxford, Oxford University Press

[9] Stern, H.H. (1983) *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching.* Oxford, Oxford University Press.

[10] Stern, H.H. (1992) *Issues and Options in Language Teaching.* Edited by Allen P and Harley B. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

[11] Tollefson, J. (1995) *Power and Inequality in Language Education.* Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

MODULE-2 : APPLIED LINGUISTICS -2

Unit 5 ❑ Usages of Applied Linguistics

Structure

5.2 Objectives

At the end of the unit the learners will be able to

a) understand Applied Linguistics as a discipline

b) be aware of the different applications of the discipline

c) learn the relevance of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching

d) understand the contributions of Applied Linguistics to other disciplines

5.2 Introduction

Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field that identifies, investigates, and offers solutions to language-related real-life problems.Some of the academic fields related to applied linguistics are education, psychology, communication research, anthropology, and sociology.The term applied linguistics refers to the interdisciplinary field that aims to seek out, identify, and provide solutions to real-life problems that result from language-related causes. This research encompasses a wide variety of fields including language acquisition, language teaching, literacy, literary studies, gender studies, speech therapy, discourseanalysis, censorship, professional communication, media studies, translationstudies, lexicography, and forensic linguistics. Some of these areas are briefly addressed in this Unit.

The study and practice of applied linguistics are specifically geared toward addressing practical issues as opposed to theoretical constructs. The fields, in which applied linguistics routinely comes into play, are education, psychology, communication research, anthropology, and sociology.General linguistics or theoretical linguistics, on the other hand, deals with language itself, not as that language applies to the people who are using it.

One of the main goals of applied linguistics is to determine practical applications for linguistic theories as they apply to the evolution of everyday language usage. Initially targeted toward teaching, the field has become increasingly far-reaching since its inception in the late 1950s. According to Alan Davies (2007), there is no finality: the problems such as how to assess language proficiency, what is the optimum age to begin a second language, [and the like] may find local and temporary solutions but the problems recur.As a result, applied linguistics is a constantly evolving discipline that changes as frequently as the modern usage of any given language, adapting and presenting new solutions to the ever-evolving problems of linguistic discourse.

5.3 Usage of Applied Linguistics

Instead of trying to define applied linguistics, it is useful to look at what is actually going on institutionally. Applied Linguistics defines itself by actions rather than by definitions. Scholars run into definition problems and constantly avoid giving a definition. They rather propose to include the followings: Applied linguistics and literacy in Diaspora; Content and language integrated learning; Discourse analysis; Language and migration; Language in the media; Language policy; Learner autonomy in language learning; Multilingualism at the workplace; Multilingualism: acquisition and use; Standard language education; Task complexity; Translating and interpreting.

This open-ended list is a better definition than any sentential definition. Its danger is that it leads to anything linguistics, in which any kind of activity remotely connected with language, can be brought under the applied linguistics umbrella. It is otiose and unscholarly. Some steady view is necessary and it must appeal to theory. We turn to several case studies so as to provide an illustration of the range of activities that applied linguists are involved in. They will serve as an indication of the extent to which we think of applied linguistics as a coherent discipline rather than as a collection of unconnected language projects. What these examples illustrate is that projects in applied linguistics typically present as 'problems' for which explanations are desired, explanations which allow the researchers and teachers to make sense. The case study, 'critical pedagogy', offers a problem of a different kind in that it represents an alternative applied linguistics, known as Critical Applied Linguistics (CAL). It does this in two ways, first by offering a critique of traditional applied linguistics; and second, by exemplifying one way of doing CAL, namely critical pedagogy. The CAL may represent an ethical response to traditional applied linguistics.

5.3.1 Language Programme Evaluation

Accountability has traditionally been left to professionals to determine for themselves. It has been manifested through such stakeholder satisfaction criteria as client numbers, student successes on examinations and in employment, earnings, and reputation. Such amorphous criteria are no longer acceptable. For the sake of the stakeholders and to make the participants better informed, as well as to improve the activity if repeated, language-programme evaluation is now widely practiced. What it does is

(a) to determine to what extent the project/programme is meeting the original blue-print,

(b) to examine the changes brought about by the project/programme, and

(c) to question the extent to which this type of project is generalizable and should be generalizable.

In 1990, CIEFL Hyderabad and the University of Edinburgh carried out an evaluation study of four projects in South India (Davies 1991). The four projects were based in Anna University, Madras (English Department), Kerala University, Trivandrum (Institute of English); Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore (Foreign Languages Section); and Osmania University, Hyderabad (English Department and ELT Centre). The purpose of the evaluation was to determine what success such a project using short-term consultancies had had and to consider whether or not such a model could be applied in other developmental situations. These projects, institutionally separated from one another, were all concerned with curriculum change. The terms of reference were as follows:

[1] the overall design of the projects and their relevance to the Indian situation;

[2] the effectiveness of the UK consultancies and of local input/support;

[3] the appropriateness of materials produced and their usefulness to the target audience;

[4] the extendibility of the ELT materials to other situations in India;

[5] the changes that were brought about as a result of the project; and

[6] the extent to which local expertise could take over and sustain the work of the project.

The range of undergraduate/postgraduate, compulsory/special, full-time/part-time, general/specific, large/small departments against an underlying policy of curriculum change compelled the researchers to consider urgently the need to generalize beyond the context of anyone setting. What became clear early on was the difficulty of determining any single criterionof project success, thereby supporting views widely expressed in the literature. Success in a project may be achieved in a variety of ways and depends on a combination of factors, such as context and personal interactions, not all of which can be manipulated. For that reason, scholars are less concerned with the analysis of past achievement and more concerned with the diagnosis of project experience so as

to inform future policy. Scholars have proposed 4 criteria for determining the success of a project:

[1] **Product:** It was meant some public expression of a project outcome. At its most informal such a public expression could be a circulated syllabus document; at its most formal a published textbook. What they looked for was some product indicative of project completion; they did not attempt to estimate the professional quality of the product.

[2] **Teacher development:** It is essential to the continuation of an institution. While the language-teaching profession is more concerned with research output, administrators are probably more well-disposed to the professionalism of their institution's teaching staff. It was on a number of indicators to show professional development, such as recognition of the necessary link between materials and methodology, appointment as consultants to other institutions, stated intention to update their materials.

[3] **Sustainability:** It has to do with the ability and willingness to continue without the support of the consultant. It was decided on indicators such as being responsive to the need to change aims while the project was still ongoing, team cohesion shown by a strong sense of professional interaction, and a sense of ownership of the project.

[4] **Extendibility:** It concerns the relevance of a project to other contexts and therefore is determined by indicators such as an understanding at a theoretical level among the project team members of why they did what they did in the project, and awareness by professionals in other institutions of the seriousness of the project, and a capacity bythe project staff to continue as a research team and mount new projects on their own, not simply continue the existing project.

In addition to these four project outcomes, it was also necessary to take account of a set of pre-conditions and inputs during the life of the project. In this way, they developed a model for project evaluation which would permit both generalisability across ELT activities and at the same time allow for some measure of prediction of likely success based on the presence of the pre-conditions and the amount of input during the project. Evaluation of language-teaching projects is a good example of the kind of activities applied linguists are called on to perform. What makes their contribution special is that applied linguistics brings to the evaluation a readiness to generalize through model-making.

5.3.2 Literacy Acquisition

In addition to critical comments on currently received opinions on language learning and teaching issues, applied linguistics also contributes its careful reading of published results in these fields. The study on the critical literature review of bi-literacy illustrates the applied-linguistic contribution to the ongoing debate on literacy in education.

As part of a project investigating schooled literacy in the second language (e.g., English in Australia for speakers of other languages) a critical literature review from an applied linguistic perspective was commissioned in 1997. Given the prevailing view among English as a Second Language (ESL) practitioners of the need to establish prior literacy in the first language (L1), it was important to sift the published evidence carefully.

During the 20th Century, literacy has broadened its scope beyond reading and writing. The term 'multiple literacies', expresses one type of broadening by validating the often unacknowledged skilled language practices. A plausible interpretation of the broadening to more and more domains is that literacy has extended its province from the apparently straightforward sense of learning the skills of reading and writing to the more all-embracing sense of the demands of contemporary education. According to this interpretation, contemporary literacy and schooling are synonymous. What this means is that traditional ideas of schooling have also adapted so as to incorporate these wider demands. Much of the discussion about becoming literate, both in the narrower sense of acquiring reading and writing skills and in the broader sense of schooling, emphasizes the 'rules of the game' aspect, that is seeing (and accepting) what it's for(where 'it' encompasses reading/writing and schooling).

An issue of concern in schools with multilingual populations is that of the role of the first language (L1), and particularly of L1 literacy, in the acquisition of the second language(L2) literacy, that is of literacy in the school language. Applied linguists become involved with this type of literacy question in two ways:

(a) First in helping define literacy in such a way that it is possible to distinguish between the skills of reading and writing and the wider sense of 'reading the world' (Olson 1994), and

(b) Second in clarifying what is meant by being literate in the traditional skills, that is at what point or cut-off a learner is not literate.

In discussions of the relationship between the L1 and the L2, the consensus seems to be that since literacy skills transfer from L1 to L2, L1 literacy should be taught prior

to, or simultaneously with,L2 literacy. There is a weak version of this view and a strong version. The weak version states that for full L2 literacy development it is desirable that there should be prior adequate development in L1 literacy. The strong version goes further, claiming that unless there is an adequate base of L1 literacy there can be no L2 literacy development.

Those taking up the strong position emphasize one of two values of prior L1literacy: (a) the first is that literacy in a second language is easier because learners know what literacy is from their first-language experience. (b) The second value makes the knowledge argument, that proper cognitive development is possible only where literacy has been acquired in the L1.There is of course a skeptical view. That is that what is needed to acquire literacy in an L2 such as English is more and better instruction in that L2, in this case, English. The underlying argument here is that there is no general connection between L2 literacy and the L1 and that a case-by-case approach should be taken when considering a policy. School success depends on a number of factors, including attitude to schooling. In the morass of individual variation, the school turns out to be uniquely powerful. What this suggests is that the good school can make all the difference to the acquisition of literacy in an L2, while the bad school can jeopardize the L2 student's chances. Interestingly, of course, it places the responsibility for an L2 learner's success as much on the school as on the student's attainments in the L1.

If there is a moral to the study of schooling in a second language, it is that there is no homogeneity, *except for the school*. Languages differ, learners differ, contexts of learning differ, and the L1–L2 relationship differs. Therefore, it is incumbent on researchers and teachers to take account of previous learning and at the same time not to assume that all previous learning in the L1 is necessarily what matters most for subsequent learning in the L2.The contribution of applied linguistics to a study of schooled literacy in a second language is to demystify the role of the first language and to examine carefully just what influence it has, motivationally, cognitively, and linguistically.

5.3.3 Pedagogical Grammar

A pedagogic (or pedagogical) grammar can be defined as a grammatical description of a language which is intended for pedagogical purposes, such as language teaching, syllabus design, or the preparation of teaching materials. A pedagogic grammar might be based on:

(a) a grammatical analysis and description of the language;

(b) a particular grammatical theory; and

(c) the study of the grammatical problems of learners or on a combination of approaches.

Pedagogical grammars are distinguished from analytical grammars. A pedagogical grammar is a grammatical description of a language specifically designed as an aid to teaching that language, such as the grammar textbooks used in foreign language classes or the grammar instruction offered to trainee teachers. An analytical grammar attempts to account formally and logically for the structure of a language without reference to pedagogy, sequencing, levels of difficulty, or ease of explanation.

Few analytical grammars are suitable for pedagogy but developments in generative grammar, including case grammar, generative semantic models of language, and accounts of linguistic discourse, indicate a renewal of interest in language as it is actually used in human interaction. Such grammars are therefore much more relevant to language learning and language teaching because they are less abstract than previous generative grammars. However, even these less abstract, more communicative grammars are still not intended to be pedagogic in the sense in which we are using the term, since the purpose of a pedagogic arrangement for grammar is to afford the students tightly controlled practice in writing sentences and thereby to locate the source of their own writing errors. The successful textbook employing a pedagogical grammar approach will ensure that the items and exercises are arranged so as to promote understanding of how different grammatical devices combine with context so as to allow the writer (and speaker) to express the variety of intended meanings.

A pedagogical grammar, therefore, needs to be distinguished both from analytic grammar and from other types of textbooks. It differs from an analytic grammar in terms of purpose, which is to teach the language rather than about the language. It differs from other types of textbooks in terms of organization, in that it is arranged on pedagogical principles.

Using the technique of pedagogical grammar in response to a language problem facing him in designing communicative language teaching materials, Keith Mitchell(1990) describes his attempt to produce a description which anticipates learners' communicative needs 'by adopting meaning and use – semantics and pragmatics –rather than grammatical structure as its main principle of classification' (1990: 52).Mitchell explains why Jespersen's analysis of the English comparative was inadequate (while praising him for his far-sighted approach to language teaching, anticipating communicative ideas sixty years before they became fashionable). In doing so he demonstrates why the classic

analysis which claimed that the following two sentences are equivalent in meaning was wrong:

1. Mary is as tall as her father.
2. Mary and her father are identical in height.

Mitchell points out that they are not equivalent because (1) means that Mary is either equal to her father in height or taller, while (2) means only that she is equal to her father in height. Mitchell's analysis ranges from the logic of comparative structure through semantics and pragmatics to the lexicogrammatical possibilities inherent in the English language. In general terms, his argument concerns the different ways in which the same concept may be expressed and at the same time the different but related concepts that are expressed in similar ways. Mitchell concludes that:

> *"..'identity of degree', together with 'the average degree' and 'the ideal degree' are concepts that language users have not hitherto had much occasion to express, witness the relative grammatical and/or lexical complexity of the devices that have to be resorted to if one does want to express them. These can hardly be concepts that play any great part in the everyday categorization of human experience, otherwise, speakers would have made it their business over the ages to ensure, as it were, that language provided a straightforward means for giving expression to them. It seems that when it comes to making comparisons quantifying properties of things in the world around us we tend to perceive these primarily in terms of differences, and even when we do perceive similarities we appear to like to leave room for the possibility of difference … It seems therefore that everyday language operates with a much looser and more ambivalent concept of 'equality' than does mathematics".*(Mitchell 1990: 70)

Let us remind ourselves of Mitchell's purpose in dealing with this language problem, namely the 'design of a communicative-pedagogical description of English' which would meet the needs of the syllabus designer and the materials writer. What he has reported on is clearly a small part of a larger task. In other words, the 'problem 'of how to teach learners how to express comparisons in English is only a very small part of the larger 'problem' of how to enable learners to access the resources of the English language.

But in this small-scale reporting what Mitchell succeeds in doing is to show how questions of this kind require the applied linguist to bring together recurring practical

demands (how best to teach the language) with major theoretical issues (how the language deploys itself in order to permit meanings to be expressed). This particular engagement of theory and practice draws more heavily on linguistic theory than the examples of programme evaluation and schooled literacy. The outcome of such an engagement is three-fold:

(a) it offers are source to the syllabus designer and textbook writer;

(b) it informs our understanding of the ways in which pedagogy reflects learning and so assists with the theorizing of applied linguistics; and

(c) it informs our understanding of the grammatical resource of the language and so has the potential to impact the linguistic theory itself.

5.3.4 Workplace Communication

Away from education, the workplace is probably the major setting for necessary communication. Typically, it is the migrant for whom communication at work presents at the least misunderstandings and hostility and at the worst loss of job (or failure to obtain one). Those applied linguists who study communication in the workplace have three purposes: (a) to extend our knowledge of language genre so as to add to the theoretical base of language variety; (b) to provide input to the design of language-teaching materials for use in training courses on workplace communication for migrants, and (c) to provide advice for administrators about how to minimize miscommunication.

Those who work in settings which (during the past twenty years) have been the research sites for studies of workplace discourse include doctors, psychologists, commodity dealers, and personnel managers. These studies have contributed to our understanding of institutional discourse and communicative relationships in the workplace. The problem for applied linguists who work in these settings is their tendency to underestimate the complexity of working with non-language professionals while avoiding being seen as both patronizing and as irrelevant outsiders. To be successful in these settings, applied linguistics needs a set of conceptual and analytic tools which are sensitive to the particular work contexts in which they work. Developing these tools is possible only by interaction between applied linguists and field professionals, the ambition being to achieve the integration of theory with practice (Roberts *et al.* 1997).

The 1979 film *Crosstalk* sets out to analyze and remedy cross-cultural communication in the workplace, with particular reference to the experience of Asian migrants in the UK. The film and its accompanying training methods are based on the analysis of

differential features in the English of Asian-born speakers of English and the English of UK-born speakers of English. What this analysis shows is that there are distinct cultural conventions used to infer meaning and attitudes. The use of such features (on both sides) causes misunderstandings and break-downs of communication:

> *It is at the level of grasping the overall significance of what is being said and of drawing the correct inferences, that is of reading between the lines as to what is really intended, that the Asian-English system and the English-English [communication between two native speakers of British English] system of linguistic signals for information and attitude differ most* (Gumperz*et al.* 1979: 9-10).

For example, English-English people are confused by Asian-English lack of stress patterns and by their wrong use of turn-taking, while Asian-English people are confused by apologetic or polite and repetitive uses of English and by their appearance of not listening to what is being said. For example, in a job interview in which an Asian is applying for a post as a librarian in a college, a number of 'indirect' questions were raised with the candidate concerning his reasons for his interest in this particular job. The point of this type of question was to determine whether the candidate saw the post for which he was being interviewed as part of a strategy of careful career development. The candidate, however, interpreted all questions of this sort as direct rather than indirect and therefore as challenging his right to want a job at all. As a result, he found this line of questioning insulting. The professionals involved in the interview were officials of the college where the applicant sought employment. They were the Vice-Principal, the Head of Department and the Chief Administrative Officer. The film and materials are based on the combined analysis by these officials and the project applied linguists of the form and purpose of typical job interviews and how these are linguistically encoded.

5.3.5 Critical Pedagogy

This last example differs from those previously described in that it reports a general approach rather than a project grappling with a specific issue. The approach is indeed so general that it offers an alternative way of doing applied linguistics. In addition to permeating the whole field of applied linguistics, critical pedagogy (itself an aspect of critical applied linguistics) is a project in itself since it occupies space for both teachers and students of applied linguistics in their studying and their research.

Critical pedagogy, and more generally critical applied linguistics, represents a kind of postmodern version of critical discourse analysis. As such it places the onus of action

firmly on the subject, in this case, the learner, student, and reader. Alastair Pennycook (1994a) describes the approach in Chapter 9 in his book *Towards a Critical Pedagogy for Teaching English as a Worldly Language* (1994).He takes as his point of departure: 'it is impossible to separate English from its many contexts and thus a key tenet of the discourse of English as an International Language – that it is possible to "just teach the language" – is equally untenable' (Pennycook 1994a: 295).Pennycook is concerned to make clear that he is not proposing a prescriptive set of teaching practices; what he is doing is 'to lay out some general concerns in developing critical pedagogies of English' (pp. 300). He recognizes that his stance is ideological but points out that all education is political while usually pretending it is not: 'I would argue that all education is political, that all schools are sites of cultural politics' (pp. 301).

Pennycook emphasizes the importance of 'voice' which is used to refer to 'a contested space of language use as social practice. It suggests a pedagogy that starts with the concerns of the students, not in some vapid, humanist 'student-centered approach that requires students to express their 'inner feelings', but rather through an exploration of students' histories and cultural locations, of the limitations and possibilities presented by languages and discourses … a critical practice in English language teaching must start with ways of critically exploring students' cultures, knowledge and histories in ways that are both challenging and at the same time affirming and supportive' (pp. 311).As a specific instance of the working out of critical pedagogy, Pennycook reports an experience when he was teaching English in China. He became aware that numbers of foreigners who purported to be teachers of English were in fact Christian missionaries. He decided that his students needed to be given the opportunity to consider this situation:

> *In a course on 'British and American culture', a course that had always previously consisted of lectures on the political and education systems, festivals, and holidays of the United States and the UK, I decided to add a section on American fundamentalism to the curriculum … it was important to make available to my students alternative readings of the United States that drew links between fundamentalism and right-wing politics and showed how the vast expansion of English language learning was being used by those who sought only to 'convert' their students and preach their right-wing politics. The object here was to give my students ways of thinking about connections between the language they were so busily engaged in learning and other cultural and political complexes about modernity, Christianity … anti-abortion campaigns … Chinese population problems and family policies, freedom of speech, and so on.*(pp. 313-14)

Pennycook is at pains to point out that this approach does not detract from his responsibilities to ensure his students' 'success' as normally defined. He sets out his creed:

> *I am suggesting that first, we need to make sure that students have access to those standard forms of the language linked to social and economic prestige; second, we need a good understanding of the status and possibilities presented by different standards; third, we need to focus on those parts of the language that are significant in particular discourses; fourth, students need to be aware that those forms represent only one set of particular possibilities; and finally, students also need to be encouraged to find ways of using the language that they feel are expressive of their own needs and desires, to make their own readings of texts, to write, speak and listen in forms of the language that emerge as they strive to find representations of themselves and others that make sense to them so that they can start to claim and negotiate a voice in English*(pp. 317–18).

It is important to note that unlike those who argue the case for 'linguicism'(Phillipson 1992), Pennycook does not oppose the spread of English as long as itis approached critically: 'I believe that the spread of English if dealt with critically, may offer chances for cultural renewal and exchange around the world' (Pennycook1994a: 325).

5.3.6 Language Planning

Populations are natural resources. We can enhance their abilities, qualifications, and skills through education. One such ability is the languages spoken in the community and those which the community wishes to promote. Whether the community has an explicit view of its language situation or not it will inevitably have a language policy that determines such matters as which language(s) are to be recognized as the official language(s) of the state, which languages are to be used as a medium of instruction in schools, as the medium of broadcasting, in the legal system and so on. Official intervention by the state in some cases requires the institutionalizing of a state body that oversees prescriptive issues, bodies such as the National Language Board. Even where there is no such official state body there will be some para-statal body (e.g., BBC in the UK or Door Darshan in India), publishing houses, and newspapers that shape attitude and emphasize norms. Further, there will be a policy, again explicit or not, indicating the official attitude towards minority languages used in the community and determining which languages are to be taught as foreign languages in schools. Such community (usually national) policies come under the general label of language planning.

The need for a national language plan is acute in newly formed communities which are faced with immediate decisions about which language(s) to select as the official state language. Newly independent states in the 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s are faced with such a decision. In the main the majority chose to continue with the existing situation, which explains why so many former British colonies still use English as their official language, however many other languages may be current within their borders and however few nationals actually use English as their main means of communication. Inertia, the continuation of their British connection, scarcity of resources to provide the necessary materials (textbooks, study materials) in an indigenous language, unwillingness to compel a choice among the competitor indigenous languages for selection as the new official language, reasons such as these have tended to continue the language status quo.

While the need always exists for language planning on a small scale, such as which languages to offer in a school curriculum over the next period, it is rare to be given the opportunity to develop a national language plan. Such an opportunity did arise in Australia in the 1980sto develop a National Policy on Languages. Australia was not a newly emerging state, but like Canada, which had some years earlier produced its own national policy of bilingualism, Australia did need to come to terms with its new multi-racial (and multilingual) population, following the large scale immigration of the 1950s. At the same time, it needed to adjust to its geo-economic reality of being a 'European' country in the Asian-Pacific region. And very late in the day, there was the abiding recognition of the injury to indigenous communities whose languages were dying if not dead. What was needed was an informed view of the linguistic ecology of Australia which would allow practical and ethical decisions to be made. This is a classic applied linguistics problem since it required a balance of political, educational, and linguistic understanding.

The activity of language policy formulation is known as language planning when explicit statements and programs are made and enacted to respond to urgent problems of a linguistic nature. Choices and priorities need to be made and set since language pervades all of public and private life. The context means that the federal nature of Australia, consisting of at least eight governments, influences the type of language planning possible in Australia. Therefore it is necessary that broad statements with clear principles be enunciated so that the language problems which face the country as a whole can be tackled at the various relevant levels by the appropriate authorities. The proposed policy is comprehensive and takes account of what is called the 'language problems which confront Australia'. The National Policy on Languages has been very influential in Australia. It is probably the case that it would not have had the impact it has had without its overarching applied-linguistic vision.

5.3.7 Language Teaching Curriculum

The term 'curriculum' is used in its widest sense to include purpose and objectives as well as content (or syllabus) and method. An explicit curriculum can be seen as a statement of the means by which a set of objectives is to be achieved and at the same time an operational definition of how we should understand those objectives. Thus English for Specific Purposes (ESP) curriculum will contain the content of a teaching programme, possible guidance on how to present that programme and at the same time represent by its instantiation what is meant by ESP.

The applied linguistics of curriculum studies may therefore be regarded as the language teaching specialism, which is "a matter of identifying, developing, and articulating particular perceptions of teaching and learning on the one hand and seeking ways in which perceptions can be shared and sharpened through professional debate in the teaching community on the other" (Prabhu 1987: 107). Essentially it is an attempt to develop a fresh perception of second language teaching and learning. It draws on a pedagogic intuition arising from earlier experience and deliberately seeks further sustained experience, both to test the strength of the intuition and to be able to articulate it in the form of principles and procedures. The development of competence in a second language requires not systematization of language inputs or maximization of planned practice, but rather the creation of conditions in which learners engage in an effort to cope with communication.

Scholars distinguish between communicational competence and communicative competence, which is the ability to achieve social or situational appropriacy as distinct from grammatical conformity. The focus is not on communicative competence but on grammatical competence itself, which is hypothesized to develop in the course of meaning-focused activity. The philosophy behind this is that learners are meaning seekers. Grammar– competence – is best learnt through purposeful communication; the analogies used at various times.

(a) First, a child learns his or her mother tongue where learning takes place through the search for meaning and not through formal instruction; and,

(b) Second, the learner is engaged in a content task such as a mathematics task. The desire and determination to solve the mathematics problem are so strong that learners will assist one another to negotiate their way to a solution.

When tasks similar to a mathematics problem that use language but which are not language focused are presented then the challenge to find a solution will encourage

language negotiation and hence language learning: learners, when focused on communication, are able to deploy non-linguistic resources and, as a result, not only achieve some degree of communication but, in the process, some new resources, however small, in the target language. In other words, language is best learnt when it is being used as a means, not as an end. This idea develops a fresh perception of second-language learning as pedagogic innovation is viewed as an act of renewing contact with innovation and re-interpreting experience through a fresh perception.

It works in applied linguistics as it elaborates our thinking about language learning. It offers some insights and helps us think again about our normal practice. The role of applied linguistics in curriculum development is likely as much in offering new insights based, however distantly, on theoretical underpinnings from other disciplines as in offering ways of changing practice and method.

5.3.8 Second Language Acquisition

The example selected to illustrate development in second-language acquisition studies is that of the Lexical Frequency Profile, a measure of vocabulary in the writing of second-language learners. There has been interest in such measures for two reasons – they can be used to help distinguish some of the factors that affect the quality of a piece of writing, and they can be used to examine the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and vocabulary use (Laufer 2005).

The development of a computerized instrument can be seen as a response to the common need to evaluate the role of vocabulary in language learning. Such studies likely build upon the revival of interest in vocabulary among second-language teachers. This revival represents a return to a more traditional applied linguistics view of the importance of vocabulary as against the centrality of grammar. At the same time, what vocabulary control indicates is a concomitant awareness of genre, of those words that group together in a discrete domain.

The Lexical Frequency Profile uses a frequency list against which to match the vocabulary of the submitted written work. Profiles based on running texts of 200+words have been shown to provide stable results. The measure is valid and reliable. Furthermore, the computer program allows for different frequency lists to be used and it is, therefore, possible to produce a different profile for different proficiency levels. Scholars propose two different measures, one for less and one for more proficient students. The Lexical Frequency Profile appears to be a robust response to the need

for quick, reliable, and valid estimations of writing proficiency and at the same time a useful indicator of the role of vocabulary in language learning.

Second language learning is expensive. Many learners who embark on a course of this type abandon it before they reach some useful take-off point. Whether there is an optimum age to start learning a second language is of practical importance. It is also of theoretical importance because it bears on the question of the critical or sensitive period for engaging with a new cognitive load. Moreover, it relates to our understanding of what it means to be a native speaker. It is assumed that only those exposed to a language in early childhood are native speakers of that language. It is further assumed that if there is exposure to more than one language during early childhood, then it is equally possible to be a native speaker of more than one language. Later exposure, it is thought, cannot produce a native speaker.

There are serious problems in defining a native speaker so narrowly for two reasons. First, some exceptional learners start learning a second language in later life and who do somehow attain native-like mastery, in some cases so perfect that their provenance cannot be distinguished from that of a birthright native speaker. Second, those birthright native members differ among themselves. Not only do they have different accents, but they also have different grammars, quite apart from their very different control over performance skills in the language: in writing, speaking, and so on. However, the sensitive period position has been difficult to counter for second language acquisition, even though its legitimacy properly belongs to the acquisition of the first language.

Scholars have challenged the view that the ultimate attainment of native-speaker ability is not possible for exceptional second-language learners. The general success of younger learners in acquiring a second language is true and it points out that the evidence does not mean that this advantage is the reflection of a sensitive period in learning. It is observed that only exceptional learners can overcome the problems of reaching ultimate attainment after the sensitive period. Indeed it is prudent to assume that successful second language acquisition remains a possibility for all those who have learnt a natural language in childhood and can organize their lives to recreate some of the social, educational, and experiential advantages that children enjoy.

5.3.9 Clinical Linguistics

The goal of clinical linguistics is to formulate hypotheses for the remediation of abnormal linguistic behaviours. Clinical linguistics can help clinicians to make an informed

judgment about what to teach next and to monitor the outcome of an intervention, hypothesis, as treatment proceeds.(Crystal 2001: 679)

The terms 'remediation' and 'teaching' suggest that clinical linguistics is very definitely applied work since it sets out to diagnose what problems there are in an individual's communication system and then attempts to provide appropriate remedies. The best-known practitioner is the speech therapist (or pathologist) who works with childhood speech defects (caused for example by a cleft palate) and with adult aphasias (caused by strokes and by road and other accidents). But there is more to it.

The speech therapist's work draws on descriptive work in language acquisition and language loss, including sophisticated speech synthesis using state of the art computer technology, on phonetic and grammatical accounts of deficit, what we call a deficit grammar, that is to say, an algorithmic inventory was drawn up to exemplify the areas of loss most likely to be experienced by the therapist's patients. The linguist's interest is primarily in change:

(a) to what extent is non-acquisition (as exemplified by the child with some speech impairment) systematic in that it relates regularly (but negatively) to so-called normal acquisition. Similarly with loss (whether through age, illness, or trauma):

(b) to what extent does loss mirror acquisition so that it is possible to establish a relationship between the two?

While such research is of obvious applied interest since it allows swifter and more precise diagnosis both of children's defects and of adults' traumas, it also is of profound concern to the linguist's understanding of what language is through knowing what it is not. The path is through changed states to failure of changed states to what it is that causes language to exist at any one time as a system and which enables it to change into another system.

An applied linguist finds interest in clinical linguistics in achieving stable states and in improving (and ameliorating) communication. Thus the applied linguist has two roles in clinical linguistics. The first role is that of the speech therapist him/herself. And the second is that of the trainer of speech therapists. Indeed the two go together, because once we accept that the applied linguist has a role in the training of speech therapists then the trained speech therapist becomes, by definition, an applied linguist.

5.3.10 Language Proficiency Testing

Testing is more a normal part of language teaching than of other curriculum subjects

because the language teacher is concerned with skill as well as with knowledge. This means that there is more need for testing. Testing is further complicated by the unusual presence of a living criterion, the native speaker. In many language teaching operations the goal is the native speaker, but increasingly testing comes under criticism as to *which* native speaker.

What language proficiency testing is about is the setting of appropriate targets for varying levels and uses of language. Such tests aim to provide the rigours of test guidelines while ensuring that the right kinds of language behaviour are included and in appropriate quantities. The applied linguistic interest in language proficiency testing is now central but that was not always the case. What has become clear over the last thirty years is the role of the test in encapsulating both what the learner needs to know for a particular purpose and what amount of that knowledge counts as success. This is a major contribution both to the practice of language learning and teaching and to the theoretical understanding of language learning and language need.

Language proficiency tests model the native speaker and provide an alternative means of setting goals for learning. They operationalize language learning precisely by setting explicit goals, which is another way of stating that language tests make language learning accountable by establishing what it means to 'know' the language. They do this by sampling the relevant areas of language to be learned and guarantee that their sampling is correct through their documentation on reliability and validity. There are major distinctions of 'proficiency' and 'tests of achievement' (or attainment): (a) tests of proficiency sample the language that is being learned; (b) tests of achievement sample the teaching programme (syllabus, course, textbook, etc.) that has already been agreed, a sample than of an existing sample.

We can distinguish six kinds of use of information that language testing provides.

[1] The first use that it provides hypotheses in relation to our understanding of language and language learning. The status and concept of language proficiency, the structure of language ability, and the natural order of language acquisition are much discussed by language testers using language testing techniques to produce data which furthers the discussion. Such issues are primarily intended to add to our knowledge and understanding of language and language learning. They also have an applied potential in language teaching programmes.

[2] The second use of language testing in experiments is a subset of the first use, in research. But there is an important difference. In the research use, we are

thinking of research into language testing; in the experimental use, we are thinking of tests as criteria for language teaching experiments, for example in method comparison.

[3] The third use is the washback effect on the syllabus of language testing (Clapham et al. 1997). The implications of test results and their meaning are employed as a critique of the syllabus and the teaching; while the testing structure, the content, and method of the tests themselves influence the teaching. We are concerned here with teaching to the test, for it is always the pejorative aspect of washback that is implied, but we stress that there is a positive side to this. The implications are, first, that teaching is influenced by testing and, second, that testing has an important responsibility – to ensure that its influence is constructive.

[4] The fourth use of language testing is measuring progress among learners, the most common type of test being the achievement test.

[5] The fifth use is in the selection of students on the basis of either previous learning or in terms of some more general language learning ability or aptitude for the next stage of education or a particular vocation. What is of interest here is the interaction between use for progress and use for selection, that is to what extent a valid test of progress is in itself a valid test for selection purposes.

[6] The sixth use is concerning the evaluation of courses, methods, and materials. This is a special use of testing which must cope with the learner variable, distinguishing itfrom the evaluation of the materials, programme, and so on.

Language assessment provides three types of message:

(a) **Message about skill:** to what extent learners have reached adequate proficiency. It is defined and the role of language tests in developing more specific and detailed indicators of adequate proficiencies.

(b) **Message about development:** It suggests progress along a very clear and obvious path towards ultimate attainment. Attached to this message about development for all language learners is an indication of the identity which the learner chooses. Information about development indicates assessment to both psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic provenance of the learner.

(c) **Message about knowledge:** Language users, both native speakers and non native speakers distinguish themselves in terms of their awareness of language. This shows itself both in the range of acceptability judgments they are prepared

to make and in the extent of their conscious metalinguistic reflecting upon language, which in turn demonstrates itself in knowledge about language and areas of ludic creativity. Such reification of language does seem to discriminate both among native speakers and among non-native speakers; it does, of course, have some bearing on our first message, that of skill, since there may well be an element of knowledge within skill which determines differential proficiency.

5.3.11 Forensic Linguistics

Forensic linguistics is defined as the stylistic analysis of statements made to the police by those accused of criminal activity. The applied linguist who works on languages for specific purposes (e.g. English for chemical engineers, tourist guides, or musicology) must seek advice on the content of those disciplines from specialists in these fields. Similarly, with forensic linguistics, the applied linguist needs advice about the workings of the law, insofar as they affect how evidence is to be given. Such advice will of course be given by the relevant specialist, in this case, the lawyer for the defense or prosecution, depending on which side the applied linguist is appearing for. In addition, if the case concerns an area with its own specialism (financial probity, aircraft parts), the applied linguist will need information from specialists in these areas on how to interpret the content of the transcripts which he/she is analyzing stylistically.

Since the applied linguist is called on to support one or other counsel as an expert witness rather than as the chief investigator in forensic language problems, it is likely to be the linguistic and phonetic factors that he/she must concentrate on. What is typically at issue here is whether it is probable that the accused said or wrote what he/she is recorded as having said or written. Such assessment requires a careful judgment of the accuser's level of English proficiency as well as a thorough stylistic analysis of the transcripts so as to infer whether someone at the proficiency level of the accused was likely to have made those statements and whether the transcript showed consistency of proficiency. In the case in question, the applied linguists' evidence was accepted and the accused acquitted.

5.2312 Lexicography

Lexicography is called a branch of applied linguistics. A lexicographer needs theoretical knowledge that includes more than linguistics. For would-be lexicographers, learning linguistics boils down to choices. Each topic in linguistics has more or less importance according to the types of dictionaries involved, the intention of the authors,

and above all the target: learners, native or non-native speakers, children or grown-ups, etc. Applied linguistics is defined and promoted as a didactic domain, along with applied rhetoric, applied ethnology, applied literary studies, for the benefit of lexicography. Such a domain centre on semantics (not only lexical) and morphology, but it does not leave out syntax, phonetics, and/or phonemics. It is close to sociolinguistics and anthropology and will include part of terminology, LSP, and documentary content analysis (Rey 1984: 95).

Applied linguists will be lexicographers in the tradition of the application of linguistics. We learn up about semantics, syntax morphology, phonetics, and phonemics (or phonology).There is a common core of knowledge and skill that all applied linguists need and thereafter they may specialize in one or more areas of interest. There is a central aspect of lexicography which is applied linguistics, a normative intervention on language in use. As such it is not primarily of interest to theoretical linguistics, which is not concerned with language in use. Applied linguistics for lexicography becomes applied linguistics which lexicographers need. As do language testers, language teachers, language planners, speech therapists, and so on. They will all need the further specialist input peculiar to their own vocation, just as lexicographers do.

It has been noted that many good or excellent theoreticians and scholars in linguistics proved unable to cope with such specific tasks as analyzing the sub-classes of occurrences of a word or lexical unit in a given corpus that would provide a lexicographically satisfactory structure; writing good definitions and choosing the right examples from a corpus. Many good linguists may well ignore everything relevant to producing a text about words, idioms, and phrases that were supposed to be used by, and useful to, somebody besides their fellow linguists. The necessary professional skills that are needed for lexicographers involve epistemology, etymology, technology, anthropology, history of culture, theory of literature, and many others. Such an expanded view of the linguistics necessary to the lexicographer matches our view of applied linguistics. After a course at the graduate level in applied linguistics, a successful student covers all the applied linguistics needed for the profession of lexicography.

Lexicographers compile dictionaries. But what is a dictionary? A dictionary is a systematically arranged list of socialized linguistic forms compiled from the speech habits of a given speech community and commented on by the author in such away that the qualified reader understands the meaning of each separate from, and is informed of the relevant facts concerning the functions of that form in its community(Berg quoted in Green 1996: 22).Further definitions examine the characteristics with the following criteria: a list

of separate graphic statements; a book designed for consultation; a book with two structures (word-list and contents); a book in which items are classed by form or content; a repository of information that is linguistic in nature; a repository of information that is explicitly didactic; a source of information about signs; a place where the word-list corresponds to a pre-determined set and is structured if not exhaustive.

Such technical definitions make clear just how complex is the task of the lexicographer and what sorts of knowledge and skills are necessary. But such a complex list has many holes, in that many collections that not only are labeled dictionaries but are referred to by that appellation does not conform in all characteristics. And what the list does not include is the crucial problem of selection. It is always the case that in any intervention on language which aims to capture its characteristics for whatever purpose (teaching, testing, listing its vocabulary) a selection must be made since the whole of the language can never be captured. The selection of items for a dictionary brings into sharp focus the problem and eventually the impossibility of distinguishing the descriptive and the prescriptive. As we have just seen, all description inevitably involves some measure of prescription.

5.4 Summing UP

Over the years, the focus of attention of applied linguistics has continued to broaden. Today applied linguistics is described as a means to help solve specific problems in society. Applied linguistics focuses on the numerous and complex areas in society in which language plays a role. There appears to be a consensus that the goal is to apply the findings and the techniques from research in linguistics and related disciplines to solve practical problems. To an observer, the most notable change in applied linguistics has been its rapid growth as an interdisciplinary field. In addition to foreign language teaching and machine translation, a partial sampling of issues considered central to the field of applied linguistics today includes topics such as language for special purposes (e.g. language and communication problems related to aviation, language disorders, law, medicine, science), language policy and planning, and language and literacy issues. For example, following the adoption of English as the working language for all international flight communication by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), some applied linguists concerned themselves with understanding the kinds of linguistic problems that occur when pilots or flight engineers from varying backgrounds communicate using a non-native language and how to better train them to communicate in English more effectively.

Some applied linguists are concerned with helping planners and legislators in countries develop and implement a language policy (e.g. planners are working to specify and to further develop roles in education and government not only for English but also for indigenous languages) or in helping groups develop scripts, materials, and literacy programs for previously unwritten languages (e.g. for many of the 850+ indigenous languages of Papua New Guinea).

Applied linguists have been concerned with developing the most effective programs possible to help adults many of whom have limited if any prior education, develop literacy in the languages which they will need for survival and occupational purposes. Other topics currently of concern to applied linguists are the broad issue of the optimal role of the mother tongue in the education of culturally and linguistically diverse students, the language of persuasion and politics, developing effective tools and programs for interpretation and translation, and language testing and evaluation.

In the United Kingdom, the first school of applied linguistics is thought to have opened in 1957 at the University of Edinburgh. In the United States, a non-profit educational organization (*Center for Applied Linguistics*) was founded in 1959. The Center's mission ("promote the study of language and to assist people in achieving their educational, occupational, and social goals through more effective communication") still remains pertinent. The organization carries out its mission by collecting and disseminating information through various clearinghouses that it operates, by conducting practical research, by developing practical materials, and training individuals such as teachers, administrators, or other human resource specialists to use these to reduce the barriers that limited language proficiency can pose for culturally and linguistically diverse individuals as they seek full and effective participation in educational or occupational opportunities.

5.5 Review Questions

[1] What are the major areas of applied linguistics? How do they help in the growth and expansion of the domain?

[2] How can you make distinctions between applied linguistics of the 1960s and that of the 2020s?

[3] What are the basic criteria for determining the success of a language development project?

[4] What are the main arguments of Language proficiency testing? How it is done?

[5] Why literary acquisition is considered an essential component of applied linguistics?

[6] What is pedagogy grammar? How does it differ from a general reference grammar?

[7] What is workplace communication? How does it relate to English for specific purposes?

[8] What is language planning? What role does an applied linguist play in language planning?

[9] How does Applied Linguistics contribute to forensic studies of language?

[10] What is lexicography? What kinds of applied linguistic information are required for developing a learner's dictionary?

5.6 Glossary of Terms

Critical pedagogy: It is a philosophy of education that has developed and applied concepts from critical theory (Kincheloe and Steinburg1997). It views teaching as an inherently political act, rejects the neutrality of knowledge, and insists that issues of social justice and democracy itself are not distinct from acts of teaching and learning. By creating appropriate conditions, teachers enable students to become cultural producers who can rewrite their experiences and perceptions. In a classroom setting, it requires teachers to give more power to the students to decide what are they studying, from what sources, and why.

Learner's dictionary: A dictionary that is specially designed for learners. It is designed to meet the reference needs of learners learning mother language or second language. These dictionaries are based on the premise that language-learners should progress from a bilingual dictionary to a monolingual one as they become more proficient in their target language, but that general-purpose dictionaries are inappropriate for their needs. Dictionaries for learners include information on grammar, usage, common errors, collocation, and pragmatics, which is largely missing from standard dictionaries because native speakers tend to know these aspects of language intuitively. While the definitions in standard dictionaries are often written in difficult language, in learner's dictionaries, these are written in simple and accessible vocabulary.

Linguicism: It refers to a situation that generates discrimination based on language or dialect. It is 'linguistically argued racism'. It is also known as 'linguistic

discrimination'. The term was first coined in the 1980s by linguist Tove Skutnabb-Kangas, who defined *linguicism*as" ideologies and structures that are used to legitimate, effectuate, and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources between groups which are defined on the basis of language."

Linguistic discourse: In linguistics, discourse refers to a unit of language longer than a single sentence. The word discourse is derived from the Latin prefix *dis-* meaning "away" and the root word *currere* meaning "to run". Discourse, therefore, translates to "run away" and refers to the way that conversations flow. To study discourse is to analyze the use of spoken or written language in a social context. Discourse studies look at the form and function of language in conversation beyond its small grammatical elements such as phonemes and morphemes. This field of study is interested to understand how larger units of language—including lexemes, syntax, and context—contribute meaning to conversations.

Metalinguistics: It refers to the branch of linguistics that deals with relations between language and other elements of a culture. It is the study of the internal relation between languages and the cultural systems they refer to. It also involves the study of dialogue relationships between units of speech communication as manifestations and enactments of co-existence. Some scholars describe Mikhail Bakhtin's interpretation of metalinguistics as "encompassing the life history of a speech community, with an orientation toward a study of large events in the speech life of people and embody changes in various cultures and ages."Metalinguistic skills involve an understanding of the rules used to govern a language. An essential aspect of language development is focused on the students being aware of language and the components of language.

Miscommunication: It is defined as a failure to communicate adequately and properly. It is one of the types of communication barrier. It is an instant where either the speaker is unable to provide the proper and adequate information to the hearer or the hearer misperceived and could not recognize the communication from the speaker. The cases of miscommunication vary depending on the situation and persons included in it but often result in confusion and frustration. Miscommunication may, in some cases, even open up the triangle of other factors that inevitably leads to a conflict.

Multiple literacies: The term *'multiple literacies'* (also called 'New literacies' or 'Multi-literacies') recognizes that there are many ways to relay and receive information, and students need to be proficient in each one. The four primary

areas of *multiple literacies* include visual literacy (ability to understand pictures, photographs, symbols, and videos), textual literacy (ability to analyze and respond to books, blogs, news articles, or websites),digital literacy (ability to locate, evaluate, and interpret information found through digital sources, such as websites, smartphones, and video games), and technological literacy (ability to use technologies such as social media, online video sites, and text messages appropriately, responsibly, and ethically)

Parastatal body: It refers to any company, management board, association, or statutory body in which the Government has a majority or controlling interest and includes a city, a municipality, or a district council established under the Local Government Act. That means it refers to a company, agency, or intergovernmental organization, that possesses political clout and is separate from the government, but whose activities serve the state, either directly or indirectly.

Speech impairment: Speech impairments or speech disorders are a type of communication disorder where normal speech is disrupted. It refers to an impaired ability to produce speech sounds and may range from mild to severe. It may include an articulation disorder, characterized by omissions or distortions of speech sounds; a fluency disorder, characterized by atypical flow, rhythm, and/or repetitions of sounds; or a voice disorder, characterized by abnormal pitch, volume, resonance, vocal quality, or duration.

Speech pathology: Speech-language pathology is a field of expertise practiced by a clinician known as a speech-language pathologist (SLP)or a speech and language therapist, both of whom may be known by the shortened description, speech therapist. Speech-language pathology is considered a 'related health profession' or 'allied health profession' along with audiology, optometry, occupational therapy, rehabilitation psychology, physical therapy, behavior analysis, and others. SLPs specialize in the evaluation, diagnosis, and treatment of communication disorders (speech and language impairments), cognitive-communication disorders, voice disorders, and swallowing disorders.

5.7 Books Recommended

[1] Bright, William (ed.) (1992) *International Encyclopaedia of Linguistics*, vol. 1, New York: Oxford University Press.

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Unit 6 ❑ Interlanguage and Errors of Interference

Structure

6.1 Objectives

At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to:

a. understand the concept of interlanguage as defined in linguistics

b. visualise how interlanguage can be exploited in language teaching situations

c. appreciate the place of errors in the process of language learning

d. understand the need to develop tolerance towards learner errors.

6.2 Introduction

Second language (L2) learning involves a gradual advancement from the learner's first language (L1) towards the target language (TL). During this process of learning, a learner naturally develops an intermediate language between his L1 and L2. It is neither L1 nor L2, rather a separate language having its own grammar and linguistic system. This inherent learner system is widely referred to as Interlanguage.The emergence of Interlanguage caused the shift in psychological perspectives of second language learning from a behaviourist approach to a mentalist one. In fact, the concept of Interlanguage, in many ways, has borrowed some of its major assumptions directly from the mentalist theories. This psycholinguistic concept was first introduced by the well-known theorist of the Second Language Acquisition (SLA), Larry Selinker in 1972. Since then, Interlanguage has become a major subject of scrutiny in the field of second language learning theories. Although Selinker was the chief proponent of the theory, subsequently, a few other theorists came forward to explain the same notion under different terms, such as*ApproximativeSystem* (Nemser 1971),*Transitional Competence* (Corder 1967), and *Idiosyncratic Dialect* (Corder 1973).

6.3 Definition of Interlanguage

Selinker introduced the idea of Interlanguage in 1972. It is built on Pit Corder's 1967 article *The Significance of Learners' Errors*. The principle behind interlanguage theory is that the language of second-language learners is governed by systematic rules and that these rules are different from those of the language being learned and from those of the learner's native language. Hence at every stage of learning, language learners do not merely copy what native speakers do but create an entirely new language system unique to themselves. Selinker named this interim language system an *interlanguage.* In his paper, he proposed that interlanguages have all the normal properties of natural languages. In other words, they are systematic and bound by rules in the same manner as any other language. Furthermore, he proposed that interlanguage is based on three basic principles: (i)*over-generalization* from patterns found in the language being learned, (ii) *transfer*from patterns found in the learner's native language, and (iii) *fossilization*, the phenomenon of a learner's language ceasing to develop.

(a) In a broader sense, Interlanguage is defined as the second language learner's present knowledge of the language he is learning.

(b) In a general sense, Interlanguage is defined as the interim grammars constructed by the learner of a second language on his way to the target language.

(c) In a narrower sense, Interlanguage refers to the intermediate status of the second language learner's system between his mother tongue and the target language.

6.4 Understanding the Concept

Interlanguage is a term for the linguistic system that underlies learner language. We can find this system when a learner tries to use learner language in unrehearsed communication. In Error Analysis (EA), we look at learner language in terms of deviance from the target language norms; we call that deviance as 'error.' In Interlanguage analysis, we look at the same learner language but from a different perspective. We now ask what kind of system the learner might be using to produce the patterns we observe then to use. From a functional perspective, Interlanguage is usefully viewed as a transitional linguistic system (at all levels: *phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics*) that is different from the target language system (TLS) and also different from the learner's native language system (NLS). We can describe it in terms of evolving linguistic patterns and norms, as well as can explain it in terms of specific cognitive and sociolinguistic processes that shape up this system called Interlanguage.

To illustrate the difference between Error Analysis (EA) and Interlanguage Analysis(IA) we may say that an Error Analysis might tell us that a learner makes a lot of errors in marking, say, gender features in French, while an Interlanguage Analysis, may alternatively show that a learner is using a system where masculine gender is used for all nouns and noun modifiers. This gender marking system results in some errors (e.g., *when referring to females*) but also some seemingly correct forms (e.g., *when referring to males*).The cognitive process of overgeneralization that leads to this pattern is very typical of Interlanguage.

Interlanguage is the type of language produced by second-and foreign- language learners who are in the process of learning a second or foreign language. In language learning, learner errors are caused by several different processes. In general, these processes include the followings:

(a) Borrowing patterns from the mother tongue

(b) Extending patterns from the target language

(c) Expressing meanings using the words and grammar which are already known

Interlanguage refers to the separateness of a second language learner's system, a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and the target language. Interlanguage is neither the system of the native language nor the system of the target language, but instead, it falls between the two. It is a system that is based upon the best attempt of learners to provide order and structure to the linguistic stimuli surrounding them. By a gradual process of trial and error and hypothesis testing, learners slowly, gradually, and tediously succeed in establishing closer and closer approximations to the system used by native speakers of the language. Based on Selinker's view, we can say that Interlanguage refers to the systematic knowledge of an L2 which is independent of both these learner's L1 and the target language. In recent times, the term has come to be used with different but related meanings, such as the followings:

(1) To refer to the series of interlocking systems which characterize acquisition,

(2) To refer to the system that is observed at a single stage of development (an interlanguage), and

(3) To refer to particular L1/L2 combinations(e.g., L1 French/L2 English v. L1 Japanese/L2 English).

Selinker suggests that Interlanguage, as the transitional process between L1 and L2, is observable in a learner's language and can be explored. He considers Interlanguage as a 'dialect whose rules share characteristics of two social dialects of languages whether these languages themselves share rules or not'. According to him, the notion of Interlanguage can be illustrated in the following diagram (Fig. 1)

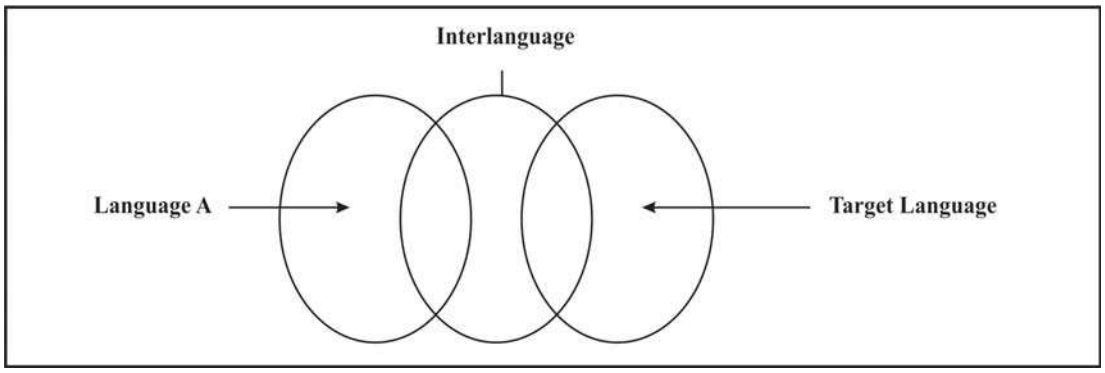

Fig. 1: The notion of the Interlanguage (From Corder, 1981: 17).
LA represents Learner's L1.

Pit Corder (1981), on the other hand, states that the learner's language could be considered as a dialect in the linguistic sense. He means that two languages that share some rules of grammar become dialects. Based on this claim, he states that language A and language B as illustrated in Fig. 2 are in a dialect relation which leads to Interlanguage (Fig. 2)

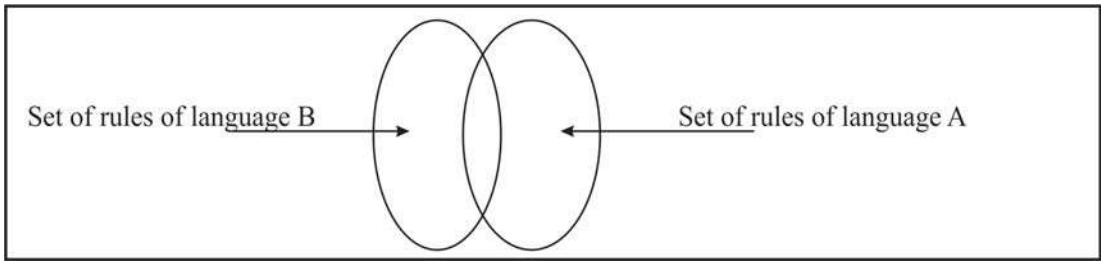

Fig. 2: The notion of dialect relation in language learning (Corder, 1981: 14)

In the first case, teachers can give appropriate feedback after checking out the learner's interlanguage. Learners need not worry so much about making mistakes. They can assume that making mistakes is a procedure of development from mother tongue to Second Language.The core assumptions underlying Interlanguage are as follows:

- Second language learning is a gradual progression from L1/NL/MT towards the L2/TL/FL.
- At every stage of learning the learner develops a system of rules that is neither the system of L1/NL/MT nor the system of L2/TL/FL, but instead falls between the two.
- The process of learning consists of rule formation or hypothesis-testing.
- The mistakes made by the learners are a natural procedure of language learning.
- There is a psychological structure latent in the brain, which is activated when one attempts to learn a second language.
- Many learners do not achieve the full L2/TL/FL competence.

6.5 Characteristics of Interlanguage

There are four characteristics or observable facts of Interlanguage theory. These characteristics are discussed and examined below (Tarone*et al.*, 2001).

6.5.1 Stability

Stability is the feature that shows consistency for using a certain rule or form over time in the field of Interlanguage learning. In other words, stability can be seen in using the same form twice by L2 learners. Scholars argue that it is not clear for us that a new language hypothesis is needed for more explanation about the human propensity to keep making the same errors or mistakes, and to learn things gradually. This feature of Interlanguage becomes less interesting when we find that one can differentiate between two types of Interlanguage users. Type one is associated with those whose Interlanguage is distinguished by stability, whilst the other type is characterized by instability. The main problem comes from deciding which type a student is. Deciding is based on the stability of a learner's Interlanguage.

6.5.2 Systematicity

Interlanguage is characterized as being systematic and not a random collection of rules or items. It follows a particular system of rules which makes it systematic. Although the rules are not essentially the same as the rules of the target language, Interlanguage, however, has a specific set of rules that are required by learners. Despite the variability of Interlanguage, it is probable to detect the rule-based nature of a learner's use of an

L2/FL. It is believed that that L2 speech can be called systematic when it reveals an internal consistency in the use of forms at a single point in time.

As a point of criticism, we may say that it is not very clear to us as to how internally consistent FL/L2 speech should be there before considering it systematic. More specifically, when a student learns an FL, he/she uses a smaller range of styles than the styles that are being used by the native speakers of the language. This is due to the native speakers' ranges of styles which are much more, compared to the L2 learner who has just acquired a few styles and command at his/her reach. Such a person is said to have more styles in his/her native language, which is the L1 they acquired and are familiar with.

6.5.3 Mutual Intelligibility

Scholars claim that Interlanguage can, by and large, be used for the sake of communication among the speakers. They can share different functions of communication with natural languages. Linguistically, mutual intelligibility is regarded as a relationship between dialects or languages, in which speakers of different languages can, to some extent, interchange and understand each other without extraordinary effort. Intelligibility among languages could be asymmetric as well. Mutual intelligibility is the inherent property of the Interlanguage which makes them to become members of the human language. The need to establish whether the learners of FL can communicate verbally with other languages other than their native language is put into consideration here. If this is found to be so, then the students are found to be able to share an Interlanguage and can be considered to be efficient. If the students are found not able to communicate with other languages, then they will be considered to possess the non-native grammar that causes them not to have the ability to make the emergence of an Interlanguage native.

The need to establish whether a learner in one first language class is able to communicate with and understand another student from another class being taught the first language is crucial. If this is found to be so, then students will have reached the Interlanguage. And if not, then they will be assumed not to having it. Accordingly, if students can understand each other, then they should have an Interlanguage. In case that they cannot, it is obvious that they will not have one. If they had one, they might be able to understand each other.

6.5.4 Backsliding

Backsliding is another feature of Interlanguage. All first language teachers are familiar

with the concept of backsliding. It means the linguistic mastery of a certain form in the target language, followed by loss, non-use, or misuse of the form. Selinker argues that backsliding is neither haphazard nor towards the speaker's native language but is toward an Interlanguage norm. He states that backsliding may happen when a L2 learner focuses on the meaning and makes or produces a formerly learnt Interlanguage form. Fossilized forms or structures continue in spite of error correction, explicit grammatical instruction, or explanation; and even if they are eradicated, they might occur again in spontaneous production. Such a phenomenon is called backsliding. In fossilization, no alternative rule of the target language can be available to the learner, whereas, in backsliding, there is always an alternative rule, but because of some contextual and emotional factors, the learners fail to use the right alternative rule. Therefore, scholars assert that the speaker should have intuitions about the correct rule or form, whereas, in the case of fossilization, he may not have that rule or form. This seems to us to imply that backsliding is evidence of a function in Interlanguage that has almost lost its permeability.

6.6 Variable Shapes of Interlanguage

The concept of Interlanguage has had a major impact on the field of second language acquisition. Studies on Interlanguage have often focused on the linguistic and psychological aspects of second language acquisition research. The Interlanguage concept is not only important for the development of the internal grammar system of students, but it also applies to other components of language. We also focus on the consequences of the concept for the teachers and their works in the classroom.

Before the 1960s, language was not considered to be a mental phenomenon. Like other forms of human behaviour, language was believed to be learnt by the processes of habit formation. A child learns his mother tongue by imitating the sounds and patterns he hears around him. By approval or disapproval, adults reinforce the child‘s attempts and lead the efforts to the correct forms.

Under the influence of cognitive linguistics, this explanation of first language acquisition was severely criticized. Language cannot be verbal behaviour only, since children are able to produce an infinite number of utterances that have never heard before. This creativity is only possible because a child develops a system of rules. A large number of studies have shown that children actually do construct their own rule system, which develops gradually until it corresponds to the system of the adults. There is also evidence to prove that children pass through similar stages of acquiring grammatical rules. Through

the influence of cognitive linguists and first language acquisition research, the notion developed that second language learners, too, could be viewed as actively constructing rules from the data they encounter and that they gradually adopt these rules in the direction of the target language. However wrong and inappropriate learners‘ sentences may be produced, which in regard to the target language system, are grammatical in their own terms since they are the products of the learner‘s own language system. This system gradually develops towards the rule-system of the target language.

The various shapes of the learner‘s language competence are called Interlanguage. The term draws attention to the fact that the learners’ language system is neither that of his mother tongue nor that of the second language, but contains elements of both. Therefore, errors need not be seen as signs of failure only, but as evidence of the learner‘s developing system. While the behaviourist approach led to teaching methods that use drills and consider errors as signs of failure, the concept of Interlanguage liberated language teaching and paved the way for communicative teaching methods. Since errors are considered a reflection of the students‘ temporary language system and therefore a natural part of the learning process, teachers could now use teaching activities that did not call for constant supervision of the student’s language. Group work and paired work became suitable means for both first and second language learning.

6.6.1 Developmental Sequence

One way we can see systematicity in learner language is in the common developmental sequence followed by learners from different native language backgrounds when they acquire such linguistic structures as questions or negation in English L2 or German L2. For example, videos in Tarone and Swierzbin (2009) show learners of English L2 producing the same stage 3 questions as they speak in unrehearsed communication tasks. In stage 3 questions, these learners start with a question word like “what” or “why” and then use declarative word order (Q + subject + verb + object):

Xue: What he is doing?
Antonio: Why this guy say, stop?
Catrine: Why the bus driver can’t stop for him?

Though the 3 learners above have different native languages (Chinese, Spanish, and French), they all produce stage 3 questions in English. Notice that stage 3 questions do not appear in English input from native speakers or English grammar books. Yet they

are part of a seemingly universal developmental sequence for second language acquisition of English questions.

6.6.2 Interlanguage Continuum

During L2 acquisition, the learner formulates the hypotheses about the system/rules of the target language. The rules are viewed as mental grammars that construct the Interlanguage system. These grammars are permeable. They are exposed to influences both from outside the learner and from the learner's internal processing. This suggests that the learner's performance is variable. These grammars are transitional. The learner changes his grammar from one time to another by adding rules, deleting rules, and restructuring the whole system. Thus, in every stage of learning, there is an Interlanguage. Through the gradual process of checking and rechecking hypotheses, the learner keeps changing his Interlanguage until the target language system is fully acquired/ shaped. This gradual progression naturally implies to an **Interlanguage Continuum** (Fig. 3).

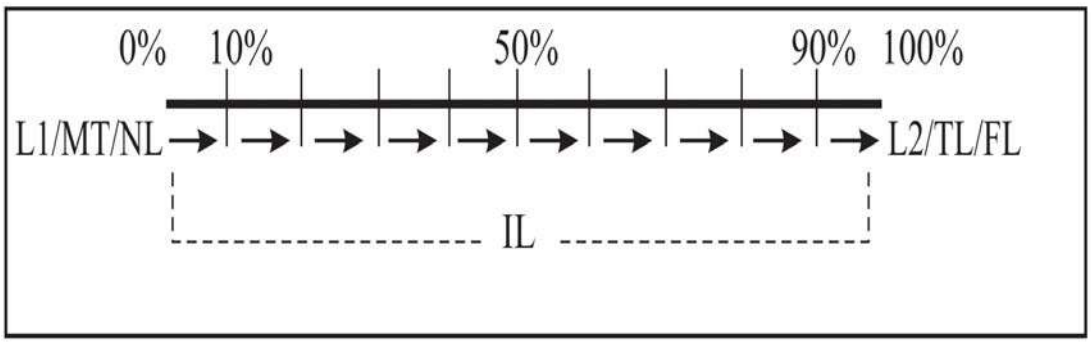

Fig. 3: Interlanguage Continuum as visualized in Interlanguage

The above figure (Fig. 3) suggests that Interlanguage is a dynamic phenomenon which can be illustrated with a continuum, of which one end is L1 and the other end is L2. The learner constantly moves along the Interlanguage continuum of which the destination is the complete mastery of the target language.

6.7 Language Devices

Interlanguage can proceed by adopting two types of mechanisms:

1. **L1 Mechanisms:** L2 learners can utilize the same mechanisms as L1 learners adopt during language acquisition:

(a) **Universal Grammar (UG):** This device is postulated by Chomsky. Chomsky asserts that there are certain principles that all possible natural human languages have. These principles are biologically determined and specialized for language learning.

(b) **Latent Language Structure (LLS):** This device is a counterpart to Universal Grammar. It was proposed by Eric Lenneberg. The proponent assumes that the child's brain has an innate propensity for language acquisition and that this propensity is lost as maturation takes place.

Originally, both theories were associated with L1 acquisition. Their principles were adopted by the researchers of second language acquisition in order to provide explanations for the existence of developmental sequences in Interlanguage and to view L2 acquisition as a natural process.

2. **Alternative Mechanisms**: L2 learners can use other mechanisms too.

(a) **Latent Psychological Structure (LPS):** This device is postulated by Selinker. He argues that 5% of L2 learners attain mastery in their target language by using the Latent Language Structure (LLS). On the other hand, 95% of L2 learners achieve competence in their target language by using the Latent Psychological Structure (LPS).The Latent Psychological Structure is different from that of the Latent Language Structure with respect to the following facts:

(a) It has no direct genetic time table (i.e., not subject to a critical period)

(b) It has no direct connection with any grammatical concept (e.g., Universal Grammar)

(c) It has no guarantee of activation or realization into particular grammar structures of the L2.

(d) Although this device is considered independent, possible overlapping may occur between this structure and other areas of the brain.

Within the Latent Psychological Structure there exist several important notions:

6.7.1 Fossilization

Selinker recognizes **fossilization** as an important mechanism of the Latent Psychological Structure. He assumes that many learners will not achieve the total mastery of L2, but will stop somewhere in the middle with their language still affected by errors.

Fossilization can take place at any stage of the learning process, even at a very early age. According to him, out of all the L2 learners, only 5% of them are thoroughly successful as to be able to reach the end of the Interlanguage Continuum. And when the learners stop progressing any further, their Interlanguage is said to have fossilized. However, the successful learner does not fossilize, rather, constantly moves along the Interlanguage continuum.

6.7.2 Psycholinguistic Processes

Selinker points out five psycholinguistic processes which determine the fossilized forms:

I. Overgeneralization: fossilization due to the use of an L2 rule in those contexts where it is not required.

II. Transfer of Training: fossilization due to certain features found in the instruction via which the learner is taught the second language.

III. Strategies of Second Language Learning: fossilization due to some approach to the learning of L2 material adopted by the learner.

IV. Strategies of Second Language Communication: fossilization due to some approaches used by the learner when communicating with L2 native speakers.

V. Language Transfer: fossilization due to L1 influence.

The above processes can be visualized through a diagram (Fig. 4) in the following way:

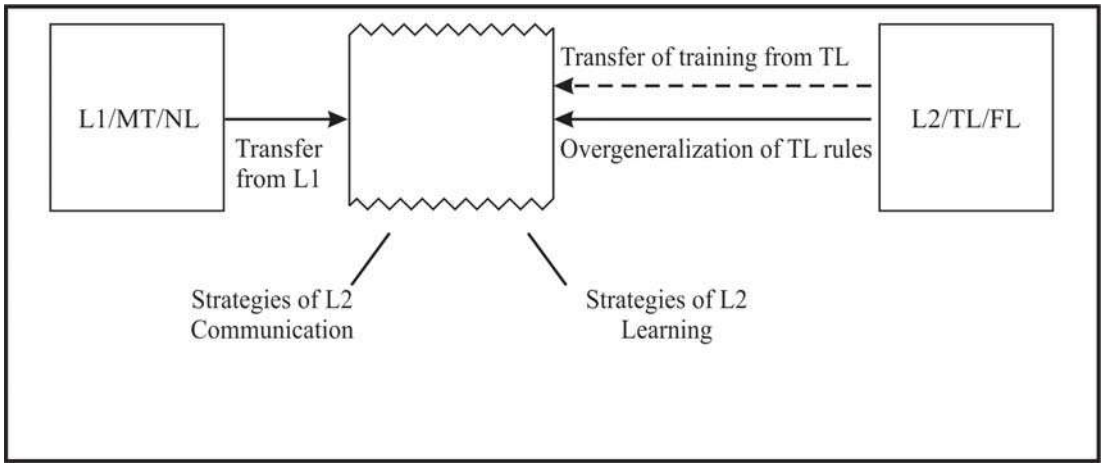

Fig. 4: Fossilization-Determining Processes (Adapted from Krzeszowski, 1977:77)

6.7.3 Human Cognition in Acquisition

Researchers believe that developmental sequences in second language acquisition result from the cognitive processes in the human brain. Language processing is a process that all human beings can be expected to use whenever they learn a second language. Research and studies now suggest that it is common for learners to form over generalized rules at first, and also (as we have already seen) that there are developmental sequences that learners can be expected to move through on their own if they are provided with adequate input in the language, the opportunity to use the language to communicate, and corrective feedback from more knowledgeable users of the language. In other words, Corder's (1967) construct of the learner's 'built-in syllabus' has some research supports.

6.8 Strength and Weakness of Interlanguage

From the above discussion, it is apparent to us that the interpretation of Interlanguage is partially undertaken by investigating and interpreting the errors produced by the L2 learners. Hence, Error Analysis (EA) has become a prevailing learning method in Interlanguage development. The theory of Interlanguage is significant for a number of reasons:

(a) Strengths

(a) The study of Interlanguage is systematic and universal by nature. Like the Innate Theory of L1 acquisition, Interlanguage theory considers the learner as an active participator, since he is capable of constructing rules from the data he encounters.

(b) The study of Interlanguage helps to determine what the learner already knows at a certain point of time and what he has to be taught when and how in a particular second language teaching programme.

(c) The concept of Interlanguage has liberated language teaching methods. It has paved the way for the Communicative Teaching approach. Since errors are considered a natural part of a learning process, teachers now tend to use those teaching activities which do not require constant supervision of the learner's language. Consequently, group work and paired work have become suitable means for language learning these days.

(b) Weakness

Despite many positive sides, some of the assumptions of Interlanguage have been criticized for their weaknesses:

(a) A major Interlanguage criticism relates to its limited explanatory power. The theory assumes that the linguistic stage that a learner belongs can be predicted by way of analyzing his errors. However, Error Analysis as a mode of inquiry is limited in its scope as it concentrates on what the learner did wrong rather than on what made him successful. It is often impossible to identify the unitary source of an error.

(b) Error Analysis gives the learner the required base for improvements of his Interlanguage rules. But researches confirm that too much correction can lead to a lack of motivation and thereby leading many correct utterances to be unnoticed. Thus the learner needs to be restricted to important errors only.

(c) The theories of Interlanguage cannot determine how the exact position of the learner in between L1 and L2 will be interpreted.

Interlanguage is, by far, the strongest contender amongst the second language learning theories. The theory of Interlanguage was the first major attempt to explain the process of second language learning in terms of mentalist perspectives. After its introduction by Selinker, it has been gradually developed by the hands of numerous researchers. At this time, it has become much refined and also contributed a lot in developing many other theories. Although vague in many points, it has been able to provide significant suggestions for the theories of second language learning.

6.9 Error Analysis

Error Analysis (EA) emerged as a reaction to Contrastive Analysis (CA) theory which considered native language interference as the major source of errors in second language learning. An error is the use of a word, speech act, or grammatical items in such a way it seems imperfect and significant of incomplete learning. It is considered as a systematic deviation that happens when a learner has not learnt something, and consistently gets it wrong. However, the attempts made to put the error into context have always gone hand in hand with either language learning or second-language acquisition processes. Errors are ‘signals’ that indicate how an actual learning process

is taking place and that the learner has not yet mastered or shown a well-structured competence in the target language.

All the definitions seemed to stress either on the systematic deviations triggered in the language learning process or its indications of the actual situation of the language learner themselves which will later help the monitor be it an applied linguist or particularly the language teacher to solve the problem respecting one of the approaches. The occurrence of errors doesnot only indicate that the learner has not learned something yet, but also it gives the linguist the idea of whether the teaching method applied was effective or it needs to be changed.

6.9.1 Significance of Errors

According to Pit Corder (1976) errors are significant of the following three things:

(a) First, to the teacher, in that they tell him if he or she undertakes a systematic analysis, how far towards that goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains for him to learn.

(b) Second, they provide the researcher with evidence of how language is learned or acquired, and what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language.

(c) Third (and in a sense, this is their most important aspect) they are indispensable to the learner himself because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn. The occurrence of errors is merely sign of 'the present inadequacy of our teaching methods' (Corder 1976, p. 163).

There have been two schools of thought when it comes to Errors Analysis and the philosophy behind it.

(a) The first one, according to Corder (1967), linked the errors commitment with the teaching method arguing that if the teaching method was adequate, the errors would not be committed.

(b) The second school believed that we live in an imperfect world and that error correction is something real and the applied linguists cannot do without it no matter what teaching approach they may use.

Corder proposed a hypothesis that errors are evidence of learner's strategies of acquiring the language rather than the signs of inhibition or interference of persistent old habits. He argued that studying student's errors also has immediate practical applications

for foreign language teachers. Errors provide necessary feedback. They tell the teachers something about the effectiveness of his teaching materials and his teaching techniques and show him what parts of the syllabus he has been following have been inadequately learned or taught and need further attention. Errors enable him to decide whether he must devote more time to the item he has been working on. This is the day-to-day value of errors. But in terms of broader planning and with a new group of learners, errors provide the information for designing a remedial syllabus or a programme of re-teaching the course.

According to the state of the art of errors in language teaching, itis important for teachers to be aware of the basic position that errors, as a natural and indispensable part of the learning process, should neither be tolerated nor corrected excessively. Therefore, the main objective of L2 teaching is to develop the ability of the learner to communicate in the target language. What are certain are that errors are an integral part of learning a second/foreign language; these are natural parts of the learner's gradual movement toward the development of communicative competence, and he/she should be allowed to make certain types of errors which do not greatly affect their communication. It indicates that errors are a part of the learner's language development, a sign of the learner's learning. What is important is that errors can be guided to help the students, language teachers, syllabus designers in acquiring second language acquisition. It is acknowledged that Error Analysis is one of the major important topics of Applied Linguistics and it can be used to promote and improve language teaching strategies in ELT classrooms. What is remarkable in Error Analysis is that the teachers should be familiar with the difference between the first and the target language.

6.9.2 Error and Language Interference

Error, which is always a central concern in language teaching, becomes *the* central concern in audio-lingual approaches to language teaching. The collections of frequently occurring errors already existed. Traditional textbooks had long paid attention to what were felt to be the errors most likely to occur and tried to guard learners against particular pitfalls in phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexis. These areas of special difficulty might derive either from intra-lingual or inter-lingual factors. At the lexical level, for example, *intra-lingual lexical difficulties* were mooted where minimal formal differences in the foreign language involved major semantic differences (e.g., 'bowl' and 'bowel').On the other hand, *inter-lingual lexical difficulties* were mooted typically when a form in the foreign language was very similar to a form in the learner's native language, but the meaning was different (e.g., German *'blamieren'* and English *'blame'*).

For a long time, there was no principled approach to language teaching based on error. In the late1950s and 1960s this situation started to change. The focus shifted very much towards inter-lingual errors rather than intra-lingual ones. The highly influential factor, in this regard, was the publication of *Languages in Contact*(1953) by Uriel Weinreich. In this book, Weinreich displayed his prodigious knowledge of European languages. He was primarily interested not in classroom language learners, but in the way, languages influence each other when they come in contact. This is the phenomenon of **language interference,** with the influence usually being from the stronger language to the weaker language. Weinreich's great contribution was to posit a psychological or psycholinguistic explanation for language interference. He suggested that any speaker of two languages will tend to identify sounds, words, structures, and meanings in one language with corresponding elements in the other language, that is to say, speakers of two or more languages are engaged in a process of making 'inter-lingual identifications' (Weinreich 1953: 7). Many speakers of two languages are thus working with a linguistic repertoire which is more extensive than the repertoire of either of the languages individually, but less extensive than the sum of the two repertoires together, because of the process of inter-lingual identification which replaces two distinct forms or meanings from the two languages with a single form or meaning which does service for both. These are instances of 'compound bilinguals', in Weinreich's terms, in contradistinction to 'co-ordinate bilinguals', who in theory at least, have two complete languages separately stored in the brain without any kind of cross-lingual influence operating.

For the foreign language learner, the usual direction of the influence will be from the mother tongue to the foreign language. At the phonological level, this will produce typical foreign pronunciations. The German learner of English may, for example, replace the English weak alveolar [r] sound with a German uvular [r] in English. At the level of structures, the German *perfekt* may be identified with the English present perfect tense, for example, and the learner may use the present perfect when he or she would use the *perfekt* in German. At the lexical level, English *irritated*may be used to mean the same as German *irritiert*, *book* made to correspond semantically to *buch*, *house* identified with *haus*, and so on. In the case of long-standing immigrants, however, the 'new' language may actually begin to influence the mother tongue. Thus, long-standing immigrants are sometimes said to speak their mother tongue with anL2 accent, or to use L2 structures or lexical items when they are using L1, and not just *vice versa*.

Weinreich's differentiated insights into cross-lingual influence became simplified by those applying them to language teaching, who gave them a deterministic turn. Scholars

maintained that the grammatical apparatus programmed into the mind as the first language interferes with the smooth acquisition of the second. The influence of Eric Lenneberg's (1967) *Biological Foundations of Language* perhaps underlies this observation. Lenneberg suggested that there is a 'critical period' for language acquisition, which ends at puberty, that "foreign accentscannot be overcome easily after puberty" and that "automatic acquisition from mere exposure [...] seems to disappear after this age" (Lenneberg 1967: 176). Lenneberg was a neurologist, and his book was concerned with aphasia based on clinical studies, but his totally unsupported observations on foreign language learning were, mysteriously enough, highly influential on language teaching theory and served to strengthen the already prevalent emphasis on error prevention and eradication.

6.9.3 Contrastive Analysis as a Predictor of Error

The main idea of contrastive analysis, as propounded by Robert Lado in his book *Linguistics Across Cultures*(1957), was that it is possible to identify the areas of difficulty a particular foreign language will present for native speakers of another language by systematically comparing the two languages and cultures. Where the two languages and cultures are similar, learning difficulties will not be expected, where they are different, then learning difficulties are to be expected, and the greater the difference, the greater the degree of expected difficulty. On the basis of such analysis, it was believed, teaching materials could be tailored to the needs of learners of a specific first language. Lado himself was an English and Spanish bilingual, who was born in America of Spanish parents, grew up in Spain, and then went to college in the USA. He was all too aware of the importance of cultural differences in mastering a foreign language. However, his appeal to compare cultures was not taken up, and in practice contrastive analysis focussed on a surface comparison of languages, starting with the sounds, then the grammar, and finally—and only selectively—the vocabulary.

This emphasis reflected the focus of American linguistics at the time, which was still very much under the influence of structuralism as espoused by the great American Structuralist Bloomfield in *Language*(1933). Structural linguistics viewed language as a rule-governed system which could be separated into hierarchically arranged sub-systems, each of which had its own internal patterns and structure. The lowest level in the hierarchy was phonology, then morphology, then the syntax. The lexicon received scant attention from the Structuralist and the discourse level of language was quite ignored. In

fact, structural linguistics coped best with closed or finite linguistic systems, and, for this reason, deliberately excluded semantics from its description. Bloomfield's (1933: 140) conclusion that "the statement of meanings is, therefore, the weak point in language study, and will remain so until human knowledge advances very far beyond its present state" is often quoted.

In the period immediately after World War II, there was renewed interest in language learning and language teaching in the United States, and efforts were made at the University of Michigan to apply the ideas of structural linguistics to language teaching, perhaps most influentially by Charles Fries (1945). The approach to language teaching advocated by the Michigan School laid great emphasis on the principled selection and grading of linguistic items for instruction. It was essentially an analytic, atomistic approach, which took a language apart in order to then put the parts back together again in their logical order during the teaching process, and in this sense, it claimed to be scientific. Lado himself actually studied at the University of Michigan with Fries, and contrastive analysis became the basis for the strict selection and grading of material for teaching which was characteristic of language courses at the time. Fries advocated a bottom-up approach to language learning from phonology to morphology to syntax with the vocabulary being held to a minimum:

> [...] the chief problem is not at first that of learning vocabulary items. It is, first, the mastery of the sound system[...]second, the mastery of the features of arrangement that constitute the structure of the language. (Fries1945: 3)

This Structuralist emphasis of the Michigan School found its expression in audio-lingual language teaching, which sought to drill structural patterns, proceeding from the simple to the complex, while filling the slots in the patterns with a limited number of lexical items and insisting on correct pronunciation (e.g. *I brush my teeth with a tooth-brush, I brush my shoes with a shoe-brush, I brush my hair with a hair-brush*).

The contrastive analysis became associated with behaviourist psychology, which was another separate influence on language teaching, particularly on audio-lingual language teaching, and especially in the United States. Behaviourism was a general theory of learning. It viewed learning as habit formation brought about by repeated patterns of stimulus, response, and reinforcement. For language teaching, this fitted in nicely with the pedagogue's piece of folk wisdom that "practice makes perfect". In other words, learners should be provided with a linguistic stimulus (for example a question to answer,

a sentence to put into the negative form, a word to put into the plural form) and be told whether their answer was right (positive reinforcement) or wrong (negative reinforcement). They should be encouraged to repeat correct forms, and, by careful selection and grading of material, possible mistakes should be minimized by the course designer. If mistakes did occur, they were to be immediately corrected by the teacher so that bad habits were not formed. Particular emphasis was placed on the idea that error was to be avoided at all costs, and the idea that one can learn from one's mistakes found no place in language teaching theory and practice at this time. As time went on, various shortcomings of the contrastive analysis approach became apparent.

(a) Although Lado sought to identify areas of language learning *difficulty*, in practice contrastive analysis was used to predict error. This assumes that error and difficulty can be equated. This may not necessarily be true since language difficulty is a psycholinguistic concept, whereas error is part of language product. Learners may focus a lot of attention on those aspects of the language they perceive as difficult so as not to make mistakes, and may actually make mistakes in areas where they do not perceive great difficulty. These are ***'careless mistakes'*** in traditional language teaching terms. The contrastive analysis does not provide for the possibility that the learner actively sets about the learning task, but rather sees the learner as a passive recipient of language interference operating in a mechanistic fashion outside the learner's control.

(b) The contrastive analysis assumed that error derives exclusively from first language interference. Error analysis studies, however, have indicated that certain errors recur among language learners of various L1 backgrounds and seem to be more related to the intrinsic difficulty of the subsystem involved than cross-lingual influence. No matter what your first language is, whether it has prepositions or not, almost certainly find it very difficult to make no mistakes in English prepositions. Similarly, even if your language has the category of verbal aspect, you will find it difficult to make no mistakes in the choice between simple and progressive verb forms in English. These errors, which learners tend to make regardless of their first language background, are termed '***developmental errors'***.

(c) There have been controversies in the literature concerning what proportion of errors learners make are attributable to first language influence. Contrastive analysis cannot predict these developmental errors. For example, German

learners persist for some time in making erroneous choices between 'much' and 'many' despite the fact that German also makes a formal distinction between singular *viel* and plural *viele*. This is not predicted by contrastive analysis of English and German. The fact that errors may not tell the whole story about learning difficulty was exemplified with respect to avoidance in a study of relative clauses used by learners from various language backgrounds. It was found that learners whose native languages had (e.g., Persian, Arabic) actually made more, not fewer, errors in relative clauses than those learners whose languages did not have relative clauses (i.e., Japanese, Chinese). However, the Japanese and Chinese learners in the study used fewer relative clauses than Arabic-speaking and Persian-speaking learners. In the case of relative clauses, the learning difficulty which the contrastive hypothesis would predict was manifested in avoidance rather than error, probably because there are various structural alternatives to relative clauses.

(d) Other flaws in the predictive power of contrastive analysis have been identified. Not only does contrastive analysis fail to predict some errors, it actually predicts some inter-lingual errors which do not occur. One category of this phenomenon is related to the uni-directionality of some contrastive errors. It is found that differences between English and French may not necessarily predict error both for English learners of French and French learners of English. An example is the position of direct pronoun objects, which are placed before the verb in French (*le chien**le** mange*) but after the verb in English (*the dog eats **it***). English learners of French are more likely to say **le chien mange le* than French learners of English are likely to say **the dog it eats*. This is possibly because English learners of French hear lots of examples of SVO in French (where the object is not a preposition), whereas French learners of English never hear SOV order in English and so are less tempted to follow the word order of their native language.

Advanced learners seem to have hunches about which elements of their language are transferable. In a study with advanced Dutch learners of English, it is found that they were more willing to transfer patterns from their native language to English where the meaning was literal and unwilling to do so in idiomatic or metaphorical environments. Also, it is found that advanced German learners unwilling to accept idioms like '*you have a screw loose'*, precisely because German uses the same metaphor. Learners' knowledge of the general patterns of the foreign language may actually lead them into

an error where the foreign language unusually follows the pattern of their mother tongue. Thus, an advanced English-speaking learner of German may produce erroneous plural forms such as **Streike*for *Streiks*, although the German, in this case, follows the pattern of English plural morphology.

The contrastive analysis assumed that errors have only one cause, namely influence from the mother-tongue. However, it has since been found that intra-lingual and inter-lingual factors often combine to produce an error. For example, in the acquisition of English sentence negation all learners, regardless of language background, go through the same stages, and at an early stage all learners will use pre-verbal negation (e.g., *no understand*). However, Spanish or Italian learners, whose native language has pre-verbal negation, are likely to persist with pre-verbal negation longer than German learners, whose language does not have it. At a later stage of development, all learners will tend to place the negative after the auxiliary. At this stage, however, German learners, under the influence of their L1, which has post-verbal negation, may overgeneralize the English rule of negative placement after auxiliaries and produce post-verb negation with main verbs (e.g., **They come not home*), which follows German word order.

The contrastive analysis model works best in predicting phonological error. However, errors of morphology, syntax, lexis, and discourse are imperfectly predicted by the contrastive analysis. Above the phonological level, language planning is far more under the control of the learner, who may adopt certain strategies to cope with difficulty, more or less consciously. These include avoidance of difficult forms and simplification of subsystems of the foreign language. Learners may also make informed guesses about a form not yet acquired (inferencing) and, on the basis of such inferences, try things out in the foreign language (hypothesis testing). These hypotheses are likely to be based on knowledge of the foreign language, the mother tongue, and indeed other foreign languages which the learner may know. All this behaviour is ignored by contrastive analysis, which, in keeping with the Structuralist linguistic model which underpins it, refuses to admit the possibility of variegated.

6.9.4 Errors vs. Mistakes

Chomsky made a distinguishing explanation of competence and performance on which, later on, the identification of mistakes and errors will be possible, Chomsky stated that we make a fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and performance (the actual use of language in concrete

situations). In other words, errors are thought of as indications of an incomplete learning, and that the speaker or hearer has not yet accumulated a satisfied language knowledge which can enable them to avoid linguistics misuse. Relating knowledge with competence was significant enough to represent that the competence of the speaker is judged by means of errors that concern the amount of linguistic data he or she has been exposed to, however, a performance which is the actual use of language does not represent the language knowledge that the speaker has.

According to scholars, people may have the competence to produce an infinitely long sentence but when they actually attempt to use this knowledge (to 'perform') there are many reasons why they restrict the number of adjectives, adverbs, and clauses in any one sentence. The actual state of the speaker somehow involves and influences the speaker's performance by either causing a good performance or mistakes. Thus, it is quite obvious that there is some kind of interrelationship between competence and performance. Somehow, a speaker can perform well if he or she has had already satisfied linguistic knowledge. As a support to this, Corder mentioned that mistakes are of no significance to 'the process of language learning'.

There has been a great deal of discussion in language teaching over errors and related terms of errors among language scholars in recent years. However, every learner makes mistakes, even when speaking his mother tongue. It is mentioned that for a foreign language learner who knows his target language quite well, when he makes mistakes, he has the ability to recognize and to correct them, but sometimes he does not recognize his mistakes. Mistakes are quite different from errors. Error is defined as a lack of a learner's knowledge of the language which he uses. Scholars suggested a distinction between errors at the level of performance from errors at the level of competence. They mentioned that mistakes are errors of performance and unsystematic. They are potentially correctible by their author or speaker. Whereas, errors of competence are errors which reveal the underlying knowledge of the language and they are systematic and part of the transitional competence of the learner.

Pit Corder distinguished between 'lapses', 'mistakes', and 'errors'. According to him, errors are divided into two categories: first is the performance category which is comprised of 'lapses' and mistakes, and the second is the competence category which is comprised of 'errors'. Slips of the tongue, false starts, confusion of structures, etc., are termed 'lapses'. In addition to the fact that errors differ from lapses and mistakes in that they are breaches of the code, that is, they offend the grammatical rules of the

language and result in 'ungrammatical' and 'unacceptable' utterances; errors occur because the learner has not internalized the grammar of the second language in the way that it is required.

6.9.5 Error Analysis Approach

Before the rise of error analysis approach, contrastive analysis had been the dominant approach used in dealing and conceptualizing the learners' errors. In the 1950s, this approach had often gone hand in hand with the concept of L1 interference and precisely the inter-lingual effect. It is claimed that the main cause of committing errors in the process of second language learning is the L1, in other words, the linguistic background of the language learners badly affects the production in the target language. The contrastive analysis hypothesis claimed that the principal barrier to second language acquisition is the interference of the first language system with the second language system and that a scientific, structural comparison of the two languages in question would enable people to predict and describe which are the problems and which are not. Error analysis approach overwhelmed and announced the decline of the Contrastive Analysis which was only effective in phonology.

Error Analysis approach developed as a branch of Linguistics in the 1960s and it came to light to argue that the mother tongue was not the main and the only source of the errors committed by the learners. In addition, it is mentioned that the language effect is more complex and these errors can be caused even by the target language itself and by the applied communicative strategies as well as the type and quality of the second language instructions.The aim of error analysis is, therefore, should include the following processes:

(a) First, to identify strategies that learners use in language learning, in terms of the approaches and strategies used in both teaching and learning.

(b) Second, to try to identify the causes of learners' errors, that is, investigating the motives behind committing such errors as the first attempt to eradicate them.

(c) Third, to obtain information on common difficulties in Language Learning, as an aid to teaching or in the preparation of the teaching materials.

Error analysis in Second Language Acquisition was established in the 1960s. It was an alternative approach to contrastive analysis, an approach influenced by behaviourism through which applied linguists sought to use the formal distinctions

between the learners' first and second languages to predict errors. Error analysis showed that contrastive analysis was unable to predict a great majority of errors, although it is more valuable aspects have been incorporated into the study of language transfer. A key finding of error analysis has been that many learner errors are produced by learners making faulty inferences about the rules of the new language.

(a) Error analysts distinguish between errors, which are systematic, and mistakes, which are not. They often seek to develop a typology of errors.

(b) An error can be classified according to basic type: omissive, additive, substitutive, or related to word order. They can be classified by how apparent they are: *overt* errors such as *'I angry'* are obvious even out of context, whereas *covert* errors are evident only in context. Closely related to this is the classification according to *the domain*, the breadth of context which the analyst must examine, and the *extent*, the breadth of the utterance which must be changed in order to fix the error.

(c) Errors may also be classified according to the level of language: phonological errors, vocabulary or lexical errors, syntactic errors, and so on.

(d) Errors may be assessed according to the degree to which they interfere with communication: *global* errors make an utterance difficult to understand, while *local* errors do not. In the above example, *'I angry'* would be a local error, since the meaning is apparent.

From the beginning, error analysis was beset with methodological problems. In particular, the above typologies are problematic. From linguistic data alone, it is often impossible to reliably determine what kind of error a learner is making. Also, error analysis can deal effectively only with learner production (i.e., *speaking and writing*) and not with learner reception (i.e., *listening and reading*).Furthermore, it cannot account for learner use of communicative strategies such as avoidance, in which learners simply do not use a form with which they are uncomfortable. For these reasons, although error analysis is still used to investigate specific questions in Second Language Acquisition, the quest for an overarching theory of learner errors has largely been abandoned. In the mid-1970s, scholars moved on to a more wide-ranging approach to learner language, known as Interlanguage.

Error analysis is closely related to the study of error treatment in language teaching. Today, the study of errors is particularly relevant for focus on form teaching methodology.

In Second language Acquisition, error analysis studies the types and causes of language errors. Errors are classified according to the following criteria:

- modality (i.e., level of proficiency in speaking, writing, reading, listening)
- linguistic levels (i.e., pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, style)
- form (e.g., omission, insertion, substitution)
- type (i.e., systematic errors/errors in competence vs. occasional errors/errors in performance)
- cause (e.g., interference, interlanguage)
- norm vs. system

According to Corder, we should apply the following steps in any typical Error Analysis research.

(a) collecting samples of learner language

(b) identifying the errors

(c) describing the errors

(d) explaining the errors

(e) evaluating/correcting the errors

The nature and quantity of errors are likely to vary depending on whether the data consist of natural, spontaneous language use or careful, elicited language use. We distinguish two kinds of elicitation: *clinical elicitation* and *experimental elicitation*. The *clinical elicitation* involves getting the informant to produce data of any sort, for example, by means of the general interview or writing a composition. The *experimental elicitation*, on the other hand, involves the use of the special instrument to elicit data containing linguistic features such as a series of pictures which had been designed to elicit specific features.

6.9.6 Types of Error

Linguists have always been attempting to describe the types of errors committed by language learners, and that is exactly the best way to start with, as it helps out the applied linguists to identify where the problem lies. According to scholars, errors take place when the learner changes the surface structure in a particularly systematic manner, thus, the error, no matter what form and type it is, represents damage at the level of

the target language production. Errors have been classified into two categories. The Inter-lingual Error and the Intra-lingual Error, those two elements refer respectively to the negative influence of both the speaker's native language and the target language itself. The two major types of error, coined by the error analysis approach, are the followings:

(a) **Inter-lingual error**: This error is made by the learner's linguistic background and native language interference. It is caused by the interference of the native language L1 (also known as *interference, linguistic interference, and cross-linguistic influence*), whereby the learner tends to use their linguistic knowledge of L1 on some Linguistic features in the target language, however, it often leads to making errors. For example, the incorrect French sentence *Elle regarde les* ('She sees them'), produced according to the word order of English, instead of the correct French sentence *Elle les regarde* (Literally, 'She them sees'). It shows that this type of error is aroused by the negative effect of the native language interference.

(b) **Intra-lingual error**: This error is committed by the learners when they misuse some target language rules, considering that the error cause lies within and between the target language itself and the learners' false application of certain target language rules. This error takes place due to a particular misuse of a particular rule of the target language. It is, in fact, quite the opposite of Inter-lingual error. It puts the target language into focus, the target language in this perspective is thought of as an error cause. Furthermore, it results from faulty or partial learning of the target language. Thus the intra-lingual error is classified as follow:

(i) **Overgeneralization:** It occurs when the speaker applies a grammatical rule in cases where it does not apply. It is caused by the extension of target language rules to inappropriate context. These kinds of errors have been committed while dealing with regular and irregular verbs, as well as the application of plural forms. E.g. (tooth =*tooths* rather than *teeth*) and (he goes = *he goed* rather than *went*).

(ii) **Simplification:** It results from learners producing simpler linguistic forms than those found in the target language. In other words, learners attempt to be linguistically creative and produce their own poetic sentences/ utterances, they may actually be successful in doing it, but it is not necessarily the case. It is mentioned that learners do not have a complex

system which they could simplify. This kind of error is committed through both omission and addition of some linguistic elements at the level of either spelling or grammar.

(iii) **Developmental errors:** this kind of error is somehow part of the overgeneralizations. These are results of a normal pattern of development, such as (*come = comed*) and (*break = breaked*). It indicates that the learner has started developing their linguistic knowledge and fails to reproduce the rules they have lately been exposed to in target language learning.

(iv) **Induced errors:** as known as transfer of training, errors caused by misleading teaching examples, teachers, sometimes, unconditionally, explain a rule without highlighting the exceptions or the intended message they would want to convey. We can provide an example that occurs at the level of teaching prepositions and particularly 'at' where the teacher may hold up a box and say *'I am looking at the box',* the students may understand that *'at'* means '*under',* they may later utter *'the cat is at the table'* instead of *'the cat is under the table'*.

(v) **Errors of avoidance:** these errors occur when the learner fails to apply certain target language rules just because they are thought of to be too difficult.

(vi) **Errors of overproduction:** in the early stages of language learning, learners are supposed to have not yet acquired and accumulated a satisfied linguistic knowledge which can enable them to use the finite rules of the target language in order to produce infinite structures, most of the time, beginners overproduce, in such a way, they frequently repeat a particular structure.

6.10 Summing Up

We are aware that although interlanguage is systematic, it is also variable. At any one point in time, the interlanguage may show forms from an earlier stage of the interlanguage which has not disappeared completely, as well as emergent forms, which are just starting to appear, often alongside the forms they are to replace and which the learner is on the threshold of acquiring. Also, learners may under particular circumstances (*stress, anxiety, fatigue, fear, but also when very relaxed, when their guard is down,*

as it were) 'backslide' into earlier stages of their interlanguage. Finally, it is noted that for most learners the interlanguage will stop short of the attainment of native-speaker norms and will eventually reach a state where it cannot develop any more despite added instruction or input. This putative state is called 'fossilization'.

The idea of interlanguage variability is further developed. The concept of 'attentionality continuum' is invoked which argues that the learner's internalized language is best accessed by obtaining production in the 'vernacular style', which is in the mid-range of the continuum. High levels of attention to form 'careful speech, is just as atypical as speech produced where the form is neglected unduly in order to get a message across at all costs.

We identify four main stages in learner language development: pre-systematic stage, an emergent stage, a systematic stage, and a post-systematic stage. The pre-systematic stage is characterized by apparently random errors, experimentation, and uninformed guessing. The emergent stage involves internalization of simple rules, some of which may beidentical to those of the target language, but many of which will not be. Backsliding is a feature of this stage, as is U-shaped learning, namely apparently going backward before progressing further. Learners will also avoid structures and topics they cannot cope with. At this stage, learners are not able to correct many of their errors when they are pointed out to them. This changes in the systematic stage. The learner language becomes more internally consistent and also closer to target language norms and learners are more likely to be able to correct their errors when they are pointed out to them. As time goes by, they become able to do this even from indirect corrective feedback provided in conversation. In the post-systematic stage, stabilization has been achieved. Learner speech is now erroneous only to a limited extent, the learner can generally express meaning with more or less precision and is more or less fluent and generally intelligible. There is an ability to self-correct.

The above is an idealized picture. Firstly, learners may be at different stages in various domains of language at any one time. Secondly, and this is a fundamental criticism of the interlanguage model, which views learner language as governed by a unitary competence, learners have been found to perform quite differently in different situations, with different interlocutors, according to the task they are to perform, in the classroom versus in the L2 community, and so on. Communicative competence has been shown to be something not monolithic, but to consist of various sub-competencies, including linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic, paralinguistic, and strategic competence, at least.

6.11 Review Questions

[1] How does Interlanguage differ from Approximative System, Transitional Competence, and Idiosyncratic Dialect?

[2] In language learning, how learner errors are caused? What are the three major processes?

[3] What are the major characteristics of Interlanguage? Name them.

[4] What is backsliding? How it is important in second language learning?

[5] How can you define the interlanguage continuum?

[6] What is fossilization? What are the psychological processes involved in fossilization?

[7] What are the major strengths and weaknesses of Interlanguage?

[8] What is the major significance of errors in Second Language Learning?

[9] What is language interference? How does it relate to errors?

[10] How do you differentiate between lapses, errors, and mistakes?

[11] What are the primary steps of error analysis?

[12] What are the types of errors noted why doing error analysis?

6.12 Glossary of Terms

Approximative System Hypothesis: According to this hypothesis, the acquisition of a second language includes systematic stages with an approximative system at each stage. It emphasizes the continual development of language through systematic stages. What a learner learns may undergo modifications and maybe restructured gradually. The main difference between interlanguage and the Approximate System hypothesis lies in the fact that the former believes the learner's language is a phenomenon between the first and second languages (intermediate status), while the latter emphasizes the dynamic essence of the learner's language (transitional and developmental).

Compound bilinguals: Compound bilingualism occurs when both parents are bilingual and both parents speak to the child in both languages indiscriminately. The child will grow up to speak both languages effortlessly and without an accent, but

will never master all the subtleties of either of them. Compound bilinguals, it is thought, do not have an independent grammar for their second language. It is asserted that people can learn a second language in such a way that it will always be dependent on (i.e., compounded to) the first language. A putative example would be the case of a student who is taught an English equivalent for every French word. This student might eventually become a balanced bilingual and his ordinary conversation might become indistinguishable from that of a native Frenchman. Yet it would be asserted by some psycholinguists that this compound bilingual, because of the way he originally learned French, would still be translating into English every time he heard French and translating out of English every time he spoke French.

Coordinate bilinguals: It would be those people who learned two languages in separate contexts; therefore, the grammars of their two languages would be completely independent. It is even thought that coordinate bilinguals would have great difficulty in translating because of this separateness of their two languages. He is a person who regularly uses two languages, the second language having been learned independently from the first and within a different contextual environment. The mental representation of knowledge about the two languages is thought to be relatively independent.

Idiosyncratic Dialect: The theory of Idiosyncratic dialect, proposed by Pit Corder, maintains that each learner possesses her particular and unique system of language. Language of poems, aphasic speech, and peculiarities of an infant's language learning his mother tongue all fall into this category. A learner's sentences may be well-formed, but idiosyncratic (covert), or maybe superficially ill-formed (overt). If the case is something other than the two conditions, the learner's language will be considered to be non-idiosyncratic, which is an acceptable state.

Innateness Theory: The innateness hypothesis is an expression coined by Hilary Putnam to refer to a linguistic theory of language acquisition which holds that at least some knowledge about language exists in humans at birth. Putnam used the expression "the innateness hypothesis" to target linguistic nativism and specifically the views of Noam Chomsky. Facts about the complexity of human language systems, the universality of language acquisition, the facility that children demonstrate in acquiring these systems, and the comparative performance of adults in attempting the same task are all commonly invoked in support.

However, the validity of Chomsky's approach is still debated. Empiricists advocate that language is entirely learned. Some have criticized Chomsky's work, pinpointing problems with his theories while others have proposed new theories to account for language acquisition (with specific differences in terms of language acquisition per se compared to second language acquisition).

Mentalist Learning Theory: It emphasizes the role of the mind in language acquisition by arguing that humans are born with an innate and biological capacity to learn languages. This theory was spearheaded by Noam Chomsky, and arose in response to B. F. Skinner's radical behaviourism. The origins of the mentalist learning theory go back to psychology. Although the mentalist learning theory was not designed to have pedagogical implications for second language learning, it has considered language teaching compatible with the theory.

Overgeneralization: Overgeneralization is often defined as the learners' own way to make rules of the second language because of their incapability to differentiate between L1 and L2 rules. Overgeneralization is the phenomenon when one overextends one rule to cover instances to which that rule does not apply.

Transitional Competence: Pit Corder coined the term 'transitional competence' to indicate the essential dynamism and flux of the language learner's evolving system. A learner's errors, according to Pit Corder, represent the discrepancy between the transitional competence of that learner and the target language.

Universal Grammar: Universal grammar, in modern linguistics, is the theory of the genetic component of the language faculty, usually credited to Noam Chomsky. The basic postulate of UG is that a certain set of structural rules are innate to humans, independent of sensory experience. It also argues that the ability to learn grammar is built into the human brain from birth regardless of language

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Unit 7 ❑ Identifying and Remedying Errors in Speech

Structure

7.1 Objectives

After going through the unit, you will be able to

- Learn about errors in speech.
- Understand the reasons for making errors.
- Understand how to deal with speech errors of second language learners.
- Know about the principles in error correction.

7.2 Introduction

Making errors in speech or writing in first language acquisition, second language learning as well as in foreign language learning is inevitable. The same argument stands true in the case of learning English as a second language (ESL). Therefore, they should not be regarded as a sin on the part of the learners and cannot be forgiven. These errors should be faced and accepted positively as these are the true evidence of a language learning process.

In error analysis and error correction methodology, terms like 'mistakes' and 'errors' are considered to be distinctive from each other with unique features. In the literature related to error analysis in language learning, 'mistakes' are considered not to be so serious, unsystematic, irregular, and open for self-correction. On the other hand, 'errors' are treated as more serious issues because these deal with the linguistic competence of the learners rather than their performance. Moreover, errors are considered to be systematic and regular because their occurrence is predictable, and these are not self-corrected because the learners have not been fully successful to internalize the rules of the target language they are leaming. Therefore, Errors are supposed to carry high significance to the process of language leaming but not mistakes.

It has been noted that errors made by second or foreign language learners need more attention and analysis than the mistakes they make. This approach is applied for

errors found in both speech and writing of the learners. Careful empirical analysis of speech errors is providing linguists with insights into the mechanisms behind the process used in speech production. By analyzing the speech errors made by individual learners as well as in the context of their classroom teachings, teachers learn the underlying mechanisms that occur to produce speech errors and problems in speech production in word formation and verbal communication. In this Unit, all the major issues related to speech errors generated in learning a second language are addressed with necessary discussion and analysis.

7.3 Planning for Speech Production

According to scholars, speaking appears to be involved with two broad types of activity: (a) Planning and (b) Execution(Clark &Clark, 1977: 224). Both these activities involve further processes. In simple terms, there are at least five phases in an act of speech production.

(a) Discourse plan: Here speakers decide the discourse that they want to take up. For example, telling a story, discussing a topic, etc.

(b) Sentence plan: Speakers select the appropriate sentences todevelop and continue with the discourse.

(c) Constituent plan: Once the speakers decide sentences, they plan for the constituent.

(d) Articulatory program: Speakers put ideas and content sentences into the articulatory program.

(e) Final articulation: Speakers finally execute the contents.

Several micro-level skills are involved in an act of speech production. These include the followings: produce chunks of the language of different lengths, orally produce differences among phonemes and allophonic variants, produce stress patterns, words in stressed and unstressed positions, rhythmic structure and intonational contours, produce reduced forms of words and phrases, use an adequate number of lexical units in order to accomplish a pragmatic purpose, produce fluent speech at different rates of delivery, monitor own oral production, use various strategical devices (e.g., *pauses, fillers, self-correction, backtracking*) to enhance the clarity of a message, use grammatical word classes, systems, word order, patterns, rules, and elliptical forms, produce speech in natural constituents in appropriate phrases, pause groups, breath groups, and sentences,

express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms, and use cohesive devices in spoken discourse (Brown 2001: 272).

7.4 Classification of Speech Errors

In the studies on speech error, scholars are mainly interested in classifying the kinds of errors which occurred in spontaneous speech. We find different classification schemes and varying terminology. In general, speech errors show a disordering of units in the string, omission of a unit or replacement of a unit, omitted units are replaced by segments, morphemes, or words, and others. One can also classify speech errors into (a) phonemic speech errors (i.e., segmental errors) and (b) non-phonemic speech errors including a meaningless combination of phonemes, morphemes (including affixes and root morphemes), and whole words. After analysis of speech errors, it is found that not all errors are random; rather they are systematic andfall into several categories. According to Butterworth (1981), speech errors can be categorized in the following ways:

(a) **Plan internal errors.** Most of the scholars assumed that the generation of an utterance involves the translation or transduction of an intended thought into articulate speech via a hierarchy of levels of linguistic description - roughly, syntactic structures, intonational patterns, words (or morphemes), sequences of items representing sounds, sequences of motor commands, etc. Generally, it is held that at a given linguistic level there will be a (not necessarily complete) representation of the intended elements. So at a level where words (or morphemes) are represented, errors can lead to the anticipation, perseveration, or transposition of these elements.

(b) **Alternative plan errors.** An intended thought might not have a unique linguistic expression, and thus the translation may lead to two, or more, alternative and equally appropriate plans for linguistic expression. This shows up in the blending of the alternatives.

(c) **Competing plan errors.** These errors are held to be connected in meaning since they satisfy the meaning specification of the competing plans, but are not similar in meaning.

7.5 Linguistic Types of Speech Error

The errors that are made by the learners in the process of learning English as a

second language (ESL) are linguistically divided into four broad types. These are pronunciation errors, morphological errors, lexical errors, and grammatical errors.

7.5.1 Pronunciation Errors

Several studies suggest that there are more than a thousand different types of speech errors that are committed by learners learning English as a second language. These errors have become the source of investigation and experimentation in search of an explanation of the basic processes that conduct speech production from the basic stage of planning to the finished stage that produces audible speech. A preliminary finding elicited from error observations is that errors occur mainly within the same level of speech production rather than between levels of production. For example, this means in the occurrence of units being exchanged that one phoneme will change with another phoneme, but will not change with a syllable as it is a speech unit existing on a separate level of production. There are nine very common or major types of speech errors that are normally committed by ESL learners (Clark and Clark 1977: 263).

Table 1: Nine major types of speech errors (Clark and Clark 1977: 263).

No	Name of speech errors	Example
1	Silent pause	Turn on the // heater switch
2	Filled pause	Turn on, uh, the heater switch
3	Repetition	Turn on the heater/the heater switch
4	False start (unretraced)	Turn on the stove/heater switch
5	False start (retraced)	Turn on the stove/the heater switch
6	Corrections	Turn on the stove switch-I mean the heater switch
7	Interjections	Turn on, oh, the heater switch
8	Stutters	Turn on the h-h-h heater switch
9	Slip of tongue	Turn on the sweeter hitch

(a) Silent Pause: Silent pause occurs when the speaker takes a second or more betweenwords. The speaker thinks the next word or forgetting the next word. So,the speaker keeps silent for a second to produce the next word such as *turnon the // heater switch.*

(b) Filled Pause: The speaker produces speech sounds, and in the speech sound there is agap filled by *ah, er, uh, mm,* such as *turn on, uh, the heater switch.*

(c) Repetition: Repetition occurs when the speakers produce speech sounds and repeat one or more words before they finish their sentence, such as, *turn on the heater/the heater switch*.

(d) False start (Un-retraced): Un-retraced false start occurs when the speakers are getting wrong in their speech, and they try to repair their sentence by correcting one word or more words, such as, turn on the stove/heater switch. The speakers try to repair the sentence by changing the word and correct the word directly without pause.

(e) False Start (Retraced): The speakers correct the word. Before correcting the word the speakers repeat one word or more words, such as, *turn on the stove/the heathers witch*.

(f) Correction: The speakers correct one word or more. Correction is similar to un-retraced, but correction uses explicit correction to correct the word, such as *turn on the stove switch-I mean, the heater switch*.

(g) Interjection: An interjection is a word or expression that occurs in an utterance on its own and expresses a spontaneous feeling or reaction. It is bound by context. Its interpretation is largely dependent on the time and place at which it is uttered. It is also considered as an instance or form of deixis. Although its meaning is fixed (e.g. *wow!* = surprised), there is also a referencing element which is tied to the situation.

(h) Stutters: Stutter occurs when the speakers repeat the same sound rapidly within an utterance, such as, *turn on the h-h-h-heater switch*.

(i) Slip of the Tongue (Freudian slip): Slip of the tongue occurs when the speakers slip in their sounds, syllables, morphs or words, such as, *turn on the sweeter hitch* instead of *turning on the heater switch*.

Recent studies have also identified some other types of speech errors in both language production and learning English as a second language (ESL). Some of these are summarized below.

(a) Phoneme Error: Error is made at the level of a phoneme. It may be called substitution, addition, deletion, or any other type. This error occurs within a word but more frequently occurs between two separate words. The majority

of these phonemic errors are anticipations, in which substitution occurs of a sound that is supposed to occur later in the sentence. In this case, the learners produce the target phoneme earlier than intended and it interferes with the intended original phoneme (e.g., *also share → alsho share, sea shanty → she shanty,* etc.).

(b) **Phonemic anticipation error:** It is also called **perseverance** error. The interfering segment precedes the error. The very nature of this error indicates that speech is well planned before it is articulated. Scholars note a difference between perseveration and anticipation error depending on the context of an utterance. If one is speaking a novel sentence, they are more prone to perseverations, whereas anticipations are more common amongst practiced and recited phrases (e.g., *walk the beach → walk the beak; Sally gave the boy → Sally gave the goy,* etc.)

(c) **Exchange of two segments:** Here the order of sound segments gets changed. These errors have been interpreted as the possible combination of an anticipation and a perseverance (e.g., *feed the dog → deed the fog, left hemisphere → heft lemisphere*).

(d) **Spoonerism:** Switching of initial sounds of two separate words. It is named after Reverend William Archibald Spooner. E.g., "I saw you fight a liar" in place of "I saw you light a fire".

(e) **Combination Error:** Errors consisted of small segments such as a vowel or a consonant. These individuals segments are combined. As individual segments, two consonants can be transposed. By the addition of a consonant to a word, a cluster can be produced as opposed to an intended single segment (e.g., *Fish grotto → Frishgotto,* etc.). A cluster is not a single unit in speech production but consists of a sequence of separable segments.

(f) **Syllable Errors:** Syllables are larger than phonemes. They are also units of speech and susceptible to error. It is found that speech errors occur within seven syllables distance between the origin and target syllable. This corresponds and fits with a short-term memory span that allows us to comfortably remember seven consecutive items. If we have two words, each one with an equal number of syllables, the corresponding syllables will be the ones to exchange in the

event of an error. The first syllable of the origin word will replace the first syllable of the target word. Likewise, the final syllable of the origin word will exchange with the final syllable of the target word (e.g., *Moran and Fader→ Morer and Fadan*). In further support of syllables being a unit of articulation, syllabic errors also occur as blends, substitutions, deletions, and additions (e.g., *tremendously→tremenly* (deletion of a syllable), *shout+yell= shell* (blending of syllables)).

7.5.2 Morphological Errors

(a) **Morpheme-exchange error:** Morphemes change places. Morphemes remain in place but are attached to the wrong words. (e.g., "He has already trunked two packs" in place of "He has already packed two trunks").

(b) **Deletion error:** Deletions or omissions of morphemes leave some linguistic materials out of the frame (e.g., "unamity of opinion" instead of "unanimity of opinion").

(c) **Omission error:** Similar to deletion, some elements are missed out in speech (e.g., "She can tell me" instead of "She can't tell me").

(d) **Shift or transposition error:** One speech segment disappears from its appropriate location and appears somewhere else (e.g., "She decide to hits it" in place of "She decides to hit it").

(e) **Affix Substitution error:** Improper pairing of an affix leads to a word that is impermissible by the rules of English. This evidence supports the hypothesis that affixes are a source of speech error and that they may exist as a separate component of one's lexicon (e.g., *He was very productive → he was very productful*).

7.5.3 Lexical Errors

(a) **The wrong choice of word:** Learners make an error when they use a wrong word or phrase in a sentence. E.g., "The main *differentiate* between this two". In this sentence, the speaker selects a verb form of the word (i.e., *differentiate*), while the sentence needs a noun form (i.e., *difference*).

(b) **Lexical selection error**: Learners find problems in selecting the correct word (e.g., "He takes a tennis bat" in place of "He takes a tennis racquet").

(c) Word exchange error: A word exchange error is a subcategory of lexical selection errors. Two words are switched. E.g., "I must let the house out of the cat" in place of "I must let the cat out of the house".

(d) Lexical blends: More than one item is being considered during an even of speech production. Consequently, the two intended items are fused together to produce a single word (e.g., "perple" in place of "person/people").

(e) Malapropism: The speaker produces the intended word which is semantically inadequate. Malapropism refers to a character from Sheridan's 18th century play *The Rivals*; e.g., "The flood damage was so bad they had to evaporate the city" in place of "The flood damage was so bad they had to evacuate the city".

(f) Exchange: Exchanges are double shifts. Two linguistic units change places. E.g., "getting your model renosed" in place of "getting your nose remodelled".

(g) Addition: Addition is a process of adding extra-linguistic materials in speech. E.g., "We and I" in place of "We".

(h) Lexical Collocation: Learners of English as a second language (ESL) as well as English as a foreign language (EFL) have problems with putting or arranging words together in a native speaker-like manner during speech. The lack of collocation competence among ESL and EFL learners has been a crucial issue. Studies refer to the effect of native language transferor interference, inadequate collocation knowledge, and learning strategy use on the prevalence of collocation errors among ESL and EFL learners.

7.5.4 Grammatical Errors

(a) Omission of auxiliary in question: If there is a classification of words as a 'verb', the question needs an auxiliary. The auxiliary depends on the subject. It also depends on tense. The example is "*how you find the answer?*"In this question, there is a word "*find*". The word includes a verb. The subject in the question is "*you*". So, the question needs auxiliary "*do*" to make it a grammatical question. It is missing in the sentence.

(b) Omission of a BE verb: In English, every sentence must use a verb. If there is no verb in a sentence, the speaker must use 'BE' verb to make it a grammatical sentence. The example is "*He a schoolmaster*". There is no BE verb in the sentence. The learner must add 'is' or 'was' to make it a grammatical sentence. The subject is 'He' can change into 'S*he'*. The appropriate form of the verb in the sentence is '*is'*.

(c) **Addition of a BE verb:** Verb or BE verb is used to complete a sentence. In many cases, a sentence consists of a verb; if there is no verb, it can use as BE verb. The example: *"This is text describe how to make tea*". In this sentence, there is a verb '*describe'*. The learner adds another verb (is) to the sentence. This sentence is erroneous because there are two verbs in the sentence ('*describe'* and '*is'*). The second one is needed.

(d) **Omission of 'do' in a negative sentence:** Sentence needs a verb to be a grammatical sentence. In interrogative and negative sentences we need to use an auxiliary verb. The use of an auxiliary verb depends on the subject of a sentence. The example: *"If you not know my name"*. In this sentence, the word '*know'* is a verb. To make this negative sentence a valid one, the learners need to use the auxiliary verb '*do'* after the word '*you'*.

(e) **Addition of 'do' in question:** These are two types of question sentences in English. WH-Question and Yes-No question. The 'yes-no question' uses an auxiliary 'be', and modal as a question word. The learners should choose one of them according to the sentence. Using question words more than once causes error in speech. The example: *"Do you can catch the message of the story?"*There are two question words in this sentence: '*do'* and '*can*'. According to the nature of the question, the learner should select one of the two questions that are appropriate to the sentence. There is a modal in the sentence which can be shifted to the first position. So, the learner should not use the auxiliary '*do'*.

(f) **Addition of Preposition:** Prepositions (e.g., *in, from, on, at,* for, etc.) are usedbefore a noun or pronoun to show the place, position, time, method, etc. with relation to other words used in a sentence. The example: *"For the student in the behind of class"*. The learner adds the preposition '*behind'* after the noun already having a preposition *"of class"*, which is not necessary. The use of prepositions could be influenced by the speaker's first language.

(g) **Misordering:** Wrong positional use of words can change the meaning of a sentence. It not only changes the meaning of a sentence but also makes the sentence ungrammatical or ill-formed. The example: "*Do you know what this is?*" The example shows that the learner has put the BE verb '*is'* at the end of the sentence. The position of the BE verb (i.e., 'is') should be immediately after the WH-question 'what'.

(h) **Use of V-O Instead of V-ing after certain word:** A sentence that starts with a preposition needs to add –ing with the verb that comes after the preposition. However, in many cases, the learners fail to add -ing with the verb. Example: *"Before start the lesson today"*. The use of 'start' after 'before' in the above sentence is not right. It should be "before starting the lesson today".

(i) **Addition of 'to' after auxiliary:** The use of the preposition '*to'*after the modal verb 'must' or 'may' is not permitted in English. In most cases, learners, use a preposition after the modal verb '*must'*. The example: "Y*ou must to use this book*". The speaker uses the word '*to'* after the word '*must'* which is a wrong use. The word '*to'*is not necessary here.

(j) **Wrong choice of a verb:** The use of a verb depends on the subject of a sentence. For instance, the subject '*I'* uses '*am', 'do', and 'have'*. Subject '*he, ''she' and it'* use '*is' 'does'* and '*has'*. Subject '*they', 'we',* and '*you'* use '*are', 'do'* and '*have'* as a verb. In the present tense, the 3rd person singular subject uses a verb with the suffix -s or –es at the end of a verb. The plural subject does not use it. The verb also depends on tense. The example: "*I has a bicycle*". The subject of this sentence is 'I', so the verb should be '*have'*.

7.6 Processes Involved in Speech Error Generation

The process of speech error is closely related to the process of speech production. Speech errors are done by learners of the first language or second language. Here are several factors that influence the process of speech error.

(a) **Language transfer**: Speech error is caused by language transfer. That is a tendency of learners in transferring language elements such as sound, form, meaning, and even culture of their first language to the language that they are learning.

(b) **Language transfer learning:** The error could be the influence of poor learning provided by the teacher. For example, teachers' explanation which is confusing or unclear can make a student unable to practice the target language correctly.

(c) **Second language learning strategy:** During the process of learning a second language, a learner tries to deploy certain strategies. The learning language strategy essentially consists of transfer, interference, generalization, and simplification.

(d) Communication strategy: It is another causal factor of speech error. The communication strategy used by learners determines the way how learners produce speech in order to communicate with others. For example, someone who uses a conservative style in communicating may produce utterances which are full of doubt. Here his hesitation may appear to be an error. The error may be a mistake in applying the rules of the language that is already mastered.

7.7 Reasons behind Speech Errors

There are three types of reasons behind speech errors (Clark and Clark 1977:271). Each type has its own characteristics and role in the process of making errors in speech.

(a) Cognitive reason: Learners usually take a longer time to produce sentences which deal with abstract things than concrete ones. The speakers, especially the students, find difficulties when they should make a sentence about the unusual topic, such as advertisement, some of the expressions like congratulation, apologizing, suggestion, etc. Sometimes, the learners should stop or take for a second to think about the words that they will say or keep silent. In the moment of their thought, sometimes the students produce ejective sounds like 'ee', 'em', 'hmm', or the other.

(b) Psychological reason: When learners are anxious they become tense and their planning and execution of speech becomes less efficient. The same thing happens when they are bored with a topic and do not find interest and enthusiasm to speak on it. The learners normally try to plan an idea and a sentence much before they produce it. Although they plan a sentence, when they produce it, it sounds different. Learners usually get a slip when they speak too fast or when they become nervous to speak in front of a large gathering.

(c) Social reason: Producing a successful speech seems to be difficult for the learners when their conversation takes place in free domains or when they are put in a situation where learners are allowed to interact freely with the people beyond their classroom contexts. In that situation, learners usually fail to produce proper and successful verbal interactions because many extra linguistic aspects that are directly linked with a normal conversation in an open social context are not properly known to the learners. Learners need special training about extra linguistic aspects of speech when they are put into such situations.

7.8 Procedures Used in Speech Error Analysis

(a) **Identification of Error:** It is the distinction between errors and mistakes. The error occurs because the learners do not know exactly what the correct one is. Mistakes are performance phenomena and regular features of a native speaker's speech, reflecting on the processes of failures that arise as a result of competing plans, memory limitations, lack of orientation, and lack of automaticity.

(b) **Description of Error:** Errors can be described and classified into three types: omission, addition, misformation, and disordering. Omissions are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance, e.g., *Robin a good boy*. Additions are the opposites of omission, they are characterized by the presence of an item that must not appear, e.g., *John stood at the side beside the table.* Misformation is characterized by the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or a word, e.g., *The fox eated the chicken*. Finally, disordering is characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance, e.g., *What daddy is doing?*

(c) **Explanation of Error:** Errors can be classified into two types. The first type is Competence Error. The sources of this error are transfer, intralingual, and unique. The second type is Performance Error (mistake). The sources of these types of errors are processing problems and communication strategies.

There is a clear relationship between speech errors and error analysis. In the micro skill levels, there is a statement that produces fluent speech at different rates of delivery. It is related to speech error theory. The other statement in micro skill is the use of grammatical word classes, systems, word order, patterns, rules, and elliptical forms. It is related to error analysis theory. So, the criteria of speech error and error analysis include micro skill levels of speaking.

7.9 Principles Considered in Error Correction in Speech

(a) **Consider the situation:** A teacher has to check if the language situation is an informal situation or a formal one. Is the student speaking extemporaneously or he has time to plan and reflect on it? Who are the participants in the situation—other students or the larger community? All of these considerations

matter in deciding if it is appropriate or not to correct student errors. Even native speakers, actually, sometimes make mistakes like the subject-verb agreement errors when engaged in spontaneous spoken interactions in an informal situation. It is just that nobody really notices their errors. In language teaching, teachers are more attuned to the errors students and non-native learners make as they are looking for them; they assume that native speakers 'know better' and will not make errors.

(b) **Focus on language as communication:** What is the purpose of language: to show how correct and elegant learners can be in production, or is it to communicate a specific message? Unless a learner is a poet, for example, whose business is the beauty of language, and for whom the main purpose might be its beauty, the ultimate goal of language in most cases is to get across a specific message. If the student has achieved that, his production is probably 'good enough', in most cases.

(c) **Focus on the purpose of correction:** Why does a teacher need to correct student error? Is it to show their expertise, to show the students their errors so that they will learn from them? To demonstrate the editing skills of teachers? To show that teachers know more than their students? In most cases, of course, the purpose of correction is to help the students revise their speech and improve their fluency and accent. In order to do this, correction should be limited and focused on specific points for improvement: for example, verb tenses or intonation patterns. If every error is noted, it becomes too overwhelming for the students to begin to know where to improve.

(d) **Focus on larger or global errors:** Which errors should be corrected? Should all student errors be marked? If these are mistakes, instructor should point them out. Again, a teacher should go back to the purpose of correction. If the purpose is to help students improve production, then correction should be limited to one or two areas for students to focus on which are important to overall comprehensibility: for example, student's pattern of run-on sentences, or stress patterns, not a single misspelling or mispronunciation. Isolated issues of misspelling and mispronunciation usually do not detract from overall comprehensibility. The teacher should look for the global problems—problems in verb tense switch, for example, that usually affect the overall comprehensibility of a message.

(e) **Focus on patterns of errors:** In addition to considering the seriousness of an error, the teacher should consider the frequency of the error. If the student has a concern with almost always omitting articles ('a', 'an' and 'the'), this is a problem that should be addressed because omitted articles are distracting from the overall message and can affect the overall comprehensibility of a text.

(f) **Focus on cost-benefit:** Are all errors worth the time and trouble to correct? For example, prepositions in English, especially the more abstract ones that do not refer to a literal place, are very difficult to teach as they are idiomatic and dialectal: for example, in American English "I come around" to see a friend; in British English "I come round." Is it 'go down' the street or 'go up' the street? They mean the same thing. If learners mix up these expressions, a teacher should not notice them. So considering the difficulty in learning prepositions, and the overall unimportance of them, it probably is not worth the time investment to learn them. This also goes for trying to 'correct' specific non-native English speech sounds, like the non-English trilled 'r'. It is all right in most cases.

(g) **Teach students how to self-correct:** It is usually not enough for the teacher to just show where the errors are. The students also must know how to correct them, so the teacher should demonstrate for the student how to do this—how to check that the verbs agree with the subject, rather than just making the correction herself, from which the students learn nothing. It is, of course, ultimately the goal for the students to use English independently, which means monitoring and correcting their own language production.

(h) **Consider student affect:** Lastly, the student affect, emotional response, has to be taken into consideration. A paper that comes back covered in red ink accompanied by the teacher's biting comments at the end may very well result in the student giving up the course. The goal is for students to move forward, improving from the place they are. This involves carefully weighing what comments and marks on papers will mean to students how they will be affected by them. Do they know what subject-verb agreement means? Do they know how to correct it? What are the positive aspects of the students' speech production that a teacher can mention and which learners can build on while working on their weaker spots? Marking papers and giving feedback does really involve addressing many aspects and issues of students' needs.

7.10 Remedial Steps in Removing Speech Errors

(a) **First language interference:** First language interference occurs when the rules from the native language sneak in and affect the second language. Positive interference can actually improve language skills. This occurs when a learner accurately applies rules from his first language that line up correctly with the rules of his second language. Negative interference is what a learner needs to worry about. This occurs when a learner applies rules from his first language that does not match the rules of his second language. This interference can create errors in his second language. Typically, these show up in his speaking and writing when he tries to implement structures from his first language like word order, grammatical gender, or certain verb tenses. And although it is impossible to know everything there is to know about his target language when he first starts learning, he does want to find answers relatively quickly. That means that the best way to avoid these errors is through focused study. A learner must ask himself what is giving him the most trouble and he must make sure to set some time aside to get answers to his questions. As he gets further into his learning, he will have an easier time distinguishing between the rules of his first and second language.

(b) **Pronunciation:** Some sounds in one language do not correspond to sounds in another. A learner may find it difficult to pick up these unfamiliar sounds. For instance, many native Spanish speakers from Latin America struggle to make the 'th' sound. Although they might hear this sound in Spain, the 'th' sound does not naturally occur in Spanish in other regions. Whatever the target language of a learner might be, most native speakers will probably understand what a person means even if he does not pronounce every letter correctly. However, mispronouncing some words can cause confusion and is a clear signal that a learner is not a native speaker.The best way to combat these errors is through listening practice. The more a learner hears the sounds, the clearer they will be. For particularly tricky sounds, a learner might even look for targeted lessons that focus on problem sounds.

(c) **Grammar:** Grammar errors are the bane of any language learners' existence. They are often a result of incomplete or inaccurate studying. For instance, Sanskrit, Latin, Russian, German, and Greek use the case system, which basically means that word endings change depending on each word's role in

the sentence. Since modern English has no equivalent, case systems are often difficult for native English-speakers to grasp. All the words can be the same between sentences, but if one word is in the wrong case, it can completely change the meaning of the sentence. To avoid grammar errors, it is important for learners to study not only grammar rules but also exceptions to these rules. Many languages have irregular verbs or other tricky rules that seem to violate the basic rules of grammar. While a native speaker can adjust to this fairly easily, it can be harder for second language learners. The only way to learn and remember these rules is through careful study.

(d) **Vocabulary:** Vocabulary errors occur when learners lack a clear understanding of specific words. Even if they are experts in grammar rules, not having enough words in their arsenal, or a clear understanding of a term will impede understanding. While circumlocution (i.e., describing the word when one does not know the exact term) is one tactic when a learner is unsure of a word, more vocabulary study is a helpful way to prevent vocabulary errors. To ensure a learner uses vocabulary properly, it is particularly helpful to use resources that show vocabulary in authentic contexts. IT is better to learn new vocabulary in context. Each word should be provided with a definition, associated image, and example sentences. This is a perfect way to see how vocabulary is used in context.

(e) **Imbalance of skills:** Balance is required for language learners. If learners do not know how important each component of language is, they can skip over a part entirely when they study. They must ensure to make reading, writing, speaking, and listening a priority in their target language studies in order to communicate fully. This is especially important if they are at the advanced stages. They can do this by combining several resources or by finding a resource that focuses on a well-rounded education.

(f) **The wrong language:** When learners choose what language to learn, they should not make the decision lightly. They might have had a poor experience trying to learn a language before and need a slight attitude adjustment or some clarification. Some of the errors below might sound familiar to them. Choosing the wrong language can be demotivating and lead one to never meeting his goals. That is why it is important to consider the goals carefully before a learner start his learning adventure. For instance, if a learner is looking to learn a

language for business, he might select a different language than he chooses to learn a language for travel. Motivation is key to language learning success and choosing the right language will keep the experience engaging. A learner must ensure that he selects the right one.

(g) **Unrealistic expectations:** If a learner tried to learn a language before and was unsuccessful, he might have unrealistic expectations. A lot of people expect an immediate result, but this just is not going to happen. Learning a language is a long process. As long as a learner keeps this in mind at the beginning, he can celebrate his successes rather than dwelling on how long it can take. If he expects immediate fluency, he is likely to be disappointed. How long it takes to learn a language will vary based on the difficulty of the language and the skill, focus, and commitment of the learner.

(h) **Financial/time commitment:** A lot of learners are turned off by perceived obstacles. Learning a second language can seem too expensive or too time-consuming. However, this error in thinking can be quickly resolved. There are a plethora of options for language learners. If a learner truly wants to learn a language, he can find the right resource for his needs. There are options for learners on a budget and there are options for time duration.

(i) **Inability to understand native speakers:** The first time a learner listens to a native speaker speaking his target language, he might just have an anxiety attack. This is particularly true if a learner listens without any supportive texts or translations. Language barriers exist, but a learner can overcome them through practice. Natural rates of speech appear significantly slowed the more a learner studies a language. What once seemed impossibly fast will one day feel like a normal pace.

(j) **Dull resources:** Some learners have no idea that there are a variety of resources to choose from for learning a language. They make the mistake of choosing the wrong one. Technology advances every day, which gives a learner an endless supply of resources to choose from. If a learner prefers resources like that old textbook, he has more than one option to choose from. Whatever he chooses, it is important to select his resources carefully. A learner should want resources that exercise his reading, listening, speaking, and writing skills. Also, a learner wants to make sure these resources hold his attention and appeal to him.

7.11 Error Correction in EFL Speaking Classroom

Being able to speak the target language within a classroom situation implies that the learner has the ability to function in another language. To master discourse competence learners are encouraged to practice a wide range of speaking activities such as role-plays, debates, information gaps, acting from a script, discussions, problem-solving activities, decision-making activities, quizzes, gapped dialogues, questionnaires, story-telling, and others. But how and when to respond to students' errors in speaking activities is a controversial topic in error correction methodology. Although there is a more tolerant attitude towards student errors in modern methodology, this does not mean that student errors are welcome.

There have been questions if we should think error-making processes are the results of ineffective and unsuccessful learning. It has been argued by experts that student errors are the evidence that their learning is actually taking place. Therefore, it is considered that there are many positive feedbacks of error making process. Even then, it is argued that instant and intrusive correction can often be inappropriate since it can have harmful and negative effects on student's will to activate L2. It can interfere with students attempt to talk freely and directly that may result in learner inhibition. It is obvious that all human beings are to some extent inhibited, but those who are shy and have low self-esteem can fail to overcome their speaking problems. They simply may lose the will to experiment with the language. Inadequate and undue correction destroys the natural flow of speaking practice and it can be misleading or debilitative just at the very moment when students try to activate a foreign language.

Therefore, it is rational to address the following two questions: (a) to find out the reasons why students make mistakes and errors, and (b) to investigate teacher's methods and ways how to correct errors and to explore their preferences which technique to use while correcting.

7.11.1 Factors in Making Errors in Speech Classroom

(a) The first and the most frequent factor of the error-making problem is caused by **interference from L1.**This is when students transfer features of their native language L1 to the target language L2. This provokes errors mainly in grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Students tend to make errors in subject-verb agreement, word order in the sentence, the use of conditionals, and the use of prepositions. For example, "Exams begin from Monday" instead of "Exams start

on Monday", "He came with the bus" instead of "He came by bus", "He died from cancer" instead of "He died of cancer", "My notebook is different than yours" instead of "My notebook is different from yours".

(b) The second factor influencing error occurrence is **the complexity of the target language**. This is when mislearning takes place and students get distracted by too many variables this is when due to the complex structure of the language students learn new rules and forms only partly. Students tend to make errors in the use of polysemous words, homonyms, phrasal verbs, misuse of the infinitive, the use of an article, etc. E.g., "I object to be treated like this" instead of "Object to being treated", "I often think to change the job instead of, "I think of changing the job", "We can't avoid to make the mistakes" instead of "avoid making", "do you mind to open the door" instead of "mind opening", "he has no difficulty to do this task" instead of "has difficulty in doing", etc. Confusing words such as "make/do", "rise/raise", "lie/lay", "say/tell", "sit/seat" and others also cause a problem for students.

(c) The next factor is **overgeneralization or developmental error**— this is when students learn a grammar rule but then they still apply it incorrectly because they try to apply a recently learnt grammar rule to all forms. E.g. students misuse comparative and superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs. E.g., "This book is more good than that one" instead of "better than", "The more students will confirm this" instead of "most students", "more cleverer than" instead of "cleverer than" etc. Students also use "one time" or "two times" instead of "once" or "twice".

(d) **Fossilization** comes fourth in rating. This happens when faulty forms become so rigid, fixed, and outmoded in students' minds that learners seem to be unable and unwilling to correct them. They keep repeating the same mistakes and find it impossible to learn the correct version. E.g., "She is one of the best girl in our class" instead of "one of the best girls". Herewith, students frequently use a double negative. E.g., "He is not afraid of nobody" instead of "not afraid of anybody", "today morning" instead of "this morning", "today night" instead of "tonight", etc.

(e) The **lack of speaking practice** or communicative competence (trying to explain something but an inability to do so). It is clear that students can produce sentences accurately during the lesson but cannot use them appropriately outside the classroom. At this stage, it is recommended to use as much authentic

material as possible (e.g., newspapers, magazines, videos, TV, or radio programmes) and enable students to interact with one another and give practice in using the language for real-life communication.

(f) **Fatigue or carelessness**: big tests in the previous class, too many classes, hunger, illness...

(g) **Feeling of inferiority and low self-esteem**: The fear of being ridiculed by peers or teachers if something goes wrong in speech.

(h) **Inhibition** - the lack of confidence in the learner's own abilities, the fear of doing something badly, the fear of making mistakes. Shy students are commonly inhibited. They avoid speaking and prefer to sit in the shadows.

(i) The **lack of empathy** between teachers and learners. This is when understanding between a teacher and a student fails. A student who is not empathized by a teacher at the moment of interaction tends to make errors in speaking.

7.11.2 How to Correct these Errors in Classroom

There are a number of reasons why students make mistakes. Several research studies investigating error correction problems suggest some decisions on how to deal with oral errors.

(a) The first thing to be done is to identify the kind of mistake. i.e., What kind of error has been made? Is it grammatical, vocabulary choice, or pronunciation?

(b) Whether to deal with it or not. At the next stage, the teacher's task is to make a decision to deal with this error or not. There is some evidence that there is no point in trying to correct any and all errors that occur in speaking classrooms. It depends on the objective of the speaking activity - what particular language items should be focused on. Is the activity fluency oriented or accuracy oriented? Feedback on fluency takes the form of performance evaluation including the following criteria:

(a) Flow of speaking - useful expressions, a good range of vocabulary,

(b) Effort of speaking - ability to produce proficient language, and

(c) Speed of speaking - number of hesitations and pauses.

Teachers have to decide which errors they are going to work on and ignore others for the time being. E.g., when focusing on structural errors, teachers

should not get sidetracked by pronunciation problems. If teachers start correcting all kinds of errors, they will find that a large part of the lesson was spent on working with 'secondary errors'.

(c) Another serious decision a teacher has to make is: When to deal with it? i.e., the timing of fedback. Should errors be responded to immediately i.e., on-the-spot correction or at the end of the communicative activity? i.e., delayed or postponed feedback that can be dealt with the following day when the whole class may be devoted to the feedback session. The most widely accepted attitude towards error correction in fluency-oriented activities is delayed or postponed feedback. Whereas in accuracy-oriented activities immediate feedback or on-the-spot correction is to be done.

(d) Who will deal with it? In regard to feedback providers recent theory on teaching methodology supports the position that there can be three options:

   (a) Self-correction is considered to be the best form of correction. Teachers should encourage students to notice their own errors and to make attempts to correct themselves.

   (b) Peer correction it encourages cooperation providing a basis for group work or pair work.

   (c) Teacher correction - errors of learners corrected by teachers.

7.11.3 Techniques and Strategies used in Error Correction

How to deal with these errors? Teachers have to make a decision about which verbal and nonverbal techniques to use for error correction. The teachers have to apply techniques and strategies to correct errors. The most widely-spread methods of error-correcting in speaking classrooms are the followings:

(1) **Echoing** teachers echo the word or the phrase or the whole sentence with questioning intonation and stress to give students the hint where exactly the mistake is made.

(2) **Repetition up to the Error** a teacher repeats the sentence up to the error and waits for students to correct it.

(3) **Hinting/Prompting** showing where an error is and giving a clue how to correct it, a teacher gives some hints on how to proceed in correction.

(4) **Making a Note of Common Errors** a teacher makes notes of typical errors and deals with them in a remedial or feedback session.

(5) **Nonverbal Way**s (as soon as an error occurs, a teacher uses facial expressions to draw student's attention. This is when teachers have a worried look or hand outstretched to 'hold' until the error is corrected. The nonverbal method involves a raised eyebrow, a finger correction, shaking head as well.

(6) **Telling Them** there is an error in the sentence. Who can correct it?

(7) **Reformulation** a teacher reformulates an incorrect version, provides a correct answer, repeats it, and makes an emphasis on it.

(8) **Recording on Tape** a teacher records a student's speech on tape and uses a peer correction method after students have listened to themselves. This is the method which is rarely used by EFL teachers although it is a highly effective alternative way of error correction methods.

There are effective strategies to be applied while correcting errors in the speech classroom. However, there are no rules about correcting strategies that could be ideal and universal for all teachers. Therefore, perhaps the best way of correcting speaking activities appropriately and productively is to explore students' feeling and beliefs about it how and when they would like to be corrected. Thus, it is recommended that teachers should become aware of both their and their students' beliefs about error correction.

7.11.4 Self-repair

In language learning classrooms, teachers usually tend to correct students' mistakes in the classes themselves. Especially in the intensive reading class and composition class, they may point out any error made by students and patiently tell students why they cannot speak in such a way. Sometimes they may warn students not to make such mistakes again. Although in the oral class, teachers' attention is mainly on the fluency of expression and seldom make corrections on students' errors in production, they almost never notice the role of self-repairs, not to say encouraging students to make self-repairs. Although as a negative feedback, teacher correction plays a part in first language acquisition and prevents fossilization of incorrect linguistic forms in SLA, its effectiveness in foreign language learning and teaching remains open to question in the past decades. So learners are encouraged to develop and make use of the strategy of self-repair.

From a pedagogical point of view, self-repair may be regarded as part of an education for autonomous learning. If teaching aims to lead to 'learning how to learn',

then self-repair is a spur in that direction because it encourages responsibility and independence in the learner. Thus, self-repair should be encouraged as a preferred classroom strategy. But how might self-correction be practiced in the classroom? A motivating teaching strategy is to create situations that may encourage the production of self-repairs and give the learners more opportunity to use the target language. The teacher's role in the correction of oral work might be restricted to the identification and collocation of errors, leaving the actual correction as far as possible to peer correction in group work. This is a stage at which independent and appropriate use of dictionaries and grammar can be practiced. What begins as group work can later become pair and individual work.

Part of the language learning process might also be to confront learners with oral and written texts containing unidentified errors, which can then be identified and corrected in a group, pair, or individual work. If the students display some problems in self-correction or have difficulty in making correct or appropriate self-repairs, the teacher may provide help and possible explanation. It should be noted that correction should not be at the expense of fluency and willingness to communicate: those criteria must take precedence. Learners should not become 'over users' of monitoring from fear of making mistakes. On the other hand, communication is not only concerned with the transmission of prepositional meaning, it has an effective value as well. The point is that long-term language teaching cannot undervalue a striving for linguistic correctness and pragmatic or cultural appropriateness, because it can often be a factor in social acceptance by native speakers.

Their tolerance of error has limits. On one hand, it is a rule that most of the students are deeply influenced by the mighty traditional circumstance of rigid teaching method that pupils are limited to practicing their oral English in class; once they are deprived of a familiar environment and obliged to deal with unsteady social situations, it is an embarrassing phenomenon that they are certain to feel confused, not knowing what to cope with the conversation, which, in turn, makes them nervous and, by all means, causes a lot of speech errors. On the other hand, it is well known that not all teachers are capable of teaching knowledge in a logical way with fluent spoken English and convey ideas in English mixed with the native language of learners, which leads to the continuous exchange of codes and it is another important factor in the occurrence of speech errors.

7.12 Learner's Attitude in Error Correction

Students can differ greatly in their attitude to producing spoken English. Some are only interested in developing their fluency at the expense of accuracy while others are so focused on accuracy that they have no fluency. While these are clearly extreme cases, it is not unusual to find students like this in a typical class. In that case, in case of speech error correction, we look at the followings:

(a) A basic approach to improving fluency and accuracy

In contrast to writing, students have very little processing time when it comes to speaking, so it is hardly surprising that the following things may occur.

- Students don't experiment with the new language presented by the teacher.
- At lower levels, students' output is mostly lexical.
- The more accuracy-focused students test the patience of the listener in the time they take to say something.
- The speech of some very fluent students is littered with errors and therefore may have a negative effect on the listener.

Just as with writing we can help students to improve their accuracy and fluency. Teachers can help students improve their fluency by giving guided preparation time for a task. Students receive specific guidance in choosing an appropriate language as well as rehearsal time. Task-based learning research shows that this leads to a greater range of language being used.

When it comes to accuracy, research into second language acquisition says that the first stage of improving accuracy is awareness-raising. Namely, raising students' awareness of gaps in their interlanguage. We can do this by using a recording of teachers / higher-level students performing the same task that students have done. We also use awareness-raising exercises to focus on specific linguistic areas in the recording.

(b) A way of raising students' awareness of their interlanguage

It is a very effective technique for doing this. After an introduction to the subject and some pre-teaching of essential lexis, students are read a text twice. The first time they listen to get the gist of the text. The second time they have to note down the keywords. Then, they work in groups to produce a new version of the text. The emphasis

is on successfully communicating the main points using their English. If they can reproduce the original text, that is great, but it is not essential. The teacher and groups then correct their texts and compare them with the original. The aim is to make students aware of the gaps in their interlanguage.

(c) Criteria for dealing with spoken errors

In the 'correction' stage, some questions are presented as a guide to deciding whether to let an error go or not. We may ask these questions to decide which are to be considered as the most important. We may question: Does the mistake affect communication? Are we concentrating on accuracy at the moment? Is it really wrong or is it just our imagination? Why did the student make the mistake? Is it the first time the student has spoken for a long time? Could the student react badly to my correction? Have they met this language point in the current lesson? Is it something the students have already met? Is this a mistake that several students are making? Would the mistake irritate someone?

(d) Practical techniques for correcting spoken English are the followings:

These are on-the-spot correction techniques. These are used for dealing with errors as they occur.

- **Using fingers:** To highlight an incorrect form or to indicate a word order mistake.
- **Gestures:** Using hand gestures to indicate the use of the wrong tense.
- **Mouthing:** It is highly useful with pronunciation errors. A teacher mouths the correct pronunciation without making a sound. For example, when an individual sound is mispronounced or when the word stress is wrong. Of course, it can also be used to correct other spoken errors.
- **Reformulation:** For example: Student: I went in Scotland

  Teacher: Oh really, you went to Scotland, did you?

  Delayed Correction techniques - For example, after a communication activity.
- **Noting down errors:** Either on an individual basis i.e. focusing on each student's mistakes or for the class as a whole. 'Hot cards', (i.e., individual notes), can be used to focus on recurring mistakes. The student then has a written suggestion of what to work on.

- **Recording:** In addition to recording students (individually, in pairs, etc.) during a speaking task to make them aware of errors that affect communication we can use a technique from Community Language Learning (CLL). Students sit in a circle with a tape recorder in the centre. In monolingual classes, they check with the teacher, who is bilingual, about how to say something in English, then rehearse it and record it. At the end of the lesson, they listen back to the tape and can focus on specific utterances, etc. With higher-level multilingual classes, students take part in a discussion which they have prepared for in advance. When they have something to say they record themselves and then pause the tape. Just as with monolingual classes they can use the teacher as a linguistic resource. At the end of the discussion, students analyze their performance with the teacher. The focus is on improving the quality of what they say and expanding their interlanguage. Although this form of discussion may seem a bit artificial it has two main advantages: (a) Students pay more attention to what they say as they are taking part in a kind of performance (it is being recorded) (b) students not only become more aware of gaps in their spoken English but also can see how their spoken English is improving.

7.13 Summing Up

The error seems to be a natural process of language learning. According to scholars, error is considered as an inevitable and positive part of that process. In language learning, errors exist in the skill such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, comprehension, and communication. Moreover, errors can be simple errors or complex errors. The learners who have more knowledge of the rules of English can make less number of errors in their speech. On the other hand, learners with less knowledge of the rules of English will make many errors in their speech. Therefore, the learners must know more of the rules of English to decrease the number of errors and improve their speaking skills. This module deals with errors made in speaking English in ELT. The aim is to describe the planning involved in speech production, classification of speech errors, types of speech error (pronunciation errors, lexical errors, morphological errors, and grammatical errors), the process applied in the generation of speech errors, the reasons behind speech errors, procedures used in speech error analysis, principles considered necessary for error corrections in speech, remedial steps taken in removing speech errors, the process of error correction in EFL speaking classroom, factors responsible for making errors in speaking classroom, the procedures applied correctly these errors in a classroom, the

techniques and strategies used in error correction in the classroom and, finally, the attitude of the learners in the process of error detection and correction.

7.14 Review Questions

[1] What are major plans that are executed in speech production?

[2] What is the major classification of speech errors?

[3] What are the linguistic types of speech errors? Discuss them?

[4] What are the major types of pronunciation errors? Elucidate them.

[5] Refer to the four major processes involved in speech error generation

[6] What are the major reasons behind speech errors?

[7] What are the procedures used in speech error analysis?

[8] What are the principles considered in error correction in speech?

[9] What are the remedial steps used in removing speech errors?

[10] Which factors are considered in making errors in speech classrooms?

[11] How to correct speech errors in the classroom?

[12] What are the techniques and strategies used in error correction?

[13] What is the relevance of 'self-repair' in error correction?

[14] What is the learner's attitude in error correction?

7.15 Glossary of Terms

Circumlocution: It is a phrase that circles around a specific idea with multiple words rather than directly evoking it with fewer and apter words. It is sometimes necessary for communication, but it can also be undesirable.

Communication strategy: Communication strategy is a plan to achieve communication objectives. This may apply to internal communications, marketing communications, and public relations. A communication strategy has four major components: communication goals, target audience, communication plan, and communication channels.

Deixis: In linguistics, deixis is the use of general words and phrases to refer to a specific time, place, or person in context, e.g., the words tomorrow, there, and they.

Words are deictic if their semantic meaning is fixed but their denoted meaning varies depending on time and/or place.

Homonyms: In linguistics, homonyms, broadly defined, are words which are homographs or homophones, or both. A more restrictive or technical definition sees homonyms as words that are simultaneously homographs and homophones – that is to say, they have identical spelling and pronunciation, whilst maintaining different meanings.

Negative Interference: When the influence of the native language leads to errors in the acquisition or use of a target language, it is said that negative transfer or interference occurs. When the influence of the native language leads to an immediate or rapid acquisition or use of the target language, it is called positive transfer or facilitation.*Negative* transfer (or *interference*) occurs when differences between the two languages' structures lead to systematic errors in the *learning* of the second *language* or to fossilization.

Polysemous word: Polysemy is the capacity for a word or phrase to have multiple meanings, usually related by contiguity of meaning within a semantic field. Polysemy is thus distinct from homonymy—or homophony—which is an accidental similarity between two words; while homonymy is a mere linguistic coincidence, polysemy is not. A polysemous word is a word that has different meanings that derive from a common origin; a homograph is a word that has different meanings with unrelated origins. Polysemous words and homographs constitute a known problem for language learners.

Self-repair: Research in the second language (L2) acquisition frequently treats self-repair as a process that a learner performs automatically as a result of monitoring and error detection. As such, it has been linked to a number of aspects of language learning, including proficiency level, progress in language acquisition, and monitoring focus and ability. Self-repair behaviour also reveals some other information about the learners, including monitoring preferences, learning strategies, areas of difficulty, and perceptions about both their proficiency level and the target language. Self-repair plays an important role in the language learning process.

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Unit 8 ❑ Identifying and Remedying Errors in Writing

Structure

8.1 Objectives

After going through this unit the learners will be able to:

a. understand the sub-skills of writing

b. understand errors that occur in ESL writing
c. classify the types of errors
d. use appropriate strategies to remedy the errors
e. understand the teacher's role in error correction

8.2 Introduction

Among the four basic skills of the English language learning (i.e., *reading, listening, speaking, and writing*), writing is considered of paramount importance. It is widely used in higher education and occupational fields and many other domains where English is an indispensable medium of information exchange and sharing. Therefore, good writing skill in English is essential for writing assignments, answers, reviews, researches, reports, and many other activities. All these activities require advanced writing skills. But for ESL/ EFL learners, learning to write without errors in English is a challenging (if not impossible) task. In fact, it is a difficult task even for the advanced learners. Learners require knowledge of the language system, adequate vocabulary, skills to put right words together, create a coherent and cohesive piece of writing, embedmany intralinguistic and extralinguistic features and properties into text, and other skills which the learners need to put into practice for effectively expressing their ideas.

Errors in English writing of ESL/EFL learners have been studied at different levels of education and in different genres of writing in different countries. Elaborate information of writing errors is essential for improving the quality of writing of learners. Reviews are carried out to identify the most common errors in writing of EFL/ESL learners and to provide adequate remedial supports. Learners commit errors in writingand most of these errors are linked with lexical and grammatical aspects of English, such as wrong use of articles, prepositions, punctuations, spellings, word choice, word formation and sentence formation.Learner errors in writing have been an issue of discussion for a long timeamong linguists, researchers, English language teachers, curriculum developers, and syllabus designers. Some scholars (Corder1982) argue that learners' errors are essential for many purposes:

(a) It gives teachers an insight into the progress that learners make toward their goals;
(b) It helps researchers to understand the procedures and strategies that learners use for learning the language, and
(c) It helps learners to evaluate their own progress in learning the language.

In the process of English language learning and acquisition, errors will occuras errors are inseparable from the process of learning. It implies that when errors occur, actual learning takes place.However, the most important thing is that errors should be analysed carefully as the seeds of second language learning are embedded in learners' errors (Brown, 2000). In those contexts where English is used as a foreign language (EFL), lack of adequate exposure to English can affect the skills of learners and make the language learning process an upheaval task for learners (Lightbrownand Spada 1993). In such a situation, the productive skills (i.e., *speaking and writing*) are to be affected the most, as there is the least possibility for directcommunication through spoken or written interaction in the society. On the other hand, learners can have some scopes to develop their receptive skills (i.e., *reading and listening*) through watching news, documentaries, reading books, English newspapers, and magazines. Therefore, it is quite natural that in an ESL/EFL programme, learners are more prone to making errors in their productive skills than in receptive skills.

8.3 Causes of Errors

There are three causes of writing errors in ESL/EFL learning, namely, transfer, analogical, and teaching-induced errors.

(a) **Transfer errors** happen at the very beginning of the process of learning the second language. It is the interference of the first language into the second language as the native language is the only source of background information in relation to language. Learners refer mostly to their native language and apply the rules of the first language into the second language.

(b) **Analogical errors** occur when learners have learned the rules of the target language but are unable to apply these rules properly into correct situations based on the category or types of rules.

(c) **Teaching-induced errors** are committed when learners make errors in writing due to induced teaching by their teachers. It is mostly caused by wrong strategies and improper text materials used by teachers that steer learners into committing errors.

Writing is a crucial component of linguistic performance. Writing right English in educational and professionalsettings is important for many non-native speakers of English. The ESL/EFL learners are required to write in varieties of genres of writing, including business writing, summaries, internship reports, and research proposals. The ability for

good and correct writing requires sound knowledge of complexities of syntax and morphology, a wide range of vocabulary, good command over the conventional forms, and other means of signalling the relations of texts (Cumming,2001:3). Both ESL and EFL learners find it quite difficult to master all these aspects while trying to write an English text. It is impossible for them not to make errors in writing; but it is possible that they can minimize errors with careful execution of corrective measures.

8.4 Major Sources of Errors

Mastering writing skill in English is not a trivial task particularly for those who are learning English as a foreign language (EFL).Most of the EFL learners tend to commit errors in writing regardless of a long period of training in English. In fact, errors are considered important marks of language development in learning. According to scholars (Corder1967), errors made by ESL/EFL learners are significant because they provide researchers evidence to know how language is learned or acquired and to understand the strategies or procedures learners employ in learning the language. Learners' errors are a good register of their current perspectives on the target language.

Committing errors is an inevitable event that occurs in human learning, including language. Errors are used to be recognized as undesirable problems which teachers try to prevent. The conception of an error as a negative output of language learning is based on the behaviourist theory of learning. The behaviourist theory, anchoring on Skinner's model, suggests that learning is a habit formation process, resulting from reinforcement. Therefore, the external factors such as teachers' input and exposure to the native speaker environment play important roles in contributing to the learners' achievement in learning the target language. The reward for correct behaviour and the punishment for mistake and error are employed in shaping the verbal behaviour of learners. Recently, however, errors in learning are visualized from a new perspective, as a sign of learning progress. An error is perceived as evidence resulting from the language learning process in which learners use various strategies in learning a new language.

Errors refer to an identifiable alteration of grammatical elements of learners presenting the learners' competence in target language. These are viewed as non-native outcomes of learners' inadequate linguistic knowledge. These are linguistic forms or combinations of forms which in the same context and under similar conditions of production would, in all likelihood, not be produced by native speakers. Errors may occur systematically and repeatedly without any notice by learners. These are identifiable by teachers or others

who possess an accurate knowledge of the grammatical system of the target language. Earlier, native language interference was identified as the only source of errors committed by learners. Later studies, however, recognize two major sources of errors: interlingual and intralingual.

8.4.1 Interlingual Errors

Interlingual errors are defined as those errors that are caused by interference of native language. These errors are the results of learners' application of the native language elements in their spoken or written performances of the target language (Richards, 1971: 205). It is found to be the most dominant source of errors. When encountered with a new language, learners tend to consciously or unconsciously draw a connection between what they already know and what they do not. They carry over the existing knowledge of their native language to the performance of the target language (Ellis, 1997: 28). In most cases, it is impossible to learn a foreign/second language solely without depending on some linguistic features of the language which has already been acquired. At any rate, the interference can occur in various areas of linguistic components including phonology, morphology, grammar, syntax, lexis, and semantics (Ellis,2008:350).Furthermore, the influence may be measured in a degree to which both native language and target language differ or become similar to each other. The influence is stronger where there are greater differences (Odlin,1989:7).When the linguistic principles of the native language differ more from that of the target language, learners find it difficult to comprehend, and they begin to apply the rules and structures of the native language in their learning process(Krashen, 1981:65).

Attempts are made to analyse and describe errors in writing of ESL/EFL learners. It has been found that learners' native language is the main source of errors in writing. These errors are classified according to the existing linguistic taxonomy: orthographic, lexical, morphological, grammatical, semantic, mechanical, and word order. Among them, grammatical and mechanical errors are the most serious and frequent ones. With regard to grammar, errors are noted in the proper use of tense, voice, and modality, word choice, sentence structure, articles and prepositions, modals and auxiliaries, singular and plural forms, inflected and derived verb forms, pronouns, run-on sentences, infinitive/ gerunds, transition, subject-verb agreement, parallel structure, and comparison structures and others. Most of these errors are caused by learners' carelessness and their native language interference. Native language interference also plays a crucial role in making errors in writing texts of different genres (e.g., *narrative, descriptive, comparative, analytic, and reflective, etc*.).

8.4.2 Intralingual Errors

The intralingual errors refer to those errors that occur because of the ineffective traits of learning such as faulty application of rules and unawareness of the restrictions of rules of the target language (Richards, 1971:206). The intralingual errors are free from native language interference but are led by the target language itself. In the language learning process, these errors normally occur when learners have acquired insufficient knowledge in the target language (Kaweera,2013:13). These are also identified as 'developmental errors' that occur when learners attempt to build up hypotheses about the target language from their limited experience of it in the classroom or textbook(Richards, 1971: 209). It has been noted that many of the errors produced by ESL/EFL learners in writing are the results of learners' incomplete knowledge of the target language.

Many studies emphasize overgeneralization, incomplete application of rules, and false analogy as some of the sources of intralingual errors. Studies report many unique types of intralingual errors, such as errors in order of adjectives, use of is/are in a sentence, subject-verb agreement errors, direct/indirect object, verbs of feeling, past tense, present perfect, reported speech, passive voice, and question tag, etc. Many of these errors are caused mainly by overgeneralization, incomplete rule application, omission, and building of false concepts. The insights acquired from possible errors that occurred in ESL/EFL learners' compositions put teachers into a great challenge when they try to alter their English teaching strategies to ESL/EFL learners.

8.5 Characteristics and Types of Errors in Writing

In general, the ESL/EFL learners exhibit the following characteristics in errors in writing (Weir, 1988): high frequency of grammatical errors, lack of variety in grammatical structures employed, use of inappropriate vocabulary, use of inappropriate grammatical structures, limited range of vocabulary, poor knowledge in spelling, inadequate understanding of a topic, deficiency in clear self-expression, poor use of punctuation, poor handwriting, and untidiness.The most frequent types of errors committed by EFL/ ESL learners are the followings:

(a) **Orthography level:** Punctuation error, spelling error, incorrect capitalization, etc.

(b) **Word level:** Omission, mis-formation, addition, and mis-ordering of words, wrong use of words, wrong use of articles, prepositions and conjunctions, wrong lexical choice, use of inappropriate vocabulary, limited range of vocabulary, etc.

(d) Morphology level: Wrong verb formation, wrong past tense and present tense formation, wrong inflection and derivation, wrong pluralisation, wrong degree formation, wrong collocation, etc.

(e) Sentence level: Wrong word order, wrong sentence structure, wrong subject-verb agreement, wrong question sentence formation, wrong use of Wh-words, limited variety in grammatical structures, inappropriate grammatical structures, etc.

(f) Text level: Inadequate understanding of a topic, deficiency in clear self-expression, lack of clarity in expression, insufficient information, lack of logical cohesion in text formation, poor handwriting, untidiness, etc.

8.5.1 Errors at Orthography Level

(a) Errors in Spelling

Errors in spelling are one of the most common types of errors found in SL learner's writing. Some of the spelling errors identified in each sentence is shown below (Table 1). The examples show the errors in the area specified. In most cases, spelling problems in writing is caused due to confusion with a word of similar spelling.

Table 1: Typical spelling errors made by ESL/EFL learners

Wrong spelling	Right spelling	Wrong spelling	Right spelling
Aducation	education	buisness	business
By	buy	cerreer	career
Contries	countries	devolove	develop
Government	government	hapened	happened
higest	highest	importang	important
Knowledge	knowledge	Lifes	lives
Middle	middle	morden	modern
Obsession	obsession	technologys	technologies
Yecnologi	technology	writar	Writer
Cementary	cemetery	independant	independent
Receive	receive	comitment	commitment

Some spellings come to learners quite easily while others take a longer time to process. Some words in English are spelled the way we say them, which is easy for learners. Learners face real challenge in case of those words that have extra vowels or interchangeable letters that are used unnoticed as they sound natural when learners say them. There are also words in English that are misspelled because learners fail to notice that these words have repeating letters. Findings reveal that learners are often confused with words of similar spelling and different meanings. They also show confusion in spelling while they write. It is inferred that a cohort of learners faces severe challenges in spelling in their writing, which could be due to interference of their mother tongue or limited knowledge in spelling of English words.

(b) Errors in Punctuation

Misplacement or misuse of punctuation marks is another common type of orthographic error made by ESL/EFL learners. When looking at phrases or even full sentences, it is noted that sometimes learners have misplaced punctuation, or the use of a punctuation mark is not suitable to the tone of a statement. Although some punctuation markers (e.g., *periods, exclamation marks, question mark*s) are easy to use, it is still difficult for learners to decide when to end a sentence or use a comma or a semicolon. Lengthy sentences which are created by misplaced punctuation are difficult to read and comprehend. For instance, the following sentence is wrong because it makes no sense to use a comma after 'the' or 'fox'.

Incorrect use: "The, quick brown fox, jumped over the lazy dog."

Correct use: "The quick brown fox jumped over the lazy dog."

(c) Incorrect capitalization

The rules of capitalization in English are quite confusing, especially for ESL/EFL learners. Therefore it is common to see incorrect or missing capitals in ESL writings. In most cases, learners make errors in the use of capital "I", capitalize proper nouns (names of people, places, and organizations), capitalize the first letter of a new sentence, capitalize weekdays, holidays, and months of the year. On the other hand, they capitalize common nouns (e.g., car, pen, school, etc.) which they should not.

Wrong use: "This year i will be going to london to study at University. my visa application still has to be accepted but i have been told to expect it to arrive in january."

Correct use: "This year I will be going to London to study at university. My visa application still has to be accepted but I have been told to expect it to arrive in January."

8.5.2 Errors at Word Level

(a) Error in plural formation of nouns

Many learners demonstrate confusion in using nouns in writing. The main problem is that they fail to differentiate between countable and uncountable nouns. Also, their lack of knowledge in the process of plural formation causes errors in case of countable nouns. They assume that the regular plural suffix '-s' should be applied to countable plural nouns.

(a) Internet helps us to connect with our family **member** (members) or beloved ones who are at the foreign country.

(b) It makes life easy, for example shopping online, pay various **tax** (taxes) online and so on.

(c) Most of them who use the Internet probably want to finish their **homeworks** (homework) assignments, finding new **informations** (information) and so on.

(b) Error in use of preposition

The wrong use of prepositions is one of the most common grammatical errors committed by learners, indicating their poor knowledge of prepositions. In many reports produced by learners, prepositions are used interchangeably. Moreover, many learners believe that the use of preposition does not affect the central meaning of their sentences. Therefore, they are not particular about the proper use of prepositions in their texts. Carelessness, on the part of learners, appears to be one of the primary causes of such errors.

(a) The percentage of internet penetration clearly increases **by** (for) the North of America.

(b) If it is not given, they will die **from** (of) hunger.

(c) They have to search some information that is related **with** (to) their findings.

(d) **By** (through) internet, this company can introduce their products and expandbusiness.

(e) We can do other jobs before we want to spend time **in** (on) the internet.

(f) Parents that have kids who is using internet to learn **in** (at) an early age is a good method.

(g) As we can see **on** (in) the graph, Africa has the lowest percentage among the others.

(c) Error in use of adjectives

The wrong use of adjectives is noted when learners do not apply the conventional rules for forming correct comparative forms of monosyllabic and disyllabic adjectives. In case of disyllabic adjectives (e.g., *easy, busy,* etc.) learners normally fail to apply rules for producing comparative and superlative forms correctly.

(a) People nowadays prefer using internet which is **more easy** (easier) than newspapers, magazines and books.

(b) This is why North America become **busy and busier** (busier) each day.

(c) Therefore, their technology is far **more better** (better) than the Indian's.

(d) Omission of word

The omission is a process of not including certain necessary words in sentences. The ESL/EFL learners often make this kind of error. This error may include omission of articles, verbs, prepositions and other words in texts. It reveals the weakness of learners in writing a text properly.

Wrong use: "India is the country that ( ) not have the power …"

Correct use: "India is **(a)** country that (does) not have the power…"

(e) Error in collocation

Both ESL and EFL learners face problems with putting or arranging words together in a characteristic 'natural' native speaker-like manner during speech and writing. Collocation is concerned with co-occurrence of words (i.e., internal lexical-cum-semantic relationship between a word and co-words) in a sentence. It deals with how a word goes together, relates, or naturally selects the other word to help or define its meaning in a sentence. The lack of collocational competence among many ESL and EFL learners is associated with several factors. The effect of native language transferor interference, inadequate knowledge of collocation in English, interlingual or intralingual transfer, scarcity

in L1 translational equivalents, and learning strategies used are some of the reasons behind collocation errors among ESL and EFL learners (Table 2).

Table 2: Examples of collocation errors made by ESL/EFL learners

Incorrect Collocation	Correct Collocation	Incorrect Collocation	Correct Collocation
doing inspection	conduct inspection	educational circular	educational circle
something untoward	Something unforeseen	copted together	co-opted
bad peers	bad friends	biggest drawback	biggest set back
period duration	time limit	rolled into one	roll in one
height quest	high demand	there-by less	thereby less
full happy	very happy	any something	something
applies tales	recount tales	anytime movement	free movement

8.5.3 Errors at the Morphology Level

Morphological error is a common type of error at the early stage of ESL/EFL as rules and contexts of use of language are not fossilized in learners. Morphological errors are formed or made when the morphological aspects of grammar are being tainted or misinformed. Morphology relates to the structure of words; it is the relation on how words are formed and how various forms can fit together. When these rules are wrongly applied by ESL/EFL learners, it implies that they have committed some morphological errors, even though they have prior knowledge pertaining to the rules. There are four major factors due to which ESL/EFL learners make morphological errors:

(a) **Overgeneralization:** SL learners create a similar structure based on experience of the other structures,

(b) **Ignorance of rules restrictions:** SL learners apply the rules of context in a situation that they do not compromise,

(c) **Incomplete application of rules:** SL learners fail to apply the correct forms of rules in an appropriate manner that they have learned, and

(d) **False concept hypothesis:** SL learners make misassumption of the rules they have learned, as they do not fully grasp the morphological rules of English, the target language.

There are at least four major types that affect morphological errors, namely interlingual, intralingual, communication based-strategy, and induced errors.

(a) **Interlingual error s**take place when the mother language of ESL/EFL learners interferes with their learning of a second language. The mother language acts as a negative interference in learning.

(b) **Intralingual errors** happen when interference comes from the second language itself. It is the interference caused within the second language. Some common causes of intralingual errors are overgeneralization, misconceptions, and incomplete rules applications.

Table 3: Intralingual and interlingual morphological errors made by ESL/EFL learners

	Error	**Correction**	**Morphological Error**
Intralingual	The kitten did not walked towards Oscar.	The kitten did not **walk** towards Oscar.	Inflectional – Past tense (-ed)
	His father walked hurryiedly.	His father walked **hurriedly**.	Inflectional – Past tense (-ed)
	He is ten year-old-boy.	He is (a) ten **years**-old-boy.	Inflectional – Plural (s)
	It is meowing because it is scaring.	It is meowing because it is **scared.**	Inflectional – Past tense (-ed)
	Every afternoon, he at home and playing with kitten.	Every afternoon, he (is) at home and **plays** with (the) kitten.	Inflectional – Third Person Singular (s)
Interlingual	Anand has broke his leg.	Anand has **broken** his leg.	Inflectional – Past participle(-en)
	He want to help that kitten.	He **wanted** to help that kitten.	Inflectional – Past tense (-ed)
	The neighbour was thank you because he was recuing a kitten.	The neighbour **thanked him** because he (had) rescued (the) kitten.	Inflectional – Past tense (-ed)

(c) **Communication based-strategy errors** take place when the linguistic forms are available to learners and but learners fail to avail those rules leading to errors.

(d) **Induced errors** occur when the processes of ESL/EFL learning and teaching are misled. For instance, teachers provide wrong definitions, wrong examples, or wrong explanations during teaching and learning sessions result in misunderstandings among learners.

8.5.4 Errors at the Sentence level

(a) Error in subject-verb agreement

Among all grammatical errors, error in subject-verb agreement is the most common or prevailing type made by learners in English writing. It is observed that learners make such errors due to their inability in making appropriate subject-verb agreement decisions, indicating their dilemma informing a sentence correctly. The majority of learners face problems in agreement as they cannot make subject and verb agree because verb follows its subject closely and the number of subject is not often clear. They wrongly match singular subject with a plural verb and vice versa.

(a) Internet **are** (is) also used as a social hub such as Facebook, Twitter and sending email to each other.

(b) Internet **help** (helps) us to connect with our family members or beloved ones who are at the foreign country.

(c) The Prime Minister **ensure** (ensures) people well-known in internet for further education and to increase the economic level.

(d) The social lifestyle of population also **determine** (determines) the penetration of internet in a country.

(b) Error in use of tense

Learners make major errors in the use of tense. It is expected that learners with good knowledge of grammar rules in writing will use correct tenses to explain facts and other details. In case of writing a report, for instance, introduction and conclusion paragraph should reflect the usage of past tense as the text is reporting about an event that has already taken place. However, it is noted that learners often fail to change verbs into past tense form.

(a) The country that **has** internet (was) different in terms of the technology use.

(b) Most of them **does** not have access to internet.

(c) People from North America **is** already **develop**ed a habit.

(d) I am wondering how the learner in that country **were busy** to open book.

(e) The country **have to be exposes** children to the internet.

(f) That most people that **has using** the Internet.

(c) Error in use of 'have'

The ESL/EFL learners face difficulties in deciding and distinguishing the use of the verb 'have' in a particular context. In some cases, learners over-correct themselves by using 'have' in a redundant way. They also omit them to simplify their tasks or replace them with other forms. This shows that learners have great difficulties in understanding the concept of the verb 'have' and its correct use in a sentence.

(a) Counties like India, Bangladesh, and Pakistan **has** average….

(b) Some population in one countries **has** internet and some doesn't…

(c) The Asia **have** the highest percentage of population.

(d) The North India **have** less percentage...

(e) We can conclude that the largest country that **have** fast growing…

(f) Every countries **has** many access…

(g) A part of population that **have** internet…

(h) The Internet **have** been a great technology for…

(i) Different country **have** different...

(j) In Indian states, they **has** 30% of population...

8.5.5 Errors at the Text Level

A 'usage error' is a phenomenon when a word or a string of words in a sentence is grammatically possible but not usually accepted in Standard English. Hence native speakers rarely make usage errors, but ESL/EFL learners very often do. Such errors frequently occur in ESL/EFL learners' work when they look up a word in their own language and select a wrong English equivalent for the meaning they wish to express. Moreover, their failure to use English dictionary can result in this type of error.

(a) It is important to **control** (i.e. check) the results carefully.

(b) The dictator was **thrown over** (i.e., overthrown) in a people's revolt.

The 'usage error' in larger passages of writing is often the consequence of an attempt to render word-for-word into English from the mental version that ESL/EFL learners have in their native language. It is such kinds of errors in a learner's work that can make it difficult to understand what meaning is being conveyed. Usage errors, like grammar errors, are not particularly susceptible to removal by direct correction. Like grammar errors, they eventually disappear, particularly if learners read extensively in English. Teachers should alert ESL/EFL learners to usage errors in the way they convey a meaning that is common or integral to the subject.

Learners' productions are inherently variable and this variability is evident in the errors they make. Analyses of written texts of SL learners reflect on the issues of complexity, fluency, and accuracy in written productions of English texts. Variability in learner's texts is largely systematic. Hence, there is a need to investigate written texts of SL learners to see the different kinds of errors and variations in their writings. This may assist teachers in finding the best ways for overcoming problematic areas in learners' writings.

8.6 Issues in Correcting Writing Errors

How to improve ESL/EFL learner's ability in writing in English in general and in academic English writing in particular? This is an important question because both formal and academic writings appear to be a problematic area for many ESL/EFL learners. There are many ideas, views, and opinions relating to this problem. The issues concerned with improvements of ESL/EFL teaching are considered in two ways: (a) steps may be taken to deal with errors of individual learners (i.e. *individual writing courses*), and (b) steps may be taken to deal with the overall ESL/EFL teaching programme. In both cases, it includes more attention to the academic and personal problems of learners, more time devoted to individual learners, revision of writing courses, modification of teaching materials, collaboration among language instructors, adaptation of common approaches, application of follow-up methods, implementation of assessment methods on learner's progress and many such activities.

(a) The aims, objectives, and outcomes of each course is to be specified. The writing courses should provide scopes for extensive practice in the process of writing. It should expand learners' awareness of different kinds of writing (e.g.,

descriptive, narrative, argumentative, creative writing, etc.), and enable learners to be grammatically accurate while writing on a variety of topics and subject matters. Also, there should be provision and focus on planning, drafting, correcting and redrafting of different genres of writing.

(b) At an early stage of a writing course, learners are engaged in writing of a few paragraphs. They are taught to work on sentences and combination of sentences. They are taught to pay special attention to punctuation and spelling. They also work on discovery or creation of ideas and organizing them into paragraphs showing clear topics, developmental points, and conclusions. The writing activities may include paragraph writing, note-taking, answering questions, completing forms, report writing, letter writing, giving instructions, writing invitations, writing complaints, and replies to letters. The cognitive functions involved in writing activities may be specified as to draw conclusions, summarize, classify, compare, contrast, describe, answer questions, generalize, interpret, define, illustrate, exemplify, demonstrate, conclude, infer, prove, select, disapprove, approve, etc. (Wilkins 1976). The existing courses should show a gradual progression from writing paragraphs to writing three-paragraph essays to writing full essays to writing a seminar paper.

(c) The method of teaching writing in English in many countries, including India, is mostly traditional in nature. Learners are first instructed a mode of written discourse; then they are handed over a topic and asked to write about it using rhetorical modes that have been taught to them. The instructor checks learners' drafts and learners are asked to recopy the draft including teachers' corrections. In most cases, learners in writing activities are not just learners; they are group members, participants, text checkers, reviewers, commentators, and inquirers.

(d) The process of writing a piece of text is mostly 'cyclic' in nature. Learners start with a topic for writing. The first stage is a 'prewrite' stage which includes reading, research, discussion, web searching, planning, and listing points for writing. The second stage is 'first draft' where learners just have to write (i.e., *to put their thoughts on a piece of paper*). Here they should not worry about the conventions of writing. The third stage is 'revision'. In order to improve the quality of a piece of writing, learners can make changes in words in a text. The fourth stage is 'editing', where learners are to edit their works by consulting dictionaries and other resources. They can do 'peer-editing' also. They are free to edit their works over and over again. The fifth stage is 'final

draft' when they prepare a text for presentation. The final stage is 'presentation' when they present a text to instructor for review, assessment and correction. This stage might take learners back to the first stage of the process.

(e) Most of the existing writing courses that are designed to teach learners writing as a separate subject typically focus on fixing grammatical problems at sentence level. As a result of this, they invariably neglect to link the writing instructions with authentic content area writing assignments that ESL/EFL learners encounter in their studies. Such negligence leads scholars to argue for introducing 'integrated teaching' (e.g., *combination of vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, discourse,* etc.), which is believed to improve learners' writing skills more. Modern scholars see both reading and writing as two sides of the same process. Reading is reception of a message transmitted through written words while writing is transmission of a message through written words. It is believed that integrated reading and writing methods can be more useful for effective language teaching where improvement in proficiency level is clearly discernible. It is always important to show learners how to use readings as a useful method in order to improve the quality of their own writing.

(f) While new insights into composing processes are important, grammar is indispensable. Learners need to focus more on grammar when it relates to their communicative needs and experiences (Savignon, 1993:43). Novice writers cannot write correctly just by following the processes alone. They should be explicitly told why a particular text is better composed than the other. They should be helped to develop their ability to evaluate their own writings and to correct their errors. Error analysis as a learning tool helps learners identify grammatical errors in their own and other learners' writing samples. Self-correction as well as peer-correction encourage the active role of learners and promote cooperative learning. Involving learners in their own writing assessment is highly motivating and it increases learner's involvement in an academic exercise.

(g) Treatment of errors is another big issue. In most cases, tactful correction of learners' writing is essential (Ferris, 2002). It is helpful to have different strategies when responding to errors found in learners' writing. The learners' errors, which are repetitive in nature, may be put as samples on the board and learners should be asked to correct errors. Error analysis can be a core event in a writing class. If learners are not given credit for their efforts and no feedback is given

to learners, their intrinsic motivation will begin to decrease (Lile, 2002: 11). They should always be encouraged to write and express themselves on subjects of their interest. They need to know that the writing process is a difficult job and through practice only they can rectify their errors. Teachers should help learners gain confidence in writing and this help may take learners from a state of insecurity to a stage of success (Cimcoz, 1999: 2).

(h) The text materials have to be selected and approved carefully keeping in mind the nature and goal of a writing course as well as the requirement of the course. This is important because textbooks systematize linear methods to teach processes of sentence building, paragraphing, and standard, rhetorical academic modes of writing. Moreover, textbooks should not be culturally inappropriate and writing models should not be outside of most of the learners' knowledge. Before the introduction of the writing course, a course outline should be handed over to learners. The course outline should include necessary information regarding course description, textbooks to be used, working requirements, course timetable, assessment, examinations and marking schemes. Besides textbooks, extra study materials from various sources may be included to help in teaching the writing skills.

(i) When writing is limited only to writing courses, learners get insufficient practical experience in writing. To overcome this limitation, writing exercises should be encouraged and assessed as parts of the whole ESL/EFL course. Different types of writing activities are important for teaching writing skills. Since the only way to learn good writing is to write more, learners should write something every day based on different types of writing tasks. Both free and controlled writing activities can be developed and adopted at different stages of a writing lesson. A good way of teaching writing is through literature, which combines entertainment and education as well as provides learners an opportunity to appreciate the language they are learning. All essential elements of English language learning (i.e., *grammar, subject-verb agreement, punctuation, tenses, parts of speech, usage, meaning, collocation*, etc.) can be effectively taught through literature as literature provides interesting and lively examples of such essential elements and their variations.

(j) It is always helpful to encourage learners to use different activities and strategies to improve their writing skills. They may be encouraged to keep journals, have pen-friends, keep copies of everything they write, use word processors, etc.

(Ellis and Sinclair 1991: 106). In fact, using a computer as a tool for teaching writing skills is a very popular method. There are many things in a computer than simply word processing software. If learners do not use it, they missout on some exciting and valuable ways of learning the writing skill. Computers can be used to teach writing effectively in many different ways (e.g., *word processing tool for writing and revising a text, e-mail for peer response, journal paper writing, online class discussion, and communication*). The implementation of this process requires teachers to be equipped with frequent writing exercises and spend more time checking, marking, and giving feedback to learners.

(k) Since writing is an extension of a complex thought process (a cognitive operation), it is sensible to publish periodicals and magazines with texts written by learners. Also, writing competitions may be arranged to hone up the skill of learners. Internet resources may be used based on situations to train learners about various finer aspects of writing. A library with books, periodicals, and magazines on many subjects of interest of learners can contribute to developing love for reading—a fundamental prerequisite for developing good writing skills.

(l) Studies reveal that learners make use of various strategies (e.g., *simplification, paraphrasing, overgeneralization, hypercorrection, avoidance, switching topics and giving up message, Interlingual transfer, intralingual transfer,* etc.) while they are engaged in writing. Learning all these strategies is quite important for learners and a teacher has to oversee that learners develop these abilities in writing. Learning to write is a gradual process which begins with simple copying and ending with free expression. Under the guidance of a teacher, learners can be trained systematically through several stages of writing exercises. However, they have to be careful since 'strategies' and 'processes' are not the same thing, and there always lies a gap between a surface structure and an intended meaning.

(m) There is no perfect method which is going to be a 'whole method' to answer all the unsolved questions. There are advantages and disadvantages of each approach or method. In order to design a syllabus for teaching writing in ESL/ EFL courses, it is necessary to identify the course consumers, their needs, abilities, conceptual-cum-intellectual levels, and motivation. Teachers are free to use different approaches depending on the need of learners. They may mix approaches to see their learners' reactions and levels of intake. There is no

perfect method for teaching writing skills. However, the highly recommended way to teach learners to write is to get them to read and write then write and read and revise and rewrite and edit again and again, drafting and re-drafting, self-correction, and how to employ strategies of making comparisons within their own use of language to develop fluent writing.

(n) Motivation and attitude are important factors in all learning processes. Motivation is the key to all learning. Academic achievement is more a product of appropriate placement of priorities and responsible behaviour than of intelligence. As learners progress, the correlation between their attitudes and their achievement increases. A teacher can do a lot to improve learners' motivation and his effort is an essential part of his teaching profession. Learners' high expectations for a higher grade may negatively affect learners' motivation. Although developing test procedures for valid and reliable evaluation and assessment is significantly important, it does very little to motivate learners to continue learning if their perceived levels of performance are not compatible with those of their teachers. Therefore teachers must look into raising learners' awareness of their abilities.

(o) Motivation and attitude are not only related to learners, these are also related to teachers. If learners are motivated to learn but teachers are not motivated to teach, the result will be the same—disappointment on the part of learners and loss of their interest. In the end, there will be no actual learning. The task of teaching writing skill needs devoted teachers because they need to spend more time on identifying and correcting writing errors made by learners. They also need to devote more time to remedial exercises sacrificing more central issues (e.g., *overall organization, cohesion, coherence, clarity of meaning*) of text writing.

(p) English writing can be a difficult task if learners do not make use of many English language writing resources that are available to help them. Learners should be encouraged to use dictionaries, style guides, spelling checking, verification of writing by fellow learners, and of course by their English language teachers.

8.7 Correcting Errors in Writing

When it comes to error correction, it relates to dealing with a teacher's reaction to

a learner's piece of writing. It inevitably means that there will be some disagreement among teachers about what, when, and how to correct errors. Therefore, it is necessary to highlight some key areas relating to error correction: attitudes to error correction, categorizing errors in writing, model for correcting errors in writing, role of planning in error correction, and practical ideas applied for correcting errors in writing.

(a) **Attitudes to error correction**: Attitudes to error correction vary not only among teachers but also among learners. A teacher may consider the fact that English is the second language of learners, and therefore, greater emphasis should be placed on correctness in writing. In the 1960s, a teacher used to follow the Audio-Lingual Method adopted in behaviourist approach to errors. At present, teachers follow the Natural Approach influenced by second language acquisition theory and highlight psychological effects of error correction on learners. Teachers have not only to consider age and learning stage, but also approach of learners to learning. Some learners are risk-takers, while others write something if they are sure it is correct. Being a risk-taker is positive as it leads to greater fluency, but they may be more concerned with fluency at the expense of accuracy. Some learners may take time to produce a piece of writing as they constantly revise what they have written, while others do it as fast as possible without any planning or editing.

(b) **Categorizing errors in writing:** A teacher can categorize an error by reasonsof its production or by its linguistic type. An error is a result of a random guess (pre-systematic). It is produced while testing out hypotheses (systematic). It is a lapse or a mistake (caused by carelessness, fatigue, etc.) (post-systematic). To be sure about the type of error produced by a learner one has to know where the learner's interlanguage is. He can classify errors as productive (written) and receptive (faulty understanding). Alternatively, he can also classify errors as orthographic error, lexical error, syntactic error, interpretive error, pragmatic error, etc.

(c) **Model for correcting errors in writing:** When writing, learners have a chance to rephrase or clarify what they are writing. Their message must be clear. Written errors are less tolerated than spoken errors outside the classroom. While correcting writing errors, a teacher has to look at the following properties: comprehensibility of writing, sense of coherence, effect of the overall message, instance of communication breakdown, treatment of topic, syntax and word use, level of accuracy, etc.

(d) Role of planning in error correction: Giving learners time to plan before they start writing not only results in a wider range of language being used, it also helps learners to avoid some of the following errors: inappropriate layout, no paragraphs, lack of cohesion, inappropriate style, etc. Whichever style of plan they may adopt, these issues help learners to consider the following issues in writing: theme of writing, type of layout, amount of information to be included, number of paragraphs required, kind of grammar, and vocabulary to be used, etc.

(e) Practical techniques/ideas for correcting writing: It is necessary to train learners to edit their texts. Even though they invest time in doing a writing task, learners often do not spend much time checking their writing. To develop editing skills of learners, teachers have to focus on key errors without individual learners losing face. It is difficult to decide on what and how much to correct in a learner's piece of writing. Learners can develop a negative attitude towards writing because their teacher corrects all their errors or if the teacher only corrects a few, they might feel that the teacher has not spent sufficient time looking at their works.

8.8. Teacher's Role in Error Correction

Analysis of learner's errors reveals that many ESL/EFL learners have a poor command of the English language. Errors are expected in the process of learning and it is very important to identify causes behind such occurrences. In most cases, errors occurred from overgeneralization and ignorance of restrictions in the use of rules. In this context, it becomes relevant to see EFL/ESL teachers help learners to produce better writing by understanding learner's weaknesses in writing.

(a) Teachers can modify their teaching strategies and styles based on learner's needs or writing errors. Since learners make grammatical errors in writing due to their inadequate grammatical knowledge, it suggests that teachers take some initiative to enhance learner's writing, specifically by providing feedback after marking their texts and asking learners to rewrite texts after corrections.

(b) Teachers can integrate grammar instructions with writing instructions. They should use grammar terms that make sense to learners. By incorporating grammar terms naturally into the processes of editing, revising, and proofreading, teachers help learners understand and apply grammar purposefully to their own writing.

(c) Teachers can define strategies and engage learners in production of new kinds of texts such as writing conferences, partnership writing, grammar mini-lessons, and peer response groups, situational texts, and others. These are valuable methods for integrating grammar into writing instructions. It is a useful possibility for teachers to employ new strategies to assist learners in applying grammatical concepts to acquire good writing skills.

(d) It is not enough to learn only the language skills to be able to write accurately and fluently. The EFL/ESL instructors may slow down the process of teaching writing skills to analyse what is happening around them and specify what first-language users take for granted. Therefore, learners, who are still learning the processes of thinking for writing, require help from teachers to structure and organize their ideas. Teachers need to apply strategies of persuasion in order to develop writing skills. They should develop models which consist of three phases: (a) teacher encourages oral activities by brainstorming for ideas on a particular theme; (b) provides learners with some frameworks to help them organize their ideas, and (c) corrects writing errors and points out flaws in organizing ideas (Chakravarty and Gautam 2000:24).

(e) Teachers cannot expect weak learners to improve simply by equipping them with strategies of good writing. Teachers need to explore ways of scaffolding learners' learning and using knowledge of language to guide them towards a conscious understanding of target genres and the ways language creates meanings in context (Hyland, 2003: 21). Language learning occurs most effectively as part of an 'interactive cycle of teaching and learning' which includes modelling of a target text by a teacher, co-production of an instance of a target text by teacher and learner (scaffolding), and finally independent production of a target text by learners (Feez, 2002: 64-65).

(f) The ESL/EFL teachers play the most persuasive role in teaching writing skills to learners. They should remember that writing is an individual effort and skill, therefore, their role is to share in the process by offering constructive criticism and correcting errors. An adequate in-class explanation is needed so that learners can understand what is expected from them. In an ESL/EFL programme, especially at the beginning stage, a teacher should not be only a 'writing teacher' but also an ESL/EFL teacher because a teacher has to constantly go back and revise skills which have already been taught to learners. The skill of writing can be further enhanced by activities that involve pair work and group work in writing exercises.

(g) In reality, learners seem never to stop making errors in writing in EFL/ESL classes in spite of all efforts made by their teachers. It is too difficult to bridge the gap between 'skill getting' and 'skill using' because of the restrictions imposed by formal classroom environment. To overcome this situation, an ESL/ EFL classroom should be a place where learners enjoy the merit of sharing work-in-progress with their fellow members in the classroom trying to communicate through writing. It is the duty of a teacher to bridge the gap between linguistic competence and communicative competence of learners (Revell, 1979).

8.9 Pedagogical Implications

Some pedagogical implications are drawn from the discussions presented above. First of all, errors made by learners can be useful signs of learners' progress in their language learning process. Errors can be used in checking what has been learnt and what has been missed by learners. The writing instructors can identify the language developmental stage of ESL/EFL learners based on errors they commit in their productions of writing; so they can prepare teaching materials and revise their teaching strategies accordingly. Secondly, present discussion provides ESL/EFL instructors necessary information about the areas of linguistic difficulties which ESL/EFL learners face in learning writing. More specifically, instructors clearly realize that grammar is still a problematic area for many ESL/EFL learners. In ESL/EFL writing classrooms, limited knowledge of grammar causes problems for effective writing. Being aware of the linguistic elements of difficulties can help instructors to figure out ways to overcome such problems. Finally, instructors should pay attention to the interference of learners' native language. Understanding the influences of learners' native language that hinder ESL/EFL learners may allow writing instructors to mark their teaching that helps learners to overcome their all learning problems. Future research should focus on exploring particular and effective ways to lessen the load of errors in writing influenced by learners' native language. Findings of future research should assist ESL/EFL learners in acculturating themselves into new linguistic forms they are learning without depending on their native language.

8.10 Summing Up

Writing is a productive skill. It is one of the most difficult and therefore challenging tasks in an ESL/EFL programme. It is especially difficult for ESL/EFL learners because

they are expected to write in such a manner that can demonstrate their abilities in organizing content, use correct words and sentences, exhibit coherence in text formation, carry required amount of data and information, and suitable to a particular area of thought. Also, they are supposed to address the correct audience as well as demonstrate their good linguistic abilities in the use of vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, grammar, etc. The level of difficulty is increased by learners' psychological processes, which also create hurdles in the whole process of writing. The problem is further complicated with the issues of subsequent verification, checking, assessment, and evaluation by peers and teachers.

The discussions presented above show that writing errors that are made by learners are more or less systematic, classifiable, and pattern-based. This implies that both teachers and learners must see errors as useful cues for understanding and solving accuracy problems in English writing courses. The responsibility of a teacher is to adopt, modify or develop remedial procedures that can elevate learners' level of proficiency as well as minimize their errors in writing. Teachers should find out some easy and useful methods to deliver lessons to learners. This is, however, a tough task as there is no single method which is complete and holistic enough to be the best method. Teachers can apply different methods that are suitable for learners' needs, interests, and abilities.

Grammar rules are essential for helping learners realize their errors that result from wrong analogy with their native languages and overgeneralization. Learners should be always encouraged to do remedial exercises. The ability to communicate properly cannot be fulfilled unless the grammar of English becomes a part of the competence of learners. Grammar consists of various levels, which are ordered and interrelated. Teachers have to be realistic in expectations from their learners. The act of writing is a highly complex cognitive process even for in one's native language let alone in a second language. Developing the necessary skills to improve learners' writing is a harder task. The writing courses, if required, may be revised and improved so that learners can earn more benefits with limited effort and exercise.

8.11 Review Questions

(1) What can be the major causes of errors in writing? Explain.

(2) What are the major sources of errors in writing? Explicate.

(3) What are the basic differences between interlingual and intralingual errors?

(4) What are the most frequent types of errors committed by EFL/ESL learners?

(5) Identify and explain the major types of errors at the word level

(6) What are the four major factors behind morphological errors of ESL/EFL learners?

(7) What are the major types of errors done by ESL/EFL learners at the sentence level?

(8) What are the major issues involved in correcting writing errors?

(9) What are the roles of a teacher in writing error correction?

(10) What are the pedagogical implications of errors made by ESL/EFL learners?

8.12 Glossary of Terms

Behaviourist theory: Behaviourism is the earliest language learning theory which is propounded by J. B. Watson in 1913. It argues that humans learn a language through repeating the same form and text until it becomes a habit. Children imitate the sounds and patterns which they hear around. The behaviourist theory believes that infants learn oral language from other human role models through a process involving imitation, rewards, and practice. When a child attempts oral language or imitates the sounds or speech patterns they are usually praised and given affection for their efforts.

Hypercorrection: It is a non-standard use of language that results from over-application of a perceived rule of language-usage prescription. A writer who produces a hypercorrection generally believes through a misunderstanding of such rules that the form is more 'correct', standard, or otherwise preferable, often combined with a desire to appear formal or educated. In language learning, over-application of rules of phonology, syntax, or morphology result from different rules in varieties of the second language.

Intrinsic motivation: It is an act of doing something without any obvious external reward. We perform an activity for its own sake rather than from the desire for some external reward. The behaviour itself is its own reward. We do it because we like it, it is enjoyable and interesting, rather than because of an outside incentive or pressure to do it, such as a reward or a deadline.

Linguistic Taxonomy: Taxonomic linguistics deals with classes of language constituents

and with the relationships existing between these classes and language constituents themselves. Traditional linguistics is primarily taxonomic in its approach. The taxonomic approach is put in contrast to the generative approach of generative grammar.

Native language interference: It is the transfer of elements of one's native language into learning of another language. Elements may include phonological, grammatical, lexical, and orthographical. The most common types of native-language interference are related to word order, word choice, word forms, subject-verb agreement, tense choice and consistency, article usage, and preposition usage, etc.

Orthography: An orthography is a set of conventions for writing a language. It includes norms of spelling, hyphenation, capitalization, word breaks, emphasis, punctuation, and other issues. An orthography consists of a set of visible marks, forms, or structures called characters or graphs that are related to some structure in the linguistic system.

Paraphrasing: A paraphrase is a restatement of the meaning of a text or passage using other words. A paraphrase typically explains or clarifies the text that is being paraphrased. For example, *"The signal was red"* might be paraphrased as *"The train was not allowed to pass because the signal was red"*. Paraphrasing means reformulating someone else's ideas in our own words. To paraphrase a source, we have to rewrite a passage without changing the meaning of the original text. Paraphrasing is an alternative to quoting, where we copy someone's exact words and put them in quotation marks. A paraphrase is typically more detailed than a summary. We should add the source at the end of the sentence.

Productive skills: Speaking and writing skills are known as productive skills as they require some form of language output. Learners doing these works need to produce language. They are often compared with receptive skills (i.e., *listening and reading*). Alternatively, productive skills are referred to as active skills, while receptive skills are referred to as passive skills.

Reinforcement: In behavioural psychology, reinforcement is a consequence applied that strengthens an organism's future behaviour whenever that behaviour is preceded by a specific antecedent stimulus. This strengthening effect may be measured as a higher frequency of behaviour (e.g., *pulling a lever more frequently*),

longer duration (e.g., *pulling a lever for longer periods of time*), greater magnitude (e.g., *pulling a lever with greater force*), or shorter latency (e.g., *pulling a lever more quickly following the antecedent stimulus*).

Syllabus: A syllabus is a basic contract between an instructor and students. It lays out works, duties, responsibilities, and expectations on both sides. It is also a road map that shows the general contours of a course, important milestones, and landmarks that will let students know they are on the right road. It provides a way to reach out to students before the course starts, establishes a positive tone for the course, helps students assess their readiness for the course, situates the course in a broader context for learning, and communicates the ways technology will be used in the course.

8.13 Books Recommended

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MODULE-3 : SELECTION AND GRADATION

Unit 9 ❑ Concepts of Language Selection

Structure

9.1 Objectives

This module helps the learners understand:

a. the process of language selection for language teaching-learning,

b. how the selected materials are graded to make them part of various courses

c. how the syllabus designing aids developing teaching materials

d. different types of materials that make the course effective.

e. different principles involved in materials production.

9.2 Introduction

From the previous modules on Applied Linguistics, you must have understood the fact that language and content are inseparable. In other words, language learnt and used are dependent on the content and context in which they are used. So, a set of selected language texts with content, for teaching-learning purposes form the *materials* for that course. Materials are used to enhance the learners' knowledge of language thereby allowing them to use and function in that language. They give necessary space for the learners to experience language to be used for various purposes in a variety of life-like situations.

9.3 Types of materials

There are different types of materials that are used for language teaching-learning purposes. Let us understand them before we discuss the concept and process of language selection.

Question:

What are the other terms used instead of materials that you are familiar with? Can you try and give a definition to them?

Your response:

In your student days at school and college, you must have come across a variety of materials that you used for learning language. In the discussion that follows, we have attempted to help you become familiar with some types of materials which are popular among the teachers.

9.3.1 Authentic materials:

Authentic materials are texts that are neither written nor spoken for language teaching-learning purposes. They include a variety of sources that are found at large and include materials such as a newspaper article, a song, a novel, a radio talk/ interview, set of

instructions given to play a game and a traditional fairy tale. A story written to use in the language classroom to teach reported speech or third person narration, a dialogue written as model for different language functions and an abridged or simplified version of a novel would not be authentic texts.

9.3.2 Coursebook:

A coursebook is a textbook that provides materials for language teaching and learning purposes of a course. The coursebook tries to provide all the materials required to learn in order to achieve the objectives of the course. In other words, a coursebook includes reading material, practice exercises, tasks to be carried out pre-, while and -post reading. In addition, it has tasks on all the language skills, Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing, structures and functions that include exercises on grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

9.3.3 Supplementary materials:

Supplementary Materials are additional materials that can be used while teaching on a course. They are usually not part of the course but selected by the teacher either to fill the gaps in the course books or to give additional practice on the language items to be learnt during the course. They can be audio/audio-visual text of the reading text given in the coursebook or grammar and/or vocabulary practice books.

9.3.4 Text:

A text is a form of language presented to the learners. It can be in various forms: spoken or written, visual, audio or audio-visual. A written text can be of various genres that include a poem, a novel, a newspaper article, an advertisement, a description label on a product, a hoarding, name-plates, menu cards and so on. An audio-visual text can be a speech, a song, a film, a live conversation, an enacted drama, a recorded phone conversation, a scripted dialogue or a speech by a politician. A text can be authentic, produced for various purposes or the one brought out for language teaching-learning purposes.

9.3.5 Workbook:

A workbook contains extra practice activities for the learners to gain confidence through learning a particular language skill or element. Usually workbooks are used as supplementary material where the learners can complete the tasks on their own as they learn how and what to do with the task from their regular course book. Many workbooks

also facilitate self-correction or peer-correction as they give the key at the end of the book.

The instructional or learning materials, in any of the types given above are a primary resource for language learning and therefore must be selected wisely. Unlike before where the printed textbook form was the only form of materials, now we have several other forms: audio, visual and audio-visual texts, graphic novels, informational texts, webpages, and ever-changing digital sources as we have understood from the previous section.

9.4 Criteria for Language Selection

Sources: Understanding the various purposes and a variety of contexts in which a language learner has to function in, it is always better that we include as many sources of input as possible. The language teachers themselves can choose materials for teaching as they know the objectives of the course as well as the learner's needs better than an outsider who is a professional writer of course books. The teacher can choose the language that allows learners

a. To be informed about the language; rules for appropriate use of language (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation)

b. To experience the use of language through the exposure provided (listening and reading)

c. To experiment with the language acting like stimulus (speaking and writing)

d. To maximise the input resulting in better output

As Tomlinson (2011) says, we should focus on three vital questions when we are in the process of language or material selection:

1. *What should be provided for the learners?* The answer to this question includes the form and content of language material to given to the learners.

2. *How it should be provided?* The teaching techniques, the procedure in which the language material is to be provided to the leaners should be clearly defined.

3. *What can be done with it to promote language learning?* Once given to the learners, the learners should be trained in using the material appropriately to serve their purpose of language learning.

There are three different aspects that are to be taken into consideration while selecting language:

1. The language to be used for teaching-learning purposes in a classroom primarily depends on the target groups of learners, their needs, prior knowledge of language and experience of learning a language.
2. The content developer needs to know the aims and objectives of the course that will help decide on the language and content that is to be incorporated in the materials.
3. Materials developers need to understand the theories of language acquisition and principles of language teaching (Tomlinson,2010).

9.4.1 Materials should achieve impact

Impact is achieved when materials have a noticeable effect on learners that is when the learners' curiosity, interest and attention are attracted. If this is achieved, there is a better chance that some of the language in the materials will be taken in for processing. Materials can achieve impact through:

(a) novelty (e.g. unusual topics, illustrations and activities);

(b) variety (e.g. breaking up the monotony of a unit routine with an unexpected activity; using many different text-types taken from many different types of sources; using a number of different instructor voices on a CD);

(c) attractive presentation (e.g. use of attractive colours; lots of white space; use of photographs);

(d) appealing content (e.g. topics of interest to the target learners; topics which offer the possibility of learning something new; engaging stories; universal themes; local references);

(e) achievable challenge (e.g. tasks which challenge the learners to think).

One obvious point is that impact is not uniform across all learners and all societies. What achieves impact with a class in Uttar Pradesh might not achieve the same impact with a class in Gujarat. And what achieves impact with ten learners in a class might not achieve the same impact with the other five. In order to maximise the likelihood of achieving impact, the writer needs to know as much as possible about the target learners and about what is likely to attract their attention. In order to achieve the impact with most of the learners, the writer also needs to offer many choices. The more varied the choice of topics, texts and activities, the more likely is the achievement of impact.

9.4.2 Materials should help learners to feel at ease

Research has shown … the effects of various forms of anxiety on acquisition: the less anxious the learner, the better language acquisition proceeds. Similarly, relaxed and comfortable students apparently can learn more in shorter periods of time. (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982) Although it is known that pressure can stimulate some types of language learners, most researchers would agree that most language learners benefit from feeling at ease and that they lose opportunities for language learning when they feel anxious, uncomfortable or tense (Oxford1999). Some materials developers argue that it is the responsibility of the teacher to help the learners to feel at ease and that the materials themselves can do very little to help. This view is disputed. Materials can help learners to feel at ease in a number of ways. For example, most learners:

a. feel more comfortable with written materials with lots of white space than they do with materials in which lots of different activities are crammed together on the same page;

b. are more at ease with texts and illustrations that they can relate to their own culture than they are with those which appear to them to be culturally alien;

c. are more relaxed with materials which are obviously trying to help them to learn than they are with materials which test them.

d. Feeling at ease can also be achieved through a 'voice' which is relaxed and supportive, through content and activities which encourage the personal participation of the learners, through materials which relate the world of the book to the world of the learner and through the absence of activities which could threaten self-esteem and cause humiliation.

Conventionally, language-learning materials are de-voiced and anonymous. They are usually written in a semiformal style and reveal very little about the personality, interests and experiences of the writer. What I would like to see materials writers do is to chat with the learners casually in the same way that good teachers do and to try to achieve personal contact with them by revealing their own preferences, interests and opinions. I would also like to see them try to achieve a personal voice (Beck, McKeown and Worthy 1995) by ensuring that what they say to the learners contains such features of orality as: • informal discourse features (e.g. contracted forms, informal lexis); • the active rather than the passive voice; • concreteness (e.g. examples, anecdotes); • inclusiveness (e.g. not signalling intellectual, linguistic or cultural superiority over the learners).

9.4.3 Materials should help learners to develop confidence

Relaxed and self-confident learners learn faster (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982). Most materials developers recognise the need to help learners to develop confidence, but many of them attempt to do so through a process of simplification. They try to help the learners to feel successful by asking them to use simple language to accomplish easy tasks such as completing substitution tables, writing simple sentences and filling in the blanks in dialogues. This approach is welcomed by many teachers and learners. But in my experience it often only succeeds in diminishing the learners. They become aware that the process is being simplified for them and that what they are doing bears little resemblance to actual language use. They also become aware that they are not really using their brains and that their apparent success is an illusion. And this awareness can even lead to a reduction in confidence. I prefer to attempt to build confidence through activities which try to 'push' learners slightly beyond their existing proficiency by engaging them in tasks which are stimulating, which are problematic, but which are achievable too. It can also help if the activities encourage learners to use and to develop their existing extra-linguistic skills, such as those which involve being imaginative, being creative or being analytical. Elementary-level learners can often gain greater confidence from making up a story, writing a short poem or making a grammatical discovery than they can from getting right a simple drill. For more discussion of the value of setting learners achievable challenges see de Andres (1999) and Tomlinson (2003b, 2006). The value of engaging the learners' minds and utilising their existing skills seems to be becoming increasingly realised in countries that have decided to produce their own materials through textbook projects rather than to rely on global course books, which seem to underestimate the abilities of their learners. See Tomlinson (1995) for a report on such projects in Bulgaria, Morocco and Namibia, and Popovici and Bolitho (2003) for a report on a project in Romania. See Tomlinson et al. (2001).

9.4.4 Materials should require and facilitate learner self-investment

Many researchers have written about the value of learning activities that require the learners to make discoveries for themselves. For example, Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith (1988) assert that the role of the classroom and of teaching materials is to aid the learner to make efficient use of the resources in order to facilitate self-discovery. Similar views are expressed by Bolitho and Tomlinson (1995); Bolitho et al. (2003), Tomlinson (1994a, 2007) and Wright and Bolitho (1993). It would seem that learners

profit most if they invest interest, effort and attention in the learning activity. Materials can help them to achieve this by providing them with choices of focus and activity, by giving them topic control and by engaging them in learner-centered discovery activities. Again, this is not as easy as assuming that what is taught should be learned, but it is possible and extremely useful for textbooks to facilitate learner self-investment. In my experience, one of the most profitable ways of doing this is to get learners interested in a written or spoken text, to get them to respond to it globally and affectively and then to help them to analyse a particular linguistic feature of it in order to make discoveries for themselves (see Tomlinson 1994a for a specific example of this procedure). Other ways of achieving learner investment are involving the learners in mini-projects, involving them in finding supplementary materials for particular units in a book and giving them responsibility for making decisions about which texts to use and how to use them (an approach I saw used with great success in an Indonesian high school in which each group in a large class was given responsibility for selecting the texts and the tasks for one reading lesson per semester).

9.4.5 Materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use

Krashen (1985) makes the strong claim that comprehensible input in the target language is both necessary and sufficient for the acquisition of language provided that learners are 'affectively disposed to "let in" the input they comprehend' (Ellis 1994: 273). Few researchers would agree with such a strong claim, but most would agree with a weaker claim that exposure to authentic use of the target language is necessary but not sufficient for the acquisition of that language. It is necessary in that learners need experience of how the language is typically used, but it is not sufficient because they also need to notice how it is used and to use it for communicative purposes themselves. Materials can provide exposure to authentic input through the advice they give, the instructions for their activities and the spoken and written texts they include. They can also stimulate exposure to authentic input through the activities they suggest (e.g. interviewing the teacher, doing a project in the local community, listening to the radio, etc.). In order to facilitate acquisition, the input must be comprehensible (i.e. understandable enough to achieve the purpose for responding to it). This means that there is no point in using long extracts from newspapers with beginners, but it does not mean that beginners cannot be exposed to authentic input. They can follow instructions intended to elicit physical responses, they can listen to dramatic renditions of stories, they can listen to songs, they can fill in forms. Ideally materials at all levels should provide

frequent exposure to authentic input which is rich and varied. In other words the input should vary in style, mode, medium and purpose and should be rich in features which are characteristic of authentic discourse in the target language. And, if the learners want to be able to use the language for general communication, it is important that they are exposed to planned, semi-planned and unplanned discourse (e.g. a formal lecture, an informal radio interview and a spontaneous conversation). The materials should also stimulate learner interaction with the input rather than just passive reception of it. This does not necessarily mean that the learners should always produce language in response to the input; but it does mean that they should at least always do something mentally or physically in response to it.

See in particular Chapters 1, 2, 3, 4, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 17 of this book for arguments in favour of exposing learners to authentic materials, and also see Gilmore (2007) and Mishan (2005). 1.4.8 The learners' attention should be drawn to linguistic features of the input There seems to be an agreement amongst many researchers that helping learners to pay attention to linguistic features of authentic input can help them to eventually acquire some of those features. However, it is important to understand that this claim does not represent a Introduction 15 back-to-grammar movement. It is different from previous grammar teaching approaches in a number of ways.

9.5 Summary

In the first place the attention paid to the language can be either conscious or subconscious. For example, the learners might be paying conscious attention to working out the attitude of one of the characters in a story, but might be paying subconscious attention to the second conditionals which the character uses. Or they might be paying conscious attention to the second conditionals, having been asked to locate them and to make a generalisation about their function in the story. The important thing is that the learners become aware of a gap between a particular feature of their interlanguage (i.e. how they currently understand or use it) and the equivalent feature in the target language. Such noticing of the gap between output and input can act as an 'acquisition facilitator' (Seliger 1979). It does not do so by immediately changing the learner's internalised grammar but by alerting the learner to subsequent instances of the same feature in future input. So there is no immediate change in the learners' proficiency (as seems to be aimed at by such grammar teaching approaches as the conventional Presentation–Practice–

Production approach). There is, however, an increased likelihood of eventual acquisition provided that the learners receive future relevant input. White (1990) argues that there are some features of the L2 which learners need to be focused on because the deceptively apparent similarities with L1 features make it impossible for the learners to otherwise notice certain points of mismatch between their interlanguage and the target language. And Schmidt (1992) puts forward a powerful argument for approaches which help learners to note the gap between their use of specific features of English and the way these features are used by native speakers. Inviting learners to compare their use of, say, indirect speech with the way it is used in a transcript of a native speaker conversation would be one such approach and could quite easily be built into course book materials. Randi Reppen in Chapter 2 of this book and Jane Willis in Chapter 3 exemplify ways of helping learners to pay attention to linguistic features of their input. Kasper and Roever (2005) and Schmidt (2001) also discuss the value of noticing how the language is actually used.

9.6 Review Questions

a. What do you understand by the term materials production?

b. How do we train teachers to become proficient in materials development?

c. What are the different types of materials that are available to a teacher for teaching?

d. What are some of the principles involved in developing materials?

e. Why do we need a variety of materials for the same purpose?

9.7 References

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Unit 10 ❑ Concepts of Language Gradation

Structure

10.1 Objectives

In this module, we will learn about

a. Approaches to gradation

b. Elements of gradation

c. Principles of gradation

10.2 Introduction

Gradation is defined as the grouping and sequencing of materials in a syllabus. The aim of gradation is to provide an accessible and gradual introduction of language. Allen states that gradation is a universal requirement for any language teaching. Mackey proposed that foundations of language must be firm and the early learning of language must be slow, accurate, comprehensible and assessable. The content selected for the syllabus design must be inter- related and must have a flow among the concepts included in different units. The approach suggested must be analytic. Gradation is vital for syllabus designing and impacts the teaching learning process. There are many ways to grade the language based various theories and models proposed. The next sectionsintroduce you to different approaches adopted for language gradation.

10.3 Approaches to gradation

There are a few main approaches to gradation followed during syllabus design. Let us discuss these approaches one after the other in detail.

10.3.1 Linear Gradation

In linear gradation, the contents of the syllabus are arranged in such a way where one topic or concept is focused at one time. The topic chosen is explained in detail and practiced intensively. Learners' will be provided in-depth knowledge on the topic before moving to the next topic. The topics are also arranged in a sequence such that each successive item is more complex than the previous one. This principle is also called movement from simple to complex.

10.3.2 Cyclic Gradation

In cyclic gradation the concepts or topics are reintroduced and recur throughout the course. It is also called revisiting. A new topic or concept is always related to the concepts or topics learnt previously. There is a smooth transmission from one concept to another as they are all connected or linked to each other. This interconnectivity produces better comprehensibility and enhances long term learning. The repetition of concepts and deeper knowledge of concepts aims in the internalization process. In this gradation, each time an item is repeated, it has two purposes. In the first place it reinforces the item already learnt and provides additional information on the same item hitherto not learnt.

10.3.3 Field approach to gradation

This approach provides learners with the freedom of choice of learning sequence. The topics or concepts are developed and provided to learners. Later learners are given the freedom to begin with any topic and end with any topic. But it is important that learners learn all the concepts designed in the syllabus. The order or sequence of choosing and learning different concepts is not restricted. This provides learners, autonomy in selecting items and a variety of tasks to achieve the learning outcomes. This gradation is suitable for self-learners with a high degree of integrity. Distance education learners are an illustration of such group.

10.3.4 Modular approach

In this approach, the language is divided into modules which focus on language skills like listening, speaking, reading, writing and other sub skills. This type of approach is more appropriate for task- based syllabus. Besides, each module is independent and complete in itself. The teacher or the learner can make a choice of the module to learn and move to any other module of choice once the learning is complete.

10.4 Elements of gradation

The two main aspects of gradation are staging and sequencing. Let us look at these two aspects in detail.

10.4.1 Staging

Staging relates to the quantity of contents or items included in a syllabus. It guides in including the contents for teaching and learning the language in a given period of time. It also involves division of syllabus into appropriate time segments.

10.4.2 Sequencing

Sequencing is concerned with deciding the order of the contents or items in a syllabus. It guides us in deciding what comes first and what comes later. It involves linking or connecting different items in a syllabus to each other for producing effective learning outcomes.

10.5 Criteria for gradation

Many researchers have developed a number of criteria for simplifying the process of gradation during syllabus design. These criteria vary according to the type of syllabus chosen during syllabus design. The criteria can be classified as per the syllabus type.

10.5.1 The Structural Syllabus

The Structural syllabus is designed with a focus on forms and structures. Grammatical content has a major role to play in the structural syllabus design. Let us learn about important criteria that should be considered while designing the structural syllabus.

10.5.2 Availability/ Linguistic Distance

It is proposed that the contents related to vocabulary or grammatical structures of language similar to learners' native or first language must be taught first. This will reduce the difficulty levels of learning a new language. It is important to keep in mind the readiness of the learners with which the vocabulary and grammatical structures are remembered and used by language learners. Gradation of grammatical structures and vocabulary can begin with familiar words or structures and then slowly include unfamiliar or new vocabulary or grammatical structures.

10.5.3 Frequency

This means the number of times of occurrence of a particular vocabulary or grammatical structures in a large body of the language in consideration. This is called a corpus. The more the number of occurrences the easier is the learning process. This involves including similar word structures and grammatical structure patterns for repetition and practice.

10.5.4 Learnability/ Teachability

Learnability and teachability are two interlinked concepts. Teachabilty refers to the demonstrability of a word which plays a vital part for achieving teachability. Learnability refers to the similarity of words or structures of the target language to its native language. These two criteria are impacted by brevity and learning load. It is assumed that the longer the length of a word or structure the higher is the learning load. Gradation of contents can begin with concrete words or structures that will be easy to teach and learn. Later it includes abstract contents that will be challenging to teach or learn. This criterion lays stress on the order in which language is acquired during language learning.

10.6 Ergonic Combination

Ergonic combination means creating a structural balance through structural combinations. These combinations are based on three aspects: Combinability, Grouping and Contrast. This also depends on the meaning the structures together can covey to perform a language function. This type of gradation is a precursor to the functional notional syllabuses that emerged later.

10.6.1 Combinability

Combinability means a few simple structures can be used together to express a particular sense or meaning. There is a natural affinity among some structure that lend them the quality of combinability. This is an important criterion because it helps in putting together structures to produce real life like language use.

10.6.2 Grouping

Grouping involves bringing together few structures that are similar at one level but different on another level.

10.6.3 Contrast

Another ergonic combination includes contrast grouping. Contrast is the opposite forms of structures-plural, present-past-future and many more. Grading of contrast contents with similar patterns can be grouped together for better comprehensibility.

Regular Verbs	Irregular Verbs
Jump - jumped	Eat - ate
Dance - danced	Sing - sang
Study - studied	Write - wrote

10.7 Gradation for topic- based syllabus

Topic- based syllabus is designed around a variety of themes or topics, which are age appropriate and informative. The meaning is given more importance rather than forms or structures. The process begins after the selection of topics, where the contents are sequenced based on different criteria.

10.7.1 Interest/Practicality

The topics must be graded as per the learners' interest and topics that motivate learning. The grading of topics can be done by the familiarity of the topics and the topics that stimulate the learning process. It is also important to focus on practicality, where the learners can connect with the topic, find the teaching materials easy, comprehensible and available in the learning environment. The topics can be graded based on the length of the passages, where the syllabus designer can begin with short and easy passages and later move on to lengthy complex passages. In this case, a primary school learner can be given a one page story that has only 200 to 300 words where as a grade 9 learner can be given a 4 to 5 pages short story of about 1000 words. Based on the learners' interest as presumed by the teacher/syllabus designer, will be given the first priority in this type of gradation.

10.7.2 Depth of treatment

The depth of treatment is one of the criteria, where gradation of content from general or superficial topics to detailed or in depth topics. It means grading from simple and

easily comprehensible topics to complex topics which involves more cognitive load or mental operations.

10.8 Gradation of Notional- Functional syllabus

The Notional- functional syllabus is developed based on the needs of the learners, which is attained after a needs analysis. It has a focus on helping the learner to communicate creatively in social and cultural contexts. The gradation of notional-functional syllabus depends on the following aspects.

10.8.1 Usefulness

The contents of the syllabus are organized based on the usefulness of the concepts or communication purposes of the learners. For example, if the language aspects presented are very useful to the learners, then that is given the first priority. This could be easily understood in case of learners who learn English for very specific purposes. A nurse learning language for his/her professional reasons will have to use very limited sentence structures that help him/her communicate with doctor or patients. A future perfect continuous tense would hardly be used by them. So the very useful structures like Simple present or present continuous should be first taught to them. If the learners learn English for general purposes, then the teacher and students might require discussing the immediate needs of the learners and then deciding on what to be taught first based on the usefulness.

10.8.2 Generalizability

The contents and skills not only are useful to specific needs of the learners' but must also be generalized in other situations or contexts. It must be relevant and presented in the form that interests the learners. In other words, the nurses surely will not confine their communication to the doctors and patients but will have to communication with peers, colleagues or friends if the target language is the only common language for communication. So teaching-learning for these learners should be based on generalizability.

10.8.3 Complexity

The contents of the functional syllabus must begin with easy functional skills like informal greetings and then later move towards complex language functions like formal greetings. This type of gradation is very common and mostly adopted by all syllabus designers.

10.9 Gradation of Task- based syllabus

This type of syllabus gives importance to tasks through which language learning happens. Task- based syllabus develops better understanding of meaning and builds connection between learning activities and real world activities. Task- based syllabus can be classified into three types: Procedural syllabus, process syllabus and skills- based syllabus. This kind of syllabus is designed based on the four language skills and the way in which they can be harnessed to solve problems and express solutions. The gradation of the contents of the skill- based syllabus will depend on different criteria.

10.9.1 Concreteness/Abstractness

The grading will depend on the concreteness and abstractness of the language content. There are few skills and sub-skills which are measured linguistically and conceptually. The grading of the contents must begin with concrete skills that are measured linguistically and later moved towards abstract skills that are measured conceptually.

10.9.2 Difficulty levels

The gradation of skill - based syllabus must first focus on attaining easy skills and sub skills and then include complex skills that require higher cognitive abilities.

10.10 Summary

In general the organizing principle of a syllabus must be based on three principles: how language is learnt, how language is acquired and how language is used. The first principle is focused on structuring the language. The second principle focuses on creating a natural environment of learning and does not give importance to organizing structures and the third principle on the real use of language.

10.11 Review Questions

1. Select any English language textbook of used in the secondary schools. Analyse the syllabus design from gradation point of view. Write short notes on gradation approach and organising principle followed in the syllabus of the selected textbook.

2. Analyse the grammatical contents included in the selected textbook. Write the gradation pattern chosen for grammatical structures and support your answer with examples.
3. Analyse the contents included to develop the LSRW skills of the language. Do you think the same organizing principle is applied for all the language skills or is it different for different skills? Support your answer with appropriate reasons.
4. Does gradation of the syllabus items vary with the type of syllabus? Give some examples.
5. How is notional functional syllabus very different from the rest of the syllabuses? Discuss this in terms of three Cs.

10.12 References and Reading List

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Unit 11 ❑ Syllabus Construction

Structure

11.1 Objectives

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to:

a. Understand the term syllabus design

b. Understand the various components of a syllabus

c. Use syllabus in an appropriate way to develop teaching materials

d. Understand the subtle differences among various syllabuses

e. Develop a model syllabus for use in the classroom

11.2 Introduction

According to Nunan (1988), syllabus design is to select and to organize teaching materials (selection and grading of content) in a sequential manner to facilitate teaching. The concept has led the writers make serious efforts to introduce a model of syllabus design which is developed by several systematic procedures ranging from conducting a needs analysis, preparing teaching materials, to setting up stages of evaluation to prove the effectiveness of the implementing the syllabus design and its developed teaching materials. The syllabus design is developed in three simple and systematic stages as a solution to the confusion of some English teachers all this time on designing course syllabus and developing teaching materials which suit their students' needs. Accordingly, a course syllabus and its teaching materials are no longer developed based on teachers' intuitions and perception, but based on a needs analysis for the sake of attaining highly qualified learning outcomes.

11.3 Syllabus Design

The materials selected and graded to be delivered for a particular course is called *Syllabus*. The content is selected and organized in different ways depending on the material developer's perception or even intuition of what the language is and how it is learnt. If the materials developer believes that language is a set of structures, the materials chosen for teaching language would primarily focus on structures and ignore the *use* or *application* of thosestructures according to the need or context. The materials produced this way do not consider the learners' needs nor the course objectives.

Question: Can you mention a syllabus that is designed and given for a course

without taking into consideration the users' needs or course objectives? Why do you think it is developed so?

Your response:

The entire process of selection, gradation, execution and evaluation of the syllabus is curriculum development. There are several schools of thought on the process of selection of materials. Richards (2001) is of the opinion that curriculum in language teaching can be done through seven systematic stages:

1. needs analysis
2. situational analysis
3. planning learning outcomes
4. course organization
5. selecting and preparing teaching materials
6. providing for effective teaching, and
7. evaluation

Based on Richards' theory, syllabus design lies in the stage of selecting and preparing teaching materials.

11.4 More about Syllabus Design

Smith states that curriculum is a body of knowledge and knowledge is transferred through syllabus. Mckay defines Syllabus as "A Syllabus provides a focus for what should be studies, along with a rationale for how that content should be selected and ordered". Syllabus design is the process of developing a syllabus. Syllabus is the main bridge that connects the learner and the teacher with common teaching learning goals and objectives. It specifies the contents to be facilitated, learnt and assessed. The selection of course content is based on the needs of the learners'. The topics and themes are confined to the communication needs of the learners'. A syllabus is the product of selecting and organizing content and materials. The key tasks of a syllabus designer are selecting, sequencing and integrating of items. Syllabus planning includes selecting topics, skills, tasks, objectives, notions, functions, vocabulary, settings, learning styles and strategies appropriate for the designated learners. The framework of language teaching gives us an idea about different stages involved in designing the syllabus for execution.

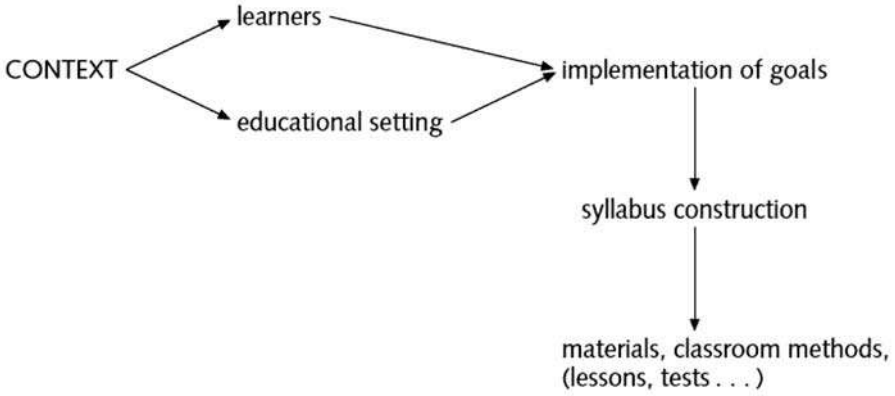

Figure 1.1 The framework of language teaching.

11.5 Selection of materials

The process of selecting materials can be simplified by following certain procedures. In this section we will learn about various steps involved, which lay a path towards selecting appropriate materials, which will play a vital role in enhancing the quality of teaching-learning process.

11.5.1 Framing the goals

The first step is to frame goals (objectives) which will help in understanding the purpose of the course and gives clarity on the outcome of taking the course. The purpose of framing goals can serve four purposes. It clarifies the accomplishments of the learners' after taking the course, helps in selecting appropriate materials, teaching methods and assignments, students gain clarity on the different aspects of the course, and it acts as a guide for teachers to facilitate the course with a common aim. This will allow the teaching learning community to work towards common goals and allows them to assess their teaching and learning quality. It is necessary to define content and non- content clearly. Content goals relate to the subject matter whereas the non-content goals can be related to the skills. For example learning to write a formal letter is a content goal and working collaboratively in groups is a non- content goal. It must be remembered that the goal framed must be measurable and scale of measurements must be specified in the course content. Framing measurable goals will motivate the teaching learning process.

11.5.2 Defining and Developing Content

In this step the syllabus designer gathers all the materials required for delivering the course. The materials must be in alignment with the goals and syllabus type. In the

beginning of the process the materials collected can be loaded, yet it is necessary to sort out most relevant materials required to design the content of the course. Studies show that too much of material hinders the effectiveness of a learner's material. The material is further divided into three categories: basic, recommended and optional. The basic material should be learnt by every learner, the recommended material can be learnt by the learner to master the subject and optional material can be learnt for in depth knowledge on the subject. The basic material acts as a main content that will be used while teaching and evaluating learners. Recommended and optional materials can included as part of additional resources or additional readings. The focus of material must on core concepts that can be relatable and useful and that can enhance the thinking skills of the learners. The resources selected must be motivating and taking the learning forward. There is need to select resources to support main concepts, themes or topics. It must be aligned with the types of syllabuses selected at the beginning of the process. The resources must aid teachers and learners to achieve course objectives. It is suggested to use multi-mode resource materials to allowing the learning to happen through modes like text, audio, video, and many more. It is very important to also have a clear understanding of the time available for the teachers to complete the course and time the learner requires accomplishing the aims after taking the course.

11.5.3 Structuring the material

In the process of syllabus design, sequencing of the material is inevitable. The material can be structured based on the type of syllabuses selected. It can also be sequenced using other strategies.

Micro/macro: The main or large concept can be classified into macro concepts and specific concepts can be classified into micro concepts.

Proximal/Distal: The discussion can begin by addressing the most relevant topic which is proximal and the discussion can move on towards explaining the theories related to the topic which is distal.

Phenomenon/Structure: The emphasis on a particular idea, event, and person in a unique or specific situation can be categorized into phenomenon and emphasis on a pattern or events in a general context can be categorized as structured.

11.6 Preparing Materials

Materials are the contents that will be taught to achieve course or programme

objectives. The preparing of materials follows after selecting the main principles based on which the syllabus will be designed. A set of activities, criteria of activities will be selected based on the kinds of syllabuses chosen by the curriculum designer. It is also important to know the weight of each activity in each lesson, teacher and learners' involvement in activities,

The context of teaching learning is essential for selection of content and materials to construct the syllabus. This information can be obtained from needs analysis of course or programme.

i. Purpose - Knowledge about learners participating in the teaching- learning process

ii. Setting – Knowledge about the setting where the learners wish to use the target language

iii. Geographical information, culture and traditional knowledge of the place

iv. Communicative events – knowledge about the everyday situations where the learner will communicate

v. Functional, notional and other requirements of the learners

11.7 Selecting Items

The foremost step involved while designing the syllabus to state its purpose. The purpose is clearly articulated by formulating aims and objectives of the syllabus design. This will form the base for syllabus and all the procedures that follows while designing the syllabus. The goals framed should be aligned with the type of syllabuses chosen for the course design. In the next section we will discuss about the types of syllabuses which will have impact on the selection of materials and in preparing materials.

11.8 Types of Syllabus

Syllabus is a learning tool which facilitates teaching-learning process. The syllabus design begins with clear understanding of the curriculum objectives and goals. The syllabus is designed by selecting appropriate approach, which supports the main objectives of the curriculum. The choice of syllabus types is further influenced on the four aspects of knowledge. They are as follows:

- Knowledge and beliefs on the subject
- Knowledge about recent research studies and upgraded theories
- Knowledge about common practices in teaching learning community
- Knowledge about trends in national and international syllabus designs

The syllabuses are classified into seven kinds which are as follows:

11.8.1 Structural Syllabus – Grammatical Structures

Chapter 1 Verb tenses

1–1 The simple tenses

1–2 The progressive tenses

1–3 The perfect tenses

1–4 The perfect progressive tenses

1–5 Summary chart of verb tenses

1–6 Spelling of –ing and –ed forms

Chapter 2 Modal auxiliaries and similar expressions

.....

Chapter 3 The passive

.....

Chapter 4 Gerunds and infinitives

.....

Material based on Structural syllabus focus on grammatical and phonological structures. The principle of organizing these materials will be either form easy to difficult or frequent or less frequent.

11.8.2 Situational – Language usage is set around real situations

The principle of Situational syllabus is based on the idea that language is learned through different contexts or situations in real life. The sequencing of content moves from situation to situation. The common list of situations is listed below.

a) At the Airport

b) At the Hotel

c) At the Bank

d) At the Restaurant

e) At the Party

f) At the park

11.8.3 Topical – Themes or Topics

Topical syllabus is based on the topics or themes. This type of syllabus is widely followed in the Indian educational system. The themes or topics are selected based on the age, proficiency levels, traditional and cultural background, and importance of topics or themes in the lives of the learners' participating in the course. The sequencing of themes or topics is based on the importance or on the level of difficulty of the reading passages.

Unit I Trends in Living

1 A Cultueral Difference : Being on Time

2 Working Hard or Hardly Working

3 Changing Life-Styles and New Eating Habits

Unit II Issues in Society

4 Loneliness

5 Can Stress Make You Sick ?

6 Care of the Elderly: A Family Matter

11.8.4 Functional – Communicational functions

This type of syllabus gained its popularity with the raising importance of communication in the globalised world. It is mostly preferred type of syllabus when the curriculum designer focuses on Communicative language teaching approach. The main principle of this syllabus is based on the purpose of communication and language functions in real life scenarios. The functions are selected on the basis of its usefulness to the students. It is sequenced on the basis of hierarchy of the usefulness of the functions and frequency. Some of the functions are listed below.

a) Greetings

b) Introducing

c) Seeking information

d) Giving information

11.8.5 Notional – Concepts or conceptual categories

Notional syllabus is designed using abstract conceptual categories called general notions. The syllabus designer chooses the concepts on the basis of perceived utility and is sequenced either chronologically or frequency or their utility. A sample related to Notional syllabus is given below.

Unit 1 Properties and Shapes

Unit 2 Location

Unit 3 Structure

Unit 4 Measurement 1 [of solid figures]

Unit 5 Process 1 Function and Ability

Unit 6 Actions in Sequence

11.8.6 Skills – Language Skills

The materials in skills- based syllabus are organized on the language skills or academic skills required for the learners' participating in the programme or course of study. The selection of skills is based on its usefulness to the learners' and is sequences based on a chronology or frequency or usefulness of the skills. A sample related to writing skills included in the skill- based syllabus is given below.

a) Writing Skills

- Letter writing
- Paragraph writing
- Story Writing
- Biography
- Note-taking and Note-making skills
- Diary entry
- Invitation
- Report writing

11.8.7 Task - Activity-based – Language through activities

Task-based syllabus revolves around the various activities or task that learners' will be required to perform in the target language. The tasks or activities are selected

depending on the usefulness to the learners'. Few examples of task- based activities are given below.

- Jigsaw tasks – Collaborative activities where the group contributes individually to achieve a common goal.
- Information- gap tasks – Each student in a group works with others in the group to complete the incomplete information.
- Problem solving tasks – The group of students work together to find solution for the given problem.
- Decision- making tasks – Group of students will have to negotiate to arrive at a common solution for a given problem with number of solutions.
- Opinion exchange tasks – This involves sharing of ideas in the group.

11.8.8 Mixed or Integrated Syllabuses

In spite of varied types on syllabuses, it is inappropriate to choose one kind or type of syllabus for designing a course or programme. Brumfit suggests that language is a composition of linguistic, interactional and content aspects. It would be a good practice to use a combination of syllabus kinds to meet the changing needs and requirements of the learners'. Integrated syllabus involves blending two or more syllabus designs which will cover multiple aspects of language teaching-learning.

11.9 Summary

The design and use of frameworks while selecting and preparing materials will accommodate a variety of segments in a single English language teaching programme. The flexibility and nonlinear movement between different stages of syllabus construction produces an quality material that aids in achieving the objectives of the course. The syllabus constructed is never an end product and by including space for evaluating the syllabus provides scope for improving and upgrading the syllabus as per the changing needs of the society.

11.10 Review Questions

Question 1: Choose a NCERT textbook of Class VIII. Analyse the syllabus of the selected NCERT textbook and write the main aims and objectives of the syllabus.

Do you think the material design will allow the learners' to achieve the aims and objectives mentioned in the syllabus? Explain in detail.

Question 2: From the same textbook, analyse the organization of the grammar concepts in the textbook. State the pattern followed for organizing the grammar concepts. Support your views with examples.

Question 3: Using the same syllabus and the textbook, analyse the syllabus design. Write the type of syllabus followed in the selected textbook and support your analysis with examples from the textbook. Do you think the syllabus design can meet the needs of the current society? Why or Why not?

Question 4: If you are teaching in class VIII in the state board syllabus (in your state) how many changes will you make to the NCERT Syllabus? Why?

Question 5: Use one of the lessons in your textbook, and show how this can be made better to teach both grammar and vocabulary by adding new exercises.

11.11 References and Reading List

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Unit 12 ❑ Developing Teaching Materials

Structure

12.1 Objectives

The objective of this module is to gain an in-depth understanding of the principles and procedures involved during the process of materials development. At the end of the unit the learners will be able to:

a. Understand the basic principles involved in materials development

b. Identify different types of materials and use them appropriately in the classroom

c. Supplement materials for use in classroom to overcome the weaknesses in the prescribed lessons

d. Distinguish between learning materials, practice materials and testing materials

e. Evaluate a given set of materials for their appropriacy.

12.1 Introduction

Teaching or instructional material is any material that helps in language learning. Materials can be in the form of textbook lessons, exercises in workbooks, audio clips, videos, newspaper cuttings, games and many more. A good teaching or instructional material plays an important role in the teaching- learning process. Materials act as an input that aids in teaching and learning language. It contributes to the teaching- learning process through objectives, clarity, guidance, practice and feedback about learning tasks and activities for better performance and retention of language skills. An effective teaching or instructional material is based on strong and relevant theories, creates and maintains interest for learning, meets the needs of the learners, provides examples, includes appropriate tasks and activities and provides ample opportunities for communicating in the target language, use language in natural contexts. All the above mentioned aspects form the basis for developing instructional materials. Let us take a look at some of the principles and procedures involved in developing teaching materials.

12.3 Principles of developing materials

Material developers provide input to learners for learning a language. They follow certain principled methods while developing materials for effective teaching- learning

process. Some of the main principles listed by Tomlinson for material developers are as follows.

- Exposure to rich, meaningful and comprehensible input
- Increased learner engagement activities
- Enhance positive attitudes towards language learning
- Using L1 as a resource for effective teaching learning of L2
- Develop understanding of the various inputs provided.
- Create opportunities for learners to use the language, which develops their communication skills.

12.4 Basic principles for material developers

Besides what is given by Hutchinson, there are a few other basic principles given below which are useful for material developers.

12.4.1 Materials must create impact

Materials are considered to have an impact when there is a noticeable effect on the learners' while learning the language. It must be able to produce curiosity, instill interest and grab the attention of the learners during the language learning process. The materials that can produce impact are listed below.

- **Novelty** - colourful illustrations, animations, games and engaging activities
- **Variety** - diversity of activities and tasks, multi-mode inputs(text,audios,videos etc.)
- **Presentation** - use of sufficient space, attractive layout, proper fonts which are easy on the eye, etc.
- **Content** - topics and themes must be related by the learners chronological age, interesting, unique with ample scope for exploration.
- **Challenging** - tasks and activities must encourage and motivate creativity and higher order thinking skills.
- **Freedom of choice** - Scope of choice for the learners in some aspects can produce impact

12.4.2 Materials must be easily comprehendible

Materials will be able to make the learners feel at ease, reduce the anxiety and learn comfortably. This will become possible when the level of difficulty is guarded carefully. To facilitate this, it is essential to keep in mind a few important points while developing materials.

- Providing the right amount of activities that the learners can complete comfortably in the allotted time.
- The choice of topics, themes, texts must be culturally relatable to the learners for producing learner friendly learning experience.
- Materials must be more helpful and avoid testing learners' unnecessarily.
- Voice used in the materials should match a friendly conversation style. Use of active voice, concrete examples, informal tone and inclusiveness can ease the learning process.

12.4.3 Materials must develop confidence

Learners gain confidence when they successfully learn a concept or when they complete the activity or when they apply the language skills and accomplish a task. It is important to understand that simplification of materials does not build confidence or make learners feel accomplished. The materials must pave the way to enable learners to use multiple skills like analytical skills, creative thinking skills, imaginative skills and other higher order thinking skills while performing a task or activity.

12.4.4 Materials must be relevant and useful to learners

We have discussed the importance of need analysis before beginning to design the materials. Materials must suffice the needs of the learners. It is easy to make learners understand the relevance of ESP courses. It is challenging for learners to understand the usefulness of learning English language in standard courses. This can be possible with the help of learning objectives included in every unit of the textbook. By achieving the learning objectives, it is possible to make learners understand the relevance of learning a topic or concept or skill.

12.4.5 Materials must facilitate Self- Discovery

Materials must provide for self-learning and self- discovery. Materials developed for teaching- learning must include learner-centered activities, which provide opportunities

for self- learning and self- discovery. Self- learning can be possible by including global and affective topics. It is also possible by allowing learners to involve in projects and provide opportunities to choose other materials apart from standard textbooks.

12.4.6 Materials must meet the readiness to learn

Readiness to learn means the learner is ready to learn a new concept which is based on a known concept. A new knowledge is provided to learn, based on the previously gained knowledge. Readiness to learn can be achieved by materials which facilitate mastery of basic skills before introducing new skills. Materials must provide input that is comprehensible and that leads to acquiring new skills. Materials must facilitate learners to focus on new skills rather than on the skills that are already known or learnt.

12.4.7 Materials must give opportunities to use the language

Learners must be given opportunities not only to use the language but must also have knowledge on how to use language for communication in different scenarios. Materials developed must design activities where opportunities are provided to both learn how to use the language and to use the language. Activities like listening to news, audios, podcasts, Ted talks and many more similar activities facilitate learners to learn how to use the language.Later learners will feel at ease while participating in activities that provide authentic experience on using the language. The input provided through materials must be rich and varied in order to enhance the effectiveness of learning outcomes.

12.4.8 Materials must lay focus on linguistic features

Linguistic features are related to grammatical elements and structures of a language. Materials developed must equip learners with strong linguistic knowledge in order to use the language efficiently. Yet it must not be facilitated through traditional grammar teaching learning methods where the linguistic knowledge was facilitated through rote learning or memorization. Materials developed must allow the learning of linguistic features by noticing the features through varied activities. The past forms of a verb can be facilitated to learners indirectly by narrating a story in past tense. The past forms of the verbs will be noticed by the learners in the story and learnt by them unconsciously with ease. Therefore it is important for material developers to interlink various elements of language innovatively and creatively.

12.4.9 Materials must provide opportunities to use target language

Language learning is a social process. Language is used to communicate, express and share ideas, thoughts, feelings, opinions and many more. This type of communication

must be provided in the materials designed for language teaching and learning. Materials must consist of opportunities for learners to communicate in target language. The activities that involve group work or pair work creates a natural learning environment for learners to interact in the target language. Such interaction in target language enhances the communication skills of the language learners.

12.4.10 Materials must use recycling process

Recycling process involves repetition of a concept in varied styles and mediums. It is also called reinforcement of a concept. The concept of Noun can be facilitated through direct instruction, using examples, by narrating a story, using concrete objects, through games and many more. It is important to provide learners enough input and time before expecting them to produce or use the concept while communicating. A learner must not be forced to produce immediately after introducing the topic. Materials must reinforce a concept multiple times through multiple ways before testing the proficiency of the learners. This allows the learners to learn the language at ease.

12.5 Materials must address all learners with different learning styles

Different learners employ different learning styles. Material developers should cater to all the learning styles of the learners. This can be possible by designing varied activities that involve different styles of learning. Some of the styles of learning are listed below.

- Visual - learning while seeing like text, videos, concrete objects
- Auditory - learning while hearing the language like audios, podcasts etc
- Kinaesthetic - learning while doing like learning during games or play
- Studial - focus on linguistic features of a language like theoretical knowledge of grammar
- Experiential - Learning while communicating like interaction during group work with peers
- Analytic - learning one concept at a time
- Global - Learning language as a whole like learning to narrate a story and also focusing on the tenses and vocabulary.

- Dependent - Learners depend on teachers and textbooks.
- Independent - They are autonomous learners who learn using various resources apart from teachers and textbooks. They explore multiple sources and learn during the process of exploration.

A learner's learning style varies from one concept to another and can learn one concept by combining more than one style. No learner will be confined to one style of learning. Therefore it is necessary for material developers to reinforce a concept through multiple styles to address the learning styles of different learners.

12.5.1 Materials must provide motivation to learn

The most important factor for any learning to be successful is learner motivation. Material designed must keep the learners motivated by including interesting activities and tasks. The level of motivation and attitudes towards learning a language differs from one learner to another. Hence it is important to use various styles, modes, mediums and forms to cater to the needs of the different learners. It can be possible in the following ways.

- Different types of texts
- Different types of activities
- Providing optional learning resources
- Using variety
- Including the benefits of learning a language or a concept or a skill
- Provide importance for learner opinion and learner feedback about materials, resources, topics, activities, tasks and teaching learning environment.
- Catering to the needs of diversified interest of the diverse learners
- Materials developed must be sensitive to the cultures of learners group
- Provide clear instructions and teaching resources to support the learning community

12.5.2 Materials must provide space for silent period

Silent period supports better learning of a language. Early learners of a language must not be forced or pressurized to communicate using target language. Materials

developed must be flexible and allow silence or use of native language in the early stages of learning a language. During the beginning phase of learning a language comprehension must be prioritized rather than production with perfection. The main objectives of any activity or concept must focus on learner understanding rather than correctness. Motivation and production can be enhanced by allowing the freedom of choice to communicate using the native language or using target language without giving importance to correct forms of language. It is important to provide choice of expression through different forms and styles. Learning materials must allow learners the choice to express their understanding through art, role play, songs, text etc.

12.5.3 Materials must contribute to learners' holistic development

Materials designed to cater to different intellectual, aesthetic and emotional needs of the learners. Materials designed must develop the cognitive abilities of the learners by involving learners into doing tasks and activities that are creative, challenging, analytical and evaluative. This kind of diversified activities involving diverse cognitive skills enhances learners' thinking skills.

12.5.4 Materials must avoid Controlled learning

Controlled learning relates to the traditional learning environment where learning happens through drilling, rote learning and memorization. Materials must provide the freedom to learners to choose their learning style and express their understanding in their own creative manner. Freedom of choice keeps the learner's attitude positive and keeps the motivated throughout the learning process. This also helps in long term learning where learners feel confident to apply the concept and encourage them to use the language creatively.

12.5.5 Material should focus on learning outcome

Learning outcome is the result of the learning process. Materials should give importance to learning outcomes and less on accuracy while producing language. Focus on accuracy can lead to less production of language and poor communication. Learners benefit if they are allowed to express their thoughts, ideas, opinions and feedback freely without much restrictions. Language cannot be learnt at ease with mere practice.Language learning is a social process and good language can be learnt through interaction and communication.

12.6 Conclusion

Materials play an important role in the language learning process. Materials developed must be comprehensible, rich in variety and rich in input, it must cater to the different learning styles and must motivate the learning throughout the language learning process.

12.7 Review Questions

1. Write any five different types of learning styles with appropriate examples. Think and write your learning style and state if your learning style is the same or different as per the concept or topic.
2. Can materials motivate learning? In what ways can materials motivate learners in language learning?
3. What is meant as reinforcement of a concept? Explain using an example.
4. What are some of the types of materials you have come across as a student? Name them and provide some illustrations?
5. What is your comment on the type of materials made available to you on this course? Do they meet your needs? What are some of the shortcomings you have come across?

12.8 References and Reading List

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MODULE-4 : ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

Unit 13 ❑ Learner Strengths and Weaknesses

Structure

13.1 Objectives

After going through this unit, you will be able to

a. Identify different characteristics of a learner

b. Describe a learner objectively

c. Identify the strengths and weaknesses of a learner

d. Decide on the teaching strategies depending on the learner type.

13.2 Introduction

This module discusses some of the special features of Applied Linguistics in general and ELT in particular. In the previous three modules you have been introduced to the term Applied Linguistics fairly generously. You have learnt what it is and how it evolved into a discipline. You also had a glimpse of the role of psychology, sociology and

pedagogy in its development. Applied Linguistics has its real purpose in helping learners learn a language better. Therefore, it suggests strategies of remediation besides classroom teaching per se. With such a focus in mind, we looked at the use of Applied Linguistics in curriculum design, syllabus construction and also materials development. This in brief is the summary of the previous three modules. What is the focus of this module? To put it in a nut shell, this module takes a close look at the learner in trying to identify him/her from a variety of angles, such that with our teaching the learner becomes fruitful to the society.

13.3 Parameters to describe a learner

This is an important aspect that every teacher should be aware of. While going through the previous module, in Unit 11 we have discussed syllabus construction. One of the first factors that is taken into account while designing a syllabus is learner identity. This is an important aspect, which simply means that we cannot teach a learner unless we know him or her. This is a mammoth task as in any given class there are a large number of learners and it is almost impossible to know everyone. This is true, but is it possible for us to device methods by which we can have a set of broad genralisations. Such generalisations will help us identify our learners. Before we proceed further, do this task.

Task:

In your class, how many learners are you familiar with? If you are asked to describe them, how would you do it?

Your response:

The learners in your class all belong to the same age group. There may be marginal differences, but this should not matter. Secondly, their thinking is alike, because they have all gone through similar processes of learning (syllabuses and textbooks etc.). Their backgrounds can be varied, but there are a few factors that bind them. These are some of the parameters (factors) that are helpful in describing your learners. Now, let us expand this in the form of a principle to describe learners in general.

We can identify our learners based on their age, social background, and the academic background. Let us look at each of these in some detail.

a. Age of the learner: This is not a difficult thing to assess. The government rules are clear about admission of children to schools. The child should be 5+ to

join the first standard class, and based on this, we can assess the age of the child depending on the class the child is in. (e.g. standard 3, the child should be 8+ years old, standard 8, the child should be 13+ years old etc.). With NEP 2020, this stands to change, but we will have a proper guide to assess the age of the child depending on the class he/she is studying. But there are two different types of ages for each learner – the chronological age and the mental age. Chronological age is decided by the date of birth and this is always fixed, or we can make no errors once the child's date of birth is available. But the mental age may vary depending on the cognitive development of the child. This depends on the environment where the child grows, the type of exposure the child has and also the encouragement the child receives from the parents and the others around him/her. This is usually measured in terms of IQ or the Intelligence quotient which is a ratio of the chronological age and the mental age. This is calculated by administering certain tests by psychologists. However, we may consider that a large number of children in our classes are normal. Some may be gifted, and a few may be below average. But this should not matter.

b. The social background. In a given school and a class, the social background also appears to be uniform. Of course, there will be a marked difference between the urban and rural children largely because of the exposure they have are different. But they may be skilled differently, and ability of each child needs to be respected. The social background can be assessed on a few parameters as follows:

   i. Parental education
   ii. Parental income
   iii. Parental social class
   iv. The larger environment – rural/urban/semi-urban
   v. Number of siblings
   vi. Type of family (nuclear/joint)
   vii. Professional background of parents (agriculture, academic, industrial, bureaucratic, etc.)
   viii. Other relevant details.

c. The academic background: This is once again uniform to a large extent. This is because, in your class, all the learners have qualified in the examination

administered at the end of the year in the previous class they have studied. This ensures uniform learning to a large extent. However, there could be variations in understanding of the content and the ability to express. These are considered finer differences among the learners.

Using these three parameters we may describe a learner and by describing various learners, we can draft a profile of the class we intend to teach.

13.4 Types of learners

We will discuss this feature very briefly. You will learn more about the types of learners in your course on materials development, hence we will provide only a few relevant points here. Based on the types of learning, we identify the learners as belonging to certain categories. Largely, we perceive four major types of learners, though there are scholars who identify seven to ten types of learners. The larger the division, more the overlaps, so we will stick to four types of learners and describe each one of the briefly. Here are the four types of learners:

a. Visual learners: There are some learners who have graphic memory. This means, they tend to remember what they see. They prefer to look at a demonstration of a process, observe all the steps and follow it exactly the same way. Such learners are called the visual learners. Think of observing a dissection in a biology lab, or a chemistry experiment in the lab, a model lesson in a school etc. these are the learning sources for the visual learners.

b. Auditory learners: There are a few learners who prefer to listen to a teacher, parent or someone. They tend to remember things they hear. Such learners are called auditory learners. Most of us begin our life as auditory learners. We listen to stories and remember them for a long time. Gradually this competence becomes weaker. Listening to classroom lectures, listening to discourses, radio talks etc. are characteristics of auditory learners.

c. Kinesthetic learners: These learners are also called tactile learners, and those who are sensitive to touch. These learners learn to do things by doing. Practice is the key word. Look at the boys in a motor garage who can repair your scooters and cars. They are able to strip and assemble various parts though they are not able to describe them. They are an example of kinesthetic learners. Our ability to work in the laboratories is part of kinesthetic learning.

d. Reading and Writing learners: These learners can also be called self-learners or independent learners. They prefer to see a printed word and grasp it and also reproduce it in their own way. Their main mode of learning depends on the availability of good reading materials which they can reproduce or summarise. Most of you are now exposed to this type of learning. You are able to get the information required through a printed text which you read, understand and respond to at a later stage.

On reading this, perhaps a thought must have passed your mind about who can be called the best learner. It is not right to compare one type of learner with another type. Each type of learner has an advantage. In fact, it is difficult to isolate learners based on the type of learning, for in real life we tend to combine all types of learning in different measure and develop a style of learning which is unique to us. It is because of this we have learning differences in a class, though all learners are exposed to the same set of lessons taught by the same set of teachers.

13.5 Learner Strengths

All learners have some strengths. It is for the teacher to identify these and guide the learners properly to their goal. It is difficult to list all the strengths in one place, for such a list is likely to be subjective. Here we shall look at a few and connect them with the Indian context.

What are our strengths? Strengths help us progress easily. They help us overcome any hurdles in our way. We should recognise our strengths and develop them properly to successfully achieve our goals. In the case of most learners in India, success depends on passing the examination with good scores. This is not a bad goal, but this should not be the end, it should help the learner develop holistically and become a good citizen of the country. Here are some qualities that every learner should develop:

a. Curiosity: This is an essential trait every learner should develop. A person who is curious is likely to learn more. A curious person questions things and does not accept what is given on the platter. This quality helps one analyse the content of what is being taught/learnt and make the learning meaningful for oneself. By nature, a curious learner can be said to be an explorer who soon becomes an autonomous learner.

b. Creativity: This is another quality a learner should develop. However, creativity needs to be understood in a slightly different sense, not in the sense of a

creative artist. It is the ability of the learner to imagine and express a response in a different way – perhaps the learner may think of a new sentence, a new word, a new story, a new picture something others may not have thought of. This aspect of creativity is inherent to all the children. A good teacher should identify this trait and help the child develop the creative aspects of learning. Learners who are curious and creative also take initiative in the classroom interaction.

c. Focus: This is another important aspect of good learning. Does the learner pay proper attention to what is being taught or does the learner get diverted easily in the course of the lesson? If the learner is not able to focus properly, it may lead to 'attention deficit syndrome' which might need external help to remedy. It is the responsibility of the teacher to ensure the learners pay proper attention. When the teacher gets to the class with proper preparation, and makes the lesson relevant to the learner, the learner focus will be obviously on the lesson. When the learner focus is on the lesson, the learning quality is enhanced.

d. Organised learning: Good learners tend to be more organised than the weak learners. They tend to keep their books tidy, notes is properly organised and they are able to retrieve the materials when needed without much delay. Organised learners are systematic in their approach to learning. They prepare a schedule for themselves and observe it strictly. These learners can be identified by their behaviour and appearance. Generally, these learners are tidy and look impressive.

e. Self-learning: Some learners come to the class with good preparation. They keep track of what is being taught and tend to read the lesson before the teacher actually teaches it in the class. This helps them understand the lesson and when required participate in the classroom discussion. Self-learning is expressed in a variety of ways and what is cited here is just one among the many. These learners tend to look for newer resources to learning and are generally ahead of the rest of the learners in the class. Such learners are likely to be successful in their lives.

This is not an exhaustive list of strengths. There are many more qualities like learners being flexible, versatile, taking initiative (leadership), and being able to grasp things quickly. There are good books on psychology which help you with long lists of strengths of learners. Take a look.

13.6 Learner Weaknesses

We will look at just a few weaknesses and not dwell on them in detail. The main focus of identifying weaknesses is to help the learners overcome the same and become better learners. It is necessary for teachers to be aware of different types of weaknesses that the learners have. In one word, absence of the qualities that we have mentioned in the previous section constitutes weakness. In addition to these, we will add a few more.

a. Attention seeking: Some learners are always worried about their image and try to seek the attention of others in the class as well as that of the teacher.This can be construed as disturbing others as well as lacking focus on the essentials. Such learners tend to be branded 'nuisance' in the class.

b. Delaying work: This quality is technically called 'procrastination'. Some learners tend to postpone their work till the last minute. They fail to submit assignments on time or prepare themselves for the examination at the right time. This could be because of several reasons – laziness, not being organised or sheer over confidence. Whatever the reason be, this is certainly a weakness which the learners have to overcome. Such learners need counseling at the right time to help them overcome the weakness.

c. Self-image: Certain learners form a self-image of themselves and assess their abilities wrongly. They often end up blaming others for their failures. This weakness can be dangerous if not remedied well in time. Such learners are likely to face severe disappointments in the society in their later life.

d. Insecure: There are learners who are given to hard work, but are always worried about the fear of failure. They feel insecure and this feeling often impedes their performance. Such learners also need to be diagnosed and offered help at the right time.

Like strengths, weaknesses are also many. As teachers, we often identify the weaknesses faster than we recognise the strengths. We should identify both and treat our learners appropriately, and the purpose of this module is to help you do this.

13.7 Summary

Let us recall what we have discussed in this unit. We have looked at four different aspects all related to the learners. Our learners need to describe properly, and to do so, we need a set of parameters. We have discussed these to begin with. Subsequently, we have moved to look at learning styles and learner types and briefly discussed the characteristic features of each type of learning and learner. Finally, we have also taken a close look at the strengths and weaknesses of our learners. In the next unit, we shall discuss the concept of special learners and how a teacher can help such learners.

Before we move to the next unit, here are a few questions to help you revise what you have learnt.

13.8 Review Questions

a. What is learning?

b. How can we identify our learners?

c. Why is it important to identify learners?

d. Which aspects do you find are more important while identifying learners?

e. Do all learners learn alike? Give reasons.

f. What are the different types of learning/learners?

g. Which of these types do you belong to? Give reasons.

h. What are some of the strengths of the learners?

i. What are the weaknesses of learners?

j. How should we treat strengths and weaknesses in our class?

13.9 References and Reading List

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Unit 14 ❑ Helping Special Learners

Structure

14.1 Objectives

At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to:

a. Understand that all learners do not have the same ability to learn.

b. Perceive the differences in learning ability leads to labeling learners differently

c. Identify different types of learners who are special

d. Identify strategies to teach special learners according to their needs

14.2 Introduction

In the previous unit we looked at learners their types and the learning styles. While discussing the learners, we did not use certain labels based on their competence. Using learners' ability to learn and cope with the problems of learning calls for a different categorization. In your class, you must have come across terms like bright learners, average learners, below average or weak learners. These labels are judgmental, but they

have a value and a rationale for assigning such labels. In this unit let us take a close look at some learner types based on the learners' ability to learn and also look at the strategies the teachers need to employ to teach them.

14.3. Special Learners

Before going into the concept of special learners, let us quickly recall the features of learners. Learners have a cognitive ability to grasp concepts and express them in their own language. This ability is not uniformly spread across all learners. Some are able to grasp the concepts quickly, while others take time. The first group of learners is called quick learners or gifted learners. The second group has several labels to it depending on the pace and type of learning they are capable of. Generally they are called special learners, but the term special learner also has a specific meaning and is often associated with learners who have some problems with their learning.

Activity 1: You must have seen several learners in your class as a teacher or a student. Behaviour of some students must have caught your attention as strange or not normal. Can you recall some instances and write a short paragraph. Please mention what was your first reaction when you saw such learners?

Your response:

Special learner is a label assigned to learners with some learning difficulties. We must have seen many students who are easily distracted or have difficulties in reading and writing. Recall the movie 'Tare Zameen Par' and the character of Ishaan in the movie. Also remember how he was treated by his parents, his teachers until a new teacher (Nikumbh) arrived on the scene and identified his problem as well as his strength. Ishaan in this movie is a special learner diagnosed with Dyslexia. Dyslexia is just one problem, and there are quite a few other problems, and let us take a look at some of these special categories of learners.

Why are these learners called 'special learners' and not 'problem learners'? The answer is not difficult to find. The learners have problems. As teachers we need to solve their problems and not brand them with a label. Calling them 'problem learners' will affect their self-esteem and they will remain a problem for life. It is our social responsibility to help them, and allow them to merge with the main-stream learners. These are learners who need special attention of the teacher, and hence they are called special learners. The role of the teacher teaching special learners is extremely important

in our society. Such teachers need special training, proper attitude, and above all a lot of patience. We will talk about these aspects later, first we will focus on classifying the special learners and know a little bit about each type.

14.4. Some features of Special Learners

It is difficult to specifically make a list of features that mark the special learners as different from normal learners. However, there are some of the behavioural patterns that be noticed in the special learners. Here are a few features that are mentioned, but these may not be seen in all the children.

a. Reticence: This is one of the most common features found in special children, they refuse to interact with others in the class. This could be because of the societal attitude towards them. This needs to change. Occasionally, parents are also responsible for such behaviour in the children. Parents of special children are often over protective and do not allow them to mix with other children. A sense of stigma prevails and hence the parents become over protective. Such children need encouragement to involve in activities. Love and care can help such children to a large extent.

b. Hyper-activism: This is exactly the opposite of the reticence. Some of the special children are restless and keep meddling with things around them. Occasionally, they could be destructive and need to be controlled. One way of helping such children is to keep them constantly engaged with some task. They also need to be talked to softly with love and care.

c. Untidy: Very often special children tend to be untidy with little attention paid to personal hygiene. They dirty their clothes, dishevel their hair, refuse to clean a running nose and generally remain unwelcome. Often they are not properly toilet trained. Parental care is essential in correcting this behaviour. When put in school, they may pick up proper habits of cleanliness and hygiene by looking at other children.

d. Overeating: Special children are likely to overeat and become obese. They lack exercise which is one major cause for their obesity. However, parents can help them by imposing certain discipline at home in terms of eating and participating in games and sports.

e. Violent behaviour: This feature is related to hyper-activism. Along with being over active and destructive, these children can also be violent and resort to beating, biting or scratching other children. Such children need medical help to calm their nerves. The medication needs to be given by a qualified doctor and the treatment may prolong depending on the severity of the disorder.

f. Poor communicators: Most of the special children have problems with communication. There are speech disorders, hearing impairment, over salivation, lop-sided development of the brain etc. which is the cause of their poor communication. Medical intervention is required in such cases along with therapeutic exercises. There are special institutes established to treat and educate such learners.

The features mentioned above are some of the most commonly observed behaviours. It is possible to have children with none of the above mentioned symptoms or a combination of two or more of the above symptoms. This is not an exhaustive list, and newer symptoms can also show in some children. All special children need counseling by a qualified person.

14.5. Types of Special learners

Psychologists identify nearly twenty or more types of learners as special learners. We will look at five of the most common types and list the features of each type.

a. **Dyslexia:** This is the most common problem among many of the children. They are not able to identify the letters of the alphabet properly and read what is written. This learning disorder can express itself in children getting confused between what is written and what they perceive. The problem becomes acute when similar looking words occur in a sequence or separately. (e.g. commit and connect) They may lack in fluency while reading which may affect their comprehension. Since they are not able to read fluently, they are likely spell the words wrong when they are required to write.

b. **ADHD or Attention Deficit/Hyperactive Disorder:** This is also a reasonably common disorder among children. Many children are not able to concentrate on the work they are doing. Their attention gets distracted easily and this is likely to disturb other children in the class. Researchers believe this is more of a genetic disorder and less of a learning disorder. It is necessary to take help

from a qualified doctor with proper medicines to get rid of this problem. Pedagogic strategies may be helpful to a certain extent by identifying their special interests and engaging them with such work. (e.g. Ishaan in Tare Zameen Par was more interested in painting than reading. When his teacher, Nikumbh encourages him, he becomes near normal.)

c. **Dyscalculia:** This is similar to Dyslexia which we have discussed earlier. Here the learners tend to get confused with numbers and their operations. Children with dyscalculia may not be able to arrange a set of numbers in their proper sequence or understand the difference between simple operations like addition and subtraction. The rationale governing multiplication and division becomes far more difficult to comprehend for such children. All these together, make problem solving a difficult almost an impossible task for these learners.

d. **Dysgraphia:** This is another extension of dyslexia. While children with dyslexia have problems with reading, children with 'dysgraphia' have problems with writing. This problem is manifest in a number of ways – unable to write the correct letters of the alphabet (e.g. letters b and d often are replaced with one another) where required. Other forms of dysgraphia are seen in the learner's inability to hold the pencil properly, posture assumed while writing, and unable to concentrate. These problems tend to the exhaust the learner rather quickly. The exhaustion has further ramifications. The learners are not able to organise their thoughts coherently while writing and often their handwriting is unusually large or too tiny. They also have problems with writing neatly.

e. **Processing Deficit:** This is a disorder which can be said to be an extension of ADHD. Here the sensory organs of the learners tend to work differently – their ability to hear, see and feel. Because of this weakness, it is difficult for the learners to see what the teacher writes on the board, or listen to the lesson that is being taught, or participate in activities that demand the sense of touch (feel and say, look and say, etc.). The impact of this disorder is seen in learner's inability to remember what is taught and respond to questions in a conventional class.

Besides the five disorders we have mentioned above, we also have learners with visual impairment, speech impairment and hearing impairment. Such learners also have problems of comprehension that the normal learners can cope with. However, we will not discuss these three types as special learners in this unit.

14.6. How to teach special learners

There are special schools meant for teaching special children. Though there are many proven methods, one of the commonly used methods is the play way method. Several books have been written based on this method and one of the well-known books is called Dibs.

There are special counselors trained to handle learners with learning disorders. Special schools have also been set up in different parts of the country, and you may visit some of these schools. (Please visit the School run by Ramakrishna Mutt in Narendrapur, Kolkata to see for yourself how special children are taught.)

It is not so much the method that matters. What matters is the attitude of the teacher. Does the teacher treat the special learners with care and love? Does the teacher have adequate patience to deal with them? Does the teacher empathise with the problems of these children? Does the teacher have special training? Does the school have adequate equipment to engage the special learners? These are some of the factors that matter in bringing up these children.

It needs to be mentioned here, that special learners should not be allowed to remain in their state (as special children) for long. Efforts must be made to move them into the main stream and merge them with normal learners. It is essential to make them cope with learning by quickening their pace and adjusting their difficulties to cope with normal studies. This can be a slow process, but an essential process.

Besides the teachers, the education system and the society at large should also be sympathetic to these learners and accept them as normal. How we treat them quickens the pace of their recovery.

14.7. Mainstreaming: Problems and Prospects

In the previous section while discussing some of the teaching strategies, we have suggested that the special children should be merged with the main stream learners at the earliest. Though this is an essential aspect of teaching, there are several problems associated with it. Some of the problems arise from the parents and the society.

a. Parents. Here we need to think of the parents of special children as well as those of normal children. Parents of special children suffer from a complex. They are worried about the social stigma and try to be protective of their

children. This leads to non-social behaviour on the part of the children – i.e. they do not mix with other children in the class easily, they are often frightened by small incidences, some of them are over-sensitive. The net result of such behaviour is reticence, which we have discussed. Parents of such children need to be counseled and encouraged to allow their children to mix with the normal children. This develops a healthy attitude among the normal children as well.

Parents of normal children are reluctant to allow their children to associate with special children. Children tend to imitate others easily. Parents of normal children are worried that when their children imitate special children, they may form a habit which would be difficult to wean.

b. Lack of proper schools and equipment: Though some schools for special children have been created in the private sector, the fee structure is high, and children from economically weaker sections cannot attend such schools. There are very few schools run by the government or NGOs. But such schools are far fewer than the required number. Besides, these schools are either understaffed or not properly equipped. Thus they are not able to fulfill the purpose for which they have been established.

We have stated two major problems that exist in our society today. But this need not deter us, for we at least have some recourse to go to. Best alternative is to have normal schools which admit special children and help them cope with others with the help of counselors.

14.8 Summary

In this unit we have looked at the term special children from pedagogic perspective. We have looked at the reasons for using this term and also delineated some of the characteristic features of special learners. Further we have looked at the types of special learners and some strategies that can be used to teach them. Finally, we have looked at the possibilities of merging these learners with main stream learners and the problems that exist with such merging.

14.9 Review Questions

a. What are some of the characteristics of a good learner?

b. Who are special learners?

c. Why do we call them special learners? (Is this the right thing to do?)

d. What are some of the characteristic features of special learners?

e. What are the types of special learners?

f. What is dyslexia?

g. What is dysgraphia?

h. What is one method to teach special children?

i. What are the qualities of a teacher in a special school?

j. Why should we merge the special learners with main stream learners?

k. How should we train the parents of special children?

l. What is the responsibility of the society in treating special learners?

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Unit 15 ❑ Remedial Materials

Structure

15.1 Objectives

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

a. Understand the term remedial materials

b. Appreciate their use in the classroom

c. Differentiate remedial materials from initial materials

d. Produce some remedial materials depending on the need.

15.2 Introduction

In this unit we will take a look at the meaning of remedial materials, strategies to produce them, and use them in our classes. Why are these materials called remedial materials? How are they different from regular materials? Who are the learners? These are some of the questions that get answered in the course of this unit.

15.3 Remedial Materials

To begin with let us understand the term remedial materials. There are two words in this term 'remedy' and 'materials'. As students of ELT, you have come across the word materials often in your course. Materials represent the syllabus, textbook, exercises, and other related things such as teaching aids used in the classroom. We have examples of different types of materials in the courses we have studied. What about the other word? 'Remedy', this term is used more often in the medical science. It means a process the doctors adopt to cure a disease. Generally, a doctor (medical practitioner) cures a patient. If this is the case, what do materials have to do with diseases and curing? Let us discuss this a little further.

When you fall ill, you go to a doctor. The doctor examines you, and finds out what is wrong with you. This process is called diagnosis. Once the doctor has diagnosed your problem, he will give you (prescribe) specific medicines and ask you to use them in a particular manner. You have to obey the doctor to get well. This is a common experience almost all of us have. Sometimes, the doctor resorts to tests from outside to confirm if his diagnosis is correct. This confirmation through a pathological test is a reinforcement of the earlier diagnosis. The diagnosis helps in planning the remedy.

In describing the process of doctor curing you, we have used some words - diagnosis, prescription, reinforcement and remedy. Can we use these terms in our teaching? What do you think? Please write your responses in the space given below:

Your response:

When we go to a class, we have a large number of students. They have varying degrees of competence and not all are equally competent. Some students are weak and we need to offer them help. Offering help to weaker students is called remediation. This is just one example.

In the previous unit, we discussed a group of learners called the special learners. There are different types of special learners. These learners are less fortunate and cannot cope with studies the way normal children do. They need different type of materials before they can be merged with the main stream learners. Materials used to teach special learners are also called remedial materials.

We have looked at two meanings of the term 'remedial materials' – materials that can be used with weak learners and materials used to teach special learners. Materials

used with both groups, are they similar? This is a good question, if it occurred to you as you were reading this. We will discuss it further in this unit.

When we generalize what we have said so far, it can be summarised as follows: different learners need different types of materials;in other words, the same set of materials cannot be used with all the learners. We need to customize our materials to suit the specific needs of the learners. These materials can be initial learning materials or remedial materials as the case may be.

In the next section let us take a closer look at the remedial materials for some of their features.

15.4. Some features of remedial materials

Every class has a specific syllabus based on which course books are produced. These course books cater to the normal children and while producing these books, the average performance of the group is taken as the norm or standard. We will not discuss in detail the production of textbooks here. You may look at your course on Materials Development for this.

Some students in your class find the course book materials difficult to understand. They are not ready to receive the lessons. Such students need help.

In the previous section, we noted that a doctor diagnoses the disease before curing it. Here your learner has a weakness (disease) and you need to diagnose the weakness in the learner to treat him/her properly. A doctor has a set of instruments (stethoscope, thermometer, etc.) to diagnose the disease. What does a teacher have? We can produce some tests that help us identify the weaknesses of the learners. Look at an example given below: Go to your class and ask your students to write a paragraph on their classroom, or any familiar subject they like. If there are forty students in your class, and when you collect the paragraphs and start correcting them, you will find various types of errors – errors of spelling, errors of grammar, errors in vocabulary (wrong use of words), errors in sentence construction, errors in organisation, etc. Under each of these categories you may find further errors. For e.g. spelling errors could – omission of double letters, unnecessary use of double letters, replacing letters (e with i, c with s, f with ph, etc.) Similarly, in grammar, you can have the errors of tense, concord, wrong gender, irregular plurals and past forms etc. Each of these problems demands a different

type of treatment – materials which act as medicine. Since these materials act as medicine, they are called remedial materials.

There is another aspect to remedial materials. Our learners in the class could be weak for they may not have learnt what they should have in the previous class. In such a case, can we ask them to go back to the previous class, or get the books they have already studied and re-teach the same books? Either of these strategies is likely to damage their self-esteem and we as teachers should refrain from doing so. We need to teach what has not been learnt properly and help our learners cope with what they need to learn now. Such task would demand more time. How do we cope with such a problem?

Here is what we can do. We may ask these children to stay for a short duration after the class and teach them the necessary lessons from the previous class. But such teaching should not be re-teaching the same lessons. It would be re-teaching the same concepts with new materials and more intensive practice. These two aspects are important. The concept will be the same, but the lesson will be different and the lesson will provide more practice. For example, the learners may always get confused between the use of simple past and present perfect tense. How do we teach this? Can we think of a few situations where the contrast can be brought out and also provide exercises for intensive practice?

If you have to ask the learners to stay beyond the school hours, you may have additional problems from the authorities, learners and parents. The learners may miss their bus, they may be disturbed by other learners leaving the school and getting ready to play. There could be a host of problems that we may not have thought of. Alternatively, it is possible to divide the class into smaller heterogeneous groups. Each group can have a leader who is a gifted learner with one or two slow learners. Tasks can be designed in such a manner that the slow learners get to learn with the help of gifted learners. This saves the classroom time and also introduces a congenial atmosphere in the classroom. Learners get to teach each other and thus a better bonding develops among them along with good learning.

There are quite a few other strategies and most of these are directed towards special learners and not necessarily slow learners.

15.5. How to produce remedial materials

Having discussed some of the features of remedial teaching, let us look at how these

materials can be produced. One or two major points we need to bear in mind while developing materials are as follows:

a. The materials must be produced in easy to understand language so as to provide access to the learners without difficulty.

b. The theoretical explanations should be avoided. (e.g. we do not need to discuss the rules of grammar and provide detailed explanation on why a particular structure is wrong etc.) It is best to provide familiar examples and contrast them with wrong examples (commonly used errors) (Look at the books in the reference list)

c. Materials should provide adequate practice. There should be more exercises which are fairly graded in nature. The exercises should also have adequate guidance in terms of instructions and illustrations.

d. There must be ample scope for the learner to work independently than being handheld by the teacher.

e. The remedial materials should get integrated into the main teaching and not remain a separate part.

Having mentioned the qualities of remedial materials, it may not be out of place to suggest a how to use these materials in our classroom. The next section will discuss this.

15.6. How to use remedial materials

Remedial materials are meant for practice and not for teaching. Every teacher should necessarily understand that remedial materials are not re-teaching materials. These are customized special materials. What do we mean by this? Before producing these materials, the teacher will administer a diagnostic test and identify the weaknesses of the learners. The weakness identified may be grouped into certain categories. For example, we may have errors in grammar. But these errors could be of several types – errors of tense (wrong use) or errors of prepositions (dropping, over use, wrong use) this could also happen with articles, there could be errors of concord, or use of conjunctions, conditionals, wrong complex sentence formations etc. These can be categorized appropriately – and students can be divided into groups, and materials produced for each type of error can be given to the specific group. A spirit of competition (with incentives added) can be introduced to motivate the learners. Handling

multiple groups with different tasks demands special training, and the teacher needs to be alert and pay attention to each group equally.

The teacher should be around while the learners are working with the remedial materials without interfering in their work. However, the teacher by his/her presence should become part of the group, and this gives confidence to the learner that there is help is at hand. While monitoring, the teacher may provide minimum help, and only when required to ensure the task is completed. At no time, the teacher should give an impression to the learner that he/she is weak and therefore being asked to work on these additional exercises. The remedial materials should become part of the mainstream materials and we shall look at it in the next section.

15.7. Remedial materials and Mainstreaming

What is mainstreaming? Every class has a textbook which is prescribed as part of the course study. This book is based on the syllabus and is normally graded. However, no textbook is complete in itself and it needs to be supplemented by teacher made materials.

Teacher made materials can render some of the exercises in the textbook easy, or complex depending on the nature of the learners in the class. While preparing the supplementary materials, the teacher should take care to cater to the needs of all the learners in the class. This will ensure mainstreaming the remedial materials. Mainstreaming refers to using additional materials along with the textbook materials in the form of enrichment or remediation.

15.8. Summary

In this unit we have looked at the concept of remedial materials. The term is used in two different senses – to meet the needs of the special learners and also the slow learners. Remedial materials are not meant for re-teaching. They are used to supplement the prescribed materials or the textbook in use. A teacher needs to be careful while using remedial materials not to hurt the self-esteem of the learner.

15.9. Review Questions

a. What do we mean by remedial materials?

b. Who are the learners who need remediation?

c. Can we label remedial teaching as re-teaching? Give reasons.

d. Is remedial teaching an additional burden on the teacher?

e. What are some of the strategies to teach remedial materials?

f. What are some of the features of remedial materials?

g. Why is it necessary for a teacher to prepare supplementary materials?

h. How are supplementary materials used as remedial materials?

i. Are slow learners the same as special learners?

j. How often do we need to use remedial teaching in our classes?

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Unit 16 ❑ Evaluation Strategies

Structure

16.1 Objectives

At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to:

a. Understand the concept of evaluation

b. Become familiar with different terms used in association with evaluation

c. Become familiar with different types of assessment in practice

d. Utilize the results for further development in teaching and curriculum design.

16.2 Introduction

This is the last unit in our module and this unit should quickly recapitulate for you what has been discussed in the other three units. We began with identifying learners, their features and strengths and weaknesses. We looked at the term special learners in this context and a few categories of special learners and their qualities. Having looked at the special learners, in the next unit we looked at strategies to teach such learners and also remedy the incomplete or faulty learning. Now we are at the end of the module and we will look at some evaluation strategies. In this unit, we will discuss the concept

of evaluation, and the instruments used for evaluation. More important than the evaluation is the wash back effect which helps us in reforming ourselves. We shall look at the meaning of this term and its implications in pedagogy.

16.3. Definition and scope of evaluation

You have been students for a long time. In the course of your studentship, you have faced several examinations and tests. You have faced these with some amount of fear, uncertainty and anxiety. In the space below, mention the types of tests and examinations you have faced.

Your response:

It is a common practice in schools and colleges to conduct tests and examinations. Why are these conducted? What is the ultimate goal of such tests and examinations? We will answer this in one phrase – 'learner placement'. Do you know the meaning of this phrase? It simply means, to know which learner knows more and which learner knows less. There can be a range in such ranking and the learners can be arranged according to their scores in a descending order. We generally call this ranking the learners, and the phrase given has the same meaning as ranking learners.

Is this is the only purpose? No, the results have many more uses than just learner placement. It helps the learner to know or understand his/her weaknesses. It is a help given to the learners to improve and perform better. Do you agree with this? A good teacher, while evaluating an answer, marks all the errors the leaners have committed and also suggests the correct answer or provides a feedback based on which the learner can overcome the error. Have you noticed such remarks in your test papers? We will discuss the value of feedback a little later in this unit.

It is not just the learners who get help from the test results. The teachers also get a feedback on their teaching. If a large number of learners have answered a question wrongly, or produced exactly similar type of errors, it is a reflection on improper teaching by the teacher. A sensitive teacher will take a note of this and perhaps remedy the teaching strategy. A good teacher may plan to teach the lesson once again properly helping the learners overcome their misconceptions.

If this is the purpose of evaluation, how do we define it? We will look at three possible functions of evaluation.

a. Evaluation is a process of assessment.

b. It is a method of assessing the learners' uptake on what is taught.

c. It is a means to help the teacher understand the learner behaviour and the success of teaching.

Take a close look at these three statements and arrive at your own working definition.

Tests and examinations serve different purposes in the academic world. We will look at some of the terms used with evaluation and see how they are distinct.

16.4. Tests, Assessment and Evaluation

In the previous section we have understood the reasons for Evaluation. In the course of discussion, we have also said that evaluation is a process. We need to understand this further. What do we mean by a process?

A process is long drawn and has a sense of continuity to it. Therefore, when we say, evaluation is a process, we mean it is a never ending thing. We tend to evaluate our learners all the while. From the day they enter our class, the evaluation process begins. We notice how they dress, how friendly they are with other learners, the way they respond to questions in the class, the manner in which they keep their books (neat and tidy or otherwise), their handwriting, in general their overall behaviour. This evaluation never ends and it leaves a lasting impression on us. Taking into account the description we have given here, we may even say, "Evaluation is a comprehensive process that never ends". However, this is only a working definition. Educationists define it a little differently. One definition that has caught my attention is given here: *Evaluation is a continuous process and is concerned with the formal academic achievement of pupils. It is interpreted in the development of the individual in terms of desirable behavioral change relation of his feeling, thinking, and actions.*

Let us look at this definition a little closely and analyse it. It states the following"

a. a continuous process

b. concerned with formal academic achievement

c. development of the individual

d. desirable behavioural change

In the preceding paragraph we have discussed all these traits and the definition provided here captures the essence very well.

To formally evaluate a learner, we have a set of instruments – these are called tests and examinations. Both these have a similar purpose, but differ in their magnitude. Both attempt to assess the learners.

Tests are periodical events and are confined to a small group or what is popularly called the 'class'. Tests are constructed and administered by the teacher, hence there is a certain amount of autonomy given to the teacher. The teacher made test (as it is called) is based on what is taught in the class, and learners tend to anticipate the questions or tasks. After assessing the test, the teacher provides a feedback to the learners. The learners are given an opportunity to do better each successive time. Because of this, the tests become part of Formative Assessment (FA). Formative Assessment, by definition gives scope to a learner to improve.

Examinations are also events, but that occur less frequently than tests. Unlike tests, they have finality about them. These are administered at the end of a term/semester or the academic year. The examinations which are of longer duration, obviously have more number of questions to respond to. These questions need not be framed by the teacher who has taught the class and there is room for some anxiety among the learners taking the examination. Further, at the end of assessment, the learners may not get any feedback leaving little scope for improvement. (It is for this reason, we said, 'examinations have finality about them'). Based on this nature of examination, they become part of Summative Assessment. Summative represents the totality or finality and attempt to measure the learning by the learner in a comprehensive manner.

Formative and Summative assessments are part of the education system. The ratio of weight given to each type of assessment is determined by the examination body – Board of Primary/Secondary Education or the University. To date, summative assessment has been given larger weight in comparison with the formative assessment. The recently introduced NEP 2020 has recommended greater weight being offered to formative assessment and wean the summative assessment from the system. But this will take some time to become a reality.

There is a third instrument of assessing learner uptake. This is called the project work. Project work helps in assessing the learners' ability to apply knowledge gained in the class to real life activity. This is not a supervised activity. It is a take home

assignment which needs to be completed in a stipulated period of time (a week or a fortnight, and this period depends on the magnitude and complexity of the project. For example, a doctoral project may take a few years to complete.). Project is highly individualized and assessed for its own merits without comparing it with the works of others.

16.5. Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation

Tests and projects form part of what we call CCE – Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation. This scheme was introduced in all the CBSE schools a few years ago, and later withdrawn due to the protest by teachers. What did this involve?

CCE made demands on the teacher to assess the learner progress almost every day and keep a record of the same. The assessment was based on a variety of factors including learners' participation in classroom teaching and discussion, regularity of attendance, participation in sports and other curricular activities, behaviour with other learners in the class and also formal tests. The tests were spread across the year and their distribution is represented diagrammatically as follows:

The Academic year

	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
Beginning	FA 1	FA 2	SA 1	FA 3	FA 4	SA 2
Of the year	(10%)	(10%)	(30%)	(10%)	(10%)	(30%)

This diagram gives you the distribution of tests for assessment throughout the year. A learner takes the final examination for just 30% of the marks thus reducing the amount of anxiety of failure. The learner has already been marked for 70% of the progress made, and this is helpful to the learners.

The four formative tests were all teacher made tests and could have a variety of modes of administration – these tests could be oral tests, take home assignments, projects, or working out exercises in the course books, etc. The only deterrent factor was in keeping the records which required the teachers' to spend a lot more time than they could afford to. Hence the system was withdrawn. This scheme is presented here to update you on one of the practices and with the implementation of NEP 2020, CCE may once again become part of the school curriculum.

Here is a task for you to do. Having become familiar with different types of assessment, recall the types of test and assignments you were given in the school. Did you get any feedback on your performance?

Your response:

In the next section, we will discuss in detail the value of feedback that we need to give our learners. We will discuss its nature and sope.

16.6. Feedback and its features

Have you ever thought why NEP 2020 prefers to give greater weight to formative assessment? Try and express your views here:

Your response:

Formative assessment is less formal compared to the summative assessment. It is a cumulative process (or a continuous assessment – CCE or Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation which has been discussed in detail in 16.4) and helps the learners improve constantly. How does it help learners improve? The improvement happens because of the feedback.

What do we mean by feedback? Feedback is a report on the type of performance the learner has exhibited. The learner performance is seen in the type of answers the learner can provide in a test that is administered. The test could be oral, written or a project assigned to the learner.

The feedback needs to be administered properly. It needs to be polite and should not hurt the learner. However, the learner needs to become aware of the weaknesses and also understand how these weaknesses can be overcome. Let us take an example. Compare the two types of feedback given below. Which of these would you prefer, and why? Write in the space after the examples.

a. This is a bad essay and needs to be rewritten.

b. This essay while it covers all the points has some weaknesses.

   i. There are a few language errors. Check the rules of concord wherever it has been marked.

   ii. Take care of your spellings. Use the British spelling consistently.

iii. You should punctuate the sentences properly. Without this, the meaning may change.

iv. Organise your thoughts systematically. Make an outline of the paragraph/ essay before you write.

v. Before submitting the answer, try to read it once again and check for some errors which you can discover yourself.

vi. All your errors have been marked in the paper, in some places corrections have been suggested. If you still have doubts you can consult me.

Task: There are two types of feedback 'a' and 'b'. Which of these two do you prefer and why?

Your response:

Obviously, most of you will choose 'b' as your preference. It is more friendly (non-threatening) and constructive. The first one is more matter of fact and does not provide any help to the learner. Having gone through these examples, decide what you need to do with your students.

16.7. Summary of the unit

In this unit we have looked at the definition of evaluation and understood why it is called a process and not an event. We have discussed in details the need for evaluation in our curriculum. To evaluate our learners we need some instruments. Tests and examinations are the most common tools of evaluation or assessment. We have looked at the similarities and differences between these two terms. Moving further, we have looked at the concept of formative and summative assessments, their strengths and weaknesses. Finally, we have seen the purpose of feedback and its value in helping learners improve.

16.9. Review questions

a. How is evaluation an important process in academics?

b. Why do we call evaluation a process?

c. What happens if the students are not evaluated?

d. What are the various aspects of evaluation?

e. What are the tools we can use to evaluate?

f. How are tests different from examinations?

g. What is the difference between formative and summative assessment?

h. Why does NEP 2020 recommend more of formative assessment?

i. What does CCE stand for? How useful is it?

j. What is the scope of feedback in education?

k. What are some of the qualities of feedback?

16.8 References

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