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Teaching English to Deaf and Hard-of-hearing University Students

Výuka anglického jazyka pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty vysokých škol

Disertační práce

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Prohlášení:

Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto disertační práci vypracovala samostatně, že jsem řádně citovala všechny použité prameny a literaturu a že práce nebyla využita v rámci jiného vysokoškolského studia či k získání jiného nebo stejného titulu.

V Českém Brodě, dne 26. března 2016

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Marie Doležalová

ABSTRAKT

Disertační práce s názvem Výuka anglického jazyka pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty vysokých škol si klade za cíl přiblížit z hlediska lingvistického i metodologického problematiku výuky anglického jazyka na vysokých školách, zejména pak na Karlově univerzitě v Praze.

Práce je primárně rozdělena na dvě hlavní části. Úvodní část práce se zabývá obecnou sondou do problematiky jazykových kompetencí a jejich nabývání, rovněž i z hlediska lingvistického, u osob se sluchovým postižením. Ukazuje proměnné, které hrají, nebo mohou hrát roli při nabývání mluveného jazyka osobami se sluchovým postižením. Dále popisuje základní rozdělení těchto osob z medicínského pohledu, tj. na základě ztráty sluchu a vyzvdihuje nutnost vzdělávání těchto studentů na základě lingvistických zkoumání, výzkumů a zjištění. Je zde popsána nutnost propojení lingvistiky s pedagogikou a přínos lingvistických výzkumů a postupů, jako jsou chybová analýza a kontrastivní analýza pro rozvoj produktivních dovedností studentů se sluchovým postižením

Druhá část práce je vlastní konkrétní výzkumná část týkající se výuky anglického jazyka v rámci povinného základu studentů se sluchovým postižením na Univerzitě Karlově v Praze. Práce shrnuje výsledky pětiletého působení doktorandky jako lektorky anglického jazyka pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty v Mediatéce Filozofické fakulty Univerzity Karlovy v Praze. Popisuje postupy, strategie a metodologie při výuce a poukazuje na možná řešení k zefektivnění výuky. Disertační práce rovněž představuje činnost Mediatéky jako mezinárodního a špičkově vybaveného jazykového pracoviště a jeho přínos pro rozvoj výuky jazyků, zejména pak jazyka anglického s ohledem na české vysokoškolské neslyšící, Neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty.

Klíčová slova

chybová analýza, intrajazyk, kontrastivní analýza, Mediatéka, MVL (metoda manipulativně-vizuální), neslyšící, sluchově postižení, znakový jazky

ABSTRACT

This dissertation titled Teaching English to Deaf and Hard-of-hearing University Students aims to portray a picture of the situation of teaching English to university students, more specifically of those studying at Charles University in Prague.

The work is divided into two main parts. The first part brings general insight, also from linguistic perspective, into language competences and language acquisition by the hearing impaired. It describes variables and possible variables affecting spoken language acquisition by this minority. It gives basic overview of different levels of hearing loss on the grouds of medicine assessment of hearing loss. The dissertiation stresses out the neccessity of educating these students with respect to linguistic research and findings. Moreover, it emphasizes the needs to interweave linguistics and pedagogy and benefits of linguistics research and methods such as error analysis and contrastive analysis for enhancement of language productive skills of hearing impaired students.

The second part of the dissertation is devoted to the research of English language teaching to hearing impaired students at Charles University in Prague. The work summarizes the findings of five-year long research carried out at the Language Resource Centre, Faculty of Arts, Charles University in Prague. It deals with teaching approaches, strategies and methods used during the lessons and suggests possible solutions for efficiency improvement. This dissertation also presents work of the Language Resource Centre and its significant contribution towards development of language teaching, more specifically, English language teaching, with respect to Czech university deaf, Deaf and hard-of-hearing students.

Key words

contrastive analysis, Deaf, error analysis, hearing impaired, interlanguage, Language Resource Centre, MVL (Manipulative Visual Language), oral/spoken language, sign language

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CHAPTER 2
INTRODUCTION

One of the most persistent and complex issues troubling educators of deaf students in mainstream colleges and universities is that the majority of those who begin higher studies never graduate. Yet deaf students continue to enroll in programmes of higher learning confident that they will do well. For them, as for their hearing counterparts, a university degree means opportunity. In order to tackle the world of academia, deaf students need to master not only Czech language, but also standard academic English which is a complicated task. At a very minimum, college and university students are expected to use proper grammar and spell correctly; to be able to organize their text topics clearly; to present their arguments coherently. For these reasons, then, success in university is also dependent on success in English.

The role of an instructor in education of deaf students is, therefore, a critical one. To function well in that role the teacher needs an understanding of language learning that goes beyond rules and mechanisms to focus on the linguistic principles. With a clearer understanding of the linguistic principles behind language-in-use, perhaps we as teachers can provide our students with the kinds of information they need to have a realistic chance at future success.

CHAPTER 2

HEARING IMPAIRMENT AND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Belief in a functional connection between language and learning is so generally accepted that the socially constructed foundation of this belief is rarely questioned. Children will learn the language spoken to them, teachers are told. And indeed, they will – most of the time. From this basic assumption flow two others: all children will acquire their native language swiftly and efficiently, and once they have mastered this language, they will use it to name their world. At times linguists will qualify these presumptions with the tag: "unless they are severely retarded or completely deprived of exposure. Such is not the case with deaf children, yet these children often struggle to learn the spoken language of their country which puzzled many educators.

In the past for example the Roman poet and philosopher Lucretius (96? - 55 B.C.) wrote:

To instruct the deaf, no art could ever reach

No care improve, and no wisdom teach.

This statement has been supported very often through the centuries, especially after reviewing national studies on the reading achievement of deaf students of all ages. They repeatedly scored well below average in comparison with their hearing peers. Despite the numerous attempts the results did not change significantly. Deaf students had problems understanding syntactic structures and also struggled significantly with verb and noun inflections. Typically, they

were not able to make correct complex sentences and were not able to construct adult language users syntactic structures. Even when students wrote these complex sentences, they were not able to say what they meant, or decipher their components correctly.

This is not so suprising when taking into consideration their oral education and the lack of understanding on the behalf of the society. As Wilbur and Hoemann state:

*"*With generally negative attitude toward education, English, grammar, and hearing authority figures, and overwhelming feelings of inferiority, frustration and failure, deaf students are not positively motivated to communicate in the ways which are encouraged by hearing society." (1982: p.9)

Their failure to master the norms of their native language consequently led to only very limited access to secondary schooling with even worse situation in postsecondary education. If somehow a deaf student managed to get to postsecondary level (as it is not just a language, but through the language concepts, information and knowledge is communicated, explained and taught), their efforts were very often marred by the reguirements of an academic institution to respond to texts and interact through spoken and written native language. Nowadays, more deaf students enter into postsecondary education. However, relatively few posses the skills, or receive the support to successfully complete their studies. It is more the problem of understanding than means and resources.

As Kathryn Meadows writes, "The basic deprivation of profound congenial deafness is not the deprivation of sound;

it is the deprivation of language" (1980:17). Because current and political bureaucracies foster and prefer acoustically-based languages, few of the educational policies presently in place in mainstream schools meet the physical and cognitive needs of deaf students.

It is the the conflict of getting the information accross through the native language which many deaf struggle to posses, to grasp on higher gramatical, morphological and syntactical level. It seems like an inappropriate instruction tool is used for getting the meaning accross.

Deaf in mainstream schools and in hearing society do not communicate their thoughts easily and nor can their teachers or hearing peers communicate freely with them. Deaf are asked, in schools, to acquire the native tongue, often without the context of another language to help them. And if they are fluent in a sign language, the visual nature of such language neccessarily influences the way they approach an oral language. The intenference more than often lays in the fact that a sign language is a spacial language whereas a spoken language has a linear structure. For deaf learners, regardless whether they are oral or sign language users, the spoken language will never be understood and available in the same way as to the hearing students.

So how can instructors of the deaf with no or little knowledge of deaf education or sign language teach the deaf?

The answer is not an easy one to answer. There needs to be an understanding of both language structures as well as knowledge of the effects of prelingual hearing impairment on

language acquisition and a proper methodology applied how to teach a spoken language to deaf students.

Deaf students up to now have mostly studied at special schools for the deaf where, despite the oral method of teaching frequently applied, they were among the peers of the same kind, and their instructors were acquaitened with the way, deaf students expressed themselves in written texts. However, when these students succeed in getting into the postsecondary system, into the world that is predominantly hearing and often has very limited knowledge of deafness, these instructors are often stunned on their first account with the written Czech of the deaf.

2.1 Variables Affecting Hearing Impairment

When deaf individuals move from a special environment such as a school for the deaf into the hearing world and its institutions, they are almost always limited by their verbal and written skills. Hearing university instructors encountering their written language for the first time are often stunned by the errors and the apparent semantinc weakness of the writing. The way deaf students initially learn an oral language has an influence on subsequent encoding of information in the language and its production which can mean that even a student who completed elementary and secondary schooling, a student who was exposed to more vocabulary, spelling, and grammar instructions than most hearing individuals, a student who is fluent in fingerspelling, Czech-like signing and Czech Sign Language, this

intellingent student can still be wrongly percieved by many teachers and researchers as "language retarded" on the grounds of his or her garbled written language.

Level of Hearing Impairment

Hearing impairment is, of course, not hommogenous but rather a heterogenous aspect depending on a number of variables. First one is the degree of impairment, measured by the person´s inability to the sounds of certain frequencies and intensities. This is assessed by means of an audiometric test for each ear individually. However, sometimes individuals with the same overall decibel loss may have different problems with the reception of speech due to the kind of pitch reduction they experience. Despite their weaknesses, audiometric scores are still reliable predictors of how much assisstance an individual is likely to need.

Although scales might differ slightly, audiologists generally recognize four levels of deafness that are connected with different level acquisition and need for educational assistence. These levels are:

Level I, 35-45 DB: Individuals in this category usually do not require special school/class placement; generally, they require

some speech and hearing assistance.

Level II, 55 to 69 dB: These individuals occasionally require special school/class placement; they routinely require some speech, hearing and language assistance.

Level III, 70 to 89 dB: These individuals routinely require special school/class placement; they require hearing, speech, language and educational assistance.

Level IV, 90 dB and beyond: These individuals require special school/class placement; they require hearing, speech, language and educational assistance. (Moores 1987)

Audiologists often clasify those individuals whose hearing loss is less than 70 dB as "hard-of-hearing," and feel that with assisstance such people can achieve near-standard speaking, reading and composing skills. Those whose hearing is disabled beyond 70dB cannot understand speech clearly with or without hearing aids and are thus isolated from spoken language-the mediium by which most learning takes place in and out of educational settings.

The terms "hearing impaired," and "deaf" while sometimes employed to distinguish between individuals with different degrees of acoustical loss, are popularly used interchangeably to describe individuals at all four levels. Those members of the deaf community who are signers generally prefer to be called "deaf" (or "Deaf"), regardless of their level of impairment, and those who are oral typically prefer the designation "hearing impaired". In this text, both terms will be used and will refer to all those who experience impairment sufficient to require some degree or kind of special assistance - such as hearing aids, interpreters, or speechreading lessons-to comprehend an oral language.

Onset of Hearing Loss

Besides the extend of hearing loss, the age at which such a loss occured is important to the process of language acquisition. Prelingual deafness makes the learning of an oral language especially difficult. The term "prelingual deafness" refers to deafness that was present at birth or occured prior to

an age deemed critical to the development of speech and language. There is a good deal of debate among developmental linguists concerning "Critical Age": some suggest the critical age for acquiring a language ends as early as the eighteenth months, others believe it can end any time between 5 years and puberty, while still others question the existence of a critical period (Fisher 1982, Krashen 1973, Moores 1987). Whether or not such a biologically-based language acquisition ceiling exists is not important here; what is significant is that researchers generally agree that there is a time before adolescence beyond which the acquisition of an oral language becomes increasingly difficult.

Individuals who are described as "postlingually" deaf usually have an easier time with language acquisition than those who were prelingually deaf. "Postlingual deafness" is deafness that has occured at an age following the spontaneous acquisition of speech and language. Those individuals who are postlingually deaf may find their range of communication skills limited, but generally possess a feeling for the sound, shape, and sense of language(s) spoken around them. Unlike the postlingual deaf, the prelingual deaf, whose language acquisition depends primarily on vision, may without appropriate compensatory training enter school non-lingual or semilingual.

Hearing Status of Parents

The third major variable in the language-acquisition of deaf individuals is the hearing status of their parents. It is estimated that more than 90 per cent of deaf children are born to hearing parents (Liben 1978) who, before the discovery of

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their child's hearing loss had little or no knowledge of deafness or its implications for language acquisition and communication. About 4 per cent of deaf individuals have one deaf parent and 2-3 per cent have two deaf parents. About 20 per cent have a deaf siblling or relative (Sainsbury and Loyd-Evans, 1986).

The hearing status of deaf individual's parents and siblings influences the deaf person throughout his or her life. Liben (1978b) notes, "... as deaf people comprise a subcultural group, deaf children with deaf parents have a shared subculture, whereas deaf children with hearing parents do not". Deaf children of deaf parents, experience normal socialization and are usually exposed to some form of manual communication from birth. With this exposure they acquire language the same way hearing children do, i.e. by constant, natural, communicative interaction. Deaf children of hearing parents, on the other hand, must often wait until they are enrolled in special programmes before they may have any exposure to a natural language used in a mode they can comprehend. But, enrollment in special programme is delayed for many deaf children, even when they are born auditory impaired, or when such impairment occurs early in life. At times, the impairment goes undiagnosed, or more typically, the parents of the deaf youngster are reluctant to send their deaf child to a training centre while the child is an infant or todler. The average age for the onset of special training for prelingually deaf children who are born to hearing parents is between two and three. As a result, deaf children of hearing parents regularly experience a delay in

vocabulary and syntax acquisition that hearing children of hearing parents and deaf children of deaf parents do not.

Liben (1978) also argues that deaf children of hearing parents regularly experience quantitative and qualitative reductions in communication with adults. Their parents communicate with them less than they do with their hearing offspring and do so in "primitive, home-made gestures and non-verbal signs" (205). The home-made communicative gestures used by hearing parents with their deaf children, she claims, transmit little information, are primarily didactic in content, and generally allow for little response or feedback. Hearing adullts and older siblings, she continues, rarely provide deaf youngsters with names of objects or ways to describe features of the world around them.

Deaf children are also shut off from the sourrounding sounds most children hear and congnitively assimilate such as conversations in other rooms, songs on the radio, arguments in the background. Because of incomplete and non-comprehensible linguistic input, deaf children, Liben maintains, grow up not only restricted in vocabulary and syntax, but in the pragmatic aspects of communication. When they finally attend speech remediation centres, most of the language they encounter is in the context of formal instruction. Formal instruction in language for hearing children does not begin until the child is already a functional language user. It is suggested that because of the late onset of language use, deaf children of hearing parents, even after intensive remediation, seldom acquire fluent speech and read or write well below their hearing peers (Calvert and Silverman 1975).

Because deaf children of hearing parents are often isolated from their families linguistically, they can build up an antagonism towards a spoken language and its speakers. In terms of a spoken language competence and performance, as well as language knowledge and attitude, deaf children of hearing parents usually experience more difficulties than hearing children of hearing parents or deaf children of deaf parents. Deaf children who are exposed to sign language from birth not only feel a part of their family, but acquire both the vocabulary and syntax of the manual language used by their caretakers. Research shows that deaf children whose families sign with them demostrate a sequence of morpheme acquisition paralelling to that of hearing youngsters (Schlesinger 1978, 73). Manual languages provide for the deaf child what oral languages provide for the hearing child that is a way to interpret and respond to stimuli. Yet there is some resistance on the part of hearing parents, teachers, and therapists to use a signed language with deaf children.

Language Preference of Parents

In spite of recent activism on the part of the deaf community, the language climate is still predominantly oralist. That is, many educators, therapists, and parents of deaf children reject manual languages in preference to the aural-oral language of the majority culture. Under such conditions the primary approach of schools and educational programmes for the deaf is training in speech and speechreading. Manual languages and fingerspelling are regarded as supplemental to oral skills. The philosophy behind this educational policy is attractive on the surface, it

caims that schools must prepare their charges for entrance into hearing societies by making those charges as hearing-like as possible. That is why, in many institutions using a supplemental manual language to facilitate oral communication, manual language is likely to be one of the signed versions of a spoken language rather than sign language. Unfortunately, to comprehend a signed language, the receiver must already possess knowledge of the structures and forms of a spoken language. Most deaf children do not have this knowledge when they begin language instruction. Deaf individuals may, thus, sit in either a mainstream or a signing classroom without understanding the teacher, the interpreter, the other students, or the texts.

The needs of the deaf individual to communicate are no different from the needs of the hearing person. Both are born with cognitive ability to acquire language. However, hearing children are born with an intact mechanism for audition that enables them to learn their language through the modality of sound. Deaf individuals lack a functional system for audition which means that, if they are to acquire a language, they must do so through a different modality than that of vision. Parents and educators who prohibit deaf children from learning a method of manual communication are thus, effectively isolating their children from language and communication.

Oralism has failed to help the great majority of deaf learners which is a fact that becomes obvious when we consider the lack of fluency and comprehension in the reading of texts that most hearing impaired people experience.

Hearing impaired people bring to the task of reading a different understanding of the language from hearing people. Hearing children begin reading with a fairly complete language system in place. That is, they are well acquainted with the phonology, morphology, lexicon, and syntax of the spoken/written language. They are proficient language users. Orally trained deaf children usually are not. They neither know nor easily speak the language that they are being asked to read. They cannot dissect words into components sounds, which is essential for reading. Hearing children who can be taught to transform spelled letters into sounds can usually be taught to read. Deaf children, on the other hand, do not possess a fully functioning sensory system that allows them to map sounds onto printed signs, so they experience difficulty in learning to read and, later, to write.

Since reading and writing in the majority of languages are essential skills for deaf individuals who wish to succeed in school or society, extra time and emphasis is placed on these subjects in educational programmes for deaf students. Still, most deaf people never learn to read or write well. The low reading achievement levels of most deaf individuals are accompanied by even lower performance scores in sub-tests of language achievement. On measures of vocabulary, syntax, and ability to draw interferences, deaf students of all ages test below their grade level, with some of them significantly so, as Quigley and Kretchmer (1982) state "deaf students' reading problems are even greater than shown by standard tests" (86). While there is no indication that early exposure to sign language eliminates all the reading

difficulties of deaf individuals, it does provide them with a linguistically normal environment, a native language, and the opportunity for cognitive develoment necessary to approach the spoken language as a second or other language.

Conrad (1979) maintains, that as a result of early oralism, many deaf youngsters enter school not realizing that objects, people, and feelings have names that is without knowing that things can be referred to when not immediately present; not possessing any way of revealing the past or projecting into the future. In fact, he maintains, that because these children are without sign language, they are „therefore without any language". Conrad's argument, while open to debate by those in the oralist camp, is supported by the testimony of many deaf individuals.

Often the experience of using the language and using it proficiently does not happen for the deaf person. Therefore, deaf students learn to associate the spoken/written language with confusion and shame.

Conrad notes a similar sense of frustration on the part of educators of the deaf when he says,

Oral education leaves many deaf students close to illiterate...we do not know how to teach deaf, or even partially hearing children (1979:175).

Attitudes toward Language and Language Users

Their repeated failure to understand and to be understood, particularly in mainstreem academic institutions, leads many deaf students to measure ther intelligence in terms of linguistics mistakes and weaknesses. Baffled and

disapointed, many give up trying to learn the spoken/written language or drop out of school. Typically, those who remain in mainstream classrooms compare themselves with their hearing peers, whom they regard as priviledged individuals having no trouble with reading and writing assignments. Because of such comparisons they often percieve themselves and their future prospects as limited.

One of the consequences of being a deaf student in a mainstream class is the difficulty of trying to compete with hearing students in an educational system based on comparative grading.

Deaf individuals regularly associate sign language with feelings of accomplishment and empowerment. The learning of sign language allowed many of them to communicate freely for the first time in their lives.

In a society that is interested in the "bottom line", the bottom line for deaf children of hearing parents is that their parents generally do not know and do not take time to learn a manual language they can use with their deaf children. Sign language continues to be a peer-acquired language.

With hearing adults stressing the acquisition of English and the deaf learner experiencing satisfaction and enjoyment in the use of sign language, the teaching of a yet another spoken/written language at a university is, at the very least, problematic. How can the instructor foster language growth, comprehension of texts, and writing for deaf students when they might regard a spoken/written language as oppressive and humiliating?

Other Physical and Mental Variables

While degree of deafness, age onset, hearing status of parents, attitudes towards language and language users, and parental preference for language training appear to be the key variables in the deaf student's acquisition and use of a spoken/written language, other factors also influence the process. In addition to hearing loss, nearly one-third of all deaf individuals have at least one additional physical or mental handicapping condition. This incidence of multiple handicapping has remained constant in spite of advances in prenatal care. Studies reported that incidence rates of cerebral palsy, heart disorders, perceptual-motor damage, visual defects, orthopedic disorders and epilepsy were higher among deaf individuals than among hearing. These additional handicaps not only present difficulties in themselves, but as Sainsbury and Lloyd-Evans note,

…they interact with deafness to create still greater communication problems for deaf persons. Poor visual acuity or involuntary movement of the head may seriously impede attempts to lipread, while involuntary movement of the hands may reduce sklil in signing and fingerspelling. (1986:57)

Deafness also leads to indirect restrictions placed on children's interactions with other people and with the environment. Meadow et al. (1981) have found that the amount of verbal stimulation provided by a mother for her child correlated highly with measures of the child's linguistic competence. Hearing mothers of deaf children appear to have less contact with their deaf children than with their hearing offspring (Liben 1978), and, as has been previously noted, the

hearing-adult/deaf-child interactions that occur during early childhood appear to be more didactic and less mutual than they are for hearing-adult/hearing-child interactions.

Hearing impaired children are also often cut off from the world of childhood friendships. Stokoe (1960) found that deaf children typically have fewer playmates than hearing children and engage in more solitary play. When deaf children do have hearing friends, their conversational exchanges tend to be of shorter duration and occur with less frequency than communicative interactions between hearing children of the same age. A reluctance to interact with non-familial hearing persons, begun in childhood, persists in school. Anita (1982) found that whether deaf students were mainstreamed or were segregated in special classes for the deaf, they interacted only minimally with hearing students. Both mainstreamed and segregated deaf students had more contact with teachers than they did with their hearing peers. He, therefore, concluded that simply integrating deaf students into mainstream classrooms was not sufficient to increase interaction between deaf and hearing youngsters.

As they reach adulthood, more than 20 per cent of deaf individuals avoid all communicative interaction with hearing people, and two-thirds of those who converse with hearing individuals keep their communications short (Sainsbury and Lloyd-Evans 1986). Deaf adults realize their speech is difficult for hearing individuals to comprehend, find the rapid comments of hearing people hard to assimilate, and know their intense concentration on the faces of hearing speakers often makes their interlocutors uneasy. In short, most deaf people do not know how to get around verbally in hearing

communities and eventually stop trying. For this reason, they experience a life-long sense of isolation from the hearing world. Such isolation influences deaf students' achievement in the classroom. Exploring the effects of reduced communicative encounters on educational performance, researchers have concentrated on such notions as self-worth, social interaction, and locus of control as predictors of academic achievement.

In charting the general academic achievement of deaf adolescents, Kolle and Convey (1982) found that of the six predictors they considered (locus of control-internal, locus of control-external, self-concept, parental hearing status, age and sex) parental hearing status, self-concept, and internal locus of control were the most consistent predictors of academic success. Locus of control was defined as the extent to which an individual attributed academic success or failure to such external forces as luck, fate, or hearing status of the teacher. Self-concept was described as the positive or negative feelings held by the subject about himself/herself. With deaf subjects, internal locus of control, self -concept, and parental hearing status were strongly related. Deaf subjects who had deaf parents and strong self-concepts were found to have the top-ranking scores in every academic area including language and reading comprehension.

While most of the research conducted thus far has been in elementary or secondary educational settings, the implications of such research for the mainstream university and university students are powerful. Deaf students may tend to be both more dependant on and more critical of their

instructors than hearing students. An isolated comment on an evaluation or a grade on a paper or a test is more likely to be interpreted by deaf students than hearing students as an indication of their overall achievement and self-worth.

Previous Schooling as a Variable

In the past, residential-schools provided deaf individuals with an environment in which communication and socialization could take place in a manner parallel to that of hearing children. Today, however, the climate in many residential schools has changed. First, overall enrollment has declined, reflecting the decreasing size of the school-age population, the decrease in the number of children born deaf or deafened, and the political emphasis on mainstreaming for economic and social reasons. Second, the clientele of the residential schools is more limited. Currently, students who receive their education at residential schools tend to be more severely hearing impaired than those who are mainstreamed. They have more additional handicaps, are less likely to speak or speechread. When mainstreamed in college and university, these graduates of residential schools are likely to be less oral than their deaf counterparts who were enrolled in special education classes at mainstream schools. They also tend to have weaker skills in reception and production of a spoken/written language.

On the other hand, individuals who attend shools for the deaf, when they enter university, are already encultured into deaf society. Their belonging to the deaf community provides them with a common set of values and beliefs. Schools for the deaf have also given them access to deaf information

networks and deaf heritage which they can be proud of. Deaf students who attended mainstream elementary and secondary schools often enter college/university lacking knowledge of or pride in the deaf community. As a result, many of these deaf mainstreamed students are embarrassed by the deaf behaviour patterns of those who attended schools for the deaf, while the graduates of schools for the deaf tease mainstreamed deaf students for adopting the ways of hearing people.

Thus, when the deaf individual enters the university it will be with a set of attitudes and beliefs concerning the relative benefits of oral and signed languages nurtured by family, peers, and school.

In summary, language is the means through which people present their perception of the world. But for the deaf, language learning is influenced by many variables that are not readily familiar to hearing instructors. These include age of onset and degree of hearing impairment, hearing status and language preference of parents, additional handicapping conditions, self-concept, locus of control, early language training, previous contact with the deaf community and attittudes toward language and language users. Of these, degree of impairment, early language training, and attittudes concerning language and language users appear to influence success or failure in a significant way. Also influencing success is the manner in which language was acquired and how it developed.

2.2 Language Development and Hearing Impairment One of the most important aspects of language

acquisition is that it takes place in the context of a speech community. As Paul Roberts notes, "The child learns whatever kind of language the family speaks, or more precisely, whatever kind of language it speaks to him" (1985:469). But, as has been noted previously, this kind of language acquisition is often not possible for the deaf individual who is born into a hearing, non-signing family. Motivated by a desire to be admired, hearing children of hearing parents or deaf children of deaf parents rapidly digest linguistic input, begin to imitate the language behaviour that surrounds them, and start forming propositions about the nature and structure of their community language. Throughout this process, the features of the language they are acquiring enbale them to create certain linguistic shapes, patterns, and networks while rejecting others. Therefore, the child growing up in a Japanese-speaking home will learn the sounds, patterns, and networks of Japanese. Furthermore, for language acquisition to be effective, the input that the learner receives must possess certain characteristics. The spoken, and occasionally the manual, languages that surround deaf children frequently fail to meet these requirements.

Spoken language input is not perceptually prominent to the deaf child nor is easily reproducible. And, research suggests, the quantity and quality of input changes in ways harmful to language development when parents learn about their child's deafness. Gross (1970) discovered that hearing mothers speak less to their deaf children than their hearing offspring, change their intonation patterns, give less positive feedback, and spend less time naming objects in the child's

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environment. Other researchers have found that parents of deaf children communicate mainly to control or direct the behaviour of these children (Cheskin 1982). When communication takes place in the modality of sign, other problems surface. Often the sign language, signed language, or other manual language the parents learn to communicate with their deaf children is intermixed with pantomime or home-made gestures. This colloquial sign becomes so deeply rooted that whenever hearing impaired children get together they shift to this form of communication, teaching each other those signs that can consequently interfere with both the manual and acoustic languages they are learning in school. Because of these compllications, the early linguistic environment of deaf children is less predictable than that of hearing children and less supportive of language acquisition.

2.3   Language Processing Mechanisms

But even deaf children of deaf parents face problems in language acquisition that hearing children do not, particularly if they are taught a signed language rather than a sign language. Information received through the hearing mechanism, as Stuckless (1983) has observed, can be placed "on hold" for up to several seconds before it is actually processed by the mind. This temporary storage in what is called "the echoic memory" permits the hearer to retain a series of sounds long enough to process them as complete words or phrases. The visual memory storage system, called "the iconic memory", is not as efficient. Although it can hold more information than the echoic memory, it has much briefer decay time, usually about 200 milleseconds. That is,

if information placed in the iconic memory is not actively processed by the brain within 1/5 of a second, it is lost. Sign language, thus, when adapted to spoken/written language grammar and syntax through manual modification, as is often done by some hearing and deaf signers for deaf children both at home and at school, can become too lengthy for efficient processing.

The processing of a sign language is different from the processing of a spoken/written language in other ways as well. Studying the visual-perceptive process by which signs are coded in the memory, Bellugi and Klima (1978) discovered that in short-term memory signs are coded in terms of what they call "the primes of the major formational parametres, such as hand configuration, place of articulation, movement, and direction of orientation". Among the implications of their findings are three points that should be considered by instructors of hearing impaired learners. First, when deaf individuals who acquire and process language through the iconic memory enter school, they may well be more familiar with the formational patterns of sign language than the formational patterns of spoken language. They will not have experience with pitch, stress, rhythm, or any of the other suprasegmentals of speech that are crucial to the understanding of both oral and written language, altough they will be acquainted with the directional modulation, duplication, and size alteration movements that serve as suprasegmentals of sign.

Second, natural sign languages tend to be highly redundant due to the brief decay time associated with the iconic memory.

Third, long, involved utterances are difficult for deaf individuals to process, not because of any cognitive inferiority, but because of the inherent nature of their dominant repetitive channel. In order to comprehend new material, deaf learners require that it should be carefully scaffolded in small bits, each new bit referring explicitly to previous details. But recursiveness is not mormally a characteristic of university lectures. Instructors rightly feel that segmenting content into small units and repeating information several times as each new item is added to the previous content would slow the pace of the class. Still, the failure of teachers to segment and scaffold learning may cause deaf students to miss important information at the opening of a class session or early in the term and consequently affect their comprehension of all subsequent course content.

2.4   Learning and the System of Language

Because deaf individuals must process language through a different modality from that used by hearing persons, their acquisition of the systems of language also differs. People are active language learners their entire lives. They continually analyze data to structure meaning, acquiring new words, phrases, and codes. This analysis is necessary because, in order to manipulate a language which means to organize, transmit, receive, and process messages, an individual must possess an internal grammar of the language being used by the speech community of which he or she is a part. And this

internal grammar must closely resemble the internal of all other users of the same language in that speech community.

To manipulate an acoustic language, users need to acquire the rules of the various systems associated with it. These include the sound system or phonology of the language, the shape of the language or its morphology plus syntax, the lexicon of the language, and the pragmatics of the language. Each of these systems needs to be broken down by the language learner, first into networks and finally into the smallest, combinable discrete parts that comprise the networks, before rules governing meaningful recombination can be acquired. Concerning this process, Moskowitz-Byrne notes:

"In the first two years of life a child spends much time working on one part of the task-disassembling the language to find the separate sounds that can be put together to form sentences. After the age of two the basic process continues to be refined, and many more sounds and words are produced". (1985:48)

Deaf people cannot break oral/written language down into discrete sounds because they hear only isolated or sporadic sounds. Similarly, hearing impaired individuals cannot, without intervention, begin the process of separating the phonemes of language to discover their possible combination. The later this intervention begins, the harder the acquisition becomes.

Therefore, the main educative task for the hearing impaired student learning to read and write is complicated because he or she must accomplish it without having fully incorporated the system rules governing the language.

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Thus, while the language acquisition process proceeds smoothly for the hearing child who continually revises and polishes his or her internal rules for the system until he or she can create complex sentences appropriate to specific circumstances. Usually at the age of 6 or 7 (Moskowitz-Byrne), the deaf child must struggle with the sound system, lexicon, nad syntax of the language throughout his or her life.

The environment in which this language-learning struggle takes place is an important to the process of acquisition as is an access to input. To acquire a language, the learner must be able to interact with people who use that language in real settings. Neither a machine nor artificial classroom exercises will do. The machine, while it can pose questions, give instructions, and correct responses, does not make connections, or clarify directions for the learner. The classroom exercises can provide direction and clarify connections, but cannot always deliver the contextualizatiom necessary for the acquisition of linguistics competence. It has been found that interaction, particularly loving interaction between the child and the parent or parent-like-figure, facilitates language development. In short, a child who hears no language in his environment has very difficult time acquiring language.

2.5   Acquisition of Speechreading

The acquisition of an oral language for deaf people also generally involves a process known as speechreading through which the learner is taught to access linguistic information by carefully watching the lips, facial expressions, and gestures of a speaker. The information thus gained is then interpreted

contextually to decipher what is being said. Therefore, both acoustic and pragmatic rules of a language must be incorporated before one can speechread the language effectively. Studies have found out that many speechreaders understand less than half of what is said in face-to-face conversations and comprehend only 5 per cent of what is said in group exchanges. As Liben (1978) has observed, many distictions among sounds are not visible on the lips; in Czech language about 40 percent and in English less than 40 per cent of the phonemes are easily distingushable.

Similarly, stress, tone, rate, and pitch, which carry a lot of the meaning of an utterance are not available to the deaf. Neither are rythmic patterns that alert hearing people as to when important bits of information are going to be communicated. Consequently, much of speechreading depends on filling in the gaps in available information.

If deaf people find speechreading difficult, they have equal trouble making their speech comprehensible to others. The spoken language of the deaf is characterized by abnormal pitch, abnormal intonation patterns, faulty timing, and poor control of intensity. And since their speaking is characterized by atypical phonological and prosodic elements, they discover that these elemenets tend to override the semantic aspects of the message they are trying to convey. As a result, deaf speakers receive incomplete feedback concerning how well they have communitaed their desired meaning. In general, despite the language assisstance provided by amplification devices and speechreading, the linguistic intake of an acoustic language remains for the deaf individual poor and incomplete. Moreover, this lack of the linguistic intake

of an acoustic language remains with the deaf student when he or she enters the mainstream classroom. The infinite variety of contextual and generic constraints that operate on written language and that have been available to hearing students since their earliest years become an unstoppable and ruthless force inhibiting the deaf student's productive and creative use of the written/oral language.

2.6 Acquisition of Linguistic Meaning and Pragmatic

But learning a language means more than learning how to organize sounds into words and words into structures that can function at the level of semantics. It also means learning what kinds of utterances are appropriate in particular situations. This aspect of language acquisition is called pragmatics. Pragmatics is specially concerned with language performance. It sees language primarily as a social act and is concerned with the various conventions that are operative when people interact with each other. Since 1955, when J. L. Austin presented his introductory lecture on speech act, numerous researchers have attempted to isolate those pragmatic principles that influence language in context. While their research has primarily been concerned with speech, more recent studies have uncovered similar pragmatic principles governing the use of written language.

Essentially, pragmatics implies an understanding of the indexicals, beliefs, expectations, and intentions of a speaker or writer in a given situation or text. It involves not only the interpretation of such items as deictics and ellipses, but also

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every communicative aspect of language use. Language-in-use is a meaningful act, not an abstract formal object, stress those interested in pragmatics. This is why learning a language involves more than a mere internatilization of phonological, morphological, and syntactic rules governing the language being required. Yet, because hearing impaired children tend to learn rather than acquire oral/written language, they are primarily taught morphological and syntactic rules. Language is presented to them as linearly patterned, with slots to be filled with appropriate parts of speech. Both the patterns and the parts of speech, they are told by instructors, need to be memorized. The result of this instructional emphasis on rule-governed aspects is familiar to every instructor of deaf students which means that the deaf tend to approach all new information literally.

Blackwell and colleagues note that to be prelingually deaf "either something is literal or it is absurd and thus usually regarded as insignificant." (1978: 138). Discussions of abstractions or generalizations by the instructor are percieved by the hearing impaired in concrete and specific way, i.e. they often disregard descriptive language in much the same way as hearing students ingnore difficult or unfamiliar vocabulary items. As authors remark, "There are not many metaphors in the hearing-impaired child's experience" (1978:139). Since most university texts regularly use both expressive and grammatical metaphors, these figures of speech are likely to pose interpretative difficulties for deaf students.

Indexicals- elements whose meaning is contex-bound such as pronouns and words lie "this, "that," and "here", are also

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difficult for the deaf student to comprehend. But since these elements often specify the truth conditions of sentences (Morgan and Green (1980)), readers cannot be expected to derive meaning from texts nor assign meaning to their own compositions unless they achieve an understanding of indexicals. Therefore, the instructor might assume that hearing impaired students will experience productive and receptive difficulties whenever a written or spoken text conveys meaning indirectly.

The inability to treat an oral/written language pragmatically not only affects the hearing impaired student's approach to metaphor between words and phrases, but also influences the connections he or she makes from one sentence to the next in an attempt in order to make the text meaningful. In literature, as in conversation, words do not always carry their dictionary definitions. Listeners must draw upon their knowledge of pragmatics to give them clues to lexical meaning. In interpreting writtent discourse, hearing readers rely on both context and subvocalization to provide them with insight into meaning. For example, in the following texts the phrase "Oh, great!" has two different meanings. This fact is obvious to hearing students who both contextualize the hypothetical conversations and supply subvocalization to them while reading. The texts read:

1

T. What kept you so long?

We'll be late for the party.

J. The car won't start. I think

The battery is dead.

T. Oh, great!

2

T. Mary's parties are always so boring.

J. We may not have to go

T. Oh, great!

Deaf students, on the other hand, tend to interpret both passages to mean that "T" is happy that the car battery is dead.

Similar problems occur when a written or spoken text contains an indirect speech act, perhaps a question used as an assertation or a statement that is really a request. Deaf students regard the sentences literally. Without knowledge of the pragmatics they will continue to make mistakes about speaker's or writer's intentions and will continue to produce texts that appear to be lacking in subtlety and variety.

To conclude, given the constraints on their acquisition of spoken language, it is not suprising that hearing impaired individuals experience many difficulties in the classroom settings. These difficulties give rise to a question: What can the instructor do to help deaf students gain access to the codes they will need to master the language successfully? First, language, thought, and culture are closely related and cannot be separated from each other. Therefore, any attempt to change a person's language will demand that that person acquires new ways of thinking. Second, teaching is the

guiding and facilitating of learning. It is the teacher's task to set up the conditions under which the learner can make a conscious decision to accept or reject linguistic change.

2.7   Error Analysis, Contrastive Analysis and Interlanguage

All writing, no matter how garbled, is an attempt to convey thought, to construct meaning. When a deaf writer violates reader's expectations, there is a tendency for instructors to regard his or her text as meaningless, because traditional methods used by teachers to isolate errors do not address the question of author's intent. They start and finish with a norm that may or may not relate to what the writer was tying to convey in the questionable structure/structures. Even detailed textual commentaries provided by dedicated instructors often fail to address the issue of writer-meaning in the teachers' effor to isolate reader-meaning. Because deaf writers are typically unfamiliar with many of the linguistic options available to hearing writers, they may find it difficult to use standard academic English for their own good. Instead, they often guess what they understand it to be. In this attempt at approximation the deaf writer must rely on his or her interlanguage.

Interlanguage is a concept drawn from English as a Second Language (ESL) research. The term interlanguage was coined by Selinker to describe the "psychologically relevant data of second language learning…underlying attempted meaningful

performance" (1972:201). Selinker was specifically interested in adults' attempts to express meanings they already possessed in a language that they were beginning to learn. Before that the prevailing theory regarding second language (L2) acquisition drew on from the theories of structural linguistics and behavioural psychology. To learn a language was to acquire the set of linguistics habits specific to that language. Selinker challenged such theories, claiming that successful first and second language learners can achieve native-like speaker competence without having been explicitely taught structures and rules. Children when they are learning a language, are not consciously taught the rules of speech, he goes on. Rather they acquire linguistic competence through exposure to models. Later they adapt these models and use them to manipulate their worlds. If this is true for first language acquisition, it seems likely, he maintains, that it is also true for second language learning.

When a learner begins to study a second language, Selinker suggested, a latent language structure in the brain, the biological counterpart to universal grammar, is activated to construct a separate language system called an "interlanguage" (Selinker 1972: 206). Interlanguage construction involves hyphothesizing and experimenting with the target language until the learner acquires a native-like fluency, or until errors become so fixed in the learner's interlanguage, through a process called fossilization, that they can no longer be changed.

Although adults regularly maintain that they were taught the rules of language in school, Moskowitz-Byrne notes that

what they actuall learnt from formal instruction in language were the conventions of and educated society, the "…arbitrary finishing touches of embroidery on a thick fabric of language that each child weaves for herself before arriving in the English classroom". (1985:46)

Since individuals acquire rule-governed behaviour through the actual manipulation of a language in use, they require time of apprenticeship during which they are free to discover the rules they will need to perform competently as readers and writers. During this period of aprenticeship they will construct approximations of the language system they are learning, going from kernel sentences (simple active declaratives to complex structures, such as passives, interrogatives, and negatives. Throughout this process they will construct numerous transitional interlanguages, numerous transitional grammars. One way of describing linguistic change, then, is in terms of alterations of grammars through time.

From the viewpoint of interlanguages (so called approximative systems, transitional languages, idiosyncratic dialects, and intermediate systems), errors are not essentially markers of acquisitional inadequacy. They are features carrying information about a particular writer and his or her understanding of the language to be learnt, the target language.

In his article, "The Study of Error," David Bartholomae, suggested that the errors of students who are attempting to produce academic text, i.e. a particular variety of the English

language, should be considered as evidence of interlanguage formation. He argued:

"The writing of a basic writer can be shown to be an approximation of conventional written discourse; it is a peculiar and idiosyncratic version of a highly conventional type, but the relation between the approximate and the conventional forms is not the same as the relation between the writing, say, of a seventh grader and the writing of a university freshman.

Basic writing, I want to argue, is a variety of writing, not with fewer parts or more rudimentary constituents. It is not evidence of arrested cognitive development, arrested language development, or unruly or unpredictable language use… failed sentences, then could be taken as stages of learning rather than the failure to learn, but also as evidence that these writers are using writing as an occasion to learn". (1980:254)

The advantage of treating the language attempts of students as evidence of functioning and approximative systems is that student errorrs are not condemned, and error-makers are not humiliated. Interlanguage, from this perspective, is a natural language created by learners faced with the task of acquiring a new language or a variety of language. A student whose native language is a sign language creates an interlanguage when he or she attempts to write in standard academic English.

Unless fossilization has taken place, each student attempt will produce a subtly more sophisticated approximation of target language. And because the learner acquires a language

economically, i.e. devoting energy to broad issues before dealing with specific ones, he or she will make many errorrs. Errorrs, while not necessarily a cause for rejoicing on the part of the instructor, are neither a cause for frustration. They are evidence of creative construction in which learners approximate what they know of academic writing. Learners draw data for construction from at least five areas: from native languages, from what they already know about the target language, from other languages they know, from the principles of universal grammar, and from language learning strategies that they have incorporated.

Much current research in the area of language acquisition for the deaf regards the spoken/written language of their country as their second language even if it was the first language they were taught. But, unlike L2 learners, hearing impaired students rarely achieve native-like productive or receptive fluency in the oral language. For example, the research done in the US by Crandall in 1982 on the texts of deaf university students found that their written language, even after remediation, was only approximately 70 per cent intellegible. And he concludes that their "knowledge of English differs a great deal from the knowledge a native speaker would have." (1982:12)

However, the analogies that compare deaf learners's oral language acquisition patterns to those L2 learners are by no means perfect. Individuals who are prelingually deaf do not acquire competence in a spoken language in the same way that hearing L2 learners do. Nevertheless, it is reasonable to assume that many deaf students, particularly those with

significant hearing loss, regard sign language as their first language and a spoken language as their second no matter in what order they were exposed to the language.

The line of research, has led teachers of hearing impaired to devise models of instruction based on ESL programmes, but the result has been mixed. Almost no research has been conducted to test if L2 acquisition hypotheses formulated for hearing persons can be extended to cover the language learning processes of the deaf. Some key questions still to be answered are:

- What constitutes a second language for deaf persons?
- Why do deaf learners require significantly more formal instruction in grammar, syntax and vocabulary than hearing learners acquiring a second language?
- Is learning a second language cognitively different for hearing and hearing impaired individuals?
- What individual difference, if any, influences the spoken/written language acquisition of deaf learners?

The use of error analysis is one method of acquiring data that could lead to answers to some of these questions and to the formulation of teaching methodology that could make the acquisition easier for deaf students.

Contrastive Analysis and Student Errors

Prior to the 1960s, errors in L2 learning were repeatedly shunned by teachers. Nelson Brooks presented this view when he wrote:

"Like sin, error is to be avoided and its influence overcome … The principal method of avoiding error in language learning is to observe and pracise the right model a sufficient number of times; the principal way of overcoming it is to shorten the time lapse between the incorrect response and the presentation once more of the correct model". (1960:58)

However, as the findings of structural linguists like Leonard Bloomfield, Edward Sapir, and Charles Fries made their way into ESL classrooms, errors came to be regarded as a mechanism for helping teachers design their language instruction tasks. Structuralism emphasized a rigorous application of scientific principles to the description and study of human languages. Languages were to be broken down into small units of analysis that could be contrasted with similar units in other languages. The results of such detailed comparisons could then be used to prepare teaching materials, to diagnose student difficulties, and to remediate negative transfer from the native language into the target language.

Roberto Lado, in an influential structuralist text, Linguistics Across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers, applauded the educational breakthrough that structuralism would afford ESL instructors. He argued that,

"…we can predict and describe the patterns rhat will cause difficulty in learning, and those that will not cause difficulty, by comparing systematically the language and culture to be learnt with the native language and culture of the student". (1957: preface)

The instructional method based on this detailed study of languages was called Contrastive Analysis. Errors in L2 production, proponents of contrastive analysis he insisted, would correspond to describable differences between the languages involved.

Basic to contrastive analysis were the concepts of transfer and interference, adpoted, in part, from behavioural psychology. Behaviourism suggested that learners attempt to acquire new knowledge economically and therefore will seek to carry or transfer elements from one experimental domain into another, newer domain. Therefore, sign language learners could be expected to transfer elements of their native language into their study of a second or foreign language. These elements might be components of the phonological, lexical, structural, or semantic systems of the two or more languages available to the individual learner. When no difference or contrast was present between L1 and L2, the transfer of elements would be positive and learning would be facilitated. If, however, the elements differed, the transfer would be negative and would interfere with the acquisition of native-like competence in target language. When this negative transfer took place, students would manifest it by making errors, Lado maintained. He further declared that "many linguistic distortions heard among bilinguals correspond to describable differences" in the two languages (1957:1).

In order to employ contrastive analysis, it was necessary for the teacher to use the tools of formal grammar to prepare detailed inventories of the systems of the languages involved. Then by mapping the systems of the targer language onto the

systems of the native language of the learner, the instructor could select contrasting elements for analysis. Based on the degree of contrast present in the elements being studied, predictions of error or level of learning difficulty could be forecast. Contrastive analysis placed great emphasis on the diagnosing of difficulties. Instructors were not only expected to recognize patterns in the errors of their students, but also to pinpoint precisely what feature in the patterns was interferring with student learning. By pointing out the relevant contrasts between the target language and native language, the teacher could help students avoid negative transfer.

One major contribution of contrastive analysis was that it did not consider learner errors as catastrophes. Language learning was perceived as a process that involved making mistakes and in which success was achieved when one profited from those mistakes. A second strength of contrastive analysis was that it codifies a system for the analysis of error based on four aspects of transfer: coalescence, under differentiation, reinterpretation, and over differentiation.

Contrastive Analysis and Description of Errors

When two linguistic elements in the learner´s native language are not distinguished in the target language, the learner is required to ignore a distiction she or she has become accustomed to making. If the learner continues to make the distinction in the target language, an error at the level of coalescence is said to have taken place. A sign language usually has a dual pronominal reference that uses the "2"

handshape and moves it back and forth between the two people covered by the pronoun. The sign can be glossed as "us-two", "you-two", "those-two", depending on the referents. The pronominal system of a spoken language usually does not distinguish duality. Duality, for example in English, or in Czech is covered by plural pronouns. Duality coalesces with plurality in a spoken language like English and Czech. Contrastive analysis would, therefore, predict that native signers would make mistakes with the plural pronoun system of a spoken language.

When, however, an element in the systems of learner's native language is completely absent in the target language and the learner inserts the element, the error is said to be one of under differentiation. At the semantic level, for example, signers often use head-nodding throughout the signing of a declarative sentence to indicate that the entire contents of the sentence is true. English and Czech, while permitting the expression of truth items such as, "It's true", before and after a declarative sentence, generally limit their usage to qualification of propositions, as in "It's true I like history, but..." A deaf signer who declared the truth value of a declarative in English would be under differentiating the form.

On the one hand, when an item exists in the learner's native language, but is given a new shape or distribution in the target language, the learner can easily make an error of reinterpretation. A sign language usually, for example, has a pronominal system, but the gramatical role of the pronoun in a sign language sentence does not change the form of the

pronoun. In Czech and English, the sentential role of the pronoun does alter the pronoun. A native sign language speaker, contrastive analysis could say, could be expected to have trouble with distribution of pronominal forms.

Finally, when the target language utilizes an element absent from the learner's native language, then the learner might be expected to make errors of over differentiation. Resctricted relative clauses are not typical for a sign language, but English and Czech use restricted relative clauses to increase the specificity of the person or thing being discussed. Native signers, then, might be expected to find restricted relative clauses quite difficult.

While contrastive analysis offered great promise, methodological problems soon surfaced. First, contrastive analysis required instructors to be fluent in all of their students' native languages as well as in the target language which was an unrealistic demand. Second, contrastive analysis was highly subjective, i.e. the instructor's assessment of the nature of specific errors was often quite different from the reasons offered by the students for their usage of particular grammatical forms. Third, contrastive analysis had very little predictive reliability, being most able to forecast errors at the level of phonology and least able to predict errors at the syntactic level. And, fourth, contrastive analysis did not account for those errors that derived from language learning strategies rather from interference.

Despite these weaknesses, contrastive analysis remained intuitively attractive to linguists. Transfer ought to be taking place in language learning, and interference ought to occur at

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those points at which languages come in contact. Intensive studies eventually indicated that transfer and interference did exist, but were more complex issues than it had been initially thought. For example, Kellerman (1984) suggested that transfer could be perceived as a cognitive process in which the use of the native language by learners was creative rather than imitative. Central to this assessment of transfer and interference were the concepts of markedness (marked forms will be potentially less transferable than unmarked forms) and repair (learners will select the appropriate means of repairing their knowledge deficit from among a variety of learning strategies such as paraphrase, simplification, and change of message). Transfer, Kellerman showed, was only one strategy used by learners, and not the most important. Therefore, errors that could be traced to learning strategies other than transfer, would be common to all learners regardless of their native languages. In such cases contrastive analysis would lose its predicative ability (Krashen 1981).

Error Analysis

By the mid 1970s, the issue became one, not of wether first-language interference existed (since it was obvious it did), but where, as Krashden said, "first language interference fits into the theoretical model for second language performance"(1981:64). Error analysis attempted to put together the insights gained from contrastive analysis, and interlanguage research seemed to offer attractive possibilities for answering this question. It took into account research that had been done concerning the cognitive processes of learners, and regarded the learner as an intellingent agent who

creatively, logically, and systematically tested the language he or she was attempting to learn. Among the researchers moving the emphasis in L2 acquisition from contrastive analysis to error analysis was Pit Corder.

Corder, in his article "The Significance of Learners' Errors" attempted to explain why contrastive analysis was not working. Errors, he insisted, needed to be distinguished from mistakes. Mistakes were "slips of the tongue (or pen)" and were "of no significance to the process of language learning". Errors, on the other hand, were intentional and revealed the learner's "underlying knowledge of the language to date". Corder admitted that attempting to distinguish between a mistake and an error presented problems for teachers, but suggested that a close analysis of the learner's texts would "provide evidence of the system of language that he is using (i.e. has learnt) at a particular point in the course (and it must be repeated that he is using some system although it is not yet the right system)"(1967:166).

Error analysis has as its goals: 1. helping the language instructor decide what a particular student knows and what he or she still has to acquire in order to reach native-like competence in a language, 2. providing the researcher with evidence of how a particular language is learnt or acquired, and 3. assissting the student in the testing of L2 hypotheses. Corder warned that correcting an error by providing the learner with the correct form was not the only nor the best way to reduce errors. A better method, he suggested, was to have the learner attempt to discover the right form from input in the targer language. Referring to von Humbolt, he argued,

"We cannot really teach language, we can only create conditions in which it will develop spontaneously in the mind in its own way" (1967:169).

As researchrs began the serious study of errors in L2 learning, several key questions emerged: Do all L2 learners pass through clearly identifiable stages in the acquisition of grammar? Are the stages of L2 development the same stages experienced by children acquiring the target language as their native language? And how can errors be classified? Among the researchers attempting to answer these questions were Heidi Dulay and Martina Burt. In the series of articles published between 1972 and 1978, they presented a substantial number of evidence which suggested that L2 learners did pass through stages in the acquisition of grammatical features, and that these stages were similar for all learners no matter what their mother tongue background was.

The developmental order for the acquisition of eight grammatical morphemes that had been studied by Brown (1973) in first language learning was slightly different from L2 learners but remarkably similar across all students. The grammatical morphemes that Dulay and Burt studied, listed in their order of L2 acquisition were regular plurals (+S), progressives (+ING), contractable copulas, contractable auxiliaries, articles, past irregular of verbs, third person singular of verbs (+S), and possessives (+S). The consistency of this developmental order was seen as evidence that L2 learners creatively constructed their own interlanguage systems based primarily on perceptually prominent features of English.

Despite Dulay and Burt's evidence that learning a second language proceeds in an orderly way, linguists are still unsure of the precise roles transfer and interference play in the process.

Perhaps the most valuable insighht to emerge from the field of error analysis is that the learner's language systems are in constatnt state of flux, adapting to new information as it becomes available through formal and informal sources. Even if instructors know what grammatical or lexical target language forms are being taught in the classroom, they can never know what target language input is accessible to the learner outside the clasroom, at home, outside, or through the mass media and the Internet. Rules taught in the classroom can be confused and obscured by data learnt outside school. Therefore, the number of production errors committed by the learner is not an adequate measure of his or her overall competence in language.

Not only is it difficult to locate the source of errors found in learners' production, analysts of errors warn, it is problematic to categorize them. There are almost as many catalogues of error types as there are researchers interested in error analysis. Some lists utilize a fine analysis with numerous categories; others offer a few general areas into which errors can be slotted for the convenience of both the intructor and the student. Brown, for example (1980), suggests categories of addition, omission, substitution, and ordering. Richards (1985) prefers instead two broad categories. Interlingual errors and intralingual errors. Interlingual errors are those accounted for by transfer;

intralingual errors are those related to overgeneralization, simplification, developmental progress, avoidance, overproduction, and communicative situation.

Error analysis also points out that it is just as important for the language instructor to keep track of correct utterances as it is to chart mistakes. Without some systematic and longitudinal measure of overall competence, the instructor would have an incomplete picture of the learner's knowledge. Learners who are not yet comfortable in the target language often memorize certain stock phrases or sentences without understanding the functional components of the utterance. As the learner begins to feel more comfortable with the target language, intralingual transfer, i.e. generalization within the target language, becomes more common. Influencing the formation of intralingual errors are overgeneralization of structures, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules, and false hypotheses (Richards 1985). But no matter how simple or complex the classification or errors might be, the purpose of classification in error analysis is the same: to help the instructor and the learner determine why the individual learner's style violates the conventions of the first language.

Benefits of Error Analysis for the Instructors

With all of the debate concerning various aspects if error analysis and the complexity of the process, the instructor of the hearing impaired might as well wonder if it really has any pedagogical utility. Teachers normally are already burdened with paperwork, and most have neither the time nor

experience to learns sign language necessary to perform error analysis. Nevertheless, error analysis offers the instructors several advantages over the traditional method of responding to student work.

The traditional approach to student errors is to circle them and comment in terms of English norms that have been violated such as subject-verb agreement or placement of a negator. Error analysis, on the other hand, charts what the writer does rather than what he or she does not do. For example, the use of negatives may be exammined with the correct as well as the incorrect forms. The chart becomes a diagnostic tool that helps the instructor decide in what language environment negation errors occur. The instructor's comment to the student concerning negation can, thus, be specific rather than general. The chart also enables both the instructor nad the learner to note progress over a period of time. Rather than attempting to eliminate all errors at once, the teacher who uses error analysis concentrates student attention on those errors that most significantly inhibit communication.

Second, error analysis allows for individualized remediation. Rather than giving *ex post* class lectures on mistakes that may benefit one or two students, the instructor can address student's needs individually, allowing those students who use the feature correctly, to work with those who do not yet understand them. This, of course, means that the instructor must be flexible and must be convinced that time lost in an ongoing adaptation of the syllabus will be profitable in long-term improvement in student writing.

Third, error analysis specifies that teachers must understand an error before they can hope to correct it. By providing teachers with a framework to chart student choices and strategies, error analysis helps instructors discover grammar or interlanguage of the individual student. Errors are treated as evidence of the student's competence and not as indications of hopeless incompetence. And students, hopefully, will no longer dread English language as much as they did at first when their work was corrected with annotations they did not understand.

Of course, error analysis requires a system for keeping records for each student and an individualization of teaching through student-teacher conferences and assignments. It also compels the instructor to know a good deal about English grammar and at least some things about the native languages of his or her students. This is the kind of knowledge that can be found in general handbooks. Still, it would be advantageous for the instructor using error analysis with deaf students to remember that handbooks cannot capture all the subtleties of the syntactic, semantic, textual, and contextual networks and constraints of a sign languge, namely Czech sign language. Like all living languages, Czech sign language is constantly changing and is continually being stratified into registers and dialects. The number of co-occurence rules needed to describe all incidents of Czech sign language usage is indeed amazing. Since native speakers acquire a great deal of these co-occurence rules swiftly and efficiently through interaction with others, some of the rules are rarely listed or described anywhere and their absence may confound the

instructor who is attempting to perform a detailed error analysis. There are other reasons, as well, why Czech sign language is not yet adequately described.

2.8 (Czech) Sign Language as a Language

Czech sign language is a language that has relatively few native speakers as well as second language speakers. Czech sign language is often acquired by deaf individuals through imperfect input generated by hearing adults who acquired it as a non-native language, from deaf peers who acquired it in schools, or from deaf parents who may have acquired it imperfectly. The knowledge and usage of Czech sign language, thus, occurs on a continuum from highly pidginized to fluent, from more spoken language-like to pure sign language.

Stokoe (1972) suggested, for American sign language, which in general can be compared with the situation of Czech sign language that its usage represents a true instance of disglossia with high and low status variants. Trying to decide, therefore, whether a deaf individual's errors in English are a consequence of interlanguage interference or of intralingual misunderstanding is not always easy because teachers cannot be sure that aspects of (Czech) sign language have been nativized by the learner. Nevertheless, it would help the instructor to have a general idea of the (Czech) sign language structure before attempting to assist deaf students.

(Czech) sign language typically posseses lack of distiction between tensed and infinitive clauses, lack of subject-object asymetry, lack of pleonastic subjects, the use of serial verbs

rather than prepositions to introduce oblique clauses, a weak system of free verbal auxiliaries, lack of true passives, and a system for topicalizing any phrase by fronting. It is because of these characteristics that many teachers of the deaf in the not-so-distant past asserted the inferiority to Czech sign language as a communicative system. Even today, some speech therapists believe that (Czech) sign language is not as rich as oral languages. Yet, in America, as early as 1960 the groundbreaking work of William Stokoe showed, and many researchers ever since proved that a sign language is a complex linguistic system in its own right and not simply an imperfect subtitution of speech. Klima and Bellugi summarize much of the research on sign languages when they say:

"When we refer to sign languages as "languages", we mean that they have sentential units that have a strict semantic-propositional intepretation (providing among other things for the possibility of paraphrase); they also have a hierarchically organized syntax-open-ended in terms of possible messages-and furthermore, that at the formational level of the individual lexical units (the individual signs) as well as the syntactic level, there are specific contraints as to well-formedness. What is more, there is a definite sense among those with sign language as a native language … that the sign decidedly has a citation form-a form that exists out of any specific-life context. That is, the sign is not situation-bound as are some affective units of communication… Thus, a sign as such is no more bound to a particular context than is a word of a spoken language". (1976:46)

Instructors who can recognize the richness of (Czech) sign language as a language will find it easier to make the transition from regarding deaf students writers as pathologically deviant to culturally different.

Basic Rules of (Czech) Sign Language

It needs to be said that sign languages due to their visuality, share some common features as opposed to oral languages. These accooring Stokoe (1960) are: location, movement and hand-shape. And Klima and Bellugi reanalyzed, calling the constituent elements parameters, and identified four: (a) the configuration of the hands when making a sign; (b) the place of articulation of the sign, which may be a point of contact with the body, contact with the other hand, or space outside the body; (c) the movement involved in making the sign; and (d) orientation of the hands (197). Baker and Cokely suggest a slightly different constituent system: handshapes, palm orientatios, movements, and locations where these occur. Because of its rich system of inflectional modulation, a sign language has numerous options to adapt words and meanings through frequency of movement, directionality and manner (Klima ans Bellugi 1978). Verbs can be distinguished according to number, according to distributional aspect, according to temporal aspect, according to temporal focus, and according to manner. Through the use of inflections, a lexical unit that represents a temporary state can be adapted to refer to a permanent characteristic or disposition. Verbs can also be inflected into adjectives. Certain movements of the face,

eyes, lips, and head can also be regarded as gramatical signals of some signs (Baker and Cokely 1980).

English tends to determine syntax by word order and by reliance on determiners and function words such as articles and prepositions. A sign language, on the other hand has a somewhat flexible word order, with inflection rahter than placement signalling meaning. Because of its dependence on locational inflectors, a sign language uses relatively few determiners.

Sign language also has a rich system of aspect markers and noun classifiers but does not mark tense or note time as English does. Facial expression and other non-manual features can indicate closeness to the present time or closeness in space. Facial markers, eye blinks, shoulder movements, and body tension can also serve grammatical functions in ways that are not yet completely understood.

Because sign language is a language used exclusively in face-to-face conversation, and because meaning is carried not only by the signs but by other bodily features that precede, accompany, and follow the individual signs, researchers have the problem of trying to distinguish between grammatical signals of syntax and markers of emotional affect. These nonmanual signals and affective behaviours provide a context for sign language utterance.

The Grammar of Signed Utterances

Some of the most important rules of sign language are listed bellow so the errors of deaf students in English may be more understandable. This list (on the grounds of several

studies) of features, however, in no way captures the fullness of sign language and its systems.

The issue of fixed word order is especially crucial for instructors who wish to understand some of the apparently complex sentence structures that appear in writing of many deaf students. Normally, in sign language:

1. Topic of conversetion will be fronted,

2. The subject or agent will precede the action,

3. The experiencer will precede the state experienced.

4. All nouns regardless of their function, can precede the verb with the stipulation that the sequential ordering of the signs determines their functions. Logical subject of the sentence would appear closest to the verb.

Because sign language is topic oriented, there is a rule that reduces the need to repeat the subject of non-directional verbs. This rule is referred to as the rule of the last-mentioned subject.

5. If several non-directional verbs follow a subject noun, then that noun will be understood as the subject of all those verbs unless clearly indicated otherwise (Baker and Cokely 1980)

Because nouns can be modulated by classifiers that illustrate certain physical features of the noun such as its size, shape, depth, as well as indicate its location in space (Newport 1981), sign language does not use as many adjectives as English.

6. Qunatifiesr and cardinal numbers will usually precede the nouns they modify.

Word order in sign language, then, differs from that of English, and, thus, may influence the deaf student's attempts at ordering words in English. Other aspects of sign language also appear to lend themselves to transfer in English. For example, sign language has several way of indicating plurality. The signer may:

7. Add a plural modification to a singular classifier;

8. Use a plural classifier;

9. Add a plural modification to a pronoun;

10. Repeat a noun indifferent locations.

Several ways of indicating plurality may occur in the same sentence depending on the signs that are used and the forms of those signs. Sign language, however, does not pluralize the noun itself, as English does, by adding an inflectional morpheme to the root sign. Similarly, sign language does not use definite or indefinite articles as determiners of nouns.

Modifiers are often added to the basic propositions being signed, not as separate, but as aspects of another sign.

Verbs do not perform as verbs in English do. Many verbs in sign language will use the same spatial locations used for pronominalization to indicate the doer of the action (the subject), the receiver of the action (the object or the indirect object), or the site of the action (the oblique object). Some of the most rules governing verb usage are:

11. Directional verbs will indicate who is performing the action and who is receiving the action by a modulation of direction. S-O indication can also be signalled by a change in handshape, movement, palm orientation, or size of the verb.

12. Joint performance of an action by two people or things may be indicated by a sign using both hands. Verbs that can be adapted in this fashion are called reciprocal verbs.

13. Sign language verbs are not tensed as English verbs are. Rather, by signing the verb in particular location on an imaginary "time line" that surrounds the signer's body, the signer can indicate when an action occured.

14. Auxiliary and various other verbs may be omitted. These grammatical functions may be taken over by facial expression and posture that are comparable to various paralinguistic features in spoken language.

Another area in which deaf students experience difficulties is relative clauses. Signers have a strong tendency not to use them. When the signer does subordinate or relativize, the clauses are signed in a linear-sequential fashion regardless of hierarchical order and without the use of conjunctions.

15. A subordinate clause will generally follow the main thought, but without any markers separating the thought.

16. The condition in sign language is generally signed first and as the signer moves into the result segment, there is a slight pause and a change in the independent features.

Sign language uses nonmanual features for different purposes. One of them is to indicate negation (which can be also indicated by manual signs). The rules appear to be:

17. Negation signs often occur before the verb, but they can be signed at the end of the sign string for the sake of emphasis.

18. Negation can be also carried by a number of verbs.

Pronouns in sign language are usually differentiated by a shift in position rather than a change of form:

19. The same pronoun may be used to refer to people, places, or things, to males or females.

20. Pronominalization may be indicated by changing the direction of the sign movement. For example, the sign "HELP", when made in the direction of the speaker means "YOU HELP ME" and when made in the direction of the addressee means "I HELP YOU".

Other general structural features of sign language that may transfer into the written English of deaf students include the following:

21. Wh-question words may occur at either the beginning or the end of a sentence and are accompanied by nonmanual behaviours such as a brow squint and the tilting of the head.

22. The passive voice is not a function of the grammar of sign language.

23. Sign language does not have prepositions as English does, although it does have several locative signs (e.g. in, outside), which are used in various context when the signer wishes to emphasize the locative aspect of a particular relationship. Often, the locative function is satisfied by the spatial location of a sign. Signers have an imaginary space in front of their bodies. Particular persons, objects, and places are given a particular point on this "stage" by the signer. Later references to these persons, objects, or places can be achieved by pointing to the appropriate "stage" location.

This is just very general grammatical account of sign language. Sign language is a language of group solidarity and is not readily used with or in front of hearing people who are "outsiders" to the Deaf community. Many native signers will regularly assume more spoken-language like signing when they realize that their interlocutor is hearing. Also, since sign language is generally acquired in the setting of a (residential) school for the deaf, there are many local varieties or dialects that are used within specific radii of the schools where they were acquired. Finally, sign language, like all living languages, is constantly changing.

In summary, then, sign language is a true language in which particular gestures stand for particular concepts in the same sense that words in an oral language do. Despite the surface iconicity of some signs, there is no necessary correspondence between the shape of a sign and the concept represented. Similarly, generally speaking, there is no one-to-one correspondence between a particular sign and a spoken word, or between sign language grammatical rules and an oral language grammatical principles. Exact translation from oral language to sign language and vice versa, therefore, is not possible.

2.9   Grammar Instruction

When deaf learners begin with English at school as their second oral language – either in mainstreamed or special school-they have already been since the beginning of their school years exposed to Czech language instructions and Czech texts for much of their school day. Because, generally

speaking, an oral language is not a language that meets their communicative needs and physical resources, the task of mastering use of different domains of Czech language and later on English language is difficult as well as disconcerting. Even more perplexing is the way that Czech language and later on English language are often presented to them: as a collection of fragmentary and discreet skills. Vocabulary acquisition, reading, writing, speaking, and grammar are often so dissected as to appear unrelated to and separable from the communicative purposes of language. For too many deaf students when they enter university, English is only marginally related to social goals. Most of them realize its importance for academic success, but conceptualize it just in terms of acquiring rules. Students are often confronted with lists of words to memorize and then are asked to use these words to fill slots in sentences. As a result, acquiring English language skills is often regarded as unpleasant for deaf students and typically seen in terms of making others happy rahter than as enabling the learner.

The problems of students who come to university as far as English language is concerned is that they either have next-to zero knowledge of English language from their schools or the English language they have learnt is characterized by fossilized grammatical forms that deviate from standard academic English. These fossilized forms are very difficult for a student to eradicate because they make sense within the student's interlanguage. Often they are understoond and accepted by the student's interlocutors. At other times, they are sanctioned by the community of which the student is a

part. Through careful monitoring, the student may be able to reduce the incidence of these incorrect forms.

Having said all that, I would now like to present my own practical research and experience in teaching English to Czech deaf and hearing impaired students at university, i.e. Charles University.

CHAPTER 3

MY RESEARCH

3.1   Introduction

I have been working as an English teacher for over 15 years teaching mostly university students and adults. The biggest challenge started ten years ago when I took up a position of an English teacher to hearing impaired students at Charles University in Prague, the Faculty of Arts, the Language Resource Centre. At that time, I had (or at least I thought I had) just a hazy idea about how to teach these students, i.e. hearing impaired students. To top it all, there was hardly any information on methodology in the Czech Republic (with exception of the Language Resource Centre) and very few experts to help me adjust my teaching methods to the needs of deaf and hard-of-hearing university students.

First, I had to ask myself: What is so special about teaching English to hearing impaired? Is there any method or are there methods that really work? Is there even the only best solution to teaching English to the hearing impaired?

After five years of experience as a teacher to hearing impaired university students, I can now say yes to the former and no to the latter. Yes, there are methods, or, better to say, techniques and strategies that prove more efficient than others. And no, because there is not just one, the ultimate answer for the teachers of English to the hearing impaired as far as methodology is concerned. As was mentioned earlier in the text, the situation is not monolithic, we have to stress

out that this group of students with hearing impairment is rather heterogenous. The Language Resource Centre where I worked was a specialized centre that dealt with students with different levels of hearing loss. These were students with a hearing loss who had a great problem to participate in English classes together with hearing students where they were not able to follow the teaching due to the great number of students in the class and impossibility to lipread the teacher, or to follow conversation with quick and often unexpected changes and turns of speakers. These students, even those who have residual hearing and can wear hearing aids, they still have to rely heavily on lipreading to get the spoken information. Another aspect is, that Czech hearing impaired students were instructed at school in Czech language which is their first oral language they had throughout their whole primary and secondary schooling, and which they often struggled with and did not develop good feelings towards the language.

Needles to say, Czech language differs greatly from English language structure. If we take all this into account, it is then obvious that, while learning English, hearing impaired students encounter completely new system of oral language with respect to morphology, syntax and phonology. It has been scientifically proved that, in comparison to Czech language where, when trained, hearing impaired people are able to lipread about 40% of spoken language in case the speaker faces them, does not mumble, the hearing impaired are not tired or stressed up, the topic is known and the source of light is not behind the speaker. This percentage drops, due to phonological aspect of English to 30%, the other is a pure

guesswork. We are talking about the hearing impaired who have been through intensive speechreading training. After all the years of speechreading training they are unable to follow quicker conversations. They are not able to follow other students' reactions. It is too fast for them, plus the pronunciation of the students which differs from student to student, makes it even more difficult to lipread. All these facts lead to frustration, and that was the moment when we, at the Language Resource Centre, heard of these students. Very often it was by the word of mouth they got to us. Our centre was predominantly for students from the Faculty of Arts, but later on more and more students kept coming from other other faculties of Charles University, and we, of course, took students from the whole university if there was no other way for them or not enough willingness on the part of another language centre to deal with the needs of these students.

For students we taught at the Language Resource Centre, we prepared lower level of the English Exam on B1 level (CEFR). The reason being that even though these students had English at their secondary school, due to the methods that were applied during the teaching there, they had usually made very little progress in English. Teachers usually applied methods that they knew worked well for hearing students. However, the results were not what they expected and hearing impaired students did not profit much from such classes.

As mentioned before in the text, the variables affecting learning skills of these students are many. Hearing impaired students attending English classes at the Language Resource

Centre came from different backgounds and we had to deal with the students accordingly.

In my research I was looking into teaching grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening and speaking skills in English to deaf and hard of hearing university students.

As mentioned earlier, a language is a complex system and one of its features closely interacts with others. Moreover, a language is a living system constantly changing and the main reason a person normally acquires a language is to be able to communicate, to get himself/herself understood by other users of the target language. However, the situation at colleges and universities is somehow different in this respect. All students going through the university system are required to pass an exam from a foreign language. it is a prerequisite. The same applies for Charles University in Prague study programme reguirements. Most students, including those hearing impaired, take an exam from English as their compulsory foreign language. The exam form followed Cambridge examination structure, namely First Certificate of English which is level B2 (though the level for hearing impaired students was lowered to B1 for reasons explained earlier in the text) according to CEFR. The English exam taken at the Faculty of Arts, where I worked and according to which we at the Language Resource Centre constructed and modified tests for hearing impaired students was, unfortunately, very much based on grammar and vocabulary and much less attention and value was assigned to the written part of the test. I believe this is rather a drawback as students, in general, will not make great use of partitioned grammar and vocabulary, but they should be taught the complex

language by learning how to write essays, papers and academic texts which, in my opinion, they need most in order to succeed in their academical lives.

That is why, in future I would very much like to devote more time and reseach to students' writing and mis-writing and their reading and mis-reading.

My research presents a longitudinal study spanning the period of 5 years, and also describes different approaches, techniques and strategies used during that period to see which of these learning styles would be more or less appropriate and fit the needs of hearing impaired students.

In my dissertation I aimed to answer three seemingly easy questions: Who? What? How?

Who were our students and how did their background affect their learning abilities?

What was the content of the lessons?

How did we teach hearing impaired students? This refers to classroom setting and different methods, techniques and strategies used during the 5 years of teaching at the Language Resource Centre.

3.2   Who? What? How?

Who Are They? Hearing Impaired Students at the Language Resource Centre

Students who came to the Language Resource Centre at the Faculty of Arts, Charles University in Prague were mostly students who had had severe to profound hearing loss and for whom attending English classes for hearing students

presented a big difficulty. Usually because these classes were too big, oral communication in English was predominant, conversation turns were too unexpected, and instructors did not usually have the slightest idea how to interact with or behave towards hearing impaired students. After teaching hearing impaired students for some time I realized that their success at acquisition of English language is not only about their level of hearing loss, but also, as mentioned in the previous sections about their background. Namely these key aspects played major role in student's ability to understand English language structure:

degree of deafness, age onset, hearing status of parents, attitudes towards language and language users, and parental preference for language training

During my five years of teaching at the Language Resource Centre, I taught twenty- four students with different level of hearing impairment and background. The table below show the distribution of these factors among the taught students. Students are in order of how they were taught from year to year. The names of the students are for privacy reasons not included. These are, of course, not all the students we had in the Language Resource Centre. The rest, mostly hard-of-hearing students were taught by head of the Centre, Dr. Daniela Janákova.

Student	degree of deafness *	age onset *	hearing status of parents	attitudes towards * language and language users	parental preference for language training
student 1	level IV	from birth	hearing	Czech sign language user	oral
student 2	level IV	from birth	hearing	Czech sign language user	oral
student 3	level IV	from birth	hearing	Czech sign language user	oral
student 4	level IV	from birth	deaf/Deaf *	Czech sign language user	Czech sign language
student 5	level IV	2-3 years	hearing	Czech sign language user	oral
student 6	level IV	from birth	hearing	Czech sign language user	Signed Czech/Czech sign language/oral
student 7	level II	from birth	deaf	Czech sign language user/oral	Czech sign language
student 8	level III	from birth	hearing	Czech sign language user/oral	oral
student 9	level III	from birth	hearing	Czech sign language user/oral	oral
student 10	level III	from birth	hearing	Czech sign language user/oral	oral
student 11	level II	from birth	hearing	oral	oral
student 12	level IV	from birth	hearing	Czech sign language user	Signed Czech/Czech sign language/oral
student 13	level III	2-3 years	hearing	oral/Czech sign language user	oral
student 14	level II	2-3 years	hearing	oral/Czech sign language user	oral
student 15	level II	2-3 years	hearing	oral	oral
student 16	level II	2-3 years	hearing	oral	oral
student 17	level IV	from birth	hearing	Czech sign language user	Czech sign language
student 18	level II	2-3 years	hearing	oral	oral
student 19	level IV	from birth	hearing	oral	oral
student 20	level IV	from birth	hearing	Czech sign language user	Signed Czech/Czech sign language/oral
student 21	level III	from birth	hearing	Czech sign language user/oral	oral
student 22	level II	from birth	deaf	Czech sign language user/oral	Czech sign language
student 23	level III	2-3 years	hearing	oral/Czech sign language user	oral
student 24	level III	2-3 years	hearing	oral/Czech sign language user	oral

Degree of Deafness (Level of Hearing Impairment)

Numebr of students - 24

Number of students according to degree of deafness
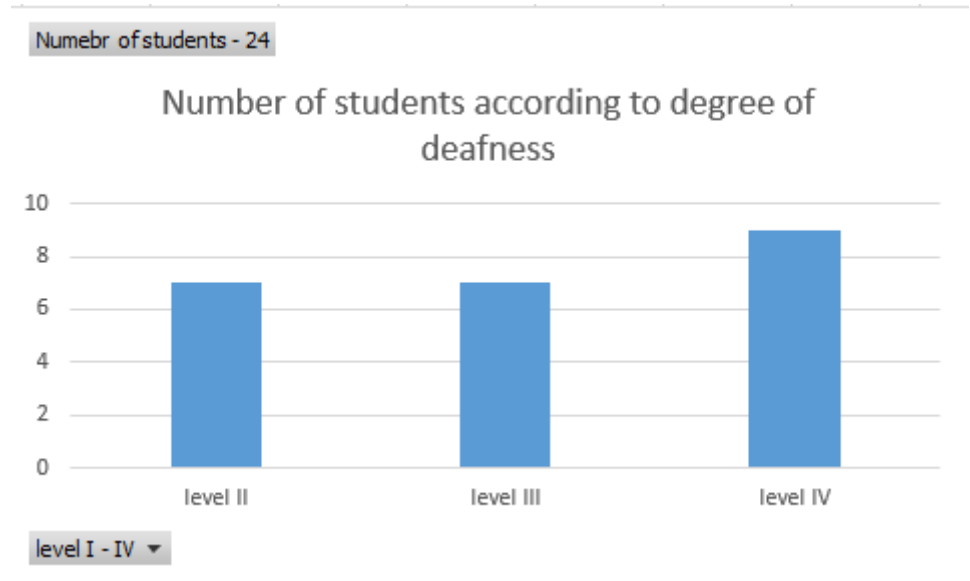
level I - IV ▾	Numebr of students - 24
level II	7
level III	7
level IV	9

As is clear from the graphs above that the majority of students attending English classes had severe to profound hearing. It would be expected that students with profound hearing loss would have the most difficulties with acquiring English. However, that was not the case at all as will be explained later in the text.

∗ It needs to be noted that a person who is diagnosed as profoundly deaf can still hear something, e.g. roaring of plane engines, and that hearing loss is different in each of the ears.

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Age Onset (Onset of Hearing Loss)

Age onset

from birth 2-3 years

The table shows that all our students had hearing loss either from birth or from early years which means that they were all prelingually deaf and had no or very limited access to the spoken language which affects how language is acquired.

∗ Onset of hearing loss can also mean that these students had certain level of hearing loss even before that age. Only due to the lack of screening of hearing at maternity hospital, just after birth, their hearing loss was diagnosed later on when usually a member of the family noticed that the child is not responding to acoustic stimuli the way it should be.

Hearing Status of Parents

Hearing status of parents

As shown in the table, 21 out of 24 (which is 87.5%) parents of hearing impaired students were hearing. In fact, about 90% of hearing impaired children are born to hearing parents. Sadly, only 13.5% which is approximately 1/7 of all the students had parents with same condition which also may imply that they shared the same native language from the very beginning of child's language acquisition. Other parents had to find the way how to communicate with their hearing impaired child. Which mode of communication they would chose.

This definitely has a great impact on a child. Usually hearing parents decide to train their children in oral way of communication which means that they often have very

limited interaction with their hearing impaired child. As mentioned earlier in the text, such parents' interaction with the child is usually shorter in comparison to hearing parents and their hearing children and is based more on intructions which means that the child receives only limited amount of language input at the time when language development is so fast and crucial.

* Deaf with capital D refers to deaf people that regard themselves as the cultural and language minority.

Attitudes Towards Language and Language Users
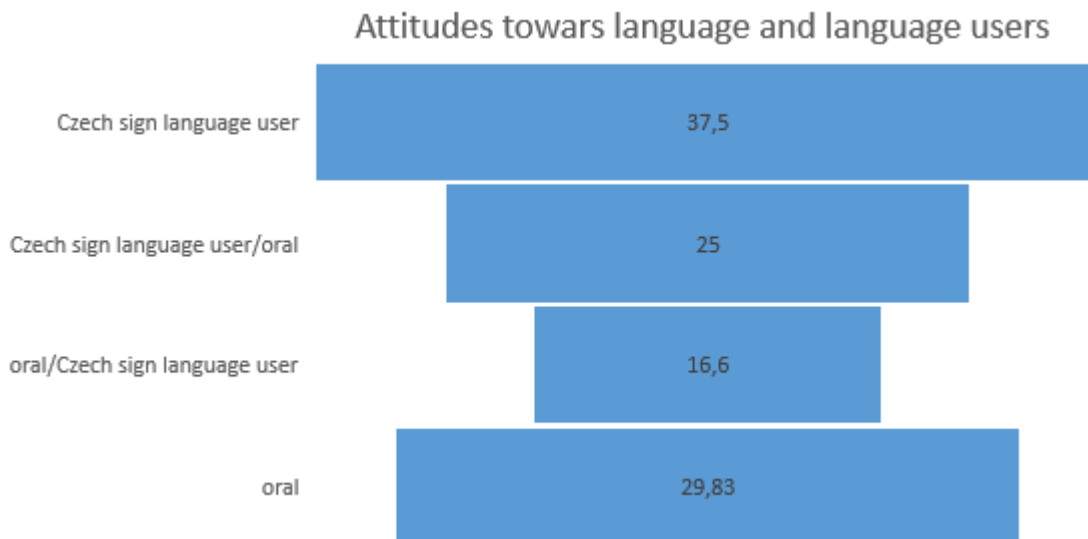
As the table shows, most of hearing impaired students, often regardless of their level of hearing loss and oral schooling used/preferred communication in signs to oral communication (79%). About 42% of all the students preferred communication in Czech sign language and/or oral. Only about 21%, i.e. 1/5 of all the students were exclusively

oral. Those are usually students with not so severe hearing loss, students who often, on purpose, avoid signing.

The exception was student No 19, a girl, who, despite being nearly profoundly deaf refused to learn or use sign language as even complementary means of communication. This can be explained by the fact that this girl comes from a small town where in order to fit in, and because her parents did not encourage any other means of communication than oral, she decided to avoid signing. This was probably also due to the fact that, even though she went to school for the deaf, most schooling there was oral and sign language was perceived as a means of communication for "retarded" and pupils were discouraged to use it in and ousite the class, as there was a belief that by signing and not speaking children will "forget" how to speak. In this school, speaking and oral production was regarded as very important for pupils in order to "fit" into the mainstream/major society.

Moreover, the table shows that 50% of all the students were fluent in more than one means of communication. They used it according to the situation. For example, if the interlocutor was hearing, these students would often start being oral or use signed language. The main aim of such communication for them was to be understood and get the meaning across.

As is apparent more than half of those with more communication modes (60%) preferred sign language as a way of communication. One third (33.3%) of the students used only Czech sign language in the classroom and were unwilling to use any other mode of communication.

So, if we compare students who were exclusively oral (21%) with students who were exclusively Czech sign language users (33%) there is a slight prevailance of Czech sign language preference as an exclusive way of communication.

Parental Preference for Language Training (Language Preference of Parents)

Parental preference for language training

oral	70,83
Signed Czech/Czech sign language/oral	16,6
Czech sign language	12,5
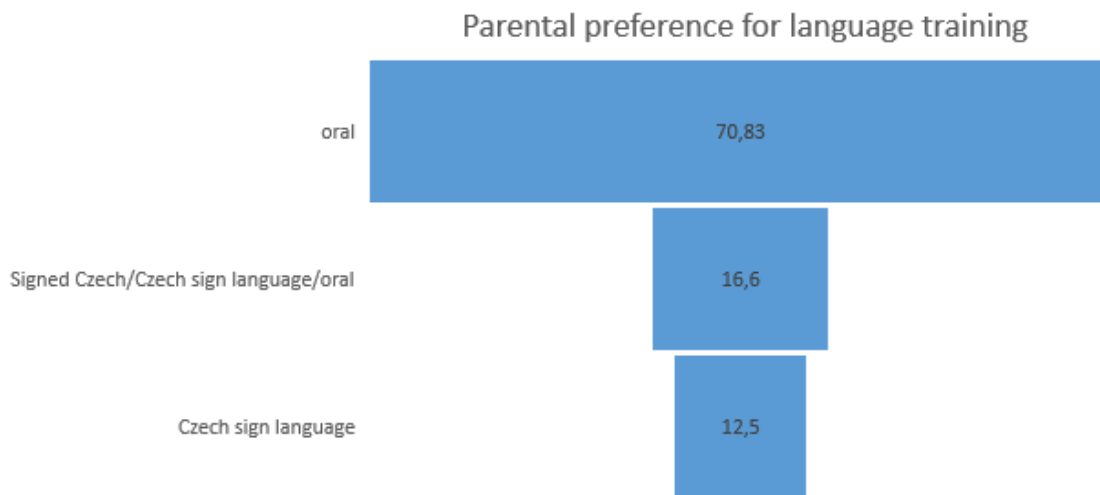
As the table shows, parents preference for language training of their hearing impaired children was predominantly oral with nearly 2/3 relying solely on oral education for their hearing impaired children. Only three hearing parents out of 24 after they had realized that they had a hearing impaired child, they decided to use multiple ways of commnunication in order to give their child as much access to a language as possible. All these students belonged among the best in

English classes at the Language Resource Centre. They were able to use their interlanguage efficiently to acquire English. Moreover, their attitude to learning English was positive.

Needles to say, that also their knowledge of Czech language was on advanced level. They were able to think in a complex way about languages and their reading skills were one of the best of all students.

Four parents, which is approximately 1/8 of all the parents, preferred only sign language training and communication at home. Though, to find a school for the deaf that would offer schooling only in Czech sign language was and still is next to impossible in the Czech Republic as there is still the strong tendency towards oral education.

Obviously, hearing parents who exclusively preferred oral schooling for their hearing impaired children mainly wanted their children to be able to become a part of the hearing majority. At it will be clear from the later findings described in my dissertation. The vital and crucial moment for a child to have access to language and to be successful at acquiring a language is to give him or her as soon as possible a full access to his or her native language, regardless what that language might be.

 Conclusion

The tables and graphs show that the staggeringly high number of hearing impaired children have hearing parents (87.5%) who usually wish for their children to have oral schooling (70.83%-solely, 87.43% -at some stage) even though all the students had an early onset of hearing loss (prelingual) and was thus for them impossible to acquire Czech language through acoustic interaction. Once adults and

allowed to choose their way of communication and interaction with other people, most of them (79%) decided to use Czech sign language as at least one of their means of communication.

This table clearly shows that there is a rather significant discrepancy in filling in the needs of hearing impaired people, even on the level of schooling for hearing impaired (all students, apart from 2 went to schools for hearing impaired).

As it will be shown later in the text, all these aspects had a significant influence on students' English language acquisition, influenced their motivation to learn English as another spoken language and affected the way they learnt languages, either as a complex system, or as just a junks of unrelated items, and filling in the missing slots.

It needs to be noted that several of the students had difficulties with Czech language. They were not able to construct more complex sentences without significantly garbling the text. For several of them early childhood meant a period without any language (they were not allowed to learn sign language and could not understand Czech language) which was then reflected in their interlanguage when acquiring another language.

The Content of the Lessons. The Question of What?
The Entrance and Exit Level of Hearing Impaired
Students

All 24 students were taught twice a week in 90 minute lessons, either in groups (maximum of 5), or had individual sessions. If they were taught in a group or separately mainly

depended on their level of English and also on their timetable as the students came from different faculties of Charles University in Prague, studied different specializations and thus had completely different school schedules. Also, if possible, groups were formed with respect to the level of hearing loss of individual students. The reason was that usually the students with profound (and severe) hearing loss did not require speaking practice. Whereas students with middle level of hearing loss did expect to have training in speaking.

Students' entrance level of English was tested. At the end of the course (usually after two to three, sometimes four years) students had to pass an exam at the Language Resource Centre which was set at B1 level (CEFR), though some students reached higher level of English. This level is noted in the table below.

∗ The entrance and exit levels are set in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). For assessing the level, we used the same Oxford Quick Placement Test at the beginning and at the end of their studies in order to see the students' progress. These test we taken two to three years apart from each other so the possible previous knowledge would be avoided, i.e. forgotten.

Entrance and Exit Test

Oxford University Press
and
University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate

Name: …………………………………………………………………………

Date: …………………………………………………………………………

quick placement test

Version 1

This test is divided into two parts:

Part One (Questions 1 – 40) – All students.

Part Two (Questions 41 – 60) – Do not start this part unless told to do so by your test supervisor.

Time: 30 minutes

Part 1

- Where can you see these notices?
- For questions **1** to **5**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B** or **C** on your Answer Sheet.

1
Please leave your room key at Reception.

    A   in a shop
    B   in a hotel
    C   in a taxi

2
Foreign money changed here

    A   in a library
    B   in a bank
    C   in a police station

3
AFTERNOON SHOW BEGINS AT 2PM

    A   outside a theatre
    B   outside a supermarket
    C   outside a restaurant

4
CLOSED FOR HOLIDAYS Lessons start again on the 8 th January

    A   at a travel agent's
    B   at a music school
    C   at a restaurant

5
Price per night: £10 a tent £5 a person

    A   at a cinema
    B   in a hotel
    C   on a camp-site

Questions 6 – 10

- In this section you must choose the word which best fits each space in the text below.
- For questions **6** to **10**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B** or **C** on your Answer Sheet.

Scotland

Scotland is the north part of the island of Great Britain. The Atlantic Ocean is on the west and the

North Sea on the east. Some people **(6)** .... Scotland speak a different language called Gaelic.

There are **(7)** .... five million people in Scotland, and Edinburgh is **(8)** .... most

famous city.

Scotland has many mountains; the highest one is called 'Ben Nevis'. In the south of Scotland, there are

a lot of sheep. A long time ago, there **(9)** .... many forests, but now there are only a

(10) ....

Scotland is only a small country, but it is quite beautiful.

6	**A**	on	**B**	in	**C**	at
7	**A**	about	**B**	between	**C**	among
8	**A**	his	**B**	your	**C**	its
9	**A**	is	**B**	were	**C**	was
10	**A**	few	**B**	little	**C**	lot

U ot. č. 8 bych nevybrala nic z toho, ale když musím, tak A.

Questions 11 – 20

- In this section you must choose the word which best fits each space in the texts.
- For questions **11** to **20**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

Alice Guy Blaché

Alice Guy Blaché was the first female film director. She first became involved in cinema whilst

working for the Gaumont Film Company in the late 1890s. This was a period of great change in

the cinema and Alice was the first to use many new inventions, **(11)** .... sound and colour.

In 1907 Alice **(12)** .... to New York where she started her own film company. She was

(13) .... successful, but, when Hollywood became the centre of the film world, the best

days of the independent New York film companies were **(14)** .... When Alice died in

1968, hardly anybody **(15)** .... her name.

---

11 **A** bringing   **B** including   **C** containing   **D** supporting

12 **A** moved   **B** ran   **C** entered   **D** transported

13 **A** next   **B** once   **C** immediately   **D** recently

14 **A** after   **B** down   **C** behind   **D** over

15 **A** remembered   **B** realised   **C** reminded   **D** repeated

UFOs – do they exist?

UFO is short for 'unidentified flying object'. UFOs are popularly known as flying saucers,

(16) .... that is often the **(17)** .... they are reported to be. The **(18)** ....

"flying saucers" were seen in 1947 by an American pilot, but experts who studied his claim

decided it had been a trick of the light.

Even people experienced at watching the sky, **(19)** .... as pilots, report seeing UFOs. In

1978 a pilot reported a collection of UFOs off the coast of New Zealand. A television

(20) .... went up with the pilot and filmed the UFOs. Scientists studying this

phenomenon later discovered that in this case they were simply lights on boats out fishing.

16   **A**   because   **B**   therefore   **C**   although   **D**   so

17   **A**   look   **B**   shape   **C**   size   **D**   type

18   **A**   last   **B**   next   **C**   first   **D**   oldest

19   **A**   like   **B**   that   **C**   so   **D**   such

20   **A**   cameraman   **B**   director   **C**   actor   **D**   announcer

Questions 21 – 40

- In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best completes each sentence.
- For questions **21** to **40**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

21 The teacher encouraged her students .... to an English pen-friend.

    A should write   **B** write   **C** wrote   **D** to write

22 They spent a lot of time .... at the pictures in the museum.

    A looking   **B** for looking   **C** to look   **D** to looking

23 Shirley enjoys science lessons, but all her experiments seem to .... wrong.

    A turn   **B** come   **C** end   **D** go

24 .... from Michael, all the group arrived on time.

    A Except   **B** Other   **C** Besides   **D** Apart

25 She .... her neighbour's children for the broken window.

    A accused   **B** complained   **C** blamed   **D** denied

26 As I had missed the history lesson, my friend went .... the homework with me.

    A by   **B** after   **C** over   **D** on

27 Whether she's a good actress or not is a .... of opinion.

    A matter   **B** subject   **C** point   **D** case

28 The decorated roof of the ancient palace was .... up by four thin columns.

    A built   **B** carried   **C** held   **D** supported

29 Would it .... you if we came on Thursday?

    A agree   **B** suit   **C** like   **D** fit

30 This form .... be handed in until the end of the week.

    A doesn't need **B** doesn't have **C** needn't   **D** hasn't got

31 If you make a mistake when you are writing, just .... it out with your pen.

    A cross   **B** clear   **C** do   **D** wipe

32 Although our opinions on many things .... , we're good friends.

   A differ   **B** oppose   **C** disagree   **D** divide

33 This product must be eaten .... two days of purchase.

   A by   **B** before   **C** within   **D** under

34 The newspaper report contained .... important information.

   A many   **B** another   **C** an   **D** a lot of

35 Have you considered .... to London?

   A move   **B** to move   **C** to be moving   **D** moving

36 It can be a good idea for people who lead an active life to increase their .... of vitamins.

   A upturn   **B** input   **C** upkeep   **D** intake

37 I thought there was a .... of jealousy in his reaction to my good fortune.

   A piece   **B** part   **C** shadow   **D** touch

38 Why didn't you .... that you were feeling ill?

   A advise   **B** mention   **C** remark   **D** tell

39 James was not sure exactly where his best interests ....

   A stood   **B** rested   **C** lay   **D** centred

40 He's still getting .... the shock of losing his job.

   A across   **B** by   **C** over   **D** through

Part 2

Questions 41 – 50

- In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best fits each space in the texts.
- For questions **41** to **50**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

The tallest buildings - SKYSCRAPERS

Nowadays, skyscrapers can be found in most major cities of the world. A building which was many

(41) ……………….. high was first called a skyscraper in the United States at the end of the 19th

century, and New York has perhaps the **(42)** ……………….. skyscraper of them all, the Empire

State Building. The **(43)** ……………….. beneath the streets of New York is rock,

(44) ……………….. enough to take the heaviest load without sinking, and is therefore well-suited

to bearing the **(45)** ……………….. of tall buildings.

---

41 **A** stages   **B** steps   **C** storeys   **D** levels

42 **A** first-rate   **B** top-class   **C** well-built   **D** best-known

43 **A** dirt   **B** field   **C** ground   **D** soil

44 **A** hard   **B** stiff   **C** forceful   **D** powerful

45 **A** weight   **B** height   **C** size   **D** scale

SCRABBLE

Scrabble is the world's most popular word game. For its origins, we have to go back to the 1930s in the USA, when Alfred Butts, an architect, found himself out of **(46)** ……………….. . He decided that there was a **(47)** ……………… for a board game based on words and **(48)** ……………… to design one. Eventually he made a **(49)** ……………… from it, in spite of the fact that his original **(50)** ……………… was only three cents a game.

46 A earning   **B** work   **C** income   **D** job

47 A market   **B** purchase   **C** commerce   **D** sale

48 A took up   **B** set out   **C** made for   **D** got round

49 A wealth   **B** fund   **C** cash   **D** fortune

50 A receipt   **B** benefit   **C** profit   **D** allowance

Questions 51 – 60

- In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best completes each sentence.
- For questions **51** to **60**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

51   Roger's manager .... to make him stay late if he hadn't finished the work.

    A insisted   **B** warned   **C** threatened   **D** announced

52   By the time he has finished his week's work, John has hardly .... energy left for the weekend.

    A any   **B** much   **C** no   **D** same

53   As the game .... to a close, disappointed spectators started to leave.

    A led   **B** neared   **C** approached   **D** drew

54   I don't remember .... the front door when I left home this morning.

    A to lock   **B** locking   **C** locked   **D** to have locked

55   I .... to other people borrowing my books: they always forget to return them.

    A disagree   **B** avoid   **C** dislike   **D** object

56   Andrew's attempts to get into the swimming team have not .... with much success.

    A associated   **B** concluded   **C** joined   **D** met

57   Although Harry had obviously read the newspaper article carefully, he didn't seem to have .... the main point.

    A grasped   **B** clutched   **C** clasped   **D** gripped

58   A lot of the views put forward in the documentary were open to ....

    A enquiry   **B** query   **C** question   **D** wonder

59   The new college .... for the needs of students with a variety of learning backgrounds.

    A deals   **B** supplies   **C** furnishes   **D** caters

60   I find the times of English meals very strange – I'm not used .... dinner at 6pm.

    A to have   **B** to having   **C** having   **D** have

Example of the exam test taken at the Language Resource Centre, evel B1 (CEFR)

Score:_____

Date:_____   Name: _____

<u>45 – 60 minutes</u>

<u>ENGLISH EXAM TEST</u>

1 <u>**Circle the correct answer (a), (b), (c) or (d).**</u>

1 Are you afraid ...... him?

a) of   b) by   c) about   d) at

2 He is tired because he has ....

a) work hardly   b) worked hardly   c) worked hard   d) hard worked

3 The United States are .... Mexico, but Russia is .... country.

a) larger than.....the largest   b) as large.....large   c) the largest......larger as

d) more large.... so large

4 If it ..... raining, we will play tennis.

a) will stop   b) stop   c) stopped   d) stops

5 I want to ..... a water sport like scuba-diving.

a) take off   b) take up   c) take away   d) take after

6 It's my birthday next Friday. Mum ...... a cake.

a) bakes   b) will bake   c) is going to bake   d) bake

7 Can you give me ...., please?

a) a information   b) an information   c) some information   d) some informations

8 They .... tea when the doorbell .... flashing.

a) were having.....started   b) had ....started   c) had had .....had started

d) was had......was started

9 We cannot come on Saturday. It's ..... birthday.

a) my father's   b) our father's   c) my father   d) our father

10 .... a new car?

a) Have you ever buy   b) Have you buy ever   c) Have you ever bought

d) Has you ever bought

11 It .... hours.

a) has been raining for   b) rains for   c) has rained since   d) rained since

1

12 He decided ..... Deaf studies at Gallaudet University?

a) study   b) to study   c) studying   d) on study

13 What .... ?

a) has happen   b) was happened   c) is happen   d) happened

14 A butcher is a man..... sells meat.

a) ---   b) who   c) which   d) whose

15 Bill said that he .... a new car.

a) buys   b) was going to buy   c) bought   d) buying

16 Water ...... at 100 degrees Celsius.

a) boils   b) is boiling   c) has boiled   d) boiled

17 Tom met his new girlfriend while walking .... the street ..... Valentine´s Day.

a) along.....on...   b) down.....at...   c) through...in...   d) towards...of...

18 I ..... at the airport and got my boarding pass.

a) checked in   b) booked in   c) went in   d) found out

19 Peter was wearing a ..... jacket.

a) black new leather   b) new and black leather   c) new black leather   d) leather black new

20 .... are these trousers?

a) Whose   b) Who   c) That   d) What

2 **Circle the odd word out and give your reason for the choice**

1	fresh	seafood	frozen	home-made
2	agressive	bossy	jealous	affectionate
3	knife	fork	roast	spoon
4	pool	track	beat	court
5	sink	shower	dishwasher	path
6	when	after	if	until

3 **Complete the sentences with ONE word only.**

1 These shoes belong .... me.

2 The book "Moments of Truth" was written ..... Robert D. Davilla.

3 .... she didn´t study much for the test, she passed it.

4 He was tired .... he couldn´t sleep.

5 The gun powder ..... invented by Chinese.

2

6 I am looking .... my glasses. Have you seen them?

7 ..... are you writing to?

8 He smiled ..... me.

9 Peter asked me ...... I liked his new Harley Davidson.

10 Where ..... you live if you had to emigrate?

11 The plane took .... into the setting sun.

12 The time of day when there is a lot of traffic is called a traffic .... .

13 In ..... area there are a lot of houses but no offices or big shops.

14 The news on TV ..... not interesting.

15 Have you recently taken money ..... of a cash machine?

4 **Form the correct sentences**

   (WORD ORDER)

1 enjoys / very much / swimming / in our pool / always / in the morning / she .

2 hardly / last year / could / ski / he .

3 circus / went / with / we / ago / the / Two / my / to / parents / months .

4 had / Mr and Mrs Baker / have / an / accident / just .

5 would / They / get / they / if / drank / too / beer / drunk / much .

6 Sunday / He / it / wishes / were .

7 yesterday / did / Who / talk / you / to?

5 **Rewrite the sentences**

1 "How old are you?", he asked.

   He asked me ....

2 I don´t have enough money to buy a house.

   I wish ....

3 I didn´t go to the party because I felt sick.

   If I ....

4 I borrowed some money from Jim.

   Jim ....

5 We started our journey early in the morning.

   We set ....

3

6   When I was small I frequently rode a tricycle.

   I used ....

7   They will publish the new book next month.

   The new book ....

8   He began playing tennis when he was ten years old.

   He has ....

5   **Write all the forms of these verbs and translate the verbs into Czech/Slovak**

INFINITIVE	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE (3 FORM)
become		
bite		
catch		
choose		
grow		
lend		
pay		
ride		
sell		
understand		

4

The results of the entrance and exit tests

Student	Entrance level	Exit level
student 1	level 2 (A2)	level 3-4 (B1/B2)
student 2	level 2 (A2)	level 3 (B1)
student 3	level 2 (A2)	level 3-4 (B1/B2)
student 4	level 1 (A1)	level 3 (B1)
student 5	level 1 (A1)	level 3 (B1)
student 6	level 1 (A1)	level 3 (B1)
student 7	level 1 (A1)	level 3 (B1)
student 8	level 1 (A1)	level 3 (B1)
student 9	level 1 (A1)	level 3 (B1)
student 10	level 1 (A1)	level 3 (B1)
student 11	level 3-4 (B1/B2)	level 4-5 (B2/C1)
student 12	level 2 (A2)	level 3-4 (B1/B2)
student 13	level 2-3 (A2/B1)	level 3-4 (B1/B2)
student 14	level 1 (A1)	level 3 (B1)
student 15	level 1 (A1)	level 3 (B1)
student 16	level 2-3 (A2/B1)	level 3-4 (B1/B2)
student 17	level 1 (A1)	level 3 (B1)
student 18	level 2 (A2)	level 3 (B1)
student 19	level 1 (A1)	level 3 (B1)
student 20	level 3 (B1)	level 4 (B2)
student 21	level 2 (A2)	level 3-4 (B1/B2)
student 22	level 3 (B1)	level 4-5 (B2/C1)
student 23	level 2-3 (A2/B1)	level 3 (B1)
student 24	level 1 (A1)	level 3 (B1)

The results of the entrance and exit tests

Entrance level	Number of students (out of 24)
level 1 (A1)	12
level 2 (A2)	6
level 2-3 (A2/B1)	3
level 3 (B1)	2
level 3-4 (B1/B2)	1

Exit level	Number of students (out of 24)
level 3 (B1)	15
level 3-4 (B1/B2)	6
level 4 (B2)	1
level 4-5 (B2/C1)	2

Number of students (out of 24)

Number of students (out of 24)

100
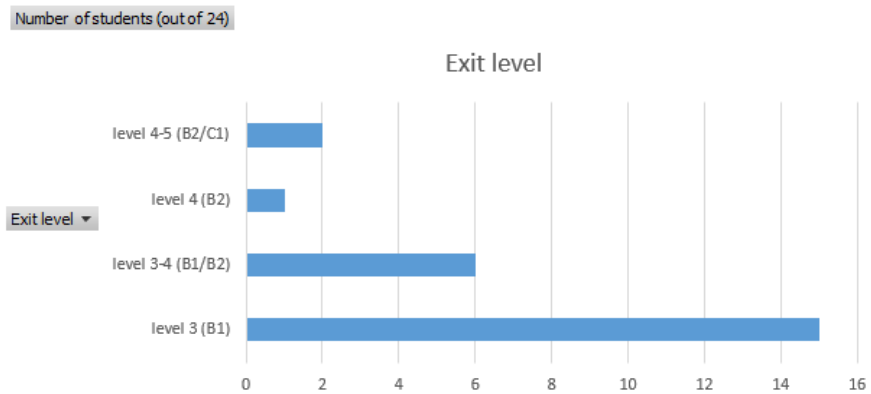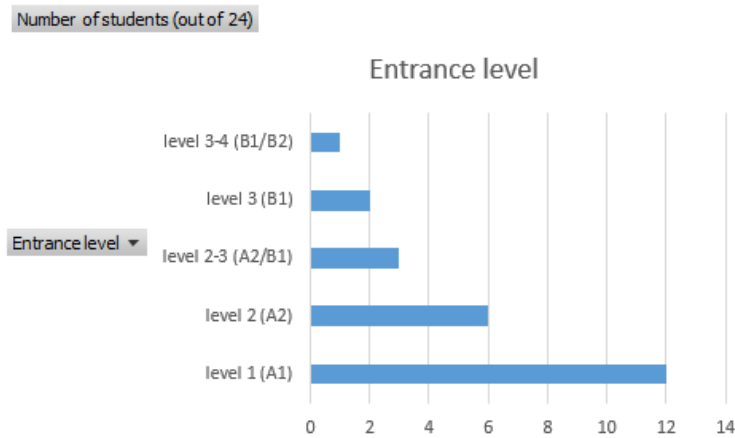
The graphs and the tables show that a half of the students started studying at the Language Recource Centre with level A1, which means beginners, ¼ of the students was on A2 level, and only 3 students we on B1 level or above.

After testing the same students at the end of their English training at the Language Resource Centre, all reached at least B1 level which was tested by the exam test. Nine students even achieved higher level than required. What is, however, significant, is that those, originally A1 students, managed to improve their English by two levels, and three more students improved their English language skills by 1.5 levels. Which represents 62.5 % of students (more than a half) who were able during their traning at the Language Resource Centre to improve their English by more than one level. These outcomes sound more than promising, considering the fact that at least 50% of the students did not even reach A2 level after several years of English at primary and secondary school. The fact can be partly explained by students' motivation to continue their studies at university as B1 level was general prerequisite for all hearing impaired students studying at Charles University. Partly, it also might be explained by the methods and approaches applied at the Language Resource Centre, which shall be discussed later in this dissertation.

Content of the Lessons

Most students were divided (on the ground of their entrance test) according to their level of English into three categories – beginners, intermediate and intermediate. Students who were above this levels were taught individually

with specialized material. Students were taught different parts of English language skills that are common even with hearing students, such as grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, speaking and listening. The way, these skills were taught will be described further on.

New English File series were used as a base for teaching hearing impaired university students' grammar and vocabulary and partly reading. Speaking and listening for those with mild hearing loss were also included and drew on the same book series. As a material for reading other books that related to the issue of deafness were also included. For writing, various material that will be mentioned in the following passage on writing, were used.

Materials used for all three levels (beginners to intermediate):

PETERS, Sarah a Tomáš GRÁF. *Time to Practise: velká cvičebnice anglické gramatiky*. 1. vyd. Praha: Polyglot, 2007.

MURPHY, Raymond. *English grammar in use: a self-study reference and practice book for intermediate learners of English: with answers*. 5th ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2012.

GOODSTEIN, Astrid a Margaret WALWORTH. *Interesting Deaf Americans: reading and writing exercices*. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet University Press., 1979.

SHAPIRO, Norma a Jayme ADELSON-GOLDSTEIN. *The Oxford picture dictionary,* OUP, 2010.

The Internet

Material used only for teaching beginners:

OXENDEN, Clive a Christina LATHAM-KOENIG. *New English file: elementary*. 1st pub. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010.

LONG, Paddy a Jana KMENTOVÁ. *Step by step 1: angličtina nejen pro samouky*. 2. vyd. Plzeň: Fraus, 2007.

HARRISON, Richard, Liz SOAR a John SOAR. *New headway academic skills: reading, writing, and study skills: level 1*. 1st pub. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2006.

Material used only for teaching pre-intermediate students:

OXENDEN, Clive, Christina LATHAM-KOENIG a Paul SELIGSON. *New English file: pre-intermediate: student's book*. 1. pub. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2007.

LONG, Paddy a Jana KMENTOVÁ. *Step by step 2: angličtina nejen pro samouky*. 2. vyd. Plzeň: Fraus, 2007.

PHILPOT, Sarah, Liz SOARS a John SOARS. *New Headway Academic Skills: reading, writing, and study skills: level 2: student's book*. 1st publ. 2006, [print] 2010. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010.

Material used only for teaching intermediate students:

OXENDEN, Clive, Christina LATHAM-KOENIG a Paul SELIGSON. *New English file: pre-intermediate: student's book*. 1. pub. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2007.

PHILPOT, Sarah, Liz SOARS a John SOARS. *New Headway Academic Skills: reading, writing, and study skills: level 2: student's book*. 1st publ. 2006, [print] 2010. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010.

JANÁKOVÁ, Daniela a Marie DOLEŽALOVÁ. *Developing a creative way of thinking, reading and writing in English.* Prague: ICT Prague Press, 2011-2012.

MANN, Malcolm a Steve TAYLORE-KNOWLES. *Destination B1: grammar & vocabulary: [with answer key].* Oxford: Macmillan, 2008.

Grammar

When students came to the Language Resource Centre, most of them preceived English as yet another spoken language they were forced to learn. They regarded English as a set of grammar rules that had no connection to their real life and learning it was just needed in order to successfully complete their academic studies. A half of the students, when they came to the Language Resource Centre were just level A1 which means false beginers. The situation did not look optimistic as many students had fossilized wrong structures and grammar and that meant that they kept making the same mistakes again and again.

After several years of testing different methods and approaches, one of the best ways how to teach A1 and A2 students grammar was a method called Manipulative Visual Language, which is basically using Montessori method and has been modified by American Deaf teacher Mr. Jimmy Challis Gore from Gallaudet University who also came to stay at the Language Resource Centre as a Fulbright scholar and had a chance to teach Czech hearing impaired students. The method consists of a set of symbols (geometric shapes) that have different colours and represent different parts of speech. The biggest advantage of this method lies in its visuality and in the

fact that students can easily transform in their minds a symbol into a word and because MVL exists in 2 dimensional as well as three dimensional form, students can work with the symbols, can move them, feel them and "play" with them. This method will be described in more detail in the part on methods and approaches.

As we know, from the previous tables, that most of the students preferred, at least to some extend, Czech sign language as their means of communication, we had to expect that for at least half of them it was their native language which meant they would use it as a basic ground for learning English language. Even though all students had primary and secondary schooling in Czech language, it is, for at least some of them, the language that they do not reach advanced level at, and when asked to write more complex sentences, they frequently make significant amount of grammatical and syntactical errors. So for most of the students it is more convenient to use Czech sign language as their starting language when learning English.

These are some of the basic rules of Czech sign language

1. Word order of Czech sign language is different from English, i.e. topic of conversetion will be fronted;

2. Plurals of nouns are expressed by numbers or modifiers and classifiers, or repeat a noun in different location;

3. All nouns regardless of their function, can precede the verb with the stipulation that the sequential ordering of the signs determines their functions. Logical subject of the sentence would appear closest to the verb;

4. Czech sign language does not use as many adjectives as English. Adjectives can precede or succeed the noun,

5. Pronouns do not distinguish gender;

6. Quantifiers and cardinal numbers will usually precede the nouns they modify;

7. Czech sign language knows only three tenses that are shown by directional hand movement (was – is now – will be) and sometimes head movement;

Verbs do not perform as verbs in English do. Many verbs in sign language will use the same spatial locations used for pronominalization to indicate the doer of the action (the subject), the receiver of the action (the object or the indirect object), or the site of the action (the oblique object);

Auxiliary and various other verbs may be omitted. These grammatical functions may be taken over by facial mimicry and posture;

8. Czech sign language doe not employ adverbs, respectively it has same sign for an adjective and adverb;

9. Prepositions - Sign language does not have prepositions as English does, although it does have several locative signs (e.g. in, outside), which are used in various context when the signer wishes to emphasize the locative aspect of a particular relationship. Often, the locative function is satisfied by the spatial location of a sign. Signers have an imaginary space in front of their bodies. Particular persons, objects, and places are given a particular point on this "stage" by the signer. Later references to these persons, objects, or places can be achieved by pointing to the appropriate "stage" location;

10. negation signs often occur before the verb but they can be signed at the end of the sign string for the sake of emphasis;

Negation can be also carried by a number of verbs;

11. Wh-question words may occur at either the beginning or the end of a sentence and are accompanied by nonmanual features such as a brow squint and the tilting of the head.

13. The passive voice is not a function of the grammar of sign language.

These is just a very basic overview of the differences between English and Czech sign language. The situation is, however, much more complex.

After applying error analysis and contrastive analysis to students' grammar, the following grammatical features appeared to be the most predominant. These are, where students made most errors and which were most persistent:

Most common and persistent errors in students' grammar

plural (+s)
progressives (+ing)
articles (especially indefinite articles)
past irregulars of verbs
third person singular of verbs (+s)
possessives (s)
omission of *to* between two verbs
present and past tense copula (am/are/was/were)
omission of the verb *be*
omission of the verb do in questions and negatives

From what I have just written, it might appear that English must be difficult for hearing impaired students as Czech sign language does not recognize many of the parts of speech. However, it needs to be said that thanks to relatively rigid word order of English and its analytical aspect, it proved for many

students as much easier a language to reach intermediate level than Czech language.

Grammar points taught at the Language Resource Centre classes for beginners:

Winter term: Basics of English sentence structure, verbs BE and HAVE in Present and Past Tense, plurals of nouns, basic usage of definite and indefinite articles, personal and possessive pronouns, sentence structure THERE IS /THERE ARE, structure of declarative, interrogative and negative sentences, Present Simple, Past Simple, basic irregular verbs;

Summer term: Present Continuous, Past Continuous, adjectives and comparison, relative clauses, object pronouns, reflexive pronouns, structure of declarative, interrogative and negative sentences, definite and indefinite article, zero article, punctuation.

Grammar points taught at the Language Resource Centre classes for pre-intermediate students:

Winter term: relative clauses, linking expressions SO, BECAUSE, BUT, ALTHOUGH, expressing future though BE GOING TO, Past Continuous, Present Perfect Simple, modal verbs MUST, MUSTN'T, possessive pronouns MINE, YOURS,..

Summer term: irregular verbs, expressing future with WILL in positive, negative and interrogative sentences, Present Perfect Continuous and its comparison with Present Perfect Simple, countable and uncountable nouns, adjectives and averbs and their comparison, WOULD LIKE TO structure, English word

order and its comparison with Czech word order and Czech sign language word order.

<u>Grammar points taught at the Language Resource Centre classes for intermediate students:</u>

Winter term: English word order and deviation from word order, revision of interrogative, declarative and negative sentence structures, advanced irrular verbs, passive voice in present, future and past, Present Perfect Simple, time sequence, reported speech, direct and less direct questions, one negation rule, conditional sentences – type zero, I.

Summer term: revision of all English tenses from previous levels, infinitive and -ING forms after certain verbs, modal verbs MUST, MAY, MIGHT, SHOULD, their negatives and expressions for future and past, conditional sentences -   type II and III, USED TO, passive voice for all known tenses, adjectives, adverbs and their position in an English sentence.

Vocabulary

Vocabulary is an important part of English language. When hearing impaired students come to university, unfortunately, their English is most often than not very limited and their vocabulary is impoverished and clipped. This is, I believe, connected to their difficulties with reading, which are discussed later on in the text.

Vocabulary was always related to utterances that had to make sense even though it ddid not have to be a complex sentence. This was to show to the students the word in its setting. If a student could not guess the word, the word was first explained in English or, for example, Google pictures and

an image of the word there were used. The students were discouraged students from using online or paperback translation dictionaries. They sometimes used English-English dictionaries in paper form in order to get used to them, for example they had a task to find opposites of certain adjectives which could prove rather a challenge.

Lexical units taught at the Language Resource Centre classes for beginners:

Winter term: temporal and local prepositions, antonyms and synonyms of adjectives and adverbs and verbs, temporal expressions, easy irregular verbs.

Summer term: temporal and local prepositions, adverbs and adjectives, word formation, collocatins, phrasal verbs.

Lexical units taught at the Language Resource Centre classes for pre-intermediate students:

Winter term: antonyms and synonyms of adjectives and adverbs and verbs, verb GET, phrasal verbs, idioms.

Summer term: prepositional phrases, antonyms and synonyms of adjectives and adverbs, word formation, word formatting prefixes and suffices.

Lexical units taught at the Language Resource Centre classes for intermediate students:

Winter term: differences between British and American English, more complex linking expressions, punctuation, compound words, phrasal verbs, collocations, English provebrs and idioms, differences beween formal and informal English.

Summer term: further vocabulary development, phrasel verbs, idioms, quantifiers TOO, TOO MUCH, TOO MANY, ENOUGH, revision of the use of the pronouns SOMETHING, ANYTHING, NOTHING, SOMEBODY, SOMEWHERE, etc.

Most common difficulties with vocabulary

overall poor active (and passive) vocabulary
poor synonym register
misspelling (jumbling) words
difficulty in rembering more syllabic words
irregulars of verbs
collocations and idiomatic expressions

The students usually used just the same vocabulary register all over again and were restricted in the use of synonyms. Usually their active vocabulary was impoverished. When learning new words, students often misspelled the short words and had difficulties remembering more syllabic words. The words of Latin origin proved really hard for them to remember in a long term memory. Many students did not enjoy playing word games or doing crosswords. The reason is, as mentioned in the grammar part, that they see a word as a cluster of letters. A written word is not an impulse for them to create a visual image of its content.

Because of their difficulties with remembering words, they also struggled to learn or misspelled irregular verbs.
As mentioned earlier, especially deaf students take words and sentences, i.e. their meaning literary. That is why they often do

not understand the meaning of collocations and idiomatic expressions.

Example of the vocabulary (and grammar) exercise

- ing X – ed - ADJECTIVES

Handout, page 197/ exercises 98.2 and 98.3

98.2. Choose the correct word. (The words highlighted yellow are your new vocabulary.)

Solution.

1 I was **disappointed** with the film. I had **expected** it to be better.

2 Are you **interested in** football?

3 The football match was very **exciting**. I enjoyed it.

4 It´s sometimes **embarrassing** when you have to ask for money.

5 Do you easily get **embarrased**?

6 I had never expected to get the job. I was really **amazed** when I was **offered** it.

7 She has really learnt very fast. She has made **astonishing** progress.

8 I didn´t find the situation funny. I was not **amused**.

9 It was a really **terifying** experience. **Afterwards** everybody was very **shocked**.

10 Why do you always look so **bored**? Is your life **really** so boring?

11 He´s one of the most **boring** people I´ve ever met. He never stops talking and he never says anything **interesting**.

Reading

  Reading is crucial for students if they need to successfully complete their university studies. Unfortunately, many hearing impaired student lack interest in reading and are put off by longer and more complex texts. This is due to the fact, that when they were taught Czech language at schools, they usually just had to read Czech text preceded and followed by oral instructions in Czech language which often led to misunderstanding of the text. Many of them do not enjoy reading because they often find the words just as a group of

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letter that for them do not carry any visual picture. It is probably quite similar, in this respect, to hearing people suffering from dyslexia. Also the teaching is very similar, i.e. must be visual, only acoustic input is not accessible to deaf students. In fact, there has hardly been any research on deaf people and dyslexia as the tests developed for hearing dyslectic children do not work with deaf children due to the interference of deafness.

Reading can take many forms. Starting from utterances and sentences and proceeding to shorter and then longer texts that can be general or specific. Many students disliked the act of reading and this had to be overcome. Therefore, the attention was paid that the text was up-to-date and appealing to the students. Some of the students were rather slow readers, so considerable stress was laid on teaching reading techniques and practising scan and skim reading. Sometimes, students were taught at schools to translate every text they saw, word by word. This was the technique to be discouraged because in the text it is not often vital to know every word, but more importantly to understand the meaning correctly. Matching reading was practised where students had to match the chunks of the text to the summary, as well as correct order reading where students had to put the sentences into the proper order. These techniques taught students to see coherence and logical flow of a text. Apart from scan and skim reading, students also practised through reading after which they had to answer the questions connected to the text. For more advanced students retelling technique was used from recal or according to pictures. It was always very useful if a text was divided into sections and there were pictures to support the story/content. A

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plain text only in black print on a white page could discourage many a student.

The texts used for teaching hearing impaired students English at the Language Resource Centre were general from the relevant student's books as well as academic texts dealing with the issue of deafness, deaf culture and lives of deaf people.

Interesting Deaf Americans Sample Exercise

Welcome!
Read the essay, and then answer the questions on the bottom.

Thomas Edison

Adapted from: Goodstein, A. & Walworth, M. (1979). <u>Interesting Deaf Americans</u>. Washington, DC: Gallaudet University.
Used with permission from the Gallaudet University Alumni Association.
Revised by Vivion Smith and Ellen Beck

Thomas Alva Edison lit up the world with his invention of the electric light. Without him, the world might still be a dark place. However, the electric light was not his only invention. He also invented the phonograph, the motion picture camera, and over 1,200 other things. About every two weeks he created something new.

Thomas A. Edison was born in Milan, Ohio, on February 11, 1847. His family moved to Port Huron, Michigan, when he was seven years old. Surprisingly, he attended school for only two months. His mother, a former teacher, taught him a few things, but Thomas was mostly self-educated. His natural curiosity led him to start experimenting at a young age with electrical and mechanical things at home.

When he was 12 years old, he got his first job. He became a newsboy on a train that ran between Port Huron and Detroit. He set up a laboratory in a baggage care of the train so that he could continue his experiments in his spare time. Unfortunately, his first work experience did not end well. Thomas was fired when he accidentally set fire to the floor of the baggage car.

Thomas then worked for five years as a telegraph operator, but he continued to spend much of his time on the job conducting experiments. He got his first patent in 1868 for a vote recorder run by electricity. However, the vote recorder was not a success. In 1870, he sold another invention, a stock-ticker, for $40,000. A stock-ticker is a machine that automatically prints stock prices on a tape. He was then able to build his first shop in Newark, New Jersey.

Thomas Edison was totally deaf in one ear and hard of hearing in the other, but thought of his deafness as a blessing in many ways. It kept conversations short, so that he could have more time for work. He called himself a "two-shift man" because he worked 16 out of every 24 hours. Sometimes he worked so intensely that his wife had to remind him to sleep and eat.

Thomas Edison died at the age of 84 on October 18, 1931, at his estate in West Orange, New Jersey. He left numerous inventions that improved the quality of life all over the world.

Content Questions

1. Thomas Edison did things in this order:

a.   he became a telegraph operator, a newsboy, and then got his first patent

b.   he became a newsboy, got his first patent, and then became a telegraph operator

c.   he got a patent, became a telegraph operator, and then became a newsboy

d.   he became a newsboy, a telegraph operator, and then got a patent

then worked for five years as a telegraph operator. **After that, it says that he** got his first patent. **If we read looking only for the details that relate to the question, it becomes clear that the answer is D.')" type=button value="Explain ">**

2. Edison considered his deafness:

a.   a disadvantage

b.   a blessing

c.   something from a priest

d.   a necessity

thought of his deafness as a blessing. **It then goes on to describe in detail the reasons why Edison considered his deafness a blessing.')" type=button value="Explain ">**

3. Of all the inventions, _____ was probably the most important for civilization.

a.   the vote recorder

b.   the stock ticker

c.   the light bulb

d.   the motion picture camera

lit up the world with his invention of the electric light, **or light bulb. The world might still be a dark place if it weren't for his invention. These sentences indicate that his invention of the light bulb had a deep impact on the world. There are no statements about any of his other inventions that make such a bold claim.**

For questions like these, you should also use your own common sense. Think about the inventions mentioned. Look around you. You are probably sitting in a place that is using many different light bulbs. There is probably not a stock ticker, a vote recorder, or a movie camera in the room with you. This simple fact indicates that the light bulb had a more widespread impact on the world than any of his other inventions.')" type=button value="Explain ">

4. The main idea of this passage is:

a. Thomas Edison was always interested in science and inventions, and he invented many important things.

b. Thomas Edison could not keep a job.

c. Thomas Edison worked day and night on his experiments.

d. Deaf people make good inventors because they can focus without the distraction of spoken conversation.

[   ] s continued interest in science and inventions, and on how his inventions helped the world.')" type=button value="Explain ">

Writing

Writing proved to be one of the biggest challenges to teach hearing impaired students despite the fact that writing, and academic writing in general, is, I believe, the most important of all the language skills. Students often produced texts that apart from having recurring grammatical errors, also often lacked coherence and structure. For hearing impaired students, it si extremely hard to construct more complex academic writing. This topic is of such an importance, in my opinion, that I would like to devote to it my next research.

In classes at the Language Resource Centre we started with some very basic pieces of writing and proceded to more complex and advanced ones which proved to be the limit for many of a student.

Apart from emails and chat which are a cross breed between speaking and writing, students did in-class as well as out-of-class writing. One of the good techniques was to read a story and then try to retell it in your own words using pictures as a support. Another great way to teach writing was for students to set up a diary, where they would write about themselves and their lives. This could be rather time consuming and demanding for a teacher, because students usually write a draft and then after correction have to rewrite it again and again, until there are no errors. In-class activities also included writing on a white board at the very beginning of the lesson about students' previous day, or about news they found interesting. Writing could take many forms, e.g. answering a job advertisement, writing an email to a friend, preparing a

poster for a conference, describing a person, writing on topics related to Deaf issues. Sometimes, a topic was given and sometimes students had a free topic to write on. However, from my experience, students preferred more topics to choose from, and were not particularly keen on writing on a topic of their own choice.

Writing topics for beginners:
Winter term: informal email, simple story, description.
Summer term: informal email, informal letter, description of activities, instructions.

Writing topics for pre-intermediate students:
Winter term: essay, differences between formal and informal letter/email, article, story, motivation letter.
Summer term: description, essay, story, review.

Writing topics for intermediate students:
Winter term: essay, short presentation, academic article, summary of academic text, CV, cover letter.
Summer term: essay, article, story, a short paper, seminar work - film review on a film with special needs characters.

I/ FIELD TOPICS
Oborově zaměřená témata

1/ Cochlear implants: YES or NO?
Give your opinion and reasons why you agree or disagree with this sort of deafness treatment.

2/ What do you imagine under Deaf World?

3/ What are the basic components of Deaf Culture?

4/ What do you know about Deaf History?

5/ How are you going to help your Deaf Community?

6/ Czech Deaf Clubs.

7/ Can hearing people understand the Deaf and their needs?
   Give examples for your opinion.

8/ Give a brief module how you would change education of the Deaf.

9/ Your opinion on the studies of the Czech Deaf students in Great Britain or the USA.

10/ Czech Sign Language versus Signed Czech.

11/ How is Deaf Culture modelled and passed on through generations?

12/ Why are some deaf parents putting their deaf children in oral schools?

13/ Is it possible for hearing people to be considered full members of Deaf Culture? Why or why not?

14/ Are hard-of-hearing people members of Deaf or Hearing Culture? What factors contribute to this identification?

15/ How do the media typically portray Deaf people?

31/ A person whose work in art, in medicine, in education, or whose sports activity is significant in your opinion.

32/ A Country of Your Dreams

33/ More and more marriages end in divorce. Why?

34/ A good man/woman is hard to find.

35/ Your observations on the importance of parents´involvement in their children´s education.

36/ Your personal experience in handling a difficult situation.

37/ Fathers should spend more time with their children.

38/ Old people should be cared for by their families.

39/ A person who overcame a great difficulty or handicap.

40/ A person whose actions showed great courage.

41/ A person whom you will remember as long as you live.

42/ Write out your own definition of good mother and good father.

43/ What are some of the causes of parent-teenager fighting?

44/ On what bases do you usually choose your friends?

45/ Write about your university study program.

46/ Your diploma work.

47/ How do you imagine your future career?

48/ In which sphere would you like to work after graduating from this faculty and why?

49/ Give examples of minority or oppressed groups in history of mankind.

50/ What are some ways in which you can identify members of a group or culture?

Speaking and Listening

Oral speaking and listening was possible only qith students using either cochlear implant or hearing aids. As for listening, that was mainly done by the instructor as listening from a tape or CD did no work with the students as they still, despite having the compensatory tools still rely heavily on lipreading. Furthermore, listening to a foreign language is for them extremely difficult. The teacher must devote more time to pronunciation and when speaking, he or she must speak at a normal pace, should not cover his/her mouth and be prepared to do a lot of repetition and to have at hand a big pile of paper to write the words and sentences on. Obviously, the most challenging part is pronunciation and speaking, namely spoken conversation. Fortunately, all our students were in their twenties and rather bright which meant that they were mature enough to have set their goals, yet, young enough to be eager to learn and not afraid to try new things. As far as pronunciation was concerned we used several breathing techniques, especially for sounds that are not in Czech language, such as /θ/ in thin /θɪn/, path /pɑːθ/, /ð/ in then /ðɛn/, bathe /beɪð/, /ə/ as in another /əˈnʌðə/ and /əː/ as in nurse /nəːs/ which are so important for understanding.

As for the stress in a word, we used "drumming" that means I played the rythm/beat of the word on the desk of the table so students could also feel the vibrations. The students then tried to repeat the word and until they felt confident with the pronunciation of the word, they could do the beat as well.

As far as conversation was concerned, it was hardly a problem for this group of students, of course, a teacher must be

prepared to repeat words or phrases several times, if it was logical and a student knew the topic and could follow teacher's trait of thoughts. The problem started when a topic was unknown, a student couldn't predict it and/or the conversation deviated from the logical order, which is very often the case of normal conversations. Then a student would get lost.

Another goup of hearing impaired students we taught at the Language Resource Centre were those with a severe hearing loss, but still wearing hearing aids, who knew a sign language, usually Czech sign language. During English conversation, I used a sign supported technique, but also we had conversation without any signs, as would be the case in everyday situation in an English speaking country. The reasearch has shown that lipreading is connected with reading skills, so we tried to build on an extensive vocabulary and do a lot of reading, which improves understanding of a language.

The third group of hearing impaired students represented the group that, for some reason or other, preferred to be taken as the deaf. These students sometimes refuse to speak in English and were treated as deaf students.

 Nevertheless, it often happened that after some time, especially, if they had been exposed to the native English environment, they started to try to speak in English and only after that, they were willing to practise pronunciation. However, these students were pressed to speak in English if they did not want to. The reason was, that due to the oral system they often underwent at primary and secondary schools, students were often made to speak and for some of them the feeling of failure at not being able to reach the right sound and

tediousness of these trainings had created a block in their minds which was hard to overcome, but through patience, encouragement and exposure to real life situations in an English speaking country.

With deaf students an instant conversation as a substitute for speaking was used during the classes, namely in chat rooms on Google chat. Approximately every second lesson we would go to the computers in the Language Resource Centre, log in and start chating. Chating could have different forms and could be used at the beginning, in the middle or towards the end of the lesson. It usually lasted about 15-20 minutes. It could be used to greet each other, talk about the weekend, discuss different problems, or it could be used to talk about the topic of the lesson, to discuss the text and vocabulary of the lesson, or to discuss topics for essay writing. As with spoken conversation, a teacher must be sensitive when/if to correct his/her students, an isntructor must be well aware that this is an instant reaction and also must take into account the level of English of his/her students. It was interesting to note, that sometimes the utterances students produced seemed incomprehesible to a teacher, however they were quite comprehensible to other students in the chat room. The content of a chat could be a good pool of ideas for future exercises on grammar, or a topic for further discussion. From my personal experience as a teacher of hearing impaired students I find in-class chat more efficient than out-of-class chat. The reason is that a student can often get distracted with other tasks when at home, he/she often does multitasking, can use Google translator for reading and writing the text of the conversation, and the chat can drag on an on, as one student has to leave to

bring his drink, the other has to go to the toilet, etc. In my opinion, the use of an out-od-class chat is efficient only when students want to chat because they need some information, help with English, etc.

Speaking and listening topics for beginners:
Winter term: Numbers, time, family, student's life, people and their lifestyle, weather, Deaf culture in the U.S.A. and it the UK.
Summer term: Home and living, daily routine, hobbies and frre time, eating, seasons of the year, Deaf culture in the U.S.A. and it the UK.

Speaking and listening topics for pre-intermediate students:
Winter term: Living, personal description, clothes, travelling, Deaf culture in the U.S.A. and it the UK, work and work opportunities.
Summer term: Daily routine, my surrounding – architecture and art, education/jobs, technology – IT, culture and customs in foreign countries, Deaf culture in the U.S.A. and it the UK.

Speaking and listening topics for intermediate students:
Winter term: Student's life, people and environment, Basics of academic English, presenting at a conference, Deaf culture in the U.S.A. and it the UK and in the Czech Republic.
Summer term: Modern technologies – IT, the world around us, People: past and presence, description of places and buildings,

travelling, academic English, Deaf culture in the U.S.A. and it the UK and in the Czech Republic.

Two example:

First: example of listening and speaking task for hearing impaired (not deaf) students

Second: chat with a deaf student (substitution for speaking)

THE STORY SO FAR

1.14 Listen to the story of Mark and Allie. Answer the questions.

1 Where are Mark and Allie from?
2 What company do they work for?
3 Where did they meet?
4 What did they do?
5 Did they get on well?
6 What's Mark doing now?

AT IMMIGRATION

a **1.15** Cover the dialogue and listen. How long is Allie going to stay in the United States?

YOU HEAR	YOU SAY
Good evening, *ma'am*.	Good evening.
_____ are you arriving from?	From London.
_____ the purpose of your visit?	Business. I'm here for a conference.
_____ long are you staying in the US?	A week.
_____ are you staying?	In San Francisco. At the Pacific View Hotel.
_____ you know anybody here?	Yes, Mark Ryder.
_____ he family or a friend?	He's a colleague – and a friend.
_____ you have his phone number?	Yes, his mobile is 405 655 7182.
_____ this your first visit to the US?	Yes, it is.
Enjoy your stay in San Francisco.	Thank you.

b Listen again. Complete the YOU HEAR phrases.

c **1.16** Listen and repeat the YOU SAY phrases. Copy the rhythm.

d In pairs, roleplay the dialogue. A (book open) you're the immigration officer, B (book closed) you're Allie. Swap roles.

SOCIAL ENGLISH   Allie arrives

a **1.17** Listen. Answer the questions.

1 How long was Allie's flight?
2 Why couldn't she sleep?
3 What time is it…?
   a in San Francisco b in London
4 Where is Mark going to take her?
5 Where's Mark's car?

b Complete the USEFUL PHRASES. Listen again and check.

c **1.18** Listen and repeat the phrases. How do you say them in your language?

USEFUL PHRASES
M You look g_____!
M How was the f_____?
M You must be really t_____.
M I'm so p_____ you came!
A It's great to see you a_____.

	US English	*parking lot*
	UK English	*car park*

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Study Link MultiROM

12:43 **Marie**: Good day again
12:44 Thank you for good news:-)
 I was very nervous.
já: you were? WHat about?
Marie: About exams..
12:45 **já**: I see.I want to ask you about your essay.
Marie: Yes.
 I am reading for your guestions.
já: You wrote that a hearing person (coda) can do interpreting only for his/her living, right?
12:46 Do you then regard CODA as members of Deaf community?
Marie: I dont know if you know what CODA means.
já: And furthermore, you asked me if I wanted to join you. What do you mean by "us"?
12:47 **Marie**: CODA is person who has deaf family.
já: I know, but is he/she a member of Deaf community?
12:48 **Marie**: No, hearing people who havent any deaf family cant be member deaf culture etc.
12:49 All right, person who has deaf family neednt to be CODA - it means he is not interpreter. But life in deaf world.
já: Right. I understand, then why did you ask me? Was it a rethorical question? I am just curious.
12:50 **Marie**: Oh see, "us" it it so strong habit. I use this word as our deaf world.
 Because I am not alone.
12:51 So instead this word "me" I use "us".
já: I see. Ok. I understand now. That is very important. Now, I would like you to show me the book you have prepared and tell me something about it.
Marie: Great that you understand me:-)
12:52 **já**: I try :). So what about the book? Did you prepare it all?
Marie: I have choosen this book because I am interested of people who made proud of deafs.
já: Ok. Can I see it? Did you read it all?
12:53 **Marie**: I read it a few weeks ago. So I remember only some chaptairs.
já: I need to test you on the text.
12:54 Please show me what you read.
Marie: How? I cannot send you by mail:-)
 I am sorry, I did joke.
já: Now, you have the book with you, right?
12:56 Ok. I shall ask you three things.
Marie: Could you me ask..
já: First, which person did you like the best and why?
12:57 **Marie**: This guestion is hard.. Because I am approciate of them.
 Because Hoy
já: Yes, I unederstand, then tell me what you value in them.
12:58 understand
12:59 **Marie**: For examle, Hoy´s value - he changed rules a habit of baseball.
já: In what way?
Marie: The methods are still use.
 Way - signals by harms..
13:00 Because he heard signals..
 First time a change was confused for people.. Now they are fine.
13:01 **já**: you mean confusing?
Marie: Yes..
já: Do you know the difference?
Marie: no, only one mean..
já: confusedxconfusing
13:02 confused x confuding
Marie: adjective x noun
 I am sorry I am wrong.
 I read fast..
 I dont know this word confuding.
13:03 **já**: sorry, it means confusing
 How do you say, I am confused or confusing
Marie: It is noun, is not?
já: not really.

13:04 What does it mean? to confuse
Marie: Person who made shocking and does understand it..
13:05 I dont know how explain exactly.
 doesnt
 does > doesntz
já: Yes, So would you say. I am confused or I am confusing?
13:06 **Marie**: So it is verb.
já: to confuse - yes
Marie: :-)
já: But would you say I am ....
13:07 **Marie**: I was confusing about it now I understand.
 It was example about our chatting
13:08 **já**: Well. It depends. I am confused means how I feel.
Marie: I am confused of accident..
já: Like I am tired
 Yes, But things can be confusing. It´s an opinion.
13:09 OK. The last question.
Marie: Yes.
já: I shall give you your book, read the page and then tell me with your own words, max. 5 sentences what
is the information there.
13:10 Take your time.I can wait.
13:11 **Marie**: Sporty jsou dlouholete vitalni casti americkych, neslysicich kultury.
13:12 Ve skolach pro neslysici, vsechny deti dostavaji sanci to zucastnit.
13:13 Vetsinou stali atletici (venku).
 Vetsinou se stali atletici.
já: No, no. you do not have to translate into Czech. Just summary
 What it says in English
 Short. your own words
 I do not want translation
13:14 **Marie**: So what do you want?
 summary, oh see
 About Art Kruger.
 So again..
 Kruger is father of AAAD
13:15 because he supported deafs to do sports..
já: Ok. was he Deaf?
13:16 **Marie**: He used to hearing, when he was small - he was ill
já: what happened to him? When?
Marie: from fire..
13:17 He was small boy.
já: Where was the fire?
Marie: He was three years old
 At apartment
 where lived with his family
já: Was anyone there in the apartment?
13:18 Why?
Marie: where lived with his family
já: Did he run away?
Marie: His sister help him...
 hepled
 helped
já: Right. What is the word they use?
 in the book?
13:19 **Marie**: OK.
já: verb
 His sister ...... him.
Marie: helped
 rescued
13:20 **já**: Right. Finito!!!
 Now. I believe your English is rather good. I decided to give you excellent even though it is not with stars.
Do you agree?
13:21 výborně in Czech
Marie: Yes. I agree with you. I have to still continue with my English.
já: Do you have your index with you?

Methods, Approaches, Strategies and Techniques. The Question of How?

In previous section, I described the content of English lessons for hearing impaired students from Charles University studying English at the Language Resource Centre. However, what makes lessons successful is not only what students learn, but how they learn it. So very much depends on an instructor and methods and approaches used. Even the best content taught wrongly, or unsufficiently, would have no, or every insignificant impact on a student.

The following text gives basic general information on teaching strategies with respect to hearing impaired university students. It was taken from the Dare-Learning project website. The project was funded by Leonardo Da Vinci programme which brought together four European universities:

The Jagiellonian University of Krakow, Poland (project promoter),

Pierre and Marie Curie University of Paris, France

Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece

Charles University of Prague,

The Language Resource Centre participated on the project together with the Charles University Information Advisory Centre.

When looking for effective methods to support the student with hearing disability, it is important to select suitable educational strategies based on the student's preferred method of communication. This method may utilize oral language, sign language and bilingual strategy.

Difficulties:

In the studying process, deaf/Deaf and hard of hearing students may find it difficult to:

- fully participate in classes based exclusively on verbal communication (e.g. lectures without multimedia presentations, audio recordings, videos without subtitles)

- use their lip reading skills or focus on a sign language interpreter while taking notes

- participate in seminars and group discussions where many people fail to follow the rules of debate etiquette

- use their lip reading skills or a sign language interpreter if the speaker's or interpreter's face is poorly lit

take oral exams and tests conducted in a traditional manner.

Educational support strategies

In order to provide effective academic teaching to deaf/Deaf and hard of hearing persons, the following conditions should be applied:

Concerning coursework organisation:

- Use teaching aids that allow to convey information through visual channels (eg multimedia presentations, slides, graphs, charts, illustrations, photos).

- Distribute teaching materials well before the class (e.g. outline in both electronic and paper form, key points, bibliography, multimedia presentation).

- Allow for new technology solutions, including assistive listening systems (FM) or a hearing loop.

- Face the student at all times when you speak to him or her.

- Speak clearly and at a measured pace so that the student can read your lips. Avoid exaggerated speech or gestures.

- Speak using clear and lucid phrases; highlight main points and keywords; explain the meaning of complex linguistic structures and specialist vocabulary.

- Write down new and unfamiliar vocabulary (specialist terminology) on the board, or print it and hand out to students.

- Make sure that you have the student's attention before you speak.

- Make sure that the student and/or sign language interpreter is able to follow the order of speakers during class discussions. It may help if you suggest conventional visual signs to signal who is speaking (eg speaker raising his or her hand).

In case the student using a sign language interpreter:

- Provide the interpreter with teaching materials well before the class to help him or her familiarise with the topic.

- Speak directly to the student, not the interpreter. Avoid phrases that make the interpreter mediate between you and the student, eg "tell him/her", "ask him/her".

- Make sure that the interpreter is provided with a place where he or she can sit or stand close to the speaker (interpreter and student usually work at a reasonable distance). It may help if you provide the interpreter with a list of course participants or a class schedule.

Concerning credits and exams:

- Adjust the form of examination to the student's individual requirements. It is advisable that persons with hearing disability take an oral exam as a written one or are assisted by a sign language interpreter. In case the student wishes to respond orally, you may consider bringing a printed copy of the questions to the exam.

Other:
- Make sure that classes are held in rooms with good lighting and good acoustics.
- Allow for short breathers during classes. Lip reading is a mentally exhausting activity and it puts a considerable strain on the student's memory and attention. The sign language interpreter may also require such a break. If the course is demanding, two interpreters may take turns interpreting for the student.
- Arrange the seats in such a way that it is possible for all students to see each other. This will allow the lip reading students to fully participate in the discussion.
Avoid standing in front of a window or other source of light which puts your face in the shadow. This makes lip reading more difficult and the student will not be able to make the most of the class.
(http://www.darelearning.eu/en.auditory_disability.html)

As previously, English classes for students were usually twice a week and each class consisted of 90 minute lessons. Students were grouped according to their language level, hearing impairment and timetable. More advanced students, as there were very few of them, were taught individually.

From every lesson the content of the lesson was written down by the instructor and then send to the students.

At the Language Resource Centre, we applied different specific strategies which I shall describe in the following part. They could be roughly divided into two categories, i.e. external and internal that division, however is quite fluid and both categories can overlap.

Among internal issues we can include classroom arrangement and classroom equipment.

Below is just a rough drawing of the Language Resource Centre classroom.
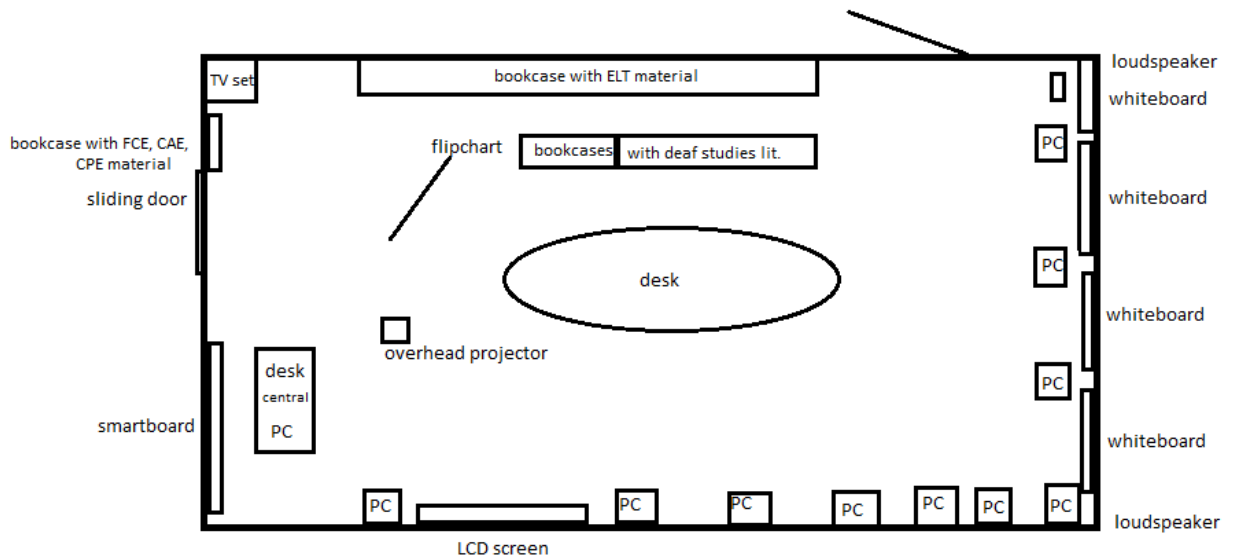
The advantage of such classroom arrangement is that students and the instructor can see at every point each other which is so crucial for people with hearing impairment. An instructor can use flipchart where he or she writes down during the lesson and which is close to the desk. The desk is round, and the instructor and students who sit around it can

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face each other. Students can use whiteboards for in-class tasks. The whiteboards are opposite the central PC (teacher's) desk and PC and the flipchart so at every moment the students can face the teacher. When using smartboard students can either sit at the desk, or stand at the whiteboards, or even sit at one of the 10 computer stations, in case they have some tasks on PC. The picture can be projected from the overhead projector onto the Smartboard as well as onto the LCD screen at the same time. Students are during classes constantly surrounded by books as well. The reason for that is that on the whole hearing impaired students do not enjoy reading to a great extent, so talking about a book and than actually "feeling" it and browsing through it, and consequently being able to borrow it home was a great advantage of such arrangement.

The classroom had also special equipment for students with visual and physical impairment. For students with visual impairment there was a special light system installed, and special software JAWS for enlarging and reading written texts. For those with physical impairment, the classroom had, one of the first at the Faculty of Arts building, barrier free access installed so it was easily accessible to these students.

The reason for all this equipment was that hearing impairment may be accompanied by other additional impairments. Hearing impaired students are visual and they learn mainly though visual input. So modern technology during lessons which is mentioned below in this section, can enhance their learning abilities, not to mention that it makes classes for these students more various and motivating.

An example of the use of a whiteboard - collaborative task-students and instructor
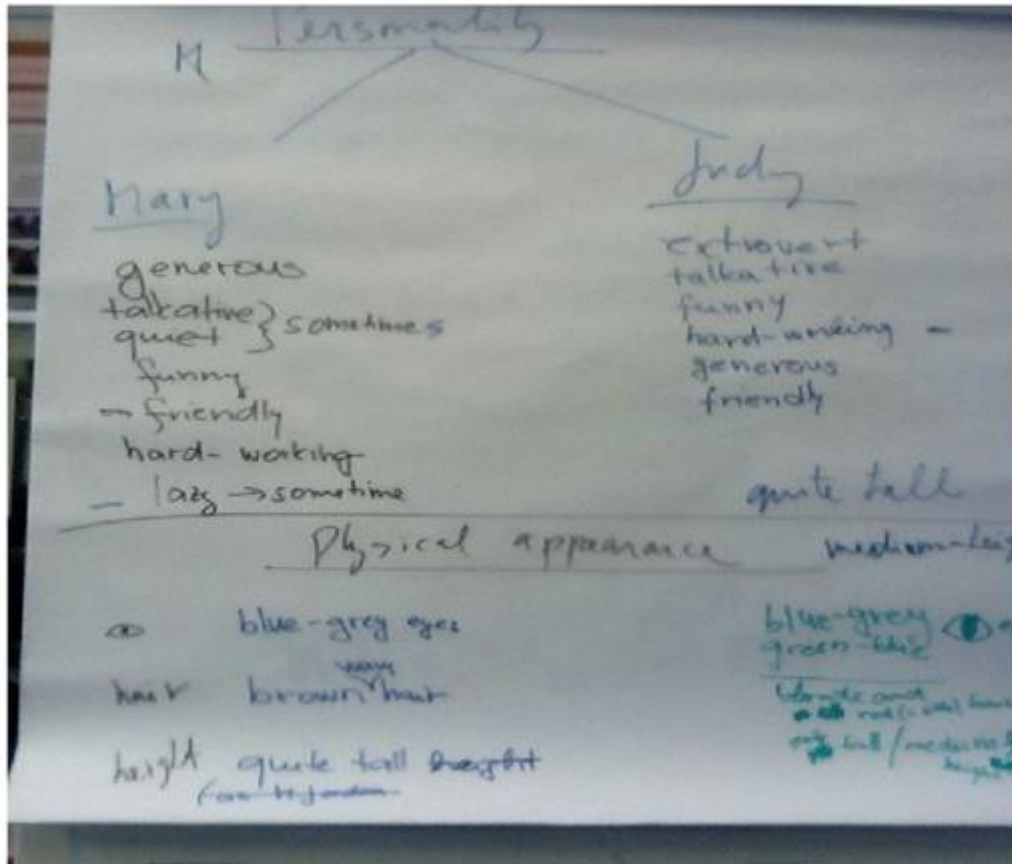
IT

Hearing impaired students profit immensely from the current development in modern technology. In fact, what nowadays many people complain about, that this era is picture/image oriented, is exactly what proves as an advantage to hearing impaired people. They have, thus, better access to information and better possibilities to learn English language as well.

During the English classes I used the following technology/sources.

- Smartboard and LCD screen for the Internet sources as well
   as for documents with grammar and vocabulary
   explanation and practice.
- PC station for in-class activities like individual student's
   work and for chat with students.

In-class chat was used in English classes with deaf students and as a substitute for speaking and listening activities, also as a substitution for oral part during the exam. The online instant written communication was partly teacher governed, e.g. talking about given topic or practising vocabulary or grammar, or discussing reading, and partly students governed. Subsequently, an instructor could go though the chat text and mark errors that he or she deemed important for students to work on in future. It needs to be said that the text proved to be a very good source for error and contrastive analysis.

With respect to homework assignements, I used, apart from MS office also Google Docs, where students could upload their texts for correction, Picassa web for storing English teaching materials and PDF format, namely Acrobat Reader Professional in which students' homework can be corrected and explanation given, just next to the problematic features (as can be seen in the section on Vocabulary).

For practising vocabulary, it proved as a great help, a source on the Internet called Quizlet (www.quizlet.cz) where an instructor uploads vocabulary that he or she wants to practise with the students. The vocabulary is then visualized through pictures on flashcards. Other technical features of Quizlet are that it also offers native speakers pronunciation

(for students with mild hearing loss), and creates test from the uploaded words.

An example of a check-up page from Quizlet where an instructor can follow student's progress with the vocabulary. In this case, the students have been practising irregular verb forms:

-1	eat-ate-eaten	jíst
-1	grow-grew-grown	růst
-1	hide-hid-hidden	schovat
-1	lie-lay-lain	ležet

The hearing impaired students at the Language Resource Centre fell into three groups:
- group 1 -hearing impaired students taught through spoken and written English (and Czech), i.e. non-signers;
- group 2 - hearing impaired students taught through spoken and written English (and Czech), but with supported signs, or partly Czech sign language;
-group 3- hearing impaired (mostly, but not exclusively, deaf students) taught through written English and Czech sign language

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The table showing the distribution of used languages among the three groups:

Group No	English		Czech sign language	Czech
	spoken	**written**		
1	yes	yes	**no**	yes
2	yes	yes	yes	yes
3	**no**	yes	yes	yes - written

Only the third group used a Czech sign language interpreter. Because when I started working at the Language Resource Centre, I had no previous knowledge of Czech sign language. Over the years, I tried different strategies, i.e. teaching through Czech sign language interpreter, teaching with a hard-of-hearing assistant who knew all languages, i.e. Czech language, English language and Czech sign language, and teaching without an assistant and without an interpreter through just English and Czech sign language.

After evaluating the three methods, students felt the same about all of them. So, the conclusion to be drawn is that if an instructor wants to teach without a sign language interpreter, he or she must have at least intermediate knowledge of Czech sign language in order to teach on his or her own. Teaching without an interpreter and without any, or little knowledge of sign language leads to misunderstandings, demotivation and frustration on the part of the students as well as on the part of the instructor.

As for the teacher, the best possible way is to teach either with an assistant, who is skilled in all three languages, or teach on his or her own. Teaching with a sign language interpreter is not the best option (though much better than teaching the deaf without no or little knowledge of Czech sign language) as there is another person/intermediary between the instructor and the students which can lead to misunderstandings. Also, the contact between the instructor and the students is not close and is processed through another person. Not to mention time lag when the instructor has to wait for the interpreter to interpret the instructions and cannot do anything else, or move away unless he or she wants to distract students' attention and stop them in their work.

There was also one more strategy used at the Language Resource Centre with groups 2 and 3. For one semester a deaf English teacher from English Language Institute, Gallaudet University, Washington D.C., USA came to Charles University as a Fulbright Scholar and taught English classes at the Language Resource Centre. Mr. Jimmy Challis Gore brought with him his innovative method for teaching English to the deaf. The method is called Manipulative Visual Language (MVL).

I first came across this method when visiting Gallaudet University with Charles University hearing impaired students. The students in order to enhance their motivation in English language learning, and in order to experience culture of an English speaking country as well as to get encultured into the deaf culture in other countries, had an opportunity to attend a three-week Summer Course of English and Deaf Culture either at Gallaudet University, Washington D.C.,

USA, or at the Centre for Deaf Studies, Bristol University, Bristol, England, or at the Deaf Studies Centre, CityLit – Literary Institute, London, England.

While attenting a summer course at Gallaudet University, I observed MVL English classes of Mr. Jimmy Challis Gore. The students enjoyed the classes immensely. Therefore, when there was a chance for Mr. Gore to come to the Czech Republic to teach at the Language Resource Centre through his method, we took the opportunity.

His method is based on a visual approach and is based on colour coding. Roughly speaking, each part of speech is assigned a geometrical shape of a different colour. These shapes are then used to explain grammar rules and sentence structure. As mentioned earlier many students with hearing impairment experience difficulties with words, and sentences written in words. Thus, using MVL, all they see is only symbols which represent not just one word, but a group of words. Students learn the colour coding and shapes easily and quickly (faster than an average hearing person would), and than, they apply them to form English language sentence structures, or learn through MVL grammar points such as tenses, adjective word order, passive voice, articles, third person singular of verbs in present simple, negation, conditional sentences – basically all the issues hearing impaired students seem to struggle with. Moreover, this method, being so innovative, proved as a great motivation asset for students. The method has been developed so it can be used in 2D (magnets on a board), 3D forms as well as on PCs and tablets. The Manipulative Visual Language Method is a significant help in teaching English grammar and

sentence structure exactly to the groups of beginners to pre-intermediate levels. For intermediate and higher levels, this method is not so effective.

Fortunately, Mr Gore managed to train several English teachers of the Deaf in his Manipulative Visual Language. The course of his Manipulative Visual Language (MVL) method was organized by the Language Resource Centre and accredited by the Ministry of Youth and Education of the Czech Republic for English teachers teaching at schools for the Deaf.

The example of sentences in MVL is shown in the picture below.
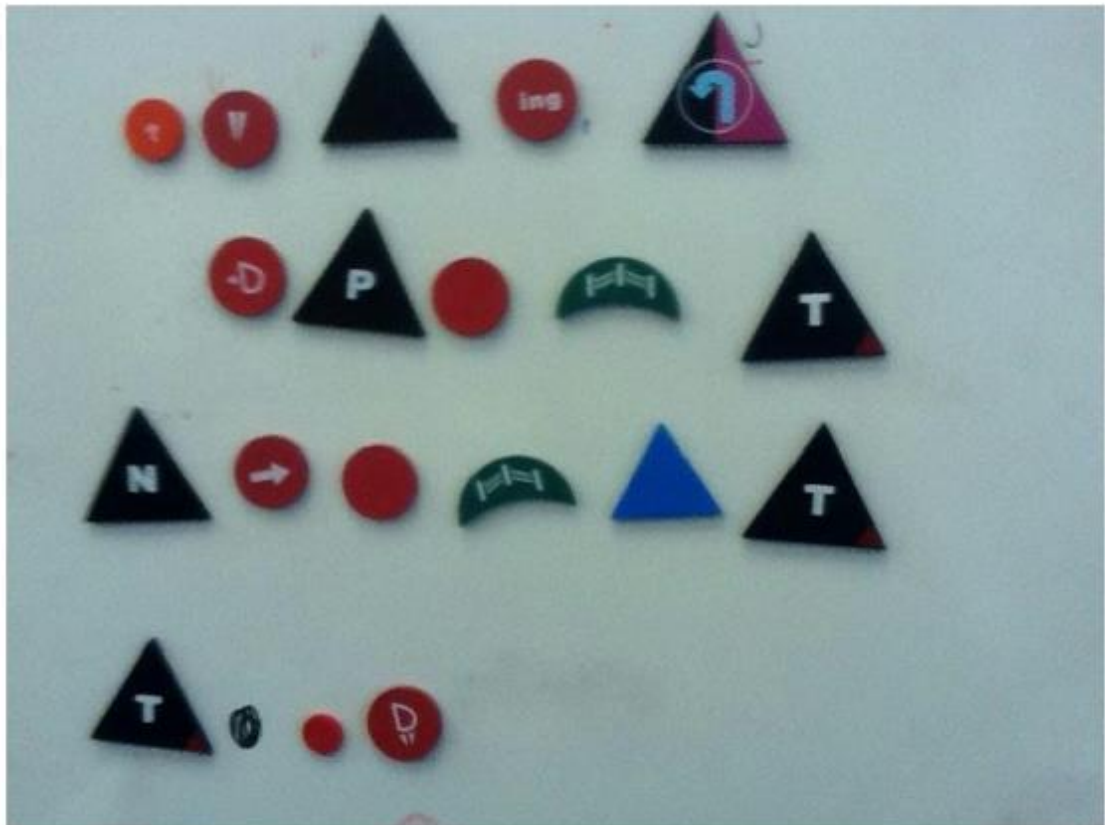
3.3 Conclusion

All this considered, there still remains questions to be asked: Do all these methods, techniques and equipment make a student want to learn English? Will a student be successful in acquiring all the necessary skills?

The longer I teach, the more I believe that all these things are good and can help significantly as far as English language acquisition is concerned. However, the main driving force for a student is motivation and opportunity. Students must realize that learning English is worth the pain and effort. Some students do it because of their English exam, but more and more now that by mastering English the world opens to them. They can chat with their friends abroad, they can read books in English (most of the books written about Deafhood and related issues have been written in English), they will be able to get round and be independent when going abroad. It takes a while for some students to let this fact sink in.

To sum it up, without motivation and opportunity on the side of a student, even the best of a teacher with immaculate methods and great dedication would reach very poor, if any results.

CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSION

ven when deaf students are provided with tutoring and special remedial courses, their errors remain resistant to change.

Because of their perceptual predominance, the mechanical and syntactic errors of the deaf/hearing impaired have been studied at length by many researchers. In general, it has been observed that deaf students of all ages have difficulties with passive voice, auxiliary verbs (e.g. *I born in Portugal*), tense markers after be + particle (e.g. I was run), omission of be auxiliary before verb + ing (e.g. School going fast), verb forms after do and modals (e.g. She did not said; They cannot to go), inversion (e.g. I do not know how many are there), selection/omission of articles and prepositions. They also have difficulties as well with sentence boundaries, word choice, and spelling (Quigley and Paul 1984).

In view of the number and kinds of errors appearing in hearing impaired students' writing and their habit of whistanding correction, how and where should instructor begin in offering assistance?

For example, students can be asked to note in their journals which mechanical rules seem to be confusing, or they can be asked to observe and record the kinds of corrections the instructor regularly marks. After a list is compiled, the instructor can work with each student individually to develop a revision agenda. The revision agenda needs to be personalized, because even errors that appear to be similar for

a number of students, for example, omission of the indefinite article, may have their roots in different areas of usage. Only by examining the linguistic environments of the incidents of correct and incorrect usage can the instructor begin to diagnose the cause of the student's difficulty and suggest methods of addressing it.

There is, actually, no need to develop a whole new set of activities to assist the hearing impaired to reduce the number and kind of mechanical errors. However, the nature of deafness may have some impact on the kinds of grammatical tasks suggested for deaf students. In general, in selecting the errors to be addressed, the instructor should mainly focus on those errors that cross sentence boundaries. These might include run-on sentences, verb tense consistency, and agreement in number.

A second class of errors that make good candidates for a revision agenda are those involving subordination and coordination, because errors in this area influence the logical relation of the text.

However, no technique, no method of eliminating mechanical errors will work until students regard it as both process and product.

Moreover, we should keep in mind that excessive emphasis on grammatical decision can bring benefits no one. Furthermore, despite their efforts, many hearing impaired students, in particular deaf students will never exhibit the command of English that hearing students do. Their vocabulary and syntax will continue to differ from that found in textbooks. Therefore, it is far more important for hearing

impaired students to be more concerned with meaning that it is for them to worry only about mechanical errors.

Many years ago, George Polya, appealing to instructors of mathematics, provided his readers with two rules for teaching. He wrote:

"The first rule of teaching is to know what you are supposed to teach.

The second rule of teaching is to know a little more that what you are supposed to teach". (1945:172)

Knowing what one is to teach involves whom one is going to teach, their skills and strengths, their abilities and differences. Contemporary instructors, therefore, will need to know a great deal if they are to know what they are supposed to teach. They will need to know how language is practised by the core population (native English speakers) and special population (the hearing impaired). They will need to know methodologies that allow hearing impaired group to reach their potential and they will need to know how to isolate for instruction linguistic apsects of texts. In all these areas a linguistically-based pedagogy can help.

First, a linguistically-based pedagogy can assist the instructor in understanding the different ways hearing impaired population uses and regards language.

Language acquisition and language behaviour are subject to the influence of multiple variables, and the conditions complicationg these variables are numerous. By becoming aware of the difficulties hearing impaired individuals face when they must learn a spoken language, instructors will grow in appreciation of the numbers of factors involved when deaf students attempt ot learn English. And by broadening

their knowledge in developmental linguistics, instructors will understand that the way deaf students express themselves in English is as much related to the kind of language training they received during their former years of schooling and to their present attitudes toward English and its users as to the degree of hearing loss, the age of onset of hearing impairment, and the mode of language used in their homes.

While developmental linguistics makes it clear to the instructor that if language is to be acquired, it must be available in a mode that is accessible to the learner and in a manner that makes use of the language-learner's background, historical linguistics, on the other hand, reveals that for hearing impaired learners this has not always been the case. The kind of language training experienced by most hearing impaired students both in residential and oral day schools had its roots in philosophical systems developed during the eighteenth century. These philosohical systems regarded the fundamentally human behaviour of language as something rigidly fixed, carefully prescribed, and ingrained in speech. Hearing impaired students, and particularly deaf students who were trained in normative oral methodologies arising from these philosophical systems will have different linguistic strengths and weaknesses from those of hearing students who were similarly trained or students who were taught through signs at least at home by their parents. Literacy, like education, is not monolithic. Rather, it is related to various political, cultural and other behaviours common in specific communities. These various behaviours result in different language varieties, each variety adapted by its users

to meet their needs and to reinforce social relations significant to them.

However, when hearing impaired people are asked to communicate in a spoken language, a variety of language not natural to them, language becomes only a carrier. Through the study of sociolinguistics, instructors gain several crucial insights into relations that affect both deaf and hearing individuals. They begin to see (1) how majority cultures, that are hearing in nature, set standards and determine appropriate ways for both deaf and hearing individuals to enter into discursive practices; (2) they come to realize how specific kinds of language instruction are encouraged and supported by those in power; and (3) they begin to recognize how their own teaching of language transmits culture and decides how knowledge is to be defined.

It is also through sociolinguistics that teachers become familiar with the set of socially organized practices that surround language. For, as the study of sociolinguistics has shown, it is social groups, not individuals, who decide what will be the predominant features in given situations. With knowledge of the language practices that keep certain groups subordinate and other dominant within across cultures, university teachers will be better able to challenge from within prescriptive notions of correcteness that render many deaf students "voiceless" in a hearing world.

Second, a linguistically-based pedagogy can help teachers design classroom methodologies that will allow all hard-working students to succeed in their education.

Performance in the classroom is very much a product of pedagogy. A knowledge of cognitive linguistics indicates

language principles and structures must be presented to students in a planned and coherent way. It also demonstrates that language learning must be functional to those learning the language, that is, it must accomplish for its users those things the users wish to do with it. Language, as Halliday has pointed out, evolves in the service of functions that become more abstract and more indirect as language-users become more proficient.

While cognitive linguistics emphasizes that language is never independent from other cognitive functions, applied linguistics also argues that instruction in language needs to be mapped onto existing cognitive skills of students. In fact, applied linguistics shows that for language instruction to be effective, instructors must understand the kinds of pragmatic linguistics assumptions their students have made about the world around them.

Instructors must also have some ideas of the rules that their students have imposed upon language through the phenomenon of their own interlanguage. This kind of knowledge can most effectively be arrived at through an understanding of error analysis and its applications.

Teaching methodologies that come from knowledge of linguistics will, therefore, be interactive in nature. The more language users are able to interact with other users of language, the more they will increase their skills in language and in the meaningful manipulation of the language. Teachers will provide students with as many samples of professionally written texts as they can. But they will make sure that the texts they have selected are lexically and structurally available to their students. Since many, if not all, complex academic texts

are inaccessible to most deaf students, instructors who have a grasp of linguistics will take the time to find high-quality readings that are comprehensible.

Realizing that hearing impaired students may experience Czech sign language and maybe even Czech language interference in their English, instructors who have knowledge of linguistics will also be able to devise revision agendas that are personalized and manageable, agendas that do not frustrate or embarrass the students they are supposed to assist. How one learns, cognitive linguistics tells teachers, is just as important as what one learns, since the latter depends upon the former. A linguistically-based instruction, therefore, will enable deaf students to achieve academical success and will influence how they view themselves and the hearing world.

Third, a linguistically-based pedagogy can help teachers understand how English texts and academic texts are structured and enable them to find ways of sharing that understanding with deaf students.

Since form and function in language are so closely related, knowledge of text linguistics is essential for instructors whose goal is to maximize the possibility of student success.

Although linguistics has a highly technical foundation and specialized vocabulary, it is not essential that the instructor who wishes to teach English knows everything about its functions. By involving their students in discussions about their accomplishements, instructors who "know what they are supposed to teach" will help students grow into appreciation and understanding of the things they

are studying. From such appreciation comes linguistic growth.

RÉSUMÉ

Disertační práce s názvem Výuka anglického jazyka pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty vysokých škol si klade za cíl přiblížit z hlediska lingvistického i metodologického problematiku výuky anglického jazyka na vysokých školách, zejména pak na Karlově univerzitě v Praze.

Práce je primárně rozdělena na dvě hlavní části. Úvodní část práce se zabývá obecnou sondou do problematiky jazykových kompetencí a jejich nabývání, rovněž i z hlediska lingvistického, u osob se sluchovým postižením. Ukazuje proměnné, které hrají, nebo mohou hrát roli při nabývání mluveného jazyka osobami se sluchovým postižením. Dále popisuje základní rozdělení těchto osob z medicínského pohledu, tj. na základě ztráty sluchu a vyzvdvihuje nutnost vzdělávání těchto studentů na základě lingvistických zkoumání, výzkumů a zjištění. Je zde popsána nutnost propojení lingvistiky s pedagogikou a přínos lingvistických výzkumů a postupů, jako jsou chybová analýza a kontrastivní analýza pro rozvoj produktivních dovedností studentů se sluchovým postižením

Druhá část práce je vlastní konkrétní výzkumná část týkající se výuky anglického jazyka v rámci povinného základu studentů se sluchovým postižením na Univerzitě Karlově v Praze. Práce shrnuje výsledky pětiletého působení doktorandky jako lektorky anglického jazyka pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty v Mediatéce Filozofické fakulty Univerzity Karlovy v Praze. Popisuje postupy, strategie a metodologie při výuce a poukazuje na možná řešení k zefektivnění výuky. Disertační práce rovněž představuje

činnost Mediatéky jako mezinárodního a špičkově vybaveného jazykového pracoviště a jeho přínos pro rozvoj výuky jazyků, zejména pak jazyka anglického s ohledem na české vysokoškolské neslyšící, Neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty.

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http://www.deafed.net/pagetext.asp?hdnpageid=120

http://www.esltower.com/VOCABSHEETS/Time/time.html

http://www.langschool.eu/textbooks

http://www.gallaudet.edu/clerc_center/information_and_resources/info_to_go/language_and_literacy/literacy_at_the_clerc_center/welcome_to_shared_reading_project/15_principles_for_reading_to_deaf_children.html

http://www.gallaudet.edu/tip/english-center.html

http://www.examenglish.com/CEFR/B1.htm

http://www.bda.org.uk/vacancies/doncaster-school-deaf-teacher-deaf

http://www.teachingheart.net/f.html

http://www.missionfinder.org/educators.html

http://www.raisingdeafkids.org/learning/reading/ways.php

http://www.readingonline.org/articles/loeterman/

http://www.schooltrain.info/deaf_schools/schools_map.htm

http://www.as.wvu.edu/~scidis/hearin.html

http://www.darelearning.eu/en.about_the_project.html

http://www.batod.org.uk/

http://www.deaflinx.com/DeafEd/howteach.html

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1 Example of Grammar and Vocabulary Exercises

drink	say
drive	send
hear	sit
read	swim
run	think

A) Put the right verb into the right place in the sentence and put it in the Past Simple form. (The words highlighted yellow are your new vocabulary.)

1) I was in a pub yesterday and only one beer.

2) I about his offer for a while.

3) Susan that she didn´t like the restaurant at all.

4) Linda her husband talking in his sleep.

5) The thief away from prison.

6) Jack them a letter of complaint last week.

7) There was ice on the road so I very carefully.

8) John in the sea for the first time in his life.

9) I an interesting book last week. I can lend it to you.

10) Paul down and waited for the manager to come.

Solution.

1) I was in a pub yesterday and only drank one beer.

2) I thought about his offer for a while.

3) Susan said that she didn´t like the restaurant at all.

4) Linda heard her husband talking in his sleep.

5) The thief ran away from prison.

6) Jack sent them a letter of complaint last week.

7) There was ice on the road so I drove very carefully.

8) John swam in the sea for the first time in his life.

9) I read an interesting book last week. I can lend it to you.

10) Paul sat down and waited for the manager to come.

drink say

drive send

hear sit

read swim

run think

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VOCABULARY 1

think about

(an) offer

for a while

at all

(a) thief - pl. thieves

prison

(a) complaint

carefully

(to) lend

(to) borrow

(to) borrow money from a bank

(to) sit down

- ing X – ed - ADJECTIVES

Handout, page 197/ exercises 98.2 and 98.3

98.2. Choose the correct word. (The words highlighted yellow are your new vocabulary.)

Solution.

1 I was **disappointed** with the film. I had expected it to be better.

2 Are you **interested** in football?

3 The football match was very **exciting**. I enjoyed it.

4 It's sometimes **embarrassing** when you have to ask for money.

5 Do you easily get **embarrassed**?

6 I had never expected to get the job. I was really **amazed** when I was offered it.

7 She has really learnt very fast. She has made **astonishing** progress.

8 I didn't find the situation funny. I was not **amused**.

9 It was a really **terifying** experience. Afterwards everybody was very **shocked**.

10 Why do you always look so **bored**? Is your life really so boring?

11 He's one of the most **boring** people I've ever met. He never stops talking and he never says anything **interesting**.

VOCABULARY 1

think about

(an) offer

for a while

at all

(a) thief - pl. thieves

prison

(a) complaint

carefully

(to) lend

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(to) sit down

- ing X – ed - ADJECTIVES

Handout, page 197/ exercises 98.2 and 98.3

98.2. Choose the correct word. (The words highlighted yellow are your new vocabulary.)

Solution.

1 I was disappointed with the film. I had expected it to be better.

2 Are you interested in football?

3 The football match was very exciting. I enjoyed it.

4 It s sometimes embarrassing when you have to ask for money.

5 Do you easily get embarrased?

6 I had never expected to get the job. I was really amazed when I was offered it.

7 She has really learnt very fast. She has made astonishing progress.

8 I didn t find the situation funny. I was not amused.

9 It was a really terifying experience. Afterwards everybody was very shocked.

10 Why do you always look so bored? Is your life really so boring?

11 He s one of the most boring people I ve ever met. He never stops talking and he never says **anything interesting.**

VOCABULARY 2

disappointed

(to) be interested in ...

exciting

embarrassing

amazing

(to) offer

astonishing

amusing

teryffying

afterwards

really

98.3. Complete each sentence using a word from the box. (The words highlighted <mark>yellow</mark> are your new vocabulary.)

amusing/amused	<mark>annoying/annoyed</mark>	boring/bored
<mark>confusing/confused</mark>	<mark>disgusting/disgusted</mark>	exciting/excited
<mark>exhausting/exhausted</mark>	interesting/interested	<mark>surprising/surprised</mark>

1 He works very hard. It´s not *surprising* that he´s always <mark>tired</mark>.

2 I´ve got nothing to do. I´m _____ .

3 The teacher´s explanation was _____ . Most of the students didn´t understand it.

4 The kitchen hadn´t been cleaned for ages. It was really _____ .

5 I <mark>seldom</mark> visit art galleries. I´m not particularly _____ in art.

6 Ther´s no need to get _____ just because I´m a few minutes late.

7 The <mark>lecture</mark> was _____ . I fell asleep.

8 I´ve been working very hard all day and now I´m _____ .

9 I´m starting a new job next week. I´m very _____ about it.

10 Steve is very good at telling funny stories. He can be very _____ .

11 Liz is a very _____ person. She knows a lot, she´s travelled a lot and she´s done lots of different things.

VOCABULARY 2

disappointed

(to) be interested in ...

exciting

embarrassing

amazing

(to) offer

astonishing

amusing

teryffying

afterwards

really

98.3. Complete each sentence using a word from the box. (The words highlighted yellow

are your new vocabulary.)

amusing/amused annoying/annoyed boring/bored

confusing/confused disgusting/disgusted exciting/excited

exhausting/exhausted interesting/interested surprising/surprised

1 He works very hard. It s not surprising that he s always tired.

2 I ve got nothing to do. I m _____.

3 The teacher s explanation was _____ . Most of the students didn t understand it.

4 The kitchen hadn t been cleaned for ages. It was really _____ .

5 I seldom visit art galleries. I m not particularly _____ in art.

6 Ther s no need to get _____ just because I m a few minutes late.

7 The lecture was _____ . I fell asleep.

8 I ve been working very hard all day and now I m _____ .

9 I m starting a new job next week. I m very _____ about it.

10 Steve is very good at telling funny stories. He can be very _____ .

11 Liz is a very _____ person. She knows a lot, she s travelled a lot and she s done lots of different

things.

Solution.

1   He works very hard. It´s not *surprising* that he´s always tired.

2   I´ve got nothing to do. I´m bored.

3   The teacher´s explanation was confusing. Most of the students didn´t understand it.

4   The kitchen hadn´t been cleaned for ages. It was really disgusting.

5   I seldom visit art galleries. I´m not particularly interested in art.

6   There´s no need to get annoyed just because I´m a few minutes late.

7   The lecture was boring. I fell asleep.

8   I´ve been working very hard all day and now I´m exhausted.

9   I´m starting a new job next week. I´m very excited about it.

10   Steve is very good at telling funny stories. He can be very amusing.

11   Liz is a very interesting person. She knows a lot, she´s travelled a lot and she´s done lots of different things.

VOCABULARY 3

annoying

confusing

disgusting

exhausting

surprising

tired

seldom

lecture

Solution.

1 He works very hard. It's not surprising that he's always tired.

2 I've got nothing to do. I'm bored .

3 The teacher's explanation was confusing . Most of the students didn't understand it.

4 The kitchen hadn't been cleaned for ages. It was really disgusting .

5 I seldom visit art galleries. I'm not particularly interested in art.

6 There's no need to get annoyed just because I'm a few minutes late.

7 The lecture was boring. I fell asleep.

8 I've been working very hard all day and now I'm exhausted.

9 I'm starting a new job next week. I'm very excited about it.

10 Steve is very good at telling funny stories. He can be very amusing .

11 Liz is a very interesting person. She knows a lot, she's travelled a lot and she's done lots of

different things.

VOCABULARY 3

annoying

confusing

disgusting

exhausting

surprising

tired

seldom

lecture

E1

APPENDIX 2 Example of Writing by Different Students

At Easter I was not home. I was at the cottage with your friends. It's a cottage in a small village near Pilsen. There is a very beautiful nature. When we went for walks, I always stopped to admire the beauty. We went on a bike to the pond. I wanted to go swimming, but the water was ledová.V Friday night we roasted. On Sunday we grilled and watched movies. On Monday we went back to Prague and on Tuesday I went to školy.Byl beautifully spent the weekend in the beautiful countryside.

Mary

Marie, I had been in Italy one weeks with project which was intensive integration (I would like to say more inclusion) deaf and hearing people, was very strong experience. Now I am back at FF, don't please worry about me! :-) You have right, to translate book's Paddy Ladd need really take spare time which I just don't have it now. :-(We will can discuss after English class on Thursday.

Please I am sorry that I didn't write first exam English, can I do this week? I was and am really being busy however I will do it!

Regards
Honza

To: Thai Cookery School in Chiang Mai
Email: cookery@cookery.com

Hello dear Cookery!

Immediately I am writing to ask for your Thai food. I am pretty much interested in your Thai vegetable food. I am deaf vegetarian and I live in Prague of Czech Republic. I would like information about your vegetarian and vegan cooking of Thai, especially program courses with translate of any sign languages or tutor with disability person.

I will be staying in Chiang Mai for 3 weeks in July. Could you send me some information about these intensive courses and details of a sign language interpreter for deaf people? I would also like to know the starting dates of the summer courses and price includes accommodation. If is possible, I will to get certificate of intensive courses food? I would like to teach deaf people in Prague.

Many thanks for your advice.

I look forward to hearing from you.
Best wishes,
Jan

APPENDIX 3   Example of Speaking Via Chat

9:56 **Michal**: Byli jste pozváni do této chatovací místnosti.
9:57 **já**: Ok. Ready?
 Michal: Good morning :)
 Jan: Good morning:-)
 Michal: Ok
   Problem Milan?
9:59 **já**: How do you feel?
 Jan: Yes, as always
 já: Bad or good ?
 Jan: I fine.
 Michal: I fine
 Jan: Good.
 já: I am fine too.
 Milan se připojil(a)
 Milan: Dobrý den
10:00 **Michal**: I teším se home :)
 já: English, please.
 Milan: Ok.
 já: Today, I want to talk about free time.
   What is your favourite thing you do in your free time?
10:01 **Michal**: Today, I go to home.
 Milan: I go to the beach:-)
 já: Michal, is it what you like doing?
 Jan: I sleep.
 já: Me too. I love sleeping
10:02 **Jan**: Yes
 já: Milan, what do you love doing?
 Milan: Yes, I sleep.
 Michal: is it what you like doing?= co máš rád?
 já: Do you like travelling?
10:03 **Jan**: Sometimes
   .
 já: Ano. what do you like doing=co rád děláš?
   Which country?
 Milan: Yes, I like travelling.
 Michal: I am like fintess.
 já: Which country/countries?
10:04 You like fitness? Like body building?
 Milan: In the Italy.
 Jan: In the Czech republic:-)
 já: Italy? Interestin. Why?
   Czech Republic? That is not travelling.
   Interesting
 Michal: Yes, I like travelling po ceklém world.
10:05 **Jan**: But is:-)
 Michal: Yws, I like fintess or víc sport.
 já: Travelling all around the world=po celém světe
10:06 But it is
 Jan: Thank you
 já: Where did you go last year?
 Milan: I like Italy because it the more a seightseeing.
10:07 moře
 já: So you like old buildings? What about food?
   Michal. Do you like travelling?
 Jan: Fitness? I have match tomorrow.
 já: Where did you go last year?
 Michal: I go last year only Czech.
 já: Fitness=posilování
10:08 Match-what match?
 Milan: I went to the Italy last year.

Jan: Football.
Michal: Yes, Fitness
já: So you WERE in the Czech Republic?
10:09 **Michal**: I went last year only Czech.
já: Where did you go in the Czech Republic?
Jan: I to Croatia.
já: You WENT to Croatia?
Jan: Yes.
10:10 **Michal**: I was in work and a home.
já: When did you go there?
Milan: I was all ower in the Czech republic
já: Michal, are you a workoholic?
Michal: Yes, I am workoholic :)
10:11 **já**: Who did you go with?
Jan: Last year.
já: Who = person
 Who= kdo
Jan: With my ex-girlfriend.
10:12 **Milan**: Yes, I am too workoholic..:-(
já: I see. Thank you.
 So we have a class full of hard-working people. O, dear. Honza I hope you are "normal"
10:13 Michal. Who did you go with?
Jan: What?
já: Milan where did you go last year and who did you go with.
 I am asking Michal and Milan.
10:14 Honza. How long did you stay there?
Jan: A week.
Michal: I am not know, who was ...
Milan: I went with deafs to the Italy.
já: Where did you stay?
 Went to Italy.
10:15 **Jan**: In Croatia on camping.
já: to the Italy - wrong
 What did you do there?
 Michal, are you OK?
10:16 **Michal**: Yes, I am fine.
Milan: I stayed in the apartman.
já: GOOD. I thought you were sleeeping :)
10:17 **Michal**: Who?
já: You
Michal: I?
Jan: We went swimming, then we went to restaurant at night.
já: Did you have any problems there?
10:18 **Michal**: ??
já: Michal and Milan, can you explain to Honza the words = nápisy, které jsem vám psala na začátku hodiny. Zkuste anglicky
10:19 **Jan**: Yes, I had carred skin of back.
Milan: Organ?
10:20 Hozna ok?
já: Sorry, Honza?
Milan: Organic!
já: I do not understand.
Michal: Out of order? Honza
Jan: I don't know.
10:21 **Milan**: Ok..
Michal: Ok...
 Mimo provoz.
10:22 **Milan**: Organic===== Bio
já: I burnt my skin= I got sunburnt.
10:23 **Milan**: Hoznz, Organiz === Bio, ok?
10:24 **Jan**: organic is základní
Milan: Mi dal za ukol prelozit co to je, nebot budeme v Anglii casto vidat, Honzo chapes
Jan: out of order is mimo provoz
Michal: Yes :)

Milan: yes
10:25 Lift to the 2nd floor?
 Do you know?
Jan: Buy 1 get 1 free is koupit 2 věci a jedna je ydarma
Milan: Hozna?
Jan: .
10:26 zdarma
Milan: yes
Michal: Honzo, please vysvetli what it is?
Milan: Lift.....
Michal: Lift to the 2nd floor?
10:27 **Jan**: Výtahem na druhé patře.
Michal: ys
 yes
Milan: správně!
já: No,
 výtah DO druhého patra
 Ok. Now Honza, do you understand all the expressions, that are on the flipchart?
10:28 We have to finish. By bye.
Michal: bye bye :)
Jan: Now it is.
 Buy buy a nice day:-)
10:29 *Jan se připojil(a)*
 Milan se připojil(a)
 Michal se připojil(a)

pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty 1 -

Anglický název:	English for the Deaf and Hard-of-Hearing- Beginners
Český název:	Angličtina pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty 1 - začátečníci
Zajišťuje:	Ústav jazyků a komunikace neslyšících (21-UJKN)
Fakulta:	Filozofická fakulta
Platnost:	od 2013
Semestr:	zimní
Rozsah, examinace:	zimní s.:0/4 Z [hodiny/týden]
Body:	zimní s.:0
E-Kredity:	zimní s.:1
Způsob provedení zkoušky:	zimní s.:
Rozsah za akademický rok:	
Počet míst:	neurčen / neomezen (neurčen)
Minimální obsazenost:	neomezen
Stav předmětu:	vyučován
Jazyk výuky:	angličtina
Způsob výuky:	prezenční
Úroveň:	základní
Pro druh:	

Garant: PhDr. Daniela Janáková, CSc.
Mgr. Marie Doležalová

Rozvrh   Nástěnka

▶**Export:**

typ: [--- ▾]   jazyk: [česky ▾] [Uložit]

Anotace

Poslední úprava: JAN/DOL (1.2.2014)

Kurz je určen výhradně pro nedoslýchavé a neslyšící studenty z celé UK.
Kurz je jednosemestrální, 2x2 hod. týdně. Cíl kurzu: Kurz je určen pro Neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty ze všech fakult Univerzity Karlovy, kteří teprve s angličtinou začínají nebo mají pouze základní povědomí o jazyce a jeho struktuře.
Po skončení kurzu by studenti měli být na úrovni A1 CEFR.

Literatura

Základní učebnice:
OXENDEN, Clive a Christina LATHAM-KOENIG. *New English file: elementary*. 1st pub. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010.
PETERS, Sarah a Tomáš GRÁF. *Time to Practise: velká cvičebnice anglické gramatiky*. 1. vyd. Praha: Polyglot, 2007.
LONG, Paddy a Jana KMENTOVÁ. *Step by step 1: angličtina nejen pro samouky*. 2. vyd. Plzeň: Fraus, 2007.
HARRISON, Richard, Liz SOAR a John SOAR. *New headway academic skills: reading, writing, and study skills*. 1st pub. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2006.

Doplňkové materiály:
MURPHY, Raymond. *English grammar in use: a self-study reference and practice book for intermediate learners of English : with answers*. 5th ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2012.
GOODSTEIN, Astrid a Margaret WALWORTH. *Interesting Deaf Americans: reading and writing exercices*. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet University Press., 1979.
SHAPIRO, Norma a Jayme ADELSON-GOLDSTEIN*. The Oxford picture dictionary,* OUP, 2010.
internet

Sylabus

Náplň kurzu:

Gramatické znalosti: větná stavba anglické věty, sloveso být a mít v přítomném a minulém čase, tvoření množného čísla podstatných jmen, základní užití členu určitého a neurčitého, rod podstatných a přídavných jmen, zájmena osobní, ukazovací a vztažná, vazba "There is/There are", tvoření oznamovacích, tázacích a záporných vět, přítomný čas prostý (Present Simple) plnovýznamových sloves, minulý čas prostý (Past Simple) - způsob jeho tvoření u pravidelných sloves, minulý čas nepravidelných sloves

Lexikální jednotky: časové a místní předložky, antonyma a synonyma přídavných jmen a sloves, určování času, tvary nepravidelných sloves

Témata: Číslovky, Hodiny, Rodina, Studentský život, Lidé a životní prostředí, Počasí, Kultura Neslyšících v USA a Velké Británii

Četba: Nejen v rámci uvedené učebnice se studenti seznamují s lehčími texty, které se týkají různých oblasti, zejména pak vztahujících se ke kultuře a životu Neslyšících.

Poslech: U neslyšících je poslech v hodinách nahrazen chatem.

Písemný projev: neformální email, jednoduché vyprávění, popis

Atestace: Kurz je zakončen zápočtem, který je udělován na základě 70% docházky, 70% přípravy domácích úkolů, napsání 2 testů min. na 70% a aktivní práce v hodině.

nedoslýchavé studenty 2 - ACN300304

Anglický název:	English for the Deaf and Hard-of-Hearing- Beginners
Český název:	Angličtina pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty 2 - začátečníci
Zajišťuje:	Ústav jazyků a komunikace neslyšících (21-UJKN)
Fakulta:	Filozofická fakulta
Platnost:	od 2013
Semestr:	letní
Rozsah, examinace:	letní s.:0/4 Z [hodiny/týden]
Body:	letní s.:0
E-Kredity:	letní s.:1
Způsob provedení zkoušky:	letní s.:
Rozsah za akademický rok:	
Počet míst:	neurčen / neomezen (neurčen)
Minimální obsazenost:	neomezen
Stav předmětu:	vyučován
Jazyk výuky:	angličtina
Způsob výuky:	prezenční
Úroveň:	základní
Pro druh:	

Garant: PhDr. Daniela Janáková, CSc.
Mgr. Marie Doležalová

Rozvrh   Nástěnka

Export:

typ: [---]   jazyk: [česky]   [Uložit]

Anotace

Poslední úprava: JAN/DOL(1.2.2014)

Kurz je určen výhradně pro nedoslýchavé a neslyšící studenty z celé UK.
Kurz je jednosemestrální, 2x2 hod. týdně. Cíl kurzu: Kurz je určen pro Neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty všech fakult Univerzity Karlovy, kteří teprve z angličtinou začínají nebo mají pouze základní povědomí o

tomto jazyce a jeho struktuře.
Po ukončení kurzu by studenti měli být na úrovni A1-A2 CEFR.

Literatura

Základní učebnice:
OXENDEN, Clive a Christina LATHAM-KOENIG. *New English file: elementary*. 1st pub. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010.
PETERS, Sarah a Tomáš GRÁF. *Time to Practise: velká cvičebnice anglické gramatiky*. 1. vyd. Praha: Polyglot, 2007.
LONG, Paddy a Jana KMENTOVÁ. *Step by step 1: angličtina nejen pro samouky*. 2. vyd. Plzeň: Fraus, 2007.
HARRISON, Richard, Liz SOAR a John SOAR. *New headway academic skills: reading, writing, and study skills*. 1st pub. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2006.

Doplňkové materiály:
MURPHY, Raymond. *English grammar in use: a self-study reference and practice book for intermediate learners of English : with answers*. 5th ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2012.
GOODSTEIN, Astrid a Margaret WALWORTH. *Interesting Deaf Americans: reading and writing exercices*. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet University Press., 1979.
SHAPIRO, Norma a Jayme ADELSON-GOLDSTEIN. *The Oxford picture dictionary,* OUP, 2010.
internet

Sylabus

Náplň kurzu:

Gramatické znalosti: tvoření průběhových forem přítomného a minulého času (Present and Past Continuous), a jejich porovnání s formami prostými, stupňování přídavných jmen a příslovcí, vedlejší věty vztažné, předmětné tvary osobních zájmen a zájmena přivlastňovací, tvoření oznamovacích, tázacích a záporných vět, člen určitý a neurčitý a psaní velkých písmen v angličtině, pořádek slov v anglické větě.

Lexikální jednotky: časové a místní předložky, příslovce a přídavná jména, slovotvorba, ustálená slovní spojení, frázová slovesa

Témata: Domov a bydlení, Režim dne, Zájmová činnost a volný čas, Stravování, Roční období, Kultura Neslyšících v USA a Velké Británii

Četba: Nejen v rámci uvedené učebnice se studenti seznamují s lehčími texty, které se týkají různých oblasti zejména pak ve vztahu ke kultuře a životu Neslyšících.

Poslech: U neslyšících je poslech v hodinách nahrazen chatem.

Písemný projev: neformální email, dopis, popis činnosti, návod, instrukce

Atestace: Kurz je zakončen zápočtem, který je udělován na základě 70% docházky, 70% přípravy domácích úkolů, napsání 2 testů min. na 70% a aktivní práce v hodině.

studenty 3 -

Anglický název:	English for the Deaf and Hard-of-Hearing-Pre-intermediate	Garant: PhDr. Daniela Janáková, CSc. Mgr. Marie Doležalová
Český název:	Angličtina pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty 3-mírně pokročilí	
Zajišťuje:	Ústav jazyků a komunikace neslyšících (21-UJKN)	
Fakulta:	Filozofická fakulta	
Platnost:	od 2013	
Semestr:	zimní	
Rozsah, examinace:	zimní s.:0/4 Z [hodiny/týden]	
Body:	zimní s.:0	
E-Kredity:	zimní s.:1	
Způsob provedení zkoušky:	zimní s.:	
Rozsah za akademický rok:		
Počet míst:	neurčen / neomezen (neurčen)	
Minimální obsazenost:	neomezen	
Stav předmětu:	vyučován	
Jazyk výuky:	angličtina	
Způsob výuky:	prezenční	
Úroveň:	základní	
Pro druh:		

Rozvrh   Nástěnka

▶ **Export:**

typ: [--- ▼]   jazyk: [česky ▼]   [Uložit]

Anotace

Poslední úprava: JAN/DOL (1.2.2014)

Kurz je jednosemestrální, 2x2 hod. týdně. Cíl kurzu: Kurz je určen pro Neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty všech fakult Univerzity Karlovy, kteří již absolvovali 2 semestrální studium, tj. kurzy Angličtina pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty 1 a 2. Jedná se o pokračovací kurz. Po skončení kurzu by studenti měli být na úrovni A2 CEFR - úroveň mírně pokročilí.

Literatura

Základní učebnice:
OXENDEN, Clive, Christina LATHAM-KOENIG a Paul SELIGSON. *New English file: pre-intermediate : student's book*. 1. pub. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2007.
PETERS, Sarah a Tomáš GRÁF. *Time to Practise: velká cvičebnice anglické gramatiky*. 1. vyd. Praha: Polyglot, 2007.
LONG, Paddy a Jana KMENTOVÁ. *Step by step 1: angličtina nejen pro samouky*. 2. vyd. Plzeň: Fraus, 2007.
PHILPOT, Sarah, Liz SOARS a John SOARS. *New Headway Academic Skills: reading, writing, and study skills : level 2 : student's book*. 1st publ. 2006, [print] 2010. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010.

Doplňkové materiály:
MURPHY, Raymond. *English grammar in use: a self-study reference and practice book for intermediate learners of English : with answers*. 5th ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2012.
GOODSTEIN, Astrid a Margaret WALWORTH. *Interesting Deaf Americans: reading and writing exercices*. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet University Press., 1979.
SHAPIRO, Norma a Jayme ADELSON-GOLDSTEIN*. The Oxford picture dictionary,* OUP, 2010.
internet

Sylabus

Náplň kurzu:

Gramatické znalosti: vedlejší věty vztažné, spojky "so, because, but, although", vazba "be going to", minulý čas průběhový (Past Continuous), předpřítomný čas prostý (Present Perfect Simple), modální sloveso "must/mustn´t" a jeho opisy, přivlastňovací zájmena "mine, yours"

Lexikální jednotky: antonyma a synonyma přídavných jmen a sloves, sloveso "get", frázová slovesa, idiomy

Témata: Bydlení, Popis osoby - charakter a vzhled, Oblečení, Cestování, Kultura Neslyšících v USA a Velké Británii, Práce a pracovní příležitosti

Četba: Nejen v rámci uvedené učebnice se studenti seznamují s lehčími texty později i akademického rázu z různých oblasti, zejména pak ve vztahu ke kultuře a životu Neslyšících.

Poslech: U neslyšících je poslech ve výuce nahrazen chatem.

Písemný projev: úvaha, rozdíl mezi neformálním a formálním dopisem, článek, příběh, motivační dopis.

Angličtina pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty 4 - ACN300306

Anglický název:	English for the Deaf and Hard-of-Hearing-Pre-intermediate
Český název:	Angličtina pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty 4-mírně pokročilí
Zajišťuje:	Ústav jazyků a komunikace neslyšících (21-UJKN)
Fakulta:	Filozofická fakulta
Platnost:	od 2013
Semestr:	letní
Rozsah, examinace:	letní s.:0/4 Z [hodiny/týden]
Body:	letní s.:0
E-Kredity:	letní s.:1
Způsob provedení zkoušky:	letní s.:
Rozsah za akademický rok:	
Počet míst:	neurčen / neomezen (neurčen)
Minimální obsazenost:	neomezen
Stav předmětu:	vyučován
Jazyk výuky:	angličtina
Způsob výuky:	prezenční
Úroveň:	základní
Pro druh:	

Garant: PhDr. Daniela Janáková, CSc.
Mgr. Marie Doležalová

Rozvrh   Nástěnka

Export:

typ: `---`   jazyk: `česky`   Uložit

Anotace

Poslední úprava: JAN/DOL (1.2.2014)

Kurz je jednosemestrální, 2x2 hod. týdně. Cíl kurzu: Kurz je určen pro Neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty všech fakult Univerzity Karlovy, kteří již absolvovali 3 semestrální studium, tj. kurzy Angličtina pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty 1,2,3. Jedná se o pokračovací kurz. Po skončení kurzu by studenti měli být na úrovni A2 CEFR - úroveň mírně pokročilí.

Literatura

Základní učebnice:
OXENDEN, Clive, Christina LATHAM-KOENIG a Paul SELIGSON. *New English file: pre-intermediate : student's book*. 1. pub. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2007.
PETERS, Sarah a Tomáš GRÁF. *Time to Practise: velká cvičebnice anglické gramatiky*. 1. vyd. Praha: Polyglot, 2007.
LONG, Paddy a Jana KMENTOVÁ. *Step by step 2: angličtina nejen pro samouky*. 2. vyd. Plzeň: Fraus, 2007.
PHILPOT, Sarah, Liz SOARS a John SOARS. *New Headway Academic Skills: reading, writing, and study skills : level 2 : student's book*. 1st publ. 2006, [print] 2010. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010.

Doplňkové materiály:
MURPHY, Raymond. *English grammar in use: a self-study reference and practice book for intermediate learners of English : with answers*. 5th ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2012.
GOODSTEIN, Astrid a Margaret WALWORTH. *Interesting Deaf Americans: reading and writing exercices.* Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet University Press., 1979.
SHAPIRO, Norma a Jayme ADELSON-GOLDSTEIN*. The Oxford picture dictionary,* OUP, 2010.
internet

Sylabus

Náplň kurzu:

Náplň kurzu:

Gramatické znalosti: tvoření minulého času prostého u nepravidelných sloves, otázka a zápor, tvoření budoucího času (Future Tense) za pomoci "will", otázka, zápor, tvoření a základní užití předpřítomného času průběhového (Present Perfect Continuous) a porovnání jeho užití s formami předpřítomného času prostého (Present Perfect Simple), počítatelná x nepočítatelná substantiva, stupňování přídavných jmen a příslovcí, vazba "would like to", slovosled v anglické větě a jeho porovnání se slovosledem v českém znakovém jazyce a v češtině.

Lexikální jednotky: předložkové vazby sloves, antonyma a synonyma přídavných jmen a sloves, přehled anglické slovotvorby, tvoření slov pomocí prefixů a sufixů

Témata: Denní režim, Moje okolí – Architektura a umění, Vzdělávání/Zaměstnání, Technologie - IT, Kultura a zvyky v jiných zemích, Kultura Neslyšících v USA a Velké Británii

Četba: Nejen v rámci uvedené učebnice se studenti seznamují s lehčími texty, které se týkají různých oblastí zejména pak ve vztahu ke kultuře a životu Neslyšících, později s texty odbornými z různých vědních oblastí.

Poslech: U neslyšících je poslech ve výuce nahrazen chatem.

Písemný projev: popis, úvaha, vyprávění, příběh, esej

Atestace: Kurz je zakončen zápočtem, který je udělován na základě 70% docházky, 70% přípravy domácích úkolů, napsání 2 testů min. na 70% a aktivní práce v hodině.

Angličtina pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty 5 -

Anglický název:	English for the Deaf and Hard-of-Hearing-Intermediate	Garant: Mgr. Marie Doležalová
Český název:	Angličtina pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty-středně pokročilí	PhDr. Daniela Janáková, CSc.
Zajišťuje:	Ústav jazyků a komunikace neslyšících (21-UJKN)	
Fakulta:	Filozofická fakulta	
Platnost:	od 2013	
Semestr:	zimní	
Rozsah, examinace:	zimní s.:0/4 Z [hodiny/týden]	
Body:	zimní s.:0	
E-Kredity:	zimní s.:1	
Způsob provedení zkoušky:	zimní s.:	
Rozsah za akademický rok:		
Počet míst:	neurčen / neomezen (neurčen)	
Minimální obsazenost:	neomezen	
Stav předmětu:	vyučován	
Jazyk výuky:	angličtina	
Způsob výuky:	prezenční	
Úroveň:	základní	
Pro druh:		

Rozvrh   Nástěnka

▶**Export:**

typ: [--- ▼] jazyk: [česky ▼] [Uložit]

Anotace

Poslední úprava: JAN/DOL (1.2.2014)

Kurz je jednosemestrální, 2x2 hod. týdně.
Cíl kurzu: Kurz je určen pro Neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty všech fakult Univerzity Karlovy, kteří již

absolvovali 4 semestrální výuku anglického jazyka, tj. Angličtina pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty 1,2,3,4. Jedná se o návazný kurz. Po ukončení kurzu by studenti měli být na úrovni B1 CEFR - středně pokročilí.

Literatura

Základní učebnice:
OXENDEN, Clive, Christina LATHAM-KOENIG a Paul SELIGSON. *New English file: pre-intermediate : student's book.* 1. pub. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2007.
OXENDEN, Clive a Christina LATHAM-KOENIG. *New English file: intermediate : student's book.* 1st pub. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2007.
PETERS, Sarah a Tomáš GRÁF. *Time to Practise: velká cvičebnice anglické gramatiky*. 1. vyd. Praha: Polyglot, 2007.
LONG, Paddy a Jana KMENTOVÁ. *Step by step 2: angličtina nejen pro samouky*. 2. vyd. Plzeň: Fraus, 2007.
HARRISON, Richard, Liz SOAR a John SOAR. *New headway academic skills: reading, writing, and study skills.* 1st pub. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2006.
JANÁKOVÁ, Daniela a Marie DOLEŽALOVÁ. *Developing a creative way of thinking, reading and writing in English*. Prague: ICT Prague Press, 2011-2012.
MANN, Malcolm a Steve TAYLORE-KNOWLES. *Destination B1: grammar & vocabulary : [with answer key]*. Oxford: Macmillan, 2008.
PHILPOT, Sarah, Lesley CURNICK, Liz SOARS a John SOARS. *New Headway Academic Skills: reading, writing, and study skills : level 3 : student's book*. 1st publ. 2007, [print] 2010. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010.

Doplňkové materiály:
MURPHY, Raymond. *English grammar in use: a self-study reference and practice book for intermediate learners of English : with answers*. 5th ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2012.
GOODSTEIN, Astrid a Margaret WALWORTH. *Interesting Deaf Americans: reading and writing exercices*. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet University Press., 1979.
SHAPIRO, Norma a Jayme ADELSON-GOLDSTEIN*. The Oxford picture dictionary,* OUP, 2010.
internet

Sylabus

Náplň kurzu:

Gramatické znalosti: větná stavba anglické věty a její výjimky, opakování tvoření oznamovacích, tázacích a záporných vět, opakování nepravidelných sloves, vyjádření trpného rodu pro přítomný, budoucí a minulý čas, zvláštnosti užití předpřítomného času (Present Perfect Simple), užití předminulého času (Past Perfect Simple) a procvičování časové souslednosti, polopřímá a nepřímá řeč, pravidlo jediného záporu v anglické větě, podmínkové věty a souvětí.

Lexikální jednotky: rozdíly mezi britskou a americkou angličtinou, složitější spojovací výrazy a anglická interpunkce, složená slova, frázová slovesa, kolokáty, anglická přísloví, rozdíly mezi spisovnou a hovorovou angličtinou.

Témata: Studentský život, Lidé a životní prostředí, Základy odborné a akademické angličtiny, Účast na konferenci, Kultura Neslyšících v USA a Velké Británii

Četba: Nejen v rámci uvedených učebnic se studenti seznamují s lehčími texty a později i s texty akademického rázu z různých oblastí, zejména pak ve vztahu ke kultuře a životu Neslyšících.

Poslech: U neslyšících je ve výuce poslech nahrazen chatem.

Písemný projev: úvaha, referát, odborný článek, shrnutí odborného textu, životopis a motivační dopis

Atestace: Kurz je zakončen zápočtem, který je udělován na základě 70% docházky, 70% přípravy domácích úkolů, napsání 2 testů min. na 70% a aktivní práce v hodině.

Angličtina pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty 6 - ACN300308

Anglický název:	English for the Deaf and Hard-of-Hearing-Intermediate
Český název:	Angličtina pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty-středně pokročilí
Zajišťuje:	Ústav jazyků a komunikace neslyšících (21-UJKN)
Fakulta:	Filozofická fakulta
Platnost:	od 2013
Semestr:	letní
Rozsah, examinace:	letní s.:0/4 Z [hodiny/týden]
Body:	letní s.:0
E-Kredity:	letní s.:1
Způsob provedení zkoušky:	letní s.:
Rozsah za akademický rok:	
Počet míst:	neurčen / neomezen (neurčen)
Minimální obsazenost:	neomezen
Stav předmětu:	vyučován
Jazyk výuky:	angličtina
Způsob výuky:	prezenční
Úroveň:	základní
Pro druh:	

Garant: Mgr. Marie Doležalová
PhDr. Daniela Janáková, CSc.

Rozvrh   Nástěnka

typ: `---` ▾ jazyk: `česky` ▾ [Uložit]

Anotace

Poslední úprava: JAN/DOL (1.2.2014)

Kurz je jednosemestrální, 2x2 hod. týdně.
Cíl kurzu: Kurz je určen pro Neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty všech fakult Univerzity Karlovy, kteří již absolvovali 5 semestrální výuku anglického jazyka, tj. Angličtina pro neslyšící a nedoslýchavé studenty 1,2,3,4,5. Jedná se o návazný kurz. Po skončení kurzu by studenti měli být na úrovni B1 CEFR - středně pokročilí.

Literatura

Poslední úprava: JAN/DOL (1.2.2014)

Základní učebnice:
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internet

Sylabus

Poslední úprava: JAN/DOL (1.2.2014)

Náplň kurzu:

Gramatické znalosti: opakování všech probraných anglických časů, užití vazeb s infinitivem s "to", užití gerundiálních vazeb, opakování a rozšíření užití modálních sloves "must, may, might, should" a jejich opisů, podmínková věta 1. a 2. typu, užití vazby "used to/didn´t use to", opakování užití trpného rodu v přítomném a minulém čase, užití přídavných jmen a příslovcí a jejich postavení v anglické větě.

Lexikální jednotky: další rozšiřování slovní zásoby, frázová slovesa, idiomy, kvantifikátory "too, too much, too many, enough", opakování užití zájmen "something, anything, nothing, somebody, somewhere

Témata: Moderní technologie - IT, Svět kolem nás, Lidé: minulost a přítomnost, Popis místa a budovy, Cestování, Odborná a akademická angličtina, Kultura Neslyšících v USA a Velké Británii

Četba: Nejen v rámci uvedených učebnic se studenti seznamují s lehčími texty později i s texty akademického rázu z různých oblastí, zejména pak ve vztahu ke kultuře a životu Neslyšících.

Poslech: U neslyšících je poslech ve výuce nahrazen chatem.

Písemný projev: úvaha, článek, příběh, esej, shrnutí a zhodnocení odborného textu, seminární práce na náměty filmové tvorby, zaměřenými na osudy postav se specifickými potřebami a zdravotním postižením

Atestace: Kurz je zakončen zápočtem, který je udělován na základě 70% docházky, 70% přípravy domácích úkolů, odevzdání písemné seminární práce, napsání 2 testů min. na 70% a aktivní práce v hodině.

APPENDIX 5 Flyer of the Language Resource Centre