

# **ARMY POLYTECHNIC SCHOOL**

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**THE DEPARTMENT OF LANGUAGES**

**APPLIED LINGUISTICS IN ENGLISH PROGRAM**

**“ANALYSIS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING  
SYSTEM IN THE ECUADORIAN AIR FORCE  
HEADQUARTERS IN CONNECTION WITH THE SIX  
CURRICULUM COMPONENTS.”**

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## **APPROVAL SHEET**

We Lic. Juan Donoso, Msc, Director and Lic. Lilian Ávalos, Msc, Codirector, duly certify that the Research Project under the title:

**“Analysis of the English Language Teaching System in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters in connection with the six Curriculum Components.”**, elaborated by Mr. Cosme Felipe Batallas Lara and Rubén Bayardo Orbe Arellano, who have finished all the subjects in Linguistics Applied to English Language in a distance mode of the Army Polytechnic School, have been studied and verified in all its parts, so its presentation and oral sustaining are authorized on the correspondent university instances.

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Lic. Lilian Ávalos, Msc.

**CODIRECTOR**

# DEDICATION

To the memory of those who are no longer among us  
And to those who were always near us  
To our parents who gave us our lives  
And to those whom we brought to this world  
To those who entrusted in us  
And to those whom we trust  
To those who guided us with their devotion, patience and friendship  
And to those who will follow our steps  
To those whom we love  
And to those who love us  
To those who we miss  
And to those who miss us  
To those around here  
And to those everywhere  
To you, dear reader

To all the people who offered us their valuable and disinterested support and wise advices during the planning, execution and evaluation of this Research Project which, now we present it to your respectable consideration.

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Our reverent and respectful gratefulness to God, source and inspiration of our lives and of everything that exist.

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To our partners and friends, for their encouragement and motivation.

And to you dear reader, who looks for-by the sovereign act of reading -the liberation of the soul and the renovation of the thought.

To all of you thank you, and everlasting thanks.

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## INTRODUCTION

The English language has in the last century or so steadily become the primary global language, whether in business, education, government, military field or simply for cross-cultural communication. As an official language of the United Nations and other major international organizations and as the main means of communication worldwide, there is no denying that the English language is the most important language in the world. It can also be said that on average natives of every country, large or small have some knowledge of English. The British Council estimates that in 10 years time approximately three billion people, or half of the world population, will be communicating in English.

Although China and India are recognized as emergent burgeoning economies in today's globalized world and there is a growing trend to learn other languages for business, such as Chinese and Japanese, English remains the predominant language. Its importance is further emphasized in the areas of science and technology. Its growing dominance is distinctly clear in the Information Technology industry, in which English is used on over 80 per cent of websites. This could be due to the fact that major companies and research institutions in Information Technology are based in the United States and India and are mostly American-owned. It is therefore practical to use English as the medium for understanding, and this looks set to continue even into the distant future.

Ecuador has started programs to raise the standard of spoken English in both, the workplace and schools. In Ecuador, many schools in major cities have begun to teach English at primary level, institutes of higher learning and universities use English to teach certain courses, and English textbooks are used to familiarize students with English terminology that will be useful to them in their future professions, particularly at the Ecuadorian Air Force which receive all the information about aviation activities like: technical orders, aviation manuals, training, etc in this language.





The quest to improve our English proficiency, in writing, reading and understanding, will prepare us to improve our education, which in turn will put the country in the forefront of the international competitiveness league. Armed with this tool, we will have a grasp on the key to success, because English is and will continue to be the global link between individuals, businesses, armed forces and governments worldwide.

Actually, given the circumstances of economic, social, cultural and military globalization in those that Ecuadorian people are immersed, to dominate the English language has become a fundamental element in the daily life, just not as work tool but vital aspect inside the different Air Force areas, so much technical as administrative, because most of the aeronautical information is given in this language, we refer to the flight manuals, technical orders, equipment operation manuals, etc. Don't have the ability to understand, to speak and to write the English language puts in great disadvantage to the members of the Institution, since it will be more difficult to stay updated, in the last advances in science and technology, to get scholarships in the foreign countries, and therefore to carry out the technical courses in the different specialties, besides the possibility of growing in the professional life, of improving the particular and social cultural level.

In addition, it is estimated that 75 percent of all international communication in writing, 80 percent of all information in the world's computers, and 90 percent of Internet content are in English.

The inexpensiveness of air transportation has increased interpersonal contacts worldwide. Computer, optical fiber, and satellite technologies likewise have made possible a boom in telecommunications, bringing up the concept of information superhighway. These two developments demonstrate how the world has evolved into a global village and how imperatively a standard language is required.

In its role as a global language, English has become one of the most important academic and professional tools. The English language is



recognized as undoubtedly the most important language for the increasingly mobile international community to learn. This is a fact that seems to be irreversible. English has become the official language of the business and scientific worlds.

The permanent training at Ecuadorian Air Force is conceived as a group of social interactions that bears to the establishment of relationships to develop those who participate in it, its function is to generate a practice educational chord to the social necessities and not to the simple routine repetition of contents. At the present time the society claims of the education a product of the educational practice centered in the analysis, the reflection and a pro-positive posture like processes for the problematization of its reality, focusing us in concrete form to the English language. It is important to meditate the student acquires the language in an environment of fragmentation due to a minimum schedule, large groups, lack of educational technology, inadequate methodology, etc. English's subject presents a low level of apprenticeship that additionally to the mentioned lines it is attributed to diverse topics: Ignorance of the theories that sustain the acquisition of a foreign language, inappropriate methodology, not to consider the interests and the students' necessities, large groups, lacking activities of meaning for the student, faulty planning, etc.



## **PROBLEM FRAMING**

Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters is carried out regular English language courses approximately 20 years ago, with an average of 40 students for level and 120 students for each academic year, in levels like: basic, intermediate and advanced with a total of 2400 students until now approximately, using a methodology that satisfy partially the requirements of the six curriculum components like: objectives, contents, time, methodology, didactic resources, and evaluation. Although it is certain that the diagnostic survey doesn't define a specific problem, in general form, we observe the existence of a few inconveniences that added configure a bigger problem.

This is the reason which it is necessary to carry out an analysis of the teaching system of this language in the Air Force Headquarters<sup>1</sup> that has for purpose to determine the execution level in the application of the six curricular components, the mistakes that exist, and the effect of this in the achievement of the target goals and from this analysis, to design an alternative proposal. Taking into account that today in the XXI century in a completely interconnected world, the English language constitutes a fundamental tool of communication in the whole planet. English is the main vehicle of the process of globalization of the knowledge and it has become an essential factor of the academic formation into the professional-military field development.

It is also the universal language in the aeronautical development and an indispensable requirement to access to the new generation information and technology in this field. To speak just one language is good to be isolated and it is a form to live out this so competitive world, demanding and globalized.

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<sup>1</sup> The Ecuadorian Air Force (FAE) is the aviation branch of the Ecuadorian Armed Forces. The mission of the FAE is "to defend the Ecuadorian State and its interests through aerospace power"



Nevertheless to satisfy the growing demand of English language teaching, the education programs are enlarging inside the Ecuadorian Air Force, especially for the Headquarters personnel, what takes us to make an analysis of how the six curricular components are applying and their effect in the teaching learning process, We consider that it is important to give a short definition of each curricular component:

**Objectives:** It is the first component of the Hexagonal pattern and the one that grants sense and directionality to the pedagogic chore; that is to say, the educational goals, which should allow the integration of the subjects to the curricular areas. They should be appropriate to the students, at the real conditions of resources and time.

**Contents:** They represent the “what” to teach, and act in the sense of means and goals. They work around the instruments of knowledge (notions, proposals, concepts, pre-categories, and categories), aptitudes (emotions, feelings, attitudes, values and principles), and skills (intellectual operations, psycholinguistics operations, and conductual skills). It is important to teach how to learn and not to memorize, putting aside the irrelevant information.

**Evaluation:** It is the following step after elaborating the objectives and the contents; it gives bigger importance to the curricular design since for each objective and for each content, this specifies and defines the achievement level, as well as specifies and operacionalizes purposes and teachings.

**Time:** It is the way of to organize the teachings pedagogically, facilitating the student to apprehend and to the professor to teach, being based on an optimization of the resource time



**Methodology:** It represents the how to teach, it approaches the question of which is the best procedure to teach, a certain subject matter, that is to say, it is important to teach in order to understand.

**Didactic Resources:** A genuine didactic resource leans on the language or it re-presents material realities since the thought commits intrinsically with the language or the reality.

This will help us to design an intervention project that cooperates to solve the mistakes that we find in the current teaching learning process. Also in view of the fact that the Armed Forces and particularly the Air Force needs to qualify its personnel in the English language in order to they have a good acting or performance in the different activities, so much inside as outside of the country, specifically when they are carried out exchanges, courses, commissions, etc, what will allow that personal achievements are not only reached but rather it is also recognized to the Institution and the country to which they are representing.

## **PROBLEM FORMULATION**

How the English language teaching system is developed in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters in relation to the execution of the six components of the curriculum?<sup>2</sup>

## **OBJECTIVES**

### **General Objective**

To apply the six components in order to develop the process of teaching in the English language teaching system in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters, by means of the detailed study of the six components of the curriculum, with the purpose of improving the

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<sup>2</sup> Objectives, Contents, Evaluation, Time, Methodology and Didactic Resources



English language courses developed in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters for the military and civil personnel.

### **Specific objectives**

To determine the institutional objectives that it pursues the Education Directory of The Ecuadorian Air Force with the teaching of the English Language in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters.

To design an alternative proposal by means of the optimization of the six components of the curriculum to be able to reach the level of English language knowledge that allows to the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters personnel, to satisfy and to face the challenges that current society presents.

To evaluate the components of the curriculum that are considered like part of the curricular mesh applied to the English languages courses that are developed in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters, such as: objectives, contents, time, methodology, didactic resources and evaluation.

To determine the incidence of the load schedule in the results that they are obtained when concluding every period of English courses in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters.

To coordinate with the Education Directory of the Ecuadorian Air Force, the implementation of the new alternative proposal to achieve a better level in the English language knowledge in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters personnel.

To gather curricular information of the language teaching that it supports the good application of the six components of the curriculum in the courses developed in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters.



## **JUSTIFICATION AND IMPORTANCE**

Nowadays, given the circumstances of economic, social, cultural and military globalization in those that Ecuadorian people are immersed, to dominate the English language has become a fundamental element in the daily life, just not as work tool but vital aspect inside the different Air Force areas, so much technical as administrative, because most of the aeronautical information is given in this language, we refer to the flight manuals, technical orders, equipment operation manuals, etc. Don't have the ability to understand, to speak and to write the English language puts in great disadvantage to the members of the Institution, since it will be more difficult to stay updated, in the last advances in science and technology, to get scholarships in the foreign countries, and therefore to carry out the technical courses in the different specialties, besides the possibility of growing in the professional life, of improving the particular and social cultural level.

The development and presentation of a research project has a significant importance as much as to the University, the Institution where is taken ends up and for the society in general; this is the reason which we have considered necessary to carry out an analysis of the English language teaching system in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters, considering that nowadays the scientific and technological advances have shortened the distances around the world what confirms the importance of being bilingual<sup>3</sup> in a globalized world.

In the current world, the science and the technology advance and they are carried out important economic and social transformations, the media has had a great development. The above-mentioned transports us to the necessity of appropriating of a foreign language that foments our possibilities of oral and written communication and inside this communication English plays the main role that propitiates the talkative globalization.

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<sup>3</sup> Bilingual: The ability to use either one of two languages, especially when speaking.



At the present time we find the English language in areas as different as in tourism and the intellectual debate in other, the English language day by day loses its quality of regional language and it is presented like an independent talkative modality that becomes a shared internationally intellectual propriety.

The education is conceived as a group of social interactions that bears to the establishment of relationships to develop those who participate in it, its function is to generate a practice educational chord to the social necessities and not to the simple routine repetition of contents. At the present time the society claims of the education a product of the educational practice centered in the analysis, the reflection and a pro-positive posture like processes for the problematization of its reality, focusing us in concrete form to the English language.<sup>4</sup> It is important to meditate the student acquires the language in an environment of fragmentation due to a minimum schedule, large groups, lack of educational technology, inadequate methodology, etc. English's subject presents a low level of apprenticeship that additionally to the mentioned lines it is attributed to diverse topics: Ignorance of the theories that sustain the acquisition of a foreign language, inappropriate methodology, not to consider the interests and the students' necessities, large groups, lacking activities of meaning for the student, faulty planning, etc.

The present work shows the concern to consent to a logical explanation on the form in that one acquires English in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters, language different to ours and differed by social and cultural aspects. At the present time persists an ignorance regarding the process of appropriation of a foreign language. And it seeks to facilitate English's teachers the most advanced possibilities to upgrade that allow them interact in a wider context and at the same time to propitiate the development of abilities, attitudes and values for itself and their students.

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<sup>4</sup> It is a West Germanic Language, originating from England. It is the third most common "first" language (native speakers). Most higher academic and military institutions require a working command of English.





To count with bilingual personnel it is an ambitious goal of very long term, but to develop conditions for basic handling and instrumental of the English is an objective that we can reach in a short time. For these and other reasons we allow ourselves to suggest that inside of the all Ecuadorian Air Force members life should be of vital importance to have access to the English language learning.

To put in practices this idea carry many problems, for this reason we outline some possible solutions inside our alternative proposal: to create conscience in the Air Force members, so much military as civilians about the importance of the English language domain, to establish inside the different specialties the reading of English written topics, to develop exhibitions imparted in this language, to give knowledge in massive way of the English courses initiation in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters English laboratory, if the number Officers, Airmen<sup>5</sup> and civilian is increased who dominate this language, the Institution will be distinguished, as always it has done, for the interest of its Staff about preparing to its troops to solve in a better way, the necessities that nowadays our society demands.

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<sup>5</sup> An enlisted man who serves in the Air Force.



## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### TYPE OF RESEARCH

The present research will be done by means of a descriptive research that consists on to describe and to evaluate certain characteristics of a particular situation in one or more time periods. In this type of research we will analyze the gathered data to discover in this way, if the variables are related each other, provides data about the population or universe being studied. But it can only describe the "who, what, when, where and how" of a situation, not what caused it. Therefore, descriptive research is used when the objective is to provide a systematic description that is as factual and accurate as possible. It provides the number of times something occurs, or frequency, lends itself to statistical calculations such as determining the average number of occurrences or central tendencies.

One of its major limitations is that it cannot help determine what causes a specific behaviour, motivation or occurrence. In other words, it cannot establish a *causal research* relationship between variables. The two most commonly types of descriptive research designs are Observation and Surveys.

This type of research supports and covers since to other lines of research. It allows to diagnose and to give depth to the ways that will go opening up inside of the teaching learning English language process in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters.

### POPULATION

This research will be carried out with the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters personnel.



## SAMPLE

The sample will be all the personnel who has registered in English courses in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters, for the first semester of the 2005, therefore this has the characteristics to be non probabilistic.

## RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The techniques and instruments that will be used in the present research are those that next are detailed:

<b>TECHNIQUES</b>	<b>INSTRUMENTS</b>
OBSERVATION	Observation Guide Checking lists Analysis
INTERVIEWS	Interview Guide
SURVEY	Questionnaire Scale Test
SECURITY SESSION	Observation Guide

## COLLECTING DATA

We will use the techniques and instruments described in the previous numeral.

## TREATMENT AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE DATA.

The data problem will be analyzed, gathering the data in frequency charts considering each one of the questions of the instrument, obtaining the percentages then to do the analysis of the data and to establish the execution or not of the curricular components in the English Language teaching system in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters to design an alternative proposal as it is presented in the Project.



## **THEORETICAL FRAME**

### **THE ECUADORIAN AIR FORCE**

#### **MISSION**

To keep the air space control and guarantee with the others armed forces branches the sovereignty integrity of Ecuadorian State and support the socio economical development of the country, mainly in the airspace field.

#### **VISION**

To be a modern, professional and competitive institution respected and accepted by the society, dissuasive and leader in the Ecuadorian State Defense and the airspace development; substantiated in principles and values, with human resources highly motivated and proud of the Institution

#### **IMPORTANCE**

The Air Force with the others armed forces branches, to keep the national sovereignty, defend the integrity and independence of the Ecuadorian State and guarantee the juridical regulating.

To support the socio economical development and lead the research and airspace development.

The Air Force is a leader in high technology research, development, and applications. Air Force installations operate like small cities in a businesslike and competitive environment. The Air Force provides an environment in which good ideas and energetic job performance are rewarded.



## **STRATEGIC OBJECTIVES <sup>6</sup>**

- To Achieve and keep a high level of operative enrolment that allow to face successfully the threatens
- To possess an efficient and effective educational system, that permits a high level professional performance.
- To have a human resource highly productive and compromised with his institution.
- To have a new operative and administrative organization with high levels of efficiency and efficacy.
- To strengthen the Ecuadorian Air Force participation in the National Power Components.
- To achieve a level of scientific and technological development in the airspace field that permits to decrease the foreign dependence.
- To place the institutional image into the Ecuadorian society like indispensable element in the security and socio economical development.
- To strengthen the economical and social activities that contributes with the Ecuadorian Air Force growth and the country progress.
- To preserve and develop the material and cultural patrimony of the Ecuadorian Air Force.

## **INSTITUTIONAL PRINCIPLES<sup>7</sup>**

- Efficiency and efficacy
- Simplicity and administrative decentralization
- Work team
- Continuity in the management.
- Permanent training
- Continua innovation.
- Foment of the individual and collective self-esteem.

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<sup>6</sup> The Strategic Objective: is the expected outcome resulting from a series of interventions sponsored by countries/organizations. The strategic objective can be very broad or quite narrow depending on the level of resources that can be devoted to its achievement.

<sup>7</sup> Principles: The term moral obligation has a number of meanings in moral philosophy, in religion, and in layman's terms.



## **VALUES<sup>8</sup>**

- Integrity, honor and value, beginning and ending of the behavior of the Ecuadorian Air Force Soldier.
- Justice and respect to the human rights.
- Honesty and fight against the corruption.

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<sup>8</sup> Values: Assumptions, convictions, or beliefs about the manner in which people should behave and the principles that should govern behavior.



## **THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

### **IMPORTANCE:**

**COMMUNICATION:** English is spoken by one out of every six people in the world. It is the primary language of the United States, the U.K., Australia, New Zealand and, partly, Canada. Only Mandarin Chinese is spoken by more people worldwide.

**BUSINESS & EDUCATION:** English is the language of trade and science. Many non-English speakers have sound English language skills to do business, to understand scientific publications and to communicate with people from all over the world.

**CULTURE & ENTERTAINMENT:** A significant number of movies, musicals, pop songs and literary works are produced in English. Open the door to the world of entertainment by being able to watch any Hollywood flick in the original version. Not to speak of Shakespeare's plays and sonnets or Jane Austen's novels.

### **ENGLISH LANGUAGE FACTS:**

English is the first language of about 375 million people. Probably, as many people speak and understand English as a second language, in more than 75 countries English has official or special status.

About 80% of the world's electronically stored information is stored in English language, 2/3 of scientist's world wide read and publish in English.

### **SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF ENGLISH**

**VARIETIES OF ENGLISH:** Due to its historic importance and the high number of English speakers' regional dialects (American English, British English, and Australian English), social and educational varieties are numerous, though not so strong that understanding is endangered.



FORMAL / INFORMAL ADDRESS: Deference and politeness is expressed by the choice of vocabulary, rather than by a grammatical concept of formal or informal address.

GRAMMATICAL GENDER: English does not assign grammatical gender to its nouns.

Generally speaking, English is the universal language on the World, but it has no official status, and it will never have. The reasons for the position of English are the imperialism and economical and political importance of English-speaking countries. Linguistically, English is extremely unsuitable for international communication, and the actual wide use of English tends to polarize the world into Internet users and Internet illiterates.

The position of English can only be altered by major world-scale political and economical changes, such as increasing importance of the European Union or a coalition between Japan and China. Such powers might wish and be able to promote a language other than English, possibly a constructed language, for international communication.

Alternatively, or in addition to this, the technology of machine translation may allow people to use their own language in international communication.

As several people remarked, English essentially **is** the universal language of the World (Internet, communications, business, technology, education, etc.) Nevertheless, the question, appropriately interpreted and elaborated, is worth a more delicate treatment.

## THE CURRENT SITUATION

In general, the universal language on the World is English, or more exactly a vague collection of languages called "English" because their common origin is the national language spoken in England by the English. That national language has spread over the world, and several variants such as American (US) English, Australian English, etc exist. A great number of people whose native language is none of the variants know English as a foreign language.





They typically use a more or less simplified variant, e.g. excluding most of the idioms of British, American, Australian etc English. Of course, they make mistakes, and sometimes the "English" used by people as a foreign language on the Internet is almost incomprehensible to anyone else. In addition, people who use English as their native language do not know how to spell difficult words, since they basically know English as a spoken language.

Thus, roughly speaking, the universal language of the Internet is clumsy, coarse and misspelled "English".

There are exceptions, most importantly national newsgroups in such countries where English is not the native language of the majority. Even in such groups English is used, for instance when people from other countries wish to participate. And a few international groups have a theme like discussing a particular language or culture so that it is natural to assume that the participants have a common language other than English. Moreover, a group which is partly international in the sense of not being purely national might use a language other than English, for instance if the group is intended for people in German-speaking countries.

#### WHY IS IT SO?

Generally speaking, when a language has got the position of a universal language, the position tends to be affirmed and extended by itself. Since "everyone" knows and uses English, people are almost forced to learn English and use it, and learn it better.

Even if you expect the majority of your readers to understand your native language, you may be tempted to use English when writing e.g. about research work. Usually researchers all over the world know English and use it a lot, and often the relevant terminology is more stable and well-known in English than in your own language. Thus, to maximize the number of interested people that can understand your text, you often select English even if the great majority of your readers have the same native language as you. Alternatively, you might write your texts both in your native language and in English, but this doubles



the work needed for writing your document and possibly maintaining it. The maintenance problem is especially important for documents on the World Wide Web - the information system where one crucial feature is the ability to keep things really up to date. Consequently, the use of English in essentially national contexts tends to grow.

In the news system, the position of English in most international groups is regarded as so obvious that people who post non-English articles to such groups - by accident or by ignorance - typically get flamed quickly. This is the sort of control that newsgroup communities exercise in other matters than language, too. It is often regarded as an example of the "democratic" nature of the news system. However, things are changing fast. The flame control - i.e. control by flaming - has worked to a great extent because people have had relatively compatible status, background, and values of life. The time has come - childhood's end for the Internet - when we will see more and more people and organizations that pay little attention to flames and netiquette. The increasing amount of spamming is just one indication of this. But these general remarks hardly apply to the status of English.

By the way, when people post articles to international groups in their own languages, the reason is typically novice users' ignorance of basic facts about the news system. People start posting articles before they have read what is generally written to the group. One thing that causes this happen relatively often that there is no easily accessible and useable list of groups together with their content descriptions, and typically content descriptions do not explicitly state what language(s) should be used in the group.

The universal language position, once gained, tends to be strong. But how is such a position gained?

During the history of mankind, there have been several more or less universal languages or *lingua francas*, such as Latin (and Greek) in the Roman empire, mediaeval Latin in Western Europe, later French and English. Universality is of course relative; it means universality in the "known world" or "civilized world", or just in a large empire. No language has been really universal (global), but



the current position of English comes closest. The position of a universal language has always been gained as a by-product of some sort of imperialism: a nation has conquered a large area and more or less assimilated it into its own culture, including language, thus forming an empire. Usually the language of the conquerer has become the language of the state and the upper class first, then possibly spread over the society, sometimes almost wiping out the original languages of the conquered areas. Sometimes - especially in the Middle Ages - the imperialism has had a definite cultural and religious nature which may have been more important than brute military and economic force.

As regards to the English language, it would have remained as a national language of the English, had it not happened so that the English first conquered the rest of the British Isles, then many other parts of the world. Later, some English colonies in a relatively small part of America rebelled, formed the United States of America, and expanded a lot. They formed a federal state where a variant of the English language was one of the few really uniting factors. And that federal state became, as we all know, wealthy and important. It also exercised traditional imperialism, but more importantly it gained a very important role in world economy and politics. Whether you call the US influence imperialism or neo-imperialism is a matter of opinion, but it certainly has similar effects on maintaining and expanding the use of English as classical imperialism.

This probably sounds like political criticism, but it is intended to be descriptive only. Personally, I do not regard imperialism as an incarnation of the Evil; it has had both positive and negative effects, and in many cases imperialism has been a necessary step from chaos to civilization.

#### EFFECTS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF THE INTERNET AND ENGLISH

The importance of the Internet grows rapidly in all fields of human life, including not only research and education but also marketing and trade as well as entertainment and hobbies. This implies that it becomes more and more important to know how to use Internet services and, as a part of this, to read and write English.



Of course, the majority of mankind cannot use the Internet nowadays or in the near future, since they live in countries which lack the necessary economical and technological infrastructure. But the Internet causes polarization in developed countries, too: people are divided into Internet users and Internet illiterates, and as the use of the Internet grows and often replaces traditional methods of communication, the illiterates may find themselves in an awkward position.

In general, it is easy to learn to use Internet services. The worst problems of Internet illiteracy are, in addition to lack of economical resources of course, wrong attitudes. Older people are usually not accustomed to live in a world of continuous and rapid change, and they may not realize the importance of the Internet or the easiness of learning to use it.

But although Internet services themselves are, generally speaking, easy to learn and use, you will find yourself isolated on the Internet if you are not familiar with English. This means that knowledge or lack of knowledge of English is one of the most severe factors that cause polarization. Learning to use a new Internet service or user interface may take a few hours, a few days, or even weeks, but it takes years to learn a language so that you can use it in a fluent and self-confident manner. Of course, when you know some English, you can learn more just by using it on the Internet, but at least currently the general tendency among Internet users is to discourage people in their problems with the English language. Incorrect English causes a few flames much more probably than encouragement and friendly advice.

In different countries and cultures, English has different positions. There are countries where English is the native language of the majority, there are countries where English is a widely known second language, and there are countries where English has no special position. These differences add to the above-mentioned polarization. Specifically, it is difficult for people in previous colonies of other countries than Great Britain (e.g. France, Spain, the Netherlands) to adapt to the necessity of learning English. Locally, it may be necessary to learn the language of the previous colonial power since it is often an official language and the common language of educated people; globally,



English is necessary for living on the Internet. And the more languages you have to learn well, the less time and energy you will have for learning other things.

#### AN OFFICIAL LANGUAGE FOR THE INTERNET?

There is no conceivable way in which any authority could define an official language for the Internet. The Internet as a whole is not controlled by anyone or anything, and this could only change if, by miracle, all countries made an agreement on it or if the entire world were taken to the control of one government.

Thus, if the question "whether or not English should be made the universal language of the internet" is interpreted as concerning the **official** status of English, the answer is simply that English, or any other language, **cannot** be made the official universal language. It is fruitless to ask whether an impossible thing should be made.

#### BUT CAN THINGS CHANGE?

Things can change, and they actually do, often with unpredictable speed. The rapid fall of the Soviet empire - including the loss of the role of Russian as a "universal" language within in - is a recent indication of this.

English can lose its position as a widely used (although not official) universal language in two ways. Either a new empire emerges and its language becomes universal, or a constructed language becomes very popular. I believe most people regard both of these alternatives as extremely improbable, if not impossible. Perhaps they are right, perhaps not.

I can see two possible empires to emerge: the European Union and a yet nonexistent Japanese-Chinese empire.

The European Union (EU) is an existing formation which is, at least according to its own doctrine, moving towards federalism. In many respects, the European Union already **is** a federal state, with less independence and



autonomy for its constituents than the states have in the United States. Although people may present the EU as the successor of previous empires such as the Roman empire and the empire of Charlemagne, it is quite possible that the EU never becomes a real empire, since it seems to be inherently bureaucratic. Every empire needs a bureaucracy, of course, to promote the aims of its ruler(s), but the EU lacks true rulers. But if the EU ever becomes a true empire with prominent role in the world, the language of the empire will hardly be any of the national languages in the EU, except possibly English. It is more probable that the builders of the empire will realize the need for a relatively neutral universal language, and adopt Esperanto or some other constructed language for official purposes. In fact, such a choice would be extremely rational at the present stage of the EU, since now a considerable portion of EU expenses are used for translation and interpretation between the official languages of the EU. A single official language of the EU might or might not be adopted by people worldwide as a universal language for everyday communication, including communication on the Internet.

Japan is probably too small, both as a country and as a nation, to create an empire with its own forces, despite its flourishing technology and economy and efficient social organization. But its potential combined with the vast human and other resources of China would certainly constitute a basis for an empire that successfully competes with the United States and the European Union, even if latter powers were (economically) strongly allied. Both Japan and China would have a lot to gain from intensive mutual cooperation, or alliance, confederation, or federation.

A Japanese-Chinese empire would have a difficult choice of language. It might decide to accept the role of English as a universal language, both for continuity and for the reason that selecting either Japanese or Chinese (Mandarin) would set the Japanese-Chinese union at stake. Alternatively, it might seriously consider using a constructed language - most probably not Esperanto but a language which is culturally more neutral, i.e. not dominantly Indo-European, for instance something like Loglan or Lojban.



## IS ENGLISH A SUITABLE UNIVERSAL LANGUAGE?

Apart from being widely used and known, English is extremely unsuitable as a universal language. There are several reasons to this.

Any national language, i.e. a language which is or was originally the language of a particular tribe or nation, has obvious defects when used for international communication:

- Native speakers of the language are in a quite different position than others. Some people regard this as bad in itself, as contrary to the equality principle, but I think it is practical consequences that make it bad. Native speakers tend to use idioms and rare words and to speak too fast, unless they exercise conscious control over their language - and such control is difficult and unnatural when applied to one's mother tongue. This implies that in oral communication in particular native speakers of English often have *worse* problems in getting themselves correctly understood than nonnative speakers!
- National languages exist in various dialects and forms - sometimes they are even mutually unintelligible, but the differences always make communication harder. There is usually no standard for a national language, and even if something that can be called standard exists, it is just one form of the language - typically a form that is only used by a minority, and even by it only in a minority of occasions. For a native speaker of a language, it is natural to use one's own dialect, and it is difficult to avoid this entirely; this emphasizes the importance of the above-mentioned problem of native speakers expressing themselves in international contexts.
- When you learn your native language in your childhood, you learn it by listening to and talking with people who have it as their native language. First they know it much better than you, later equally well. Thus it is very natural human behaviour to use your native language with the unconscious but strong assumption that the listener or reader knows the language to the same or even higher extent than you. In international contexts, this built-in assumption is almost always false, and this has severe consequences. For



instance, we tend to regard people as stupid or ignorant if they do not understand normal language; this deep-rooted tendency is present even if our conscious mind understands the situation correctly.

- A national language carries with it the history of the nation. For instance, words and phrases have got, in addition to their dictionary meanings, connotations, colours and associations. This is an important cultural phenomenon which helps in keeping the nation a nation, but in international communication it is a burden.
- National languages have originally evolved as spoken languages. When written national languages originated, they were usually formed on the basis of the dialect of the capital or other important area, with the aim of creating a language which supports the creation of a unified nation. Thus, the very origin of a national language is in a sense nationalistic, not internationalistic.
- Due to their long history, national languages have historical relics and features which make them illogical and irrational, such as grammatical gender or irregular forms. Moreover, being originally spoken languages, they lack sufficient tools for expressing things in an exact, unambiguous manner; and the need for such expression is immense and growing, especially in the areas of law and contracts, technology and technical descriptions, and science.

These remarks apply to English, too, and especially to English. One of the worst relics of English is the orthography. English has a very rich repertoire of idioms, and it typically has several words which have the same basic meaning but different connotations and stylistic value. Especially in international contexts you can never know what words mean to people with different backgrounds. Thus, you may occasionally get your basic message understood in some way, but you cannot tell in which way. This is of course an inherent problem in all human communication, but the nature of English makes it a really big problem.

English is an eclectic language which tends to borrow words from other languages instead of constructing words for new concepts from older words





with derivation or word composition. People often say that English has a rich vocabulary as if it were something to be proud of. The richness of the vocabulary results basically from word borrowing and implies that words for related concepts are typically not related to each other in any obvious, regular manner. Word borrowing makes a language more international in one sense, but in the essential sense it makes it less suitable for international communication, since learning the vocabulary is more difficult.

### A CONSTRUCTED INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE?

The discussion above shows that it would be highly desirable to have a constructed language for international communication. It is well known that a large number of attempts to that effect have been made, with little results. Advocates of the basic idea have hardly agreed on anything but the basic idea, and most constructed languages have had no use as a language. People who strongly support the idea have typically designed their own proposal, a perfect language, and they do not want accept anything that is not perfect - "best" is the worst enemy of "good".

The very idea is not inherently unrealistic, but it can only be realized if strong economical and political interests are involved, such as the intended creation of a European or Japanese-Chinese empire. The best that the advocates of a constructed international language can wish is that such empires emerge and that the United States remain as an important power, so that the world will have a few strong empires which cannot beat each other but must live in parallel and in cooperation. In such a situation, it might turn out that it is unrealistic not to agree on a common language which is not any of the national languages.

The role of the Internet in this hypothetical development would be to create the informational infrastructure for the discussion of the construction of the language, the very construction work, spreading out information about the language, the use of the language, and continuous development of the language. Most probably the language would first be used in parallel with English, and the initial use would be for such purposes like international



agreements where national languages are clearly insufficient. For instance, if you need to formulate an agreement between two countries, you definitely need a neutral common language instead of having the text in two languages, each text allowing its own interpretations.

#### AN ALTERNATIVE: MACHINE TRANSLATION

An alternative view of the future is that after a few years or decades, no universal language is needed: machine translation will allow you to use your own language. If the machine translation tools had sufficient quality and speed, you could sit on your terminal writing your news article or an IRC message in, say, Finnish, and another person in New Zealand would read your text in English, due to automatic translation "on the fly".

During the last few decades, quite a lot of predictions and even promises have been presented regarding machine translation, but useful software and systems for it have not been available until recently. This has caused disappointments and pessimism to the extent that many people consider machine translation as definitely unrealistic.

Actually, machine translation is operational for a wide range of texts, although corrective actions by human translators may be necessary. Corrections are needed to resolve ambiguities which exist due to the limitations of the software and to fix errors caused by the fact that translation of human languages requires extralinguistic information.

Assumably fully automatic correct translation will never be possible. However, this does not exclude the possibility of using it extensively. It only means that we must be prepared to accept a risk - decreasing by advances in technology, but never reaching zero - of translation errors. Such risks exist when human translators are used, too, and in many respects automatic translation can be more reliable. Both human beings and computer programs err, in different ways.

In addition to the advancement of translation techniques, there are several ways in which the risk of errors in automatic translation can be decreased:



- avoiding ambiguities in the source language: people can try to write their texts so that they are more easily tractable by translation programs
- checking the translations: a person who has written a text in his native language may run it through a translation program, check and correct the result, and provide the "authorized" translation together with the source text; although it is usually not feasible to do this for several target languages, the authorized translation (typically, to English) can be used by translation programs for checking purposes: if translations from the original source and the authorized translation yield different results, this fact should be signalled to the user
- warnings: in general, problematic fragments of texts like those obviously allowing different syntactic analyses, can be signalled to the user - i.e. to the author, to the reader, or both.

Currently the operational machine translation software is essentially based on syntactic analysis, so that semantic information is implicit in the dictionaries used by the software. An alternative approach, based on some kind of semantic analysis in addition to syntax, does not appear to be practically applicable yet.

## **ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.**

The English language is a West Germanic language, originating from England. It is the third most common "first" language (native speakers), with around 402 million people in 2002. English has lingua franca status in many parts of the world, due to the military, economic, scientific, political and cultural influence of the United Kingdom and later the United States. Where possible, virtually all students in higher education worldwide are required to learn some English, and knowledge of English is virtually a prerequisite for working in many fields and occupations. Higher academic institutions, for example, require a working command of English.



## HISTORY

English is descended from the language spoken by the Germanic tribes, the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. According to the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, around 449 AD, Vortigern, King of the British Isles, issued an invitation to the "Angle kin" (Angles, led by Hengest and Horsa) to help him against the Picts. In return, the Angles were granted lands in the southeast. Further aid was sought, and in response "came men of Ald Seaxum of Anglum of lotum" (Saxons, Angles, and Jutes). The Chronicle documents the subsequent influx of "settlers" who eventually established seven kingdoms: Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Kent, Essex, Sussex, and Wessex.

These Germanic invaders dominated the original Celtic-speaking inhabitants, the languages of whom survived largely in Scotland, Wales, Cornwall, and Ireland. The dialects spoken by these invaders formed what would be called Old English, which was also strongly influenced by yet another Germanic dialect, Old Norse, spoken by Viking invaders who settled mainly in the North-East (see Jorvik). *English, England, and East Anglia* are derived from words referring to the Angles: Englisc, Angelcynn, and Englalund.

For the 300 years following the Norman Conquest in 1066, the Kings of England spoke only French. A large number of French words were assimilated into Old English, which also lost most of its inflections, the result being Middle English. Around the year 1500, the Great Vowel Shift transformed Middle English to Modern English.

The most famous surviving works from Old and Middle English are Beowulf and Geoffrey Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales*.

Modern English, the language described by this article, began its rise around the time of William Shakespeare. Some scholars divide early Modern English and late Modern English at around 1800, in concert with British conquest of much of the rest of the world, as the influence of native languages affected English enormously.

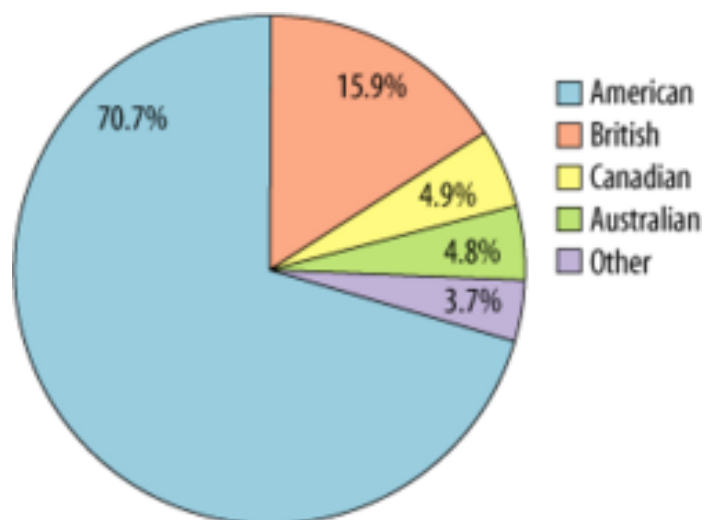


## CLASSIFICATION AND RELATED LANGUAGES

English belongs to the western sub-branch of the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family of languages. The closest undoubted living relatives of English are Scots and Frisian. Frisian is a language spoken by approximately half a million people in the Dutch province of Friesland (Fryslân), in nearby areas of Germany, and on a few islands in the North Sea.

After Scots and Frisian, the next closest relative is the modern Low Saxon language of the eastern Netherlands and northern Germany. Other less closely related living languages include Dutch, Afrikaans, German and the Scandinavian languages. Many French words are also intelligible to an English speaker, as English absorbed a tremendous amount of vocabulary from the Norman language after the Norman conquest and from French in further centuries; as a result, a substantial share of English vocabulary is quite close to the French, with some minor spelling differences (word endings, use of old French spellings, etc.), as well as occasional differences in meaning.

## GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION



Distribution of native English speakers by dialect

English is the first language in Australia (Australian English), the Bahamas, Barbados (Caribbean English), Bermuda, Dominica, Gibraltar, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica (Jamaican English), New Zealand (New Zealand English), Antigua, St. Lucia, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines,



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Trinidad and Tobago, the United Kingdom (British English) and the United States of America (American English).

English is also one of the primary languages of Belize (with Spanish), Canada (with French), India (Hindi and English in addition to 21 other state languages), Ireland (with Irish), Singapore (with Malay, Mandarin, Tamil and other Asian languages) and South Africa (along with Zulu, Xhosa, Afrikaans, and Northern Sotho). It is the most commonly used unofficial language of Israel.

In Hong Kong it is an official language and is widely used in business activities. It is taught from kindergarten level, and is the medium of instruction for a few primary schools, many secondary schools and all universities. Substantial number of students acquire native-speaker level. It is so widely used and spoken, that it is inadequate to say it is merely a second or foreign language.

It is an official language, but not native, in Cameroon, Fiji, the Federated States of Micronesia, Ghana, Gambia, Kiribati, Lesotho, Liberia, Kenya, Namibia, Nigeria, Malta, the Marshall Islands, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, the Solomon Islands, Samoa, Argentina, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Panama, Sierra Leone, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

English is the most widely used "second" and "learning" language in the world, and as such, many linguists believe, it is no longer the exclusive cultural emblem of "native English speakers", but rather a language that is absorbing aspects of cultures worldwide as it grows in use. Others theories that there are limits to how far English can go in suiting everyone for communication purposes. It is the language most often studied as a foreign language in Europe (32.6 percent) and Japan, followed by French, German and Spanish.

#### DIALECTS AND REGIONAL VARIANTS

The expansiveness of the British and the Americans has spread English throughout the globe. It is now the second-most spoken language in the world after Mandarin Chinese. As such, it has bred a variety of regional Englishes (generally referred to as English dialects) and English-based creoles and pidgins.



The major varieties of English may, and in most cases do, contain several subvarieties, such as Cockney within British English, Newfoundland English within Canadian English, and African American Vernacular English ("Ebonics") within American English. English is considered a pluricentric language, with no variety being clearly considered the only standard.

Some people dispute the status of Scots as a closely related separate language from English and consider it a group of English dialects. Scots has a long tradition as a separate written and spoken language. Pronunciation, grammar and lexis differ, sometimes substantially, from other varieties of English including Scottish English.

Due to English's wide use as a second language, English speakers can have many different accents, which may identify the speaker's native dialect or language. For more distinctive characteristics of regional accents, see Regional accents of English speakers. For more distinctive characteristics of regional dialects, see List of dialects of the English language.

Many countries around the world have blended English words and phrases into their everyday speech and refer to the result by a colloquial name that implies its bilingual origins, which parallels the English language's own addiction to loan words and borrowings. Named examples of these ad-hoc constructions, distinct from pidgin and creole languages, include Engrish, Franglais and Spanglish. (See List of dialects of the English language for a complete list.) European combines many languages but has an English core.

## MAJOR REGIONAL VARIATIONS

### EUROPE

- British English
- Hiberno-English
- Scottish English



## THE AMERICAS

- American English
- Canadian English
- Caribbean English
- Jamaican English
- Newfoundland English
- Spanglish

## OCEANIA

- Australian English
- New Zealand English

## ASIA

- Hong Kong English
- Indian English
- Manglish
- Singlish
- Philippine English

## AFRICA

- Liberian English
- South African English

## CONSTRUCTED VARIANTS OF ENGLISH

Basic English is simplified for easy international use. It is used by some aircraft manufacturers and other international businesses to write manuals and communicate. Some English schools in the Far East teach it as an initial practical subset of English.

Special English is a simplified version of English used by the Voice of America. It uses a vocabulary of 1500 words.





Seaspeak and the related Airspeak and Policespeak, all based on restricted vocabularies, were designed by Edward Johnson in the 1980s to aid international cooperation and communication in specific areas.

## SOUNDS

## VOWELS

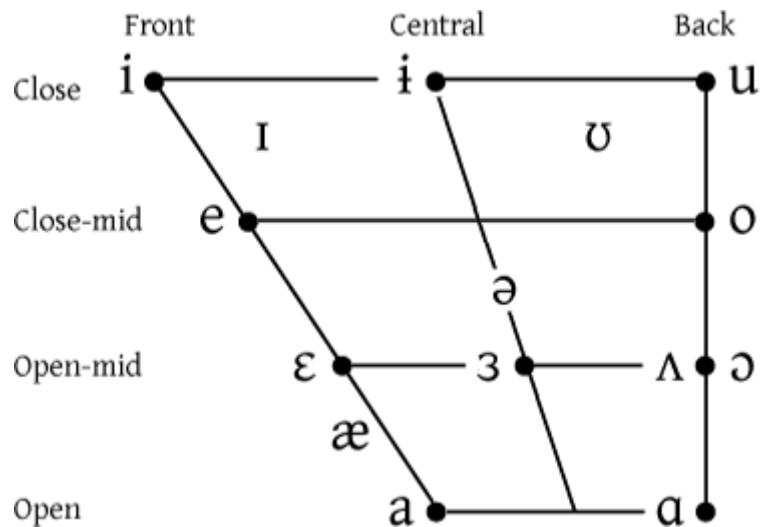


Diagram of English vowels arranged in the vowel space

IPA	Description	word
<b>monophthongs</b>		
i/i:	Close front unrounded vowel	bead
ɪ	Near-close near-front unrounded vowel	bid
ɛ	Open-mid front unrounded vowel	bed
æ	Near-open front unrounded vowel	bad
ɒ	Open back rounded vowel	bod <sup>1</sup>
ɔ	Open-mid back rounded vowel	pawed <sup>2</sup>



a/ɑ:	Open back unrounded vowel	<b>bra</b>
ʊ	Near-close near-back rounded vowel	<b>good</b>
u/u:	Close back rounded vowel	<b>booed</b>
ʌ	Open-mid back unrounded vowel	<b>bud</b>
ɜ/ɝ	Open-mid central unrounded vowel	<b>bird</b> <sup>3</sup>
ə	Schwa	<b>Rosas</b> <sup>4</sup>
ɪ	Close central unrounded vowel	<b>roses</b> <sup>5</sup>
<b>diphthongs</b>		
Eɪ	Close-mid front unrounded vowel Close front unrounded vowel	<b>bayed</b>
Oʊ/əʊ	Close-mid back rounded vowel Near-close near-back rounded vowel	<b>bode</b>
Aɪ	Open front unrounded vowel Near-close near-front rounded vowel	<b>buy</b>
Aʊ	Open front unrounded vowel Near-close near-back rounded vowel	<b>bough</b>
ɔɪ	Open-mid back rounded vowel Close front unrounded vowel	<b>boy</b>

**NOTES:**

It is the vowels that differ most from region to region.

Where symbols appear in pairs, the first corresponds to the sounds used in North American English; the second corresponds to English spoken elsewhere.



1. North American English lacks this sound; words with this sound are pronounced with /ɑ/.
2. Many dialects of North American English don't have this vowel. See cot-caught merger.
3. The North American variation of this sound is rhotic.
4. Many speakers of North American English don't distinguish between these two unstressed vowels. For them, *roses* and *Rosa's* are pronounced the same, and the symbol usually used is schwa /ə/.
5. This sound is often transcribed with /i/ or with /ɪ/.

## CONSONANTS

This is English's Consonantal System (including dialect sounds) using IPA<sup>9</sup> symbols.

	bilabial	labiodental	interdental	alveolar	palato-alveolar	palatal	velar	glottal
<b>plosive</b>	P b			t d			k g	
<b>nasal</b>	M			n			ŋ <sup>1</sup>	
<b>flap</b>				r <sup>2</sup>				
<b>fricative</b>		f v	θ ð <sup>3</sup>	s z	ʃ ʒ		x <sup>4</sup>	h
<b>affricate</b>					tʃ dʒ			
<b>approximant</b>				ɹ		j		
<b>lateral approximant</b>				l				

1. The velar nasal [ŋ] is a non-phonemic allophone of /n/ in some northerly British accents, appearing only before /g/. In all other

<sup>9</sup> IPA: Internacional Phonetic Alphabet



dialects it is a separate phoneme, although it only occurs in syllable codas.

2. The alveolar flap [ɾ] is an allophone of /t/ and /d/ in unstressed syllables in North American English and increasingly in Australian English. This is the sound of "tt" or "dd" in the words *latter* and *ladder*, which are homophones in North American English. This is the same sound represented by single "r" in some words in Spanish.
3. In some dialects, such as Cockney, the interdentalals /θ/ and /ð/ are usually merged with /f/ and /v/, and in others, like African-American Vernacular English, /ð/ is merged with /d/. In some Irish varieties, /θ/ and /ð/ become the corresponding dental plosives, which then contrast with the usual alveolar plosives.
4. The voiceless velar fricative /x/ is used only by Scottish or Welsh speakers of English for Scots/Gaelic words such as *loch* /lɒx/ or by some speakers for loanwords from German and Hebrew like *reich* /raɪx/ or *Chanukah* /xanuka/, or in some dialects such as Scouse (Liverpool) where the affricate [kx] is used instead of /k/ in words such as *docker* /dɒkxə/. In most speakers, the sounds [k] and [h] are used instead.
5. Voiceless w [ɱ] is found in Scottish, upper-class British, some eastern United States, and New Zealand accents. In all other dialects it is merged with /w/.

#### BASIC SOUND-LETTER CORRESPONDENCE

IPA	Alphabetic representation
p	p
b	b



t	t, th (rarely used, only in foreign words or some names)
d	d
k	c (+ a, o, u, consonants), k, ch
g	g (initially or finally), gh, gg
m	m
n	n
ŋ	ng
ɲ	ny, ni (when either one is surrounded by vowels)
r	dd, tt (this sound in some English dialects)
f	f, ph
v	v
θ	th
ð	th
s	s, c (+ e, i, y), ss
z	z, s (finally or occasionally medially)
ʃ	sh, sch, ch, ss (as in mission), vowel+ ti, vowel+ ci
ʒ	s, z (when either one is surrounded by vowels)
x	kh, ch (sound in Scottish English only)
h	h (initially, otherwise silent)
tʃ	ch
dʒ	j, g (medially or occasionally initially)
ɹ	r



j	y (initially or surrounded by vowels)
l	l
ɫ	l (as in milk, this sound in most English dialects)

## GRAMMAR

English grammar is based on that of its Germanic roots, though some scholars during the 1700s and 1800s attempted to impose Latin grammar upon it, with little success. English is a much less inflected language than most Indo-European languages, placing much grammatical information in auxiliary words and word order. English is a slightly inflected language, retaining features like:

Possessive (which has developed into a clitic)

1. He is Alfredo's best friend. -'s

3rd person singular present

1. Alfredo works. -s

past tense

1. Alfredo worked. -ed

present participle/ progressive

1. Alfredo is working. -ing

past participle

1. The car was stolen. -en
2. Alfredo has talked to the police. -ed

gerund

1. Working is good for the soul. -ing

plural



1. All your songs are mine. -s

comparative

1. Alfredo is smarter than Ricky. -er

superlative

1. Alfredo has the bluest eyes. -est

It must be noted that, unlike other Germanic languages or the Romance languages, English nouns do not take gender and verbs can take the "ing" ending. However, despite this relative straightforwardness, as any native speaker (or those attempting to master it) knows, English has its own set of maddening idiosyncrasies. See American and British English differences. See also English plural.

## VOCABULARY

Almost without exception, Germanic words (which include all the basics such as pronouns and conjunctions) are shorter, and more informal. Latinate words are often regarded as more elegant or educated. However, the excessive use of Latinate words is often a sign of either pretentiousness (as in the stereotypical policeman's talk of "apprehending the suspect") or obfuscation (as in a military document which says "neutralize" when it means "kill"). George Orwell's essay *Politics and the English Language* gives a thorough treatment of this feature of English.

An English-speaker is often able to choose between Germanic and Latinate synonyms: "come" or "arrive"; "sight" or "vision"; "freedom" or "liberty". The richness of the language is that such synonyms have slightly different meanings, enabling the language to be used in a very flexible way to express fine variations or shades of thought. List of Germanic and Latinate equivalents

In everyday speech the majority of words will normally be Germanic. If one wishes to make a forceful point in an argument in a very blunt way, Germanic words will invariably be chosen. A majority of Latinate words (or



at least a majority of content words) will normally be used in more serious speech and writing, such as a courtroom or an encyclopedia article.

English is noted for the vast size of its active vocabulary and its fluidity. English easily accepts technical terms into common usage and imports new words which often come into common usage. In addition, slang provides new meanings for old words. In fact this fluidity is so pronounced that a distinction often needs to be made between formal forms of English and contemporary usage. See also sociolinguistics.

#### NUMBER OF WORDS IN ENGLISH

The Global Language Monitor has an up-to-the-minute estimate of the number of words in the English language, and the methodology to arrive at this estimation. To read the article by Paul JJ Payack and see the current estimate, go to [Current Estimate of Number of Words in English](#).

#### WORD ORIGINS

One of the consequences of the French influence is that the vocabulary of English is, to a certain extent, divided between those words which are Germanic (mostly Anglo-Saxon), and those which are "Latinate" (Latin-derived, mostly from Norman French but some borrowed directly from Latin).

A computerized survey of about 80,000 words in the old *Shorter Oxford Dictionary (3rd edition)* was published in *Ordered Profusion* by Thomas Finkenstaedt and Dieter Wolff (1973) which estimated the origin of English words as follows:

French, including Old French and early Anglo-French: 28.3%

Latin, including modern scientific and technical Latin: 28.24%

Old and Middle English, Old Norse, and Dutch: 25%

Greek: 5.32%

No etymology given: 4.03%

Derived from proper names: 3.28%





All other languages contributed less than 1%

James D. Nicoll made the oft-quoted observation: "The problem with defending the purity of the English language is that English is about as pure as a cribhouse whore. We don't just borrow words; on occasion, English has pursued other languages down alleyways to beat them unconscious and riffle their pockets for new vocabulary." [1]

## WRITING SYSTEM

English is written using the Latin alphabet. The spelling system or orthography of English is historical, not phonological. The spelling of words often diverges considerably from how they are spoken, and English spelling is often considered to be one of the most difficult to learn of any language that uses an alphabet. See English orthography.

## WRITTEN ACCENTS

English includes some words which can be written with accent marks. These words have mostly been imported from other languages, usually French. But it is increasingly rare for writers of English to actually use the accent marks for common words, even in very formal writing, to the point where actually writing the accent may be interpreted as a sign of pretension. The strongest tendency to retain the accent is in words that are atypical of English morphology and therefore still perceived as slightly foreign. For example, *café* has a pronounced final e, which would be silent by the normal English pronunciation rules.

Some examples: à la carte, ångström, appliqué, attaché, blasé, bric-à-brac, café, cliché, crème, crêpe, derrière, éclair, façade, fiancé(e), flambé, führer, maté, ménage à trois, naïve, né(e), papier-mâché, passé, piñata, piñón, protégé, raison d'être, résumé, risqué, sauté, séance, über-, vis-à-vis, voilà.

Some words such as *rôle* and *hôtel* were first seen with accents when they were borrowed into English, but now the accent is almost never used. The words were considered very French borrowings when first used in English,



even accused by some of being foreign phrases used where English alternatives would suffice, but today their French origin is largely forgotten. The accent on "élite" has disappeared most of the time by today, but *Time Magazine* still uses it.

It is also possible to use a diaeresis to indicate a syllable break, but again this is often left out or a hyphen used instead. Examples: coöperate (or cooperate), daïs, naïve, Noël, reëlect (or re-elect).

Written accents are also used occasionally in poetry and scripts for dramatic performances to indicate that a certain normally unstressed syllable in a word should be stressed for dramatic effect, or to keep with the meter of the poetry. This use is frequently seen in archaic and pseudoarchaic writings with the -ed suffix, to indicate that the "e" should be fully pronounced: i.e. *cursèd*.

In certain older texts (typically in British English), the use of ligatures is common in words such as archæology, œsophagus, and encyclopædia. Such words have Latin or Greek origin.

## INDO-EUROPEAN AND GERMANIC INFLUENCES

English is a member of the Indo-European family of languages. This broad family includes most of the European languages spoken today. The Indo-European family includes several major branches:

- Latin and the modern Romance languages;
- The Germanic languages;
- The Indo-Iranian languages, including Hindi and Sanskrit;
- The Slavic languages;
- The Baltic languages of Latvian and Lithuanian (but not Estonian);
- The Celtic languages; and
- Greek.

The influence of the original Indo-European language, designated proto-Indo-European, can be seen today, even though no written record of it



exists. The word for *father*, for example, is *vater* in German, *pater* in Latin, and *pitr* in Sanskrit. These words are all cognates, similar words in different languages that share the same root.

Of these branches of the Indo-European family, two are, for our purposes of studying the development of English, of paramount importance, the Germanic and the Romance (called that because the Romance languages derive from Latin, the language of ancient Rome, not because of any bodice-ripping literary genre). English is in the Germanic group of languages. This group began as a common language in the Elbe river region about 3,000 years ago. Around the second century BC, this Common Germanic language split into three distinct sub-groups:

- East Germanic was spoken by peoples who migrated back to southeastern Europe. No East Germanic language is spoken today, and the only written East Germanic language that survives is Gothic.
- North Germanic evolved into the modern Scandinavian languages of Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic (but not Finnish, which is related to Estonian and is not an Indo-European language).
- West Germanic is the ancestor of modern German, Dutch, Flemish, Frisian, and English.

#### OLD ENGLISH (500-1100 AD)



West Germanic invaders from Jutland and southern Denmark: the Angles (whose name is the source of the words England and English), Saxons, and Jutes, began populating the British Isles in the fifth and sixth centuries AD. They spoke a mutually intelligible language, similar to modern Frisian--the language of northeastern region of the Netherlands--that is called Old English. Four major dialects of Old English emerged, Northumbrian in the north of England,



Mercian in the Midlands, West Saxon in the south and west, and Kentish in the Southeast.

These invaders pushed the original, Celtic-speaking inhabitants out of what is now England into Scotland, Wales, Cornwall, and Ireland, leaving behind a few Celtic words. These Celtic languages survive today in Gaelic languages of Scotland and Ireland and in Welsh. Cornish, unfortunately, is now a dead language. (The last native Cornish speaker, Dolly Pentreath, died in 1777 in the town of Mousehole, Cornwall.) Also influencing English at this time were the Vikings. Norse invasions, beginning around 850, brought many North Germanic words into the language, particularly in the north of England. Some examples are *dream*, which had meant 'joy' until the Vikings imparted its current meaning on it from the Scandinavian cognate *draumr*, and *skirt*, which continues to live alongside its native English cognate *shirt*.

The majority of words in modern English come from foreign, not Old English roots. In fact, only about one sixth of the known Old English words have descendants surviving today. But this is deceptive; Old English is much more important than these statistics would indicate. About half of the most commonly used words in modern English have Old English roots. Words like *be*, *water*, and *strong*, for example, derive from Old English roots.

Old English, whose best known surviving example is the poem *Beowulf*, lasted until about 1100. This last date is rather arbitrary, but most scholars choose it because it is shortly after the most important event in the development of the English language, the Norman Conquest.

#### THE NORMAN CONQUEST AND MIDDLE ENGLISH (1100-1500)

William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy, invaded and conquered England and the Anglo-Saxons in 1066 AD. (The Bayeux Tapestry, details of which form the navigation buttons on this site, is perhaps the most famous graphical depiction of the Norman Conquest.) The new overlords spoke a dialect of Old French known as Anglo-Norman. The Normans were



also of Germanic stock ("Norman" comes from "Norseman") and Anglo-Norman was a French dialect that had considerable Germanic influences in addition to the basic Latin roots.

Prior to the Norman Conquest, Latin had been only a minor influence on the English language, mainly through vestiges of the Roman occupation and from the conversion of Britain to Christianity in the seventh century (ecclesiastical terms such as *priest*, *vicar*, and *mass* came into the language this way), but now there was a wholesale infusion of Romance (Anglo-Norman) words.

The influence of the Normans can be illustrated by looking at two words, beef and cow. *Beef*, commonly eaten by the aristocracy, derives from the Anglo-Norman, while the Anglo-Saxon commoners, who tended the cattle, retained the Germanic *cow*. Many legal terms, such as *indict*, *jury*, and *verdict* have Anglo-Norman roots because the Normans ran the courts. This split, where words commonly used by the aristocracy have Romantic roots and words frequently used by the Anglo-Saxon commoners have Germanic roots, can be seen in many instances.

Sometimes French words replaced Old English words; *crime* replaced *firen* and *uncle* replaced *eam*. Other times, French and Old English components combined to form a new word, as the French *gentle* and the Germanic *man* formed *gentleman*. Other times, two different words with roughly the same meaning survive into modern English. Thus we have the Germanic *doom* and the French *judgment*, or *wish* and *desire*.

It is useful to compare various versions of a familiar text to see the differences between Old, Middle, and Modern English. Take for instance this Old English (c.1000) sample:

*Fæder ure þu þe eart on heofonum si þin nama gehalgod tobecume þin rice gewurþe þin willa on eorðan swa swa on heofonum urne gedæghwamlican hlaf syle us to dæg and forgyf us ure gyltas swa swa we forgyfað urum gyltendum and ne gelæd þu us on costnunge ac alys us of yfele soþlice.*



Rendered in Middle English (Wyclif, 1384), the same text is recognizable to the modern eye:

*Oure fadir þat art in heuenes halwid be þi name; þi reume or kyngdom come to be. Be þi wille don in herþe as it is dounin heuene yeue to us today oure eche dayes bred. And foryeue to us oure dettis þat is oure synnys as we foryeuen to oure dettouris þat is to men þat han synned in us. And lede us not into temptacion but delyuere us from euyl.*

Finally, in Early Modern English (King James Version, 1611) the same text is completely intelligible:

*Our father which art in heauen, hallowed be thy name.*

*Thy kingdom come. Thy will be done in earth as it is in heauen.*

*Giue us this day our daily bread. And forgiue us our debts as we forgiue our debtors. And lead us not into temptation, but deliuer us from euill. Amen.*

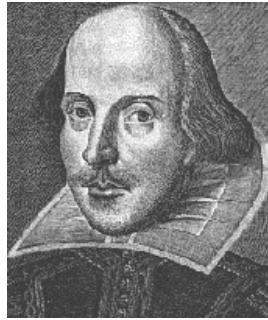
In 1204 AD, King John lost the province of Normandy to the King of France. This began a process where the Norman nobles of England became increasingly estranged from their French cousins. England became the chief concern of the nobility, rather than their estates in France, and consequently the nobility adopted a modified English as their native tongue. About 150 years later, the Black Death (1349-50) killed about one third of the English population. The laboring and merchant classes grew in economic and social importance, and along with them English increased in importance compared to Anglo-Norman.



This mixture of the two languages came to be known as Middle English. The most famous example of Middle English is Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*. Unlike Old English, Middle English can be read, albeit with difficulty, by modern English-speaking people.



By 1362, the linguistic division between the nobility and the commoners was largely over. In that year, the Statute of Pleading was adopted, which made



English the language of the courts and it began to be used in Parliament.

The Middle English period came to a close around 1500 AD with the rise of Modern English.

### EARLY MODERN ENGLISH (1500-1800)

The next wave of innovation in English came with the Renaissance. The revival of classical scholarship brought many classical Latin and Greek words into the Language. These borrowings were deliberate and many bemoaned the adoption of these "inkhorn" terms, but many survive to this day. Shakespeare's character Holofernes in *Loves Labor Lost* is a satire of an overenthusiastic schoolmaster who is too fond of Latinisms.

Many students having difficulty understanding Shakespeare would be surprised to learn that he wrote in modern English. But, as can be seen in the earlier example of the Lord's Prayer, Elizabethan English has much more in common with our language today than it does with the language of Chaucer. Many familiar words and phrases were coined or first recorded by Shakespeare, some 2,000 words and countless catch-phrases are his. Newcomers to Shakespeare are often shocked at the number of clichés contained in his plays, until they realize that he coined them and they became clichés afterwards. "One fell swoop," "vanish into thin air," and "flesh and blood" are all Shakespeare's. Words he bequeathed to the language include "critical," "leapfrog," "majestic," "dwindle," and "pedant."

Two other major factors influenced the language and served to separate Middle and Modern English. The first was the Great Vowel Shift. This was a change in pronunciation that began around 1400. While modern English speakers can read Chaucer with some difficulty, Chaucer's pronunciation would have been completely unintelligible to the modern ear. Shakespeare,



on the other hand, would be accented, but understandable. Long vowel sounds began to be made higher in the mouth and the letter "e" at the end of words became silent. Chaucer's *Lyf* (pronounced "leef") became the modern *life*. In Middle English *name* was pronounced "nam-a," *five* was pronounced "feef," and *down* was pronounced "doon." In linguistic terms, the shift was rather sudden, the major changes occurring within a century. The shift is still not over, however, vowel sounds are still shortening although the change has become considerably more gradual.

The last major factor in the development of Modern English was the advent of the printing press. William Caxton brought the printing press to England in 1476. Books became cheaper and as a result, literacy became more common. Publishing for the masses became a profitable enterprise, and works in English, as opposed to Latin, became more common. Finally, the printing press brought standardization to English. The dialect of London, where most publishing houses were located, became the standard. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the first English dictionary was published in 1604.

#### LATE-MODERN ENGLISH (1800-PRESENT)

The principal distinction between early- and late-modern English is vocabulary. Pronunciation, grammar, and spelling are largely the same, but Late-Modern English has many more words. These words are the result of two historical factors. The first is the Industrial Revolution and the rise of the technological society. This necessitated new words for things and ideas that had not previously existed. The second was the British Empire. At its height, Britain ruled one quarter of the earth's surface, and English adopted many foreign words and made them its own.

The industrial and scientific revolutions created a need for neologisms to describe the new creations and discoveries. For this, English relied heavily on Latin and Greek. Words like *oxygen*, *protein*, *nuclear*, and *vaccine* did not exist in the classical languages, but they were created from Latin and Greek roots. Such neologisms were not exclusively created from classical





roots though, English roots were used for such terms as *horsepower*, *airplane*, and *typewriter*.

This burst of neologisms continues today, perhaps most visible in the field of electronics and computers. *Byte*, *cyber-*, *bios*, *hard-drive*, and *microchip* are good examples.

Also, the rise of the British Empire and the growth of global trade served not only to introduce English to the world, but to introduce words into English. Hindi, and the other languages of the Indian subcontinent, provided many words, such as *pundit*, *shampoo*, *pajamas*, and *juggernaut*. Virtually every language on Earth has contributed to the development of English, from Finnish (*sauna*) and Japanese (*tycoon*) to the vast contributions of French and Latin.

The British Empire was a maritime empire, and the influence of nautical terms on the English language has been great. Words and phrases like *three sheets to the wind* and *scuttlebutt* have their origins onboard ships.

Finally, the 20th century saw two world wars, and the military influence on the language during the latter half of this century has been great. Before the Great War, military service for English-speaking persons was rare; both Britain and the United States maintained small, volunteer militaries. Military slang existed, but with the exception of nautical terms, rarely influenced standard English. During the mid-20th century, however, virtually all British and American men served in the military. Military slang entered the language like never before. *Blockbuster*, *nose dive*, *camouflage*, *radar*, *roadblock*, *spearhead*, and *landing strip* are all military terms that made their way into standard English.

## AMERICAN ENGLISH

Also significant beginning around 1600 AD was the English colonization of North America and the subsequent creation of a distinct American dialect. Some pronunciations and usages "froze" when they reached the American shore. In certain respects, American English is closer to the English of



Shakespeare than modern British English is. Some "Americanisms" that the British decry are actually originally British expressions that were preserved in the colonies while lost at home (e.g., *fall* as a synonym for autumn, *trash* for rubbish, *frame-up* which was reintroduced to Britain through Hollywood gangster movies, and *loan* as a verb instead of lend).

The American dialect also served as the route of introduction for many native American words into the English language. Most often, these were place names like *Mississippi*, *Roanoke*, and *Iowa*. Indian-sounding names like *Idaho* were sometimes created that had no native-American roots. But, names for other things besides places were also common. *Raccoon*, *tomato*, *canoe*, *barbecue*, *savanna*, and *hickory* have native American roots, although in many cases the original Indian words were mangled almost beyond recognition.

Spanish has also been great influence on American English. *Armadillo*, *mustang*, *canyon*, *ranch*, *stampede*, and *vigilante* are all examples of Spanish words that made their way into English through the settlement of the American West.

To a lesser extent French, mainly via Louisiana, and West African, through the importation of slaves, words have influenced American English. *Armoire*, *bayou*, and *jambalaya* came into the language via New Orleans. *Goober*, *gumbo*, and *tote* are West African borrowings first used in America by slaves.

#### A CHRONOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

55 BCE	Roman invasion of Britain under Julius Caesar
43 CE	Roman invasion and occupation under Emperor Claudius. Beginning of Roman rule of Britain
436	Roman withdrawal from Britain complete
449	Anglo-Saxon settlement of Britain begins
450-480	Earliest Old English inscriptions date from this period
597	St. Augustine arrives in Britain. Beginning of Christian conversion of



- the Anglo-Saxons
- 731 The Venerable Bede publishes *The Ecclesiastical History of the English People* in Latin
- 792 Viking raids and settlements begin
- 865 The Danes occupy Northumbria
- 871 Alfred becomes king of Wessex. He has Latin works translated into English and begins practice of English prose. *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* is begun
- 911 Charles II of France grants Normandy to the Viking chief Hrolf the Ganger. The beginning of Norman French
- c.1000 The oldest surviving manuscript of *Beowulf* dates from this period
- 1066 The Norman conquest
- c.1150 The oldest surviving manuscripts in Middle English date from this period
- 1171 Henry II conquers Ireland
- 1204 King John loses the province of Normandy to France
- 1348 English replaces Latin as the medium of instruction in schools, other than Oxford and Cambridge which retain Latin
- 1349-50 The Black Death kills one third of the British population
- 1362 The Statute of Pleading replaces French with English as the language of law. Records continue to be kept in Latin. English is used in Parliament for the first time
- 1384 Wyclif publishes his English translation of the Bible
- c.1388 Chaucer begins *The Canterbury Tales*
- c.1400 The Great Vowel Shift begins
- 1476 William Caxton establishes the first English printing press
- 1485 Caxton publishes Malory's *Le Morte d'Arthur*
- 1492 Columbus discovers the New World
- 1525 William Tyndale translates the New Testament
- 1536 The first Act of Union unites England and Wales



- 
- 1549 First version of *The Book of Common Prayer*
- 1564 Shakespeare born
- 1603 Union of the English and Scottish crowns under James the I (VI of Scotland)
- 1604 Robert Cawdrey publishes the first English dictionary, *Table Alphabeticall*
- 1607 Jamestown, the first permanent English settlement in the New World, established
- 1611 The Authorized, or King James Version, of the Bible is published
- 1616 Death of Shakespeare
- 1623 Shakespeare's First Folio is published
- 1666 The Great Fire of London. End of The Great Plague
- 1702 Publication of the first daily, English-language newspaper, *The Daily Courant*, in London
- 1755 Samuel Johnson publishes his dictionary
- 1770 Cook discovers Australia
- 1776 Thomas Jefferson writes the Declaration of Independence
- 1782 Washington defeats Cornwallis at Yorktown. Britain abandons the American colonies
- 1788 British penal colony established in Australia
- 1803 Act of Union unites Britain and Ireland
- 1828 Noah Webster publishes his dictionary
- 1851 Herman Melville publishes *Moby Dick*
- 1922 British Broadcasting Corporation founded
- 1928 The *Oxford English Dictionary* is published

Types of the English language (American, British, Australian, Canadian, etc)



## Varieties of English

English is - like German or Chinese - a pluricentric language. This basically means, that there exists more than one version of standard English: British English and American English are well known. Canadian English, Australian English and New Zealandian English are important standard varieties as well.



## 'THE ENGLISH LANGUAGES'

Famous linguist *David Crystal* puts it like this: "Experts on English these days are fond of the unexpected plural: We find books and articles talking about 'the English languages' or 'the new Englishes'. What they are emphasizing is the remarkable variety which can be observed in the way sounds, spellings, grammar and vocabulary are used within the English speaking world." (Crystal, *The English language*)

What sounds like linguistic hairsplitting actually has a reverberation into real life. Those varieties are not considered to be dialects, but are equally correct.

Therefore, American English spelling 'theater' and British English spelling 'theatre' are both acceptable in most contexts, even academic exams and legal agreements. However, beware of switching!

## BY TYPE



## BACKGROUND

This linguistic variety is commonly referred to as Black English (BE), Black English Vernacular (BE), African-American Vernacular English (AAVE), and Inner City English (ICE).

There have been three primary theories regarding the source of African-American English. These three theories can be named the following:

- Decreolized Creole
- Variety of Southern States English
- The "Unified" Theory

Proponents of the decreolized creole theory maintain that African-American English arose from a pidgin that was created among slaves from various linguistic backgrounds, primarily from West Africa. This pidgin included features of both the West African languages and English. Over time, this pidgin developed into a creole, and then more recently, became decreolized, and began to resemble English more closely.

Others state that African-American English is a variety of Southern States English, noting that the two varieties have many features in common, such as the Southern Vowel Shift, vowel lowering, and double modals.

Proponents of the unified theory state that African-American English arose from a number of sources, including West African languages and Southern States English, through a variety of evolutionary tracks.

## FEATURES OF AFRICAN-AMERICAN ENGLISH

African-American English has a number of phonological features, including:

- Consonant Cluster Reduction
- Realization of /T/ and /D/ as /t,f/ and /d,v/
- Vowel Lowering
- /z/ -> [d] in Contractions
- Monophthongization



- R-lessness

## BACKGROUND

The term **American Indian English** refers to a number of varieties of English that are spoken by indigenous communities throughout North America. As Leap (1982) states, "there are many Indian English-es." Each one is unique in its phonology, syntax and semantic properties. In this area of the site, we will explore some of the features that have been studied in terms of different varieties of American Indian English.

There are two primarily studied sources of the features attributed to American Indian English. In some cases, it has been proposed that the features of American Indian English originate from the same sources as other nonstandard varieties of English, such as Southern States English. In other cases, it has been argued that features of American Indian English are the result of influence from the native language.

Some varieties of English that will be represented on this site are Mojave English, Isletan English, Tsimshian English, Lumbee English, Tohono O'odham English, and Inupiaq English.

## FEATURES

On the following pages are some features associated with different varieties of American Indian English. Not all features are associated with all varieties of American Indian English. On each page, you will be introduced to representative varieties of American Indian English that are associated with that variety.

- The Central Diphthong [ɛɪ]
- Final Devoicing
- Deletion of Final Voiced Stops
- Final [ɪŋ]-> [ɪn]
- Vowel Shift
- Consonant Cluster Reduction



## BACKGROUND OF BRITISH ENGLISH:

The size of the British Isles often leads people to assume that the language spoken in its countries of England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland is somewhat homogeneous and first time visitors are often surprised to find that they have difficulty in understanding the accents and dialects of certain regions. Even within the country of England alone there is great diversity of dialect both regionally and socially. Trudgill (1999) believes that for the majority of English people "where they are from" is very important to them. Accents are clues to where people were born and where they grew up. Although some people may change the way they speak during their lifetimes, most people "carry at least some trace" of their accent and dialect origins throughout their lives:

In addition to the regional accents of England, there can also be class differences reflected in the different accents. The general sociolinguistic issues section discusses this more fully.

## GEOGRAPHY OF BRITISH ENGLISH:

The term "British English" can occasionally be confusing depending upon the regions included by the term British. For the purpose of this project the current study of British English will concentrate on dialects and accents found within the country of England itself and will not include those found in Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland and Ireland.

Although there is an abundance of different dialects within England that can be referred to as "northern" or "southern" for example, they do not really follow any sharp boundaries or coincide with any county lines. Dialects form a continuum and as Trudgill (1999) describes, they can be differentiated on a "more-or-less" basis rather than an "either-or" one. It is common in Britain for people who display particularly broad accents to be labeled by terms such as "Geordie", "Cockney", "Jock" or "Scouse." All of these identify a specific regional accent, most of which are recognizable to many of the





people in the country. Trudgill (1999) discusses specific regional dialects and vocabulary for many areas of Great Britain.

### SOCIOLINGUISTIC ISSUES OF BRITISH ENGLISH:

In Britain, "people are often able to make instant and unconscious judgements about a stranger's class affiliation on the basis of his or her accent." (Wells 1982a) Both the words and pronunciation of many individuals reflect that person's social position. It is agreed that in England, the "phonetic factors assume a predominating role which they do not generally have in North America" (Wells 1982a).

Traditionally, it has been acknowledged that in England, the relation between social and regional accents can be diagrammed as follows:

1.1 Linguistic and social variability

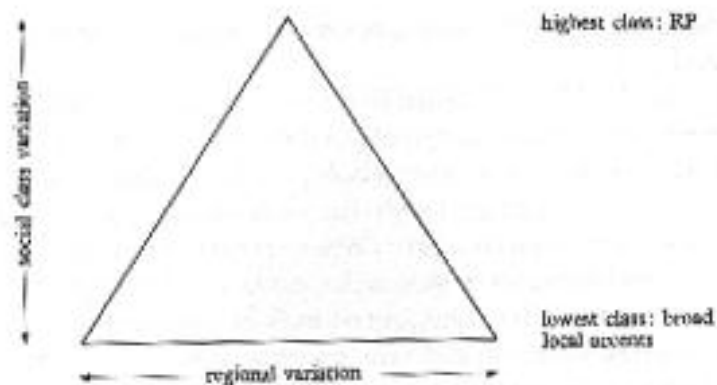


Fig. 2 Relation between social and regional accents in England

Geographical variation is represented along the broad base of the pyramid while the vertical dimension exhibits social variation. It can be seen that working class accents display a good deal of regional variety, but as the pyramid narrows to its apex, up the social scale, it's also apparent that upper class accents exhibit no regional variation.

Thus by definition, any regional accent would not be considered upper-class and the more localizable the accent, the more it will be described as a "broad" accent. Wells (1982a) purports that broad accents reflect:



- regionally, the highest degree of local distinctiveness
- socially, the lowest social class
- linguistically, the maximal degree of difference from RP.

A 1972 survey carried out by National Opinion Polls in England, provides an example of how significantly speech differences are associated with social class differences. The following question was asked: "Which of the these [eleven specified factors] would you say are most important in being able to tell which class a person is?" Respondents were randomly chosen from the British public. The factor that scored the highest was "the way they speak" followed by "where they live." At the bottom of the list was "the amount of money they have." All this is evidence that then, and to some degree even now, "speech is regarded as more indicative of social class than occupation, education and income."

(Giles & Sassoon, 1983) also cite consistent findings of listeners evaluating anonymous speakers with standard accents more favorably for such status traits as intelligence, success, confidence. In Britain the middle class is associated with having not only a standard accent, but with also speaking in a more "formal and abstract style than working class."

Accents are often characterized by British speakers themselves as either "posh" or "common" accents. Most speakers of British English would recognize these labels and create a fairly accurate image of the sound of these far ends of the spectrum. Conservative or U-"Received Pronunciation" representing the "posh" end and a less broad version of Cockney representing the "common" accent.

The significance of accents and their cultural and social associations is well represented in films and on television in Britain. The critically acclaimed 1964 film *My Fair Lady* based on George Bernard Shaw's 1912 play, *Pygmalion* is often referenced in linguistic discussions as a wonderful example of how social class and accent were, and are still, inextricably linked in Britain. Over the past years, numerous television series have also provided viewers with a glimpse of the lives and accents of the Cockney



population of London. The Cockney English section talks more about the current, very popular long running television series EastEnders.

#### ACCENTS WITHIN ENGLAND:

As language change continues to take place within Britain and within England, there are some who claim that a relatively newly established accent, "Estuary English" (EE) is due to replace the traditional educated accent of England Received Pronunciation" (RP). (Wells, 1998) Estuary English is reported to be used by speakers who constitute the social "middle ground" and is discussed in detail under the Estuary English section.

It must be emphasized, however, that there are many features in common among these more prevalent accents that are present in England and that they must be thought of as existing on a continuum rather than having strict, non fuzzy boundaries.

The many regional accents within the British Isles are not currently discussed on this site. However, two of the most commonly known and researched accents (RP and Cockney) will be included as will Estuary English as evidence of recent language change. There will also be a discussion of what Katie Wales (1994) refers to as the "Queen's" English and where this fits into the continuum of British accents.

- Received Pronunciation (RP) English
- Cockney English
- Estuary English (EE)
- "Queen's" English

Canadian English, for all its speakers, is an under-described variety of English. In popular dialectological literature it is often given little acknowledgement as a distinct and homogeneous variety, save for a paragraph or two dedicated to oddities of Canadian spelling and the fading use of British-sounding lexical items like *chesterfield*, *serviette*, and *zed*.



There is a small body of scholarly research that suggests that if there is such a thing as a Canadian English, all its unique characteristics are being lost. In fact, Lilles (2000) goes so far as to claim that there is no such thing as a distinct Canadian English, and argues that the notion of Canadian English is a myth, fabricated to reinforce a fragile Canadian identity. As evidence, he cites the lack of phonological and orthographic standardization for Canadian English, the paucity of distinct Canadian vocabulary, and the appearance of regionalisms associated with various parts of the United States.

Sutherland (2000) quickly rebuts by pointing out that Canadian English is more than a "network of regionalisms", and that a variety can be distinct by more than its vocabulary. We can add that orthographic standards tell us little about what makes a spoken variety unique. Further, as you have navigated the LSP site, you will have seen that although few linguistic features are unique to any dialect, the confluence of a particular set of features is what makes a dialect unique. This is certainly true of Canadian English: no other dialect has all the same features.

Other research suggests that the few unique traits of Canadian English are disappearing in favor of American forms. Clarke (1993) and Chambers (1998) point to the loss of certain lexical items, like *chesterfield* and *serviette*, and the loss of certain phonological traits, like voiceless *wh* of *which* and [yu] in *news* and *student*. These are seen as a signal of the impending convergence of Canadian and American English. Indeed, Woods (1993) identifies eight phonological variables as characteristically Canadian, and argues that most of them are disappearing.

To the contrary, this site's discussion of Canadian phonology identifies at least four other characteristics not included in Woods' study, all of which remain robust in Canadian speech. The other sections offer further insight into the character of Canadian English. The Table of Contents below provides an overview of the organization of this area of the LSP website.



The northeastern United States has a wide variety of distinct accents and dialects. The diversity that exists in the modern northeast is partially a consequence of its older settlement: communities like Boston, New York, and Philadelphia have been around longer than similar-sized communities in the western U.S. As a result, the speech of each urban community has had more time to diverge from the dialects of other nearby cities. Yet as we will see below, some of these divergent innovations are comparatively recent.

The term Southern American English (also known as Southern States English) refers to a number of varieties of English spoken in many of the southern States, including Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Tennessee, North and South Carolina, Virginia, and parts of Arkansas, Maryland, Oklahoma, Texas, and West Virginia. Although these varieties are not uniform throughout these states, they share certain common characteristics that differentiate them from other varieties found in the Northern and Western United States.

#### FEATURES OF SOUTHERN AMERICAN ENGLISH

There are a number of phonetic/phonological features of Southern American English, including the following:

- Southern Vowel Shift
- /z/ -> [d] in Contractions
- /E/ -> /I/ before Nasals
- Post-Coronal Glides
- Vowel Lowering
- Monophthongization
- R-lessness
- The Central Diphthong [AI]

Morphosyntactic features of Southern American English include the following:

- Double Modals



- The *fixin'* to Construction

There are also quite a few lexical distinctions that distinguish Southern American English from other varieties, including:

- /z/ vs. /s/ in *greasy*

Relationship with other languages

What Does it Mean for Languages to be "Genetically Related"?

Genetic relations among humans and groups of humans have to do with the biological transmission of genes from generation to generation. Genetic relations among languages, however, are **not** biologically based, but are defined by cultural transmission from generation to generation. That is, languages are learned, not inherited via the genes.

All languages change during the course of time, and the longer the time period the greater the changes. When a language is culturally transmitted by speakers to their offspring over many generations, it can become so different that it is given a different name. Thus for example the Latin spoken in parts of the Iberian peninsula changed over time and became Spanish, Proto-Germanic became English in England, etc. A language whose speakers lose contact with one another can eventually evolve into numerous distinct languages. This is what happened with Proto-Indo-European, Latin, Proto-Germanic, and countless other languages spoken at various earlier periods in human history. Latin became Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, French, and a number of other languages spoken by groups currently without national status. We call such groups of languages **related languages**, because they are related to each other by virtue of paths of parent-to-offspring cultural transmission that trace back to a common source language.



Cultural transmission that happens between groups of adults, in which one group takes some of the words of the other group's language, is a different kind of relation called **language contact**. The term "related languages" is not used for this kind of situation.

Metaphorically, we can refer to the relation defined by a parent-child pattern of language transmission as **genetic relationship** of languages. The source language can be called the "ancestor language" or the "mother language", and the later languages deriving from it are called the "descendant languages" or the "daughter languages". Daughter languages are descended from the mother language. If there is only cultural contact as described above, the relationship is not one of genetic descent.

Genetically related languages can be closely related, or more distantly related, depending on how directly they trace back to a common source. Degree of relatedness can be represented by setting up a genetic classification of languages, shown in the form of a **family tree** in which daughter languages are plotted in relation to their mother languages, with direct connections representing closer relationship and indirect connections representing more distant relations. For example, English and German are closely related languages and would be right next to each other on the Indo-European family tree, because they are both directly descended from Proto-Germanic. English and Latin are also related, because they both trace back to the ancient Proto-Indo-European language, but they are much more distantly related because more time has passed between the source and the daughter languages and there were several language splits that happened in the meantime. The intermediate splits define groupings of more closely related languages like the Germanic languages and the Romance languages.

The family tree metaphor for language relationship is useful because it captures some similarities between language transmission and transmission of genes. Both involve transmission from generation to generation, but in one case it is cultural (the languages), the other biological (the genes).



The main problem of the family tree metaphor is that people often logically confuse language relationship with biological relationship, and think that people having the same language ancestry necessarily have the same biological ancestry and vice versa. This is obviously false, since a language can always be adopted by a people whose ancestors spoke other languages. Do you speak the language of your biological ancestors? Most Americans do not.

This problem can easily be avoided if we just recall that all culturally transmitted artifacts, technologies, and institutions are learned, not innate, including human languages; and that the family tree metaphor of language relationships is just that, a metaphor.





## LINGUISTICS

### DEFINITION

- The study of the nature, structure, and variation of language, including phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, sociolinguistics, and pragmatics.
- Linguistics, scientific study of language, covering the structure (morphology and syntax; see grammar), sounds (phonology), and meaning (semantics), as well as the history of the relations of languages to each other and the cultural place of language in human behavior. Phonetics, the study of the sounds of speech, is generally considered a separate (but closely related to) field from linguistics.

### EARLY LINGUISTICS

Before the 19th cent., language was studied mainly as a field of philosophy. Among the philosophers interested in language was Wilhelm von Humboldt, who considered language an activity that arises spontaneously from the human spirit; thus, he felt, languages are different just as the characteristics of individuals are different. In 1786 the English scholar Sir William Jones suggested the possible affinity of Sanskrit and Persian with Greek and Latin, for the first time bringing to light genetic relations between languages. With Jones's revelation the school of comparative historical linguistics began. Through the comparison of language structures, such 19th-century European linguists as Jakob Grimm, Rasmus Rask, Karl Brugmann, and Antoine Meillet, as well as the American William Dwight Whitney, did much to establish the existence of the Indo-European family of languages.

### STRUCTURAL LINGUISTICS

In the 20th cent. the structural or descriptive linguistics school emerged. It dealt with languages at particular points in time (synchronic) rather than



throughout their historical development (diachronic). The father of modern structural linguistics was Ferdinand de Saussure, who believed in language as a systematic structure serving as a link between thought and sound; he thought of language sounds as a series of linguistic signs that are purely arbitrary, as can be seen in the linguistic signs or words for *horse*: German *Pferd*, Turkish *at*, French *cheval*, and Russian *loshad'*. In America, a structural approach was continued through the efforts of Franz Boas and Edward Sapir, who worked primarily with Native American languages, and Leonard Bloomfield, whose methodology required that nonlinguistic criteria must not enter a structural description. Rigorous procedures for determining language structure were developed by Kenneth Pike, Bernard Bloch, Charles Hockett, and others.

#### TRANSFORMATIONAL-GENERATIVE GRAMMAR

In the 1950s the school of linguistic thought known as transformational-generative grammar received wide acclaim through the works of Noam Chomsky. Chomsky postulated a syntactic base of language (called deep structure), which consists of a series of phrase-structure rewrite rules, i.e., a series of (possibly universal) rules that generates the underlying phrase-structure of a sentence, and a series of rules (called transformations) that act upon the phrase-structure to form more complex sentences. The end result of a transformational-generative grammar is a surface structure that, after the addition of words and pronunciations, is identical to an actual sentence of a language. All languages have the same deep structure, but they differ from each other in surface structure because of the application of different rules for transformations, pronunciation, and word insertion. Another important distinction made in transformational-generative grammar is the difference between language competence (the subconscious control of a linguistic system) and language performance (the speaker's actual use of language). Although the first work done in transformational-generative grammar was syntactic, later studies have applied the theory to the phonological and semantic components of language.



## AREAS OF THEORETICAL LINGUISTICS

Theoretical linguistics is often divided into a number of separate areas, to be studied more or less independently. The following divisions are currently widely acknowledged:

- Phonetics, the study of the different sounds that are employed across all human languages
- Phonology, the study of patterns of a language's basic sounds
- Morphology, the study of the internal structure of words
- Syntax, the study of how words combine to form grammatical sentences
- Semantics, the study of the meaning of words (lexical semantics), and how these combine to form the meanings of sentences; and
- Pragmatics, the study of how utterances are used (literally, figuratively, or otherwise) in communicative acts
- Historical linguistics, the study of languages whose historical relations are recognizable through similarities in vocabulary, word formation, and syntax.
- Linguistic Typology, the study of the grammatical features that are employed across all human languages
- Stylistics, the study of style in languages

The independent significance of each of these areas is not universally acknowledged, however, and nearly all linguists would agree that the divisions overlap considerably. Nevertheless, each sub-area has core concepts that foster significant scholarly inquiry and research.

## DIACHRONIC LINGUISTICS

Whereas the core of theoretical linguistics is concerned with studying languages at a particular point in time (usually the present), diachronic linguistics examines how language changes through time, sometimes over centuries. Historical linguistics enjoys both a rich history (the study of



linguistics grew out of historical linguistics) and a strong theoretical foundation for the study of language change.

In American universities, the non-historic perspective seems to have the upper hand. Many introductory linguistics classes, for example, cover historical linguistics only cursorily. The shift in focus to a non-historic perspective started with Saussure and became predominant with Noam Chomsky.

Explicitly historical perspectives include historical-comparative linguistics and etymology.

### APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Whereas theoretical linguistics is concerned with finding and describing generalities both within particular languages and among all languages, applied linguistics takes the results of those findings and *applies* them to other areas. Often *applied linguistics* refers to the use of linguistic research in language teaching, but results of linguistic research are used in many other areas, as well.

Many areas of applied linguistics today involve the explicit use of computers. Speech synthesis and speech recognition use phonetic and phonemic knowledge to provide voice interfaces to computers. Applications of computational linguistics in machine translation, computer-assisted translation, and natural language processing are extremely fruitful areas of applied linguistics which have come to the forefront in recent years with increasing computing power. Their influence has had a great effect on theories of syntax and semantics, as modeling syntactic and semantic theories on computers constrains the theories to computable operations and provides a more rigorous mathematical basis.

### CONTEXTUAL LINGUISTICS

Contextual linguistics is that realm where the discipline of linguistics interacts with other academic disciplines. Whereas in core theoretical



linguistics language is studied for its own sake, the interdisciplinary areas of linguistics consider how language interacts with the rest of the world.

Sociolinguistics, anthropological linguistics, and linguistic anthropology are where the social sciences that consider societies as whole and linguistics interact.

Critical discourse analysis is where rhetoric and philosophy interact with linguistics.

Psycholinguistics and neurolinguistics are the where the medical sciences meet linguistics.

Other cross-disciplinary areas of linguistics include language acquisition, evolutionary linguistics, stratificational linguistics, and cognitive science.

## INDIVIDUAL SPEAKERS, LANGUAGE COMMUNITIES, AND LINGUISTIC UNIVERSALS

Linguists also differ in how broad a group of language users they study. Some analyze a given speaker's language (idiolect) or language development in great detail. Some study language pertaining to a whole speech community, such as the dialect of those who speak African American Vernacular English ("Ebonics"). Others try to find linguistic universals that apply, at some abstract level, to all users of human language everywhere. This latter project has been most famously advocated by Noam Chomsky, and it interests many people in psycholinguistics and cognitive science. It is thought that universals in human language may reveal important insight into universals about the human mind.

## PRESCRIPTION AND DESCRIPTION

Most research currently performed under the name "linguistics" is purely *descriptive*; the linguists seek to clarify the nature of language without passing value judgments or trying to chart future language directions. Nonetheless, there are many professionals and amateurs who also



*prescribe* rules of language, holding a particular standard out for all to follow.

Prescriptivists tend to be found among the ranks of language educators. They hold clear notions of what is right and wrong, and may assign themselves the responsibility of ensuring that the next generation uses the variety of language that is most likely to lead to "success", often the *acrolect* of a particular language. The reasons for their intolerance of "incorrect usage" may include distrust of neologisms, connections to socially-disapproved dialects (i.e., *basilects*), or simple conflicts with pet theories. An extreme version of prescriptivism can be found among censors, whose personal mission is to eradicate words and structures which they consider to be destructive to society.

Descriptivists, on the other hand, seek to find the root of "incorrect usage". They might describe it simply as "idiosyncratic", or they may discover a regularity (a *rule*) that agitates the prescriptivists. Within the context of fieldwork, descriptive linguistics refers to the study of language using a descriptivist (rather than a prescriptivists) approach. Descriptivist methodology more closely resembles scientific methodology in other disciplines.

## SPEECH VERSUS WRITING

Most contemporary linguists work under the assumption that spoken language is more fundamental, and thus more important to study than written language. Reasons for this perspective include:

- Speech appears to be a human universal, whereas there have been many cultures and speech communities that lack written communication;
- People learn to speak and process spoken languages more easily and much earlier than writing;
- A number of cognitive scientists argue that the brain has an innate "language module", knowledge of which is thought to come more



from studying speech than writing, particularly since language as speech is held to be an evolutionary adaptation, whereas writing is a comparatively recent invention.

Of course, linguists agree that the study of written language can be worthwhile and valuable. For linguistic research that uses the methods of corpus linguistics and computational linguistics, written language is often much more convenient for processing large amounts of linguistic data. Large corpora of spoken language are difficult to create and hard to find, and are typically used in transcriptional form anyway.

Furthermore, the study of writing systems themselves falls under the aegis of linguistics.

#### IMPORTANT LINGUISTS AND SCHOOLS OF THOUGHT

Early scholars of linguistics include Jakob Grimm, who devised the principle of consonantal shifts in pronunciation known as Grimm's Law in 1822, Karl Verner, who discovered Verner's Law, August Schleicher who created the "Stammbaumtheorie" and Johannes Schmidt who developed the "Wellentheorie" ("wave model") in 1872. Ferdinand de Saussure was the founder of modern structural linguistics. Noam Chomsky's formal model of language, transformational-generative grammar, developed under the influence of his teacher Zellig Harris, who was in turn strongly influenced by Leonard Bloomfield, has been the dominant one from the 1960s.

Other important linguists and schools include Michael Halliday, whose systemic functional grammar is pursued widely in the U.K., Canada, Australia, China, and Japan; Dell Hymes, who developed a pragmatic approach called The Ethnography of Speaking; George Lakoff, Leonard Talmy, and Ronald Langacker, who were pioneers in cognitive linguistics; Charles Fillmore and Adele Goldberg, who are associated with construction grammar; and linguists developing several varieties of what they call functional grammar, including Talmy Givon and Robert Van Valin, Jr.



## REPRESENTATION OF SPEECH

- International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), a system used to write down and reproduce the sounds of human speech.
- SAMPA, an ASCII-only transcription for the IPA used by some authors. See also the SAMPA home page.

## NARROWER CONCEPTIONS OF "LINGUISTICS"

"Linguistics" and "linguist" may not always be meant to apply as broadly as above. In some contexts, the best definitions may be "what is studied in a typical university's department of linguistics", and "one who is a professor in such a department." Linguistics in this narrow sense usually does not refer to learning to speak foreign languages (except insofar as this helps to craft formal models of language.) It does not include literary analysis. Only sometimes does it include study of things such as metaphor. It probably does not apply to those engaged in such prescriptive efforts as found in Strunk and White's *The Elements of Style*; "linguists" usually seek to study what people do, not what they *should* do. One could probably argue for a long while about who is and who is not a "linguist".





## **THE CURRICULUM**

### **HISTORICAL BACKGROUND**

The history of curriculum development in language teaching starts with the notion of syllabus design. Syllabus design is one aspect of curriculum development but is not identical with it. A syllabus is a specification of the content of a course of instruction and lists what will be taught and tested. Thus the syllabus for speaking course may specify the kinds of oral skills that will be taught and practiced during the course, the functions topics, or other aspects of conversation that will be taught, and the order in which they will appear in the course. Syllabus design is the process of developing a syllabus. Curriculum development is a more comprehensive process than syllabus design. It includes the process that are used to determine the needs of a group of learners, to develop aims or objectives for a program to address those needs, to determine an appropriate syllabus, course structure, teaching methods, and materials into carry out and evaluation of the language program that results from these processes. Curriculum development in language teaching as we know it today really began in 1960s, though issues of syllabus design emerged as major factor in language teaching much earlier.

### **DEFINITIONS, CLASSIFICATION AND CURRICULAR EVALUATION**

- course of study: an integrated course of academic studies; "he was admitted to a new program at the university".
- In education, a curriculum (plural curricula) is the set of courses and their contents offered by an institution such as a school or university. In some cases, a curriculum may be partially or entirely determined by an external body (such as the National Curriculum for England in English schools).



- A program of courses comprising the formal requirements for a degree in a particular field of study.
- A curriculum is composed of those classes prescribed or outlined by an institution for completion of a program of study leading to a degree or certificate.
- Academic standards—the knowledge, skills, and habits of mind students are expected to acquire in particular grade levels (or clusters of grade levels)—and the units of instruction, often with sample lesson plans, illustrative student activities, and essential and supplementary resources that can help students reach those standards. Is often designed at the state or school district level by a team of teachers, curriculum specialists, and other experts.
- The specifications for a course or subject (module) that describe all the learning experiences a student undergoes, generally including objectives, content, intended learning outcomes, teaching methodology, recommended or prescribed assessment tasks, assessment exemplars, etc. See also Syllabus.
- A program of courses to be taken in pursuit of a degree or other objective.
- (plural: curricula)
- A complete program of learning which includes the following components:
  - Definitions of, debates over Clif Conrad and Kathyn Huggett University of Wisconsin
  - Or program means the formal educational requirements necessary to qualify for certificates or degrees.
  - The curriculum is the series of courses in which students are introduced to and master the skills and attitudes (ie, the program outcomes) needed for a graduate engineer. The courses are organized on the assumption that students increasingly master the desired skills and attitudes as they pass through a series of courses. Courses taken in the middle and late portion of the curriculum have prerequisite courses that have defined levels of mastery dictated by the follow on courses.



- This field only applies to resources that have been identified as French Immersion. A subject list applies to all program types (Core French, Adult French/English, etc..) can be found in the Controlled Vocabulary in the Advanced Search. The following guidelines have been established for matching subjects to curriculum areas:
- The set of courses in a particular degree program. More generally, the courses (in total) offered in a college or university.
- (plural, curricula) often called “discipline.” All the courses of study offered by Shasta College. May also refer to a particular course of study (major) and the courses in that area.
- All the courses offered by a college or university. Also, the course of study required for a specific degree.
- A set of courses leading to earning a degree or a certificate.
- The aggregate of modules or courses directed toward a common goal of a given organization. May also refer to a collection of required readings.
- The program of learning developed for students.
- A body of courses required for a degree or a diploma or constituting a major field of study.
- Written Language, exploring language, shaping text, editing text.
- Structure which a higher education institution should follow when delivering a degree in social work.
- A set of courses for a particular program.
- A group of required courses leading to a degree or certificate. Also used to refer to course offerings of a college as a whole.
- The skills, performances, attitudes, and values pupils are expected to learn from schooling: includes statements of desired pupil outcomes, descriptions of materials, and the planned sequence that will be used to help pupils attain the outcomes.
- The available courses in a program of study.
- The aggregate of courses offered in an institution; the approved sequence of courses in a program; the approved sequence of learning activities in a course.



## CURRICULUM DESCRIPTION

- The curriculum prepares non-native English speakers to use English effectively in their university study or careers. The classes emphasize a holistic approach to language learning. Whenever possible, students participate in activities that simulate those that they will experience in their future academic or professional environments.
- The curriculum has four proficiency levels: Elementary, Intermediate, Pre-Advanced and Advanced. Each level is comprised of four hours of instruction per day, five days a week. The instruction is divided into three classes. At the Elementary level, students take one hour a day of Speaking & Listening and Reading, and two hours a day of Writing & Grammar. At the Intermediate, Pre-Advanced and Advanced levels, students take one hour a day of Speaking & Listening, Grammar & Communication, and two hours a day of Reading & Writing.

## CURRICULAR COMPONENTS

### OBJECTIVES

One of the most contentious issues in course planning concerns the use of objectives of a course of study can be stated. They can be set out in terms of what the teacher plans to do in class, in terms of the general goals and philosophy of the teaching institution, in terms of course content, or in terms of what the learners expected to be able to do at the end of a course of study. Examples of the types of objectives articulated by teachers are as follows:

- Instructional Goals: to develop learners' confidence in speaking and listening
- Course Descriptions/Descriptions of Language Content: to provide input in real, relevant and realistic Australian English



- Learning materials: to present an episode of “The Man Who Escaped”

Most of the controversy in general education has concerned the use of behavioral or, as they are now more commonly known, performance objectives. These have been defined in a number of different ways. Valette and Disick suggest that they should stress output rather than input and that such output should be specified in terms of performance. It has been suggested that precise statements of what the Airmen learners is to be able to do at the end of a course is an essential step in the curriculum-design process which greatly facilitates a number of other steps. It forces the designer to be realistic about what a given learner or group of learners can hope to achieve. It also helps guide the selection of appropriate materials and learning activities, and is an essential prerequisite to evaluation. That performance objective will help a teacher strike the correct balance in developing a course. These affirmation states that: All too frequently, little attention is paid to determining precisely and specifically what type of pupil performance is desired at the end of an instructional sequence. As a result, one of two extreme situations typically exists. In the one case, intended outcomes are limited to the learning of material covered in a textbook and teaching and evaluation procedures are primarily concerned with the retention of textbook content. At the other extreme, overly ambitious goals are set for course- goals so general and idealistic that they are impossible either to achieve or evaluate. The reason that these two situations are so common is probably because the task of clearly defining instructional objectives appears gargantuan and therefore overwhelming. It need not be, despite some admitted complexities. Furthermore, rewards in terms of more effective teaching, learning and evaluating are great.

In the field of general education, the use of performance objectives has come under heavy criticism. These criticism, however, need to be seen in the sociopolitical and educational context within they were made. Thus the criticism of Stenhouse are made within an educational system where structure and coherence are provided by the traditional subjects in the school curriculum. His criticisms are also aimed at the use of objectives in subjects which have as their aim the development of knowledge and aesthetic sensibilities and, in fact he suggests that for language learning the use of objectives may well be a valid procedure.



Studies in mainstream education indicate that most teachers simply do not plan their courses by starting with the generation of objectives. However, those teachers who have homogeneous enough groups to utilize objectives find they all the advantages suggested by Gronlund. One teacher, working in an English in the work place programme, who took part in a study report, stated that: “we can see the value of setting objectives that are attainable, and we have built into the programme to do this”.

The operative word here, of course, is “time”. It takes time to plan coherent courses, and it is probably lack of time, rather than ideological objections, which prevents teachers developing clear objectives.

A procedure which some teachers have found useful is to start by deriving tasks and skills from learner goals. These skills provide an integrative framework, and appropriate topics, contexts and materials, which are derived from an analysis of learner data, can be incorporated into the framework. A sample number of performance objective can then be derived from the resulting planning grid. These are extremely useful when it comes to assessing learner progress. In a learner-centred curriculum, specifying course objectives, can, if these are conveyed to the learners, play an important part in the process of sensitizing learners to what it is to be a language learner. By making explicit course objectives, the following benefits can accrue:

- Learners come to have a more realistic idea of what can be achieved in a given.
- Learning comes to be seen as the gradual accretion of achievable goals.
- Students develop greater sensitivity to their role as language learners and their rather vague notions of what it is to be a learner become much sharper.
- Self-evaluation becomes more feasible
- Classroom activities can be seen to relate to learners’ real-life needs.



- The development of skills can be seen as a gradual rather than an all-or-nothing process.

It is generally considered that objectives need to include a task statement, a conditions statement and a standards statement. The task statement specified what the learner is required to do, the conditions statement specifies the conditions under which the task will be performed and the standards statement specified the standard to be achieved.

The focus of the task can vary, as can be seen in the following examples:

- Grammatical focus: Learner will use Wh-questions in controlled drills.
- Functional focus: learner will express agreement and disagreement.
- Macro-skill focus: learner will identify the main point in a spoken text.
- Learning skills focus: Learner will monitor and rate their performance on spoken tasks.
- Cognitive focus: learners will extract relevant information from a spoken text and label the accompanying diagram.
- Cultural focus: Learner will compare behavior in an interview situation with that in their native country.
- Topical focus: Learners will obtain relevant information about public transport.

Tasks can also be classified according to whether they refer to performance in the real world (the learner will listen to an aural text and note down key words). Another distinction which is sometimes made is between product-oriented tasks, which specify what learners will be able to do as a result of instruction, and process-oriented tasks, which specify the activities to be undertaken during instruction.

Faced with an array of diverse and even conflicting objectives, teachers of foreign language often have to make difficult decisions: with traditional or innovative objectives to accept or to reject, how to reconcile established objectives and the



very real need of individual students, how to set realistic priorities from a lengthy list of possible objectives or goals, how to determine alternative plans or strategies for the implementation of objectives and goals. Such a dilemma appears to be born out of the many roles which today's foreign language teachers are expected to assume. Although these roles can probably never be adequately described, they include the following:

1. Motivation: the teacher as stimulus and guide;
2. Interpersonal relations: the teacher as counselor;
3. Learning skills: the teacher as psychologist;
4. Communication and literacy skills: the teacher as master of content in the foreign language;
5. Culture: the teacher as interpreter of that culture in the classroom, the institution, and the community;
6. Valuing the uniqueness of language and culture: the teacher as aesthetic guide;
7. Evaluation: The teacher as effective implementer and translator of evaluation results in the classroom, the school, college, or university, and the community;
8. Improvement of the curriculum and the teaching process: the foreign language teacher as a professional and as a student; and
9. Interpreting the foreign language program to the community: the teacher as public expert.

This variety of roles, assuming their acceptance as vital to the intellectual growth of the learner, infers the need for careful identification of the broader, long-range objectives of a particular course of study. Thus, foreign language teachers, via the objectives clarification process, should identify and clarify what it is that they ultimately want their students to accomplish as a result of their formal education, up to and including post secondary levels, these roles further demand a clear understanding of the methods by which the teacher will attempt to insure that those ultimate goals are attained, in short, if the foreign language teacher is to play the role of counselor, psychologist, catalyst, diagnostician, and public relations expert, he must diligently tend to the individual lesson and course objectives and





to the needs and goals of the student without losing sight of their combined contribution to the broader, all-encompassing goals of the school, college, university, state department of education, and society – those behaviors and understanding which identify a person as an educated individual.

It is encouraging to note that national, regional, state, and local foreign language associations are becoming increasingly more responsive to these teacher roles, a review of conference programs of foreign language associations offers overwhelming support for this conclusion. Along with indispensable basic topics, e.g., teaching reading, developing awareness of foreign culture, teaching writing, or learning the dialogue, recent conference presentations addressed themselves to foreign language and the community, foreign language study for the demands of the future. Foreign language for the nonlanguage major, human dynamics in the classroom, the role of foreign language study and career education, foreign languages and international education, and a host of other, less traditional topics.

It is noteworthy that the purpose of such sessions is not to advocate the abolition of teaching fundamental skills. Indeed, adequate mastery of one or more of the basic language skills is vital to achieve course objectives. In short, these topics eventually deal with a question that is extremely crucial at present “foreign language for what?” to ignore this question at the expense of exclusive concentration on achieving fragmented objectives in the area of fundamental skills is self-defeating.

Foreign language educators in this country often find themselves in the position of having to defend the study of foreign language as a fundamental component and not a frill in the total curriculum. It would appear that an important step in correcting this posture is for foreign language teachers to recognize that immediate objectives-mastery of one or more of the four skills-must be intricately blended with an equally important long-range objective-language for life.



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## EXEMPLARY ATTEMPTS AT CLARIFYING OBJECTIVES

As was noted earlier, the need to analyze foreign language objectives is vital. According to Joseph Vocolo<sup>10</sup> a reconciliation with broad educational goals has never really been attempted. It is precisely this situation which has contributed to the weakening position of foreign language in the total educational curriculum. Furthermore, the absence of reconciliation of language and general educational objectives deprives foreign language educators of some forceful and illuminating argument in support of their discipline.

In view of the above, it is noteworthy to cite several attempts to relate the objectives of foreign language programs to those of the general curriculum. In 1971, and 1972, committees of foreign language teachers in Delaware and Maryland coordinated objectives in foreign languages with four general educational objectives-civic responsibility, positive self-image, career education, and emphatic human relationships. The resultant list of foreign language objectives dramatically demonstrates the interdisciplinary nature of the subject area. In the spring of 1973, the Maryland State Department of education strongly endorsed the creation of a Subcommittee on Career Education, which included state and county supervisor of foreign languages, foreign language educators at the secondary and post-secondary levels, administrators, and guidance personnel. The initial task of this Subcommittee was to reconcile objectives in career education as developed by State Task Force with the more traditional objectives of foreign language programs. These efforts resulted in a publication entitled *The Many Language of career education*. The subcommittee has continued its ongoing task of reviewing, refining, and rewriting objectives and goals in career education-foreign languages.

More recently, in the spring of 1974, representatives from the fields of art, dance, drama, foreign language, and music met under the sponsorship of the Maryland State department of education to develop a set of common goals for the arts and

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<sup>10</sup> Joseph Vocolo, "What Went Wrong with foreign language teaching in High School?," *Educational Leadership*



humanities in the state. The following objectives were agreed upon across all disciplines:

1. To develop the skills necessary to communicate expressively and creatively through the arts and humanities;
2. To develop the ability to make aesthetic judgments;
3. To value and enjoy the arts and humanities as an important realm of human experience, and
4. To acquire knowledge of the arts and humanities and their role in history.

The specific objectives and sub-objectives under these broad headings were developed by teachers of each subject area.

Charlotte Anderson, chairman of the department of Foreign Languages, Montgomery Country Community College, recently cited an entente cordiale between her department and other department and other departments on campus.<sup>11</sup> Concerned about the deterioration of general languages skills among students, representatives from the foreign language, history, social sciences, business, mathematics, and physical sciences departments scheduled a joint meeting to explore the possibilities of improving the language skills of their students. Although there is not direct reference to this meeting as being a objectives and goals clarification session, it represents the vital first step in that process. A close and genuine alignment of language goals of general education can only strengthen the position of the foreign language teaching profession as a whole.

#### THE OBJECTIVES CLARIFICATION PROCESS: ESTABLISHING A LIST OF INTEGRATED SUBJECT-AREA OBJECTIVES.

The process of clarifying objectives for foreign language programs has to be ongoing in the sense that objectives and goals must be reviewed, analyzed, and

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<sup>11</sup> Charlotte Anderson, "The role of Foreign Language in the Total curriculum," Bulletin of the Association of Department of foreign languages.



challenged at frequent intervals. The process has to be carried out on the departmental, institutional, and state levels, but, inevitably, the individual teacher must come to grips with the task of personal goals clarification if classroom teaching and learning are to have directions and meaning. The following suggestions will be useful in the process of goals clarification:

1. Study the general educational objectives of the State, local school system, and post-secondary institutions;
2. Study the existing foreign language goals of the state, school system, post-secondary institution, or department;
3. Examine materials used in several other states and educational institutions;
4. Reconcile foreign language goals with general educational objectives and goals;
5. Study the objectives and goals of other subject-matter areas to find the points of similarity and overlap;
6. Disseminate and discuss the results of your objective clarification efforts as widely as possible, obtaining as many reactions as you can;
7. Revise your objectives as needed.

## SELECTING A REALISTIC WORKING SET OF GOALS

Faced with a seemingly endless list of objectives in foreign languages, the next task is to choose carefully, inadequate staffing, poor equipment, out dated materials. Failure to choose wisely and realistically, or to establish priorities in objectives and goals has led in the past, to the short of “folk linguistics” i.e., where ill-defined and hazy goals have led the public and students to believe that a limited three-year or three-semester program could produce fluent speakers of the language.

Once again, the process of selecting goals must be continuous. Students, teachers, the wishes of the community, societal conditions – all change with great rapidity. The process is both a group and individual one; the individual teacher



must select goals for a particular level, class, or group. The following are suggestions for the process of goals selection:

1. Involve as many people as possible in the process of objectives selection: students. Air Force Educational Department, recent graduated airmen, administrators, teachers, counselors, representatives from the community, business, and industry;
2. Indicate the available resources and constraints of existing foreign language programs: staffing, scheduling, in service programs, community resources, volunteer service, etc.
3. Select objectives based on (2) and rank them in terms of priorities. Major emphasis may be on communication skills followed by cross cultural understanding and career education. In other instances, the consensus may be that first priority be given to cross-cultural understanding and human relations. Where resources are more extensive and interests diversified, interdisciplinary programs may be stressed.

## FORMULATING SUB-OBJECTIVES

After having established a list of integrated subject-area goals and having selected a working set, would seem logical to formulate sub-objectives. Here is presented a sequence of five steps which are pertinent to this activity.

- Step one: Write down the objective.
- Step two: Jot down, in words and phrases, the performance that, if achieved, would cause you to agree the objective is achieved.
- Step three: Sort out the jottings. Delete duplications and unwanted items. Repeat steps One and Two for any remaining abstractions ("fuzzies") considered important.



- Step Four: Write a complete statement for each performance, describing the nature, quality, or amount you will consider acceptable.
- Step five: Test the statements with the questions: “if someone achieved or demonstrated each of these performances, would I be willing to say he has achieved the objective? When you can answer yes, the analysis is finished.

## CONTENTS

There are many possible starting points for deriving course content. Rowntree suggests that these can be divided into informal (or intuitive) approaches and systematic (or analytical) approaches. He goes on to say: “Broadly speaking, the intuitive approaches are those that give us most help in thinking up possible content in the first place. The analytical techniques, on the other hand, tend to be most useful once we have generated a few ideas and are ready to see how they hang together and can be extended. In reality, of course, we are thinking both intuitively and analytically at all stages of course planning. Sometimes one predominates, however, and sometimes the other.

Examples provided by Rowntree of intuitive approaches to content specification include:

- Sitting and reviewing one’s own knowledge of the proposed subject
- Asking other teachers and subject-matter experts
- Analyzing similar courses elsewhere
- Reviewing textbooks aimed at students working at about the same level as ours will be
- Reading more advanced books and scholarly articles on the subject
- Reviewing films, radio and television tapes, newspaper and popular journal articles, etc. relating to the proposed subject
- Asking prospective students what they would like to see the course include



- 
- Discussing with students their existing conceptions of, and attitudes to, the key concepts of the subject matter
  - Choosing books (or other source material) around which course will be organized
  - Thinking of the essential activities that students need to engage in as part of the course
  - Considering how students attainment on the course might most sensibly be assessed
  - Studying and examination syllabus, the question papers, and examiners reports from previous years, and so on.

## CONTENT SELECTION – AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

In this section, we shall look briefly at a study set up to determine how teachers operating in a learner-centred system determine input for their courses.

### Background

Evidence from other subject area suggests that teachers use a variety of courses for deriving course content. Anecdotal evidence suggests that for most language teachers whose learners do not vary significantly from one course to the next, content selection is largely a matter of refining input from course to course rather than starting from scratch every time. The input selection phase of curriculum planning is thus an evolutionary one.

Ideally, in a learner-centred system, content should be derived through a process of consultation and negotiation with the learners, the principal consideration being the communicative needs of the learners.

### The Study

In an investigation into how teachers actually do select content, a group of adult ESL teachers (n = 28) were asked to nominate the procedures they followed in



identifying course content. The teachers, who were all highly experienced, were asked to complete a questionnaire during the course of an in-service program on course design.

#### Procedure

In order to prompt the teachers to review the men whereby they selected input, they were asked to imagine that they had just been assigned a group of learners whose data profiles were different from any learners they had worked with before. The questionnaire is set out in table No. 1.

Table No. 1 Survey Questionnaire

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Which of the following learner groups have you never worked with before? (Circle the appropriate number).

- A. Zero proficiency learners who are illiterate in their own language.
- B. Advanced students who want a pre-tertiary course
- C. Learners who are studying in the English-in-the-Workplace program
- D. Fast track On-Arrival students.
- E. Mixed level students in the Community Program.

Imagine you have been assigned one of the groups you have circled. How would you go about determining course content? Select three of the following options.

- 1. Devising learning activities and tasks
  - 2. Drawing on knowledge of language and language learning
  - 3. Consulting other teachers with relevant experience
  - 4. Selecting a course book
  - 5. Determining post-course communication needs
  - 6. Analyzing other relevant language courses
  - 7. Selecting appropriate materials
  - 8. Consulting and negotiating with learners on course content
-





## Results

Ranking for the questionnaire items are set out in table No. 2

Table No. 2 Results of Questionnaire on Content Selection

Item	Rank
1. Devising learning activities	5
2. Drawing on knowledge of language and language learning	3
3. Consulting other teachers	2
4. Selecting course book	7
5. Determining post-course communication needs	1
6. Analyzing other relevant courses	8
7. Selecting appropriate materials	6
8. Consulting and negotiating with learners	3

## Discussion

From the data, it would seem that teachers who are accustomed to working within a learner-centred system do indeed take as their starting point the learners and their communicative needs. Whether, in fact, they actually do consult learners and carry out communicative needs analyses is another question. The fact that they were prepared to place items 5 and 8 relatively high on their list of priorities indicates that the concept of a learner-centred approach to content selection was taken seriously by the teachers who took part in the study. In actual fact, these data conflict to a certain extent with data yielded in the interviews carried out as part of the study reported. There, teachers who had actually been confronted with unfamiliar students stated that they either consulted more experienced colleagues or looked to a course book.



## Analytical Approaches to Content Specification

According to Rowntree, analytical approaches to content selection include such things as task, concept and competency analysis. These approaches would be used by someone following the Munby approaches to course design. Also included as an analytical approach is the use of objectives. While acknowledging the difficulty many teachers have with the objective first approach, Rowntree says: "I still believe they are extremely valuable in course development, asking oneself what students should be able to do by the end of the course that they could not do at the beginning can be highly illuminating. Many teachers would claim their has been far better since they were introduced to objectives"

However, he acknowledges that one need not necessarily start with the specification of objectives and that this may, in fact, be one of the last tasks undertaken in course planning.

Traditional subject-centred approaches to language course design have selected input on the basis of some basis of some form of linguistic content analysis. Such analysis results in lists of structural and lexical items which are graded according to linguistic notions of complexity and difficulty, and counts of lexical frequency.

The development of functional-notional syllabus represented more a broadening of focus than a paradigm shift. While such syllabuses pay more attention to the purposes to which language is put, they are still basically subject-rather than learner-centred, with content specification resulting from the introspection of linguists rather than on empirical investigation of the uses to which users actually do put language in different contexts. This broadened focus has, however, made content selection and grading much more complex than hitherto. One comprehensive document specifies of the following components:



- the situations in which the foreign language will be used, including the topics which will be dealt with
- the language activities in which the learners will engage
- the language functions which the learner will perform
- topics, and what the learner will be able to do with these
- the general notions which the learner will be able to handle
- the specific (topic related) notions which the learners will be able to handle
- the language forms the learner will be able to use
- the degree of skill the learner will be required to display.

Many teachers have found that a useful means of generating integrated and relevant contents is by using as a starting point the data derived from learners at initial planning stage. For this procedure to work, however, it is necessary to have a reasonably homogeneous group of learners to start with.

Much of the confusion and uncertainty surrounding the specification of content stems from the proliferation of input parameters. Many recent courses and syllabus outlines start with a listing of functions, and fit the other components around this. The problem with such an approach is that it generally results in a syllabus which is little more than a listing of discrete items which are graded either according to the syllabus designer's intuitive notions of simplicity and complexity, or according to utilitarian notions of what is likely to be of most use to the learner. Such syllabuses are open to many of the criticisms which have been leveled against structural syllabuses.

By starting with learner goals and using these to derive content, much of the disorganization entailed in the functional approaches can be obviated. In such a procedure, the specification of functions, structures, lexis and so on are derived as a result at the prior specification of the communicative goals which the learner will need to master in the given domains of language use. They are therefore an end product, rather than a starting point in the design process.



## Grading Content

Once the content for a course or module has been specified, it needs to be sequenced; this creates a whole new set of problems. These problems, and possible solutions to them, are examined in this section.

One alternative to the problem of grading is to have no sequence at all, to treat each lesson as a self-contained unit or module. This, in fact, is an alternative which is forced upon teachers who operate in institutions with an open entry/exit policy (that is, a policy which allows students to enter or level a given course at any time).

Most curriculum designers, however, operate on the assumption that a course will consist of sequence of lessons which need to be structured and graded in some way, and that their client group of learners will be relatively stable for the duration of the course.

Our interest in sequence arises because the students cannot learn everything at once, if he is to learn A and B, he must either learn A and then B, or B first then A. unless he can learn a little bit of A and then B (but how much and in what order?)... But these may not be equally viable alternatives. For any given student, one of these sequences may be better – more “learnable” than others... so, in enquiring about sequence, we are really asking whether one way of ordering the content of course will be more helpful, educationally, than any other possible order.

The issues of sequencing was less complicated (but by means unproblematic) when course content was largely derived from linguistic structures, decisions about whether to teach A before B were made according to linguistic notions of simplicity and complexity. If item A were considered to be simpler linguistically than structured B, then it was taught first. (recent investigations by second-language acquisition researchers have demonstrated that, in fact, these notions were not particularly accurate, and that there are discrepancies between what is difficult in terms of a given grammatical model, and what learners actually find



difficult in terms of their psycholinguistic processing capacity. Thus the “third person –s” morpheme is grammatically simple but psycholinguistically complex.)

With the adoption of a communicative orientation, the tasks of structuring and grading become much more complex. It will be recalled that this view conceives of language learning as a process of learning to do things with language. It is therefore behavioral and task-based. Grading tasks, from this perspective, means specifying degrees of skills as well as describing performance. Levels of skills and task complexity consist of complex clusters of factors. These will include the following:

- The degree to which the language event is embedded in a context which facilitates comprehension
- The degree to which the language event makes cognitive demands on the learner. (Presumably, indemnifying a named item by pointing to it is cognitively less demanding than describing it.)
- The degree to which the background knowledge of the language user can be utilized to assist in comprehension
- The amount of assistance provided to the language learner. (It is reasonable to assume that conveying a message to a native speaker who is sympathetic towards, and used to dealing with, second-language learners is easier than attempting to convey the same message to an unsympathetic interlocutor.)
- The processing difficulty of the language: (this is the only factor on which we have a reasonable amount of empirical evidence.)
- The degree of stress experienced by the learner in taking part in a language event. (Presumably, conveying a message to a friend is less stressful than making a speech in front of 500 people).

In this part, we have examined some of the factors which need to be taken into consideration in the selection and grading of content. A procedure is described for deriving course content from an analysis of learner data. It has been argued that the specification of language goals is an important component of a learner-centred



curriculum, particularly when such goals are couched in terms that learners understand, because they will then convey to learners important messages about learning processes. One argument commonly advanced against the involvement of the learner in the selection of content is that learners themselves are incapable of articulating needs. However, one group of teachers who have had considerable experience in learner-centred curriculum development have found that:

At the 1+(intermediate) level most learners can state their needs reasonable clearly if given the right opportunity. We're convinced that if learners feel that you have listened sympathetically to their perceived needs and discussed your views of the situation with them then they have a far more committed and active role in the learning process – they are, in fact, in control of their own learning particularly if the consultation process is ongoing.

## TIME

## PACING

Since the formats used for most language lessons consist of a sequence of sub-activities which address the overall goals of the lesson, deciding how much time to allocate to each sub-activity is an important issue in teaching, Pacing is the extent to which a lesson maintains its momentum and communicates a sense of development. How much to allocate to each part of the lesson is thus an important decision which teachers must make while planning or teaching a lesson. Decisions related to pacing are important aspects of interactive decision making involves monitoring students' engagement in learning tasks and deciding when it is time to bring a task to completion and move on to another activity before student's attention begins to fade.

Various suggestions are given concerning pacing in articles on teacher training. Strategies recommended to help achieves suitable pacing within lesson often include:



- Avoiding needless or over-lengthy explanations and instructions, and letting students get on with the job of learning.
- Using a variety of activities within a lesson, rather than speeding the whole lesson on one activity.
- Avoiding predictable and repetitive activities, where possible.
- Selecting activities: of an appropriate level of difficulty.
- Setting a goal and time limit for activities that have no obvious conclusion or in which no time frame is set tend to have little momentum.
- Monitoring students' performance on activities to ensure that students have had sufficient but not too much time.

In a study an effective ESL reading teacher, Richards (1990) identified pacing as one of the significant features of the teacher's lessons. This was achieved through including a variety of activities within each lesson.

The teacher provides a variety of different learning experiences within lessons. In the lesson observed, four different activities were used, and this variation in activities may have contributed to the positive attitude of the students toward the classroom tasks as well as the active pacing of the lesson.

Tikunoff points out that pacing is sometimes teacher controlled and at other times student directed.

In some situations, pacing may need to be completely under control of the teacher; no students may move to the next task until given instructions to do so. In other situations, however, pacing might be negotiable, particularly if several tasks are underway concurrently. In this case, an understanding must exist of the optimal time one can spend on a task, and the time by when it is expected to be completed. Many teachers increase options in this area by negotiating contracts with the students which include, among other things, the time by which a task will be accomplished.



Pacing is identified as a basic teaching skill in manuals for pre-service training of ESL/EFL teachers. For example, Gower and Walters. In discussing classroom management, comment:

You must get the timing right. If the activity last longs enough, it won't give any sense of satisfaction. If one group finishes early, give it a further activity, related to the task. Alternatively you may a wish to stop all the groups at the point. But don't let a group or pair sit around with nothing to do. Generally it's better to stop an activity when it's going well, provided it has achieved its broad aims, than to let it peter out.

Another important dimension of structuring is bringing a lesson to a close effectively. Closure refers to those concluding parts of a lesson which serve to (a) reinforce what has been learned in a lesson, (b) integrate and review the content of a lesson, and (c) prepare the students for further learning. Several strategies are available to create an effective lesson closure. These strategies not only help facilitate learning of the content of the lesson, but also allow the lesson to be seen as an integrated whole. Strategies which teachers use to achieve closure include:

- Summarizing what has been covered in the lesson.
- Reviewing key points of the lesson.
- Relating the lesson to the course or lesson goals.
- Point out links between the lesson and previous lessons.
- Showing how the lesson relates to students' real-world needs.
- Making links to a forthcoming lesson.
- Praising students for what they accomplished during the lesson

## CLOSURE

The particular kind of strategy used will vary according to the type of lesson (e.g., a discussion activity or a lecture), as well as the level of the class. For example, with a discussion activity the closure typically involves summarizing the main points brought up by the students in their discussion, relating the discussion to lesson goals and previous learning, or applying the discussion outcomes to other





situations. This type of closure serves to summarize and synthesize ideas, points of view, generalizations, and conclusions; it is often an important part of learning since it can “bring it all together” for students who may have been confused during the discussion.

A different approach to closure would be appropriate in a lecture, which is a much more teacher-centered. One-way presentation of information. Typically the closure sequence of a lecture serves to reinforce what has been presented with a review of key points covered in the lecture. This may include questioning by the teacher to determine how much the students. Often the closure will include a transition to the next lesson in which the students will be assigned a problem to think about or a task that will help provide an entry to next lecture.

The amount of time should students spend on the activity has been identified as one of the most important factors affecting students learning. Three aspects of this issue have been identified:

- The amount of time has been allowed by the teacher; this is known as allocated time.
- The degree to which students are engaged in the activity during the time provided; this is known as time-on-task.
- The extent to which students are successfully engaged: that is, the proportion of time-on-task during which students are achieving high accuracy in completing the activity; this is known as academic learning time.

Teachers vary in the amount of academic learning time that they manage to achieve within their lesson. For example, during a 50 minute lesson, only 30-35 minutes may actually be used for instruction (allocated time), and the proportion of that time which can be regarded as academic learning time may be much less. An important challenge for teachers is to maximize academic learning time within lessons – the time students spend involved in learning activities and succeeding with them – which is the most important variable affecting students’ achievement.



Activities vary in the extent to which they lead to a particular learning outcome or product. For some activities itself is the main learning goal; the focus is more on the processes involved than on any particular learning outcome. Examples of activities of this kind include pleasure reading free conversation. For other activities, however, particular learner outcomes, such as book reports or term papers, may be required. Teachers hence have to consider questions such as the following:

- Will there be a learning outcome for the activity?
- Will all the students be expected to produce the same outcome?
- Will the students have any choice in the kind of learning outcome they are expected to produce?

The next is a suggestion for a lesson-report for activity types

CLASS \_\_\_\_\_ DATE \_\_\_\_\_

GOALS AND CONTENT OF LESSON \_\_\_\_\_

Activities Used In the Lesson	Type of Activity	Time Spent on the Activity	Purpose of activity
EXAMPLE: Assigned word study exercise in the work-book	Practice activity	10 minutes	To consolidate students' use of new vocabulary



## METHODOLOGY

Are many theories on learning TEFL methodology? What we can conclude is that when we learn something, some sort of change has occurred within us. Also, we know that learning occurs through life and although it often takes place in a social context, it is a highly individualized process; we all have different learning styles. Theories on language learning and teaching evolve from the fields of psychology and linguistics.

One of the most recognized theories on learning called Behaviorism is based partly on the conditioned-reflex experiments by Ivan Pavlov, a Russian psychologist. Part of the theory in practice consists of providing a stimulus to cause a given response in a repetitive manner. American B.F. Skinner used these experiments to help create a therapy of behavior modification called conditioning. The audio-lingual language learning approach came about as a result of this learning theory; it involved a lot of listen/repeat exercises, transformation drills, and positive reinforcement.

Another relevant learning theory is known as Developmental Psychology, partially credited to Jean Piaget, who determined that learning takes place in four very predictable, sequential, innately determined stages. He made groundbreaking strides in early childhood development studies, and his experiments have been implemented with people of all ages. Some of his theories carry over into the realm of language learning and acquisition. He believed that language acquisition develops mainly from a combination of developmental readiness stages, social interaction, and an individual's unique interpretation process.

Piaget's theories led to the beginning of the Cognitive Learning Theories which considered behaviorism way too simplistic in explaining human learning. These theories establish that human beings learn through experiences - a life-long series of trial and error. Interpretation of experiences can lead to understanding or insight. That is, a human being goes through progressive cognitive experiences acquiring knowledge along the way with which to diagnose and



solve problems. This process of figuring things out is more than just responding to a stimulus. These principles led to less mechanistic and more humanistic approaches in language learning.

Whether one agrees with previous theories for learning TEFL methodology or not, the important implication in a course of English as a Foreign Language (E.F.L.) is that students learn -and acquire- a given language by means of eclectic (combination) approaches. Also, they learn and acquire language without even being aware of the existence of learning principles embedded in different learning theories.

As we learn relevant elements of the theories for learning TEFL methodology and methodology necessary to become a language teacher, each one of us will come to the realization that the combination of theoretical preparation and teaching experience is the key element that will produce a good English language teacher. The teacher will choose and work with whatever materials, techniques and steps that work well for the learner, regardless of the theory of learning.

In other words, as teachers may apply the different theories of learning, they need to keep awareness that these theories are subjective by their own nature.

## LEARNING STYLES AND TEACHING

What is a learning style?

Ellis (1985) described a learning style as the more or less consistent way in which a person perceives, conceptualizes, organizes and recalls information.

Where do learning styles come from?

Your students' learning styles will be influenced by their genetic make-up, their previous learning experiences, their culture and the society they live in.

Why should teachers know about learning styles?



Sue Davidoff and Owen van den Berg (1990) suggest four steps: plan, teach / act, observe and reflect. Here are some guidelines for each step.

Students learn better and more quickly if the teaching methods used match their preferred learning styles.

As learning improves, so too does self esteem. This has a further positive effect on learning.

Students who have become bored with learning may become interested once again.

The student-teacher relationship can improve because the student is more successful and is more interested in learning.

What types of learning styles are there?

There are many ways of looking at learning styles. Here are some of the classification systems that researchers have developed.

The four modalities

Students may prefer a visual (seeing), auditory (hearing), kinesthetic (moving) or tactile (touching) way of learning.

➤ Those who prefer a visual learning style...

Look at the teacher's face intently

Like looking at wall displays, books etc.

Often recognize words by sight

Use lists to organize their thoughts

Recall information by remembering how it was set out on a page

➤ Those who prefer an auditory learning style...



Like the teacher to provide verbal instructions

Like dialogues, discussions and plays

Solve problems by talking about them

Use rhythm and sound as memory aids

➤ Those who prefer a kinesthetic learning style...

Learn best when they are involved or active

Find it difficult to sit still for long periods

Use movement as a memory aid

➤ Those who prefer a tactile way of learning...

Use writing and drawing as memory aids

Learn well in hands-on activities like projects and demonstrations

## FIELD-INDEPENDENT VS FIELD-DEPENDENT

Field-independent students

They can easily separate important details from a complex or confusing background. They tend to rely on themselves and their own thought-system when solving problems. They are not so skilled in interpersonal relationships.

Field-dependent students

They find it more difficult to see the parts in a complex whole. They rely on others' ideas when solving problems and are good at interpersonal relationships.

## LEFT-BRAIN DOMINATED VS. RIGHT-BRAIN DOMINATED



➤ Students who are left-brain dominated...

Are intellectual

Process information in a linear way

Tend to be objective

Prefer established, certain information

Rely on language in thinking and remembering

➤ Those who are right-brain dominated...

Are intuitive

Process information in a holistic way

Tend to be subjective

Prefer elusive, uncertain information

Rely on drawing and manipulating to help them think and learn

## MCCARTHY'S FOUR LEARNING STYLES

McCarthy (1980) described students as innovative learners, analytic learners, common sense learners or dynamic learners

➤ INNOVATIVE LEARNERS...

Look for personal meaning while learning

Draw on their values while learning

Enjoy social interaction

Are cooperative

Want to make the world a better place



➤ ANALYTIC LEARNERS...

Want to develop intellectually while learning

Draw on facts while learning

Are patient and reflective

Want to know "important things" and to add to the world's knowledge

➤ COMMON SENSE LEARNERS...

Want to find solutions

Value things if they are useful

Are kinesthetic

Are practical and straightforward

Want to make things happen

➤ DYNAMIC LEARNERS...

Look for hidden possibilities

Judge things by gut reactions

Synthesize information from different sources

Are enthusiastic and adventurous

WHAT TEACHING METHODS AND ACTIVITIES SUIT DIFFERENT  
LEARNING STYLES?

➤ THE FOUR MODALITIES

Visual





Use many visuals in the classroom. For example, wall displays posters, regalia, flash cards, graphic organizers etc.

#### Auditory

Use audio tapes and videos, storytelling, songs, jazz chants, memorization and drills

Allow learners to work in pairs and small groups regularly.

#### Kinesthetic

Use physical activities, competitions, board games, role plays etc.

Intersperse activities which require students to sit quietly with activities that allow them to move around and be active

#### Tactile

Use board and card games, demonstrations, projects, role plays etc.

Use while-listening and reading activities. For example, ask students to fill in a table while listening to a talk, or to label a diagram while reading

### FIELD-INDEPENDENT VS FIELD-DEPENDENT

#### Field-independent

Let students work on some activities on their own

#### Field-dependent

Let students work on some activities in pairs and small groups

### LEFT-BRAIN VS RIGHT-BRAIN DOMINATED

#### Left-brain dominated



Give verbal instructions and explanations

Set some closed tasks to which students can discover the "right" answer

Right-brained dominated

Write instructions as well as giving them verbally

Demonstrate what you would like students to do

Give students clear guidelines, a structure, for tasks

Set some open-ended tasks for which there is no "right" answer

Use real and other things that students can manipulate while learning

Sometimes allow students to respond by drawing

#### MCCARTHY'S FOUR LEARNING STYLES

Innovative learners

Use cooperative learning activities and activities in which students must make value judgments

Ask students to discuss their opinions and beliefs

Analytic learners

Teach students the facts

Common sense learners

Use problem-solving activities

Dynamic learners



Ask students about their feelings

Use a variety of challenging activities

If you vary the activities that you use in your lessons, you are sure to cater for learners with different learning styles at least some of the time.

Traditional approaches to language teaching have tended to separate considerations of syllabus design from methodology. Broadly speaking, syllabuses specify the “what” of teaching whereas methodology specifies the “how”. Applied linguists, particularly those working within the British and European tradition, have tended to focus on syllabus design, whereas teachers, who are more concerned with day-to-day aspects of teaching, have tended to be more interested in methodological consideration. In recent times, the shortcomings of this lack of integration have become apparent, and there have been calls for a more integrated approach to language curriculum development in course design by applied linguists such as Richards (1984), Long (1985) and Nunan (1985). In his proposal for an integrated approach, Nunan suggests that:

Traditional model tend to restrict themselves to objectives specification, content selection, grading and evaluation. It is felt by some syllabus designers that there ought to be a rigid separation between syllabus design and methodology, in other words that considerations of what to teach ought to be kept separate from how to teach. Such as separation has led in the past to such aberrations as the teaching of courses whose input was specified in functional-notional terms through and audio lingual methodology.

In the model propose here all the elements are in interaction and each may influence the other. Objectives may be modified, altered or added to during the teaching- learning process. Decisions about what goes on in the classroom will be influenced, not only by pre-specified objectives, materials and activities, but also by needs, constraints (what is feasible, say, in the learning mode and environment ) and by the evaluation feedback which emerges during the course itself.



This change in perspective has been prompted more by the development of communicative language teaching than anything else. While the rise of functional-nationalism prompted a widening of the content base, it was realized that for communicative language teaching to become a reality, there was a need for methodology to reflect curriculum goals.

In a recent dictionary of applied linguistics, methodology is defined as “the study of the practices and procedures used in teaching, in the principles and beliefs that underlie them” Methodology is said to include the following:

- a) Study of the nature of language skills( e.g. reading, writing, speaking, listening ) and procedures for teaching them.
- b) Study of preparation lesson plans, materials and text books for teaching language skills.
- c) The evaluation and comparison of language teaching methods (e.g. the audio lingual method)

Most teacher tend to think of methodology in terms of one or other of the “-isms” which are described in most general teaching texts. These include situational, audiolingual and communicative language teaching, as well as the “fringe” methods such as a Total Physical Response, Silent Way, Community Language Learning, the Natural Approach and Suggestopedia.

#### METHODOLOGY AND COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING.

One of the central issues which need to be deal with by curriculum designer who use tasks as the basis for selecting content and developing learning activities is that of transfer of learning. A basis assumption is that learners will be able to transfer knowledge and skills developed in the rather artificial environment of the classroom to new contexts and situations in the real world outside.

Assumptions about learning transfer have not always been borne out in practice. One of the major reasons for widening the scope of language content beyond grammatical structures, lexis and pronunciation, to functions notions, settings and so on, was the fact the most learners



seemed relatively inefficient at applying their grammatical knowledge to communicative language use outside the classroom.

The same thing happened with methodology the assumption that grammatical paradigms which had been internalized through various forms of classroom drill could be put to communicative effect outside the classroom, seemed overly optimistic. The transfer of skills from the classroom context to other contexts did not occur as readily as was hoped. The result has been development of activities which are meant to approximate in the classroom what happens in genuine communication outside. Teachers are exhorted to develop information-gap activities, and one- and two – way tasks in which learners must negotiate with each other to redress imbalances in the distribution of knowledge. Thus, in addition to the various drills and controlled language practice designed to develop accuracy, we have the whole panoply of communicative activities, including games, simulations and role plays which are meant to foster fluency.

#### METHODOLOGY IN A LEARNER –CENTRED CURRICULUM

It has thus far been argued that a communicative curriculum will use as its basic building block pedagogic tasks which, while they might not necessarily replicate, will be linked in principled ways to the real world tasks learners might be required to engage in outside the classroom. It has also been suggested that classroom based acquisition studies might provide psycholinguistically motivated learning tasks. While accuracy based activities such as drills and controlled practice will not be proscribed, prominence will be given to activities which promote fluency. Further, it would seem that small groups are probably the most effective way of grouping learners for communicative language work. Performance based activities such as role play will also be promoted. These suggestions seem to be supported by both pedagogical and psycholinguistic research.

So far, however, the most important actor in the drama, the language learner has been left standing in the wings. In a learner centred curriculum, methodology as much as any other element in the curriculum, must be informed by the attitudes of the learners.



## DIDACTICS RESOURCES

Teaching materials are a key component in most language programs. Whether the teachers uses a textbooks, institutionally prepared materials, or his or her own materials, instructional materials generally serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. In the case of inexperienced teachers in the classroom. In the case of inexperienced teachers, materials may also serve as a form of teacher training – they provide ideas on how to plan and teach lessons as well as formats that teachers can use. Much of the language teaching that occurs throughout the world today could not take place without the extensive use commercial materials. These may take the form of (a) printed materials such as books, workbooks, worksheets, or readers; (b) nonprint materials such as cassette or audio materials, videos, or computer-based materials; (c) materials that comprise both print and nonprint materials and materials on the internet. In addition, materials not designed for instructional use such as magazines, newspapers, and TV materials may also play a role in the curriculum.

The role of the materials in language teaching could be summarized like this:

- A resource for presentation materials (spoken and written)
- A source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction
- A reference source for learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and so on
- A source of simulation and ideas for classroom activities
- A syllabus (Where they reflect learning objectives that have already been determined)
- A support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence
- As a source of language
- As a learning support
- For motivation and simulation
- For reference



ESP<sup>12</sup> materials may therefore seek to provide exposure to the specialized genres and registers of ESP, to support learning through simulating cognitive processes and providing a structure and progression for learners to follow, to motivate learners providing achievable challenges and interesting content, and to provide a resource for self-studio outside of the classroom.

Some teachers use instructional materials as their primary teaching resource. The materials provide that basis for the content of lessons, the balance of skills taught, and the kinds of language practice students take part in. In other situation, materials serve primarily to supplement the teacher's instruction. For learners materials may provide the major source of contact they have with the language apart the teachers. Hence the role and uses of materials in a language program are a significant aspect of language curriculum development. In this chapter, we will examine the role, design, and use of materials in language teaching, with particular focus on print materials and textbooks.

#### AUTHENTIC VERSUS CREATED MATERIALS

When plans regarding the role of materials in language program are made, in initial decision concerns the use of authentic materials versus created materials. *Authentic materials* refers to the use in teaching of texts, photographs, video selections, and other teaching resources that were not specially prepared for pedagogical purposes, *Created materials* refers to textbooks and other specially developed instructional resource. Some have argued that authentic materials are preferred over created materials, because they contain authentic language and reflect real- world uses of language compared with the contrived content of much created material. Some linguists thus describe a language course for foreign students at British university in which of the guiding principles was "use no materials, published or unpublished, actually conceived or designed as materials for language teaching". Such an imperative seems to reflect a very low opinion of the abilities of materials writers to create pedagogically useful language learning resources! Advantages claimed for authentic materials are.

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<sup>12</sup> English for Specific Purposes



*They have a positive effect on learner motivation* because they are intrinsically more interesting and motivating than created materials. There is a huge supply of interesting sources for language learning in the media and on the Web and these relate closely to the interests of many language learners.

*They provide authentic cultural information about the target culture.* Materials can be selected to illustrate many aspects of the target culture, including culturally based practices and beliefs and both linguistic and non linguistic behavior.

*They provide exposure to real language* rather than the artificial texts found in created materials that have been specially written to illustrate particular grammatical rules or discourse types.

*They relate more closely to learners' needs* and hence provide a link between the classroom and students' needs in the real world.

*They support a more creative approach to teaching.* In using authentic materials as a source for teaching activities, teachers can develop their full potential as teachers, developing activities and tasks that better match their teaching styles of their students.

However, critics of the use of authentic materials point:

*Created materials can also be motivating for learners.* Published materials often designed to look like teenage magazines and other kind of real-world materials and may be just as interesting and motivating for learners.

*Authentic materials often contain difficult language* and unneeded vocabulary items, which can be an unnecessary distraction for teachers and learners. Since they have not been simplified or written to any lexical or linguistic guidelines, they often contain language that may be beyond the learners' abilities.





*Created materials may be superior to authentic materials because they are generally built around syllabus* and hence provide a systematic coverage of teaching items.

*Using authentic materials is a burden for teachers.* In order to develop learning resources around authentic materials, teachers have to be prepared to spend a considerable amount of time locating suitable sources for materials and developing activities and exercises to accompany the materials.

In many language programs, teachers thus use a mixture of created and authentic materials because both have their advantage as well as limitations. Furthermore, the distinction between authentic and created materials is becoming increasingly blurred, because many published materials incorporate authentic texts and other real-world sources.

## TEXTBOOKS

Commercial textbooks together with ancillaries such as workbooks, cassettes, and teachers' guides are perhaps the commonest form of teaching materials in language teaching. There are some characterizes differences between past and current trends in English language textbooks:

<i>Then</i>	<i>Now</i>
Author and academic centered	market led
Uncertain global market	specific fragmented markets
European focus	Pacific Rim/Latin American focus
Sell what is published	international or local culture
Culture and methodology of origin	indigenous learning situations
English for its own sake	English for specific purposes
UK <sup>13</sup> /US <sup>14</sup> publisher dominance	rise in local publishing
Native speaker expertise	nonnative speaker competence
Culturally insensitive	culturally sensitive
Low risk/competition	high risk/competition

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<sup>13</sup> United Kingdom

<sup>14</sup> United States



Little design	design rich
Artificial texts and tasks	authenticity
Single-volume titles	multicomponent/multimedia

Textbooks are used in different ways in language programs. For example, a reading textbook might be the basis for a course on reading skills, providing both a set of reading texts and exercises for skills practice. A writing textbook might provide model compositions and a list of topics for students to write about. A grammar textbook might serve as a reference book and provide examples as well as exercises to develop grammatical knowledge. A speaking test might provide passages for students to read and discuss. A listening text together with audiocassettes or CDs might serve as the primary listening input in a listening course.

The use of commercial textbooks in teaching has both advantages and disadvantages, depending on how they are used and the contexts for their use. Among the principal advantages are:

*They provide structure and syllabus for a program.* Without textbooks a program may have not central core and learners may not receive a syllabus that has been systematically planned and developed.

*They help standardize instruction.* The use of a textbook in a program can ensure that the students in different classes receive similar content and therefore can be tested in the same way.

*They maintain quality.* If a well-developed textbook is used, students are exposed to material that have been tried and tested, that are based on sound learning principles, and are paced appropriately.

*They provide variety of learning resources.* Textbooks are often accompanied by workbooks, CDs and cassettes, videos, CD-ROMs, and comprehensive teaching guides, providing a rich and varied resource for teachers and learners.



*They are efficient.* They save teachers' time, enabling teachers to devote time to teaching rather than materials production.

*They can provide effective language models and input.* Textbooks can provide support for teachers whose first language is not English and who may not be able to generate accurate language input on their own.

*They can train teachers.* If teachers have limited teaching experience, a textbook together with the teacher's manual can serve as a medium of initial teacher training.

*They are visually appealing.* Commercial textbooks usually have high standards of design and production and hence are appealing to learners and teachers.

As with all examples of created materials, however, there are also potential negative effects of commercial textbooks. For example:

*They may contain inauthentic language.* Textbooks sometimes present inauthentic language because texts, dialogues, and others aspects of content tend to be specially written to incorporate teaching points and are often not representative of real language use.

*They may distort content.* Textbooks often present an idealized view of the world or fail to represent real issues. In order to make textbooks acceptable in many different contexts, controversial topics are avoided and instead a white middle-class view of the world is portrayed as the norm.

*They may not reflect students' needs.* Because textbooks are often written for global markets, they may not reflect the interests and needs of students and hence may require adaptation.

*They can deskill teachers.* If teachers use textbooks as the primary source of their teaching, leaving the textbook and teacher's manual to make the major



instructional decisions for them. The teacher's role can become reduced to that of a technician whose primary function is to present materials prepared by others.

*They are expensive.* Commercial textbooks represent a financial burden for students in many parts of the world.

In making decisions about the role of commercial textbooks in a program, the impact of textbooks on the program, on teachers, and on learners has to be carefully assessed.

## EVALUATING TEXTBOOKS

With such array of commercial textbooks and other kinds of instructional materials to choose from, teachers and others responsible for choosing materials need to be able to make informed judgments about textbooks and teaching materials. Evaluation, however, can only be done by considering something in relation to its purpose. A book may be ideal in one situation because it matches the needs of that situation perfectly. It has just the right amount of material for the program, it is easy to teach, it can be used with little preparation by inexperienced teachers, and it has an equal coverage of grammar and the four skills. The same book in a different situation, however, may turn out to be quite unsuitable. It contains too little material; it is not sufficiently challenging for teacher and students, and has elements in it (such as a grammar syllabus) that are not needed in the program. Before one can evaluate a textbook, therefore, information is needed on the following issues:

### *The role of the textbook in the program*

- Is there a well-developed curriculum that describes the objectives syllabus and content of the program or will this be determined by the text book?
- Will the textbook series provide the core of the program, or is it one of several different books that will be used?



- Will learners be expected to buy a workbook as well or should the textbook provide all the practice students need?

#### *The teachers in the program*

- How experienced are the teachers in the program and what is their level of training?
- Are they native speakers of English? If not, how well do they speak English?
- Do teachers tend to follow the textbook closely or they use the book simply as a resource?
- Do teachers play a part in selecting the book they teach from?
- Are teachers free to adapt and supplement the book?

#### *The learners in the program*

- Is each student required to buy a book?
- What do learners typically expect in a textbook?
- Will they use the book in class and at home?
- How will they use the book in class? Is it the primary source of classroom activities?
- How much are they prepared to pay for a book?

It is also necessary to realize that no commercial textbook will ever be a perfect fit for a language program. Two factors are involved in the development of commercial textbooks: those representing the interest of the author, and those representing the interests of the publisher. The author is generally concerned to produce a text that teachers will find innovative, creative, relevant to their learners' needs, and that they will enjoy teaching from. The author is generally hopeful that book will be successful and make a financial profit because a large investment of the author's personal time and effort is involved. The publisher is primarily motivated by financial success. However, in order to achieve profit publishers generally recognize that a book must have qualities of excellence that will



distinguish it from its competitors. Ariew<sup>15</sup> describes the compromises authors and publishers often have to make in order to achieve their sometimes conflicting goals:

In an attempt to make an author's manuscript usable in as large a market as possible, the publisher often has to change it substantially. Some of these changes are necessitated by the fact that teachers with very different levels of experience, training, and teaching skills might be using the book. Exercises should have explicit goal, procedures for using activities should be obvious and uncomplicated, and teachers should not have to spend much time working out how to use the material. In addition, content that would not be welcome in particular markets may have to be removed; as a consequence, much of the "flavor" and creativity of the author's original manuscript may disappear.

At the same time, the publishers will try to satisfy teacher's expectations as to what a textbook at a certain level should contain. For example, if an introductory ESL textbook does not include the present continuous in the first level of the book, teachers may feel that it is defective and not wish to use it.

#### CRITERIA FOR TEXTBOOK EVALUATION

1. They should correspond to learner's needs. They should match the aims and objectives of the language learning program.
2. They should reflect the uses (present to future) that learners will make of the language. Textbooks should be chosen that will help equip students to use language effectively for their own purposes.
3. They should take account of student's needs as learners and should facilitate their learning processes, without dogmatically imposing a rigid "method."
4. They should have a clear role as a support for learning. Like teachers, they mediate between the target language and the learner.

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<sup>15</sup> A truly innovation approach may be unfamiliar with teachers and so meet with their resistance: it may be threatening to the people responsible for text adoptions, and it may create public controversy. A publisher's success is based on the ability to satisfy the majority of the public; thus, the preference to aim for the mainstream, to sterilize situations and vocabulary and arouse as little controversy as possible. These products of compromise may be as boring as the innovative materials are threatening. Falling too close to either end of the spectrum can have a catastrophic impact on a text's marketability. (Ariew 1982, 12)



Here is a checklist for textbook evaluation and selection organized under the following categories:

- Aims and approaches
- Design and organization language content
- Skills
- Topic
- Methodology
- Teacher's books
- Practical considerations

Some linguists suggest that operating with so many categories is often not very practical and it is easier to use two or three key criteria in the first instance and then apply others if or when needed. They propose the following questions to ask when selecting ESP materials:

1. Will the material simulate and motivate?
2. To what extent does the material match the stated learning objectives and your learning objectives? (It is rare for a single set of published material to match the exact learning needs of any one ESP learner group, and activities do not always meet the stated objectives.)
3. To what extent will the materials support the learning process?

To type the evaluation a textbook receives will also reflect the concerns of the evaluator. One teacher may look at a book in terms of its usability. The teachers are primarily interested in whether the book works easily in her class, can be used flexibly, and could easily be adapted. Another teacher may look at a book much more critically in terms of its theatrical orientation and approach. If it is a book that teaches conversation skills, what theory of conversation is it based on? What kind of syllabus is it based and what is the validity of the activities it makes use of? Two teachers evaluating a writing text may likewise look at it from very different perspectives. One may subscribe to a process-oriented view of writing and look for activities that practice such processes as generating ideas, drafting, reviewing, revising, and editing. Another may be more concerned to see that adequate



treatment is given to different conventions for organizing different kinds of texts, such as narrative writing, expository writing, and descriptive writing. In any language program, therefore, it is unlikely that a published checklist can be used without adaptation as a basis for evaluating and choosing textbooks. Based on the factors in each situation, questions specific to that situation need to be generated around the main issues involved in textbook evaluation and selection:

- Program factors - questions relating to concerns of the program
- Teachers factors – questions relating to teacher concerns
- Learner factors – questions relating to learner concern
- Content factors – question relating to the content and organization of the material in the book
- Pedagogical factors – question relating to the principles underlying the materials and the pedagogical design of the materials, including choice of activities and exercise types.

## PREPARING MATERIALS FOR A PROGRAM

In cases where institutionally developed materials are being considered for a language program, like in the Ecuadorian Air Force Health Quarters both the advantage and disadvantages of setting up a materials development project need to be carefully considered at the outset.

### ADVANTAGES

Advantages of building a material development component into a program include:

*Relevance:* Material can be produced that are directly relevant to students and Air Force needs and that reflect content, issues, and concerns.

*Develop expertise:* Developing materials can help develop expertise among staff, given them a greater understanding of the characteristics of effective materials.

*Reputation:* institutionally developed materials may enhance the reputation of the institution by demonstrating its commitment to providing materials developed specifically for its students.

*Flexibility:* Materials produced within the institution can be revised or adapted as needed, giving them greater flexibility than a commercial course book.





## DESADVANTAGES

Disadvantages also need to be considered before embarking on materials development:

*Cost:* quality materials take time to produce and adequate staff time as well as resources needs to be allocated to such a project.

*Quality:* teacher-made materials will not normally have the same standard of design and production as commercial materials and hence may not present the same image as commercial materials.

*Training:* to prepare teachers for materials writing projects, adequate training should be provided. Materials writing are a specialized skill and potential materials writers need the opportunity to develop the necessary skills. Workshops can be developed for this purpose, as well as the creation of writing teams contains a balance of relevant expertise.

## THE NATURE OF MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT

It is also important to understand the nature of materials development and the process that are typically involved if quality materials are to be created. In the English teaching process “only a small proportion of good teachers are also good designers of course materials.” Many teachers underestimate how commercial teaching materials are developed and the developmental processes that are normally involved. Preparing effective teaching materials is similar to the processes involved in planning and teaching a lesson. The goal is to create materials that serve as resource for effective learning. The writer a learning goal in mind and then seek to create a set of activities that goal to be reached.

Shulman goes on to describe the transformation phase of this process as consisting of:

- *Preparation:* critical interpretation and analysis of texts, structuring and segmentation, development of curricular repertoire, and clarification of purposes.



- *Representation:* use of a representational repertoire that includes analogies, metaphors, examples, demonstrations, explanations, and so forth
- *Selection:* choice from among an instructional repertoire that includes modes of teaching, organizing, managing, and arranging
- *Adapting and tailoring to student characteristics:* consideration of conceptions, preconceptions, misconceptions, and difficulties; language, culture, and motivations; and social class, gender, age, ability, aptitude, interests, self-concepts, attention.

In both materials development and classroom teaching the goal is develop a sequence of activities that leads teachers and learners through a learning route that is at an appropriate level of difficulty, is engaging, that provides both motivating and useful practice. Good materials do many of the things that a teacher would normally do as part of his or her teaching. They should:

- Arouse the learners' interest
- Remind them of earlier learning
- Tell them what they will be learning next
- Explain new learning content to them
- Relate these ideas to learner's previous learning
- Get learners to think about new content
- Help them get feedback on their learning
- Encourage them to practice
- Make sure they know what they are supposed to be doing
- Enable them to check their progress
- Help them to do better

The good language teaching materials have to be the following characteristics:

- Materials should achieve impact.
- Materials should help learners feel at ease.
- Materials should help learners to develop confidence.



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- What is being taught should be perceived by learners as relevant and useful
  - Materials should require and facilitate learner self-investment.
  - Learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught.
  - Materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use.
  - The learner's attention should be drawn to linguistic feature of the input.
  - Materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes.
  - Materials should take into account that the positive effects of instruction are usually delayed.
  - Materials should take into account that learners have different learning styles.
  - Materials should take into account that learners differ in affective attitudes.
  - Materials should permit a silent period at the beginning of instruction
  - Materials should maximize learning potential by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic, and emotional involvement that stimulates both right and left brain activities.
  - Materials should not rely too much on controlled practice.
  - Materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback.

This may seem a somewhat cumbersome list to apply in actual practice. Any developer of teaching materials will have to develop his or her own set of working principles that can be referred to in planning and assessing materials as they are written. For example: we use the following check list in developing a set of low-level speaking materials. The list identifies the qualities each unit in the materials should reflect:

- Gives learners something they can take away from the lesson
- Teaches something learners feel can use
- Gives learners a sense of achievement
- Practices learning items in a interesting and novel way
- Provides a pleasurable learning experience
- Provides opportunities for success



- Provides opportunities for individual practice
- Provides opportunities for personalization
- Provides opportunities for self-assessment of learning

Each draft of the materials was then examined to assess the extent to which these principles were reflected. Achieving these goals through the design of instructional materials depends on the art, experience, skills, and craft of the materials developer.

## CHOOSING INPUT AND SOURCES

No matter what type of materials is being prepared decisions concerning input are involved. Input refers to anything that initiates the learning process and students respond to in some way in using the materials. The following are examples of input questions in the design of different kinds of materials:

### *Grammar materials:*

Will the new grammar items be presented through the medium of texts, conversational extracts, or corpus of utterances? How will these be selected?

### *Listening materials:*

Will the source of listenings be authentic be authentic recordings taken from real-world sources, scripted materials on different topics, or a mixture of both?

### *Reading materials:*

What kind of texts will students read (such as magazine articles, newspapers articles, extracts from books), and how will these be chosen?

### *Writing materials:*

Will students be shown examples of different types of compositions? Will these examples be real texts or will they be examples of real texts or will they be specially written? Will examples of students writing also be included? If so, how will these be chosen? For example:

*The students' texts:* that is, the writing students do

*The teachers' texts:* that is, the comments teachers write on their papers



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*Other authentic texts:* supplementary readings for writing stimulus and close analysis

*Speaking materials:*

What will the source of speaking activities be? Will dialogues, recordings, texts, topics, pictures, situations, and so on be used, and how will these be selected?

Often writers start with resources taken from magazines, books, the internet, television, television, or radio. (A large amount of materials is available on the World Wide Web including articles, photographs, audio and video materials, and much of it can be used free.) it is important, however, to realize that many of the sources for teaching materials that exist in the real world have been created by someone and that copyright permission may be required in order to use it as a source of teaching materials in an institution as the Ecuadorian Air Force, or any text book, even if they are adapted or modified in some way. It is normally not possible, for example, to use the following without permission from the copyright holder:

- Segments taken from commercially broadcast materials (radio, video, musical recordings)
- Magazine articles, newspapers articles, chapters from books

However, if materials are being used for legitimate educational purposes and not being sold to make a profit it is often possible to obtain permission without payment of a fee. A letter is written to the copyright holder (such as a publisher) outlining the wish to use the materials and describing how they will be used and in what quantities.

#### SELECTING EXERCISE TYPES

One of the most difficult decisions in writing is deciding on the types of exercises that will be used. The issue is how to create exercises that engage learners in the use of skills and processes related to specific language teaching objectives. A review of the exercise types used in current commercial textbooks is a good starting point, for example, exercise types related to different types of listening skills are presented as follows:



#### Exercises that develop “top-down” listening

- ✓ Listen to part a conversation and infer the topic of a conversation.
- ✓ Look at the pictures and then listen to conversations about the pictures and match them with the pictures.
- ✓ Listen o conversations and identify the setting.
- ✓ Read a list of key points to be covered in a talk and then number them in sequence while listening to the talk.
- ✓ Read information about a topic, then listen to a talk on the topic an check whether the information was mentioned or not.
- ✓ Read on side of a telephone conversation and guess the speaker’s responses: then listen to the conversation.
- ✓ Look at the picture of people speaking and guess what they might be saying or doing; then listen to their actual conversations
- ✓ Complete a story; listen to how the story really ended.
- ✓ Guess what news headlines might refer to, then listen to news broadcasts about the events referred to.

#### Exercises that involve listening for international purposes

- ✓ Distinguish between conversations that have an international and a transactional purpose.
- ✓ Listen to conversations and select suitable polite comments and other practice responses.
- ✓ Listen to utterances containing complements or praise and choose suitable responses.
- ✓ Listen to conversations containing small talk and indicate when the speaker is preparing to introduce a real topic.
- ✓ Listen to conversations and rate them according to the degree of familiarity of the speakers.
- ✓ Listen to conversations and check whether the speakers is issuing a real invitation or using a pseudo invitation to close a conversation

#### Exercises that involve a nonlinguistic response to the text

- ✓ Ordering a sequence of pictures



- ✓ Comparing texts and pictures
- ✓ Matching
- ✓ Using illustrations
- ✓ Completing a document
- ✓ Mapping it out
- ✓ Using the information in a text
- ✓ Jigsaw reading

#### Exercises that involve a linguistic response to the text

- ✓ Recognizing the information: recording events
- ✓ Recognizing the information: using grids
- ✓ Comparing several texts
- ✓ Completing a document
- ✓ Questions type
- ✓ Study skills: summarizing
- ✓ Study skills: note taking

#### MONITORING THE USE OF MATERIALS

No matter what form of materials teachers make use of, whether that teach from textbooks, institutional materials, or teacher prepared materials, the materials represent *plans* for teaching. They do not represent the process of teaching itself. As teachers use materials they adapt and transform them to suit the needs of particular groups of learners and their own teaching styles. These processes of transformation are at the heart of teaching and enable good teachers to create effective lessons out of the resources they make use of. It is useful, therefore, to collect information on how teachers use course books and other teaching materials in their teaching. The information collected can serve the following purposes:

- To document effective ways of using materials
- O provide feedback on how material work
- To keep a record of additions, deletions, and supplementary materials teachers may have used with the materials
- To assist other teachers in using the materials



Monitoring may take the following forms:

- *Observation*: classroom visit to see how teachers use materials and to find out how materials influence the quality of teaching and interaction that occurs in a lesson
- *Feedback sessions*: group meeting in which teachers discuss their experience with materials
- *Written reports*: the use of reflection sheets or other forms of written feedback in which teachers make brief notes about what worked and what did not work well, or give suggestions on using the materials
- *Reviews*: written reviews by a teacher or group of teachers on their experiences with a set of materials and what they liked about them
- *Students' review*: comments from students on the on their experience with the materials.

Having considered the different processes and elements that constitute the development and implementation of a language curriculum in the Ecuadorian Air Force Headquarters, and the dynamics of the curriculum in action we can now consider a curriculum as a whole and how it can be monitored, reviewed and evaluated.

## EVALUATION

### DEFINITIONS OF EVALUATION

- Evaluation is defined as “the systematic gathering of information for purposes of making decisions”.
- “Systematic educational evaluation consists of a formal assessment of the worth of educational phenomena”.





- “Evaluation is the determination of the worth of a thing. It includes obtaining information for use in judging the worth of the program, product, procedure, or object, or the potential utility of alternative approaches designed to attain specified objectives.
  
- Evaluation is not a stage in itself, it is the result of a further set of decisions built into curriculum planning and implemented at each of the subsequent stages of development. The intention here is to comment briefly on the relationship between curriculum research and evaluation, argue the need to evaluate both process and product if either is to be meaningful and summarize point already made implied in this paper on the role of evaluation in a coherent and integrated curriculum.

## CURRICULUM RESEARCH AND EVALUATION

Curriculum research and evaluation would seem to have complementary aims, but the premises on which each is based are very different. Planning and curriculum evaluation depends upon the purposes for which its findings will be useful and evaluation depends upon its appropriacy to a specific educational context.

Evaluation findings are not expected to be replicable in or generalisable to other educational context, and their validity is determined primarily by the effectiveness of the decisions which flow from them. Pure research as opposed to applied, is not concerned with the uses to which its findings might or might not be put. Its findings must be generalisable or must lead towards research which could give generalisable results. Its validity depends crucially upon its replicability in other context, and its validity is judged in terms of theoretical rather than practical criteria.

The researcher and the evaluator can closer together as a theoretical paradigm is established. We have argued that not developed paradigm currently exists in language curriculum studies, and until it does, the relationship between evaluators and researches needs to be one of considerable caution. It is necessary to emphasize the importance for language curriculum development of work in the mainstream of educational curriculum studies. In looking, perhaps over



optimistically, for paradigms of our own, we may too often have ignored those which already exist in related disciplines and which could be applied to the solution of at least some of our problems.

## THE INTERDEPENDENCE OF PROCESS AND PRODUCT EVALUATION

The evaluation of process and product in curriculum development cannot usefully be separated. Knowledge of products and in particular global products such as scores on proficiency tests, have limited value for decision making unless evaluators know the learning processes by which the outcomes were achieved. Success may have been achieved in spite of the official curriculum, or failure because it was never implemented (the course books did not arrive; there were no qualified teacher; the students were on strike). A “product” approach to evaluation can offer an initial insight into the coherence of a curriculum; i.e. it can check the products of the four stages of development for mismatch and it can assess summatively the performance of learners against the original aims. However, once a mismatch has been identified, its elimination depends upon an adequate understanding of causes. The knowledge that mismatch exists offers no basis in itself for remedying the situation.

The investigation of processes without consideration of their product (a feature of some approaches to teacher evaluation) is not helpful. It assumes that the outcomes of certain procedures are so well established that they may be taken for granted. There is not evidence which supports this assumption, and a great deal which shows that it is false. The evaluator may also need to look at inadvertent as well as intended outcomes, social as well as academic, and the processes which brought them about: for example the students of Japanese may have performed well, but they discontinued their studies; the debates went well, but students conducted an open forum on school policy which led to the expulsion of the ringleaders.

## EVALUATION AND THE COHERENT CURRICULUM

The implication of the argument presented here is that all decisions influencing the acts of any participant in the curriculum process should be regarded as potential



causes of mismatch. Needless to say, this approach takes the language curriculum as a whole far beyond the scope of any formal evaluation, however thorough and extensive. The only practicable way forward is to increase the professionalism of the decision makers (all the participants) themselves, so that they achieve the knowledge and skills necessary for effective curriculum maintenance and revision. Maintenance requires participants to evaluate their own acts in relation to the curriculum as it is; revision requires them to identify potential areas of mismatch and to propose remedies.

In terms of the “ideal”, integrated curriculum discussed earlier, development and renewal would consist of a process continuous adjustment and fine-tuning , a “bio-feedback” mechanism involving all the participants. In the less than ideal circumstances of real life curriculum evaluation, mismatch maybe virtually institutionalized within the curriculum and its removal might require radical changes in the policy, the programme the participants or the society itself. Nevertheless evaluator can still play valuable rol, it the means at their disposal are employed sensibly and sensitively, and if participants are involved in the process to the fullest extent that this is possible.

## TESTING, MEASUREMENT AND EVALUATION

In the interest of clarity, it is important to recognize that the word evaluation is used in a number of different ways.

Testing refers solely to procedures that are based on tests, whether criterion-referenced or norm-referenced in nature. Measurement is used more broadly and not only includes testing, but also other types of measurements, such as attendance records, questionnaires, teaching testing of students (or students ratings of teachers(, etc. Evaluation, and even broader term, includes all kinds of measurements as well as other types of information some of which may be more qualitative than quantitative in nature.

## APPROACHES TO PROGAM EVALUATION

Over the years, there have been various approaches proposed for ways to accomplish program evaluation. Generally, they fall into one of four categories:



goal attainment approaches, static characteristic approaches, process oriented approaches and decision facilitation approaches. These categories will each be presented in turn and then discussed in terms of how they might best be combined for the purposes of language program evaluation.

## PRODUCT ORIENTED APPROACHES

Product oriented approaches are those which focus on the goals and instructional objectives of a program with the purpose of determining whether they have been achieved, and they should be based on clearly defined goals (specified in terms of the students, society and subject matter) and measurable behavioral subjects. The focus of a program evaluation would then be on whether those objectives had been learned. The objectives should be measured at the end of the program with one of two conclusions: if not learned, failure to attain the goals of the program was indicated; if learned success in meeting the goals was shown. This summary is, of course, an oversimplification. For instance, the development of goals and objectives involved not only the instructional materials but also the students, the subject matter, societal considerations, philosophy of education and learning philosophy. Here are detailed the steps involved with much more precision:

1. Direct and indirect involvement of the total school community;
2. Formation of a cohesive model of broad goals and specific objectives
3. Translation of specific objectives into communicable form;
4. Instrumentation necessary for furnishing measures allowing inferences about program effectiveness,
5. Periodic observation of behaviors,
6. Analysis of data even by status and change measures
7. Interpretation of the data relative to specific objectives and broad goals, and,
8. Recommendations culminated in further implementation, modifications and revisions of broad goals and specific objectives.



However, we need only consider the degree to which points 2, 3, 7 and 8 above are concerned exclusively with product (in form of specific objectives) to see that this approach as well as the two others above are product oriented approaches.

## STATIC CHARACTERISTIC APPROACHES

The static characteristic version of evaluation is conducted by outside experts in order to determine the effectiveness of a particular program. Typically this would force a program to pull together its records and clean up its facilities in anticipation of the arrival of team of experts. The experts would then visit the facility to examine those records as well as static characteristics (for example, the number of library books in language lab tapes, the number of Master's degrees and Ph.D.s among the staff, the adequacy of the physical plant, parking facilities, etc.) in order to formulate a report based on their observations. The necessity for this type of evaluation was, and still is, closely linked to institutional accreditation; a process whereby an association of institutions will set up criteria, make site visits, and formulate evaluation reports that judge the value of the institution as to whether it should be accredited as a member institution in good standing. A general problem with this static characteristic approaches are:

A major reason for the diminishing interest in accreditation conceptions of evaluation is the recognition of their almost total reliance on intrinsic rather than extrinsic factors. Although there is some intuitive support for the proposition that these process factors that associated with the final outcomes of an instructional sequence, the scarcity of empirical evidence to confirm the relationship has created growing dissatisfaction with the accreditation approach among educators.

## PROCES-ORIENTED APPROACHES

A notable shift to process-oriented approaches began with the realization that meeting program goals and objectives was indeed important but the evaluation procedure could also be utilized to facilitate curriculum change and improvement, some of the most important of these are as follows:

The distinction between formative and summative evaluation

The importance of evaluating not only if the goals had been met but also if the goals themselves were worthy.



To advocate goal free evaluation, i.e. the evaluators should not only limit themselves to studying the expected goals of the program but also consider the possibility that there were unexpected outcomes which should be recognized and studied.

Notice the degree to which product, in the form of goals, is deemphasized here in favor of process in the forms of formative and goals free evaluation.

## DECISION FACILITATION APPROACHES

Another view of program evaluation is that it should serve the purposes of decision makers, who are usually also the administrators. In this approaches, evaluators are still more wary of making judgments of their own, preferring instead to gather information for the benefit of those in a program who must ultimately make the judgments and decisions.

## DIMENSIONS OF EVALUATION

There are certain patterns which can help not only in understanding the similarities and differences between the existing approaches but also in formulating an approach tailored to (and, Therefore, most advantageous to) a particular program. These patterns center on three dimensions: formative vs summative, process vs product and quantitative vs qualitative. Such opposing points of view often considered dichotomies, but they are referred to us “dimensions” here because the experience at the University of Hawaii indicates that they may be complementary rather than mutually exclusive. We take the stance that our particular program should utilize most points of view in each of the dimensions. In other words, all available perspectives may prove valuable for the evaluation of a given program. How they are utilized in a particular setting will naturally depend on the various educational philosophies of the administrators, teachers and students in the program.

## FORMATIVE vs SUMMATIVE



The distinction between formative and summative evaluation is not new in the language program evaluation literature. Indeed, it has been a central issue in a number of papers<sup>16</sup>. The position is taken here that difference between formative and summative evaluations hinges on the purposes for information gathering and on the types of decisions that will ultimately evolve from each purpose.

Typically formative evaluation is defined as taking place during the development of a program and its curriculum. The purpose then, is to gather information that will be used to improve the program. The types of decisions that will result from such evaluation will be relatively small scale and numerous, and will result in modifications and fine tuning of the existing program design. Summative evaluation on the other hand, is often thought of as occurring at the end when a program has been completed. The purpose for gathering the information in this type of evaluation is to determine whether the program was successful and effective. The types of decisions that will result from such analyses will be fairly large scale and may result in sweeping changes (for example the continued funding of a program or its cancellation).

These are, of course the extreme expressions of what is likely to occur in actual evaluations. They may simply be two ways of viewing and compiling what is approximately the same information. The view taken in these program is that virtually all evaluation should, in a sense be formative, i.e., all information should rightfully be used to modify and improve the teaching and learning of language.

Whatever the form, such summative stock-taking can have several beneficial effects. First, it will allow for a large focus on the overall issues of success or failure rather than on the smaller implementational issues typically involved in formative evaluation. Second, it can be very revealing and even encouraging to take a look at what has been accomplished from a longer perspective. Even though it is sometimes easy to lose sight of those gains and get lost in the smaller details of delivering instructions, it can be very satisfying to realize that language learning has indeed occurred. This positive aspect can help program administrators and teachers remember that something is being accomplished beyond merely coping with one hourly crisis after another. Third, and politically most important, periodic "summative" evaluations put a program in an excellent position to respond

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<sup>16</sup> Bachman, 1981; Harvis and Adams, 1979, Long, 1948 and Richards, 1984b



to crisis when, and if, they occur. If the information is regularly marshaled under much less pressure, this will be done with considerably more thought and care. Hence, the program will be in a better position to defend itself against pressures from outside in short, it appears that both the formative and summative notions of evaluations can be useful within a program. The balance struck will, as always, depend on the conditions in the particular program.

## PRODUCT vs PROCESS

Another distinction, which seems to propel much of the debate discussed above, is between product evaluation and process evaluation. While the difference between summative and formative evaluation hinges on differences in the purpose for gathering information, the distinction between product and process is based on differences in what information might be considered. Product evaluation can be defined as any evaluation which focused on whether the goals (product) of the program were achieved. Process evaluation on the other hand centers more on what it is that is going on in a program (process) that helps to arrive at those goals (product). Clearly this distinction is related to the previous one. Summative evaluations will tend to focus on product because the purpose of gathering the information is to make decisions about whether or not the goals of the programs have been accomplished. Conversely, formative evaluations will more often look at process because the purpose for gathering the information is not only to determine if the goals have been met but to study and improve those processes which were involved. Given the position taken above on formative vs. summative evaluations, it should be clear that we are pursuing the study of both product and process in our program. As will be explained next this will necessarily include the use of both quantitative and qualitative means for gathering and analyzing evaluation information.

## QUANTITATIVE vs QUALITATIVE

The last distinction to be discussed here, then, is the one that is often made between quantitative and qualitative approaches. The point here is that there are basically only two different types of data than any evaluation study can rely on.





The first, quantitative data are gathered using those measures which lend themselves to being turned into numbers and statistics. Examples might include tests scores, student rankings within their class or simply the number of males and females in a program. Such data are readily available in most language programs in certainly more can always be generated. The important part of using quantitative data in evaluation occurs in next step wherein attempts are made to sort through the data and make sense of them by finding any existing and useful patterns. This is most often done by using descriptive and inferential statistics. Unfortunately, this area of concern is well beyond the scope of this paper; however, numerous books on the topic are available.

Qualitative data, on the other hand, are generally observations that do not so readily lend themselves to becoming numbers and statistics. Examples might include diary entries made by administrators, teachers or students, records of staff meeting, classroom observations or even recollections of conversation over coffee. While such data often lack credibility because they not seem “scientific”, it may turn out that they are more important to the actual decisions may in program than would at first be apparent. Hence, it would seem irresponsible to belittle these sorts of data. What is advocated here is that qualitative data be used in a principled and systematic manner so that information gained will be as complete and useful as possible.

## EVALUATION PROCEDURES

All of the approaches and dimension discussed above are important to know about in the evaluation process because evaluators should decide, at least tentatively, which combination of approaches they wish to use (i.e., whether their evaluation will be summative or formative, process-or product-oriented, and quantitative or qualitative or all of the above). These distinctions and decisions must eventually lead to determining which measure will be applied to changing elements of a particular languages program.

There are numerous procedures available to evaluators for gathering information. Some of these lend themselves to collecting quantitative data and others to qualitative information. Thus the terms procedure is not only begin used here to include measures, which are useful in gathering quantitative data, but also to



encompass methods used in gathering qualitative data, for example, observations, interviews, meetings, etc. Many of the existing procedures are presented in the table 1. The purpose of this section is not to explain each and every one of these procedures, but rather to demonstrate that they are only variants of six basic categories, and that even these six categories can be classified into two classes that differ in terms of the relationship between the evaluator (s) and the program participants. It is hoped that this categories and classes will help evaluator to make balanced choices among the many procedures available for the evaluation process. Obviously, it would be absurd to attempt the use of all the procedures listed in table 1, but a reasonable selection can be made based on the realization that the measures can be grouped in this manner.

Table 1. Evaluator's Role, Categories and Procedures

Evaluator's Role	Categories	Procedures
Outsider Looking in	Existing information	➤ Records analysis
		➤ Systems analysis
		➤ Literature review
		➤ Letter writing
	Tests	➤ Proficiency
		➤ Placement
		➤ Diagnostic
		➤ Achievement
	Observations	➤ Case studies
		➤ Diary studies
➤ Behavior observation		
➤ International analysis		
➤ Inventories		
Facilitator drawing out information	Interviews	➤ Individual
		➤ Group
	Meetings	➤ Delphi technique
		➤ Advisory
		➤ Interest group
		➤ Review



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- |                |                      |
|----------------|----------------------|
| Questionnaires | ➤ Biodata surveys    |
|                | ➤ Opinion surveys    |
|                | ➤ Self-ratings       |
|                | ➤ Judgmental ratings |
|                | ➤ Q sort             |
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To begin with, notice that the table 1 contains 24 different procedures for gathering evaluation information. Initially the array of procedures in the column on the right may seem bewildering though closer analysis reveals a simpler pattern. Notice, for instance, that there are four types of testing, each considered a separate procedure in the table. Surely, these forms of testing are related and can be considered as one category of procedures. By similar processes, all of the 24 instruments can be classified in to the six categories of procedures shown in the second column in Table 1.

Still further analysis reveals that three of the categories in the second column, i.e., existing records, tests, and observations, leave the evaluator more or less in the position of being an outsider looking in on the program as the evaluation process proceeds. The other three, i.e., interviews, meetings, and questionnaires, inevitably seems to draw the evaluator into participating in the process of gathering or drawing out information from the participants in the program. This difference can have important consequences with regard to the way to procedures and the results based on them are viewed by participants and evaluators alike.



## **ALTERNATIVE PROPOSAL**

### **PLANNING AND SYLLABUS DESIGN TO THE ENGLISH TEACHING PROCESS IN THE ECUADORIAN AIR FORCE HEADQUARTER.**

A number of different levels of planning and development are involved in developing a course or set of instructional materials based on the aims and objectives that have been established for a language program. In this chapter we will examine the following dimensions of course development:

- Developing a course rationale
- Describing entry and exit levels
- Choosing course content
- Sequencing course content
- Planning the course content (syllabus and instructional blocks)
- Preparing the scope and sequence plan

These processes do not necessarily occur in a linear order. Some may take place simultaneously and many aspects of a course are subject to ongoing revisions each time the course is taught. The types of decisions making that we will examine in this chapter are also involved in developing instructional materials and many of the examples discussed apply to both course planning and materials design.

### **THE COURSE RATIONALE**

A starting point in course development is a description of the *course rationale*. This is a brief written description of the reasons for the course and the nature of it. The course rationale seeks to answer the following questions:

Who is the course for?

What is the course about?

What kind of teaching and learning will take place in the course?



The course rationale answers these questions by describing the beliefs, values and goals that underline the course. It would normally be a two – or three paragraph statement that has been developed by those involved in planning and teaching a course and that serves to provide the justification for the type of teaching and learning that will take place in the course. It provides a succinct statement of the course philosophy for anyone who may need such information, including students, teachers, and potential clients. Developing a rationale also helps provide focus and direction to some of the deliberations involved in a course planning. The rationale thus serves that purposes of:

- Guiding the planning of the various components of the course
- Emphasizing the kinds of teaching and learning the course should exemplify
- Providing a check on the consistency of the various course components in terms of the course values and goals

The following is an example of a course rationale:

This course is designed to the Ecuadorian Air Force personnel who wish to improve their communications skills in English in order to improve their performance into the Air Force. It teaches the basic communication skills need to communicate in a variety of different work setting. The course seeks to enable participant to recognize their strengths and needs in language learning and to give them the confidence to use English more effectively to achieve their own goals. It also seeks to develop the participant's skills in independent learning outside of the classroom.

In order to develop a course rationale, the course planners need to give careful consideration to the goals of the course, the kind of teaching and learning they want the course to exemplify, the roles of teachers and learners in the course, and the beliefs and principles the course will reflect.



## DESCRIBING THE ENTRY AND EXIT LEVEL

In order to plan a language course, it is necessary to know the level at which the program will start and the level learners may be expected to reach at the end of the course. Language programs and commercial materials typically distinguish between *elementary (basic)*, *intermediate*, and *advanced* levels, but these categories are too broad for the kind of detailed planning that program and materials development involves. For these purposes, more detailed descriptions are needed of students' proficiency levels before they enter a program and students' entry level from their results on international proficiency tests as ECL, TOEFL, IELTS. Or specially designed tests may be needed to determine the level of students' language skills. Information from proficiency tests will enable the target level of the program to be assessed and may require adjustment of the program's objectives if they appear to be aimed at too high or too low level.

An approach that has been widely used in language program planning is to identify different levels of performance or proficiency in the form of band levels or points on a proficiency scale. These describe what a student is able to do at different stages in a language program. An example of the use of proficiency descriptions in a large-scale program planning was the approach used in the DLI<sup>17</sup> program.

In order to ensure that a language program is coherent and systematically moves learners along the path towards that level of proficiency they require, some overall perspective of the development path is required. This resulted... in the development of the English second language proficiency ratings (ASLPR). The ASLPR defines levels of second language proficiency as nine points along the path from zero to native-like proficiency. The definitions provide detailed descriptions of language behavior in all four macro-skills and allow the syllabus developer to perceive how a course at any level fits into the total pattern of proficiency development.

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<sup>17</sup> DLI: Since 1954, the Defense Language Institute English Language Center (DLIELC) DLIELC started as the US Air Force Language School; its primary mission was to teach English to Allied.



Similarly, in 1982 the American Council (ACTFL) on the teaching of foreign language published proficiency guidelines in the form of series of descriptions of proficiency levels for **speaking, listening, reading, writing, and culture in a foreign language**. These alternative proposal represent a graduated sequence of steps that can be used to structure a foreign language program. The ACTFL Proficiency guidelines have been widely promoted as a framework for organizing curriculum and as a basis for assessment of foreign language, though they have also attracted controversy because they are not research-based. Band descriptors such as those used in the IELTS examinations or the UCLES/RSA Certificate in Communicative Skills in English can be similarly used as a basis for planning learner entry and exit levels in a program.

#### CHOOSING COURSE CONTENT

The questions of course content is probably the most basic issue in course design. Given that a course has to be developed to address a specific set of needs and to cover a given set of objectives, what will the content of the course look like? Decisions about course content reflect the planners' assumptions about the nature of language, language use, and language learning. What the most essential elements or units of language are, and how these can be organized as an efficient basis for second language learning. For example, a writing course could potentially be planned around any of the following types of content:

- Grammar (e.g. using the present tense in descriptions)
- Functions (e.g., describing likes and dislikes)
- Topics ( e.g. writing about world issues)
- Skills (e.g. developing topic sentences)
- Processes (e.g. using prewriting strategies)
- Text (e.g. writing a business letter)

Similarly a speaking course could be organized around:



- Functions (expressing opinions)
- Interaction skills (opening and closing conversations, turn taking)
- Topics (current affairs, business topics)

The choice of a particular approach to content selection will depend on subject-matter knowledge, the learners' proficiency levels, current views on second language learning and teaching conventional wisdom, and convenience. Information gathered during needs analysis contributes to the planning of course content, as do additional ideas from the following sources:

- Available literature on topic
- Published materials on the topic
- Review of similar courses offered elsewhere
- Review of tests or exams in the area
- Analysis of students' problems
- Consultation with teachers familiar with the topic
- Consultation with specialists in the area

Rough initial ideas are noted down as a basis for further planning and added to through group brainstorming. A list of possible topics, units, skills, and other unities of course organization is then generated. One person suggests something that should go into the course, others add their ideas, and these are compared with other sources of information until clearer ideas about the content of the course are agreed on. Throughout this process the statements of aims and objectives are continually referred to and both course content suggestions and aims and objectives themselves are revised and fine-tuned as the course content is planned. For example, a group of teachers listed the following initial ideas about what they would include in a course on listening and speaking skills for a group of intermediate-level learners:

- Asking questions
- Opening and closing conversations
- Expressing opinions





- Dealing with misunderstandings
- Describing experiences
- Social talk
- Telephone skills
- Situation-specific language, such as at a bank
- Describing daily routines
- Recognizing sound contrasts
- Using communication strategies

These topics then have to be carefully reviewed and refined and the following questions asked about them:

- Are all the suggested topics necessary?
- Have any important topics been omitted?
- Is there sufficient time to cover them?
- Has sufficient priority been given to the most important areas?
- Has enough emphasis been put on the different aspects of the areas identified?
- Will the areas covered enable students to attain the learning outcomes?

Developing initial ideas for course content often takes place simultaneously with syllabus planning, because the content of a course will often depend on the type of syllabus framework that will be used as the basis for the course.

#### DETERMINING THE SCOPE AND SEQUENCE

Decisions about the course content also need the distribution of content throughout the course. This is known as planning the scope and sequence of the course. Scope is concerned with the breadth and depth of coverage of items in the course, that is, with the following questions:

- What range of content will be covered?
- To what extent should each topic be studied?



For example, in relation to the course on listening and speaking skills referred to in the preceding section, one area of potential content identified was “describing experiences”, but how much will be included in relation to this topic? And should two, four, or six class periods be developed to it? The sequencing of content in the course also needs to be determined. This involves deciding which content is needed early in the course and which provides a basis for things that will be explained later. Sequencing may be based in the following criteria:

#### Simple to complex

One of the commonest ways of sequencing material is by difficulty level. Content presented earlier is thought to be simpler than later items. This is typically seen in relation to grammar content, but any type of course content can be graded in terms of difficulty. For example, in a reading course reading texts may be simplified at the beginning of the course and unsimplified at later levels. Or simple skills such as “literal comprehension” may be required early on, and more complex skills such as “inferencing” taught at the later stage.

#### Chronology

Content may be sequenced according to the order in which events occur in the real world. For example, in a writing course the organization might be based on the sequence writers are assumed to employ when composing: (1) brainstorming; (2) drafting; (revising; (editing. In a proficiency course, skills might be sequenced according to the sequence in which they are normally acquired: (1) listening; (2) speaking; (3) reading; (4) writing.

#### Need

Content may be sequenced according to when learners are most likely to need it outside of the classroom. For example, the rationale for the sequencing of content in a social survival curriculum is given as follows:



The topics and cross-topics in the curriculum are sequenced “in order of importance to students’ lives, ease of contextualization and their relationship to other topics and cross-topics.” The sequence is:

- I. Basic literacy skills
- II. Personal identification
- III. Money
- IV. Shopping
- V. Time and dates
- VI. Telephone
- VII. Health
- VIII. Emergencies
- IX. Directions
- X. Transportation
- XI. Housing
- XII. Post office
- XIII. Banking/bills
- XIV. Social language
- XV. Clarification

#### Prerequisite learning

The sequence of content may reflect what is necessary at one point as a foundation for the next step in the learning process. For example, a certain set of grammar items may be taught as a prerequisite to paragraph writing. Or, in a reading course, word attack skills may be taught early on as a prerequisite to reading unsimplified texts at later stages of the course.

#### Whole to part to part to whole

In some cases, material at the beginning of a course may focus on the overall structure or organization of a topic before considering the individual components that make it up. Alternatively, the course might focus on practicing the parts before the whole. For example, students might read short stories and react to them as



whole texts before going on to consider what the elements are that constitute an effective short story. Or students might study how to write paragraphs before going on to practice putting paragraphs together to make an easy.

### Spiral sequencing

This approach involves the recycling of items to ensure that learners have repeated opportunities to learn them.

## PLANNING THE COURSE STRUCTURE

The next stage in course development involves mapping the course structure into a form and sequence that provide a suitable basis for teaching. Some of the preliminary planning involved will have occurred while ideas for course content were being generated. Two aspects of this process, however, require more detailed planning: *selecting a syllabus framework* and *developing instructional blocks*. These issues are closely related and sometimes inseparable but also involve different kinds of decisions.

### Selecting a syllabus framework

A syllabus describes the major elements that will be used in planning a language course and provides the basis for its instructional focus and content. For example, in planning a course on speaking skills based on the course content discussed earlier, a number of options are available. The syllabus could be:

- *Situational*: organized around different situations and the oral skills needed in those situations
- *Topical*: organized around different topics and how to talk about them in English
- *Functional*: organized around the functions most commonly needed in speaking



- *Task-based*: organized around different tasks and activities that the learners would carry out in English

In choosing a particular syllabus framework for a course, planners are influenced by the following factors:

- *Knowledge and beliefs about the subject area*: a syllabus reflects ideas and beliefs about the nature of speaking, reading, writing, or listening
- *Research and theory*: research on language use and learning as well as applied linguistics theory sometimes leads to proposals in favor of particular syllabus types
- *Common practice*: the language teaching profession has built up considerable practical experience in developing language programs and this often serves as the basis for different syllabus types
- *Trends*: approaches to syllabus design come and go and reflect national or international trends

In the 1980s and 1990s, the communicative language teaching movement led to a reexamination of traditional approaches to syllabus design and search for principles for the development of communicative syllabuses. A communicative syllabus is either an attempt to develop a framework for a general language course, or one that focuses on communication within a restricted setting, such as English for specific purposes. Because many different syllabus approaches are available in developing “communicative” courses, many different syllabus frameworks can make to claim to be version of a communicative syllabus: for example, competency-based, text-based, and task based syllabuses. Other approaches to syllabus design are also possible and we will consider now that nature of these different syllabus options.

*Grammatical (or structural) syllabus*: one that is organized around grammatical items. Traditionally, grammatical syllabuses have been used as the basis for planning general courses, particularly for beginning-level learners. In developing a grammatical syllabus, the syllabus planner seeks to solve the following problems:



- To select sufficient patterns to support the amount of teaching time available
- To arrange items into a sequence that facilitates learning
- To identify productive range of grammatical items that will allow for the development of basic communicative skills

Choice and sequencing of grammatical items in grammar syllabus reflect not only the intrinsic ease or difficulty of items but their relationship to other aspects of a syllabus that may be being developed simultaneously. The syllabus planner is typically mapping out grammar together with potential lesson content in the form of topics, skills, and activities, and for this reason grammatical syllabus often differ from one course to the next even when targeting the same proficiency level..

Grammatical syllabuses have been criticized on the following grounds:

- They represent only a partial dimension of language proficiency.
- They do not reflect to acquisition sequences seen in naturalistic second language acquisition.
- They focus on the sentence rather than on longer units of discourse.
- They focus on form rather than meaning
- They do not address communicative skills.

These objections are true for traditional grammar-based courses and few language courses today are planned solely around grammatical criteria. Indeed, it is doubtful if they ever were. However, grammar remains a core component of many language courses. There are several reasons for this:

- Teaching a language through its grammar represents a familiar approach to teaching for many people. In many parts of the world, teachers and students expect to see a grammar strand in a course and react negatively to its absence.



- Grammar provides a convenient framework for a course: grammar can readily be linked to other strands of a syllabus, such as functions, topics, or situations.
- Grammar represents a core component of language proficiency: communicative competence includes the ability to use grammar and therefore deserves a place in the curriculum.

Grammatical syllabus thus continue to be widely used in language teaching. Typically, however, they are seen as one stream of a multiskilled or integrated syllabus rather than as the sole basis for a syllabus.

*Lexical syllabus:* one that identifies a target vocabulary to be taught normally arranged according to levels such as the first 500, 1.000, 1.500, 2.000, words. It is well known that vocabulary syllabuses were among the first types of syllabuses to be developed in language teaching. Today there is a large degree of consensus in English language teaching concerning targets for vocabulary teaching at different levels and textbooks and materials writers tend to keep materials within target vocabulary bands. Typical vocabulary bands, typical vocabulary targets for a general English course are:

*Elementary level:* 1.000 words

*Intermediate level:* an additional 2.000 words

*Upper intermediate level:* an additional 2.000 words

*Advanced level:* an additional 2.000+words

The 700 most frequent words of English account for around 70% of all English text. That is to say around 70% of the English we speak and hear, read and write is made up of the 700 most common words in the language. The most frequent 1.500 words account for 76% of text and the most frequent 2.500 for 80%. Given this, we decided that word frequency would determine the contents of our course. Level 1 we would aim to cover the most frequent 700 words together with their common patterns and uses. Level 2 would recycle these words and go on to cover the next 800 to bring us to up the 1.500 level, and level 3 would recycle those 1.500 and add a further 1.000.



Because vocabulary is involved in the presentation of any types of language content a lexical syllabus can only be considered as one strand of a more comprehensive syllabus.

*Functional syllabus*: one that is organized around communicative functions such as *requesting, complaining, suggesting, agreeing*. A functional syllabus seeks to analyze the concept of communicative competence into its different components on the assumption that mastery of individuals functions will result in overall communicative ability. Functional syllabuses were first proposed in the 1970s as part of the communicative language teaching movement and have formed the basis for many language courses and textbooks from that time. They were one of the first proposal for a communicative syllabus, that is, one that addresses communicative competence rather than linguistic competence. In *threshold level English* basic functions were identified through analysis of the purposes for which learners use English, particularly younger learners up to the intermediate level using a language for social survival and travel purposes. This resulted in a widely used functional syllabus that consists of 126 functions grouped into the following categories:

- Imparting and seeking factual information
- Expressing and finding out attitudes
- Deciding on courses of action
- Socializing
- Structuring discourse
- Communication repair

Functional syllabus such as threshold level provided the first serious alternative to a grammatical syllabus as a basis for general-purpose course design, and major courses published from the 1980s increasingly employed functional syllabus, sometimes linked to parallel grammatical syllabus. Because they often focus on communication skills, functional syllabus are particularly suited the organization of





courses in spoken English. Functional syllabuses have proved very as a basis for organizing courses and materials for the following reasons:

- They reflect a more comprehensive view of language than grammar syllabuses and focus on the use of the language rather than linguistic form.
- They can readily be linked to other types of syllabus content (e.g. topics, grammar, and vocabulary).
- They provide a convenient framework for the design of teaching materials, particularly in the domains of listening and speaking.

Functional syllabuses have also been criticized for the following reasons:

- There are no clear criteria for selecting or grading functions.
- They represent a simplistic view of communicative competence and fail to address the processes of communication.
- They represent an atomistic approach to language, that is. One that assumes that language ability can be broken down into discrete components that can be taught separately.
- They often lead to a phrase-book approach to teaching that concentrates on teaching expressions and idioms used for different functions.
- Students learning from a functional course may have considerable gaps in their grammatical competence because some important grammatical structures may not be elicited by the functions that are taught in the syllabus.

These objections can be regarded as issues that need to be resolved in implementing a functional syllabus. Since their inception and enthusiastic reception in the 1980s. Functional syllabuses are now generally regarded as only a partial component of a communicative syllabus. Alternative proposals for communicative syllabus design include task-based and syllabuses

*Situational syllabus:* one that is organized around the language needed for different situations such as at the airport or at the hotel. A situation is a setting in



which particular communicative acts typically occur. A situational syllabus identifies the situations in which the learner will use the language and the typical communicative acts and language used in that setting. Situational syllabuses have been a familiar feature of language teaching text books for centuries and are often used in travel books and books that focus on mastering expressions frequently encountered in particular situations. An example of a recent situational organized textbook on English for a travel is passport, which contains the following situational syllabus:

- |                              |                        |
|------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. On an airport             | 10. In a restaurant    |
| 2. At an immigration counter | 11. In a café          |
| 3. At a bank                 | 12. In a bar           |
| 4. On the telephone          | 13. On a bus           |
| 5. On the street             | 14. In a store         |
| 6. In the city               | 15. At the post office |
| 7. At home                   | 16. At the cinema      |
| 8. At the doctors            | 17. In a hotel         |
| 9. In an office              | 18. At the airport     |

Situational syllabuses have the advantage of presenting language in context and teaching language of immediate practical use. However, they are also subject to the following criticisms:

- Little is known about the language used in different situation, so selection of teaching items is typically based on institution.
- Language used in specific situation may not transfer to other situations.
- Situational syllabuses often lead to a phrase-book approach
- Grammar is dealt with incidentally, so a situational syllabus may result in gaps in a student's grammar knowledge.

The role of situations in syllabus design has recently reentered language teaching, albeit in a different form from traditional situational syllabuses, with the emergence of communicative approaches to syllabus design and ESP. ESP approaches



development attribute a central role to the situation or setting in which communication takes place and to the following elements of the situation.

- The participants
- Their role relations
- The transactions they engage in
- The skills or behavior involved in each transaction
- The kinds of role and written texts that are produced
- The linguistic features of the texts

Competency-based language teaching is an approach to teaching that focuses on transaction that occurs in particular situations and their related skills and behaviors. Text-based syllabus design focuses on transactions. The text that occur within transactions, and the linguistic features of the texts- the notions of situation has thus been incorporated as an element of more comprehensive approaches to syllabus design.

*Topical or content-based syllabus:* one that is organized round themes, topics, or other units of content. With a topic syllabus, content rather than grammar, functions, or situations is the starting point in syllabus design. Content may provide the sole criterion for organizing the syllabus or a framework for linking a variety of different syllabus strands together. "it is the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct effort to teach the language separately from content being taught. All languages courses, no matter what kind of syllabus they are based on. Must include some form of content. But with other approaches to syllabus design, content is incidental and serves merely as the vehicle for practicing language structures, functions, or skills. In a typical lesson in a grammar-based course, for example. A structure is selected and then content is chosen to show how the item is used and to provide a context for practicing the structure. In a topic-based syllabus, in contrast, content provides the vehicle for the presentation of language rather than the other way around. Maximum use is made of content to provide links and continuity across the skills areas. Claims made for the advantages of courses based on content-based syllabuses are:



- They facilitate comprehension
- Content makes linguistic forms more meaningful.
- Content serves as the best basis for teaching the skills areas.
- They address students' needs.
- They motivate learners.
- They allow for integration of the four skills.
- They allow for use of authentic materials.

Topic-based syllabuses have often been a feature of ESL programs in elementary or secondary schools where the teaching of English is integrated with science, mathematics, and social sciences, as well as of ESL programs for the students at the university level. The next is an example of how a content-based course can be organized:

In a theme-based course, a high interest topic such as “culture shock” could serve as the organization principle for a 2-week integrated skills course, with the linguistic focus of the instruction determined by the students' needs, their proficiency level, and (last but not least) the degree to which the content “maps” onto the course objectives.

This approach was used in a German University program described in Brinton that was built around the following themes:

Television	modern architecture
Religious persuasion	microchip technology
Advertising	ecology
Drugs	alternative energy
Racism	nuclear energy
Native Americans	Dracula in myth, novel, and films

Issues that arise in developing a topic-based syllabus are:



- How themes, topics, and content are decided on?
- What is the balance between content and grammar or other strands in the syllabus?
- Are ESL teachers qualified to teach content-based courses?
- What should be the basis for assessment – learning of content or learning of language?

Issues that arise in developing a topic-based syllabus are:

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What is the balance between content and grammar or other strands in the syllabus?

Are ESL teachers qualified to teach content-based courses?

What should be the basis for assessment – learning of content or learning of language?

Although choosing appropriate content is an issue in the design of any language course, using topics as the overarching criterion in planning a course leaves other questions unresolved because decisions must still be made concerning the selection of grammar, functions, or skills. It may also be difficult to develop a logical or learnable sequence for other syllabus components if topics are the sole framework. Different topics may require language of differing levels of complexity and, as a consequence, it may not always be possible to reconcile the different strands of the syllabus.

*Competency-based syllabus:* one based on a specification of the competencies learners are expected to master in relation to specific situations and activities. Competencies are a description of the essential skills. Knowledge and attitudes required for effective performance of particular tasks and activities. For example, the work-skills curriculum in Mrowicki is organized according to topics and competences.



The curriculum's language competences are divided into topic and cross-topic areas. A topic refers to the context in which language is used. For example, the competency "report basic household problems" is found in the topic "housing." A cross-topic is a topic which can occur in other topics areas. For example, the competency "read and write dates" also occurs in the topics "Shopping" (reading expiration dates of food), "Health" (reading appointment times), "Banking and Bills" (reading the date due on bills). Etc.

Examples of competencies related to the topic of "telephoning" are:

1. read and dial telephone numbers
2. identify oneself on the telephone when answering and calling
3. request to speak to someone
4. respond to request to hold
5. respond to offer to take message

Competency-based syllabuses are widely used in social survival and work-oriented language programs.

*Skills syllabus:* One that is organized around the different underlying abilities that are involved in using a language for purposes such as reading, writing, listening, or speaking. Approaching a language through skills is based on the belief that learning a complex activity such as "listening to a lecture" involves mastery of a number of individual skills or micro skills that together make up the activity. Examples of skills that relate to different types of language use are:

Writing:        creating a topic sentence  
                  distinguishing between main ideas and supporting sentences  
                  self-editing

Listening:     recognizing key information  
                  Using discourse markers to identify the flow of discourse



- following rapid speech
- Speaking: recognizing turn-taking signals  
introducing a topic  
using communication strategies
- Reading: reading for gist  
guessing words from context  
reading and making inferences

Skills have been a central focus in language teaching and there have been attempts to identify the *microskills* underlying the use of the four *macroskills* of reading, writing, listening, and speaking as a basis for syllabus design, the next is an example of a skills syllabus for the teaching of study skills:

*Basic reference skills: understanding and use of*

- graphic presentation, namely, heading, subheading, numbering, indentation, bold print, footnotes
- table of contents and index
- cross-referencing
- card catalog
- phonetic transcriptions/diacritics
- bibliography
- dictionaries

*Skimming to obtain*

- the gist of the text
- a general impression of the text

*Scanning to locate specifically required information on*

- a single point
- more than one point
- a whole topic



*Transcending information presented in diagrammatic display, involving*

- completing a diagram/table/graph
- constructing one or more diagrams/tables/graphs

*Note-taking skills*

- completing note-frames
- deletions
- use of diagrams

Claims made in support of skills-based syllabus are:

- they focus on behavior or performance
- they teach skills that can transfer to many other situations.
- They identify teachable and learnable units.

Skills-based syllabuses have the disadvantages of focusing on performance in relation to specific tasks and therefore provide a particular framework for designing courses and teaching materials. They may be more relevant to situations in which students have very specific and identifiable needs (such syllabuses have been criticized, however, on the following grounds:

- There is no serious basis for determining skills.
- They focus on discrete aspects of performance rather than on developing more global and integrated communicative abilities.

*Task-based syllabus:* one that is organized around tasks that students will complete in target language. A task is an activity or goal that is carried out using language such as *finding a solution to a puzzle, reading a map and giving directions, or reading a set of instructions and assembling a toy.* “Tasks are activities which have meaning as their primary focus. Success in tasks is evaluated in terms of achievement of an outcome, and tasks generally bear some resemblance to real-life language use”





All teaching makes use of tasks of different kinds. A task-based syllabus, however, is one based on tasks that have been specially designed to facilitate second language learning and one in which tasks or activities are the basic units of syllabus design. While carrying out these tasks, learners are said to receive comprehensible input and modified, processes believed central to second language acquisition. A number of second language acquisition theories have proposed tasks as a basis for syllabus planning. We had claimed that tasks: “provide a vehicle for the presentation of appropriate target language samples to learners – input which they will inevitably reshape via application of general cognitive processing capacities – and for the delivery of comprehension and production opportunities of negotiable difficulty.”

The basic claims made for a task-based syllabus are:

- Tasks are activities that drive the second language acquisition process.
- Grammar teaching is not central with this approach because learners will acquire grammar as a by-product of carrying out tasks.
- Tasks are motivating for learners and engage them in meaningful communication.

Two kinds of tasks have been proposed as a basis for syllabus design:

*Pedagogical tasks* and *real-world tasks*. Pedagogical tasks are based on SLA theory and designed to trigger second language learning process and strategies.

The following are tasks of this kind:

- *Jigsaw tasks*: these tasks involve learners in combining different pieces of information to form a whole (e.g., three individuals or groups may have three different parts of a story and have to piece the story together).
- *Information-gap tasks*: tasks in which one student or group of students has one set of information and another student or group has a complementary set of information. They must negotiate and find out what the other party's information is in order to complete an activity.



- *Problem solving tasks:* students are given a problem and a set of information. They must arrive at a solution to the problem. There is generally a single resolution of the outcome.
- *Decision-making tasks:* students are given a problem for which there a number of possible outcomes and they must choose one through negotiation and discussion.
- *Opinion exchange tasks:* learners engage in discussion and exchange of ideas. They do not need to reach agreement.

Although communicative activities of the type just described have long been a feature of communicative language teaching. Advocates of task-based syllabuses propose them as the central feature of a syllabus rather than playing an incidental role. Real-world tasks are designed to practice or rehearse those activities that are found to be important in a needs analysis and that turn out to be important and useful in the real world. There is little difference between these kinds of tasks and those made use of in other situationally based approaches so syllabus design. Such as Competency – Based Language Teaching.

At present, however, task-based syllabuses have not been widely implemented in language teaching. Among the concerns they raise are:

- *Definition of task:* Definitions of tasks are sometimes so broad as to include almost anything that involves learners doing something.
- *Design and selecting of tasks:* procedures for the design and selection of tasks remain unclear.
- *Development of accuracy:* excessive use of communicative tasks may encourage fluency at the expense of accuracy.

Although the notion of task appears useful as a component of methodology, it has yet to be widely adopted as a unit of syllabus design.

- *Text-based syllabus:* one that is built around texts and samples of extended discourse. As already noted, this can be regarded as a type of



situational approach because the starting point in planning a syllabus is analysis of the contexts in which the learners will use the language.

This approach starts with the texts which are identified for a specific context or which have been identified by students. This approach is often used when an overall context for language learning has been defined, such as in a specific workplace or university or other further study context. Units of work are then developed in relation to the texts. For example, the spoken texts identified for a group of engineers in a workplace were: spoken instructions to field staff, presentations of report findings at meeting and telephone negotiations with contractors.

A text-based syllabus is type of integrated syllabus because it combines elements of different types of syllabus. The following are examples of text types that can be used in planning a text-based syllabus

<i>Exchanges</i>	simple exchanges relating to information and goods and services Complex or problematic exchanges Casual conversation
<i>Forms</i>	simple formatted texts Complex formatted texts
<i>Procedures</i>	instructions Procedures Protocols
<i>Information texts</i>	descriptions Explanations Reports Directives Texts that combine more than one text types



<i>Story texts</i>	recounts Narratives
<i>Persuasive texts</i>	opinion texts Expositions Discussions

In teaching from a text based syllabus a five parts cycle is proposed that involves:

1. building the context for the text
2. modeling and deconstructing the text
3. joint construction of the text
4. independent construction of the text
5. linking related texts

The following advantages are suggested for a text-based syllabus:

- it teaches explicitly about the structures and grammatical features of spoken and written texts.
- It links spoken and written texts to the social and cultural contexts of their use.
- It allows for the design of units of work that focus on developing skills in relation to whole texts.
- It provides students with guided practices as they developed language skills for meaningful communication through texts.

Criticisms of this approach are similar to those made of competency-based approaches, namely:

- It focuses on specific skills rather than a more general language proficiency.
- It may be impractical in many situations.



*An integrated syllabus:* decisions about a suitable syllabus framework for a course reflect different priorities in teaching rather than absolute choices. The issue is, which foci will be central in planning the syllabus and which will be secondary? In most courses there will generally be a number of different syllabus strands, such, as *grammar* linked to *skills* and *texts, tasks*, linked to *topics* and *texts*. In arriving at a decision about which approach to syllabus planning to take, the course planners need to decide between macrolevel and microlevel planning units in the course. For example reading course might first be planned in terms of reading skills (the macrolevel planning category) and then further planned in terms of text types, vocabulary, and grammar (the micro level category). A syllabus might be organized grammatically at the first level and then the grammar presented functionally. Or the first level of organization might be functional with grammar items selected according to the grammatical demands of different functions. In practical terms, therefore, all syllabuses reflect some degree of integration.

For almost instructional programs, it is clear that some combination of types of instructional content will be needed to address the complex goals of the program, for most general teaching applications, whose goals is fictional ability in broadly defined setting and structural knowledge and communicative ability in specific situations, a combination of functional, structural, situational, and skill-based instruction is the probable choice. On the other hand, in some second language setting and tasks can be more narrowly specified, instructional resources are rather, or specific structural or normal knowledge is not required by the program for students to succeed and a combination of task-based, skill-based. Situational, functional, and content may be chosen.

## DEVELOPING INSTRUCTIONAL BLOCKS

So far we have described the processes used to make decisions about the content of a course as well as its syllabus framework. A course also needs to be mapped out in terms of instructional blocks or sections. An instructional block is a self-contained learning sequence that its own goals and objectives and that also reflect the overall objectives for the course. Instructional blocks represent the instructional focus of the course and may be very specific (e.g., a single lesson) or more



general (e.g., a unit of work consisting of several lessons). Planning the organizational structure in a course involves selecting appropriate blocks and deciding in the sequence in which these will appear. In organization a course into teaching blocks one seeks to achieve the following:

- To make the course more teachable and learnable
- To provide a progression in level of difficulty
- To create overall coherent and structure for the course

Two commonly used instructional blocks are planning by modules and by units.

*Modules:* this is a self-contained and independent learning sequence with its own objectives. For examples, a 120-hour course might be divided into four models of 30 hours each. Assessment is carried out at the end of each module. Modules allow for flexible organization of course and can give learners a sense of achievement because objectives are more immediate and specific. Care needs to be taken, however, to ensure that the course does not appear fragmented and unstructured.

*Units:* this teaching block is normally longer than a single but shorter than a module and is the commonest way of organizing course and teaching materials. It is normally a group of lessons that is planned around a single instructional focus. (Sometimes units are referred to as a *scheme of work*.) a unit seeks to provide a structured sequence of activities that lead toward learning outcome. The factors that account for a successful unit include:

- *Length:* Sufficient but not too much material is included.
- *Development:* one activity leads effectively into the next: the unit does not consist of a random sequence of activities.
- *Coherence:* the unit has an overall sense of coherence.
- *Pacing:* each activity within the unit moves at reasonable pace. For example. If there are five activities in the unit, one does not require four times as much time to complete as the others.



- 
- *Outcome:* at the end of the units, students should be able to know or do a series that are related.

The following comments by learners indicate that the organization of the course units was not successful:

We did lots of different things in the course and many of them were quite useful. But it's hard see where the entire separate thing fit together. Aldo, we never knew quite what to expect, where we were going from day to day.

The issue of unit structure is also crucial in developing instructional materials. In planning an upper-intermediate- level course with a topical organization of units and integrated syllabus. The following solutions were reached with respect to unit structure.

- Each of two books in the series would have 12 units.
- Each unit would consist of 8 pages that divide into two 4-pages lessons.
- Each unit is organized around a general theme such as *creative, communication, education, and learning*.
- Each lesson focuses on a topic related to the unit theme. For example:

Unit theme: creative

*Lesson A: creative and jobs*

*Lesson B: creative products*

*Within 4-pages lesson, each page has a distinct focus in both terms of topic treatment and language focus. For example:*

*Lesson A*

*Page 1:* fluency activities introduce the topic of the first lesson through listening and oral work.



- Page 2:* grammar exercises pick up an item that appears on page 1. Exercises provide controlled practice of grammar items leading to communicative practice.
- Page 3:* fluency activities provide further listening and oral work on topic related to the unit theme.
- Page 4:* writing exercises on topics linked to the unit theme teach practical writing and composition skills.

### *Lesson B*

- Page 1:* fluency activities introduced the topic of the second lesson through listening and oral work.
- Page 2:* grammar exercises provide controlled practice of grammar items *leading to communicative practice*
- Page 3:* *fluency activities provide further listening and oral work.*
- Page 4:* *reading activities develop reading skills and serve to initiate discussion.*

With this units structures two types of coherence are provided – horizontal and vertical. Horizontal coherence for a unit is created though the linked sequence of activities within each unit. Vertical coherence is created though the sequence that runs from the top of each page to the pages to the bottom with each page culminating in an appropriate activity to bring the pages to closure.

### PREPARING THE SCOPE AND SEQUENCE PLAN

Once a course has been planned and organized, it can be described. One form in which it can be described is as scope and sequence plan. This might consist of a listing of the module or units and their contents and indication of how much teaching time each book in the course will require. In the case of a textbook it usually consists of a unit-by-unit description of the course-referenced to the syllabus items included.





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**ANEXO 1**  
**ENCUESTA DIAGNÓSTICA**

**DIRECCIÓN DE EDUCACIÓN DE LA FUERZA AEREA.**

Con la finalidad de diagnosticar los cursos de idioma ingles en el Comando General, hemos elaborado la presente encuesta la misma que solicitamos sea contestada con la mayor exactitud y honestidad posible:

Ponga una X en la respuesta que le parezca adecuada.

1. Ha asistido alguna vez o está asistiendo al curso de ingles en el Comando General.

Si  No

Porque? .....

2. Si su respuesta es positiva indique si el curso es: ( señale 2 opciones)

Interesante   
Útil   
Práctico   
Nada Práctico   
Aburrido

Porque? .....

3. En el caso de haber asistido al curso, indique algunas sugerencias que se deba aplicar al mismo: ( señale 2 opciones ).

Mejor uso del laboratorio   
Mayor compromiso de los alumnos



- Innovación de textos
- Adecuados horarios
- Mayor exigencia Académica
- Mayor compromiso/ control institucional

Porque? .....

4. Estaría de acuerdo que la Institución establezca la obligatoriedad del conocimiento del idioma ingles como requisito para el ascenso, cursos, etc.

- Si  No

Porque? .....

5. De aprobarse lo establecido en el ítem anterior usted se capacitaría en cursos dictados en:

- Institutos Particulares (ESPE, EPN, etc.)
- Comando General
- Cursos a Distancia
- Auto-preparación

Porque? .....

6. Escriba 1 recomendación sobre los cursos de ingles que se desarrollan en el Comando General.

.....  
.....  
.....

GRACIAS POR SU APORTE



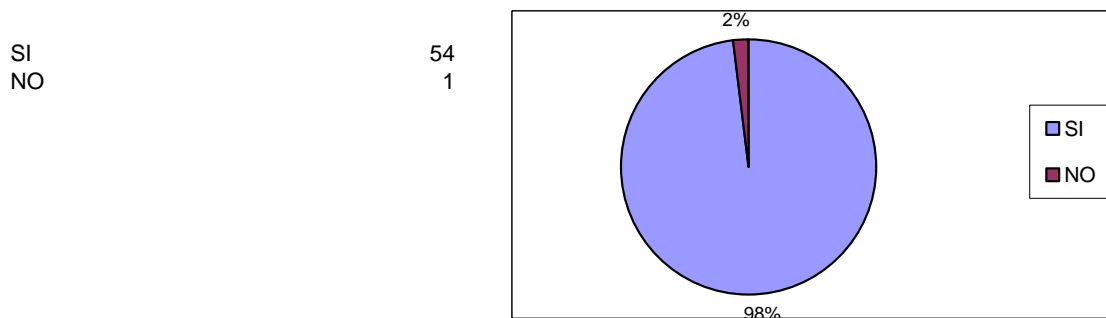
**ANEXO 2**

**DIRECCIÓN DE EDUCACIÓN DE LA FUERZA AEREA.**

**MATRIZ DE TABULACION DE DATOS**

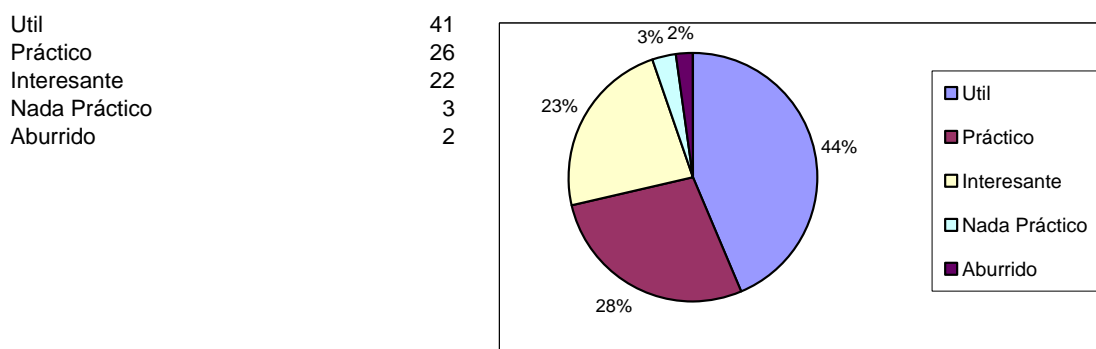
**ANALISIS E INTERPRETACION DE RESULTADOS**

1, Ha asistido alguna vez o esta asistiendo al curso de inglés en el Comando General.



La mayor parte de la muestra escogida que casi llega al 100 % han asistido a los cursos de inglés dictados en el Comando General.

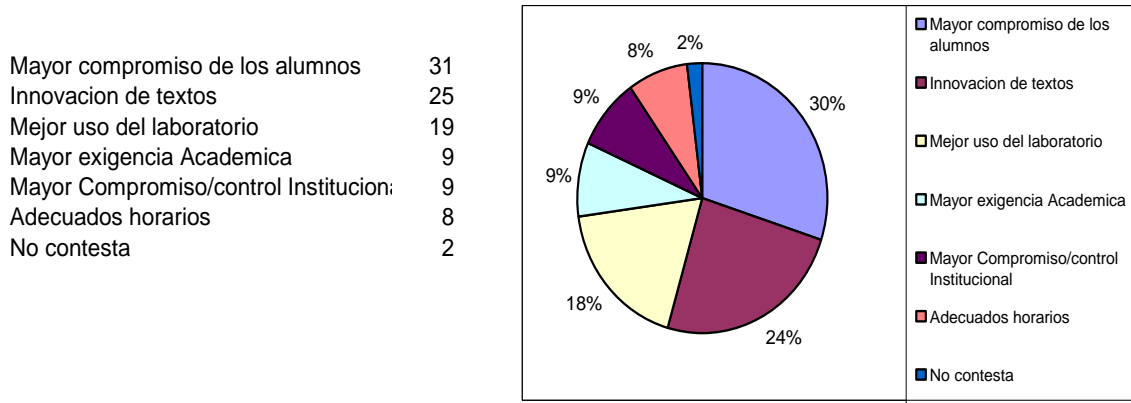
2, Si su pregunta es positiva indique si el curso es:



De la muestra establecida para la investigación, la mayoría que llega a un 44% consideran que el curso es UTIL, seguida por un porcentaje del 28% que consideran que es PRACTICO y un 23% lo consideran INTERESANTE, de esto se desprende que la apreciación mayoritaria de los encuestados es de que el curso es positivo y un mínimo porcentaje que llega al 5% contesta negativamente.

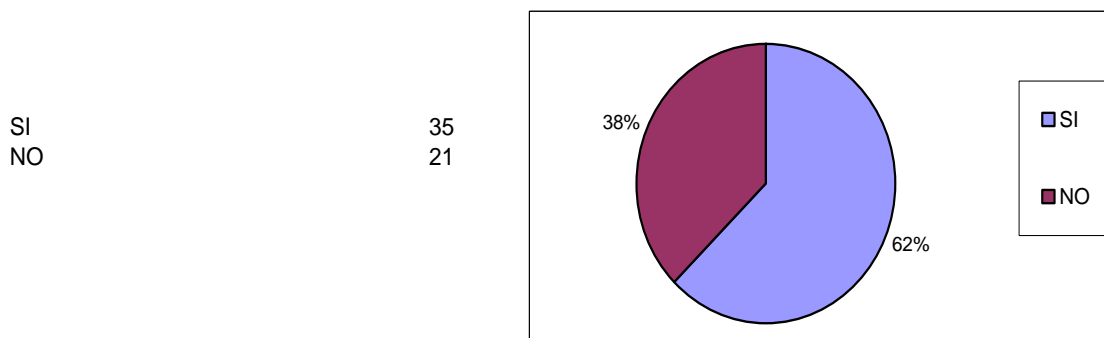


3, En el caso de haber asistido al curso, indique algunas sugerencias que se deba aplicar al mismo:



De la muestra establecida para la investigación el 98% considera que hay problemas en todas las áreas que conciernen al proceso Enseñanza Aprendizaje, determinándose que un 30% consideran que en los cursos hace falta MAYOR COMPROMISO DE LOS ALUMNOS, seguida por un porcentaje del 24% que consideran que es necesario una INNOVACION DE TEXTOS, un 18% opina que se debe dar un MEJOR USO DEL LABORATORIO, un 9% considera que debe haber una MAYOR EXIGENCIA ACADEMICA y un MAYOR COMPROMISO-CONTROL INSTITUCIONAL respectivamente, con un 8% que opina que debe haber ADECUADOS HORARIOS, de esto se desprende que la apreciación mayoritaria de los encuestados es de que los cursos deben ser MEJORADOS y un mínimo porcentaje que llega al 2% no contesta.

4, Estaria de acuerdo que la Institucion establezca la obligoriedad del conocimiento del idioma inglés como requisito para el ascenso, curso, etc.

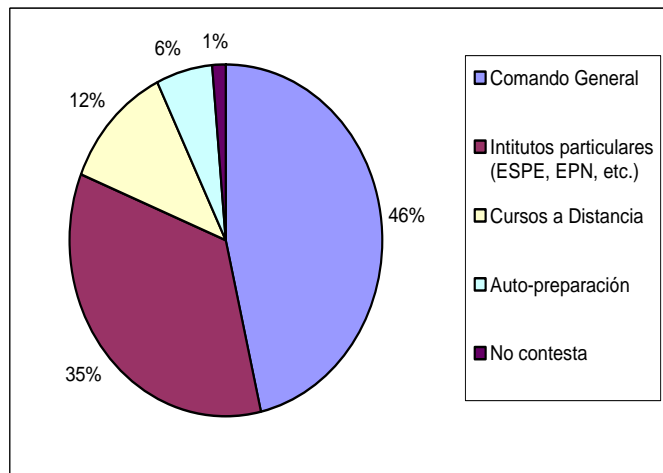


De la encuesta llevada a cabo para la investigación, se observa que el mayor porcentaje de encuestados que asciende al 62% está de acuerdo en que se establezca como requisito para el ascenso, cursos, etc, el conocimiento de idioma ingles, lo que refleja que la importancia que le dan los encuestados a este idioma es alta y un menor porcentaje que es del 38% considera que no debe ser obligatorio.



5, De aprobarse lo establecido en el item anterior usted se capacitaría en cursos dictados en:

Comando General	32
Intitutos particulares (ESPE, EPN, etc.	24
Cursos a Distancia	8
Auto-preparación	4
No contesta	1



Los resultados obtenidos en esta pregunta nos permite observar que los cursos de inglés dictados en el Comando General, tienen una aceptación mayoritaria que es del 46% del total de las opciones presentadas, se puede apreciar también que las otras opciones tiene una preferencia entre los elementos objeto de esta encuesta del 53% distribuido con un 35% para los Institutos Particulares, un 12% Cursos a distancia, el 6% obtaría por la Auto preparación, determinándose que los cursos dictados en el Comando General individualmente tienen una acogida mayoritaria y por otro lado en forma global una porción mayoritaria optaría por otras opciones y 1% que no contesta.





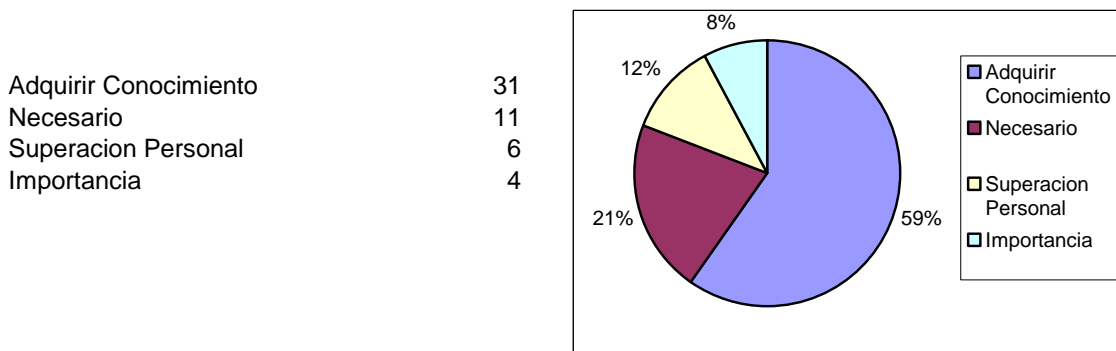
### ANEXO 3

## DIRECCIÓN DE EDUCACIÓN DE LA FUERZA AEREA.

### MATRIZ DE TABULACION DE CRITERIOS

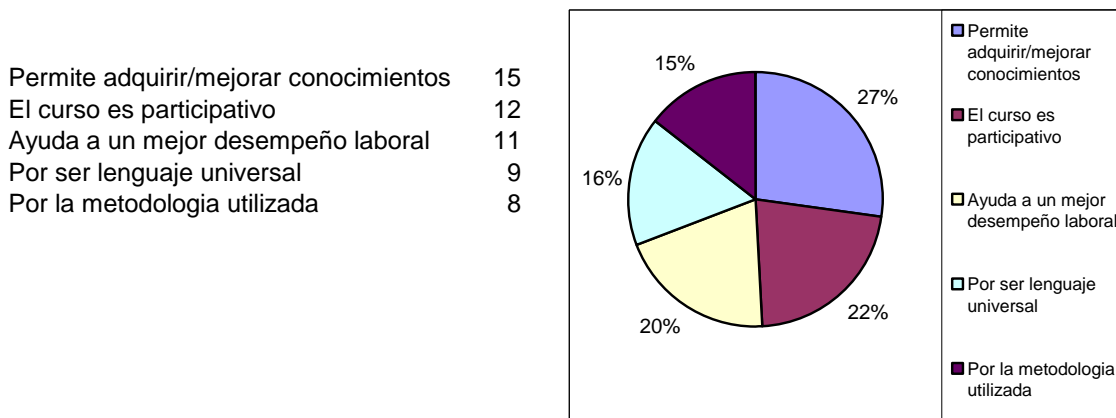
### ANALISIS E INTERPRETACION DE RESULTADOS

1, Ha asistido alguna vez o está asistiendo al curso de inglés en el Comando General.  
Por qué?



En esta muestra se determina que el 59% ha asistido a los cursos de inglés para Adquirir Conocimientos, el 21% por que lo considera necesario, el 12% por superación personal y el 8% por la importancia que este tiene, lo que nos permite establecer que el mayor porcentaje de encuestados no tienen un buen conocimiento del idioma inglés y desea adquirirlo.

2, Si su pregunta es positiva indique si el curso es:  
Por qué?

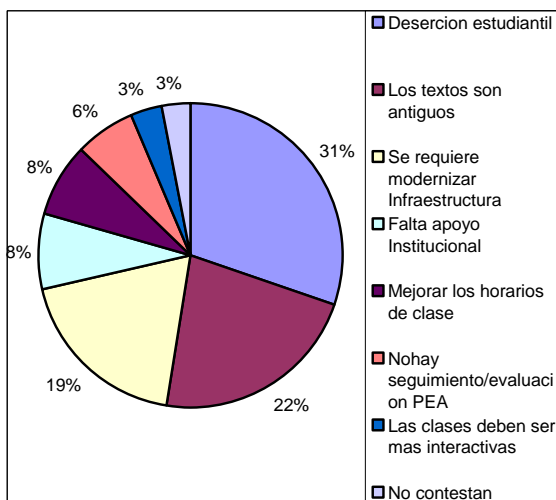


En respuesta a esta pregunta podemos observar que el 27% de los encuestados asisten al curso por que les permite adquirir y mejorar sus conocimientos en el idioma inglés, seguido del 22% que considera que es participativo, a un 20% le ayuda a un mejor desempeño laboral, un 16% asiste por que lo considera un lenguaje universal y un 15% asiste por la metodología utilizada, de esto se desprende que la apreciación mayoritaria de los encuestados es porque existen varias razones positivas para asistir al curso.



3, En el caso de haber asistido al curso, indique algunas sugerencias que se deba aplicar al mismo:  
Por qué?

Desercion estudiantil	19
Los textos son antiguos	14
Se requiere modernizar Infraestructura	12
Falta apoyo Institucional	5
Mejorar los horarios de clase	5
Nohay seguimiento/evaluacion PEA	4
Las clases deben ser mas interactivas	2
No contestan	2

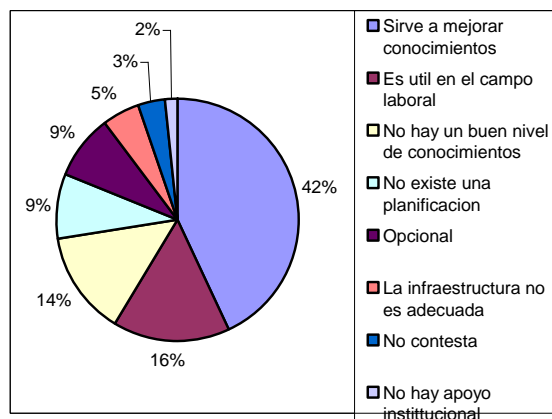


De lo sugerido por los encuestados se observa que tenemos algunas razones por las que deberían ser consideradas, observandose que el 31% es por deserción estudiantil, un 22% por que los textos son antiguos, para un 19% se requiere modernizar la infraestructura, un 8% piensa que se debe a una falta apoyo institucional y mejorar los horarios de clase, respectivamente, un 6% contesta que no hay un seguimiento en el Proceso enseñanza aprendizaje, un 3% responde que las clases deben ser mas interactivas, de esto se desprende que la apreciación mayoritaria de los encuestados es de que el curso tiene algunos aspectos que deben ser mejorados y un mínimo porcentaje que llega al 3% no propone cambios.

4, Estaria de acuerdo que la Institucion establezca la obligatoriedad del conocimiento del idioma inglés como requisito para el ascenso, curso, etc.

Por qué?

Sirve a mejorar conocimientos	25
Es util en el campo laboral	9
No hay un buen nivel de conocimientos	8
No existe una planificacion	5
Opcional	5
La infraestructura no es adecuada	3
No contesta	2
No hay apoyo instittucional	1

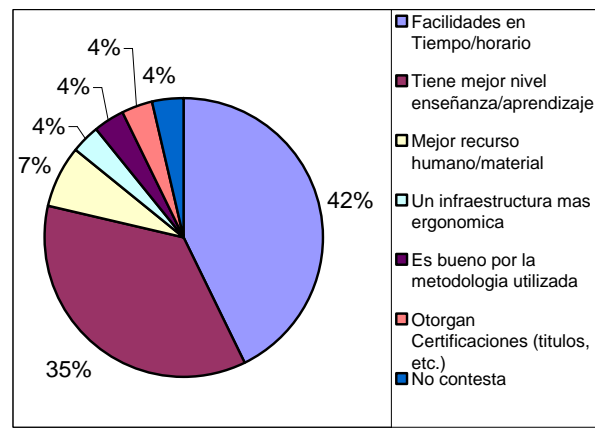


Del instrumento aplicado para la investigación, el 42% responde que esto le serviría para mejorar los conocimientos, mientras el 16% opina que es útil en el campo laboral, de esto se determina que un elevado porcentaje que sumado es del 58% esta de acuerdo con lo plantado en esta pregunta. Por otra parte el 14% considera que no hay un buen nivel de conocimientos como para implementar lo propuesto, un 9% opina que no existe una planificación y que debería ser opcional, respectivamente, para un 5% la infraestructura no es adecuada, un 3% no contesta y para el 2% restante no hay apoyo institucional, observandose que el 42% responde negativamente.



5, De aprobarse lo establecido en el ítem anterior usted se capacitaría en cursos dictados en:  
Por qué?

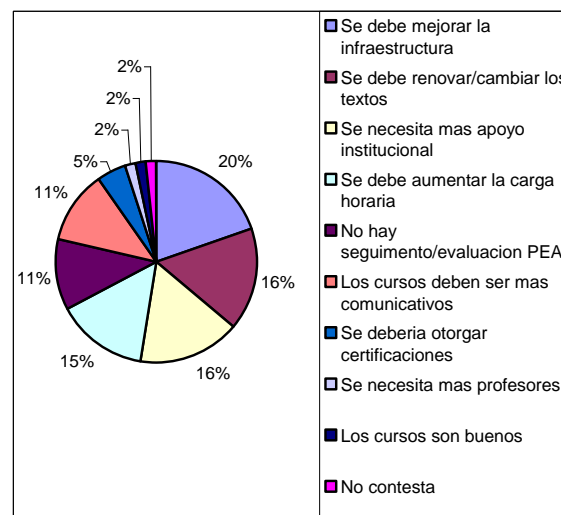
Facilidades en Tiempo/horario	24
Tiene mejor nivel enseñanza/aprendiza	20
Mejor recurso humano/material	4
Un infraestructura mas ergonomica	2
Es bueno por la metodologia utilizada	2
Otorgan Certificaciones (titulos, etc.)	2
No contesta	2



De la presente encuesta se establece que un gran porcentaje asistiría a los cursos dictados en el Comando General por la facilidades en tiempo y horario un 42% y el 4% por la metodología utilizada, determinándose que el 48% optaría por esta alternativa, mientras que otras opciones son escogidas con criterios divididos de la siguiente manera un 35% por tener un mejor nivel enseñanza aprendizaje, un 7% por disponer de un mejor recurso humano y material, un 4% por disponer de una infraestructura mas ergonómica y otro 4% por que otorgan certificaciones, de aquí podemos determinar que el 54% de los encuestados optaría por otras alternativas para su capacitación en el idioma inglés y un mínimo porcentaje que llega al 4% no contesta.

6. Escriba un comentario de los cursos dictados en el Comando General.

Se debe mejorar la infraestructura	12
Se debe renovar/cambiar los textos	10
Se necesita mas apoyo institucional	10
Se debe aumentar la carga horaria	9
No hay seguimiento/evaluacion PEA	7
Los cursos deben ser mas comunicativ	7
Se deberia otorgar certificaciones	3
Se necesita mas profesores	1
Los cursos son buenos	1
No contesta	1



De la muestra establecida para la investigación, se refleja que el 20% de los encuestados sugiere que se debe mejorar la infraestructura, el 16% que se deben renovar o cambiar los textos, otro 16% piensa que se necesita más apoyo institucional, el 15% sugiere que se debe aumentar la carga horaria, un 11% recomienda que haya un mayor seguimiento y evaluación del proceso enseñanza aprendizaje, para otro 11% los cursos deben ser mas comunicativos, un 5% de los encuestados contesta que se debería otorgar certificaciones, se necesita más profesores para el 2%, mientras que para el otro 2% los cursos son buenos y el 2% restante no contesta, lo que refleja que un 96% opina que la calidad de los cursos debería mejor.



**CONCLUSIONES:**

1. Los cursos de inglés gozan de una elevada aceptación entre el personal encuestado.
2. Los cursos de inglés dictados en el Comando General tienen varios aspectos que ameritan ser mejorados.
3. El deseo de adquirir y mejorar el conocimiento del idioma inglés es una prioridad en el personal del Comando General FAE.
4. El conocimiento del idioma inglés debe ser obligatorio, en razón de que la mayoría de la información técnica que maneja la FAE, esta en este idioma.

**RECOMENDACIONES:**

1. Se debería emprender una campaña para elevar el interés en el aprendizaje de idioma inglés en el personal de la FAE.
2. Debería revisarse y mejorarse el proceso enseñanza aprendizaje, aplicando de una manera más efectiva y eficiente los seis componentes curriculares.
3. Analizar la posibilidad de incrementar la carga horaria del inglés en la malla curricular de los diferentes Institutos de formación de la FAE,