

# APPLIED LINGUISTICS

## ENG522

### LESSON NO.1

The International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA) proclaims:

Applied Linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of research and practice dealing with practical problems of language and communication that can be identified, analyzed or solved by applying available theories, methods or results of Linguistics or by developing new theoretical and methodological frameworks in linguistics to work on these problems.

AILA proclaims, with 'practical problems of language and communication', the term 'problem' does raise issues of its own.

Ron Macaulay (2011) presents 'Seven Ways of Looking at Language':

- language as meaning
- language as sound
- language as form
- language as communication
- language as identity
- language as history
- language as symbol

These can be summarized in three rather different conceptualizations of language:

1. as a particular representational system based on the biologically rooted language faculty;
2. as complex and historically evolved patterns of structures;
3. as a social practice and a culturally loaded value system.

Ben Rampton (1997, p. 14) described Applied Linguistics as 'an open field of interest in language', while David Block (2009) called it 'an amalgam of research interests'.

#### The Need and Scope of Applied Linguistics

Applied linguistics is a theoretical term that covers interdisciplinary domain in linguistics to solve real world problems in the use of language in various contexts such as translation, literacy, language education and teaching, lexicography, and others which belong to the application of language. The scope of applied linguistics can be summarized as follows:

1. **Language and Teaching:** This scope covers the approaches and methods which are used in teaching second language.
2. **Language and Society:** This scope is also called sociolinguistics which studies the relationship between the society and language. It answers some questions emerge in the use of language in society.

3. **Language and Education/Learning:** There are some activities involve in this scope. They are 1st language education, additional language education, clinical linguistics, and language testing.
4. **Language, Work, and Law:** It covers the studies of workplace communication, language planning, and forensic linguistics.
5. **Language, Information, and Effect:** The other studies such as literary stylistics, CDA (Critical Discourse Analysis), translation and interpretation, and information design belong to this scope.

### **Linguistics and Applied Linguistics: A Difficult Relationship**

Linguistics and applied linguistics a difficult relationship... Linguistics: is the academic discipline concerned with the study of language in general. In some degree is bound to represent an abstract idealization of language. One particularly influential type of idealization is that used in the **generative linguistics** by Noam Chomsky. **The representation of language in the mind (competence) the way in which people use language in everyday life (performance)**

**In Functional linguistics the concern is with language as a means of communication**, and how people actually use their language. **Corpus linguistics** looks for the frequencies and combinations in words that are not usually revealed by intuition.

#### **TOPIC: 5**

**One important source of that enrichment has been the journal *Language Learning*, published from the University of Michigan.**

**Corder (1973)** was well aware that in limiting the coverage of applied linguistics to language teaching he was open to criticism.

#### **Definitions of Applied Linguistics**

**“the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue” (Brumfit,**

- **“the focus of applied linguistics is on trying to resolve language-based problems that people encounter in the real world**, whether they be learners, teachers, supervisors, academics, lawyers, service providers, those who need social services, test takers, policy developers, dictionary makers, translators, or a whole range of business clients” (Grabe, 2002, p. 9).
- Kaplan suggests that applied linguists “are likely to move toward the analysis of new data, rather than continue to argue new theory” (Kaplan, 2002, p. 514).
- **“the term ‘applied linguistics’ raises fundamental difficulties**, if for no other reason than that it is difficult to decide on what counts as ‘linguistics’. Given these difficulties within linguistics proper, it is perhaps unfair to expect clean solutions and clear delimitations for defining applied linguistics’ ” (Kaplan & Grabe, 2000, pp. 5–6).

## History of Linguistics:

Angelis summarizes this history as follows:

- Applied Linguistics in North America does have identifiable roots in linguistics.

The British Association of Applied Linguistics (BAAL) was formally established in 1967, with the following aims: “the advancement of education by fostering and promoting, by any lawful charitable means, the study of language use, language acquisition and language teaching and the fostering of inter-disciplinary collaboration in this study” (BAAL)

## Methodological Consideration:

Applied Linguistics is a methodology in itself, because it is concerned with **real-world** problems in which language plays a central role.

In general terms, *quantitative methodology* aims to uncover facts and truths in an **objective way** by delineating patterns or structures, whereas *qualitative methodology* attempts to interpret meanings of and relationships between objects in context.

Whatever methodology you choose to adopt, there are **certain steps** you need to take in conducting a research project. These typically include:

1. defining the research question or questions
2. collecting evidence
3. analysing and presenting findings

### Defining the research question

**Defining the research question is a crucial first step.** The question has to be researchable, which means that

1. there are potentially different answers to it
2. there is evidence available for you with which to answer the question

The most common ways of finding research questions are through personal experience or reading other people’s work. These two ways also often go hand in hand with each other.

A good literature review serves two closely related purposes:

1. to make the reader understand why you are doing what you are doing in the way you are doing it
2. to prepare your own argument

## Research Design:

An **etic** study is often known as a **comparative study**, which involves comparing one individual, or situation, or behaviour, with another. An **emic** study, on the other hand, is one in which researchers try to explore and discover patterns and meanings *in situ*.

**Experimental** studies collect data under controlled conditions. The purpose of the ‘control’ is to keep everything, except for the variables under investigation, as similar or comparable as possible so that the experimental results can be reliably attributed to the changes in variables.

**Case study** design is an in-depth investigation of, usually, a single subject.

**Group study** involves a group of individuals instead of one subject. **Single case** study and group study are very often combined with longitudinal and cross-sectional designs.

### **Data Collection:**

The data that Applied Linguists are interested in can be broadly identified in two categories: interactional and non-interactional data.

1. **Interactional data** consist of a continuum with elicited conversation and naturally occurring conversation at each end, according to the degree of naturalness.
2. The so-called **non-interactional data** are data about language practices rather than samples of language practices themselves. Surveys, questionnaires, interviews, self-reports, standard assessments and laboratory experiments can all be used to collect non-interactional data

**Ethnography** is sometimes used as a data collection technique when the researcher is particularly interested in exploring the meaning of a phenomenon.

### **Analyzing and presenting findings**

1. **Quantitative data** are most often analysed through statistics and presented in various figures, tables, graphs and diagrams. There are ample guide books for students on how to do quantitative and statistical data analysis.
2. **Qualitative data**, on the other hand, are usually presented in discursive accounts, with quotations and samples of actual data. For both quantitative and qualitative data analysis, accuracy and accountability are paramount.

## **LESSON NO.2**

### **Language Development**

**Henry Sweet** as an English phonetician and language scholar stated that **Language is the expression of Ideas by means of speech-sounds combined into words.** Words are combined into sentences, this combination answering to that of ideas into thoughts.” Language development is the process by which children come to understand and communicate language during early childhood.

### **First Language Acquisition:**

The acquisition of language starts when children learn their first words, usually at around ten to twelve months of age.

Children show that they have communicational abilities as soon as they are born. At first, children cry to be noticed. This is not a linguistic ability but rather a first sign of communication.

Lenneberg collected the very first steps of language in children in his article *Language in the Context of Growth and Maturation*.

Twelve weeks: Smiling

At sixteen weeks, children start paying attention to human sounds, turning their heads in the direction of the sound.

Babbling appears at around six months of age.

At ten months of age children begin to imitate activities and utterances from the people around them but they are usually not very successful in their imitation and they do not show much comprehension of the language spoken around them.

At eighteenth month level seems to mark as turning point in a child's language learning process.

five years of age when they will have a vocabulary of around 2,000 words and grammatical abilities not too different from that of an adult.

A child enters a two-word stage of language at around eighteen months of age.

the child has only learnt the 'little rule', they make a rule out of the action verb.

It also became clear that children on the first two levels of language tend to rather make a 'little rule' out of sentences than the 'big rule'. Children begin showing that they have developed grammar into their speech as they enter the telegraphic stage of language.

It is called the telegraphic stage because children will not yet have acquired bound morphemes in their speech, making their utterances resemble telegrams. At this point a child's sentence will involve a phrase structure with a head and a complement. They will utter sentences carrying full meaning like I good boy, What her name? and Me wanna show mommy.

Children still show greater comprehension than production at the telegraphic stage.

A child stays at the telegraphic stage for about half a year.

In a three-year-old child "grammatical complexity of utterances is roughly that of colloquial adult language, although mistakes occur" (Lenneberg)

the language learning process is too complex to be obtained through imitation.

Children are exposed to imperfect language from the adults around them and yet they learn language perfectly, independent of intelligence or IQ.

### **Second and Additional Language Acquisition**

Second language acquisition and learning is defined as learning and acquisition of a language once the mother tongue or first language acquisition is established.

The additional language, which can be a second language (L2) or a foreign language (FL) is usually defined as a language acquired after the native language(s) (L1s), typically after the age of three. Proficiency in the interlanguage can range from minimal to highly advanced,

and in some cases, it can be indistinguishable from the speech produced by native speakers of a similar socioeconomic background

### **Language and the Brain**

The human nervous system is composed of the central and the peripheral system.

The peripheral nervous system is responsible for the regulation of vital body functions such as breathing and temperature maintenance, etc.

The central nervous system consists of the brain and the spinal cord.

The center of human speech and language processing has been localized in the cortex.

The dominance of the left hemisphere for language is largely uncontroversial.

Recent studies estimate that 97% of the population has language represented in the left hemisphere.

### **Generativism**

In 1957 Noam Chomsky published Syntactic Structures, a statement of the principles of transformational generative grammar (TG). This grammar had a profound effect on the study of all languages, including English. Generativism is the term used to refer a theory of language which has been developed over the last two decades, by Chomsky and his companions. The rules expressing the relation of deep and surface structure are called “grammatical transformations”.

## **LESSON NO.3**

### **Descriptive Linguistics**

**A Long History of Language Description:** The earliest known attempts to describe a language in a systematic way originated in ancient northwestern India, where the desire for a faithful transmission of the sacred scriptures known as the Vedas brought about the need to describe Sanskrit. The best known member of that grammatical tradition, commonly dated 5th century BCE, is Pāṇini—arguably the first descriptive linguist. Nahuatl, the language of the Aztecs had its first grammar written in 1947 and Quechua, the language of the Inca Empire, in 1560.

### **Descriptive Linguistics**

In the 20th century the structural or descriptive linguistics school emerged. It dealt with languages at particular points in time (synchronic) rather than throughout their historical development (diachronic). The father of modern structural linguistics was Ferdinand de Saussure, who believed in language as a systematic structure serving as a link between thought and sound; he thought of language sounds as a series of linguistic signs that are purely arbitrary.

In America, a structural approach was continued through the efforts of Franz Boas and Edward Sapir. Descriptive linguistics is closely related with social sciences.

Historical linguistics studies the diachronic processes of language change, whereas DL focuses on synchronic form taken by a particular language at a given point in its development.

### **Transformational Generative Grammar**

The revolutionary attempt of Chomsky in linguistics actually started from his concept of Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG.) or simply Transformational Grammar (TG).

TG, transformational grammar attempts to apply logic to the task of looking into the deeper meanings of the structure of sentences, and to analyze both the surface and the underlying intent of the words used.

According to Chomsky the syntactic description of sentences has two aspects: viz., Surface Structure and Deep Structure. Surface structure is the aspect of description that determines the phonetic form of sentences; while deep structure determines semantic interpretation.

"A Grammar", Chomsky says "consists of syntactic rules that generate certain underlying abstract objects, and rules of semantic and phonological interpretation that assign an intrinsic meaning and an ideal phonetic representation to these abstract object."

### **Traditional Prescriptive Grammar**

Traditional grammar refers to the type of grammar study done prior to the beginnings of modern linguistics. Grammar, in this traditional sense, is the study of the structure and formation of words and sentences, usually without much reference to sound and meaning.

Traditional grammar can be traced back over 2,000 years and includes grammars from the classical period of Greece, India, and Rome; the Middle Ages; the Renaissance; the eighteenth and nineteenth century; and more modern times.

Traditional grammar books usually provide lists of grammatical terms, definitions of those terms, and advice on using so-called 'standard' grammar, including suggested correct usage of punctuation, spelling, and word choice. This advice is usually based on the prescriptive rules of prestige varieties of English, varieties often only able to be used by those in power either economically or politically.

### **Description versus Prescription: An Applied Linguistic Perspective**

The conflicts between prescriptivism and descriptivism originate in a difference in focus: scientific study versus teaching. But that difference hardly explains why the two groups are so hostile. Other disciplines don't have a similar divide.

## LESSON NO. 4

### Teaching of Communication Skills

Academics at Cambridge University created a framework for describing good communication skills in different contexts. It divides these skills into four distinct but interlinked strands:

- *Physical*: How a speaker uses their body language, facial expressions, and voice.
- *Linguistic*: The speaker's use of language, including their understanding of formality and rhetorical devices.
- *Cognitive*: The content of what a speaker says and their ability to build on, challenge, question, and summarize others' ideas.
- *Social and emotional*: How well a speaker listens, includes others, and responds to their audience.

### **Teaching of Language Skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing)**

#### Listening

Listening is a language modality. It is one of the four skills of a language i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing. It involves an active involvement of an individual. Listening involves a sender, a message and a receiver. It is the psychological process of receiving, attending to constructing meaning from and responding to spoken and/or nonverbal messages. students spend more time on listening than reading, speaking or writing.

Listening comprises of some **key components**, they are:

- **discriminating** between sounds
- **recognizing** words and **understanding** their meaning
- **identifying** grammatical groupings of words,
- identifying expressions and sets of utterances that act to create meaning,
- **connecting** linguistic cues to non-linguistic and paralinguistic cues, □ **using background knowledge** to predict and to confirm meaning and
- **recalling** important words and ideas.

#### Approaches to Listening Practice

A number of listening difficulties have been revealed by researchers and many suggestions have been made to improve listening instruction efficiency; however, simply relying on teachers' instruction in the classroom is not sufficient to improve one's **listening**

**competence**. Therefore, teachers should give their students guidance on doing listening practice outside class. Three approaches: narrow listening, repeated listening, and reading while listening, are suggested for developing this competence in listening.

### 1. Narrow Listening

Narrow listening originates from narrow reading, and has been found to be helpful for language acquisition (Krashen, 1981).

**Narrow listening means that learners focus on one topic**, In 1996, Krashen provided some guidelines for doing narrow listening; however, over the years, advancing technology has made this learning approach much easier than previously.

### Repeated Listening

**Repeated listening also derives from an L1 source**, repeated reading. Repeated reading is one of the most common methods for developing reading fluency. It was developed by **Samuels (1979)** as a pedagogical application to use with L1 readers who have reading difficulties. Repeated reading is used as a means to assist unskilled readers to practice a very basic skill (word recognition) and help them move from the non-accurate to the accurate stage and eventually to the automatic stage (Samuels, 1979).

### Simultaneous Reading and Listening

Simultaneous reading and listening is also termed “reading while listening” if the focus is on listening. Reading and listening at the same time can help beginner learners to develop awareness of form-meaning relationships and word recognition skills. Some empirical studies have also found that reading while listening improves students’ comprehension (Chang, 2009; Chang & Millett, 2014).

### Speaking

Taking the pedagogical landscape for speaking instruction into consideration, a comprehensive and holistic approach which integrates the combined strengths of direct and indirect instruction with the power of learners’ metacognition is proposed. This approach is further proposed by recent research findings on pedagogical processes that can scaffold the development of L2 speaking.

### Speaking Competence

**Speaking involves dynamic interactions of mental, articulatory and social processes**. To express a message, speakers need to decide what to say and use their linguistic knowledge to construct utterances and encode messages in sounds and sound patterns which can be recognised and understood by their listeners. They also need to consider the context of interaction and engage their listeners in socially appropriate ways through various linguistic choices and forms.

### Pronunciation Skills

The articulatory and phonological skills enable speakers to produce sounds at the segmental and suprasegmental levels. At the segmental level, learners need to articulate discrete sounds such as vowels, consonants and diphthongs, and clusters of these sounds

through movement with and inside of their mouths to produce intelligible sounds through the articulatory tract. The suprasegmental level concerns overall sound patterns of utterances or parts of an utterance and are realized mainly but not exclusively through prominence (stress of selected syllables in key words) and tones (pitch movements in selected key words).

### Communication Strategies

Communication strategies are special techniques that learners need to employ during oral communication.

Florez (1999) highlights/sums up these skills underlying speaking:

- using grammar structures accurately;
- assessing characteristics of the target audience, including shared knowledge, status and power relations, or differences in perspectives;
- selecting vocabulary that is understandable and appropriate for the audience, the topic being discussed, and the setting in which the speech act occurs;
- applying strategies to enhance comprehensibility, such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing, or checking for listener's comprehension;
- paying attention to the success of the interaction and adjusting components of speech such as vocabulary, rate of speech, and complexity of grammar structures to maximize listener's comprehension and involvement.

### Top-Down and Bottom-Up Models

**The former is known as taking a ‘top-down’ approach, where the meaning-driven or reader-driven nature is explicit.** As Goodman (1996) states, reading is ‘a psycholinguistic guessing game,’ where much of the meaning resides in the reader, who needs to interpret the text to derive it. He argues that readers’ top-down processing is essential to successful reading, and that in many instances, reading involves readers’ existing schematic knowledge.

### Interactive Models

In his ‘interactive-compensatory model’ Stanovich (2000) argues that, although top-down processing is necessary, bottom-up processes play a significant role in reading, especially for beginning readers. In fact, both processes are very important in learning how to read. He points the reason why poor readers do not guess as accurately as skilled readers. The skilled readers possess accurate and automatic perceptual abilities in word recognition that they do not usually need to guess; whereas poor readers usually guess, and their guessing is frequently short circuited by their limited linguistic proficiency. Following this line of explication, one can see clearly that learning to read becomes a matter of developing highly accurate decoding skills.

This means that there is a ‘short-circuit’ effect for L2 learners whose linguistic proficiency is too low to make efficient reading activity (Yorio, 1971).

### Teaching Reading in the Classroom

Many useful strategies have been informed by researches and successfully used in the reading classroom (Grabe 2009). Some of them are more useful in the pre-reading stage; some are more relevant to the during-reading stage; and others are more suitable for post-reading stage.

### Writing

Writing is a complex, multifaceted, and purposeful act of communication that is accomplished in a variety of environments, under various constraints of time, and with a variety of language resources and technological tools.

### Writing Competence

Writing competence is composing an effective piece of written work to fulfill a specific purpose.

Writing competencies are scored as follows:

BASIC denotes partial mastery of prerequisite knowledge and skills that are fundamental for proficient work at a given grade.

PROFICIENT represents solid academic performance. Students reaching this level have demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter.

ADVANCED represents superior performance.

## GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

Methods and approaches may differ in their theoretical background, their focus and goals, views on teacher and learner roles, typical techniques and forms of interaction, attitude to errors and use of mother tongue, role of instructional materials, etc. Each of them has its own strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT).

### **Goals and Strengths of Grammar Translation Method**

There are two main goals to grammar–translation classes. One is to develop students' reading ability to a level where they can read literature in the target language. The other is to develop students' general mental discipline.

### **Direct Method and Pakistani Context**

The direct method was an answer to the dissatisfaction with the older grammar translation method, which teaches students grammar and vocabulary through direct translations and thus focuses on the written language. However, in Pakistan, GMT is still widely used. The Direct Method is used in a very restricted sense. However, we need to consider the nature and degree of practices in different streams of education in Pakistan so the case of the use of DTM is different in public sector and private sector.

As far as the future use or way forward is concerned, possibilities of using Direct Method are there, but there is a need for proper teacher training in this regard.

## AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD

The emergence of the Audiolingual Method resulted from the increased attention given to foreign language teaching in the United States toward the end of the 1950s. The need for a radical change and rethinking of foreign language teaching methodology (most of which was still linked to the Reading Method) was prompted by the launch of the first Russian satellite in 1957.

### **Learner roles**

Learners are viewed as organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses. In accordance with behaviorist learning theory, teaching focuses on the external manifestations of learning rather than on the internal processes. Learners play a reactive role by responding to stimuli, and thus have little control over the content, pace, or style of learning. They are not encouraged to initiate interaction, because this may lead to mistakes.

### **Teacher's role**

In Audiolingualism, as in Situational Language Teaching, the teacher's role is central and active; it is a teacher-dominated method. The teacher models the target language, controls the direction and pace of learning, and monitors and corrects the learners' performance. The teacher must keep the learners attentive by varying drills and tasks and choosing relevant situations to practice structures. Language learning is seen to result from active verbal interaction between the teacher and the learners. Brooks argues that the teacher must be trained to do the following:

- Introduce, sustain, and harmonize the learning of the four skills in this order: ○ Hearing, speaking, reading and writing. ○ Use - and not use - English in the language classroom.
- Model the various types of language behavior that the student is to learn. Teach spoken language in dialogue form. ○ Direct choral response by all or parts of the class. ○ Teach the use of structure through pattern practice. ○ Guide the student in choosing and learning vocabulary. ○ Show how words relate to meaning in the target language. Get the individual student to talk.
- Reward trials by the student in such a way that learning is reinforced. Teach a short story and other literary forms.

### **The role of instructional materials**

Instructional materials in the Audiolingual Method assist the teacher to develop language mastery in the learner. They are primarily teacher-oriented. A student textbook is often not

used in the elementary phase of a course where students are primarily listening, repeating, and responding.

## **NATURAL APPROACH**

The natural approach developed by Tracy Terrell and supported by Stephen Krashen is a language teaching approach which claims that language learning is a reproduction of the way humans naturally acquire their native language. The approach adheres to a communicative approach to language teaching and rejects earlier methods such as the audiolingual method and the situational language teaching approach which Krashen and Terrell (1983) believe are not based on “actual theories of language acquisition but theories of the structure of language.”

### **The syllabus**

Krashen and Terrell (1983) approach course organization from two points of view. First, they list some typical goals for language courses and suggest which of these goals are the ones at which the Natural Approach aims. They list such goals under four areas:

1. Basic personal communication skills: oral (e.g., listening to announcements in public places)
2. Basic personal communication skills: written (e.g., reading and writing personal letters)
3. Academic learning skills: oral (e.g., listening to a lecture)
4. Academic learning skills: written (e.g., taking notes in class).

Of these, they note that the Natural Approach is primarily "designed to develop basic communication skills - both oral and written"

### **Teacher roles**

The Natural Approach demands a much more center-stage role for the teacher than do many contemporary communicative methods. Second, the Natural Approach teacher creates a classroom atmosphere that is interesting, friendly, and in which there is a low affective filter for learning. This is achieved in part, through such Natural Approach techniques as not demanding speech from the students before they are ready for it, not correcting student errors, and providing subject matter of high interest to students.

Finally, the teacher must choose and orchestrate a rich mix of classroom activities, involving a variety of group sizes, content, and contexts. The teacher is seen as responsible for collecting materials and designing their use. These materials, according to Krashen and Terrell, are based not just on teacher perceptions but on elicited student needs and interests. As with other non-orthodox teaching systems, the Natural Approach teacher has a particular responsibility to communicate clearly and compellingly to students the assumptions, organization, and expectations of the method, since in many cases these will violate student views of what language learning and teaching are supposed to be.

## ECLECTIC APPROACH

The eclectic approach is the label given to a teacher's use of techniques and activities from a range of language teaching approaches and methodologies. The teacher decides what methodology or approach to use depending on the aims of the lesson and the learners in the group. Eclectic approach for teaching foreign language is commendable when circumstances do not allow for the adoption of a single method. Learners of foreign languages nowadays are prepared to invest less time than before in learning a foreign language. The eclectic method provides a third option for teachers because it fuses elements from traditional and cognitive methods to deliver on the strengths of both.

## TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE

Total Physical Response (TPR) is a language teaching method built around the coordination of speech and action; it attempts to teach language through physical (motor) activity. Developed by James Asher, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University, California, it draws on several traditions, including developmental psychology, and humanistic pedagogy, as well as on language teaching procedures proposed by Harold and Dorothy Palmer in 1925.

### Lesson-05

## **ERROR ANALYSIS: NATURE OF ERRORS AND MISTAKES**

### Error Analysis

#### **What is an Error?**

An error is a learner language form that deviates from, or violates, a target language rule. An error according to Corder, takes place when the deviation arises due to lack of knowledge. An error cannot be self-corrected.

#### Mistakes and Errors

In order to analyze learner language in an appropriate perspective, it is crucial to make a distinction between mistakes and errors, technically two very different phenomena.

**Mistake** –refers to a performance error that is either a random guess or a “slip”, in that is a failure to utilize a known system correctly. Native speakers make mistakes. When attention is called to them, they can be self-corrected.

**Error** –a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflects the competence of the learner

#### **Two Main Approaches:**

There are two main approaches to study learner’s errors.

1. Contrastive approach
2. Error analysis

The main difference between these two approaches is that the first one believes that native language interference is the major source of error in second language learning that behaviorist theory suggested. But, on the other hand Error analysis is related to pedagogical strategies to tackle the errors in second language learning. “Error analysis main concerns are organizing remedial courses and devising appropriate materials and teaching strategies based on the findings of theoretical error analysis” (Erdogan 2005)

### **Aims of Error analysis:**

The primary aims of error analysis were:

1. To identify types and patterns of errors
2. To establish error taxonomies
3. Common difficulties in second language acquisition are to be identified. —
4. On this basis, error analysis is supposed to contribute to a comprehensive knowledge and processes of second language acquisition.
5. In addition, results are to be used for the revision of theories of language learning and it also helps to evaluate and improve language teaching.

### **Objects of EA**

According to Corder (1974) error analysis has two objects:

- ★ The **theoretical** object deals with what and how a learner learns when he studies a second language.’
- ★ The **applied** object enables the learner ‘to learn more efficiently by manipulating knowledge of his vernacular for academic purposes’.

### **Why is EA Done?**

Sercombe, (2000) explains that EA serves three purposes.

1. Firstly, to find out the level of language proficiency the learner has reached.
2. Secondly, to obtain information about common difficulties in language learning.
3. Thirdly, to find out how people learn a language.

### **Corder’s Explanation of Error**

Corder(1974) distinguishes between systematic and non-systematic errors: **non-systematic errors occur in one’s native language whereas, second language (L2) errors are systemic errors.**

### **Stages of Error Analysis**

According to Corder (1974) there are five stages of error analysis, they are:

1. Collection of data
2. Identification of errors
3. Description of errors
4. Explanation of errors
5. Evaluation of errors

#### **1. Collection of Data:**

The first stage of error analysis is 'collection of data'. We have to collect the relevant data at this stage. Data may be written or spoken, general or specific. Researchers have identified three broad types of error analysis according to the size of the sample. These types are: massive, specific and incidental samples.

A **massive** sample involves collecting several samples of language use from a large number of learners in order to compile a comprehensive list of errors, representative of the entire population. A **specific** sample consists of one sample of language use collected from a limited number of learners.

An **incidental** sample involves only one sample of language use produced by a single learner. All of them are relevant in the corpus collection but the relative utility and proficiency of each varies in relation to the main goal. In other words, in this first step, the researcher has to be aware of his research, and the main objective of this stage is selecting a proper data collection system.

### **Identification of Errors:**

After data collection it is identified. It means distinguishing errors. For this, errors are distinguished from mistakes in general.

The first question is to set up what target language should be used as the point of evaluation for the study.

The second is related to the differences between "errors" and "mistakes or slips". An error is made when the deviation arises as a result of lack of knowledge while a mistake or slip occurs when learners fail to perform to their competence in the target language. Normally, a mistake or slip is immediately corrected by the learner.

The third question is about interpretation. There are two kinds of interpretation: overt and covert. An overt error is easy to identify because there is a clear deviation in form (She sold her car). A **covert** error occurs in utterances that are syntactically and semantically well-formed but pragmatically odd. A covert error occurs in utterances that are superficially well-formed but which do not mean what the learner intended them to mean.

Once all the errors have been identified, they can be described. Ellis says, "One way is to classify errors into four grammatical categories:

1. **Omission** (leaving out an item that is required for correct grammatical constructions) For example: He cooking

Ellis (1997, p. 23) points out that "classifying errors in these ways can help us to diagnose learners' learning problems at any stage of their development and to plot how changes in error patterns occur over time".

#### Common Types of Omissions

Erdogan (2005, p. 264) makes the aforementioned categories very clear by providing some common types of omissions:

- ★ Morphological omission (Hand I the pliers.)
- ★ Syntactical omission (I hungry.)

**2. Addition** (addition of unnecessary elements) **Addition** is defined as the presence of an item that should not appear in well-formed utterance. For Example: She doesn't works at hospital.

**3. Substitution** (use of one element in the place of another or wrong form of morpheme)

**4. Misinformation and Mis-ordering** (incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance)

Misinformation is the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure.

Further, Corder distinguishes three types of errors according to their systematicity:

**Pre-systematic** errors occur when the learner is unaware of the existence of a particular rule in the target language. These are random.

**Systematic** errors occur when the learner has discovered a rule but it is the wrong one.

**Post-systematic** errors occur when the learner knows the correct target language rule but uses it inconsistently (i.e. makes a mistake).

**Psycholinguistic sources** concern the nature of the L2 knowledge system and the difficulties learners have in using it in production.

**Sociolinguistic sources** involve such matters as the learners' ability to adjust their language in accordance with the social context.

**Discourse sources** involve problems in the organization of information into a coherent 'text'.

### Causes of Error Analysis

The following factors have been identified by various error analysis:

#### **1) Mother Tongue Interface:**

Learning a language is a matter of habit formation when someone tries to learn new habits .the old ones will interfere the new one. The cause of error is called first language interface.

#### **2) Carelessness:**

Carelessness is often closely related to lack of motivation .many teachers will admit that it is not always the student's fault if he loses interest perhaps the material do not suit them.

#### **3) Translation:**

Translation is one of the causes of error. This happens because a student translates his first language sentence into the target language word by word. This is the most common cause of error.

#### **4) Loan words:**

Student find easier to remember the spelling of the loan word rather than the spelling of original English words.

For Example: Every one who's taking part is given nombors (number).

It is a mistri (mystery).

### 5) Inherent difficulties of Target Language:

English is a rich complex language. In grammar we have preached and reached in simple past tense

#### . **Interlingual and Intralingual Errors:**

One of the first and the most important studies conducted in the field of error analysis was done by Richerd (1974). Richerd distinguishes two types of errors

1. Interlingual Errors

2. Intralingual Errors

**Interlingual** errors are caused by mother tongue interference.

**Intralingual** errors are occurred during the learning process of the second language at the stage when the learners have not really acquired the knowledge.

## LESSON NO.6

### Definition and scope of syllabus

A clarification of terms: within the literature, there is some confusion over the terms 'syllabus' and 'curriculum'.

#### **What is a curriculum?**

Curriculum refers to all those activities in which children engage under the auspices of the school. Curriculum is a theoretical document and refers to the programme of studies in an educational system or institution. Curriculum deals with the abstract general goals of education

**A curriculum** provides the overall rationale for educating students

#### **What is a Syllabus?**

A syllabus is a statement of content which is used as the basis for planning courses of various kinds, and that the task of the syllabus designer is to select and grade this content. Syllabuses are specifications of the content of language teaching which have been submitted to some degree of structuring or ordering with the aim of making teaching and learning a more effective process. At its simplest level a syllabus can be described as a statement of what is to be learnt.

Syllabus refers to the content or subject matter of an individual subject . It is a detailed and operational document which specifies the content of a particular subject

**Syllabuses**, on the other hand, are More localized, based on accounts and records of what actually happens at the classroom level as teachers and learners apply a given curriculum to their own situation.

## Definitions of Syllabus

“A plan or what is to be achieved through our teaching and our student’s learning.”(Breen, 1984)

Function of a syllabus is “to specify what is to be taught and in what order.” (Prabhu, 1984)

“A summary of the content to which learners will be exposed.”(Yalden, 1987)

## Considerations Common to all Syllabuses

- Needs analysis
- Goals and objectives
- Content specification
- Learning tasks and activities
- Resources and materials
- Curriculum implementation
- Curriculum management
- Learner assessment
- Programme evaluation
- Teacher development

## **Dichotomies of Syllabus**

1. Analytic and Synthetic Syllabus
2. Product-oriented and Process-oriented Syllabus

## Analytic and Synthetic Syllabus

There are many different ways in which syllabus proposals of one sort or another might be analyzed. One dimension of analysis which has been the subject of a great deal of discussion and comment is the synthetic/analytic dimension.

### Analytic Syllabus

Analytic syllabus is organized in terms of the purposes for which the learner is learning the language and the kind of performance that are necessary to meet these purposes.

### Synthetic Syllabus

Synthetic syllabus is the one in which the different parts of language is taught separately and step by step in additive fashion.

Grammatical criteria are used to break the language into discrete units. These items are graded according to their (1) Grammatical contexts

1. Fluency of occurrence
2. Contrastive difficulty in relation to L1
3. Situation need and
4. Pedagogic convenience.

### Distinction between the Synthetic and Analytic Syllabus

- ✓ The distinction between **the synthetic** and analytic syllabus is that the former views that nature **of learning is additive** while later views that the nature of learning is holistic (having regard to the whole of something rather than just to parts of it.)
- ✓ **analytic** syllabus views that the nature of learning is holistic .

### Product and Process Oriented Syllabus

A **product-oriented syllabus** focuses on things learnt at the end of the learning process (outcomes) rather than the process itself. It can be compared with a **process-oriented syllabus**, which focuses on the processes of learning.

A **process-oriented syllabus** focuses on the skills and **processes** involved in learning language. It can be compared with a **product-oriented syllabus**, which focuses on completed acts of communication, the outputs.

### Grammatical Syllabus

**Grammatical Syllabus** is a synthetic syllabus and its contents are product-oriented. It is the most common syllabus type in which syllabus input is selected and graded according to grammatical notions of simplicity and complexity.

### Procedural Syllabus:

**procedural syllabus**, which consisted of a set of pedagogic tasks. The structure can be best learned when attention is concentrated on meaning. In this type of syllabus design the focus is on the learner. Tasks and activities are designed but not the linguistic content.

### Language Syllabus

#### Components of Language Syllabus

Van Ek lists the following as necessary components of a language syllabus:

1. The situations in which the foreign language will be used, including the topics which will be dealt with.
2. The language activities in which the learner will engage.
3. The language functions which the learner will fulfil.

4. What the learner will be able to do with respect to each topic.
5. The general notions which the learner will be able to handle.
6. The specific (topic-related) notions which the learner will be able to handle.
7. The language forms which the learner will be able to use
8. The degree of skill with which the learner will be able to perform.

The following three types (dichotomies) of syllabi based on the Communicative Approach will be discussed:

1. The Situational Syllabus
2. The Functional-Notional Syllabus
3. The Task-Based Syllabus

#### 1. The Situational Syllabus

The **situational syllabus is closely related to the topical syllabus**. In this approach, the use of dialogues is very common as these form the basis of communication within a specific situation. However, the use of dialogues in the situational syllabus is quite different from the use of dialogues in a structural syllabus such as the Audio-lingual Method. Benefits

The benefits of a situational context are as follows:

1. It provides for concrete contexts within which to learn notions, functions, and structures, thus making it easier for most learners to envisage.
2. It may motivate learners to see that they are learning to meet their most pressing everyday communication needs.

#### Criticism

Yalden (1987:36) describes examples of situational syllabi in which students are initially presented with a "problem situation" or "illustrative situation". This "problem situation" is then followed by drills and inventions and then by "practice situations". It is thus evident that the different situations created in Situational Syllabi determine the language structures to be learnt which is, however, a drawback in situational language syllabi. While the aim of the Situational Syllabus is communicative competence, the nature of its contents will not necessarily lead to total communicative competence. This shortcoming led to the development of the Functional-Notional syllabus.

## 2. The Functional-notional Syllabus

It is the best known of contemporary language teaching syllabus types. When dealing with this type of syllabus, it is important to first clarify the definitions of the terms used in the name.

The term **'function'** refers to the communicative purpose of the speaker. These functions can be personal, interpersonal, directive, referential or imaginative and they can either be expressed through fixed formulae in the language or communicative expressions (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983 :28). Thus, the functions to be expressed depend solely on the speaker.

**'Notions'** can be defined as the words following the functional expression. "Notions" are thus "meaning elements which may be expressed through nouns, pronouns, verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, adjectives, or adverbs"

## 3. Task-based Syllabuses

A task-based syllabus is based on task-based learning, an approach where learners carry out tasks such as solving a problem or planning an activity. The language learnt comes out of the linguistic demands of the activity. A task-based syllabus is structured around a series of these tasks.

Skehan (1996:39) distinguishes between two forms of the task-based approach:

The **strong form** of task-based syllabus regards the task as the unit of instruction. This means that everything else that forms part of instruction are secondary.

On the other hand, in the **weak form** "tasks are a vital part of language instruction, but that they are embedded in a more complex pedagogic context".

it seems that the procedural syllabus works better with elementary and preintermediate students, while the **task-based syllabus** is more compatible with intermediate students and above.

### Lesson-07

## LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT: TESTING AND EVALUATION

### Language Assessment: Testing and

**Evaluation** ○ What is Testing and Evaluation?  
○ Kinds of Tests

1. Proficiency test
2. Achievement tests

3. Diagnostics tests
4. Placement tests
5. Direct Vs. Indirect tests
6. Discreet Point Vs. Criterion referenced Testing
7. Objective Vs. Subjective testing
8. Communicative language testing

### **What is Testing and Evaluation?**

Tests are any instruments of evaluation which measure ability, knowledge or performance by eliciting observable behavior from the test taker. **Testing** is used to examine someone's knowledge of something to determine what he or she knows or has learned. Testing measures the level of skill or knowledge that has been reached.

**Evaluation** is the process of making judgments based on criteria and evidence.

**Reliability:** An important aspect of test is being reliable. Reliability is defined as the extent to which a questionnaire, test, observation or any measurement tool produces the same results on repeated trials. In short, it is the stability or consistency of scores over time or across raters.

**Three Aspects of Reliability:** The degree to which an individual's responses (i.e., their scores) on a survey would stay the same over time is also a sign of reliability. There are three aspects of reliability, namely: 1. Equivalence

2. Stability and
3. Internal consistency (Miller, 2005).

**Validity:** Validity is also an important term related to tests and it is defined as the extent to which the instrument measures what it purports to measure. For example, in a test that is used to test students' listening ability, grammar should not be scored to preserve validity.

**Types of Validity:** There are many different types of validity:

1. Content validity
2. Face validity
3. Criterion-related validity(or predictive validity) construct validity
4. Factorial validity
5. Concurrent validity
6. Convergent validity and  
Divergent validity

#### **1. Proficiency Testing**

Proficient means having sufficient command of the language for a particular purpose. Proficiency testing determines the performance of individual laboratories for specific tests

or measurements and is used to monitor laboratories' continuing performance. Proficiency testing is also called inter laboratory comparison.

## 2. Achievement Test

An achievement test is a test of developed skill or knowledge. The most common type of achievement test is a standardized test developed to measure skills and knowledge learned in a given grade level, usually through planned instruction, such as training or classroom instruction. Achievement tests are directly related to language courses, their purpose being to establish how successful individual students, groups of students, or the courses themselves have been in achieving objectives.

### Kinds of Achievement Tests

There are two kinds of achievement tests:

- Final achievement test
- Progress achievement test

### Characteristics of a Good Test

- Objectivity
- Basedness
- Comprehensiveness
- Validity
- Reliability
- Comparability
- Practicability
- Simplicity
- Scorability

### Objectivity

Objectivity represents the agreement of two or more raters or a test administrator concerning the score of a student. A test is said to be objective if it is free from personal biases in interpreting its scope as well as in scoring the responses.

### Validity

A test is said to be valid if it measures what it intends to measure and nothing else. Validity is a more test-dependent concept but reliability is a purely statistical parameter.

### Four Types of Validity

- Operational Validity
- Predictive Validity
- Content Validity
- Construct Validity

## Reliability

Reliability of a test refers to the degree of consistency with which it measures what it intended to measure. A test is considered reliable if it is taken again by the same students under the same circumstances and the score average is almost the constant, taking into consideration that the time between the test and the retest is of reasonable length.

A test may be reliable but need not be valid. This is because it may yield consistent scores, but these scores need not be representing what exactly we want to measure. A test with high validity has to be reliable also. (the scores will be consistent in both cases). Valid test is also a reliable test, but a reliable test may not be a valid one.

**Factors Influencing Reliability:** To have a reliability estimate, one or two sets of scores should be obtained from the same group of testees. Thus, two factors contribute to test reliability:

- The testee and
- The test itself

**Testing Communication Skills** The testing of communication skills involve the:

1. Reading tests
2. Writing tests
3. Speaking tests
4. Listening tests

## **Testing Language Sub-skills**

1. Vocabulary tests
2. Grammar tests
3. Pronunciation tests
4. Using Web for language testing

