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Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific
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Ammar Telidji University – Laghouat
Faculty of Letters & Foreign Languages
Department of English
AILE Laboratory



The course

**APPLIED LINGUISTICS
For EFL Master One Students**

Made by

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HARMONISATION OFFRE DE FORMATION MASTER ACADEMIQUE

- Etablissement : Université Amar Télidji Laghouat
- Faculté : Faculté des lettres et des langues
- Département : Lettres et Langue anglaise
- Domaine : lettres et langues étrangères.
- Filière : Langue Anglaise.

Matière: Applied Linguistics

Objectifs de l'enseignement:

L'objectif du cours est de rendre les apprenants conscients des différences et des similitudes qui existent entre la langue maternelle et la langue étrangère, le transfert positif et négatif, afin de diagnostiquer les erreurs des apprenants et de proposer des activités de rétroaction.

Contenu de la matière :

I – Language Learning Theories

L1, L2, FL (Krashen, Brown, Yule)

II – Discourse Analysis

III - Contrastive Analysis

What is Contrastive Analysis?

The Psychological basis of Contrastive Analysis.

The Linguistic Components of Contrastive Analysis.

Pedagogical Exploitation of Contrastive Analysis.

IV- Error Analysis

- The Significance of Learners' Errors.

- Interlanguage.

Approximative Systems of Foreign Language Learners.

Social Factors, Interlanguage and Error Analysis.

Idiosyncratic dialects and Error Analysis.

Error Analysis: Source, Cause and Significance.

Références (Livres et photocopiés, sites internet, etc).

P. H. Matthews, 1997, The Concise Dictionary of Linguistics, OUP.

D. Crystal, 2002, A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics, Blackwell (also other editions).

R.L. Trask, 1993, A Dictionary of Grammatical Terms in Linguistics, Routledge.

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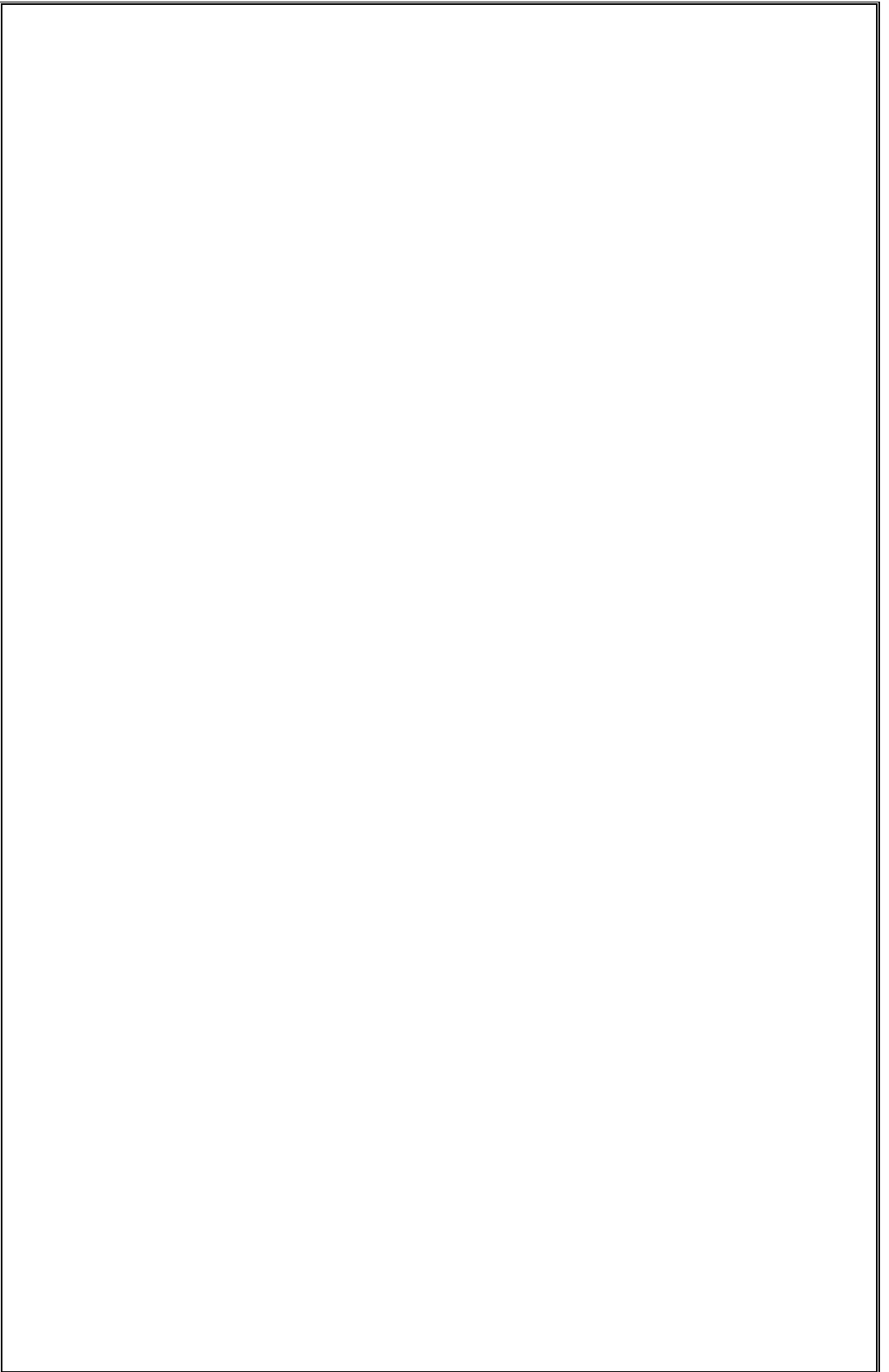
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APPLIED LINGUISTICS

(AL)



To my son, Yacine

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Introduction

Language is one of humanity's most powerful tools, shaping societies, influencing cultures, and enabling connections across diverse communities. In our globalized, digitally-driven world, the study of language has taken on even greater significance, particularly in the field of applied linguistics, which seeks to understand, analyze, and optimize language use in real-world contexts. This *Handbook of Applied Linguistics* aims to provide a structured, in-depth exploration of the essential concepts, theories, and methods that define the discipline, offering a resource for students, educators, and researchers eager to understand language's role and applications in modern education and communication.

The book opens with an overview of applied linguistics, setting the stage for a detailed examination of its multifaceted nature. From here, it addresses one of the core areas of study—learning versus acquisition—clarifying the ways language can be acquired naturally or learned formally and the implications of each on language instruction. Building on this, the chapter on Second Language Acquisition (SLA) explores critical theories and processes that support multilingualism, offering insights relevant to educators, linguists, and learners in an increasingly interconnected world.

Subsequent chapters delve into essential topics such as discourse analysis, which sheds light on language within social and cultural frameworks, and the theories of language acquisition, which outline different stages and

mechanisms that underpin learning. A focus on foreign language teaching methods allows readers to bridge theoretical understanding with practical techniques, enabling educators to apply evidence-based strategies that enhance the language learning experience.

To address the needs of diverse learners, a chapter on the competency-based approach highlights a model that prioritizes functional skills, aligning language teaching with real-world applications. Similarly, the exploration of multiple intelligences (MI) provides a fresh perspective on personalized learning, encouraging educators to recognize and nurture individual cognitive strengths in the classroom.

The chapters on testing, contrastive analysis, and error analysis further expand the book's scope, providing guidance on assessing and supporting language proficiency and addressing linguistic challenges through targeted feedback. These sections are designed to equip educators and researchers with practical tools to evaluate language outcomes and tailor instruction to meet specific learner needs.

Throughout the book, readers will find each theme connected by a commitment to both theory and practice, reflecting applied linguistics' role as a bridge between academic research and everyday communication. By combining insights from linguistics, pedagogy, psychology, and technology, this handbook aspires to deepen readers' understanding of language learning processes and teaching methods, making it a valuable resource for addressing the complexities of language

education today.

The *Handbook of Applied Linguistics* invites readers to not only engage with established knowledge but also to question, apply, and expand on these ideas in their own work. It is our hope that this book will serve as a foundation for future explorations and inspire innovative approaches to language teaching, learning, and research in an ever-evolving world

Preface :

The *Handbook of Applied Linguistics* is crafted as a comprehensive guide, intended to serve students, educators, and professionals who seek both foundational and advanced knowledge in the dynamic field of applied linguistics. This book systematically explores essential themes, theories, and practical methodologies that define the discipline, ranging from the processes of language acquisition to assessment practices and the evolving roles of language educators within diverse educational contexts. Opening with an introduction to applied linguistics, the handbook provides readers with a solid grounding in the field, establishing a clear understanding of its core concepts and their applications. This foundational overview is followed by an exploration of critical themes such as the distinctions between learning and acquisition, examining the nuanced processes by which languages are acquired organically or learned in structured environments. Central to this discussion is Second Language Acquisition (SLA), which illuminates the mechanisms supporting multilingualism in our increasingly interconnected world.

The chapters on discourse analysis and theories of language acquisition provide readers with a deeper understanding of how language functions within social contexts and the theoretical underpinnings of language learning across various stages of development. To bridge theory with practice, this handbook presents effective methods for foreign language learning, equipping educators and learners alike with tools to apply these insights in meaningful ways.

A dedicated chapter on the competency-based approach presents a practical framework that emphasizes skill

mastery, aligning language instruction with the goals of fostering versatile and functional language use.

The roles of English language teachers are examined in detail, highlighting the importance of fostering a supportive and adaptable learning environment in today's classrooms.

By incorporating multiple intelligences (MI), this book also addresses the diverse cognitive strengths students bring to the learning process, underscoring the value of personalized education strategies. An introduction to testing and assessment offers readers essential tools for evaluating language proficiency, while chapters on contrastive and error analysis provide valuable insights into understanding and addressing linguistic differences that may pose challenges for learners.

Each chapter has been carefully structured to offer a well-rounded and accessible approach to the multifaceted field of applied linguistics. I hope that this handbook will serve as a valuable resource, inspiring readers to engage deeply with the complexities of language learning and teaching in today's globalized world.

Chapter1: Introduction to Applied Linguistics

Introduction

Linguistics, which is commonly defined as the scientific study of language, is divided into a number of subfields according to the view that is adopted or the angle from which language study is approached. For instance, linguistics can offer the study of languages in general as well as that of a given language. It can trace the development of a language in history or just make an account of it at a given point in time. It can focus its investigation on language as a system in itself and for itself as it can study how language operates in relation to other variables. It can be approached as purely theoretical or as applied in a particular field. Accordingly, Lyons (1981) distinguishes the field of linguistics into general vs. descriptive, diachronic vs. synchronic, micro vs. macro, and theoretical vs. applied.

1. General Linguistics vs. Descriptive Linguistics

:The distinction between general and descriptive linguistics —corresponds to the distinction between studying language in general and describing particular languages (Lyons, 1981, p. 34). This, yet, does not imply that the two branches are completely unrelated. Lyons (1981) emphasized that both general and descriptive linguistics depend on each other. While the former provides concepts and categories for languages to be analyzed on their bases, the latter works to provide data to confirm or refute the proposed theories and assumptions. For instance, it might be put forward by general linguistics that all languages have nouns and verbs. Descriptive linguistics may reject this hypothesis with empirical

evidence that in some languages there is no distinction between verbs and nouns.

In the process of hypothesis confirming or refuting, the descriptive linguist operates using concepts provided by the general linguist, in this case the concepts of verbs and nouns.

2. Diachronic Linguistics vs. Synchronic Linguistics:

The terms diachronic and synchronic have first been coined by the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure in the early twentieth century as technical terms to stand for historical and non-historical. Diachronic has the literal meaning of a cross-time or what relates —to the changes in something, especially a language, that happen over time (Diachronic, n.d.). Eventually, diachronic linguistics is the approach studying the change of languages over time (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). On the other hand, synchronic literally means with-time and generally relates to —a language at a particular point in time, without considering how it developed to that point (Synchronic, n.d.). Synchronic linguistics therefore, refers to the approach studying language at a particular period of time with no reference to its history or development. In other words, —in a synchronic approach to describing a language, we focus on that language at one moment in time and describe it as we find it at that moment (Trask, 2007, p. 287). Lyons (1981) summarizes the diachronic-synchronic distinction of linguistics as follows: A diachronic description of a language traces the historical development of the language and records the changes that have taken place in it between successive points in time: diachronic is equivalent, therefore, to historical. A synchronic description of a language is non-historical: it presents an account of the language as it is at some particular point in time. (p.35)

3. Microlinguistics vs. Macrolinguistics

Microlinguistics and macrolinguistics are terms given by Lyons (1981) to stand for the narrower and the broader scopes of linguistics respectively. In this regard, micro linguistics is devoted to the study of language structure without taking anything else into consideration. In short, it is the study of language system in itself and for itself. Macrolinguistics, on the other hand, is concerned with everything pertaining in any way at all to language use in the real world. Typical areas of microlinguistics investigation include the following:

- Phonetics: the study of speech sounds and how they are articulated, transmitted, and received.
- Phonology: the branch of linguistics which studies the sound systems of languages. While phonetics is chiefly concerned with the physical nature of speech sounds, phonology deals with the ways in which sounds behave in languages.
- Morphology: the branch of linguistics which studies word structure. It is the study of morphemes, their different forms, and the ways they combine in word formation
- Syntax: the branch of linguistics studying sentence structure. Syntax is concerned with the ways in which words combine to form sentences and the rules governing the formation of sentences.
- Semantics: the branch of linguistics interested in meaning. Semantics studies how meaning is structured, and investigates the relation between linguistic definitions adopted from Trask (2007) and Richards & Schmidt (2010) or words of a language and what they refer to in the real world (persons, things, events, etc.).

- **Pragmatics:** the study of language use in communication, particularly the relationships between sentences and the contexts in which they are used. In macrolinguistics, Interest is always placed on the study of language in relation to something in the real world, like sociolinguistics which refers to the study of language and society. The following are some macro linguistics areas of investigation as defined by Richards & Schmidt (2010):
- **Sociolinguistics:** the study of language in relation to social factors of social class, type
, level of education, ethnic origin, etc.
- **Psycholinguistics:** the study of (a) the mental processes that a person uses in producing and understanding language, and (b) how humans learn language. Psycholinguistics includes the study of speech perception in addition to the role of memory, and other factors (social, psychological...) in language use.
- **Neurolinguistics:** the study of the brain functions in language learning/use. Neurolinguistics includes research into how the structure of the brain influences language learning, how and in which parts of the brain language is stored, and how brain damage affects the ability to use language.
- **Discourse Analysis or Text Linguistics:** the study of how sentences in spoken and written language form larger meaningful units such as paragraphs, conversations, and interviews.
- **Forensic Linguistics:** a branch that investigates issues of language in relation to the law. Issues of concern include forensic identification (speaker identification in legal cases through handwriting analysis or speech analysis); interpretation for the police and courts; the semantics of legal terminology (e.g. the legal meanings of murder, manslaughter, homicide); the discourse of police

interrogations and legal proceedings.

- **Computational Linguistics:** the scientific study of language from a computational perspective. Computational linguists are interested in providing computational models of natural language processing (both production and comprehension) and various kinds of linguistic phenomena. The work of computational linguists is incorporated into such practical applications as speech recognition systems, speech synthesis, automated voice response systems, web search engines, text editors, and language instruction materials.
- **Anthropological Linguistics:** a branch of linguistics which studies the relationship between language and culture in a community, e.g., its traditions, beliefs, and family structure. Sometimes anthropological linguistics investigations interfere with sociolinguistics and the ethnography of communication.
- **Cognitive Linguistics:** an approach to linguistics which stresses the interaction between language and cognition focusing on language as an instrument for organizing, processing, and conveying information.
- **Theoretical vs. Applied Linguistics:** Theoretical linguistics aims through studying language and languages to construct —a theory of their structure and functions . . . without regard to any practical applications that the investigation of language and languages might have (Lyons, 1981, p.35). Applied linguistics, on the other hand, entails the —study of language and linguistics in relation to practical problems (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 29). Applied linguistics uses information from a variety of disciplines in addition to linguistics (for instance, sociology, anthropology and information theory) to first develop theoretical models regarding language and

language use and then use them in practical areas.

4. What is the relationship between Linguistics and Applied Linguistics?

A very common perception of Linguistics is that it constitutes a discipline whose purpose is the study of language with a view to understanding of how the linguistic system—disconnected from its social context and its users—is structured into meaningful patterns that reflect the operations of the mind. In case of this or similar conceptions of Linguistics, there is a sharp divide between this discipline, sometimes referred to as Theoretical (less

often referred to as Autonomous) Linguistics and the field of Applied Linguistics, which is perceived as the broad field of language study and analysis that provides knowledge and information that may be of —practical value in that it facilitates understanding of social practices, psychological or cognitive operations and pedagogic processes. Linguistics, viewed as above, does not use the knowledge developed from linguistic study for the solution of problems in human, social and cultural contexts (as does Applied Linguistics). Moreover, it borrows no insights from other disciplines (as does Interdisciplinary Linguistics, including Cognitive Linguistics, Psycholinguistics and Sociolinguistics). This is one reason why an alternative and perhaps more correct name for Theoretical Linguistics is Autonomous Linguistics. The main characteristic of this school of thought is that language is an autonomous meaning system; i.e. that the meaning of linguistic signs is arbitrary.

Theoretical, Interdisciplinary and Applied Linguistics

Theoretical linguistics	Interdisciplinary linguistics	Applied linguistics
Phonology, Morphology, Syntax and structural grammar, Semantics, Historical linguistics.	Psycholinguistics, Sociolinguistics, Pragmatics, Discourse analysis. Computational and Corpus linguistics.	Language education, Foreign language education, Translation studies, Lexicography.

5. Applied Linguistics 5.1. Definition

Research in the language sciences is generally motivated by a desire to understand the architecture of the language system, language learning, and language use. In their everyday practice, professionals whose work involves language may find themselves in difficult or problematic situations with no evident standard measures to take. In the course of employing linguistics insights to find solutions to problems of language use in a diversity of contexts, one becomes involved in what is known as an ‘_applied linguistics’ research. According to the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA), 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 and results of Linguistics.

The American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL) maintains that the area of applied linguistics develops its own knowledge about language based on various disciplines, from humanities to social sciences, to address language-related issues and understand the roles for individuals and societies. According to Widdowson (1984), the term applied linguistics implies that the —concern is with the use of findings from theoretical studies of language for the solution of problems of one sort or another arising in a different domain (p. 7). Brumfit (1991), for instance, sees that applied linguistics main quest is to offer solutions to —real-world problems in which language is a central issue (cited in McCarthy, 2001, p. 1). Groom and Littlemore (2011) describe applied linguistics as —a subject with a potentially very wide appeal because it is —a highly accessible field of academic study [that] focus[s] on practical problems, questions and issues in which language plays a central role (p. 1). For McCarthy, It is a ‘_problem-driven discipline’ that makes recourse to the ‘_theory-driven discipline’ of linguistics striving

For potential solutions. Similarly, Cook (2003) sustains that applied linguistics is the academic discipline concerned with the relation of knowledge about language to decision making in the real world’ (p. 5). In the same vein, Schmitt and Celce-Murcia (2010) perceive the discipline as —using what we know about (a) language, (b) how it is learned and (c) how it is used, in order to achieve some purpose or solve some problem in the real world (p. 1). Wilkins (1999) emphasizes that applied linguistics is about adding to our knowledge

concerning the roles of language in human affairs to eventually provide —knowledge necessary for those who are responsible for taking language-related decisions , whether the need for the sea rises in the classroom, the workplace, the law court, or the laboratory|(cited in Schmitt & Celce-Muricia,2010,p. 1).

Hrehovcik (2005), for his part, defines applied linguistics as an interdisciplinary field of research for the study of all aspects of language use. Being a non-language-specific field, it primarily deals with mother, foreign and second language acquisition but also examines the relationship between language and such areas as the media, law, or communication.

It draws on such well-established disciplines as linguistics, social and educational psychology, sociology, anthropology, and education.(Original emphasis, p. 217)In short, applied linguistics is not an easy discipline to define. In Davies’s (2007) words, it —does not lend itself to an easy definition|(p.1); in Widdowson’s (2000), it is devoid of a —stable definition|(p. 3). One of the reasons behind this is the wide scope applied linguistics sets for its investigation, as well as the growing and everyday expanding uses of language with all the problems this may lead to. It is generally viewed, though, as the subject that draws from linguistics, psychology, sociology, education and so on to address language-related problems in the real world. Typically, any applied linguistics endeavour ends up with recommendations and suggestions for decision makers concerning the use of language in a given field.

5.2 History

Applied linguistics (AL) is barely 40 years old. Howatt (1984) cited the first issue of Language Learning (1948),

subtitled *A Quarterly Journal of Applied Linguistics*, as the first use of this term. The term 'applied linguistics' refers to a broad range of activities which involve solving some language-related problem or addressing some language-related concern.

It appears 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 nonnative speakers. Early work to improve the quality of foreign language teaching by Professors Charles Fries (University of Michigan) and Robert Lado (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.

Whether this is actually its first attestation or not is less important than the fact that it had gained common acceptance by the mid-1950s in both the United States and Britain as the name for our profession. Other labels, such

as educational linguistics (Spolsky, 1978), have been suggested, but these alternatives have not diffused to any great extent among the wider profession. Given that AL has had such a short history as a recognizably separate academic discipline; it is not surprising that applied linguists differ as to what the defining characteristics of the field are.

Is it synonymous with language teaching, in particular English language teaching or with second language acquisition (SLA)?

Furthermore, what is its relationship to theoretical linguistics? Is it no more than the sum of its parts, that is, the application of linguistic theory to language teaching, or is it an autonomous discipline which is also concerned with problems that are not necessarily confined to issues related to formal language instruction? Confusing as this situation may seem, all of these answers have been advanced in the literature at one time or another.

The term Applied Linguistics (AL) is an Anglo-American coinage. It was founded first at the University of Edinburgh School of Applied Linguistics in 1956. Then at the Center of Applied Linguistics in Washington D.C. in 1957. Later, 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 interdisciplinary collaboration in this study (BAAL, 1994). It was largely taken for granted in the 1960s and 1970s that applied linguistics was about language teaching.

5.3. The Scope of Applied Linguistics: Applied

linguistics as a problem-driven area of investigation seeks to find to any of the following intricate situations:

- A speech therapist sets out to investigate why a four-year-old child has failed to develop normal linguistics skills for a child of that age.
- A teacher of English as a foreign language wonders why groups of learners sharing the same first language regularly make a particular grammatical mistake that learners from other language backgrounds do not.
- An expert witness in a criminal case tries to solve the problem of who exactly instigated a crime, working only with statements made to the police.
- An advertising copy writer searches for what would be the most effective use of language to target a particular social group in order to sell a product.
- A mother-tongue teacher needs to know what potential employers consider important in terms of a school-leaver's ability to write reports or other business documents.
- A literary scholar suspects that an anonymous work was in fact written by a very famous writer and looks for methods of investigating the hypothesis.
- A group of civil servants are tasked with standardizing language usage in their country, or deciding major aspects of language planning policy that will affect millions of people (McCarthy, 2001, pp. 1-2).
- The problems cited above are just examples of many others that fall within the scope of applied linguistics investigation. As it can be noticed, these problems are not exclusive to language teaching and learning, but include other areas of interest where language is a

central issue.

Cook (2003) maintains that in order for decisions to be made, a number of questions and subsidiary questions are to be asked where their opposed answers should be considered. Examples of such questions, which are by no means different from McCarthy's (2001) situations, are presented as follows:

1. What language skills should children attain beyond basic literacy? (And what is basic literacy anyway? Reading and writing, or something more?)
2. Should children speaking a dialect be encouraged to maintain it or steered towards the standard form of a language? (And, if so, how is that standard form decided and by whom?)
3. Should the growth of English as the international lingua franca be welcomed or deplored?
4. In communities with more than one language which ones should be used in schools? (And does every child have a right to be educated in the language they use at home?)
5. Is it better for people to learn each other's languages or use translations? (And what is accurate or good translation? Could it ever be done by computer?)
6. Should deaf children learn a sign language, or a combination of lip reading and speaking? (And are sign languages as complex as spoken ones?)
7. Which languages should be used in law courts and official documents?
8. Should everyone learn foreign languages and, if so, which one or ones? (And what is the best way to learn and teach them?)(Cook, 2003, p. 4).

In order to approach such problems and questions from an

applied linguistics' perspective, the right theoretical framework needs to be located first. In other words, what theoretical aspect of language study (or linguistics branch) is the most relevant to my area of concern? Then, a number of other questions need to be asked for the appropriate methods to be selected.

The following examples by McCarthy (2001) illustrate some potential linguistic questions for the solution of two different problematic situations: one related to teaching a target language's grammar, the other to dictionary making.

Example1: -A teacher trying to understand why learners from the same background are having difficulty with a particular grammatical structure in English. Figure 2: Potential linguistic questions for the solution of a grammatical problem (McCarthy, 2001, p. 8)

Example2: -A dictionary writer looking for alternatives to the alphabetical dictionary. Figure 3: Potential linguistic questions for the solution of a lexicographic problem (McCarthy, 2001, p. 8)

Though applied linguistics is —still a comparatively young subject and establishing some boundaries of it is a difficult task (Groom & Littlemore, 2011, p. 7), some attempts have been made to identify an evident and independent scope for the discipline. Based on McCarthy's situations or problems and Cook's questions, the scope of applied linguistics can be narrowed down to a number of areas, namely language and education; language, work and law; in addition to language, information and effects.

5.4. Linguistics Applied vs. Applied Linguistics

It is noteworthy to state that AL doesn't refer to the construct of linguistics applied. To solve those problems, applied linguists turn to the discipline of linguistics to seek insight and potential solutions. But, this doesn't mean that applied linguists' main task is to apply linguistic theories which, in turn, the process is identified as linguistics applied (LA). Rather, AL is thought to be problem-driven, not theory-driven discipline. AL's area of inquiry is much more broader than simply applying linguistic theories, approaches and models: it is a critical approach to those theories, etc., in that AL's recourse to linguistic sources is determined by the problem area it is treating.

That is to say, the problem applied linguists attended to decide what discipline to draw on to find insights and possible solutions. In contrast to linguistics applied, AL draws on a greater range of disciplines in its research and applying methods and theories from psycholinguistics, sociology, education, measurement theory and so on (Davies, 2007). Furthermore, what it is that AL more concerned about is data rather than theory, i.e. it is more interested in analysis of new data rather than developing new theories.

This made Ellis(1994)to contrast to models of theory which reflects the variation between linguistics applied and AL. The models are like theory-then-research and research- then-theory: the former referred to Linguistics applied and the latter to AL.

5.5. The Applied linguistics of Language Teaching

This is not say that language element has to dominate or that linguistics itself has to feature at all but that it does not count as applied linguistics of language teaching:

- a) If there is no language element
- b) If the language elements are handled without any theories of language
- c) If the research base is neither directly concerned with language teaching nor related to it in a demonstrable way.

Over the years the applied linguistics of language teaching has had its most important relationship with linguistics and psychology. Applied linguistics still tends to impose theory-based solutions that ignore the reality that teachers face in the classroom and that are unsubstantiated by an adequate body of pertinent research evidence. Applied linguistics has concerned itself with the analysis and frequency of vocabulary but has seldom described the teaching techniques through which new vocabulary can be taught.

Applied linguistics is becoming too rarefied for language teaching. There is a view, held by some linguists and applied linguists, that language teaching and language-teacher education are the only proper concern of applied linguistics. The chapter begins with a presentation of the arguments for and against confining applied linguists to a concern with second-language teaching and learning.

In spite of the widening range of activities undertaken by applied linguistics and in spite of the general agreement about the reach of its provenance claimed in the status of International Association of Applied linguistic:

The Association's purpose is to promote research in the areas of applied linguistics, for example language learning, language teaching, language use and language planning, to publish the results of this research and to promote international and interdisciplinary cooperation in these areas.

And proudly asserted in Kaplan and Widdowson (1992):
The application of linguistic knowledge to real-world problems...whenever knowledge about language is used to solve a basic language-related problem, we may say that applied linguistics is being practiced. Applied is a technology which makes abstract ideas and research findings accessible and relevant to the real world; it mediates between theory and practice.

Alice Kaplan's 1993 evocative account of her own love story with learning and teaching French reminds us that not all language learning is doomed. Kaplan is blunt about the difficult task of being a language teacher.

Noam Chomsky argued that children acquire language more or less automatically by the time they are five and whatever makes it happen can't be duplicated by adult- it has nothing to do with situation.

Kaplan suggests that: Language teaching methods make for a tale of enthusiasm and skepticism, hope and hope dashed. Language learning and language teaching are problems because they are so often ineffectual. The temptation is always to seek new and therefore better methods of teaching, better methods of learning. What applied linguistics offers, where its coherence lies is in its recognition that the question to ask is not how to improve the learning, but what is it that is not being improved, in other words what it is that is supposed to be being learned. Some of the content of a course in applied linguistics which will be of benefit to second language teachers will offer linguistics.

5.6. Applied Linguistics and Institutional Problems

Language problems are the key to understanding applied

linguistics. Many of these problems will manifest themselves in individual interactions but the applied linguistics enterprise engages itself with such problems only when they are considered by society to be matters of institutional concern.

Applied linguistics as an enterprise is therefore a research and development activity that sets out to make use of theoretical insights and collect empirical data which can be use in dealing with institutional language problems. Proceeding electicaly is legitimate because for the applied linguist language problems involve more than language. They involve these factors:

- The educational
- The social
- The psychological
- The anthropological
- The political
- Religious
- The business
- The planning and policy aspect
- And, of course, the linguistic, including the phonetic

Applied linguistic has developed a series of methodological approaches to collection of relevant language data.

Chapter2: Language Acquisition and Language Learning

Introduction

Whenever and wherever the language is used, we will definitely keep in touch with the fact that people who use the language will have two different experiences. When humans communicate using the language in the meantime they are studying and also acquiring the language they hear and use. This different experience then is what causes the appearance of a very thin and significant difference when viewed from the perspective of the process. The experiences then bring upon a number of factors for each accompanying experience and those factors to be the ones which have caused the greatest impact in terms of Language Acquisition and Learning. The factors may be vary depend on what experience happened. Some explanations should be explicitly described such as Behaviorism, Acculturation, The Universal Grammar Hypothesis, The Comprehension Hypothesis, The Interaction Hypothesis, Output Hypothesis, Socio-cultural Theory and Connectionism (Menezes; Journal) in order to meet the answer of how natural language happened, acquired, and learned. The difference between Acquisition and Learning become the most popular research in investigating the area of Second Language Acquisition.

Krashen stated the acquisition-learning distinction helps interpret findings in all areas in second language acquisition research and practice (Krashen, 1981). However, this distinction is very important to be exposed in order to get to understanding on Second Language Acquisition. Some findings have been presented and they are stipulated as the basic concepts of the area of

SLA/FLA.

Human brain is unique. No one can prove perfectly what are all in the brain and what are the processes happened in it. The capacity and capability of human brain is restricted to what we call as human as a creature. We are all limited to think of our existence in terms of whom the creator is and who is the creature. Therefore, we are asked to think what we deserve to think of. In the other hand, we should be grateful to those who have investigated and found all about brain. It has a corpus callosum that is a thick cable of nerves at the base of each brain. This connects two sides of brains; left and right hemisphere. Brain is divided into two halves; right and left hemisphere which contains 250 cells, 3 pounds weight; around 1.300 to 1.400 grams, consists of 78% of water, 10% of fat, and 8% of protein. It consumes 20% of energy taken from human blood that contains glucose, protein, and oxygen. Brain needs 8 gallons per hour or 198 gallons a day or 8 to 12 glasses of water a day. There are four parts of the brain that is called as lobes of brain. They are Occipital that is in the back center of the brain and these functions as sight. Frontalis in the front of the brain which functions as to judge, create, solve, and plan. The next is Parietal which functions as the capability of senso-motoric and language and is in the top back of the brain. The last is Temporal which is in the left and right side of the brain and functions as hearing, memory, processing meaning, and language. In human brain, there is called as Cerebellum and Basal Ganglia that are very functional in regulating language. Basal Ganglia which are buried deep within the cerebrum clearly play a part in human language and thought (Lieberman, 2000). In the study of Split-brain, the scientists have found that —If an ordinary person is seated in front of a screen and asked to look forward and an object is flashed very briefly

to his right side (i.e. his left brain), he will respond faster and more accurately if the task involves language (Alfred, 2006).

The left temporal of the brain is actually the most part of the brain to refer to human language capability in acquiring and processing language.

First and Second Language Acquisition Language acquisition is the way of human being in obtaining subconsciously his/her first language to produce speech. So, language acquisition usually refers to first language. The first language acquisition here is not only to the language s/he acquired in the past for the first time for the first language but it is to the language s/he acquired and acquires for the first time for any language. What any language s/he acquires in the first time that is called as first language acquisition even though s/he has already had the primary first language. In the other words, s/he can acquire any language as his/her first or second or third language and so forth as long as the language is acquired for the first time. This is what we call as Language acquisition that refers to the first acquisition. Language acquisition or first acquisition or first language acquisition or second language acquisition and so forth slowly develops and in this period, listening skill is faster than speaking skill (Krashen,1982). The process of language acquisition is always the same and it has a natural order as one acquires his/her first language from fetus to adult. Second language acquisition is just the same as first language acquisition. It is just the time and ages that are the difference between first and second and or third language acquisition as drawn in Conceptual Framework. Some theorists said that in obtaining any language, children tend to acquire language than adults do. In the other words that adults learn the

language more than acquiring. But actually, Krashen can prove that —The acquisition-learning hypothesis claims, however, that adults also acquire, that the ability to "pick-up" languages does not disappear at puberty (Kraschen,1982).

Adults also can acquire language as the second language and they have the ability of it in gaining the success of their second language acquisition. A natural setting is for an acquisition process while a set-up situation is for learning process.

Defining Language Acquisition

Language acquisition is based on the neuro-psychological processes (Maslo, 2007). Language acquisition is opposed to learning and is a subconscious process similar to that by which children acquire their first language (Kramina, 2000). Hence, language acquisition is an integral part of the unity of all language (Robbins, 2007, p 49).

Defining Language Learning

Language learning is a conscious process, is the product of either formal learning situation or a self-study programme (Kramina, 2000). Hence, language learning is an integral part of the unity of all language (Robbins, 2007, p49).

Language is the primary form of communication that humans use. However, language is not something that is taught to children. A child will pick up his/her native language just by being around other people, mainly their families. This is called language acquisition. The child

acquires the language without any conscious thought or study. In fact, by the time a child is five years old, he/she can express ideas clearly and almost perfectly from the point of view of language and grammar. This is despite any formal studying of the language.

Language learning, on the other hand, is a structured learning of a language. This is the process that most people follow when trying to learn another language.

Here the student is made to study lists of vocabulary, as well as sentence structure and grammar. This is the most common method used in schools and language learning centers.

Language learning is generally considered to be a slower process than language acquisition. There are people who study a language for years without mastering it. The main difference between Language Acquisition and Language Learning is that Language Acquisition is the manner of learning a language by immersion. It provides the student with the practical knowledge of the language, for example, the student might not know the grammar rule but is still able to immaculately converse with a native. Still, language learning focuses on providing theoretical knowledge of the language. In this case, the student might know all the proper grammar rules and the correct ways of sentence structuring, but might still lack the confidence to have a conversation with a native. Hence, as stated by Stephen Krashen,

students who are taught in a formal, structured way will
 —learn the language but never fully acquire it

	Language Acquisition	Language Learning
Meaning	Picking up a language	Studying a language
Focus	Practical Knowledge	Theoretical Knowledge
Method	Unconscious, implicit	Conscious, explicit
Situations	Informal situations	Formal situations
Grammar	Does not use grammatical rules	Uses grammatical rules
Dependency	Depends on attitude	Depends on aptitude
Order of learning	Stable order of learning	Simple to complex order of learning

Chapter3: Second Language Acquisition

Krashen's Theory

Stephen Krashen (University of Southern California) is an expert in the field of linguistics, specializing in theories of language acquisition and development. Much of his recent research has involved the study of non-English and bilingual language acquisition. Since 1980, he has published well over 100 books and articles and has been invited to deliver over 300 lectures at universities throughout the United States and Canada.

This is a brief description of Krashen's widely known and well-accepted theory of second language acquisition, which has had a large impact in all areas of second language research and teaching.

The 5 hypotheses of Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition

Krashen's theory of second language acquisition consists of five main hypotheses:

- the Acquisition-Learning hypothesis;
- the Monitor hypothesis
- the Input hypothesis;
- and the Affective Filter hypothesis;
- the Natural Order hypothesis.

The **Acquisition-Learning** distinction is the most fundamental of the five hypotheses in Krashen's theory and the most widely known among linguists and language teachers. According to Krashen there are two independent systems of foreign language performance: 'the acquired system' and 'the learned system'. The 'acquired system' or '**acquisition**' is the product of a subconscious process very similar to the process children undergo when they acquire their first language. It requires meaningful interaction in the target language - natural communication - in which speakers are concentrated not in the form of their utterances, but in the communicative act.

The "learned system" or "**learning**" is the product of formal instruction and it comprises a conscious process which results in conscious knowledge 'about' the language, for example knowledge of grammar rules. A deductive approach in a teacher-centered setting produces "**learning**", while an inductive approach in a student-centered setting leads to "**acquisition**". According to Krashen 'learning' is less important than 'acquisition'.

The **Monitor** hypothesis explains the relationship between acquisition and learning and defines the influence of the latter on the former. The monitoring function is the practical result of the learned grammar. According to Krashen, the acquisition system is the utterance initiator, while the learning system performs the role of the 'monitor' or the 'editor'. The 'monitor' acts in a planning, editing and correcting function when three specific conditions are met:

- The second language learner has sufficient time at their disposal.

- They focus on form or think about correctness.
- They know the rule.

It appears that the role of conscious learning is somewhat limited in second language performance. According to Krashen, the role of the monitor is minor, being used only to correct deviations from "normal" speech and to give speech a more 'polished' appearance.

Krashen also suggests that there is individual variation among language learners with regard to 'monitor' use. He distinguishes those learners that use the 'monitor' all the time (over-users); those learners who have not learned or who prefer not to use their conscious knowledge (under-users); and those learners that use the 'monitor' appropriately (optimal users). An evaluation of the person's psychological profile can help to determine to what group they belong. Usually extroverts are under-users, while introverts and perfectionists are over-users. Lack of self-confidence is frequently related to the over-use of the "monitor".

The Input hypothesis is Krashen's attempt to explain how the learner acquires a second language – how second language acquisition takes place. The Input hypothesis is only concerned with 'acquisition', not 'learning'. According to this hypothesis, the learner improves and progresses along the 'natural order' when he/she receives second language 'input' that is one step beyond his/her current stage of linguistic competence. For example, if a learner is at a stage 'i', then acquisition takes place when he/she is exposed to '**Comprehensible Input**' that belongs to level 'i + 1'. Since not all of the learners can be at the same level of linguistic competence at the same time, Krashen suggests that *natural communicative input*

is the key to designing a syllabus, ensuring in this way that each learner will receive some 'i + 1' input that is appropriate for his/her current stage of linguistic competence.

The **Affective Filter** hypothesis embodies Krashen's view that a number of 'affective variables' play a facilitative, but non-causal, role in second language acquisition. These variables include: motivation, self-confidence, anxiety and personality traits. Krashen claims that learners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, a low level of anxiety and extroversion are better equipped for success in second language acquisition. Low motivation, low self-esteem, anxiety, introversion and inhibition can raise the affective filter and form a 'mental block' that prevents comprehensible input from being used for acquisition. In other words, when the filter is 'up' it impedes language acquisition. On the other hand, positive affect is necessary, but not sufficient on its own, for acquisition to take place.

Finally, the less important **Natural Order** hypothesis is based on research findings (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Fathman, 1975; Makino, 1980 cited in Krashen, 1987) which suggested that the acquisition of grammatical structures follows a 'natural order' which is predictable. For a given language, some grammatical structures tend to be acquired early while others late. This order seemed to be independent of the learners' age, L1 background, conditions of exposure, and although the agreement between individual acquirers was not always 100% in the studies, there were statistically significant similarities that reinforced the existence of a Natural Order of language acquisition. Krashen however points out that the implication of the natural order hypothesis is not that a

language program syllabus should be based on the order found in the studies. In fact, he rejects grammatical sequencing when the goal is language acquisition.

The Role of Grammar in Krashen's View

According to Krashen, the study of the structure of the language can have general educational advantages and values that high schools and colleges may want to include in their language programs. Any benefit, however, will greatly depend on the learner being already familiar with the language. It should also be clear that analyzing the language, formulating rules, setting irregularities apart, and teaching complex facts about the target language is not language teaching, but rather is "language appreciation" or linguistics, which does not lead to communicative proficiency.

The only instance in which the teaching of grammar can result in language acquisition (and proficiency) is when the students are interested in the subject and the target language is used as a medium of instruction. Very often, when this occurs, both teachers and students are convinced that the study of formal grammar is essential for second language acquisition, and the teacher is skillful enough to present explanations in the target language so that the students understand. In other words, the teacher talk meets the requirements for comprehensible input and perhaps, with the students' participation, the classroom becomes an environment suitable for acquisition. Also, the filter is low in regard to the language of explanation, as the students' conscious efforts are usually on the subject matter, on *what* is being talked about, and not the medium.

This is a subtle point. In effect, both teachers and students

are deceiving themselves. They believe that it is the subject matter itself, the study of grammar, that is responsible for the students' progress, but in reality their progress is coming from the medium and not the message. Any subject matter that held their interest would do just as well.

Chapter 4: Theories of Language Acquisition

Over the last fifty years, several theories have been put forward to explain the process by which children learn to understand and speak a language.

Behaviourism Theory :The main theorist associated with the language learning theory is

B.F. Skinner. This approach to language learning is briefly discussed on page 142 in Adding English and states that language learning involves —input, imitation, and habit formation through repetition (Coelho). The behaviourist psychologists developed their theories while carrying out a series of experiments on animals. They observed that rats or birds, for example, could be taught to perform various tasks by encouraging habit-forming. Researchers rewarded desirable behaviour. This was known as positive reinforcement. Undesirable behaviour was punished or simply not rewarded -negative reinforcement. The behaviourist B. F. Skinner then proposed this theory as an explanation for language acquisition in humans. In Verbal Behaviour(1957), he stated:

"The basic processes and relations which give verbal behaviour its special characteristics are now fairly well understood. Much of the experimental work responsible for this advance has been carried out on other species, but the results have proved to be surprisingly free of species

restrictions. Recent work has shown that the methods can be extended to human behaviour without serious modifications." (cited in Lowe and Graham, 1998, p68)

Skinner suggested that a child imitates the language of its parents or carers. Successful attempts are rewarded because an adult who recognizes a word spoken by a child will praise the child and/or give it what it is asking for.

Successful utterances are therefore reinforced while unsuccessful ones are forgotten.

Limitations of Behaviourism

□

Language is based on a set of structures or rules, which could not be worked out simply by imitating individual utterances. The mistakes made by children reveal that they are not simply imitating but actively working out and applying rules. For example, a child who says "drinked" instead of "drank" is not copying an adult but rather over-applying a rule. The child has discovered that past tense verbs are formed by adding a /d/ or /t/ sound to the base form. The "mistakes" occur because there are irregular verbs which do not behave in this way. Such forms are often referred to as intelligent mistakes or virtuous errors

The vast majority of children go through the same stages of language acquisition. There appears to be a definite sequence of steps. We refer to Children are often unable to repeat what an adult says, especially if the adult utterance contains a structure the child has not yet started to use. The classic demonstration comes from the American psycholinguist David McNeill. The structure in question here involves negating verbs:

- Child: Nobody don't like me
- Mother: No, say, "Nobody likes me."
- Child: Nobody don't like me.(Eight repetitions of this dialogue)
- Mother: No, now listen carefully: say, "Nobody likes me."
- Child: Oh! Nobody don't likes me. (McNeil in The Genesis of Language, 1966)

The Cognitive Theory:

The Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget placed acquisition of language within the context of a child's mental or cognitive development. He argued that a child has to understand a concept before s/he can acquire the particular language form which expresses that concept. A good example of this is seriation. There will be a point in a child's intellectual development when s/he can compare objects with respect to size. This means that if you gave the child a number of sticks, s/he could arrange them in order of size. Piaget suggested that a child who had not yet reached this stage would not be able to learn and use comparative adjectives like "bigger" or "smaller". Object permanence is another phenomenon often cited in relation to the cognitive theory. During the first year of life, children seem unaware of the existence of objects they cannot see. An object which moves out of sight ceases to exist. By the time they reach the age of 18 months, children have realised that objects have an existence independently of their perception. The cognitive theory draws attention to the large increase in children's

vocabulary at around this age, suggesting a link between object permanence and the learning of labels for **objects**.

Limitations of the Cognitive Theory

During the first year to 18 months, connections of the type explained above are possible to trace but, as a child continues to develop, so it becomes harder to find clear links between language and intellect. Some studies have focused on children who have learned to speak fluently despite abnormal mental development. Syntax in particular does not appear to rely on general intellectual growth.

Input or Interactionist Theories

In contrast to the work of Chomsky, more recent theorists have stressed the importance of the language input children receive from their care-givers. Language exists for the purpose of communication and can only be learned in the context of interaction with people who want to communicate with you. Interactionists such as Jerome Bruner suggest that the language behaviour of adults when talking to children (known by several names by most easily referred to as child-directed speech or CDS) is specially adapted to support the acquisition process. This support is often described to as scaffolding for the child's language learning. Bruner also coined the term Language Acquisition Support System or LASS in response to Chomsky's LAD. Colwyn Trevarthen studied the interaction between parents and babies who were too young to speak. He concluded that the turn-taking structure of conversation is developed through games and

non-verbal communication long before actual words are uttered.

Limitations of Input theories

These theories serve as a useful corrective to Chomsky's early position and it seems likely that a child will learn more quickly with frequent interaction. However, it has already been noted that children in all cultures pass through the same stages in acquiring language. We have also seen that there are cultures in which adults do not adopt special ways of talking to children, so CDS may be useful but seems not to be essential.

Innateness

Noam Chomsky is associated with the innatist view of language. This focuses particularly on the impoverished language input children receive.

Adults do not typically speak in grammatically complete sentences. In addition, what the child hears is only a small sample of language. Chomsky concluded that children must have an inborn faculty for language acquisition. According to this theory, the process is biologically determined -the human species has evolved a brain whose neural circuits contain linguistic information at birth. The child's natural predisposition to learn language is triggered by hearing speech and the child's brain is able to interpret what s/he hears according to the underlying principles or structures it already contains.

This natural faculty has become known as the Language Acquisition Device (LAD). Chomsky did not suggest that an English child is born knowing anything specific about English, of course.

He stated that all human languages share common

principles. (For example, they all have words for things and actions -nouns and verbs.) It is the child's task to establish how the specific language s/he hears expresses these underlying principles.

Evidence to support the Innateness Theory:

□

Work in several areas of language study has provided support for the idea of an innate language faculty.

Three types of evidence are offered here :

Slobin has pointed out that human anatomy is peculiarly adapted to the production of speech. Unlike our nearest relatives, the great apes, we have evolved a vocal tract which allows the precise articulation of a wide repertoire of vocal sounds.

1. The formation of creole varieties of English appears to be the result of the LAD at work. The linguist Derek Bickerton has studied the formation of Dutch-based creoles in Surinam.

Escaped slaves, living together but originally from different language groups, were forced to communicate in their very limited Dutch. The result was the restricted form of language known as a pidgin. The adult speakers were past the critical age at which they could learn a new language fluently -they had learned Dutch as a foreign language and under unfavourable conditions. Remarkably, the children of these slaves turned the pidgin into a full language, known by linguists as a creole. They were presumably unaware of the process but the outcome was a language variety which follows its own consistent rules and has a full expressive range.

2. Studies of the sign languages used by the deaf have

shown that, far from being crude gestures replacing spoken words, these are complex, fully grammatical languages in their own right. A sign language may exist in several dialects.

Limitations of Chomsky's theory

Chomsky's work on language was theoretical. He was interested in grammar and much of his work consists of complex explanations of grammatical rules. He did not study real children. The theory relies on children being exposed to language but takes no account of the interaction between children and their care givers. Nor does it recognise the reasons why a child might want to speak, the functions of language. In 1977, Bard and Sachs published a study of a child known as Jim, the hearing son of deaf parents. Jim's parents wanted their son to learn speech rather than the sign language they used between themselves.

He watched a lot of television and listened to the radio, therefore receiving frequent language input.

However, his progress was limited until a speech therapist was enlisted to work with him. Simply being exposed to language was not enough. Without the associated interaction, it meant little to him. Subsequent theories have placed greater emphasis on the ways in which real children develop language to fulfill their needs and interact with their environment, including other people.

Chapter5: Discourse Analysis

Researchers in the field typically view language as a form of social practice that influences the social world, and vice versa. Many contemporary varieties of discourse analysis have, explicitly or implicitly, been influenced by Michel Foucault's theories related to power, knowledge, and discourse. *Discourse Analysis(DA)*, also called *discourse studies*, was developed during the 1970s as an academic field. Discourse analysis is a broad term for the study of the ways in which language is used between people, both in written texts and spoken contexts.

Etymologically, the word 'discourse' dates back to the 14th century. It is taken from the Latin word 'discursus' which means a 'conversation' (McArthur, 1996). In its current usage, this term conveys a number of significations for a variety of purposes, but in all cases it relates to language, and it describes it in some way. To start with, discourse is literally defined as 'a serious speech or piece of writing on a particular subject' (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2001, p.388). In this general sense, it incorporates both the spoken and written modes although, at times, it is confined to speech being designated as 'a serious conversation between people' (ibid). This restriction is also implied in the word when it is used as a verb. Carter (1993) specifies several denotations of the word 'discourse.' First, it refers to the topics or types of language used in definite contexts. Here, it is possible to talk of political discourse, philosophical discourse and the like. Second, the word 'discourse' is occasionally employed to stand for what is spoken, while the word 'text' is employed to denote what is written. It is

important to note, however, that the text/discourse distinction highlighted here is not always sharply defined. Nunan (1993) shows that these two terms are sometimes used interchangeably and in many instances treated differently. Carter (ibid) adds that the 'discourse/text' dichotomy is often correlated with the 'process/product' dichotomy respectively. Third, this word is used to establish a significant contrast with the traditional notion of 'sentence', the 'highest' unit of language analysis: discourse refers to any naturally occurring stretch of language. In this connection, Trask (1999) clarifies that a discourse is not confined to one speaker or writer, but it can embrace the oral or written exchanges produced by two or more people. It is this last sense of the term that constitutes the cornerstone of the approach known as Discourse Analysis.

Despite that discourse is defined as a chunk that surpasses the sentence, not all chunks of language can fall within the scope of this definition. In fact, what characterizes discourse is obviously not its supra-sentential nature as much as the entirety it has—its coherence. To be more explicit, discourse is a complete meaningful unit conveying a complete message (Nunan, 1993).

The nature of this whole cannot be perceived by examining its constituent parts, 'there are structured relationships among the parts that result in something new' (Schiffrin, 2006, p.171). In the light of this, larger units such as paragraphs, conversations and interviews all seem to fall under the rubric of 'discourse' since they are linguistic performances complete in themselves.

Discourse Analysis Definition

Whereas other areas of language study might focus on individual parts of language—such as words and phrases

(grammar) or the pieces that make up words (linguistics)—discourse analysis looks at a running conversation involving a speaker and listener (or a writer's text and its reader).

- In discourse analysis, the context of a conversation is taken into account as well as what's being said. This context may encompass a social and cultural framework, including the location of a speaker at the time of the discourse, as well as nonverbal cues such as body language, and, in the case of textual communication, it may also include images and symbols. "[It's] the study of real language use, by real speakers in real situations," explains Teun A. van Dijk, a noted author and scholar in the field.
- Discourse analysis looks at conversations in their social context.
- Discourse analysis melds linguistics and sociology by taking into account the social and cultural context that language is used.
- It can be used by businesses, academic researchers, or the government to better understand an aspect of communication.

What Discourse Analysis Does

Misunderstanding relayed information can lead to problems—big or small. Being able to distinguish subtle subtext in order to differentiate between factual reporting and fake news, editorials, or propaganda is crucial to interpreting true meaning and intent. This is the reason that having well-developed skills in the critical analysis of discourse—to be able to "read between the lines" of verbal

and/or written communication—is of utmost importance.

Since the establishment of the field, discourse analysis has evolved to include a wide range of topics, from the public versus private use of language to official versus colloquial rhetoric, and from oratory to written and multimedia discourses.

The field of study has further branched out to be paired with the fields of psychology, anthropology, and philosophy, thus meshing linguistics with sociology.

"We're also 'asking not just about the rhetoric of politics, but also about the rhetoric of history and the rhetoric of popular culture; not just about the rhetoric of the public sphere but about rhetoric on the street, in the hair salon, or online; not just about the rhetoricity of formal argument but also about the rhetoricity of personal identity."—from *"Discourse Analysis and Rhetorical Studies"* by Christopher Eisenhart and Barbara Johnstone

Academic Applications of Discourse Analysis

There are many avenues we can study through the lens of discourse analysis including discourse during a political debate, discourse in advertising, television programming/media, interviewing, and storytelling. By looking at the context of language use, not simply the words, we can understand nuanced layers of meaning that are added by the social or institutional aspects at work, such as gender, power imbalance, conflicts, cultural background, and racism.

As a result, discourse analysis can be used to study inequality in society, such as institutional racism, inherent bias in media, and sexism. We can also use it to examine

and interpret discussions regarding religious symbols located in public places.

Real-World Applications of Discourse Analysis

Apart from scholarly applications, discourse analysis has some very pragmatic uses as well. Specialists in the field are tasked with helping world leaders understand the true meaning behind communications from their peers.

In the field of medicine, it's used to help physicians find ways to ensure they're better understood by people with limited language skills, as well as guiding them in dealings when giving patients a challenging diagnosis.

For example, in one study, transcripts of conversations between doctors and patients were analyzed to determine where misunderstandings had occurred.¹ In another, women were interviewed about their feelings regarding a diagnosis of breast cancer.² How did it affect their relationships? What was the role of their social support network? How did "positive thinking" come into play?

How Discourse Analysis Differs from Grammar Analysis

Unlike grammar analysis, which focuses on the structure of sentences, discourse analysis focuses on the broad and general use of language within and between particular groups of people. Another important distinction is that while grammarians typically construct the examples they analyze, the analysis of discourse relies on actual writings and speech of the group being studied to determine popular usage.

In terms of textual analysis, grammarians may examine texts in isolation for elements such as the art of persuasion or word choice (diction), but only discourse analysis takes

into account the social and cultural context of a given text.

In terms of verbal expression, discourse analysis takes in the colloquial, cultural, and living use of language—including each and every "um," "er," and "you know," as well as slips of the tongue, and awkward pauses. Grammar analysis, on the other hand, relies entirely on sentence structure, word usage, and stylistic choices. This does, of course, often include a cultural ingredient but it's missing the human element of spoken discourse.

Speech Act Theory

—A speech act is an utterance that serves a function in communication. We perform speech acts in everyday life by:

- Greeting
- Apologising
- Requesting
- Complaining and so on...

The cultural differences are also important while performing a speech act.

- Name: John Langshaw Austin (1911-1960)
- Function: famous British philosopher and professor at the University of Oxford
- Famous for: Speech Act Theory
- book: —How to do things with words

Austin distinguishes between the two main speech act as

performatives and constatives:

- Performatives: are used to undertake an action which is rather felicitous or infelicitous.
- Constatives: are used to make just a statement which can be either true or false.

Felicity conditions by Austin Two types:

- 1) Constitutive conditions: necessary to successfully perform a speech act.
- 2) Regulative conditions: —concerned how happily or how well it is performed (Geis, p4).

Example of felicity conditions One Example of —How to do things with words: —I name this ship the Queen Elizabeth—as uttered when smashing the bottle against the stem. (Austin, p.5) => It is necessary to smash the bottle against the stem in order to make this speech act happy or felicitous. Otherwise the speech act is infelicitous to keep it simple.

Locution / Illocution / Perlocution

Distinction between the following:

- Locution => (—the words that are uttered or written)
- Illocution => (—the speaker's or writer's intention [...])
- Perlocution => (—the intended effect [...])

Example of English: Example to illustrate the distinction between the Locution / Illocution and Perlocution of a simple English sentence:

What happens when you hear the question, Would you close the door?

- *Locution / Intention: The door is open*
- *Illocution / Meaning: Close the door*
- *Perlocution/ effect on the hearer: It could be too noisy therefore I have to close the door.*

Austin was the creator of speech act theory. He made clear that by saying something we do perform an action or just state things. He also stated that there are differences in perceiving a speech act by differentiating a speech act in to locution, illocution and perlocution. And as a last point he made clear that speech acts (performatives) can be felicitous or infelicitous.

Chapter6: Methods for Foreign Language Learning

What is a method

- For the teacher, methods prescribe what materials and activities should be used, how they should be used and what the role of the teacher should be.
- For learners, methods prescribe what approach to learning the learner should take and what roles the learner should adopt in the classroom.

What is an approach?

An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language and the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught.

Components of a Method : Syllabus

Syllabus is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the content to be taught, the skills to be developed, the order of the content etc.

The theory of language adopted will affect the organisation and selection of language content.

Different methods have different types of syllabi associated with them i.e. different ways of selecting and organising content.

Materials:

In some methods, materials are designed to replace the teacher so that learning can take place independently. In others, materials are teacher proof so that even poorly trained teachers with imperfect control of the language can use them.

Assessment

How students' language knowledge is to be assessed.

- Error correction policy.

How do all of these relate?

Different theories about the nature of language and how languages are learned (the approach) imply different ways of teaching language (the method) and different methods make use of different kinds of classroom activities (the techniques).

Background of Language Learning Strategies

Over the centuries there were various methods of foreign language teaching, teaching goals and objectives, schools and teaching approaches. The new teaching methods were developed due to the demand of the state at first and society later in foreign language learning. The scholars tried to find the universal teaching method in different sciences: Philosophy, Psychology, Linguistics etc. Nowadays the foreign language teacher at school is to help the students to correct the gaps in their language knowledge at the short time and to teach them using the foreign language as a tool of getting professional knowledge and skills as well. It should be mentioned

that the theory and practice knowledge of foreign language teaching at various stages enables the teacher —to see the methodical thought in the broad educational prospect, (Gusevskaya, 2013) and combine different methods and approaches in the work, taking into account their advantages and disadvantages. The following scientists studied the history of foreign language teaching methods: B. Bjrkman, K. A. Ganshina, N. I. Gez, G. O. Hellekjær, B. Kumaravadivelu, V. E. Raushenbakh, Jack Richards, E. Roulet, L. V. Shsherba, F. C. Sierra. Academician A. A. Miroljubov made a great contribution into foreign language teaching methods structuring, having published his book —The History of Native Foreign Language Teaching Methods. According to the analysis of scientific-pedagogical and methodical literature, foreign language learning can be traced back into ancient days. In her book —Studied in Rus. History of Education in Russia Olga (Kolpakova, 2011) writes that already in 988 A.D. three hundred children were taken —to be taught bookish. The first —bookish teachers were Greek priests invited specially to teach Russian people the Greek language.

Examples of methods:

Grammar Translation

□ Traditional way of teaching Latin and Greek. In the 19th century used to teach French, German and English.

Typical lesson consisted of: a) presentation of grammatical rule, b) specially written text that

demonstrated the rule, c) list of new words, d) translation exercises, e) grammar exercises.

Emphasis on learning to read and write.

Vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words

Long, elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.

Medium of instruction was the mother tongue.

No provision for the oral use of language.

Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis.

Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue

Direct Method: Early 1900's

Posited by Charles Berlitz.

Second language learning is similar to first language learning.

Emphasis on:

- Oral interaction,
- spontaneous use of language,
- no translation,

- little if any analysis of grammatical rules and structures.
- ☐ Classroom instruction was conducted in the target language.
- ☐ There was an inductive approach to grammar.
- ☐ Only everyday vocabulary was taught.
- ☐ Concrete vocabulary was taught through Pictures and objects.

Abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas

The Audio lingual Method (1950's)

- ☐ Outbreak of the World War II:
 - Heightened the need to become orally proficient.
 - The Army Method (an oral-based approach to language learning).
- ☐ Influenced by structuralism and behaviourism:
 - Identify the grammatical structures and the basic sentence patterns.
 - Practice these patterns by systematic attention to pronunciation and intensive oral drilling. There is little or no grammatical explanation.

- ❑ Grammar is taught inductively.
- ❑ Great importance is attached to pronunciation.
- ❑ Very little use of the mother tongue by teachers is permitted.
- ❑ Successful responses are reinforced.
- ❑ There is great effort to get students to produce error-free utterances.

Designer Methods (Humanistic Approaches) 1970's 1980's

- ❑ Influenced by principles of psychology and psychotherapy.
- ❑ Developed in 70's and 80's mainly in US.
- ❑ The Silent way.
- ❑ Total physical response.
- ❑ Suggestopedia
- ❑ Community language learning.

Problems associated with methods

- ❑ No general agreement on what method is: Any principled choice

of techniques can be termed —methodll.

- ❑ Some methods not based on clear language and language learning theory.
- ❑ Methods are open to wide interpretation by materials developers and teachers.
- ❑ The rise and fall of methods is mainly due to the influence of profit seekers, promoters and forces of the intellectual marketplace. Methods become influential when they gain the seal of approval by university departments.
- ❑ Language teaching is a massive industry where much is done in the name of profit and glory

Eclectic Approach in Teaching English

Larsen-Freeman (2000) and Mellow (2000) both have used the term principled eclecticism to describe a desirable, coherent, pluralistic approach to language teaching.

Eclecticism involves the use of a variety of language learning activities, each of which may have very different characteristics and may be motivated by different underlying assumptions.

The teacher decides what methodology or approach to use depending on the aims of the lesson and the learners in the group. Almost all modern course books have a mixture of approaches and methodologies.

Therefore, as far as we can see during all its history the

foreign language teaching methods changed a lot of times emphasizing reading, translating or audition or combining these processes. Each method possesses its own certain importance and answers the specifically set pedagogical tasks e.g. grammar and textual-translation methods are better suited for grammar material training before tests, direct methods are more appropriate for language medium immersion and for reconstructing the real communication situations, visual aids assist to represent visually and to systemize the unknown material. The teaching literature review makes it possible to state that nowadays there is no an ideal, universal method yet that would enable to cover all the aspects in such a short time given to the foreign language learning in a technical high school.

The combination of the existing methods known and the teacher's qualification, therefore, enables to make the lessons interesting and effective. On the basis of the foregoing, we can conclude that during the whole history of foreign language teaching methods development methodologists and teachers highlighted different types of speech activities (reading, listening, translation) focusing on a particular era goal. In addition, each method has its own specific value and responds to specific pedagogical objectives set. Thus, historiographical analysis of foreign language teaching methods has allowed identifying ways to integrate different methods in the practice of language education. In our point of view, for students studying at the technical departments it would be useful applying grammar- textual- translated methods for an explanation and revision of the grammar materials at the pre- text stage. Direct and communicative methods can be used to stimulate communication situations in the language environment.

And using of visualization tools helps to present and organize new material and to create an outer support of speech acts.

Chapter 7: The Competency-Based Approach (CBA)

There is a change in most of the educational systems in the world in terms of the implementation of new curricula and a new approach based on competencies. This is the case of Algeria in which the competency-based approach was introduced in 2002 as a result of the educational reform in the primary, middle and secondary school; new books were published for this aim for all the levels. CBA has been adopted in teaching English as a foreign language in order to prepare the learners to be competent in their real life tasks. But how will this objective be attained if the teacher, who is an important partner in the educational system, has been neglected before implementing this new approach? In spite of the government's plan for teacher development in the language , a large number of teachers are just using new books and ignore all about CBA and the objectives of using such an approach. This article attempts to shed light on the theoretical side of the competency-based approach, to trace its history and development and the reasons why it has been implemented in the Algerian educational system. Prior to dealing with the competency-based approach , a particular procedure should be followed. First of all the terms competence and competency should be clearly defined though it is not really an easy task.

The Notion of Competence and its Numerous Interpretations

Over the last two decades the discourse around education and training has shifted. We now tend to use a pseudo-commercial language of markets, investment and products. The interest in competence and competency has

been part of this move. These two terms remain difficult to define in a satisfactory way.

The former is the quality of being adequately or well qualified physically and intellectually, or the ability to do something well measured against a standard, especially the ability acquired through experience or training. In the business dictionary, it is defined as a cluster of related abilities, commitments, knowledge and skills that enable a person (or an organization) to act effectively in a job or a situation in comparison to competency (ies) which refers to a cluster of abilities relating to excellence in a specific activity’. Competence indicates sufficiency (state of being good enough) of knowledge and skills that enable one to act in a variety of situations because each level of personality has its own requirements, especially the ability acquired through experience or training.

DeSeCo(Definition and Selection of Competencies) defines competence as a system of internal and external mental structures and abilities assuming mobilization of knowledge, cognitive skills and also social behavioural components such as attitudes, emotions for successful realization of activity in a particular context’.

In this respect competence can be understood as a dynamic, organizing the structure of activity characteristic allowing a person to adapt to various situations on the basis of gained experience and practice. Rean and Bordovska (2008, quoted in Lobanova and Shunin) argue that the development of a person as a subject of activity necessarily includes the factors which form a socially mature person:

- development of intelligence,

- development of positive thinking, positive attitude,
- development of autonomy, responsibility,
- development of motivation leading to self
- development, self-realization.

Hedge (1996, quoted by Hyde) defines a competency in term of superior performance. It is a skill or characteristic of a person that enables him or her to carry out specific or superior actions at a superior level of performance‘ (p.4). However, we can say that competency is not the same as performance, but it is what enables performance to occur. Armstrong (1995) supports this by saying that competence as a fully human attribute has been reduced to competencies – a series of discrete activities that people possess, the necessary skills, knowledge and understanding to engage in effectively (p. 45). We can also add that the term competency varies from a school of thought to another. The behaviourists use it to design an observation and measurable behaviour resulting from certain training. The constructivists use this term to illustrate the construction of capacities acquired from an interaction between individuals engaged in the same situation. Many other definitions have been suggested in the field of education such as in the QEP (Quebec Education Programme, p.4) in which a competency is defined as a set of behaviours based on the effective mobilization of a range of resources. The set of behaviours refers to the capacity to use appropriately a variety of resources both internal and external, in particular learning acquired in school or in everyday life. The concept of resources refers not only to everything that students have learned at school, but also to their experiences, skills,

interests, etc...Students may rely on many resources, such as their classmates, their teacher, documentation...‘ Another definition among many others has been provided by ELT articles about English teaching in Algeria and which considers a competency as “a system of conceptual and procedural parts of knowledge organized into schemes that help identify a problem task and its solution through an efficient action within a set of situations.”

And also, a competency is a know -how to act process which integrates and mobilizes a set of capacities, skills and an amount of knowledge that will be used effectively in various problem-solving situations in circumstances that have never occurred before. In other words, a competency may be simply defined as the ability of a student or worker to accomplish tasks adequately to find solutions and realize them in real life situations. Besides, competencies are the various skills learners have to be taught ; this may lead them to acquire the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) in an interactional way to be able to use them later on either in their jobs or the demanding daily life.

Based on the definitions of DeSeCo, six key competencies have been worked out:

1. **Autonomous competence:** This involves cognitive strategies needed to perform cognitive activities and apply the gained knowledge and skills to processing information, adapting and transforming knowledge, to construct knowledge and judgments. This is viewed as a central feature of modernity, democracy and individualism.
2. **Interactive competence** which assumes effective use of communication tools and personal resources. The English

language, for example, as well as knowledge, strategies, laws information, new technologies according to requirements of a modern society for the solution of everyday-routine and professional tasks.

3. **Social competence** which is an integral personal system of knowledge, skills, verbal and non-verbal communicative strategies that provide the capacity to form, join and function effectively and democratically within complex and socially heterogeneous groups
4. **Linguistic competence** as mentioned before and which includes: lexical competence, grammatical competence, semantic competence, phonological competence, and orthographic competence
5. **Strategic competence:** this has already been defined previously
6. **Pragmatic competence** is an integrated personal system of personal system of principles according to which messages are: - organized, structured and arranged in coherent messages (thematically, logically, stylistically)-discursive competence.- used in oral and written form to perform a certain communicative function- functional competence.

II. What is the Competency Based Approach

There are different models of curriculum development, some focusing on knowledge transmission and assessment of such knowledge and others more on skills and personal development . The competency-based approach is a very popular approach which focuses on measurable and useable knowledge, skills and abilities. It consists of teachers basing their instructions on concepts expecting to foster deeper and broader understanding. According to QEP (p.11), the competency-based approach consists of

organizing the content of a curriculum in terms of the development of competencies using specific pedagogical practices that correspond to the main orientations of QEP.

The competency-based approach has become a privileged topic in curriculum discourses as it claims that learners should mobilize their values, knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours in a personal, independent way, to address challenges successfully. Challenges are present everywhere and they can be academic, but also practical and life-oriented. This new approach in education and learning requires a focus not only in input, but also on outcomes or results.

Such results, however, do not pertain only to the academic knowledge, as in traditional testing where rote memorization of pre-fabricated knowledge is required. Competencies are not just skills as opposed to knowledge, but represent a complex articulation of knowledge, attitudes and skills that learners can use whenever they are needed not just in examination. CBA curricula fostering learner-friendly teaching and learning strategies, could engender a shift from sheer memorization to the development of higher order intellectual skills and life skills, including communication, social and emotional and other relevant skills. Competencies could be seen as opposed to labour market and the society.

CBA focuses on outcomes of learning. It addresses what the learners are expected to do rather than on what they are expected to learn about. It refers to an educational movement that advocates defining educational goals in terms of precise measurable descriptions of knowledge, skills and behaviours students should possess at the end of a course of study (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

CBA is a functional approach to education that emphasizes life skills and evaluates mastery of those skills according to actual learner performance. It was defined by the U.S. Office of Education as a performance-based process leading to demonstrated mastery of basic life skills necessary for the individual to function proficiently in society (U.S. Office of Education, 1978). We can simply say that competency-based education is an outcome-based instruction and is adaptive to the changing needs of students, teachers and the community. Competencies describe the ability to apply basic and other skills in situations that are commonly encountered in everyday life. Thus CBE is based on a set of outcomes that are derived from an analysis of tasks typically required of students in life situation.

Characteristics of the CBA

It is characterized by the following (ELT articles: what is CBA?):

-It is action oriented in that it gears learning to the acquisition of know how embedded in functions and skills. These will allow the learner to become an effective competent user in real- life situations outside the classroom.

-It is a problem-solving approach in that it places learners in situations that test/ check their capacity to overcome obstacles and problems, make learners think and they learn by doing.

-It is social constructivist in that it regards learning as occurring through social interaction with other people. In

other words, learning is not concerned with the transmission of pre-determined knowledge and know-how to be reproduced in vitro, but as a creative use of a newly constructive knowledge through the process of social interaction with other people.

Finally, and most importantly, the CBA is a cognitive approach. It is indebted to Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom, B et al. Taxonomy of Education Objectives, vol 1, The Cognitive Domain in vol 2 and the Affective Domain in New York, 1964). Bloom has claimed that all the educational objectives can be classified as cognitive (to do with information) and affective (to do with attitudes, values and emotions) or psychomotor (to do with bodily movements ...). He said that cognitive objectives form a hierarchy by which the learner must achieve lower order objectives before he/she can achieve higher ones.

One of the most distinctive features of CBA is its integration of project work as part of learning strategy. Over all, if CBA expands on the communicative approach, it is in the sense that it seeks to make the attainment visible, i.e, concrete through the realization of projects .It also makes co-operate learning a concrete reality and opens new avenues for action interaction and the construction of new knowledge. In short, it is only through carrying project work that we and our learners can live basic principles of CBA

Chapter 8: Classroom Roles of English Language Teachers

Teachers are dedicated professionals who have a lasting impact on students. Becoming a teacher will allow you to leverage your strengths and passion as a leader in the education field. If you are looking to make a positive difference in the lives of young people, you may want to consider this rewarding profession. Each day you will exercise your creativity, patience and communication skills as you present engaging lessons. As a mentor and role model, students will be inspired by your commitment to helping them develop their unique talents and intellects

The Previous Teaching Practices:

Since the communicative approach came to be the most widespread adopted approach, structurally based teaching has come under theoretical attack .However, this doesn't mean to neglect the positive contribution of structuralism and to understand it, it's essential to place it in the broader historical context of language teaching, and also to recognize that in practice most teachers actually combine their structural syllabus with various learner centered techniques.

Before the advent of the structural approach, declasss looking for a systematic approach. Teachers used classroom techniques which drew upon various sources: grammar translation, reading methods, vocabulary-based methods, and the direct method. If we classify such techniques as « eclectic », the current technical sense of the term would be inaccurate.

Mostly, teachers were subjective in preferring one technique rather than another and they were influenced either by their own experiences or by their inspectors and supervisors, as to what suited the learners. The use of teaching aids was inconsiderable and very often, the lesson was just « chalk and talk » With the introduction of the structural approach, which coincided with an upsurge of interest in educational technology, came intensive in-service training which included identifying aims ,adoption of aural oral techniques , and revision and evaluation of teaching materials.

All in all, the adoption of the structural approach proved to be a favorable and desirable turning point. It made teachers, even the less qualified ones, able to handle their jobs more easily .It provides opportunity for both teachers, who are almost non-native speakers, and learners to benefit from the audio –visual equipment and tape records of native speakers English. The students were able to use inside and outside the classroom in an acceptable way.

Furthermore, although the principles of grading and selection of material as well as the basic teaching techniques of pattern practice have remained unchanged, there have been various attempts at making EFL teaching and learning more interesting, motivating and appropriate to its aims.

When it comes to classroom practice, teachers rarely use only one approach. Naturally, there are times when students will be engaged in learning new words or grammatical items; but there are times when students will be engaged in role-playing, dialogue, acting scenes, and other communicative techniques. The relation between approaches and methods of selection and grading on the one hand and classroom techniques on the other could be

shown diagrammatically in this way:

Teacher's Role in the CBA

Sturgis and Patrick (2010) suggested that the role of the teacher changes from one of being an information-giver to that of a facilitator. This view does not suggest that teachers no longer provide information, but that they give different types of information and deliver it in different ways (Paul, 2008).

Since CBA is learner-centred, it does not require teachers' subservience. As it is action-oriented, it requires teachers in action, teachers who will draw on their professional skills in subject matter, methodology, in decision-making and in social skill to enable the learners to be achievers. This also requires a style based on reflection on what, why and how to teach fixing objectives and adjusting teaching strategies to learning strategies. Their role is to facilitate the process of language acquisition through the development of appropriate learning like hypothesis making or hypothesis testing.

We can also say that the teacher in a classroom is a researcher; an important aspect of his job is watching, listening and asking questions to learn more about how they learn so that teachers may be more helpful to students. At the same time that we teach children they also teach us because they show us how they learn. We just have to carefully watch them and listen to them. This kind of watching and listening may contribute to teacher's ability to use what the classroom experience provide him or her create contextualized and meaningful lessons. The ability to observe and listen to our students and their experiences in the classroom contributes to his or her

ability to use a constructivist approach.

Teacher 's Role in the English Language Teaching (ELT)

Teacher as a Learner

Teaching and Learning is a continuous process and wherein strategies may differ with the moving generations. Though we find many changes in the education system, but the role of a teacher will remain the same but with slight changes. The teacher's job is to convince the student that education fulfills the need and learning in the classroom. A Teacher has to think from the learners' perspective before she plans to interact with the students. When a teacher plans with the learners' perspective and starts teaching, students can receive the information without any hesitation in grasping the things.

Teacher as a Facilitator

It is very significant that students should sense that their teachers concern about them and thus teacher should become the best facilitator to the students in all the aspects. As a facilitator she has to direct and support students in learning for themselves as a self-explorer.

Teachers should develop best learning environment which reflects the students' life in societal, intellectual and linguistic occurrences. As a facilitator a teacher should lay a strong foundation for their personal growth.

Teacher as an Assessor

As a Teacher, assessing is one of the important tools for extracting students' knowledge by giving continuous

feedback. Teacher's role is not complete just by teaching a lesson. Assessing is the effective tool for making students learning perfect. A Teacher before assessing a student has to first assess their own conclusions, as to what extent a student will be benefitted with their correct assessment. These assessments can be carried out through verbal feedback, by conducting quizzes, by giving some tasks etc. An assessment makes a teacher to plan for her/his future teaching techniques and in guiding them to master their language.

Teacher as a Manager

Teacher's role as a manger is a very significant and imperative role in managing a class. A teacher has to plan well in advance regarding handling the classes within the stipulated time , covering academics as well as interpersonal skills with various teaching techniques which is obviously a path to practical approach. An experienced teacher can manage the timings

according to their own experience. Perfect classroom management by a teacher using the major mechanisms will lead to success of teaching-learning methods.

Teacher as an Evaluator

Everyone is aware that evaluation plays a prominent role to a teacher's success. Evaluation is a subjective process, which is related to academics. Teacher has to be an effective evaluator while evaluating the student. True and fair evaluation should be done by a teacher in order to do justice to a student's career. A student has a wide scope of learning through the mistakes committed. As an evaluator a student should also be focused on the areas of competence rather than on the weaknesses and every student should be adhered to positive expectations.

Chapter 9: Multiple Intelligences (MI)

Over the past few decades, research in the field of learning has led to the discovery of the Theory of Multiple Intelligences. In short, this theory states that each person has different ways of learning and different intelligences they use in their daily lives.

While some can learn very well in a linguistically-based environment (reading and writing), others are better taught through mathematical-logic based learning. Still others benefit most from body-kinesthetic intelligence (learning by doing with the hands). Each person possesses each intelligence to an extent, but there is always a primary, or more dominant, intelligence. The work on multiple intelligences began in the early 1980s with Howard Gardner, and the research continues.

Howard Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligence

Howard Gardner of Harvard University originally identified seven distinct intelligences. According to Gardner, this theory, which emerged from **cognitive research**, “documents the extent to which students possess different kinds of minds and therefore learn, remember, perform, and understand in different ways.”

In greater detail, the **theory** proposes that “we are all able to know the world through language, logical-mathematical analysis, spatial representation, musical thinking, the use of the body to solve problems or to make things, an understanding of other individuals and an understanding of ourselves. Where individuals differ is in the strength of these intelligences and the ways in which such intelligences are invoked and combined to carry out different tasks, solve diverse problems and progress in various domains.” Hani Morgan (2014) supports Gardner's theory.

Morgan's research indicated that differentiated instruction benefits all students, but must be presented by well-prepared, experienced and knowledgeable teachers. This diversity, according to Gardner, should impact the way people are educated. He stated that these differences "challenge an educational system that assumes that everyone can learn the same materials in the same way and that a uniform, universal measure suffices to test student learning." Joan Hanifin, an Irish researcher, determined in a 2014 publication that the outdated system of education in Ireland was adversely affecting students in the long-term. By not embracing multiple methods of teaching based on different intelligences, students often left school feeling "under-valued."

Gardner goes on to say that, "Indeed, as currently constituted, our educational system is heavily biased toward linguistic modes of instruction and assessment and, to a somewhat lesser degree, toward logical-quantitative modes as well."

Gardner argues that "a contrasting set of assumptions is more likely to be educationally effective. Students learn in ways that are identifiably distinctive. The broad spectrum of students—and perhaps the society as a whole—would be better served if disciplines could be presented in a number of ways and learning could be assessed through a variety of means." In 2010, **Bas and Beyhan** presented findings based on their study of using Multiple Intelligences theory in learning English. They determined that MI-based learning is more effective in terms of student achievement levels and their attitudes toward learning. Their research supports Gardner's

assertion that MI-based learning will serve students well.

The 9 Multiple Intelligences

Gardner claims that all human beings have multiple intelligences. These multiple intelligences can be nurtured and strengthened or ignored and weakened. His research from 1991 identified seven intelligences; in the intervening time, he has come to believe there are a total of nine intelligences:

- **Verbal-Linguistic Intelligence:** Well-developed verbal skills and sensitivity to the sounds, meanings and rhythms of words.
- **Mathematical-Logical Intelligence:** The ability to think conceptually and abstractly, and the capacity to discern logical or numerical patterns.
- **Musical Intelligence:** The ability to produce and appreciate rhythm, pitch and timbre.
- **Visual-Spatial Intelligence:** The capacity to think in images and pictures, to visualize accurately and abstractly.
- **Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence:** The ability to control one's body movements and to handle objects skillfully.
- **Interpersonal Intelligence:** The capacity to detect and respond appropriately to the moods, motivations and desires of others.
- **Intrapersonal Intelligence:** The capacity to be self-aware and in tune with inner feelings, values, beliefs and thinking processes.
- **Naturalist Intelligence:** The ability to recognize and categorize plants, animals and other objects in nature.
- **Existential Intelligence:** The sensitivity and capacity to tackle deep questions about human existence, such as the meaning of life, why we die and how we got here.

While all people possess some level of each intelligence, most will experience more dominant intelligences that

impact the way they learn and interact with the world around them.

Multiple Intelligences and Learning Styles

Some may find it an impossible task to teach to all learning styles. However, teachers are using multimedia, so it is becoming easier. As teachers begin to understand learning styles more effectively, it is clear why multimedia is good for all learners and why a variety of media is more effective. Multimedia inherently speaks to the different types of learning preferences that one person has and has the potential to impart knowledge to a diverse class or group.

There are specific modes of multimedia and instruction techniques, which include the following:

- **Visuals:** Visual media help students acquire concrete concepts, such as object identification, spatial relationship or motor skills.
- **Printed words:** While the printed word is the most common method of dispensing information, some argue that audio is superior.
- **Sound:** Sound media offer a stimulus for sound recognition or recall. Audio narration is a useful tool for students who struggle with reading.
- **Motion:** Motion depicts human performance so that learners can copy the movement. This kinesthetic method can be essential for understanding some subject matter.
- **Color:** Choices on color display are required if it is essential to what is being learned (such as, the sky is blue).
- **Realia:** Realia teaches cognitive and motor skills with objects. Realia can be used with individuals or groups, depending on the situation. Realia may be used to present information realistically, or with the way learners internalize information.

- **Instructional Setting:** Design must include what materials are being used, as well as the environment in which it is to be taught. Printed materials should be individualized to allow the learner to set the pace.
- **Learner Characteristics:** Teaching models must consider learner characteristics, as media may be interpreted in various ways by different learners. Research has not provided definitive methods in matching the media most suitable for types of learners.
- **Reading Ability:** Pictures aid learning for poor readers who understand spoken words rather than printed words; good readers can control the pace, and print allows for easier review.
- **Categories of Learning Outcomes:** Categories ranged from three to eleven and most include some or all of Gagne's (1977) learning categories: intellectual skills, motor skills, verbal information, overall attitudes and use of cognitive strategies.
- **Events of Instruction:** Teachers have to choose the external events which support internal learning with events of instruction. This occurs in the planning stage and before selection of appropriate media.
- **Performance:** It is important for students to perform tasks that demonstrate learning and retention. The elicited performances can be categorized by type: covert, overt, motor, verbal, constructed and select. Media should be selected to correspond with the desired outcome.

Multiple Intelligences in the Classroom

Educators have positively responded to Gardner's theory. It has been embraced by a range of educational theorists and, significantly, applied by teachers and policymakers to the problems of schooling.

Many schools in North America have sought to structure

curricula according to the intelligences and to design classrooms—even whole schools—to reflect the understandings that Howard Gardner develops.

All intelligences are needed to live life well. Teachers, therefore, need to attend to all intelligences, not just the first two of verbal-linguistic or mathematical-logical intelligences, which have historically taken precedence.

Multiple Intelligence Activities

One of the most significant results of the theory of multiple intelligences is how it has provided eight different potential pathways to learning. If a teacher is having difficulty reaching a student in the more traditional linguistic or logical ways of instruction, the theory of multiple intelligences suggests several other ways in which the material might be presented to facilitate effective learning:

- Words (linguistic intelligence).
- Numbers or logic (logical-mathematical intelligence).
- Pictures (spatial intelligence).
- Music (musical intelligence).
- Self-reflection (intrapersonal intelligence).
- A physical experience (bodily-kinesthetic intelligence).
- A social experience (interpersonal intelligence).
- An experience in the natural world (naturalist intelligence).

You don't have to teach or learn something in all eight ways. However, simply knowing the possibilities available can enable you to decide which particular pathways interest you the most or seem to be the most effective teaching or learning tools.

The theory of multiple intelligences is so intriguing because it expands our horizon of available teaching and

learning tools beyond the conventional linguistic and logical methods used in most schools (e.g. lecture, textbooks, writing assignments, formulas, etc.).

Multiple Intelligences: New Horizons

Having an understanding of different teaching approaches from which we all can learn, as well as a toolbox with a variety of ways to present content to students, is valuable for increasing the accessibility of learning experiences for all students.

We want to continue to develop this toolbox, so it is especially important to gather ongoing information about student strengths and challenges, as well as their developing interests and dislikes.

Providing different learning contexts for students and engaging a variety of their senses is supported by current research. Studies done by Hamari et al (2016) suggest that engaging in learning games has a positive effect on learning: “. . . educational video games may be an effective means of posing learning challenges that are perceived as interesting and enjoyable, resulting in engagement and immersion in the game-based learning task.”

As our insatiable curiosity about the learning process persists and studies continue to evolve, additional scientific research may emerge that further elaborates on multiple intelligences and learning styles.

How Do We Benefit from Understanding Multiple Intelligences?

When educators are given the freedom to move away from the traditional, visually-based methods of teaching, they will have the opportunity to reach more students, more effectively. By teaching to the dominant learning

intelligences, teachers will find students to be more productive, more receptive and more willing to engage in the learning process.

As so many educators have already embraced this theory, it is time for educational administrators to take notice of new techniques that can be successful based on the research of Howard Gardner and the other researchers who have followed.

Chapter 10: Language Assessment

Definition

Frank (2012) argued that —Assessment is how we identify our learners’ needs, document their progress, and determine how we are doing as teachers and planners” (p. 32). Assessment is a continuous process which helps both teachers and learners to determine whether the teaching learning process is effectively being incorporated and points out the gaps in it. Moreover, it estimates that the demands of the learners are duly fulfilled and their learning process is developed gradually, systematically, and scientifically. Assessment can be summative if done at the end of the learning process or formative if done during the process. The assessment tool needs validity and reliability; the former refers to the extent the employed tool measures what it claims to measure, and the latter determines how much consistent it is in measuring if employed with the change of place and time. The pattern of assessment can be subjective, if there is a possibility of more than one answers or responses to a question or the skill being assessed therein, and it becomes objective when there is only one correct answer or response. Eventually, the assessment produces positive or negative backwash on the mind of the learners; the positive backwash boosts the teaching learning process, whereas the negative feeling at the end of the assessment casts adverse and gloomy impact on the minds of the learners and it becomes detrimental to teaching learning process (Assessment Glossary, 2015; Assessment of Language Learning, 2014; Glossary of Assessment, 2014; Key Assessment Terms, 2015).

Limitations of Traditional Test-Based Assessment

Frank (2012) debates that most of the teachers use paper and pencil based tests as a means of assessment to measure the achievement of their students, whereas globally, —Some alternative forms of assessment are (also) growing in popularity (Frank, 2012, p.32).

Henning (2012) points out 20 common mistakes in the traditional testing pattern, which are categorized under four main aspects of testing: (a) examination characteristics, (b) items characteristics, (c) test-validity concerns, and (d) administrative and scoring issues.

□The examination characteristics include that if the test is either very tough or too easy, either too short or very lengthy, redundant in type, lacks reliability and validity, casts negative backwash on the minds of the learners then it fails to meet the objectives intended.

□The item characteristics highlight that tests should not contain tricky questions, redundant wordings, divergence cues, convergence cues, and it should not consist of small number of choices in multiple-choice questions or false-true questions, because it increases the possibility of guessing and reduces accuracy of measurement.

□Test validity concerns include that —A test accurately measures the content or ability it purports to measure (Henning, 2012, p. 35). It should not be based on mixed contents or it should not include the options beyond the targeted skills or ability.

The administrative and scoring problems include the issues of lack of cheating control, inadequate instructions, administrative inequities (when test is not administered

with same loudness, clarity of voice, lighting and sitting arrangements), lack of piloting, and subjectivity of scoring.

It can be risky and sometimes even detrimental to assess young children by employing summative tests as a means of assessment. Katz (1997) explains that —Young learners are notoriously poor test-takers.... [T]he younger the child being evaluated, assessed, or tested, the more errors are made... [and] the greater the risk of assigning false labels to them (p.1). Besides, young children feel much anxiety when they are put in traditional testing system (Smith, 1996). It is, therefore, necessary to assess small children in an anxiety- free situation.

Alternative Assessments

Pierce and O'Malley (1992) defined alternative assessment as —Any method of finding out what a student knows or can do that is intended to show growth and inform instruction and is not a standardized or traditional test (p.21). In addition, alternative assessment undertakes and considers the needs of the learners, the style they prefer to learn with, and the way they integrate the learning and assessment process. Thus, it highlights positive traits among learners, brings successful performance in limelight and instead of summative evaluation it preferably provides formative assessment which supports the teaching and learning process. Students can be given a number of tests and two or three best out of all may be used for the final grading. This will reduce the anxiety factor and increase the interest of the learners; and at the same time help those who owing to some reason fail to perform well in a particular test. For that, we need alternative means of assessments, which are

more democratic than the autocratic paper and pencil based testing system. Some alternative modes of assessment are as under:

Peer assessment. Peer-assessment enables students to help and support one another, thus enhancing mutual understanding, cooperation, harmony, respect, and tolerance. It is likely to shift the authority of the teacher to the students, which instills responsibility among them and boosts their interest. It enriches the teaching learning process and helps students to nurture their analytical skills, confidence level, and creativity. The learners feel relaxed, which reduces the hesitation and anxiety and as a result, they learn fast and effectively.

▣ **Self-assessment** since 1980 it has been incorporated for the better integrity of both teaching and learning and assessment process globally. Self-assessment reduces teacher's workload and shifts responsibility and authority from the teacher to the student. There is a possibility that the learners may remain subjective during self-evaluation, but this can be managed by devising instruments which produce quantitative value for evaluation. McNamara and Deane (1995) stated that —Although self-assessment may seem inappropriate at first, it can yield accurate judgment of students' linguistic abilities, weaknesses, strengths, and improvementl (p.38).

Portfolio assessment: Portfolios are a collection of students' work over a certain period of time to show their efforts, progress, and achievements in the given areas. For making a qualitative portfolio, the learners need to organize, synthesize, and clearly describe their achievements and effectively communicate what they have learnt through providing evidence for their

completed tasks (Timothy, 1999). Portfolio assessment strategies provide a structure for learning that stays for a longer time and which is conceptual based. Hence, the onus of demonstrating mastery of concepts transfers from the teachers to the learners.

Dialogue Journal. Peyton and Reed (1990) maintained that journals can be used as an interactive means between teachers and learners for writing dialogues. Such journals have been found useful for learners at all levels as they can use their free and uncensored expressions without being worried about grades (Peyton & Reed, 1990). Brown and Hudson (1998) added that for teachers, these journals can provide a means —To collect information on students' views, beliefs, attitude, and motivation related to a class or program or to the process involved in learning various language skills (p.4).

Additional tools. Some further tools which can be employed for the assessment and evaluation of the learners include homework, project work, in-class activities, audio-tapes of discussions, videos of role-plays, learning logs, anecdotal records, teacher observation, and

performance based assessments. These are continuous evaluating tools where the learners have to demonstrate their learning, knowledge, and skills throughout the academic sessions.

All in all,

Assessments cannot be only paper-and-pencil based test, which is rather totalitarian and authoritative in nature as it creates fear and anxiety among the learners, but there are more democratic, less stern and less formal alternate modes as well. Though alternative modes of assessments have some shortcomings, they reduce anxiety and fear among the learners, instill a sense of responsibility and accountability, allow learners to play an active role in the assessment process, shift responsibilities from teachers to learners, and above all challenge the conviction and establish that learners can also assess themselves and their peers.

Chapter 11: Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis and Interlanguage

Introduction

If someone wants to learn a foreign language, he will obviously meet with many kinds of learning problems dealing with its sound system, vocabulary, structure, etc. This is understandable since the student learning the foreign language has spoken his own native language, which has been deeply implanted in him as part of his habit. Very often, he transfers his habit into the target language he learns, which perhaps will cause errors. Contrastive analysis theory pioneered by Fries assumed that these errors are caused by the different elements between the native language and the target language (Fisiak, 1981). Thus, contrastive analysis followers suggest that teachers do contrastive analysis between the native language and the target language so as to predict the learning problems that will be faced by the students. However, not all problems predicted by contrastive analysis always appear to be difficult for the students. On the other hand, many errors that do turn up are not predicted by contrastive analysis. This shortcoming has inspired the appearance of error analysis which was pioneered by Corder in the 1960s. The key finding of error analysis is that many learner errors are produced by the learners making faulty inferences about the rules of the target language.

Contrastive Analysis (CA):

General Overview:

By definition as attested in literature, Contrastive Analysis(CA)means the comparison of two languages by paying attention to differences and similarities between languages being compared; or the CA is the study and comparison of two languages, learners_ Target Language(TL) and learners_ Native Language(NL); or, in other words, the CA is the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. The following 9 points are what to take into consideration with regard to the general overview of the Contrastive Analysis (CA):

1. It was first suggested by Whorf (1941) as contrastive linguistics, a comparative study which emphasizes on linguistic differences.
2. The publication of Robert Lados' book(Linguistics across Cultures)in 1957 was the start of modern applied contrastive linguistics
3. The Systematic comparison of L1 and L2 structures is done in order to predict difficulties.
4. In the 1940s to 1960s before the SLA field as we know it was established, Charles Fries (1945) wrote: "The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner."
5. The theoretical foundations for what became known as the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis were formulated in Lado's Linguistics across Cultures (1957). In this book, Lado claimed that "those elements which are similar to[the learner's] native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult".

6. CA is founded on the assumption that second/foreign language (L2) learners tend to transfer into the target language features found in their native (L1) language.

7. Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture (Lado, 1957).

8. The transfer may be positive or negative. Transfer is said to be positive when a familiar skill facilitates the learning of a new structure. When the patterns are similar, the acquisition of the new pattern is facilitated, but when there are differences in patterns, these differences hinder the learning of the foreign language.

9. In later studies the term contrastive linguistics changed to contrastive analysis

Mainstream of CA:

The following 3 points are what to take into consideration with regard to the Mainstream of CA:

1. The bulk of the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) field was concerned, however, with prediction of errors.

2. The simplistic model: The most simplistic version was the belief that linguistic differences based simply on similarities and differences alone could be used to predict learning difficulties. Thus, the following quote:

3. A simplistic prediction: "Where two languages were similar, positive transfer would occur; where they were

different, negative transfer, or interference, would result."

CA and SLA

The following 2 points are what to take into consideration with regard to the CA and SLA: 1. CA was used extensively in the field of SLA in the 1960s and early 1970s, as a method of explaining why some features of a Target Language (TL) were more difficult to acquire than others. 2. According to the behaviorist theories prevailing at the time, language learning was a question of habit formation, and this could be reinforced or impeded by existing habits. Therefore, the difficulty in mastering certain structures in L2 depended on the difference between the learners' L1 and the language they were trying to learn.

Branches Involved in Contrastive Analysis:

The branches which contrastive analysis is involved are Translation, Teaching, Linguistics, Textbook Writing, and Error Analysis. These are discussed in details as follows:

1. Translation: As regard to translation as a branch involved in Contrastive analysis, there are the following points to be taken into consideration:

- a. As a translator, she/he should be faithful to the text, so she/he should know the exact equivalents in two languages (Source Language (SL) and target Language (TL)).
- b. A translator understands that most of the differences in two languages are not semantically but culturally.
- c. She/ he understands that most of these differences comes from Different beliefs, values and patterns of

thought. Often, Arabic Speakers/learners make mistakes in using or translating English tenses.

The mistakes may occur because the number of tenses in English may be more than any other language. Learners of a foreign language, as Corder (1969, p73) states, will transfer to English the association of adverb and tense of their own language to the language they are learning. Consider the following Arabic sentence:

hal nimta murtahan alaylata albariha/ Which means: (Did you sleep well last night?)

To translate the Arabic sentence above into English the learner think directly of the Arabic question word/hal/ (under the influence of interference so he starts his sentence with any auxiliary verb as a substitute for /hal/, and imitates the Arabic sentence leaving it without any other change, as in (Did you slept well last night?) This is grammatically wrong. In Arabic, there are two tenses; present and past. As to the future it can be expressed by the present simple tense preceded by the common word /sawfa/ —meaning —shall —or —will— placed at the beginning of the verbal Arabic sentence to refer to future, as in ;(I shall go) sawfa athhab Or The alphabetic Arabic letter —س—(S) joins the verb and it constitutes the first letter of the simple present verb in Arabic to refer to future, as in; /sa- athhab (I shall go.)

The number of tenses in English is more than those used in Arabic, so the time at which an action occurs can be expressed by more than one tense. The two sentences below express a past action by two different tenses, as in,

(I wrote the letter). (Past simple)/katabt-u al-risaalat-a/ (I have written the letter. (Present perfect)

Usually, the future can be expressed by using —shall —and —will, as in;(I shall visit him tomorrow.) /ghadan sa- azuur-u-hu/.

The context of sentence above can also be expressed by present continuous, as in;(I am visiting him tomorrow./ghadan sa- azuur-u-hu/Going to also indicates future, as in;(I am going to buy a new house after summer holiday.) /sa-'ashtari bayt- an gadiid-an ba_da al- utlati al-sayfiyyati)The simple present tense is also used with future meaning, but not with all verbs, it is used with verbs of —going and —coming (Corder; 1969)The climbing party plan to set off at dawn tomorrow. /Yu-khatit-u fariiqā al-tasaluqi lil_ intilaaqi fagra ghadin/

1. Teaching:

Learning the second language is different from acquiring the first language. A child acquiring English as a native language makes perceptual differences about different languages, he acquires language system. But an Arabic child who is learning English as his / her second language does not have this perception about different situations, he / she just learns the language. e.g.: the concept of the word "cousin" for an English child is completely different from that of an Arabic child.

The Contrastive Analysis can help teachers to do the following:

- To design teaching and learning materials (methodology)
- To engage learner in activities to be a good user of target language.(classroom activities)

- To evaluate text books
- To pay attention to the structure of the texts beyond sentence level
- To pay attention to conversation in its regular pattern in different situations
- To pay attention to complex areas like intonation
- To pay attention to different underlying rules those differ from culture to culture.

The Contrastive Analysis does not suggest a method or a teaching technique but it helps methodologists to pay attention to the **whats** of teaching and **Hows** of teaching.

2. Linguistics

As regard to linguistics as a branch involved in the Contrastive Analysis, there are the following points to be taken into consideration:

The Contrastive Analysis pays attention to different languages at the lexical, phonological, morphological, syntactical and semantic levels; and Contrastive studies find similarities and differences between languages in:

- Grammatical structures (pronouns, articles, verbs, consonants and vowels)
- Sentences and constructions (interrogatives, relatives, negatives, normal phrases, syllables, diphthongs...)
- Rules of the compared languages (interrogative, passivization ... etc.)

According to Richards (1971), researches show that contrastive analysis may be most predictive at the level of

phonology and least predictive at the syntactic level, for this, many of the common mistakes are syntactic errors in written work.

3. Textbook Writing:

As regard to Textbook Writing as a branch involved in Contrastive analysis, there is what is called the —Principle Programming for Writing a Textbook as well as there are the following two points that should be taken into consideration:

- The Contrastive analysis helps a textbook writer avoid using the material with a high degree of difficulty and high degree of occurrence in a same text (which makes the text more difficult)
- The writer should balance among the most difficult items and the least difficult items throughout the text.

4. Error Analysis:

- As regard to Error Analysis as a branch involved in Contrastive analysis, there is the following point that should be taken into consideration that CA helps you as a learner of English or any other language to classify the errors, predict and finally avoid them.

2.5. Interference Theory:

One of the most important factors in studying contrastive analysis is paying attention to the definition of "**Interference Theory**". It has been attested in literature that the contrastive analysis is a valid and useful but not a unique method in second language teaching, but language interference is a phenomenon that occurs when learning another language. James (1980, p.23) argues that

"Interference theory predicts that if a learner is called upon to produce some L2 form which he has not learnt, he will tend to produce an erroneous[= mistaken/wrong/incorrect]form having its origin in his L1." Similarly, Lado (1957, p. 2) considers that language interference is the way in which learners of a second language transfer "the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and respectively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives."

2.5.1. Based on Psycholinguistics:

You look at the second language through filter /glasses of the first language. The rules of the first language are matched with the rules of the second language.(You see that the rule systems of the source and target languages are different and sometimes the rules of languages are interfered with each other). So studying contrastive analysis can help you to understand and know these interferences. If certain elements of a second language differed greatly from the student's native language, that student would likely encounter difficulties. (Lado 1957) it means sometimes your mother tongue interferes. For example, /maryam muhtamat-un bi- qraa_ati l-kutub/
*Maryam is interested with reading books. /Maryam is interested **in** reading books.

2.5.2. Degrees of Difficulty:

Before discussing about the different hypothesis of contrastive analysis we should be familiar with the

concept of difficulty and simplicity in language study, so we look at the hierarchy (degrees of difficulty) in languages:

A contrastive analyst should predict the level of difficulties in foreign language to avoid using high degree of difficulties along with a high degree of occurrences in a same text. Now we study the different levels of difficulties:

1. Level 0: Transfer

According to some of behaviorists the principle of transfer is at work in learning. (Transfer: affecting the first language on the second one) Positive or Negative transfer.

1.1. Positive Transfer: It occurs when the first language is similar to the second language.

- In positive transfer first language helps learning the second language.
- No difference or contrast is present between the two languages. (Similar sounds, lexical items or similar structures in two languages are seen (positive transfer)).
- The learner can simply transfer (positively) a sound, a structure or lexical item form the native language to the target language. Concepts of negation and interrogation in two languages are the same. Word order in two languages has the same pattern. Such transfer makes no difficulty; hence the label of "level zero" is given to it. See the following examples: bank=بنك/bank/

1.2. Negative Transfer:

It is problematic, because of interference of the first language on the second one. It occurs when the first language is different from the second language. Learning differences in language takes a lot of time and energy. The first learning inhibits prevents the second learning.

2. Level 1 : Coalescence: Two or more items in the Native Language become coalesced (come together) into one item in the TL (here our NL is Arabic and TL is English). In NL 4 pronouns in Arabic anta anti – antumaa – antum – antunna = just 1 in English you in TL.

3. Level 2: Under-Differentiation: An item in the Native Language (NL) is absent in the Target Language(TL).

NB: The mark (?) indicates the absence of the item in the TL. Some Phonemes in Arabic χ , \varkappa , \hbar , ζ , and η =? In English-do not exist

4. Level 3: Over-Differentiation :

A new item in the Target Language (TL)(i.e. English) is absent in the Native Language (NL) (i.e. Arabic).

NB: The mark (?) indicates the absence of the item in the NL

- Consonants in English p, v, η =? In Arabic
- Phonemes in English /o p , v , ι , ζ , and η =? In Arabic
- Initial consonants cluster in English like (school – student) =? In Arabic
- Present perfect continuous (have been + ing) in English

=? In Arabic

- Future in the past (would + infinitive) in English =? In Arabic
- Past perfect continuous (had been + ing) in English =? In Arabic
- (am) in English = ? In Arabic

5. Level 4: Reinterpretation:

An item that exists in the native language (Arabic) is given a new shape or distribution. It is similar to a given item in the target language (English) but not the same.

An Arabic learner over-generalizes on the basis of similarities and make errors:

(Present Perfect and past tense in Arabic language = Present Perfect in English language
We have read this book. = / (qad)qara_naa hatha-l-kitaab/.

The number of tenses in English is more than those used in Arabic, so the time at which an action occurs can be expressed by more than one tense. The two sentences below express a past action by two different tenses, as in, (I wrote the letter). (Past simple) /katabt-u al- risaalat-a/ (I have written the letter. (Present perfect)

6. Level 5: Split: An item in the native language (Arabic) refers to more than one reference in the target language (English)

/taawilah/ = table, desk . /madrasah/ =school, institute, college
/ra_iis = president-director- head, chairman, chief, boss,
master /kabiir/= Big(mistake)

Great(man)Large(house)Grown up (boy)Major (problem)

6. Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH)

CAH Definition: is an extension of the notion of CA. It attributed the ability to predict errors to a CA of two languages, a predictability that practitioners associated with the degree of similarity between the two systems.

1. Advantages of CAH

- (i) Explains pronunciation and phonological interference
- (ii) Enhancing language learner awareness: which elements they can transfer from L1.

2. Problems for the CAH version However, the CAH version of CA, that is, the predictive version ran into some problems:

(i) Association with behaviorism:-1959 Noam Chomsky's classic review of Skinner's Verbal Behavior, in which Chomsky seriously challenged the behaviorist view of language. CAH, intimately associated with behaviorism, got caught in this discrediting of this view of language.

(ii) Mis-predictions: the supposed ability of CAH to predict errors was not supported by the facts. This is because:1.It under-predicted, that is, it failed to predict some errors; 2.It over- predicted, that is, it predicted some errors that failed to occur; and3.Of course, it also got some right.

4. Why?

- (i) As pointed out Long and Sato (1984),one cannot

depend upon the analysis of a linguistic product to yield meaningful insight into a psycholinguistic process.

(ii) In accordance with Psycholinguistics (Osgood 1953) "When two sets of materials to be learned are quite different or are easily discriminated by the learner, there is relatively little interaction, that is, learning one has little effect upon learning the other. If they are similar in such a way that the learning of one serves as partial learning of the other, there may be facilitation, or positive transfer. If, however, the similarities either of stimuli or responses are such that responses interfere with one another, then there will be greater interference as similarity increases.

(iii) Note CAH failed, not CA

(iv) The failure discussed thus far is the failure of CAH, not the failure of CA.

2.7. Strong vs. Weak Versions of CA

The following 3 points are what to take into consideration with regard to the Strong vs. Weak Versions of the CA:

Wardhaugh (1970) proposed a distinction between the strong and the weak version of the CA.

- The strong version [CAH] predicts apriori ((predictive)).
- The weak version deals with learner errors and uses CA, when applicable, to explain them, aposteriori, that is, after the fact. In fact, this was the beginning of error analysis, that is, the detecting of the source of errors.

2.8. Types of Contrastive Studies:

It is worth mentioning here that there are two types of Contrastive Studies: theoretical and applied. Fisiak (1981, p. 2) claims that theoretical contrastive studies are

concerned with showing the similarities and differences between two or more languages.

Applied contrastive studies, on the other hand, is a branch of applied linguistics and is mainly concerned with providing a framework for the comparison of languages drawing on the findings of theoretical contrastive studies. Such findings can be used for specific purposes, e.g. teaching, bilingual analysis, and translation (Fisiak)

2.9. How to Compare Languages:

- 1-Choosing a special theoretical model. (Traditional, structural or transformational)
- 2-Then structures are compared and contrasted. There are five steps for systematic comparison and contrast of two languages: **Selection -description -comparison - prediction - verification**

1) Selection:

- i. It is impossible to compare every sound,word,structure and etc., of two languages, so the analyst should be limited.
- ii.He/she can do the selection through:-Personal experience-Bilingual intuition-Error analysis
- iii.In this step you should decide what is to be compared with what.
- iv. Two elements to be compared in two languages should

be similar in some extent.

2) Description:

- The selected materials will be linguistically described.
- Two languages should be described within the same theory.
- For describing the sound systems of two languages we use structural phonology.
- For studying and describing syntax and morphology, there is no specific theory.
- The focus is on differences not similarities

3) Comparison:

- The similarities and differences are compared in three levels:-form-meaning and - distribution of items in 2 languages which have been collected
- No comparison is possible without a full description
- The basic elements and structures should be compared with each other

4) Prediction:

- Now the contrastive analyst can predict for the differences and similarities of two languages.
- He / she should judge whether these similarities and differences are problematic or not (deviant structures and interference structures are predicted.)
- Sometimes deviants reflect the structures of mother

tongue.

5) Verification:

It is the final step in a contrastive study and to find out if the predictions made in the fourth step (prediction) is true in reality or not. (Do Arabic learners of English, in reality commit the errors which the contrastive analyst predict it or not?)

2.10.Criticism of CA

- The process of L2 acquisition is not sufficiently described by the characterization of errors
- Errors in L2 acquisition do not only arise from interference
- The structural differences between two languages are not sufficient to predict the occurrence of errors in L2 acquisition. In its strongest formulation, the CAH claimed that all the errors made in learning L2 could be attributed to 'interference' by the L1. However, this claim could not be continued by empirical evidence that was accumulated in the mid-and late 1970s. It was soon pointed out that many errors predicted by CA were inexplicably not observed in learners' language.
- Even more confusingly, some uniform errors were made by learners irrespective of their L1. It thus became clear that CA could not predict learning difficulties, and was only useful in the retrospective explanation of errors. These developments, along with the decline/refuse of the paradigms by behaviorists as well as structuralists considerably weakened the appeal of CA.

3.ErrorAnalysis

3.1.General Overview

Because of shortcomings of the contrastive Analysis to clarifying the second-language errors, researchers began to look for another approach which was both theoretical and practical; this approach is called Error Analysis(EA). Of course, CA survived. No one can deny that the L 1 influences L2 performance. Thus, the next approach was to limit the analysis to the examination of errors that students actually made. The following 9 points are what to take into consideration with regard to the general overview of the Error Analysis (EA):

1. Learners_ L1 influences L2 learning. Of course, CA survived. No one can deny that the L1 influences L2 performance.
 2. Thus, the next approach was to limit the analysis to the examination of errors that students actually made.
 3. This, however, had its problems.
 4. EA Focuses on the errors L2 → learners produced while using L2 →Interlanguage is the starting point of analysis
 5. Investigating cross-linguistic influence, language transfer (from the point of view of errors)
1. Pit Corder (1967) The significance of learner's errors.
- L2 acquisition should not be looked at from a purely pedagogical perspective.
 - Errors in L2 are interesting because they reflect underlying linguistic rules.

- The study of L2 can be seen as a subfield of general linguistics or cognitive science.
- Mistake: random slip in performance → self-correction possible
- Error: systematic deviation from the norm caused by underlying competence problem → self-correction not possible
- The mathematical analysis done to show quantitatively how uncertainties in data produce uncertainty in calculated results, and to find the sizes of the uncertainty in the results.
- A type of work sample analysis in which the incorrect responses of the student are described and categorized.

In this procedure, samples of learner_s language are collected and the errors are identified, described, and classified according to their hypothesized causes. The errors are then evaluated for relative seriousness.

- The analysis of the errors could serve as basis for inferring the learning strategies the learners employ.

3.2. Contrastive Analysis Vs. Error Analysis:

Contrastive Analysis	Error Analysis
Pedagogical orientation	Scientific orientation
Focus on input	Focus on linguistic
practice inductive learning	Learning through cognitive processes
Errors of transfer	Multiple types of errors

3.3. Differences between Errors and Mistakes:

1. Errors are rule-governed; they are systematic and show the lack of knowledge of learners.
2. Mistakes are random deviations, unrelated to any system.
3. Mistakes may occur in writing of native speaker, or during speech, such as slips of tongue, slips of pen, and slips of the ear. Mistakes happen because of strong emotion, memory limitations, and lack of concentration or tiredness.
4. Sometimes the distinguishing between mistakes and errors is difficult, but according to linguistics, mistakes have a rather low frequency but errors have high frequency and they are systematic.

3.3.1. The errors can be described in the following three dimensions:

1. Types of Errors

2. Levels of Errors

3. Stages of Errors

3.3.1.1-Types of Errors:

1-Addition:

- Does can he go to college?
- He will to go home.
- He entered into the classroom.
- They always discuss about different matters.
- Please answer on my letter soon.
- Good writing is depends on several factors.
- He was going to home when I saw him.

2.Omission / Deletion:

- I went to # movie.(the)
- My father is # doctor. (a)
- I am learn # English well.(ing)
- I bought three new book# yesterday.(s)
- What # you want to do now?(do)

3.Ordering / Reordering:

- I to the cinema went.(I went to the cinema.)

- We last night went to the cinema.(We went to the cinema last night.)
- He comes always late to school.(He always comes to school late.)
- My brother is a driver fast.(My brother is a fast driver.)
- I don't know why is he late. (I don't know why he is late)

4.Substitution:

- I lost my road.(way)
- I goedhome.(went)
- I am not afraidfromdogs.(of)
- She was angry from her friend.(with)
- His bigger brother is a teacher.(elder)
- I always do many mistakes in spelling(make)

3.3.1.2-Levels of Errors:

- Phonology(Orthography)Error
- Grammar(Syntax)Error
- Lexicon(Vocabulary)Error
- Discourse Error

2.1. Phonology/ Orthography Error:

- I went to skuul.(I went to school.)
- he is happier than Maryam.(He is happier than Maryam.)

2.2. Grammar (Morphology and Syntax) Error:

- He has been in London since 1990.
- He was in London since 1990.(Level: Grammar-Type: substitution)
- I to the cinema went.(Level: Grammar.-type: ordering)

2.3. Lexicon(Vocabulary)Error:

- I lost my road. (Level: Lexicon-type: substitution)
- I drank a glass of lion yesterday. (Level: Lexicon-type: substitution)
- I enjoyed from the film. (Level: Lexicon-type: addition)

2.4. Discourse Error: it is beyond sentence level.

- A: How are you?
- B: The crops were destroyed by the rain!(No cohesion and coherence)

3.3.1.3-Stages of Errors :

1. Pre-systematic Stage
2. Systematic Stage
3. Post Systematic Stage

3.1. Pre-systematic Stage:

a.Random Errors:

The learner has no any definite rule in his mind. He can't explain his error and naturally cannot correct it. He she doesn't know where he should use the rules and how. He has no any system in mind.

Hassan cans sing.(Hassan can sing.)

- Hassan can to sing.(Hassan can sing. Or (Hassan has to sing.))
- Hassan can singing.(Hassan can sing. Or (Hassan like singing.))

b- Emergent Errors: In these kinds of errors, the learner tries to make a rule and internalize a system in his mind. These rules may not be correct but they are legitimate in the mind of the learner. Again in this stage the learner cannot correct the errors and even after correcting the native speaker he doesn't understand his errors. Avoidance of structures and topics can be seen here:

- Learner: I go to New York.
- Native-Speaker: You are going to New York?
- Learner: (doesn't understand) what?
- Native-Speaker: You will go to New York?
- Learner: Yes
- Native-Speaker: when?
- Learner: 1999

- Native-Speaker: Oh, you went to New York in 1999.
- Learner: Yes, I go 1999.(Again he doesn't understand the correction of the Native speaker.)

3.2-Systematic Errors:

- In this stage the learner is more mastered on language and he has some rules in his mind although these rules may not be well-formed.
- The system in his her mind is very near to the native speaker's.
- Learner: Many fish are in the lake. These fish are serving in the restaurants near the lake.
- Native speaker: (laughing) the fish are serving?
- Learner: (laughing) Oh, no, the fish are served in the restaurant.
- Learner: I lost my road.
- Native speaker: What?
- Learner: I got lost.(Paraphrasing and avoiding the use of structure)

3.3-Post-systematic Errors: (Stabilization)

- In this stage the learner has a few errors and has mastered the system.
- The learner is self-correcting her errors without waiting for feedbacks from someone else: Learner-I lost my road; I mean I lost my way.

a.Fossilization:

If the learner in this stage makes some errors it means his errors has been fossilized and correcting these kinds of errors will be very difficult, these errors are permanent.

4. Source of Errors:

4.1-Inter-lingual Transfer : Inter-lingual errors result from the transfer of the elements of the learner's mother tongue to the learning of the target language.

a) Transfer of Phonological Elements of the Mother Tongue:

/sukuul / instead of /skuul/

b) Transfer of Morphological Elements:

Three clever student instead of three clever students

c) Transfer of Grammatical Elements

I am going to university at 8 o'clock every day. In Arabic: Simple Present Tense= Present Progressive

d) Transfer of Lexicosemantic Elements:

Two different concepts in Arabic are used with the same word which makes interference in English:

- I can't study in the dormitory because some students open their radios loudly.
- He had a quarrel with his woman.

- My father bought a new machine last week.
- He smokes a lot of cigar.
- It was my chance to be in your class.

e) Transfer of Stylistic and Cultural Elements:

Mr. Hassan are a good teacher./al-,ustaath hasan
mudarris-un gayid/

4. **.2-Intra-lingual Transfer** The learner applies one rule in the Native Language for other structures in the Target Language inappropriately.

a)Overgeneralization

- I always try to study.
- We always go to cinema on Saturdays.
- Maryam and Hassan always play the chess-set every night.

b) Ignorance of Rule Restriction

The Arabic learner doesn't know the restriction and exceptions of a general rule in English.

- There are many fishes in the lake.
- Teachers always give us good advices

c)False Analogy

It refers to the use of certain elements in inappropriate

contexts through analogy

- *I think she should remain home and grow up her child.*

4.3-Language-Learning Strategies:

It refers to strategies used by the learners in dealing with the target language:

a) Overgeneralization

b) Transfer of rules from the mother tongue

c) Simplification:

(we discuss in here)in this strategy learner tries to simplify the rules of target language form himself:

- I am student English language.
- I begin my work afternoon usually

4.4-Communication Strategy:

It is used when the learner is forced to express himself with the limited linguistic resources

1- Paraphrase:"Pipe" instead of "the water pipe" /"Air-ball" (which the learner makes it himself) instead of "balloon"

2-Borrowing:

Don't be tired. Instead of don't work hard.(The learner translates word for word from the native language.)

3-Appeal for Assistance

What is this? What called? (The learner asks for the

correct term)

4-Mime:

Clapping his hands instead of applause (Using nonverbal action in place of lexical items)

4.5-Avoidance:

***Lexical Avoidance:**

I lost my road. You lost your road? Uh...I lost. I lost. I got lost.

I lost my road. You lost your road? Uh...I lost. I lost. I got lost.(The learner tries to avoid the lexical item 'road', not being able to come up with the word ' way' at that point)

***Syntactic Avoidance:**

He finished his homework; he went to bed.(Instead of "Having finished his homework, he went to bed.))

6-Prefabricated Patterns: The learner memorizes certain stock phrases or sentences:

- Where is the toilet?
- How much does it cost?
- Where is this address?

4.6.Language Switch: Finally, when all the strategies fail, learners may resort to language switch. That is, they may simply use their native language whether the hearer

knows it or not.

4.7 Context of Learning

The source of error here is teacher or text book. For example, wrong or unsuitable usage of a rule by teacher or using dialogues in a text book without mentioning the formality or informality of occurrences may cause some errors for learning.

4.6. Nonlinguistic Errors: (Idiosyncratic Errors):

These kinds of errors are specialized to individuals or a small group of learners who had the same teacher, used the same textbook, shared identical learning strategies, but the learners do not have a specific methodology for learning and cannot make a generalization for designing a textbook or give the students a specific learning activity.

5. Criticism of EA

There are three points to consider as to criticism of errors according to Schachter and Celce- Murcia (1977):

1. Focused only on errors
2. Did not deal with avoidance (relative clauses: Chinese and Japanese vs. Spanish and Farsi English passive avoidance by Arabic speakers, phrasal verbs by Hebrew speakers)
3. In short, EA did not deal with what the students were doing that caused them to succeed, that is, it did not deal with what led to learni

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