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**Faculty of Arts and Languages**

**Department of English Language**

**Linguistics: Lectures for Third-Year LMD  
Students**

**Designed by:**

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## **General Introduction**

A complete review with a detailed explanation of all areas of linguistics, and in particular applied linguistics is impossible to achieve in this linguistics course pedagogic document. The concept applied linguistics has several readings and interpretations. It is vague term that has the meaning of language pedagogy by applied linguistics. Applied linguistics also can cover all new linguistics disciplines as psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and pragmatics, in addition to others.

This course discusses the application of theoretical linguistics principles to solve language related problems. The major focus of this course is to familiarize students with the main areas related to applied linguistics. The course is purely introductory. It has the following objectives:

- To provide a broader background about the field of applied linguistics in general.
- To familiarize students with common concepts and terminologies within the field, and how this area of research informs language learning and vice versa.
- To introduce students to some of the key debates in applied linguistics in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT). In addition to being introduced to the major areas of applied linguistics, students will be expected to develop critical reading abilities.
- To equip the learners with pertinent knowledge about applied linguistics definitions, origins, foundations and scope.
- To arise third year L.M.D students` interest in language pedagogy and encourage them to become effective EFL teachers. In this course, they will have plenty of chances to

gain deep knowledge in each theme and sub-theme of applied linguistics and related issues.

The structure of this course of linguistics for third year L.M.D students covers several themes and sub-themes related to psycholinguistics, pragmatics, applied linguistics, and language pedagogy. These topics cover numerous core issues in the field of linguistics and applied linguistics. It should be noted that this syllabus can be subjected to serial modifications and adaptations to adjust with any innovation movement in the field. The headings of the subjects cover the following topics: it starts with . Then, the attention is dedicated to tracing the history of language teaching where the focus is on tracking the shift from teacher-centeredness towards learner-centeredness in terms of shedding light on foreign language teaching and learning approaches and methods related to each movement. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Competency Based Approach (CBA), and the Eclectic Approach take a special space in the diction of the syllabus. Additionally, topics as teaching language basic skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing; the integration of culture in foreign language teaching; classroom management; and testing assessment and evaluation are among the key elements of the module content planning.

The nature of the module of linguistics for third year students is entirely a lecture. Thus, learners' output will be measured via an exam in each academic year semester. The module is a part of the fundamental unit of third year class. The course of linguistics as fundamental subject in learners' educational path is backed by other subjects. Applied linguistic knowledge content in particular cannot be well-understood in isolation from theoretical linguistics, cognitive psychology, psycho-pedagogy and study skills. Hence, English language students should drive much attention to these subjects' content in order to have a wide clear vision about linguistics and applied linguistics-based topics.

# 1. Linguistics and Applied Linguistics: Conceptual Framework

## Introduction

The present lecture is an introductory framework to the whole module main axes. In this lecture the key concepts relevant to linguistics and applied linguistics will be defined from different angles and perspectives. Besides, this section will present the different linguistics types with a special focus on the scope of each type. Finally, applied linguistics' key issues and themes will be highlighted briefly at the end of this lecture.

### 1. Definition(s) of Linguistics

Several definitions were given to the concept linguistics by different scholars in the field. The most prominent ones are stated as follows:

#### 1.1. David Crystal (2008) – *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*

“**Linguistics** is the scientific study of language. It attempts to describe and explain the structure and function of language systematically, objectively, and based on empirical evidence.”

#### 1.2. Noam Chomsky (1965) – *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*

“Linguistics is concerned with discovering a system of rules (a grammar) that underlies the structure of a given language, and more generally, with uncovering the properties of the human language faculty.”

#### 1.3. Edward Finegan (2015) – *Language: Its Structure and Use*

“Linguistics is the study of human language, including its structure (grammar), use (pragmatics), history (historical linguistics), and psychological and social aspects (psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics).”

#### **1.4. George Yule (2016) – *The Study of Language***

“Linguistics is the systematic study of the properties and characteristics of human language, including phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics.”

#### **1.5. Victoria Fromkin, Robert Rodman, and Nina Hyams (2018) – *An Introduction to Language***

“Linguistics is the scientific inquiry into the nature, structure, and variation of language. It seeks to discover the underlying rules and principles that govern languages and how humans use them.”

#### **1.6. Ferdinand de Saussure (1916) – *Course in General Linguistics***

“Linguistics is the scientific study of language as a structured system of signs, where meaning arises from the relationship between signs within the system.”

## **2. Definitions of Applied Linguistics**

### **2.1. Guy Cook (2003) – *Applied Linguistics***

“Applied linguistics is the academic discipline concerned with the relation of knowledge about language to decision-making in the real world.”

### **2.2. Alan Davies (2007) – *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics***

“Applied linguistics is the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue.”

### **2.3. Barbara Seidlhofer (2003) – *Controversies in Applied Linguistics***

“Applied linguistics is not so much an application of linguistic knowledge but a field of enquiry in its own right, addressing issues where language plays a central role in social and educational problems.”

### **2.4. Chris Brumfit (1995) – *Language and Literature Teaching: From Practice to Principle***

“Applied linguistics is the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue.”

### **2.5. Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics (Chapelle, 2013)**

“Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field that identifies, investigates, and offers solutions to language-related real-life problems.”

### **2.6. Rod Ellis (1999) – *Learning a Second Language Through Interaction***

“Applied linguistics is concerned with the role of language in human affairs and seeks to develop ways of helping people to solve language-related problems.”

### **2.7. Richard & Schmidt (2010) – *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics***

“Applied linguistics is the study of language-related problems in specific situations, especially in language teaching, learning, and assessment.”

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## **2. Understanding Pragmatics: The Theoretical Foundations of the Linguistics` Sub-Discipline**

### **Introduction**

Pragmatics is a major study of linguistics that defines the hidden meanings of a writer and a speaker towards the conjoining effort of linguistic form. However, pragmatics does not only deal with the meaning making of a given sentence, it goes necessarily with a relation to the hidden meaning of a speaker or writer. It could be referred that the field of pragmatics attempts to identify what is unsaid or unwritten (Siddiqui, 2018: 77).

Pragmatics is a discipline- within linguistics that deals with actual language use. In this vein, language use is not only dependent on linguistic, that is grammatical and lexical knowledge, but also on cultural, situative, and interpersonal context and convention. One of the main aims of pragmatics is to research how context and convention contribute to meaning and understanding (Senft, 2014: 13). Hence, within pragmatics the importance is usually given to contextual meaning, where every other meaning of given context is referred to speaker or writer who wishes to mention something. Thus, the field of pragmatics aids to deal with speaker`s or writer`s intended meaning (Siddiqui, 2018: 77).

If pragmatics is "the study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed" (Stalnaker, 1997: 383), speech act theory constitutes a central subdomain along with the analysis of explicit performative utterances and direct speech acts. Speech act theory has evolved considerably from the early work initiated by Austin and Searle (Horn and Ward, 2004) . The current study attempts to address the theoretical foundations of pragmatics. The objective of this study is to introduce pragmatics through presenting its theoretical foundations via giving overviews of the basic subfields within pragmatic theory. In this study,

a special attention will be devoted to Speech Act Theory which is the study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are formed.

The study attempts to answer the following key questions:

(1) What is pragmatics and what are its theoretical basics ?

(2) What are the basic subfields within pragmatics theory ?

(3) What are the basics of Speech Act Theory in matching linguistic acts with the contexts in which they are formed ?

### **1. The Origin and Development of Pragmatics**

Pragmatics is the study of language according to contexts. According to Yule (1996: 127), "*it is the study of invisible meaning or how we recognize what is meant even when it is not actually said (or written)*". The origin of pragmatic interpretation of language lies in philosophy of language, a branch of philosophy enriched with the contribution of philosophers' writings dedicated to inquire into the nature, origin, and usage of language (Hakim, 2013: 26).

Pragmatics is relatively new branch of linguistics, its historical development dates back to ancient Greek and Roman academic works related to philosophy where the terms 'pragmaticus' is found in late Latin and 'pragmaticos' in Greek , the two terms mean 'being pragmatical' (Abraham, 2016: 37). Then, the term pragmatics was first coined and emerged in linguistic philosophy in 1930s. During that time, western philosophers started to shift their attention and focus on studies of language symbols that develops into semiology later. Early pragmatics was just a branch of semiology under philosophers' studies. This demonstrates in a clear way that it originates from philosophers' study of language (Abraham, 2016: 37).

Among the philosophers who have played a significant role in the development of pragmatics, one can mention Morris, Austin, Searle, Levinson, Pierce, Grice, in addition to others. Wittgenstein and Austin had discussed the origin of Pragmatics in England, France and Germany in 1930s. Morris who played a significant role in the first stage of the development of pragmatics asserts that the study should incorporate the aspects of society, psychology, culture and the things that affect the symbols and their meanings. The most influential thing he introduced on pragmatics was his division of Semiology into three parts: Syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Carnap, on his part, had approximately similar with Morris, but with some additions. According to him, the study of pragmatics must focus on the relationship between language users and words in addition to the reference of words (Abraham, 2016: 38).

The remarkable development in the field of pragmatics was initiated by Austin and Searle when they formulated the Speech Act Theory. This theory is the most influential topic in the study of pragmatics. Besides, the writings and publications of the Journal of Pragmatics in Holland by Levinson and Leech in 1983 and the creation of the International Pragmatic Association in 1987 at Antwerp, Belgium indicated that pragmatics has become an independent discipline in the field of linguistics.

Finally, the discipline of pragmatics has been developing in a fast way since the 1980s. It has made some remarkable development and attracted scholars and students to explore it via conducting researches in this linguistic sub-branch.

## **2. Definition(s) and Scope of Pragmatics**

Various definitions were given to the concept `pragmatics`. Charles Morris, being influenced by Charles Sanders Pierce introduced this term in 1983 and used it as a branch of

semiotics, defined it as "the study of the relation of signs to interpreters" (Morris, 1983). Later, this concept was taken in linguistics for granted as a name of one of its core branches dealing with usage of language.

Leech (1983: 13-14), stated that pragmatics is the study of meaning and the way to associate that discourse with any given situation. The important aspects of pragmatics, according to Leech, indicated that it is the study of meaning that is matched with speech making situation. Within pragmatics, the four (4) principle aspects are the following:

- Addressees and addressers.
- An utterance in a context, Leech asserted that the involvement of relevant utterance in social and physical setting, and the background knowledge that is related to the context.
- Leech defines the goals of an utterance as well as the meaning of intention towards uttering it.
- The utterance is a form of activity or an act, within pragmatics, the verbal utterance can also performed like acts to parch needs of a particular situation.

(Cited in Siddiqui, 2018: 78).

According to Crystal (1985), "Pragmatics is the study of the aspects of meaning and language use that are dependent on the speaker, the addressee and other features of the context of the utterance". Moreover, for Kemson (1986), pragmatics is the study of the general cognitive principles involved in the retrieval of information from an uttered sequence of words (Cited in Abdulghani and Abdullahi, 2021: 102).

As far as the scope of pragmatics is concerned, this discipline deals with meaning and involves the fundamental approach to view meaning and its relationship with reality. Today, this linguistics sub-field covers other areas such as psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, neurolinguistics, etc. Recently, pragmatics dwells on those factors of language use that govern the choice individuals make in social interaction and the effect of those choices on others (Crystal, 1985: 120 in Abraham, 2016: 38 – 39).

### **3. The Basic Sub-Fields within Pragmatics**

This research sub-element discusses micro pragmatics (the pragmatics of utterance based concepts such as deixis, anaphora, presupposition, etc.) and macro pragmatics (the pragmatics of discourse based concepts such as speech events, global intentionality or macro speech acts). Its aim is to show how micro pragmatics and macro pragmatics (have come to) complement each other, both conceptually and in terms of the division of labor across the field of contemporary linguistic pragmatic (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011).

Micro-pragmatics can be defined as the study of illocutionary force at the utterance level. On the contrary, the focus of macro-pragmatics is not on the utterance, but on a series or a sequence of utterances which form full discourses, that are seen as bearers of intentionality resulting from different speech act configurations, often referred to as initiators of complex effects (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011: 54).

The difference between micro and macro-pragmatics stems from several factors. First, if pragmatics is the study of meaning in context, then context can be understood from different angles. Contextual considerations which are used for determining the function and effect of an utterance may or may not stop within the boundaries of the language form used. Thus, we need a conceptual handle on the interface

between smaller and larger functional units of discourse (e.g. speech act versus speech event), coded in smaller or larger forms (e.g. utterance versus text).

Second, since context is complex, dynamic and multilayered, the accessibility of contextual cues is a matter of degree (Marmaridou 2000). The more access to embedding of an utterance or a series of utterances, the better profiled the meaning. Hence a tendency on the part of the analyst to pile up contextual cues and to add to the picture as much of the 'prehistory' of the discourse situation as possible and feasible (Cited in Bublitz and Norrick, 2011: 54).

. The domains of micro- and macro-pragmatics are complementary in terms of their contribution to analytic labor. There is no micro-pragmatic analysis that would not provoke a macro-pragmatic extension of scope; similarly, there is no macro-pragmatic study that would not question, retrospectively, its micro-pragmatic components.

#### **4. Speech Act Theory**

The idea of speech acts was first introduced by the British philosopher John Langshaw Austin (1911 – 1960) who worked in Oxford and defined his idea in a series of his delivered lectures that were published before his death under the heading of 'How to do things with words'.

Two main ideas are at the core of speech act theory: the first holds that the meaning of an utterance is distinct from the function that the utterance performs (what we shall call the force of an utterance); the second is that all utterances amount to the execution of an act. Both these ideas well predate Austin's theory

(See Sbisà 2009a). However, this is the first account that incorporates both in a radically innovative philosophical explanation of linguistic communication. In a nutshell, speech act theory advances the fundamental claim that speech is a form of action rather than a device for describing the world. The theory compels us to see communication not simply as the passing of information between a speaker and a hearer, but rather as the consequential and mutual acting of participants upon each other (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011: 54).

According to Austin, speech acts are certain verbs that are used within sentences to be classified accordingly. Austin defines his idea accordingly in order to introduce the differences between two major verbs: (Performative and Constative). Austin claims that there is a large number of performative verbs in English which, when put in explicit performative form, effect an action. Here are some: *to christen, to bequeath, to promise, to acquit, to sentence, to resign, to excommunicate, to vote for, to bet*. Performative verbs are the tools to achieve the goals of interaction between speakers. The most suitable example is the verb (promise) which deals with linguistic act in a pure manner.

When a person engages in a speech, they carry out three (3) types of acts: (1) locutionary acts, this type of speech act usually deals with the speaker when a certain reference and sense is expressed by him; (2) illocutionary act, in this type the speaker uses some performative verb to express the intentions within the sentence; and (3) perlocutionary acts, this type of act deals with the effect of an action from a linguistic point of view (Siddiqui, 2018: 79).

## **Conclusion**

This study has attempted to provide and equip the reader with a vital knowledge about the theoretical foundations of pragmatics focusing on the definition, development, and scope of pragmatics. The study in hand also gave much space to one of the key themes of pragmatics, which is speech act theory of John Langshaw Austin and its attempt to interpret utterances meaning via considering performative verbs as linguistic acts.

The study through reviewing reliable literature associated with its theme traced the theoretical basics of pragmatics via giving overviews of the basic subfields within pragmatic theory. It is expected that this research work gave a clear vision of pragmatics via reviewing, analyzing, and interpreting the reliable existing literature related to the research topic in hand.

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### 3. First Language Acquisition

#### Introduction

First language (L1) acquisition has been one of the central issues dealt with by both linguists and psycholinguists. A considerable number of research studies have been carried out over past several decades to investigate how child language acquisition mechanism takes place.

There are some basic theories advanced to describe how language is acquired. However, two (02) theories of (L1) acquisition have been very prominent as they have propounded two (02) revolutionary schools of thought: **Behaviorism** and **Mentalism**. It is important to note that behaviorist theory and mentalist theory are mainly applicable to the acquisition of native languages while the rest – cognitive theory, empiricist theory, etc – can account for foreign language learning. Both behaviorism together with mentalism are very much complementary to each other as they represent various explanations and cases of language acquisition.

#### I / - Behaviorism

##### 1 The Background of the Behaviorist Theory

Behaviorism, which is basically a psychological theory in its essence, was a dominant school of psychology from the 1920s to the 1960s founded by J.B Watson.

The supporters of this theory are Leonard Bloomfield, Mowrer, B.F Skinner, and A.W Staats. It was advanced in America as a new approach to psychology by making a particular emphasis on the importance of verbal behavior.

Behaviorist theory traced back to Watson's (1924) habit formation hypothesis. A habit can be defined as the association of a particular response with a particular stimulus. Thus, a habit is formed when a particular response becomes regularly linked with a particular stimulus.

Later, behaviorists, as Skinner, developed their theories on Pavlov's studies of animal behavior in laboratory experiments with dogs and Thorndike's experiments with cats in puzzle boxes. The claim of this theory is that all animals, including human beings, are born with a set of instinctive responses to external stimuli. As a result, theories of habit formation were theories of learning in general, and until the end of the 1960s views of language learning were derived from a theory of learning in general.

Skinner introduced the notion "operant conditioning". Skinner's operant conditioning focuses on using either reinforcement or punishment (negative reinforcement) to increase or decrease the existence of behavior. Reinforcements are rewards whereas negative ones are punishments. The response of the learner is positive rewarded or punished depending whether it is appropriate or not, until only appropriate responses are given. He anticipated that this theory explained human language acquisition.

(Mohammed Torikul Islam: First Language Acquisition Theories and Transition to SLA, The Asian Conference on Language Learning, Jazan University, 2013)

## **2 Basic Principles of Behaviorist Theory**

The main principles of behaviorism can be stated briefly as follows:

- 1) – Behaviorism theory focuses on acquiring spoken language. Behaviorists believe that the primary medium of language is oral. According to them, speech is language because there are many languages without written forms, because we learn to speak before we learn to read and write. Additionally, language is primarily what is spoken and secondarily what is written. That's why spoken language was of top priority in the studies of behaviorists.
- 2) – Language acquisition is a habit formation. Language acquisition is not problem-solving centered process but the information and performance of habits. That is, language acquisition

is a mechanical process. In this context, language acquisition is similar to learning to type, manipulate on the computer, riding bicycle, and so forth.

3) – Language is universal. That is, the external factors play a crucial role in acquiring languages. Among the factors that participate in acquiring languages: the family milieu, society, psychological facts, environment, etc. Behaviorists focus on the external factors that can be seen and observed.

4) – Stimulus and response is one of the main principles in language acquisition.

5) – Reinforcement, repetition, trial and error are the basics of first language acquisition.

### **3 Counterarguments on Behaviorist Theory**

The above listed principles of the behaviorist theory are very easy questionable. Thus, the weak points of behaviorism can be summarized in the following points:

1) – This school was derived from the study of animals behavior; e.g. Pavlov' s dog. The linguistic behavior of humans is incomparable with that of animals and cannot be explained in terms of chain of stimuli-responses. Behaviorists claim that they can explain all kinds of behavior, but complex thoughts in language cannot be explained in behavior.

2) – No regards are given to the innate capacity of human being in acquiring languages and gives interest to what is seen and observed.

3) – The basic strategies of language acquisition within the scope of behaviorist are imitation, reinforcement, and rewarding. But, researches made on the acquisition of L1 have demonstrated that children' s imitation of structures show evidence of almost no innovation. Moreover, children vary considerably in the amount they imitate. Since children do not imitate structures like words, phrases, clauses, and sentences at the same rate. Hence, they will naturally learn at different rates. Though it must be admitted that imitation is very useful in the acquisition of new vocabulary items.

For reinforcement and rewarding, this view receives little support from the available evidence. Parents only correct simple structures, and complex structures are occasionally corrected.

4) – According to the traditions of behaviorist theory, time should considerably be long enough for acquiring languages.

## **II/ - Mentalism**

### **1 The Background of the Mentalist Theory**

Noam Chomsky's (1957) criticism of the behaviorist theory of language acquisition leads to the emergence of mentalism. Chomsky argued that extrapolating from studies of animal behavior in laboratory condition could show nothing about how human beings acquire language in natural conditions. He stressed rather the active contribution of the child, and minimized the importance of imitation and reinforcement.

In his article entitled "Review of Verbal Behavior" (1959), Chomsky criticized behaviorism on the basis of novelty and creativity of child language use that a child never heard before and proposed completely different view of language acquisition.

The supporters of this theory are mainly Chomsky and Lenneberg. Their claims and observations gave birth to the existence of Mentalist Theory as an alternative to describe the process of acquiring languages. Chomsky's claim is centered on the fact that child's knowledge of their mother language is derived from a Universal Grammar (UG) which specifies the essential form that any natural language can take. It should be noted in this framework that the universal grammar exists as a set of innate linguistic principles which comprises the initial state and which controls the form which sentences of any given language can take.

Chomsky named the biological ability of acquiring languages as the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) which contains a set of universal grammar principles common to

all possible human languages. Infants universally possess an innate grammar template that allows them to select and construct the grammar of their own native language. His idea is that a child constructs grammar through a process of hypothesis testing. To illustrate, the past tense of verbs is formed by adding (ed) after the main verbs, so the child says (goed) and this is what psycholinguists call overgeneralization (simply, they over generalize the use of the regular past suffix (ed) to irregular verbs). Eventually, the child revises their hypothesis to accommodate exception of the past tense of irregular verbs. Accordingly, children create sentences by using rules rather than by merely repeating what they have heard.

Additionally, the biologist Eric Lenneberg (1967) further bolstered the claim of mentalists by emphasizing the biological prerequisites of language acquisition. His assertion is that only human beings can acquire and learn a language. His argument is that child's brain is especially adapted to the process of language acquisition. Thus, Lenneberg's work provided empirical and theoretical support for the concept of a built-in-mental capacity or LAD as a part of human beings biological endowments.

The argument for the existence of Lenneberg's built-in-mental capacity or Chomsky's LAD in human brain is that when a child acquires a language, they are usually exposed to poor or incorrect forms, e.g. slips of the tongue, interruptions, false starts, lapses, etc. yet, they are able to acquire the language and use it correctly, and surprisingly produce sentences they never heard before. This is because children deduct rules from the received input rather than only imitating the language being used around them.

## **2 Basic Principles of Mentalist Theory**

The main principles of behaviorism can be stated briefly as follows:

1) – Mentalists focused on the internal factors. They believed that each child has an innate capacity "Innateness Hypothesis" to acquire languages.

2) - Chomsky (2004, 17) argues that children's ability to acquire language is due to a genetically programmed organ that is located in the brain. Once children are born and are involved in linguistic environments, they immediately start to develop a language.

3) – Most of the principles of behaviorism like reinforcement, rewards, repetition, etc are not important because infants can acquire language with and without these principles. Innatists believed that there is no role for the external factors like family and social milieu in acquiring languages.

4) - Children acquire language without parental assistance and without the use of general intelligence. For Chomsky, the only way to explain how children acquire the complex system of language is if they are born with an innate ability to acquire language. Consequently, Chomsky created the Innateness Hypotheses and suggests that children are born with a mental grammar that produces knowledge of language. So without having an inborn Universal Grammar, children's language acquisition process would be more complicated and probably take a longer time.

### **3 Counterarguments on Mentalist Theory**

Although Chomsky's hypothesis has revolutionized modern linguistics and brought great changes to the study of language acquisition, the basis for this human ability is still cause for debate. Therefore, the weak points of mentalism can be summarized in the following points:

1) – Mentalists emphasized on the innate capacity of children and neglected the outer factors. Around this point, one of the linguist who rejects Chomsky's theory is Michael Tomasello (2000, 156), he argues that children *imitatively learn* language. He believes that children hear the language speech that is used around them, then use their social skills to progressively start to categorize, put in schemas, and creatively combine individually learned expressions.

Therefore, children use language to acquire knowledge of language. In other words, children's language use helps them create language knowledge.

2) - In summary, the critics against Chomsky's hypothesis dwell on the nature of Universal Grammar and question its existence. According to Bybee (2010, 18), children's system of grammar is not self-contained or stagnant, but is subject to change and motivated by language use. Furthermore, Bybee (2010, 18) suggests that a child's linguistic experience grows with interaction and exposure to language.

### **Conclusion**

To sum up, while the knowledge of language seems to be innate, children must learn the words of their language. Despite the complexity of the process of learning words from scratch, children seem to unconsciously know exactly what they need do in order to become fluent speakers of their mother tongue. Even though there are many theories that account for how that happens, the Innateness Hypothesis seems to be the one that meets the challenge if added considering the critics given.

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## **4. Cognitive Factors Influencing Second Language Learning**

### **1. Introduction**

Chomsky is the leading figure in contemporary linguistics. Starting in the 1950s, his development of generative grammar was an important factor in the shift from behavioristic to cognitive approaches to language and mind. An educational interpretation of L 2 teaching/learning needs a model that allows the identification of the factors that influence L 2 interactive teaching and learning processes at each stage of its development, mainly cognitive – related factors.

It should be noted that a great deal of EFL teachers' time is spent helping learners struggling with L 2 learning. Although many variables have been identified which account for success, this knowledge has not produced a universal theory of second language acquisition. Consequently, scholars are increasingly arguing that successful teachers and learners combine these factors in unique ways in the process of self-regulated learning.

In an attempt to understand this process more clearly, this research study investigates the existence of a link between cognitive style, intelligence, and learning strategies. Meanwhile, this research, generally, aims to elaborate cognitivism and its implications to the second language learning by analyzing the three views on second language acquisition (the behaviorist view, the innatist view, and the interactionist view). In the second place, the present study describes language proficiency and the influence of cognition on second language acquisition. Then the study sheds light on intelligence and aptitude, and cognitive learning styles as key cognitive factors influencing second language (L2) learning.

### **2. Theories of Language Acquisition/Learning**

Second language acquisition borrows its theories from a range of disciplines and numerous theorists. These theories can mainly be classified into three groups on the ground of three prominent views: the behaviorist view, the innatist view, and the interactionist

view.

### **2.1. The Behaviorist view**

The model was very popular in the forties and fifties owing to the works of Ivan Pavlov, B.F. Skinner, John Watson, Bloomfield, and others. It is also related to the empiricist school due to its concern with the physical and the observable. In this view, the main focus in learning is change of behavior through habit formation, and the existence of stimuli and response. For several decades this school of thought was very dominant in various areas of learning, including language learning. In *Verbal Behavior*, B.F. Skinner (1957) argued that language acquisition was a form of operant conditioning directly resulted from adult modeling and reinforcement, imitation, practice and habit formation on the part of child. Another main feature of behaviorist view is the existence of reinforcement – both positive and negative. A child will be given praise and physical rewards when he gives a correct utterance. On the other hand, if the utterance is not correct, the reward will be suspended.

### **2.2. The Innatist view**

Partly in response to the apparent inadequacies in the behaviorist view, the innatist model of language acquisition/learning gained ground. It gives increased importance to innate factors in language acquisition. The earliest spokesman for the innatist view was Noam Chomsky, who asserted that humans have a special innate capacity for human language called Language acquisition Device (LAD). He maintained that every child is born with universals of linguistic structure or "universal grammar". Chomsky (1957) argued that when a child was exposed to the language of his community, this "language acquisition device" would be triggered and child becomes a speaker of that language.

This strong version of the innatist position received support from biologically based research relating to language development. Lenneberg (1964) drew attention to some

important ways in which language acquisition is more akin to genetically determined skills, such as walking than to culturally transmitted ones which are the results of training. His work links language acquisition to biological maturation. According to him, humans have a specific predisposition for language acquisition and exposure in the environment is a necessary condition for language acquisition.

### **2.3. The Interactionist View**

Observation of children's language in natural setting, have forced to locate language acquisition within a social framework. Piaget (1973) was concerned with general questions about the nature of knowledge and of human intellectual development. His theories are linked with language education programs involving process or activity rather product of content. According to him, human beings progress through a series of fixed stages at variable ratio. As we grow, we both assimilate (incorporate new information within an existing framework) and accommodate (adapt our behavior to the environment). Piaget concedes that language becomes increasingly important as intelligence develops, but he does not view language as the source of thought. Dell Hymes (1971) also proposed a model of communicative competence. This competence will make persons able to express and interpret messages appropriately in specific communicative contexts (Goh, 2004: 17-22).

### **2.4. Language as a Cognitive Skill**

Second language acquisition is better understood with a description of the interaction between language and cognition. In cognitive theory, individuals are said to process information, and thoughts involved in this cognitive activity are referred to as "mental processes". Learning strategies are special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension and learning.

Anderson (1983) has described cognitive skill acquisition as a "three-stage process". He distinguishes between what "we know about" or static information in memory, and what

we know "how to do" or dynamic information in memory. All the things "we know about" constitute declarative knowledge, and the things "we know how to do" are procedural knowledge. Declarative knowledge is maintained in long-term memory in terms of meaning or propositional representation. Our ability to understand and generate language or to apply our knowledge of rules to solve a problem would be examples of procedural knowledge. Declarative knowledge or factual information may be acquired quickly, procedural knowledge such as language acquisition is acquired gradually and only with extensive opportunities for practice.

With a connection to the theories of second language acquisition, the behaviorist theory of learning portrayed the learner as passive receiver of information, whereas the cognitive view takes the learner to be an active processor of information (Ausubel et al., 1987). Learning and using a rule requires learners to think, that is, to apply their mental powers in order to distil a workable generative rule from the mass of data presented, and then to analyze the situations where the application of the rule would be useful or appropriate. Learning, then, is a process in which the learner actively tries to make sense of data, and learning can be said to have taken place when the learner has managed to impose some sort of meaningful interpretation or pattern on the data. This may sound complex, but in simple terms what it means is that we learn by thinking about and trying to make sense of what we see, feel and hear. (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 43).

The basic teaching techniques associated with a cognitive theory of language learning may cover the following activities: (1) problem based learning (problem solving), (2) discovery learning, (3) cognitive strategies, (4) project based learning, etc.

### **3. Cognitive factors influencing second language (L2) learning**

Second language learners are different. They learn with different speed and different results. The general factors that influence second language learning include: intelligence

and aptitude, and cognitive learning styles.

### **3.1. intelligence and aptitude**

The studies on intelligence - (Intelligence Quotient ) IQ tests scores – show a strong relationship between intelligence and acquisition of a foreign language as far as academic skills are concerned. Learners with high IQ achieve better results on language tests. It is proved that intelligence can predict the rate and success of second language acquisition in the formal language classroom (Genesee 1976). "The ability to perform well in standard intelligence tests correlates highly with school related second language learning" (Spolsky 1989: 103).

It is assumed that some people are gifted and they learn foreign languages with ease. It was observed that learners acquire a language with different results despite the fact that they are at the same age and are equally motivated. It is not just intelligence that can explain these differences. Students need aptitude – some specific abilities, which are responsible for learning languages.

One of the tests that measured aptitude are Carroll and Sapon' s Modern Language Aptitude Test – MLAT - (1959). Carroll describes aptitude as a stable factor, which cannot be trained; it is separate from motivation , achievement and intelligence. It is an ability that allows to learn an L2 faster and with less effort. He identified four factors in language aptitude: phonemic coding ability, grammatical sensitivity, inductive language learning ability and rote learning ability.

Later studies conducted by Skehan (1989) were concentrated on the underlying complexity of language aptitude and its relation to first language acquisition and second language learning. He has shown two predictors of the language aptitude: "a general language processing capability" and "an ability to use language in a decontextualized way".

Skehan's findings show that aptitude consists of abilities identified by earlier researchers and the ability to deal with context-free language, which is connected with learning academic skills and intelligence (Ellis, 1994).

It is still not known whether intelligence is a part of aptitude or they are separate notions. Cummins (1983) distinguished language abilities into two: cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) and basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS). He suggested that CALP might be related to general intelligence and BICS to aptitude.

### **3.2. Cognitive Learning Styles**

Cognitive learning styles was described as "the characteristic cognitive, affective, and psychological behaviors that serve relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment" (Keefe 1979, Cited by Ellis 1994: 499). Students' learning styles can be influenced by many factors among which are their genetic background, their culture and previous learning experience. It is said that if teachers match their teaching methods to the students' learning styles, the students will be more successful and more interested in the language..

Reid (1987) identified four learning modalities: Visual (seeing), auditory (listening), kinaesthetic (moving), or tactile (touching). Visual learners learn through seeing. They prefer to see a teacher during a lesson, learn by visuals: pictures, wall displays, diagrams, videos. They make notes during lectures and use lists to organize their thoughts. Auditory learners learn through listening. They prefer verbal instructions, like dialogues, discussions and plays, solve problems by talking about them, use rhythm and sound as memory aids. Kinaesthetic learners learn through moving and doing. Tactile learners learn through touching. They use writing and drawing.

The other learning styles are described by Willing (1987), who distinguished:

- (1) Concrete learning style: direct means of processing information, people-oriented, spontaneous, imaginative, emotional, dislikes routinized learning, prefers kinaesthetic modality.
- (2) Analytical learning style: focuses on specific problems and proceeds by means of hypothetical –deductive reasoning, object oriented, prefers logical didactic presentation.
- (3) Communicative learning style: highly adaptable and flexible, responsive to facts that do not fit, prefers social learning and a communicative approach, enjoys taking decisions.

(4) Authority – oriented way of learning: reliant to other people, needs teachers' directions and explanations, likes a structured learning environment, intolerant to factors that do not fit (Ellis, 1994: 507).

#### **4. Conclusion**

From the elaboration in what is said above, the researcher can said that cognitive theory or approach can be grouped in the innatist model which focuses on the role of mental or psycholinguistic processes. This tradition is also known as 'mentalism', 'nativism', or 'rationalism'.

Additionally, cognitive approach that views the learner as a thinking – being and an active processor of information can be applied to improve the learners' intelligence. In other words, the type of activities will make the learner to think more critically towards certain educational topics. Meanwhile, teachers can benefit from this trend(cognitivism) in English language teaching.

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## 5. Genre Analysis

### 1. Introduction

There has been a lot of interest in genre analysis of various types of texts over the past ten years. This method, which directly stems from discourse analysis and text analysis, is widely employed in the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

However, needs analysis, syllabus design, and material creation for ESP courses cannot be immediately and directly assisted by discourse and text analysis. According to Dudley-Evans (1986), text analysis is more concerned with "top down" analysis, which seeks to identify universal characteristics of all texts, than it is with the analysis of specific text kinds or genres. John Swales' 1981 study on article introductions served as a sort of link between the fundamental principles of discourse and text analysis and the demands of ESP for suitable curricula and resources.

Genre analysis is "directly applicable to the classroom," according to Hyland (1992), who emphasizes "the critical role of rhetorical text structure". According to Dudley-Evans (1987), its research has revealed "similar rhetorical patterns... in academic writing."

### 2. Definition(s) of Genre and Genre Analysis

Discourse analysis may overlap with genre analysis. Dudley-Evans and St John show the distinction between the two notions:

*"Any study of language or, more specifically, text at a level above that of a sentence is a discourse study. This may involve the study of cohesive links between sentences, of paragraphs, or the structure of the whole text. The results of this type of analysis make statements about how texts –any text- work. This is applied discourse analysis. Where,*

*however, the focus of text analysis is on the regularities of structures that distinguish one type of text from another, this is genre analysis and the results focus on the differences between text types, or genres" (1988: 87).*

The term 'genre' was first used by Swales (1981, Quoted in Robinson, 1991). He defined 'genre' as "a more or less standardized communicative event with a goal or set of goals mutually understood by the participants in that event and occurring within a functional rather than a personal or social setting" (Swales, 1981: 10-11, quoted in Robinson, 1991).

According to a renowned author (Vijay K. Bhatia, 1993), genre analysis is the study of situated linguistic behavior in institutionalized academic or professional settings. According to him, genre analysis has the following features:

(1) Genre analysis shows a genuine interest in the use of language to achieve communicative goals. In this sense, it is not an extension of linguistic formalism.

(2) But, genre analysis does not represent a static description of language use, instead, it gives a dynamic explanation of the way expert users of language manipulate generic conventions to achieve a variety of complex goals. In this sense, it combines the advantages of sociolinguistics perspective, especially the use of ethnographic information, with those of cognitive perspective, especially regarding the tactical use of language.

(3) It is narrow in focus but wide in vision, focusing on specific differentiation in language use at various levels of generality.

(4) Genre analysis is primarily motivated by applied linguistic concerns, especially language teaching at various levels. (Bhatia 1993: 22)

English for Specific Purposes focuses on studying and teaching specialized varieties of English in advanced academic and professional settings. ESP is often used as an umbrella term to include more specialized areas of study such as English for science and technology (EST). It is largely due to Swales' work (his book *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*) and the research it has inspired over the last twenty years that ESP and genre analysis have become in different ways synonymous.

### **3. Genre and Text Type: Distinctive Features**

One way of making a distinction between 'genre' and 'text type' is to say that the former is based on external and non-linguistic criteria while the latter is based on the internal, linguistic characteristics of texts themselves (Biber, 1988: 70,170). In this view, a genre is defined as a category assigned on the basis of external criteria such as intended audience, purpose, and activity type; that is, it refers to a conventional, culturally recognized grouping of texts based on properties other than lexical or grammatical occurrence features, which are, instead, the internal linguistic criteria forming the basis of 'text type' categories. Biber says about the external criteria: "Genre categories are determined on the basis of external criteria relating to the speaker's purpose and topic; they are assigned on the basis of use rather than on the basis of form" (1988: 170).

#### **4. Genre and Genre Analysis Aims and Significance**

Genre theory provides a means for practitioners to learn specific characteristics about writing within a discipline and to be aware of the linguistic and rhetorical skills necessary to communicate successfully in the discipline. Empirical studies that analyze genre within the framework of activity theory have shown the need for familiarity with the genres used by a certain community to become a member of that community. Simply speaking, genres are instruments that members of a community use to share information, mediate social activities, and respond to the communicative needs of the community.

In the same context, genre researchers can improve understanding of technical communication practice by analyzing the organizational and social context in which writing takes place by studying genres in relation to the activity system of a community, and by exploring the linguistic and rhetorical features of the repertoire of genres used by the community. Hence, genre analysis is a useful analytical category for researchers of technical communication (Paltridge, 1995: 293-296).

It should be noted that genre – based studies have implications for the teaching of communication related to science and technology fields. Recent researches have shown that although it is beneficial to help students become aware of the textual regularities of a genre, this is not enough. As these textual regularities are determined by the social actions that are performed through language in response to recurring rhetorical situations, it is necessary in teaching to emphasize the social context of workplace documents. Therefore, assignments in science and technology courses should ask students to use language in real situations related to their discipline.

Genre theory is, therefore, highly significant for science and technology teachers because by using genre-based pedagogy in their classes, they can empower their students to succeed as members of a community of practice. Another pedagogical implication of current genre theory is the need to teach genres of a discourse community as dynamic forms that can be manipulated to respond to new real situations. This can be achieved only if the features of the genre are presented as a response to a specific situation or context (Paltridge, 1996: 440-242).

ESP' s expanded interest from descriptive analyses of linguistic features to analyses of genres and their communicative functions not only helps distinguish ESP research from corpus linguistics, but also reveals similarities and distinctions between ESP genre analyses and Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) genre analyses (Kennedy, 1998).

This is done even if learners already equipped with reasonable adequate competence in the use of the language for general everyday functions will still need to develop the following (Crombie, 1985: 36 ):

- (1) Understanding of the specialist code.
- (2) Familiarity with the dynamics of specialist genres that include rhetorical forms and contents.
- (3) Specific contexts they respond to and the conventions they tend to use in their responses.
- (4) Proficiency in the manipulation of specialist genres to respond to the exigencies of unfamiliar and novel situations.

To explain, learners need to develop the understanding of code, the acquisition of genre knowledge associated with the specialist culture, sensitivity to cognitive structuring of specialist genres, and then they can hope to exploit generic knowledge of a repertoire of specialist genres by becoming informed users of the discourse of their chosen field. Thus, learners must acquaint themselves with the communicative goal-oriented purposes associated with specific use of genres. They need to become aware of appropriate rhetorical procedures and conventions typically associated with the specialist discourse community that they are aspiring to join.

The intent is to help the learner to use language more effectively in academic and professional settings and to bring much-needed psychological reality and relevance to the learning task. The approach to genre analysis and materials design seeks to clarify rather than prescribe. Once learned and adequately understood, the conventions and procedures can be exploited creatively to achieve private ends within the socially recognized communicative purposes (Bhatia, 1993).

## **5. Conclusion**

In language studies and language instruction, the idea of the genre has always had a significant place. One explanation for this is because the practical, illustrative, and interpretive toolkits made available by genre help ESP researchers and educators comprehend the rationale behind the production of a text in a certain way before directing students to do the same. Another factor, seen from the eyes of ESP learners, is that the norms associated with a genre could offer students a set of very predictable processes to follow when attempting to build texts on their own.

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## **6. Discourse Analysis in English Language Teaching**

### **1. Introduction**

Language can be approached from a great variety of directions. They can be linguistic – non-linguistic, formal – informal, formal – functional, and so forth. Throughout history linguistics tended to focus on the sentence level or what is below the sentence level. Many valuable data were gathered. But, sentences and words were considered in isolation from their use in language. Hence, these studies could not go beyond useful generalizations that can be found in grammar books (Erton, 2000). Then, the last few decades witnessed a shift from focusing on the sentence and its components to the emphasis on the context in which language is used. This paves the way to the emergence of discourse analysis. This new approach and its communicative nature have attracted researchers` attention and therefore, many studies have been devoted to investigate the nature of the new approach, its methods, and applications in different fields (Drid 2010 in Alsoraihi 2019).

Discourse analysis has its roots in many disciplines where language occupies a significant position as a tool for human communication (Drid 2010 in Alsoraihi 2019). Accordingly, discourse analysis has succeeded in becoming a significant field of research in different disciplines including, sociology, psychology, sociolinguistics, applied linguistics and didactics(Chambers 2007; Qomi, 2019 in Alsoraihi 2019). That is, discourse analysis can be viewed as a diverse area of research utilized to refer to the linguistic analysis of speech and written discourse via focusing on the language`s structure and functions and its unique linguistic features (Rashidi and Rafieerad 2010).

## 2. Definitions of Discourse, Discourse Analysis, and Text

This lecture section covers defining relevant concepts as discourse and analysis, and text.

### 2.1. Discourse and Discourse Analysis

Prior to defining the concept discourse analysis, it is important to define the term discourse. Cook (1989: 7) defines discourse as:

*Language in use for communication is called discourse; and the search for what gives coherence is called discourse analysis. Discourse may be composed of one or more grammatical sentences, but it does not have to be. It can have grammatical mistakes in it, and often does.*

Cook (1989) explains that discourse analysis examines how stretches of language, considered in their full textual, social, and psychological context, become meaningful and unified for their users. He also emphasizes the importance of context by saying, "*it is true what gives discourse its unity may be impossible to give without considering the world at large: the context*" (1989: 10).

Discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used. In this context, discourse analysts study language in use: written texts of all kinds, and spoken data, from conversation to highly institutionalized forms of talk (McCarthy 1991). Hatch views communication as the central concept in discourse analysis. According to her, "*discourse analysis is the study of the language in communication – spoken or written*" (1992: 1).

Larsen Freeman (1980) points out that discourse analysis represents an approach which allows the researcher to study the acquisition of the semantic,

communicative, and pragmatic functions of language, the input to the learner, and the input-product interaction (Betakova 2010).

## **2.2. Text**

The concept `Text` refers to "*a passage, either spoken or written, that does form a unified whole*" (Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 1). That is, a text is the ability to distinguish a particular sequence of sentences, whether connected or not (Alsaawi 2016). Halliday and Hassan (1976) introduced the term `ties` that refers to a single stance of cohesion. Ties mean that texts can be analyzed by investigating the relationship between cohesion and the organization of written texts into sentences and paragraphs (Alsaawi 2016).

## **3. Significance and Applications of Discourse Analysis in ELT**

Integrating discourse analysis into EFL classrooms cannot be minimized exclusively in the adoption of a series of new categories and analytical techniques. It requires EFL teachers, primarily, and EFL learners, subsequently, to look at their teaching and learning task in a very different way. They should know that the main focus of study is not language but communication (Cots 1996: 77-78).

The objective of language teaching is to enable students to be able to communicate using the target language aiming at giving learners opportunities to experience and practice communication. In this context, discourse analysis has emerged as an essential component in teaching the language through the communicative approach (Alsoraihi 2019: 82). Researchers believe that discourse analysis together with pragmatics are important to language teaching and learning. They play significant roles in facilitating human communication. Hence, one can say

that for language teaching process to go in harmony with discourse analysis, it should focus on strategies that facilitate learner communicative production and strategies of interpretation (Olshtain and Celece-Murcia, 2001 in Alsoraihi 2019: 82).

Discourse analysis drives much attention to language forms and functions in social interactions to improve language teaching and learning through analyzing how native speakers use language within different social contexts. That is, discourse analysis focuses on details of speech used by people in order to convey the social meaning using the different components of the language (Alsoraihi 2019: 82).

#### **4. Conclusion**

Discourse analysis is a vast subject area in the field of linguistics. It is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used as it does the analysis of spoken and written language. This lecture focused on tracing the significance and applications of discourse analysis in English language teaching environment. Discourse analysis is supportive function when it comes to teaching English as a foreign language, and languages in general. The lecture content revealed that integrating discourse analysis in EFL classrooms is very helpful to both teachers and students. EFL learners will have the ability to make their writing and oral production coherent and meaningful. Also, the analysis of text patterns will aid EFL students to enhance their reading and writing skills.

All in all, the focus on teaching English language is to provide communication through a functional educational content by making use of the integration of the four language basic skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing by the aid of a learner-centered classes, authentic texts, and using communicative testing principles to

teaching. Therefore, the discourse functions of EFL should be clearly understood to enhance learners' communicative competence.

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## **7. Needs Analysis**

### **1. Introduction**

Needs analysis is closely linked to the curriculum and occupies an important place in the curriculum. In the field of foreign language teaching, needs analysis is of a great importance. It is the preliminary step in course and syllabus design and is considered as a prerequisite for any syllabus design. It plays an important role in curriculum design in that it largely determines the goal and content of the course and syllabus being designed.

Needs analysis is a powerful tool that helps clarify and validate true needs. It enables educators and syllabus and curriculum designers to shape the curriculum development that bases the content of language courses on the communication needs, wants and interests of the learners.

### **2. Definitions of Needs Analysis**

Needs Analysis is of a great importance in ESP. Needs analysis is the cornerstone of ESP and leads to a focused course (Brown, 1995; Chambers, 1980; Dudley-Evans and St John, 1988; Ellis and Johnson, 1994; Jordan, 1997).

According to Robinson (1991: 07): "needs analysis is generally regarded as critical to ESP, although ESP is by no means the only educational enterprise which makes use of it".

According to Iwai et al. (1999), the notion needs analysis generally refers to the activities which are involved in collecting information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the needs of a particular group of students. From his view, formal needs analysis is relatively new to the field of language

teaching. However, informal needs analyses have been conducted by teachers in order to assess what language points their students needed to master. In fact, the reason why different approaches emerged and were then replaced by others is that teachers and course and syllabus designers have intended to meet the needs of the learners during their learning.

Stevens (1977) suggests that NA is a necessary first step for teaching English for specific purposes; it is more concerned with the nature of scientific discourse. Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 53) argue that any language course should be based on needs analysis.

NA is fundamental to an ESP/EAP approach to course and syllabus design. Dudley-Evans and St John (1988: 121) state that "NA is the process of establishing the what and how of a course". Language needs analysis is essentially a pragmatic activity focused on specific situations. Therefore, in the ESP and EAP context, NA is crucial in determining the aspects of language that are critical for a particular area of teaching and if needs are clear, learning aims can be expressed more easily and language courses become more motivating. In fact, successful experiences in designing ESP courses and syllabus show the importance of conducting needs analysis to ascertain learners' target and learning needs and then integrate the required linguistic elements and skills into the syllabus (Hutchinson and Waters: 1987).

Robinson (1991: 08) suggest that needs analysis is not only for determining the "what and how of language teaching". He adds that a study of needs analysis should be repeated so that it can be built into the formative process. This would lead to a very formative database of learners, sponsors, subject specialists, and above all ESP practitioners' views and opinions of the English language.

The literature written on ESP in general reveals that needs analysis is central in ESP. It is a key concept that has been considered inevitable to be conducted before designing any successful ESP course or syllabus.

Although there are slight variations in defining the concept of needs analysis among ESP practitioners, the overall tendency suggests that the vast majority of these practitioners insists on the importance of this issue and consider it as the infrastructure of any purposeful and successful ESP course or syllabus. As needs analysis precedes the stage of syllabus design, it is clear that it is the starting point in a series of stages that aim at producing the ideas or concepts to be taught in the syllabus.

The above mentioned idea is clear in most of the literature written on ESP. To illustrate, Widdowson (1983: 29) states that "I am using 'needs analysis' here to refer to an approach which characterizes language behavior in terms of the notion and function". The point about the necessity of needs analysis as an important stage that precedes the stage of designing ESP course or syllabus can be inferred from this definition.

The term NA (also known as needs assessment) generally refers to the activities that are involved in collecting information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the needs of a particular group of learners. Once identified, needs can be stated in terms of goals and objectives which, in turn, can serve as the basis for developing tests, materials, teaching activities, and evaluation strategies. The purpose is to fill the "gap" of what a language program "lacks".

A 'need' is considered as a gap or measurable discrepancy in what learners need and what they receive in language programs. A 'gap' is defined as the

inconsistency between the target situation and the present situation. Determining the learners' needs in order to achieve the desired target situation is seen as the target of any needs assessment process.

Munby's Communicative Syllabus Design (1978) is a framework dealing with needs analysis for English language teaching. Munby presented a series of procedures to identify the expected needs of English. The first is called 'Communicative Needs Processor', which consists of a series of questions related to the variables in communication such as the subject matter, the participants, and means of communication. Such variables help pinpoint the specific needs of the learners in the target language. The second is a 'profile of needs', which highlights students needs in the target language. Thus, the curriculum designer has only to take these needs into account when specifying the elements of the proposed ESP program.

Nunan (1989) states that for needs analysis information will need to be collected, not only on why learners want to learn the target language, but also about such things as social expectations, constraints, and resources available for implementing the syllabus. Hence, while designing questionnaires and interviews for needs analysis surveys, these factors are also to be taken into consideration.

Background factors of the learner influence learning outcomes and the tasks prescribed for practice should be helpful for fulfilling the targeted goals. NA refers to the students' study or job requirements as well as to what they like to gain from the language course.

Any ESP program should be preceded by conducting needs analysis. It is imperative to carry out needs analysis to determine the learners' specific reasons for

learning the language (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) or to specify exactly what the students need to achieve through the medium of English (Robinson, 1991).

According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 37), needs analysis is the process of establishing the what and how of a course. They further state that needs analysis is the corner stone of ESP and leads to a much focused course. If the course design does not take into account the actual needs of the learners and set realistic objectives to target the needs, the ESP program may not succeed in attaining the goals.

In the same vein, his article "Methodological Issues in Learners' Needs Analysis" Michael Long (2005) argues that:

*"There is an urgent need for courses of all kinds to be relevant to the specific group of learners and to the society at large. In most of the needs analysis surveys in the teaching of English as a second language, semi-structured interviews or questionnaires with little or no inside knowledge of the course concerned were used as tools to base the findings. The views of the respondents alone may not be authentic as it forms one aspect of the study. Just as initial questions asked by a physician to a patient does not help him to diagnose the disease and offer a treatment, the needs analyst cannot draw conclusive proof about language needs simply by obtaining the response of the learners" (P. 19).*

That's why there is a need to evaluate those needs by course and syllabus designers and adjust them with the needs of the institution as well as those of the teachers.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define needs analysis on the ground of 'necessities' and 'wants' in order to classify between what the learners have to know and what the learners feel they need to know. The focus, here, is on 'the lacks' that represent the gap between the required proficiency in the target situation and the existing proficiency of the learners.

### **3. Aims of Needs Analysis**

Needs analysis plays a crucial role in ESL, EFL, and ESP classes. It is important because through NA teachers, learners, teaching materials, teaching and learning procedures make a harmonious relationship that enhance learners' learning. Needs analysis is recommended in English language teaching in general, and in teaching ESP in particular. Nunan (1988: 42-43) claimed that NA serves many purposes in ESP as:

- (1) It can be considered as a means of obtaining a wider input into the content, design, and implementation of language programs.
- (2) It can be employed in developing and setting up goals, objectives, and content of programs.
- (3) Data for reviewing and evaluation of existing syllabuses can be provided through needs analysis.

In another framework, Richards (2001) on his discussion of needs analysis aims. He purports that NA in language teaching serves different purposes which enable:

- (1) To find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role, such as, sales manager, tour guide, or university students.

- (2) To help determine if an existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students.
  - (3) To determine which students from a group are most in need of training in a particular language skills.
  - (4) To identify a change of direction that people in a reference group feel is important.
  - (5) To identify the gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do.
  - (6) To gather information about a particular problem learners are experiencing.
- (Richards 2001: 8-9).

Briefly speaking, the results of needs analysis help teachers to identify the students' prospective professional need, the students' needs in terms of language skills, and the students' deficiencies in the area of language skills. Only after analyzing the students' needs and determining the objectives of the language course, syllabus and course designers, as well as teachers can select a material that meets the needs of the students. Hence, NA is the foundation on which they can develop curriculum content, teaching materials, and methods that can lead to increasing the learners' motivation and success.

#### **4. Needs Analysis in ESP Syllabus Design**

Needs analysis is a procedure for collecting information about learners and classroom activities to design a syllabus (Nunan 1988). Thus, NA is a prerequisite for any ESP course or syllabus design to achieve effective and instructional outcomes and to deliver appropriate input. Accordingly, NA focused on the learners' needs as a

source of information for designing syllabus or designing materials that fit learners' actual needs.

It is clear that ESP focuses on relating the teaching and learning of English process to the learners' communicative needs. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) observe that if we know why learners need English, the content of the language can be adjusted accordingly and the teaching process will focus on these needs.

As Brown (1995) observes, needs must be stated in terms of goals and objectives which in turn can serve as the bases for developing tests, materials, teaching activities and evaluation strategies. Teaching goals and objectives refer to the requirements that should be met through the teaching process. They are the particular knowledge, behaviors, and skills that the learner will be expected to know or perform at the end of a course or program. Direct assessment of the objectives at the end of a course or program will provide evidence if the teaching and learning objectives have been achieved. It should be noted that the orientation of the teaching objective is critical in the whole teaching process, which determines the teaching and learning activities. It is the starting as well as the ending point of teaching activities that have both orientation function and adjustment function.

To design a successful curriculum, the first to know, is to whom and what the curriculum is designed. That is, the designers have to know the target group and the purpose of the design. In traditional syllabus designs, usually the purpose is defined according to the state policy or designers' own understanding of the educational requirement. The focus is on what are available for learners, what teachers can offer to learners, and what the learners have to acquire, but very little is considered about what the learners themselves want.

The inefficiency of a foreign language syllabus is due to improper goals set in the language syllabus and failure of taking into account the curriculum consumer-learner in a specific institution.

A learner-centered syllabus design fully realizes the importance of the learners' role in teaching activities, and places learners' need, not only what they have to acquire, but also what they want to acquire, at the central part of the whole designing process.

However, a syllabus which is irrelevant to the needs of the learners cannot result in productive learning experience, because a need is also linked to motivation and motivation has an effect on learning. Thus, learning experiences not matching the needs of the learners can de-motivate learners. NA can play a vital role at all stages of the execution of a syllabus since it provides a tool for assessing the needs and measures can be adopted to meet them. Thus, NA keeps motivation sustained by bringing in relevance and giving the teaching and learning experience more precision.

## **5. Needs Analysis as a Determinant of Learners' Motivation**

Motivation is the corner stone for teaching and learning foreign languages. Despite the fact that there is no agreement about its definition because of the different schools of thought and views, it is still considered as the most important factor in enhancing foreign language learning.

Outstanding researchers agreed on the importance of motivation as a key factor for success in learning foreign languages. For instance, Lifrieri (2005) points out that among the most important factors which influence individual levels of success in many tasks is motivation. Besides, Brown (1980: 160) asserts that "it is

easy in second language learning to claim that a learner will be successful with the proper motivation". Additionally, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) define motivation for learning a second language as the learners' orientation with regard to the goal of learning a second language. The studies conducted on the area of motivation tackled two (02) types of motivation mainly, instrumental and integrative motivation.

Gardner (1985: 203) defines integrated motivation as "learning a language because the learner wishes to identify himself with or becomes integrated into the society of the target language". Furthermore, Masgoret and Gardner (2003: 174) claim that "the integratively motivated student is one who is motivated to learn the second language, has openness to identification with the other language community, and has favorable attitudes towards the language situation". So, here integrated motivation refers to the learners' favorable attitudes towards the target language and his wish to be integrated into the target language society aiming at making contact with it and knowing more about its culture and values.

The surveying of the students' learning motivation and needs has been considered as a crucial part of a successful foreign language syllabus. Scholars as (Allwright, 1982; Nunan, 1988) assert that a well-designed language course or syllabus that aims at increasing students' learning efficiency, and at triggering students' interest and motivation in learning the language, should first take into account their attitudes and needs.

## **6. Approaches to Needs Analysis**

Several approaches to NA have been provided by different scholars:

The first important approach to needs analysis is named **Target Situation Analysis (TSA)**. According to Jordan (1997), TSA is related to any needs analysis focusing on the learners' needs at the end of learning a language course. Its main concern is to prepare materials for designing the communicative syllabus. This approach to needs analysis is represented by Munby's (1987) model of needs analysis. Munby is concerned with communicative syllabus design, and his procedures are very detailed. The central of his approach is the Communicative Needs Processor (CNP) in which account is taken of the variables that affect communication needs by organizing them as parameters in a dynamic relationship to each other. Then, comes the profile of the students' language needs. The needs profile is later converted into a communicative competence specification, from which a sequenced syllabus can be drawn up. The way to arrive at the syllabus goes either via a language skills selector or via a meaning processor and linguistic encoder.

Munby's attempt to be systematic and comprehensive inevitably made his instrument inflexible, complex and time-consuming (West, 1994). According to him, all subsequent systems of needs analysis have aimed at simplicity. In this context, he says:

*"Model collects data about the learner rather than from the learner [...] As a reaction, more recent needs analysis procedures have been developed which deliberately adopt a very different starting point, reasserting the value of the judgment of the teacher or involving the learner from the start". (West, 1994: 24)*

Additionally, Munby 's model has been criticized in two additional aspects: that practical constraints should be considered at the start of the needs analysis

procedure (Munby considered them after the procedure had been worked through); and that the language elements chosen for practice in ESP or EAP should reflect those used in the real world. For the sake of fairness, in spite of the criticisms, Munby's model and approach has been very influential, it is either developments have stemmed from his work, or as a result of reactions against it.

Another important approach to NA is called Present Situation Analysis (PSA). PSA is based on identifying learners' control of the target language at the beginning of the language course (Jordan, 1997). It seeks to estimate students' present strengths and weaknesses in the language skills and in the experience of learning (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1988). In PSA approach, there are three (03) main sources for collecting information: the learners themselves, the language teaching establishment, and the user institution. From each of these sources, information is sought regarding the levels of ability, resources, and views on language teaching and learning. Therefore, in this context, the success of learning in an ESP course is based on learners' identification of their learning objectives, and learning objectives set out by the teaching establishment and the user institution. This approach to NA was suggested by Richterich and Chancerel (1977) through their model of NA.

As a natural development of TSA and PSA, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) propose their approach to NA. In this NA model, named a learning-centered approach, they draw a distinction between learner-centered and learning-centered. Learner-centered infers that learning is totally determined by the learner, whereas learning-centered involves learning as a process of negotiation between individuals and society that includes teaching, syllabus, methods, materials, etc. (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). They advocate that materials and methodology of an ESP course or syllabus are to be determined by learners' needs. Their approach combines TSA and

PSA, and objective needs as well as subjective needs. This approach divides learners' needs of the language into two (02) types: target needs and learning needs. The former is related to what knowledge and abilities the learner needs to have in order to function effectively in the target situation; and the latter refers to what the learner needs to do in order to learn. Additionally, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) divide target needs into three (03) key parts: 'necessities' (needs identified by the requirements of target situation) also called objective needs, they mean what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation. This would involve obtaining information about the situations in which the language will be used, e.g. lectures, seminars, etc., and discourse components and linguistic features used in them. 'Lacks' (the necessary proficiency for the target situation minus what the learners already know). Generally, the necessities that the learner lacks can form the basis of the language syllabus: this is often referred to as deficiency analysis. The third sub-division is the 'wants' (what the learners desire to learn), it is also named subjective needs of the learner.

In other words, Bowers (1980) has noted:

*"If we accept [...]that a student will learn best what he wants to learn, less well what he only needs to learn, less well still what he neither wants nor needs to learn, it is clearly important to leave room in a learning program for the learner's own wishes regarding both goals and processes"*

In many English language syllabuses, learners' wants may conflict with the views of sponsors and syllabus designers. To illustrate, a language course may concentrate on reading and writing skills and sub-skills as that will be the core of the subject course the students will be attending. But, the students may feel they want to develop their

speaking skills because their academic aim is developing speaking proficiency that allow them to function effectively in the English language environment around them.

Hutchinson and Waters consider the kind of information that is necessary for both course and syllabus designers to obtain from analyzing target needs and learning needs. They pose several broad questions that can be sub-divided into more detailed questions:

- Why is the language needed?
- How will the language be used?
- What will the content areas be?
- Who will the learner use the language with?
- Where and when will the language be used? (Hutchinson and Water 1987: 59)

In the 1980s, the focus of NA turned more towards Strategy Analysis, that is, methodologies used to implement language programs (Nunan, 1988). This approach to NA involved not only methods of teaching, but also methods of learning observing the preferred learning styles and strategies of students.

Allwright (1982) was the founding father of this model. This trend focuses on the students' perceptions of their needs in their own terms. He differentiates between needs (the skills which a student sees as being relevant to him/herself), and wants (those needs in which the student puts a high priority in the available, limited time), and lacks (the difference between the student's present competence and the desired competence). These terms match those later adopted by Hutchinson and Waters. The aim of Allwright was to help students identify skill areas and their preferred strategies

of achieving the skills. However, within this model problems have arisen where students use learning strategies or styles that are perceived by teachers to be inappropriate or inefficient. In this framework, learner training and the development of learner autonomy become important. This will assist in preventing the frustration of expectations where students are studying in a different environment.

Another important step in the development of NA is the attempt to adapt language courses to local situations. In other words, to accommodate what are frequently seen as to be constraints, e.g. cultural attitudes, resources, materials, equipment, methods. This model has been called means analysis. It involves a study of the local situation as the teachers, teaching methods, students, facilities, etc. to see how a language course may be implemented (Holliday and Cooke, 1982).

In the approach suggested by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), NA is broadened largely to encompass not only TSA and PSA, but also deficiency analysis, linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis, and means analysis. According to this mode, in order to analyze and identify the learners' needs, all of these multifaceted approaches to NA should be adopted and applied.

The present study adopts Hutchinson and Waters (1987) approach to NA because in comparison with approaches to NA suggested by other scholars, it provides more manageable framework for analyzing the target situation and also a parallel framework for analyzing learning needs. In addition, it is comprehensive and clear as it includes TSA, PSA, objective needs, and subjective needs by dividing the learners target needs into necessities, lacks and wants. Moreover, Hutchinson and Waters model to needs analysis offers a useful classification of needs which may be

seen to reflect different viewpoints and give rise to different forms of NA. It has also been recommended and adopted by many scholars and researchers.

## **7. Procedures of Needs Analysis**

The task of investigating students' needs is a challenging work as needs have been defined by different specialists from various perspectives. Munby, for example, focused on the selection of the material in needs analysis and observed that the selection of the material in NA depends upon the systematic analysis of specific learners' needs by analyzing the reasons for learning, place and time of anticipated target use, content areas (activities involved), skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing, etc.), and the level of proficiency required (Munby, 1978).

The primary objective of NA is helping both teachers and the educational institution to identify the students' educational and professional needs in terms of language skills and deficiencies in the area of language skills. Hence, NA is the foundation on which syllabus designers can develop syllabus content, teaching materials, and methods that can lead to increasing the learners' motivation and success.

Investigating learners' needs takes place through certain procedures and organized around scientific and methodological steps. Accordingly, conducting NA encompasses determining:

- (1) Professional information about the learners: tasks and activities learners are using English for (target situation analysis and objective needs).
- (2) Personal information about the learners: factors which may affect the way they learn as previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the

course and expectations out of it, and attitudes to English (wants, means, and subjective needs).

(3) English language information about the learners: what their current skills and language use are (present situation analysis) which allows NA conductors to assess.

(4) The learners' lacks: the gap between (3) and (1).

(5) Language learning information: effective ways of learning the skills and language in (4) (learning needs).

(6) Professional communication information about (1): knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation (linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis).

(7) What is wanted from the course

(8) Information about the environment in which the course will be run (means analysis). (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998).

As far as tools of identifying learners' needs are concerned, West (1994: 7-8) provides a number of methods of data collection related to NA that can be listed in brief points as follows:

(1) Learners' assessment which estimate the language level of the students. In ESP, three (03) main types of tests are considered: placement tests, achievement tests, and proficiency tests. For placement tests, they are used to place learners in the ESP course that suits their levels and needs; it is a kind of diagnostic test. Achievements tests assess the attainment process of the learners, whereas proficiency tests measure

whether or not the learner can cope with the demands of a particular situation. (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

(2) Course assessment through tests feedback, discussions, comments, etc. Though it is hard to determine how often course evaluation should be done, it is advisable to be done at all the stages of the course (at the beginning of the course, at regular intervals throughout the course, at the end of the course, and after the course.

(3) Surveys based on questionnaires which have been established that help syllabus and course designers draw a profile of learners' needs, lacks, wants, learning styles, and strategies, meanwhile they rise the learners' awareness about their needs.

(4) Structured and semi-structured interviews which consist of pre-planned questions. Answers can be either written down or recorded.

(5) Case studies that give in-depth information related to the needs and difficulties of individual learners or groups.

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## **8. Classroom Assessment and Evaluation**

### **1 Introduction**

Assessment and evaluation have always been important in ELT. They are deeply associated with language teaching methodology, program outcomes, language standards, and foreign language acquisition training. Through the use of appropriate classroom assessment strategies and techniques, teachers can increase learners' motivation and show them their real language achievement. Evaluation goes beyond students' achievements and language assessment to consider all aspects of teaching and learning. Although the concepts "assessment" and "evaluation" are used interchangeably, they can be considered two parts of the same process. Assessment is the process of gathering evidence of what the student can do. Evaluation is the process that follows the collection of data, including analysis and interpretation, in addition to the remedy decisions.

### **2 Definitions of the Key Concepts**

Several definitions are given to the terms: assessment, evaluation and testing in several sources for different applied linguists and educationists. However, there has not been any consensus on how these terms are different and when or where should people these concepts. The following are the definitions of the lecture key concepts:

#### **2.1 Assessment**

The term 'assessment' is used to refer to judgments on individual student progress and achievement of learning goals. It covers classroom-based assessments as well as large scale, external assessments and examinations. It is the process of documenting knowledge, skills, attitudes and beliefs, usually in measurable terms.

The goal of assessment is to make improvements, as opposed to simply being judged. In an educational context, assessment is the process of describing, collecting, recording, scoring, and interpreting information about learning ().

## **2.2 Evaluation**

Backman (1990: 21) defines evaluation as *"the systematic gathering of information to make decisions"*: The main feature of evaluation that makes it distinguished from assessment is its qualitative nature in addition to its use for making judgments. This definition should be taken with reservation as assessment is also used for making decisions. However, the difference lies in the fact that evaluation is more summative, prescriptive, and comparative. Prescriptive means that the evaluation procedures are designed and established by the evaluator whereas assessment follows some sorts of standards agreed upon. The term 'evaluation' is used to refer to judgments on the effectiveness of schools, schools systems, educational policies and programs.

## **2.3 Testing**

A test or quiz is used to examine someone's knowledge of something to determine what he or she knows or has learned. Testing measures the level of skill or knowledge that has been reached. In educational context, a test can be defined as *"any procedure for measuring ability, knowledge and performance"* (Richards et al., 1994: 291). Brown (1994: 252) states that a test is *"a method of measuring person' s ability or knowledge in a given area"*. It should be noted that tests yield scores that mirror attributes or characteristics of individuals. To explain the test definitions, a test is method consisting of a set of techniques, procedures and test items that constitute an instrument of some sort. Additionally, a test has the purpose of measuring the testee' s

performance in precise mathematical terms, assigning a grade, or expressing evaluative qualifiers, as excellent, good, poor, etc. Next, a test measures the ability or knowledge, that is to say, competence or the know-how. Finally, the test is closely related to a given area, in the case of a proficiency test, that area is language proficiency, for instance, communicative competence (Cited in Dr. Benmostefa Lectures <https://faclettre.univtlemcen.dz/assets/uploads/DOCUMENTS/cours%20en%20ligne/4-RC-BENMOS.pdf>).

### **3 Aims and Objectives of Assessment and Evaluation**

The aim of classroom assessment and evaluation is to give the learners the opportunity to show what they have learned. Evaluation and assessment can also focus on different aspects of teaching and learning: textbooks and instructional materials, students' achievement, course and syllabus design. The primary focus of assessment in ELT has been language assessments and the role of tests in assessing students' language skills. On the other hand, evaluation goes beyond students' achievement and language assessment to consider all aspects of teaching and learning, meanwhile to look at how educational decisions can be made on the basis of educational assessments.

The assessment of students is a serious and often hard task. Assessment is centered around getting to know the students and the quality of their learning. There have been several purposes for assessment that can be stated as follows: judging mastery of essential skills and knowledge, measuring improvement over time, diagnosing students difficulties, evaluating teaching methods, evaluating the effectiveness of the course, and motivating students to study.

Thus, tests as a key tool for assessment, are primarily concerned with facilitating learners to perform particular communicative tasks, providing feedback on learning, confirming what students have acquired and highlighting those skills that need further attention in the syllabus or the course, encouraging learning, and monitoring progress.

Carter and Nunan (2001) cited in (Tatiana and Valentina, 2017: 32) assert that one of the objectives of evaluation is to guide classroom instruction and enhance students learning on a day-to-day basis. In this context, classroom, assessment and evaluation concerns:

- Suitability of general instructional goals and objectives associated with an individual lesson or a unit plan.
- Effectiveness of instructional methods, materials and activities used to attain instructional objectives.
- Adequacy of professional resources required to deliver instruction.

Assessment and evaluation can also serve important professional development purposes as the data gathered from such evaluations provides teachers with valuable feedback about their teaching effectiveness that they can use to develop and improve their professional skills. Besides, and most importantly, assessment is perhaps one of the most elements of curriculum development and alignment, because this is where it is possible to see if students can demonstrate mastery in terms of the knowledge and skills they need to have learnt (Tatiana and Valentina, 2017: 32).

#### **4 Types of Assessment and Evaluation**

Evaluation and assessment can be classified into different types. In most cases, assessment and evaluation typology is based on the purpose, timing, and the object of assessment and evaluation.

#### **4.1 Placement Assessment**

This type of assessment is carried out in order to fix the students in the appropriate group or class. In some educational institutions, students are assigned to classes according to their subject combinations, such as science and technology, arts, commerce economy and management, and so forth. Tests like readiness tests, aptitude tests, and achievement tests can be used in this type of assessment.

#### **4.2 Formative Assessment**

Formative assessment is designed to enhance learning by providing feedback to learners before teachers issue evaluations of performance. This type of evaluations identify learners strengths and weaknesses throughout a learning cycle aiming at improving future performance. Formative assessment must be free of threat and the opportunities to obtain feedback on knowledge or performance. This type of assessment is always appreciated by the learners and can lead to positive feelings about the department and the staff concerned. The aim of formative assessment is to provide feedback to students as they progress towards a goal. If this feedback is of a high quality, improvement in students' performance is achieved.

#### **4.3 Diagnostic Assessment**

A variety of assessment tasks that are used to determine students' level of knowledge, skills, and understandings at the beginning of a course, grade level, unit

and/or lesson. They test the students on what they already know. These tests allow the instructor to adjust the curriculum to meet the needs of the students. Diagnostic Assessment is used for learning when taking action to adjust teaching, and it plays a significant role in improving learning outcomes for all students. It assesses what the learner already knows, the nature of difficulties that he/she has, which if undiagnosed might limit their engagement in new learning. In the words of Betts, Hahn and Zau (2011) defined diagnostic assessment as a process that involves making judgments as to how a student is performing against a predetermined set of criteria

#### **4.4 Summative Assessment**

This type of assessment carried out at the end of the course of instruction to determine the extent to which the objectives have been achieved. It is also named summarizing evaluation because it looks at the entire course of instruction or the whole program. It can pass judgment on the teacher and students, the curriculum and the entire system. It is used for certification.

Summative assessment evaluates student learning, knowledge, proficiency, or success at the conclusion of a unit, course, or program. Summative assessments are almost always formally graded and often heavily weighted. Summative assessment can be used to great effect in conjunction and alignment with formative assessment

### **5 Key components, Functions and Features of Quality Assessment and Evaluation**

Assessment and evaluation are a central part in the entire education sector. The reasons for assessment could shape the test components. Assessment tests may be used as a means to:

- Give the teacher information about where the students are at the moment, to help to decide what to teach next.
- Give the students information about what they know, so that they also have an awareness of what they need to learn or review.
- Motivate students to learn or review specific material.
- Get a noisy class to keep quiet and concentrate.
- Provide a clear indication that the class has reached a "station" in learning, such as the end of a unit, thus contributing to a sense of structure in the course as a whole.
- Get students to make an effort (in doing the test itself), which is likely lead to better results and a feeling of satisfaction.
- Give the students tasks, which themselves may actually provide useful review or practice, as well as testing.
- Provide students with a sense of achievement and progress in their learning.

(Penny, 2005:09)

Evaluation is a process that includes five key components:

- Articulating the purpose of the educational system.
- Identifying and collecting relevant information.
- Having ideas that are valuable and useful to students in their lives and professions.
- Analyzing and interpreting information to enhance teaching and learning.
- Classroom management or classroom decision making.

(Tatiana and Valentina, 2017: 31).

Gibbs (2003) states that assessment has six main function:

- Capturing student time and attention.
- Generate appropriate students activities.
- Providing timely feedback that can be beneficial in students' learning progress.
- Aiding students to internalize the discipline' s standards and notions.
- Generating marks or grades which distinguish among students or enable pass/fail decisions to be made.
- Providing evidence that enables teachers to judge the appropriateness of course standards.

The following guidelines for assessment tests preparation could be useful and practical for instructors:

- Validity: check that the test items really do test what they are meant to.
- Clarity: make sure the instructions for each item are clear.
- Do-ability: the test should be quite do-able: not too difficult, with no trick questions.
- Marking: decide exactly how each section of the test will be assessed, and how much weighting (percentage of the total grade) that will be given. Make the marking system as simple as possible, and inform the testees what it is: write in the number of points allotted after the instructions for each question.
- Interest: try to go for interesting content and tasks in order to make the test more motivating for the learners.

- Heterogeneity: the test should be such that lower-level students can feel that they are able to do a substantial part of the test, while the higher-level ones have a chance to show what they know. So, include both easy and difficult items, and make one or more of the difficult ones optional.

(Penny, 2005: 14)

## **6 Conclusion**

A major concern of English language teaching has been assessing and evaluating students' progress during the course of study as well as their achievements at the end. Assessment and evaluation are very important in ELT. A well-designed assessments permit learners to use the knowledge and skills they have learnt and indicate the level of acquiring each skill. Thus, teachers, course and syllabus designers should pay much attention to the phase of testing, assessment, and evaluation in the overall curriculum development.

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## 9. Corrective Feedback

### 1 Introduction

In foreign languages learning, errors are considered a natural part of the learning process and a sign of students' efforts to master the target language. However, teachers should respond positively towards their learners errors via providing corrective feedback. Feedback is defined as an immediate response to learners' errors. Effective feedback needs to inform students whether their answers are correct or not; it should also provide them with enough information and guidance to produce the correct target form. In this context, teachers should know that teaching does not involve only the transmitting of knowledge, but also an understanding of how students make progress during knowledge transfer process.

### 2 Definition(s) of Feedback

In order to thoroughly comprehend the concept of feedback, it is necessary to spot light on the various definitions given to the concept. For instance, in the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (2002: 199) feedback is defined as *"comments or other information that learners receive concerning their success on learning tasks or tests, either from teachers or other persons"*. Additionally, according to Hattie and Timperley (2007: 81), feedback is conceptualized as *"information provided by an agent regarding aspects of one' s performance or understanding"*. A teacher or parent can provide corrective information, a peer can give an alternative learning strategy, and a learner can look up the answers to evaluate correctness of a response. Generally, teachers responses to an error are known as corrective feedback. Hence, corrective feedback refers to a teacher' s utterance that identifies a learner error and provides feedback in response to the

error (Schachter, 1991). Ellis et al. (2006: 340) offer a more comprehensible definition of corrective feedback:

*Corrective feedback takes the form of teacher' s responses to learner utterances that contain an error. The responses can consist of (a) an indication that an error has been committed, (b) provision of the correct target language form, or (c) metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these.*

### **3 Types of Corrective Feedback**

In order to well-understand the importance of corrective feedback in ELT, it is compulsory to recognize its categorization. Feedback is classified into various kinds depending on certain factors. These factors include: timing, amount, mode and the audience of the corrective feedback. They also comprise the source of the feedback as well as the feedback function. On the ground of the above listed variables, types of corrective feedback cover the following:

#### **3.1 Positive vs. Negative Feedback**

Corrective feedback can be positive or negative. Positive feedback confirms that a student response to a question or an active is correct. This type of feedback may signal the veracity of the content of a learner utterance or the linguistic correctness of the utterance. Positive feedback is viewed as of paramount importance as it provides effective support to the learner and raises his motivation towards learning. On the other hand, negative feedback shows that the learner' s linguistic production in response to a question or an activity is incorrect or linguistically deviant. That is, it is essentially corrective. Language educators have paid much

attention to this type of corrective feedback, however they disagreed over several factors including what errors that deserve corrective intervention, and how and when to correct them (See Hendrickson, 1978). Thus, negative feedback or corrective feedback takes the form of a response to a learner utterance containing a linguistic error. The response is a linguistic repair to the error committed by a learner, and can consist of an indication that an error has been committed, provision of the correct target language form, metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these (Ellis et al. 2006: 340).

### **3.2 Oral vs. Written Feedback**

The second type of corrective feedback is oral and/or written feedback. Oral feedback is important and essential to students for improving their language speaking skills. Questioning and dialogues when giving corrective oral feedback are the key of oral effective feedback. In this context, teachers can explain orally and show students where they made mistakes, then provide them with correction in order to avoid repeating them again. The tone of the teacher while teaching has a deep impact on the learners' performance such as praising, encouraging; smiling, or any other sort of oral response towards learners' oral or written linguistic production on the part of teachers. Written feedback is also effective to aid learners improve their language proficiency via errors correction by another agent. Corrective oral feedback cannot be complete without written feedback. In contrast to oral corrective feedback that can be forgotten easily, written corrective feedback are more effective on developing learners language mastery. Written feedback can be a powerful tool for helping students to develop their language proficiency as students can refer to it over and over again.

### **3.3 Explicit vs. Implicit Feedback**

Corrective feedback can occur both explicitly or implicitly. Explicit or implicit correction includes a clear indication that the learner has made an error (Ellis, Loewen and Erlam, 2006). Explicit feedback identifies the error and provides a metalanguage explanation (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). Metalanguage means language that describe language. Metalanguage corrective feedback is an example of what is unacceptable in the target language referred to as negative evidence (Sheen and Ellis, 2006). Metalanguage corrective remarks can be classified as form focused instruction which has a beneficial effect on the second and foreign language acquisition process, that is, language attainment.

On the other hand, implicit feedback takes place when the source (most often the teacher) does not provide a clear indication that the student has made an error. This type of error draws learners' attention to the error but does not involve its correction. Implicit feedback is less interrupting, distressing, or embarrassing to the learners (Yoshida, 2008 In Tasdemir and Yalsin Arslan, 2008).

### **3.4 Peer vs. Teacher Feedback**

Peer feedback occurs when learners provide one another recommendations about their work and correct tasks and activities for each other. In this type of corrective feedback, learners give each other feedback via commenting on their work. In this context, teachers are often advised to give students the opportunity to self-correct themselves, if that fails, to invite other students to perform the correction. Researchers have examined peer-feedback or correction and find out that it is both possible and beneficial in some particular cases (Hedge, 2000). Peer feedback is preferred by teachers for several reasons: First, peer readers or listeners are useful

sources of feedback. Second, corrective responses from students have been found to be more specific. Smith (2010) has argued that group and pair activities that allow students to provide peer feedback are more often preferred in modern language learning environments (See Tasdemir and Yalsin Arslan, 2008: 4).

On the other hand, teacher feedback can be considered as the most commonly preferred feedback type since the teacher is the richest source of the target content. It is commonly known that the teacher is the usual and continuous provider and source of feedback. However, the question here whether teachers should push the learner to self-correct, peer correction, or provide the correction directly themselves ? The right option, here, is to conduct corrective feedback as a two stage process: first, encourage self-correction and/or peer correction and then, if that fails, provide the correction (Rod, 2009: 7).

#### **4 Strategies of Corrective Feedback Giving**

Educationists and researchers in the field of education have identified a number of different ways in which errors can be corrected. These include the strategies teachers have been observed to use while teaching foreign languages. More recently, researchers have developed hierarchical taxonomies of strategies based on a theoretical view of how corrective feedback works for learning foreign languages. These corrective feedback giving strategies include: recasts, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, repetition, and elicitation.

##### **4.1 Recasts**

Recast is the reformulation of all or part of the student' s answer, providing the target form. In a comparative corrective feedback study, recasts accounted for 60

percent (Sheen and Ellis, 2006) and 55 percent (Lyster and Ranta, 1997) of the entire feedback giving strategies recorded. This highlights their prevalence amongst teachers. In foreign language learning, recasts refer to a response by the teacher to learners' outputs by reformulating their utterances; but, teachers' responses do not include utterances like "use this word" or "you should say" (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). Some researchers have argued that the perceptions of learners concerning recasts are integral to defining it either as implicit or explicit, since learners may not be aware of the function of recasts as a form of corrective feedback (Mackay, Gass, and McDonough, 2000).

#### **4.2 Metalinguistic Feedback**

Metalinguistic clues mean that the teacher provides information or asks questions regarding the correctness of the learner' s utterance, without explicitly providing the target form. Metalinguistic feedback occurs when the teacher addresses questions or comments, and provides information for students related to their utterances aiming at eliciting information from the learners to repair the forms by themselves (Lyster and Ranta, 1997).

#### **4.3 Clarification Request**

Clarification request is categorized under implicit feedback as it refers to an indication by the source of the feedback that the utterance has not been understood. The teacher, hence, wants the learners to reformulate their utterances indicating that there has been an error in their form (Tasdemir and Yalcen Arslan, 2018). In this respect, teachers usually use some particular phrases in the delivery of his feedback as: "sorry", "excuse me", and "pardon me" to indicate that a communication error has been made (Lyster and Ranta, 1997).

#### **4.4 Repetition**

Repetition as a corrective feedback technique occurs when the teacher repeats students' linguistic production in response to a question or an activity stressing their errors. The aim here is to draw learners' attention to the errors in order to aid them correct themselves or providing them with corrective remarks.

#### **4.5 Elicitation**

In elicitation, the teacher encourages the student to give the correct form by pausing to allow the student to complete the teacher' s utterance. Lyster and Ranta (1997) introduced three strategies associated with elicitation. One of these techniques involves asking students to complete an utterance given by the teacher like "fill in the gaps activity". This can be followed by comments on the part of the teacher as "no, not this". Secondly, teachers may sometimes resort to asking questions like "How do we say Y in English ?" aiming at eliciting correct forms from students. The last technique involves asking learners to reformulate their linguistic production. All of these techniques exclude an overt correction but simply ask students to try again to reach the desired and correct response (Smith, 2010 in Tasdemir and Yalcen Arslan, 2018).

### **5 Conclusion**

The issue of corrective feedback is a complex phenomenon in languages teaching and learning. This complexity is clearly reflected in the controversies surrounding such issues as what to correct, how to correct, who should correct, and when to correct. As presented previously, corrective feedback delivery can be provided relying on several strategies. Teachers should adapt and use the appropriate

corrective feedback technique to correct learners' utterances. Meanwhile, they should give students the opportunity to correct themselves via elicitation and enhance peer feedback as a part of learner-centeredness movement in ELT.

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## **10. Teaching the Four English Language Skills**

### **1 Introduction**

The four language skills refer to listening, speaking, reading and writing. The mastery of these skills on the part of English language learners is necessary to enhance students communicative proficiency. These language macro skills are employed in communication and taught in classes not in isolation for they are somehow integrated. In English language teaching and learning, these skills are needed. These four language skills are highly interrelated in two ways: the direction of communication and the mode of communication. Direction of communication indicates whether information is being given (output) or is being received (input). Hence, there are productive skills represented by speaking and writing, and receptive skills namely listening and reading. The mode of communication draws distinction between oral and written skills. The teaching of these four language skills should not be side lined, because proficiency in the use of the language is dependent to the mastery of these language macro skills.

### **1 Teaching Listening and Speaking Skills**

A very simple analysis of listening would give it four headings: understanding a speaker' s accent of pronunciation, understanding his/ her grammar, recognizing his/ her vocabulary, and being able to grasp the meaning of what he/ she says. Hence, teachers may then construct exercises to practice each of these aspects of listening one by one. Yet, effective comprehension relies on the ability to do everything at once and so the learner should also have some chance of natural listening practice that is not directed towards any particular aspect of listening skill but involves them all (Allen and Corder, 1979: 93).

The teaching aim of extensive listening practice is to give the learner plenty of opportunity to develop and exercise his/ her listening skills in as natural way as possible. Extensive listening need not be tested in any detail, but will be done for its sake. The learner will be following the meaning of the listening passage, because he/ she is interested in the information it contains, or simply because he/ she is enjoying it. However, intensive listening exercises can be divided into two types:

- (1) Exercises to train a detailed comprehension of meaning, and
- (2) exercises which get the learner to listen to particular features of language, such as vocabulary, grammar or pronunciation (Allen and Corder, 1979: 95-98).

Technically speaking, most listening texts should be based on discourse that is either genuine improvised, spontaneous speech, or at least a fair imitation of it. A typical authentic written text that is read aloud as a basis for classroom listening activity will provide the learners with no practice, in understanding the most common form of spoken discourse. The listening text should be highly linked to the themes of the learners' academic field, it can be a text read by the teacher or one of the learners, recorded text or interview, a part of video, etc.

Listening tasks based on the listening texts should include the following features:

- (1) Learners should have in advance some idea about the kind of text they are going to hear.
- (2) Likewise, a listening purpose should be provided by the definition of pre-set task, which should involve some kind of clear visible and audible response.

(3) Finally, the task should usually involve intermittent responses during the listening; learners should be encouraged to respond to the information they are looking for as they hear it, not to wait to the end.

Listening activities answers may include short responses (ticking off items, true/false, filling gaps, guessing definitions, etc), long responses (answering questions demanding full responses, learners take brief notes from the listening text, summarizing the content), and/or extended responses (problem-solving, interpretation of parts of the listening context ideas). The selected listening text should be connected with learners academic field.

The language laboratory is the most suitable place where learners can develop their listening comprehension. The language laboratory is not so suitable for speaking practice as it is for listening practice. Thus, listening in the language lab can be a real language experience, whereas talking in the lab is only a rehearsal for real conversation. However, there are some teaching techniques using language lab can be adopted by the teachers and practitioners. The outstanding technique is the imitation of native speech models. Dialogue exchanges can be recorded to practice the pronunciation of particular sounds, stress and rhythm patterns, as well as intonation. The learner can repeat these models in the lab as many times as he/she wants.

Most studies about the four basic skills showed that developing speaking proficiency is of top priority to the students, teachers should vary speaking teaching techniques for the sake of rising learners' motivation and speaking tasks and activities. Instructors can use role play, simulations, and plays targeting authentic debatable topics associated with the learners specialty. The goal of any speaking activity should

be making social interaction comfortable and non-threatening and to communicate good will, in addition to discussing specialized information.

## **2 Teaching Reading and Writing Skills**

Most students considered reading as non-important skill to be developed while the reverse situation is noted with writing skills. Therefore, much attention, time, and activities should be dedicated to writing at the expense of reading related tasks.

The way in which people handle written language, whether receptively in reading or productively in writing , is complex and as yet little understood. It is a commonplace these days that reading is an activity made up of a large number of skills of both a motor and a cognitive kind.

In dealing with the skill of reading, instructors must synthesize various elements: (1) theories about the nature of reading itself, specifically models of mature reading; (2) the characteristics of reading selections, or textual analysis; and (3) the specific characteristics and needs of the learners. When concerned with the skill of reading, the reading materials' designer functions as a mediator between the text and the learner-reader; this mediating process brings the learner in touch with strategies for successful reading which are used by efficient, mature native-readers. Hence, the materials preparer 's task is to synthesize three (03) elements: (1) reading strategies, or a reconstruction of what an efficient native reader does unconsciously, (2) textual analysis, or an examination of a text for the organizational and stylistic effects put there by the writer, and (3) learners' characteristics. Teachers attempt to help the learner-reader actually experience what has been described for successful reading as "a kind of accomplishment whereby a discourse is created in the mind by means of a process of reasoning" (Widdowson, 1979: 63).

The reading materials' designer as synthesizer pays attention to the following:

- (1) Workouts that bring about interaction with the text.
- (2) Providing a variety of materials to read.
- (3) Selecting texts appropriate for the targeted learners level and academic specialty.

(Fraida and Elite, 1986: 149-150).

Technically, the basic design of an educational unit incorporates a number of skill-getting devices for reading. Employing a modified version of the study skills formula SQ3R (Survey, Question, Read, Review, Recite), the directions call for two readings of the passage. Warming up or preparation questions to look for during the first reading, questions that cover the text's main themes. Besides, students are not allowed to use dictionaries during the first reading in order to activate the skimming skill for the texts' s main ideas rather than focusing on the meaning of lexical items and relying on word-by-word reading. During the second reading, students are guided into using the organization of the written text as a means for understanding the supporting details. Then, students are given the chance to reinforce the comprehension of the ideas of the reading selection through partner discussions and in small groups. This section begins by asking questions directly linked to the reading material, then they move to areas outside the reading text, but serve other language skills, as such the exploration of specialized vocabulary meaning and grammar points (Fraida and Elite, 1986: 152).

In performing reading related tasks, teachers should make sure that the following efficient reading requirements are taken into consideration:

- The language of the text is comprehensible to the learners.

- The content of the text is accessible to the learners: they know enough about it to be able to apply their own background knowledge.
- The reading progresses fairly fast.
- The reader concentrates on the significant bits, and skims the rest; may even skip parts he/she knows to be significant.
- The reader takes incomprehensible vocabulary in his or her stride: guesses its meaning from the surrounding text without using dictionaries.
- The reader thinks ahead, hypothesizes, predicts.
- The reader has and uses background information to help understand the text.
- The reader is motivated to read by interesting content highly attached to the learners' academic branch and challenging tasks.
- The reader is aware of a clear purpose in reading, for example to find out something.

(Penny, 2005: 62-63)

Any reading task may include the following key steps and instructions:

- A preparatory stage, that is pre-reading stage that includes a warming up questions giving the reader an idea about the topic of the text and its main ideas.
- A reading text highly associated with the learners' academic specialty.
- The reading text should be followed by information about the source of the text and his/her author.

- The instructor reads the text in front of the learners, and the learner-readers should be asked to read the text silently aiming at identifying the text main ideas and supporting details.
- Comprehension questions: a variety types comprehension questions (wh + how questions, yes-no questions, true/false ideas, choice questions, matching elements, completing ideas with information from the reading passage, etc) that cover all the text paragraphs and ideas in purpose of understanding the text content.
- Text exploration related activities in terms of translation of the texts' key terms and specialized vocabulary, and driving learners' attention to the overwhelming syntactic and textual features of the reading passage prior to moving to teach grammar based on the content of the reading text.

As far as teaching writing is concerned, it has often been remarked that writing is the most difficult of the language abilities to acquire as it is perceived by learners in various empirical studies.

In any attempt to determine the elements that should be covered, teachers should consider such components as accuracy (maintains consistent grammatical control of simple and complex language), fluency, interaction, coherence (coherent and cohesive discourse, appropriate use of a variety of organizational patterns and a wide range of connectors and other cohesive devices). The requirements needed for the formation of appropriate skills in t writing, the following objectives should be achieved:

- (1) Organize paragraphs in technical communication, make headings and sub-headings;

- (2) interpret, compare and contrast tables, charts and diagrams;
- (3) make outline and other ideas logically;
- (4) use logical connectors for linking sentences and paragraphs;
- (5) proof-read and revise of technical documentation;
- (6) use grammatical structures needed to express appropriate functions and terms flexibly, and produce technical texts in the academic and professional areas;
- (7) use language forms appropriate to academic and professional registers;
- (8) have a good range of relevant vocabulary (terminology and abbreviations) needed in academic and professional areas. (Lubianova, 2015: 37)

In administering any writing activity, instructors should pay attention to the following criteria:

- (1) Would the learners find the writing activity motivating, stimulating and interesting to do ?
- (2) Is it of an appropriate level for them ? Or would they find it too easy, difficult, sophisticated ?
- (3) Is the kind of writing relevant to their needs ?
- (4) Would the teacher needs to do some preliminary teaching in preparation for this activity ?
- (5) Are the topics of writing activities relevant to the learners' academic branch ?

Giving corrective feedback on writing is of great importance. When a student submits a piece of original writing, the most important about it is its content, whether

the ideas or details that are written about are significant and interesting. Next, there is the organization and the presentation, whether the ideas are arranged in a way that is easy to follow and pleasing to read. Finally, there is the issue of language forms, whether the grammar, vocabulary, spelling are of an acceptable standard of accuracy.

Additionally, when teachers receive written work, they should normally correct and comment on it and give it back. They should also insist on the students rewriting the paragraphs or the compositions incorporating suggestions given for improvements. Rewriting on the part of the learners is very important as it reinforces learning and it is an integral part of the writing process as a whole. However, some instructors may find correcting written works as a time-consuming, especially if they have large classes. An effective way to solve this problem is to let students correct and edit each other's writing. In general, peer correction can be a time-saving and useful technique, also critical reading for style, content, and language accuracy is a valuable exercise in itself (Penny, 2005: 73-75).

Teaching reading and writing skills are interrelated. Reading texts can be models for writing tasks. Through reading, learners may develop their writing proficiency, excessive readers are usually proficient writers. Hence, teachers can administer mixed activities targeting developing both learners' reading and writing skills.

### **3 The Necessity of the Integration of the Four Language Skills**

Harmer (2007) state that any of the four English language skills is rarely done or practiced in isolation while learning. To illustrate, when people are engaged in a conversation, they are listening as well as speaking in order to interact with the person they are talking to. Similarly, in the case of lectures, for example, they read notes they

have previously written, and in the same situation, learners who are listening to lectures are also taking their own notes about this lecture. For this reason,

*"If skill use is multi-layered in this way, it would make no sense to teach each skill in isolation. We will, therefore, look at how input and output are connected in the classroom, how skills can be integrated, and how skill and language work are connected"* (Harmer, 2007).

Hence, integrating English language skills in each lesson is a natural process of 'Skill-Mixing' that aid teachers to provide maximum learning opportunities for the different students in classes, it makes sense to integrate different skills (Harmer, 2007).

From the viewpoint of Oxford (2002), the Integrated-Skill Approach leads to optimal EFL communication by interweaving the four primary English language skills during instruction. In this framework, Oxford (2001: 43) states:

"In designing activities, teachers should consider all the skills conjointly as they interact with each other in natural behavior, for in real life as well as in the classroom, most tasks of any complexity involve more than one macro skill".

#### **4 Conclusion**

Applied linguists and language educationists have used the concepts of four language basic skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. These four language skills are also labeled 'the macro skills'; this is in contrast to the 'micro skills' that refer to grammar; vocabulary; pronunciation; and spelling. Language theorists imply that all aspects of language interrelate and intertwine. They further claim that the students

should be given the opportunity to use the four language skills in meaningful, functional and cooperative activities (Freeman and Freeman, 1992 in Hakan, 2014).

As English language teachers as well as learners give much attention to the mastery of the four language skills and thus the whole language, several teaching and learning approaches emerged targeting better teaching and learning of these basic language skills. In this context, teachers are recommended to use Skills-Based Approach in ELT as teaching experience revealed that it is effective. In this context, Abessalam El-Koumy (2002) points out:

*The skills-based approach drew its theoretical roots from behavioral psychology and structural linguistics. Specifically, it is based on the following principles: (1) the whole is equal to the sum of its parts; (2) there are differences between oral and written language; (3) oral language acquisition precedes the development of literacy [...] In accordance with the above principles, advocates of the skills-based approach view language as a collection of separate skills. Each skill is divided into bits and pieces of sub-skills. These sub-skills are taught in a predetermined sequence through direct explanation and modeling. Furthermore, the skill-building teacher constantly uses discrete-points test (e.g. multiple choice, true or false, fill in the spaces) to measure the mastery of each sub-skill before moving to the next (In Hakan, 2014: 674).*

However, the adoption of skills- based approach in teaching language skills should be accompanied with the integration of these skills in the process of their teaching and learning as in natural daily life these language macro skills are inseparable.

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