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# DIPLOMARBEIT / DIPLOMA THESIS

Titel der Diplomarbeit / Title of the Diploma Thesis

„Error Analysis: Written Work of Final Year Mainstream  
vs. CLIL Students”

verfasst von / submitted by

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angestrebter akademischer Grad / in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Magistra der Philosophie (Mag.phil.)

Wien, 2017 / Vienna, 2017

Studienkennzahl lt. Studienblatt /  
degree programme code as it appears on  
the student record sheet:

A 190 344 406

Studienrichtung lt. Studienblatt /  
degree programme as it appears on  
the student record sheet:

Lehramtsstudium UF Englisch UF Mathematik

Betreut von / Supervisor:

Univ.-Prof. Dr. Christiane Dalton-Puffer



## Acknowledgements

Foremost, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Univ.-Prof. Dr. Christiane Dalton-Puffer for her continuous support and incredible patience. Thank you for your kind words of understanding in times of struggle and almost despair. I could not have wished for a better advisor for my thesis.

Astrid and Margit. Thanks for being such great friends and for giving me the final push to cross the finish line. Cathy and Ed, thanks for your help.

Mum, thanks for teaching me that giving up is never an option in life. I cannot thank you enough. The way you live your life is an inspiration and I am proud to have such a strong woman as a mother. Karin, I am fortunate to have you as a friend and sister. Thanks for your great help with the layout of this thesis.

Finally, I would like to thank my husband Sandor, who has been with me all the way. You are my anchor, my safe haven and my greatest supporter.



## **Declaration of authenticity**

I confirm to have conceived and written this paper in English all by myself. Quotations from other authors and any ideas borrowed and/or passages paraphrased from the works of other authors are all clearly marked within the text and acknowledged in the bibliographical references.

Vienna, August 2017 \_\_\_\_\_



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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

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BG	Bungesgymnasium (national grammar school)
BRG	Bundesrealgymnasium (national grammar school with focus on sciences)
CA	Contrastive Analysis
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
EA	Error Analysis
IL	Interlanguage
L1	First language
L2	Second language
LAD	Language Acquisition Device
NVBS	Mainstream Students (non – VBS)
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TL	Target Language
VBS	Vienna Bilingual Schooling



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# 1 INTRODUCTION<sup>1</sup>

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“Any man who does not make himself proficient in at least two languages other than his own is a fool.”  
- Martin H. Fischer (1944)

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) refers to the teaching of content subjects such as Biology or Geography in a foreign language. It is a rather progressive and modern teaching approach in second language education emerging in the nineties (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols. 2008: 10), which enjoys great popularity and has already been introduced in many European countries including Austria. Evidently, when new grounds are broken in education, and from my point of view CLIL constitutes quite a contrast to traditional teaching of content subjects, there is a need of evaluation and assessment. Next to process oriented research focussing on for example the implementation of CLIL programs or methodologies employed by CLIL, many researchers have gathered data and have analysed the outcomes of CLIL, either concentrating on the language or content achievements of students<sup>2</sup>. With this thesis, that is concerned with specific aspects of a CLIL program implemented in several schools in Vienna called VBS (Vienna Bilingual Schooling), I would like to contribute to the research focussing on the language benefits of CLIL.

The central questions of this thesis are fundamental to CLIL research in general, namely: Are we or why are we convinced that the CLIL approach is beneficial? What effect does CLIL have on the language competence of students? On the one hand, there are theories of second language acquisition (SLA) research supporting the CLIL approach; on the other hand so called outcome-oriented studies investigating the achievements of CLIL students attempt to prove the positive impact of CLIL on language skills. This paper has its focus on written competence and explores the lexico-grammar in the essays of VBS and non-VBS students, which is particularly interesting

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<sup>1</sup> Parts of the Introduction have already been published in my article “Lexico-Grammar in the Essays of CLIL and non-CLIL Students: Error Analysis of Written Production”. (Ackerl 2007)

<sup>2</sup> Research on CLIL: International CLIL Research Journal: <http://www.icrj.eu> (4 September, 2013)

when bearing in mind that the effect of CLIL on the acquisition of the target language production is a matter of great debate (Gabe & Stoller 1997: 6).

In this paper I am attempting to determine whether at the end of their school career VBS-pupils have reached a higher level of written proficiency than mainstream (non-VBS) pupils due to their exposure to a different language environment. Evidently, this undertaking is outcome-oriented centring the end product of a learning process and not the process itself. Nonetheless central aspects accounting for the idiosyncratic approach of CLIL are surveyed from a theoretical point of view.

To begin with in chapter 2 a general definition of the term CLIL is provided. It attempts to give the reader a clear impression of what the term content and language integrated learning (CLIL) comprises and where this fashionable, revolutionary but maybe not so “new” teaching approach originates from. Recent socioeconomic developments in Europe lead to a need of increased language competence in one or more second languages. Therefore, new teaching methodologies such as CLIL have evolved. The five dimensions of CLIL (in other words the goals of CLIL), the cultural, environment, language, content and learning dimension, are listed and explained.

However, CLIL programs themselves differ in various aspects regarding their implementation. Therefore a short description of specifics regarding the VBS program will be provided. VBS offers instruction in German and English whereby no language obtains priority and next to language goals dedicates itself to cultural openmindedness and tolerance.

Findings and theories of research in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) are the basis of both the employed analytical method, error analysis, of this thesis as well as the CLIL approach itself. Therefore chapter 3 is dedicated to a review of major principles and developments in SLA. First it is attempted to define the term SLA by consulting renowned researchers in the field of SLA and the difference between acquisition and learning is addressed. According to Krashen (1989: 9) comprehensible input is the key to successful language acquisition. Krashen developed a model consisting of five central hypotheses (acquisition-learning, monitor, natural order, input

and affective filter hypothesis) influencing and supporting content based teaching programs (Gabe & Stoller 1997: 6).

Central issues of SLA research are the analysis of learner language in order to gain insight into the second language acquisition process, the investigation of various internal and external factors which further or hinder the learner's progress and more. As this thesis is concerned with samples of written learner language, so production data, it is crucial to address the dilemma of a learner's competence and performance. Is it possible to draw inferences about a learner's language competence from analysing his/her performance? Selinker (1972) coined the term interlanguage to describe the intermediate state of language learners in their second language acquisition process. It is referred to the features of IL (systematic, dynamic, variable, reduced system) and the strategies learners develop to reach their communicative goal such as L1 transfer, transfer of training and overgeneralization.

Based on the learning theory, behaviouristic or mentalistic, different methods of analysing the language learner's IL emerged. In chapter 4 I focus on the relevant historical background in the investigation of errors. The underlying beliefs guiding the individual analytical methods and the claims of central figures in this area such as Lado and Corder (1967, 1972) will be outlined. In particular, contrastive analysis (CA), the predecessor of error analysis (EA), and EA itself will be compared and closely examined. Moreover, different attitudes towards errors and the change of attitudes in the course of time will be discussed in chapter 4.

The process of an EA will be explained in detail in chapter 5. Firstly, a definition of what constitutes an error and various different aspects of errors will be taken into consideration. Next, the investigative steps of identification and description of errors will be described taking into account different error taxonomies. James' (1998) categorization of levels of errors and Dulay, Burt and Krashen's (1982) surface structure taxonomy will be explained and summed up.

The second part of this thesis is devoted to the analysis of errors in the written data collected from five VBS and five non-VBS students. Firstly an overview of the

collection and nature of the written samples is given followed by a short summary of the categories used.

This is immediately followed by the presentation of the results of my thorough analysis. Naturally the quantitative figures of my study will be accompanied and supported by tables and diagrams, which allow for a good overview. Further, errors will be categorized and subcategorized according to the error categories addressed in the theoretical part of this thesis. Although also spelling and punctuation will be taken into account most attention will be paid to the analysis of lexico-grammatical errors. The main goal was to determine differences and similarities in the errors of the both learner groups. Then I attempted to draw inferences based on the results gained from a close inspection of the written samples. For example, a major part of this chapter will be dedicated to developing theories on why certain errors occurred or did not occur. Explanations for certain linguistic phenomena will be provided taking into account – next to the errors – the circumstances of production, the difference in genre, vocabulary, sentence length and mostly findings from other researchers. Basically the following questions will be paid attention to.

- What are the reasons for certain errors and are they rooted in the learners' first language (L1)?
- What explanations can be found for the differences in the errors of both learner groups?
- What conclusions can be drawn on the absence of certain errors?

And of course, the overall research question is always:

- Has the interlanguage of VBS learners progressed farther due to CLIL instruction?



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## 2 CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING<sup>3</sup>

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### 2.1 What is CLIL?

Educational settings in which content subjects for example History, Geography or Biology are taught by means of a language which is not the student's first language are referred to as Content and Language Integrated Learning, known as CLIL (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 11). In theory, CLIL could involve any foreign language as a medium of instruction, the predominant one, however, around the world and in particular in Europe is English (Dalton-Puffer 2007: 1), which is also called the "unofficial language of the European Union" by Niemeier (2008: 25).

When consulting relevant literature concerned with first and second language learning it becomes obvious that a consensus has not yet been reached in regard to terminology<sup>4</sup> referring to such language environments. According to Dalton-Puffer (2002: 4), the term *Englisch als Arbeitssprache* was for a while preferred in the Austrian teaching context. However, nowadays CLIL has established itself as the prevalent term in the European context (Dalton-Puffer & Nikula 2006a: 2) and will thereby be used throughout this thesis.

Before CLIL became popular in the European context in the 1990s, teaching in a foreign language was mainly employed in special social or linguistic contexts for example in border regions (Marsh 1999: 11). The most prominent example is the Canadian immersion program, which was introduced in the 1970s. In this linguistically distinctive area with both English and French as official languages there was a need for an education providing for this reality. Therefore, English-speaking students were taught in French in order to expedite their L2 language skills. The enormous success of

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<sup>3</sup> Parts of chapter 2 have already been published in my article "Lexico-Grammar in the Essays of CLIL and non-CLIL Students: Error Analysis of Written Production". (Ackerl 2007)

<sup>4</sup> For a selection of terms visit <http://www.content-english.org/> (07.03.2007)

this program has attracted the attention of many researchers and gave the impetus to reconsider foreign language teaching practices (Eurydice 2006: 7).

CLIL, although surely a modern and progressive teaching approach, can actually be traced back to the Middle Ages when Latin was used as the instructive language in the classrooms. Hence, what gave rise to the CLIL approach in the early 1990's "in the state-financed formal education systems of European countries, which have been strongly oriented towards the conceptionally monolingual nation state since the 19<sup>th</sup> century" (Dalton-Puffer 2008: 1)? Dalton-Puffer addresses the new demographic realities in Europe, which put the monolingual teaching practices aimed at a homogenous speech community into question. Immigration led to a mixture of many cultures and therefore picturing a uniform language community based on national borders is out of touch with reality. (Dalton Puffer 2007: 2-3)

Moreover, the European Commission "called for measures to promote language learning and linguistic diversity" (2003: 4) and further envisions that "[e]very European citizen should have meaningful communicative competence in at least two other languages in addition to his or her mother tongue" (2003: 4). As the students' communicative skills - gained in traditional language classrooms - were found to be insufficient to meet the challenges in a reality of globalization and internationalization (a survey conducted by the European Union displays that not even 40% of Europeans consider their L2 competence good enough to be able to converse about every-day subjects with a native speaker quoted in Wolf (2005: 10)), there was room for new methodologies to enter the classrooms (Dalton-Puffer 2007: 2).

CLIL's potential as an innovative approach is recognised and becomes part of the measures proposed in the Action Plan issued by the European Union. What makes this type of provision so attractive is that it facilitates L2 acquisition for immediate use, no extra lessons have to be incorporated into curricula and next to language skills students gain more self-confidence (European Commission 2003, 8; Marsh 2003: 1-4). Dalton-Puffer and Smit (2007: 8) further mention that the meaningful content, sometimes absent in the standard language classroom, dealt with in CLIL classrooms leads to increased motivation among students. Another argument in favour of CLIL is that it allows for naturalistic language learning or in other words that it provides a framework

for acquisition rather than learning (Dalton-Puffer 2007: 2; Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2007: 8; Dalton-Puffer & Nikula 2006b: 3). Additionally, CLIL is not restricted to a certain learner group but can be introduced at any level (primary, secondary, tertiary) of language teaching (Wolf 2005: 11). In sum, currently the popularity of CLIL is motivated by the strong demands for a young generation able to communicate with people from all around the globe.

As reflected through the diversity of terms, the content-based approach to teaching is a “method with many faces” (Snow 1998: 244), illustrated in figure 1 below. Dalton-Puffer and Nikula (2006a: 4) point out that European CLIL programs differ in various aspects with regard to “forms of implementation, target audiences, teaching professionals involved and the position of CLIL in the education system”. Therefore, the organisation of the CLIL project *Vienna Bilingual Schooling* will be discussed in more detail in a later section in order to give the reader some insight into the extent to which CLIL is employed there. However, the common denominator of all the existing CLIL programs is the “fusion between content and language” (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 7).

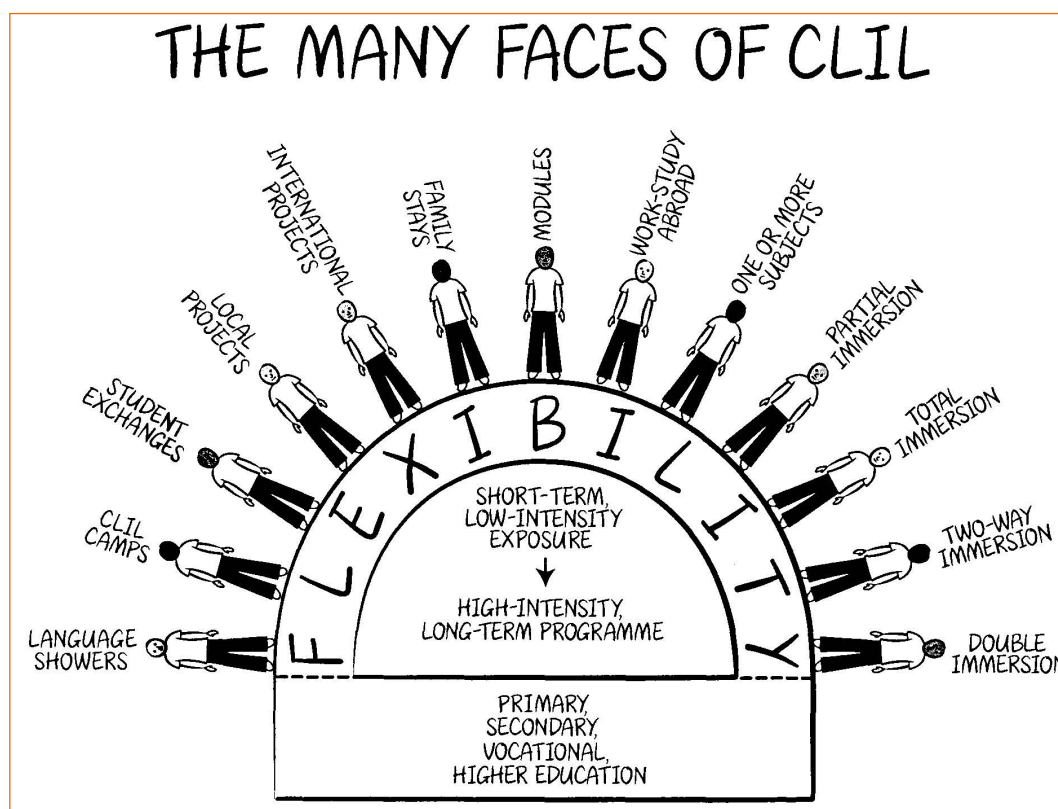


Figure 1: The Many Faces of CLIL (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 13)

Although beneficial, this combination of language and content has always been a matter of discussion. What should one prioritize, language or content? Dalton-Puffer (2007: 5) compares this rivalry to the opera where one finds a similar competitive situation between music and text. The content teachers voiced the obvious concern that less subject knowledge could be conveyed because the additional challenge of learning content through the L2 requires more time. Moreover, it is feared that the subject matter has to be simplified in a detrimental way due to the lower language competence of the students. For the moment the notion of content enjoying primacy over language is hegemonic. Nevertheless, CLIL also requires clear language goals. Whereas for the content based subjects, where one strives to achieve the goals outlined in the respective curriculum, there still exists some uncertainty about what is to be expected language-wise. Dalton-Puffer among other linguists aims to account for this lack of precision when it comes to language goals. (Dalton-Puffer 2008: 5-6).

## 2.2 The Dimensions of CLIL

According to the CLIL Compendium, the focuses of CLIL comprise of five dimensions, namely of the culture, environment, language, content and learning dimension summed up in table 1 below.

Culture dimension	refers to the development of intercultural knowledge and understanding.
Environment dimension	is aimed at EU integration and advancement of the school profile.
Language dimension	involves next to the improvement of target language skills also the aim to arouse interest in languages in general.
Content dimension	acknowledges that content is taught through a foreign language and that therefore special vocabulary is acquired.
Learning dimension	addresses that CLIL advantages different teaching methods and therefore is likely to generate increased motivation.

**Table 1: The Dimensions of CLIL (CLIL Compendium)**

Culture Dimension - What does intercultural knowledge and understanding mean? From my point of view it implies that one is able to communicate in a language that is not his/her L1 with people all over the globe who maybe also have to make use of an L2. In addition, one should be aware of cultural differences and acknowledge them.

Environment Dimension – I believe that a second language especially English is essential to be successfully integrated in the EU but also globally.

Language Dimension – Through CLIL the learner is exposed to a new language and has the chance to acquire communicative competence. Further the understanding of concept and structure of language(s) increases and deepens.

Content Dimension – Apparently if content is taught in a second language the students are equipped with special vocabulary (technical terminology) and are therefore better prepared for their future studies and careers in an international environment.

Learning Dimension - I would argue that the challenges of teaching content in a foreign language demand the implementation of new concepts and special methods in the classrooms. A positive side effect of this development, I would claim, is increased motivation of learners.

These dimensions could also be named aims of CLIL because they constitute the benefits of using the CLIL approach and are probably the reasons for its popularity.

Their role in reference to the VBS project will be discussed in the next chapter. However, it is also crucial to ask the question why it is believed that through the CLIL approach these goals are reached. Often attention is drawn to how successful such programs are but there can also be support from second language acquisition research and conducted studies that target language competence is improved by CLIL as will be discussed further in chapter 3.

### **2.3 Vienna Bilingual Schooling**

Vienna Bilingual Schooling (VBS) is a concept developed for Austrian (more specifically Viennese) mainstream schools from kindergarten up to upper secondary school, which provides for bilingual education in English and German (Vienna Board of Education 2007a). This school initiative project is coordinated by the European Office of the Vienna Board of Education (GRG 23 2007a) and was put into practice in a primary school for the first time in September 1992. Since 1998 it has been introduced on all educational levels currently comprising of seven elementary schools, eight lower secondary schools and two upper secondary schools. The number of bilingual schools remains rather stable since the number of English speaking children in Vienna is not expected to suddenly increase dramatically (Simpson 2006 in Crichton 2006).

Students are instructed in both languages – German and English – in the content subjects by an Austrian subject teacher in collaboration with a native English speaker teacher. It is envisaged that the proportion of the use of either language is equal, thus 50 per cent German and 50 per cent English input. However, subjects like Music, PE or Arts and Technology are taught exclusively in one language, English or German, depending on the respective teacher (GRG23b). More information on the conduction of such lessons and on teacher's qualifications can be found in Crichton's (2006) paper.

Every bilingual class consists of 24 students, on the one hand native or near-native English speakers (in the ideal case 50 per cent) and on the other hand Austrian pupils with German as their first language (Vienna Board of Education 2007 a). In the case of the upper secondary VBS program at the BG and BRG Draschestraße (GRG23c), a class consists of

- Austrian pupils, who have already attended a bilingual class in the lower secondary Pupils, who have “advanced linguistic competence”, which will be checked in a so-called orientation talk
- Native English speakers

This mixture of cultural backgrounds distinguishes VBS from other bilingual projects in Austria, where only Austrian students are taught through the medium of English.

The European Office of the Vienna Board of Education (Vienna Board of Education 2007b) states on its homepage that the principal aim is to enable students to acquire the knowledge prescribed in the Austrian national curriculum. In addition, VBS also focuses on the development of competences in a second language, which cannot be generated in a monolingual environment. Widdowson (1978: 16) argues that

a foreign language can be associated with those areas of use which are represented by the other subjects on the school curriculum and that this not only helps to ensure the link with reality and the pupil's own experience but also provides us with the most certain means we have of teaching the language as communication, as use, rather than simply as usage.

Although it is the goal to have students graduate with a high proficiency in a second language, it is not clearly stated what exactly is meant by this. Furthermore, Dalton (2002: 5) repeatedly draws attention to the fact that explicitly set language objectives are missing.

Since the BG and BRG Draschestraße does not only offer VBS-classes but also regular classes I would dare to claim that the two classroom situations (non-VBS vs. VBS) can, to a certain extent, be compared in terms of the foreign and second language learning mentioned by Norrish (1983: 36f). The former involves learners who are exposed to the target language nearly exclusively in the classroom whereas the second type of learning refers to learners in an environment where the use of English is not restricted to the classroom. Since the students of a VBS class have different language backgrounds and do not share a common mother tongue, English has to be used as a *lingua franca* in order to be able to communicate with their peers and in private interactions after lessons. Furthermore, students are exposed to English in their other subjects and therefore it can be argued that the students of the VBS class are rather second language learners than foreign language learners although Richards and Sampson (1974: 7) claim that second language learners are in contact with the target language “mainly outside the school programme”, which is not really the case here.

However, the VBS program of the BG and BRG Draschestraße (GRG23c), which of course also strives for higher second language proficiency, has also included a further crucial component, namely: “In the bilingual classes special emphasis is put on intercultural learning as well as education towards tolerance and openmindedness”.

In sum, this project was introduced with the overall objectives to enhance the language competence of students by exposure to the target language, to increase the knowledge and understanding of cultural diversities, to attract students, to familiarise students with specialist vocabulary of the content subjects, to prepare students better for their career as well as to enhance motivation, which corresponds to the five dimensions of CLIL mentioned in the section before.



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## 3 SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION - SLA

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In this chapter I attempt to give a review of SLA, which is the field of research my study is associated with. In the previous chapters I frequently referred to SLA without explicitly stating what is actually understood by it. Therefore, it seems reasonable to continue with the definition of SLA, its origin and a survey of SLA research addressing influences, methods, goals, findings and controversies.

### 3.1 Definition of Second Language Acquisition

As pointed out by Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 3), two perceptions of the term SLA exist. The acronym SLA stands on the one hand for “the processes by which people develop proficiency in a second or foreign language” (Richards, Platt & Platt 1995: 325) and on the other hand for “the study of how people acquire a second language” (Ellis 1997a: 3). In order to avoid confusion I will use the label SLA in the first sense referring to the “object of enquiry” (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 3).

However, arriving at an adequate definition of SLA is considerably complex regarding the controversies involved in what is intrinsically understood as *second language* or as *acquisition*. For example the questions must be raised whether SLA also covers foreign as well as third or fourth language acquisition or what is understood by L2 in contrast to L1. Klein (1986: 3), for example, understands first language acquisition as being primary, referring to sequence as well as importance. He refers to the learning of a new language after the completion of the first language acquisition process as SLA, although this distinction becomes loose when considering possible intermediate cases. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 6) and Ellis (1997a: 3) thus argue that “second” in SLA only means later than first language acquisition, which from my point of view is the most innocuous understanding of it.

Does SLA account for *learning* as well as *acquisition*? Does SLA refer to learning in an instructional as well as in a natural environment? According to Bussmann (1996: 417) SLA research tends to focus on natural acquisition in a non-instructional environment in

order to serve as a valid model which can then be exploited for language instruction. Jackson (2007: 97) supports this view and with reference to Krashen's acquisition/learning distinction he uses the term second language learning when instruction is involved. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 1-2), however, advance the view that SLA is primarily associated with school and address both natural as well as directed SLA, stating that "second language acquisition and use are ubiquitous". Also Ellis (1997a: 3) is of the opinion that it is "customary" to use the term SLA for both learning an L2 in a natural environment as well as in the classroom.

Apparently, there is "a lack of clarity", which results in all kind of disagreements which can be found in the respective literature (Seidlhofer 2003: 169). As assessed by Ellis (1989: 4), SLA "is a complex process, involving many interrelated factors". Speaking for myself, I agree with Larsen-Freeman and Long (??) who "use acquisition as the superordinate term for all settings", while of course still acknowledging the acquisition/learning distinction.

### **3.2 Support for CLIL**

As Dalton-Puffer (2002: 5-6) has already highlighted in her paper, it is essential to examine the underlying theories of second language research underpinning the CLIL approach. As teachers we should be aware of why we are convinced that the CLIL approach is beneficial and our arguments should be somehow theoretically informed and not simply assumptions grounded on our common sense knowledge. According to Grabe and Stoller (1997: 6) the theories of Krashen, Swain and Cummins are the "major source of support" for the CLIL approach.

Indeed, Krashen's notion of second language acquisition processes was highly influential reflected in the extensive discussions of it in innumerable publications concerning SLA and is thus also of great relevance to this thesis. In short, in Krashen's theory comprehensible input is in the foreground and constitutes the basis of acquisition (Krashen 1989: 9). The great exposure to meaningful, context-related language input in CLIL will therefore lead to acquisition. This hypothesis has in return been backed by reported success by for example Canadian Immersion programs. Students involved in the programs gained as much subject matter knowledge as non-immersion students and

additionally showed highly increased L2 language abilities especially in terms of their receptive skills (Gabe & Stoller 1997: 6). Nevertheless, writing and speaking skills were not developed as successfully as listening and comprehension skills which led Swain to put forward her comprehensible output hypothesis which responded to the attested limitations (Dalton 2002: 10).

Swain argues that more emphasis needs to be put on the development of productive skills. Supplementary to comprehensible input it is essential for learners to produce output in order to be able to communicate. Learners require opportunities to make use of their linguistic knowledge and should get involved in so-called language learning activities which contain an explicit focus on form (Gabe & Stoller 1997:6; Dalton-Puffer 2002: 8). Furthermore, Cummins whose focus is on the development of cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) pleads for the more content-based approach. He remains of the conviction that

postponing content instruction while students develop more advanced academic language is impractical and ignores students complex educational needs. Students need to be learning content information *while* they are acquiring CALP. (In Gabe and Stoller 1997: 8)

The exploration of the theoretical principles supporting and legitimating the CLIL approach is crucial. In respect thereof Krashen's input theory plays a major role and will therefore be addressed in more detail.

### **3.3 Krashen's Monitor Model**

Krashen devised a model based on five central hypotheses explaining second language acquisition, namely the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the input hypothesis and the affective filter hypothesis (in Mitchell & Miles 1998: 35). The so-called comprehensible input hypothesis especially had a major influence on teaching practices and lent support to content-based instruction, like Canadian immersion programs (Gabe & Stoller 1997: 6). Krashen himself stressed the importance of theory for language pedagogy providing teachers with "an underlying rationale for methodology in general" (1983: 261 in Ellis 1997: 12).

### ***Acquisition – Learning Hypothesis***

According to Ellis (1989: 261), the acquisition-learning hypothesis, which distinguishes between subconscious and conscious processes, “lies at the heart of Krashen’s theory”. Acquisition occurs subconsciously and is comparable to first language acquisition whereas learning results out of conscious studying of rules that govern a language (Krashen 1989: 8). Krashen (1982: 20) himself is convinced that learning is only a supplementary whereas acquisition is the crucial component, which needs to be focused upon in instruction. Johnson (2001: 75) describes acquisition as “the process by which individuals ‘pick up’ a language through exposure to it”. In this sense during content subject lessons acquisition occurs, since the students are not receiving any instructions concerning the language itself and during regular English lessons, which concentrate on knowledge about the language, learning takes place.

In conclusion, this proposed distinction has been found useful and reasonable by many people although no evidence has ever been presented. Hence, it is “more an assumption than a discovery” (Cook 1993: 63).

### ***Monitor Hypothesis***

The Monitor hypothesis gave the model its name and is based on the belief that what has been learnt functions as a checking device or as a Monitor screening the output which has been produced on the basis of acquired knowledge (Krashen 1989: 8). Krashen (1982: 18-19) differentiates three types of monitor users, which are summed up in Table 2 below.

<b>Monitor Over-users</b>	revise their output frequently at the expense of fluency. This overuse might result out of a form-focused instruction or might be due to an insecurity of the speaker.
<b>Monitor Under-users</b>	hardly make use of their monitor either because they do not know the rules or simply choose to abstain from it.
<b>Optimal Monitor users</b>	will access their conscious knowledge of rules whenever it does not impede communication.

Table 2: Types of Monitor Users (Krashen 1982: 18-19)

Since the use of the monitor is dependent on the time available, attention to form not content and knowledge of the respective rule (Krashen in Ellis 1989: 262) plays a major role when writing which allows more time for revision and correction by means of the learnt competence and not so much for speaking (Lightbown & Spada 1999: 38).

For the analysis of my data in the practical part of this paper this hypothesis implies that the mastering of a certain rule is not evidence of acquisition of the rule. In fact, if a student uses a certain construction correctly in one context and incorrectly in another it is obvious that he/she has not acquired the required rules yet has simply made use of the monitor on one occasion and has either ignored or overseen it on another. However, this dilemma will be addressed again in a later section.

### ***Natural Order Hypothesis***

The natural order hypothesis basically draws on findings of the morpheme studies (Lightbown & Spada 1999: 39) carried out in the 1970's, which were aimed at determining an order of acquisition by the investigation of certain morphemes (Ellis 2005: 74). As recorded by Mitchell and Myles (1998: 31-35) most of the conducted studies (Dulay and Burt 1974, Bailey et al. 1974 quoted in Mitchell & Myles 1998) displayed similar results and gave rise to the conclusion that second language learners follow a universal route acquiring features of the target language in a certain order independent of age and setting. Krashen (1985: 1) further draws attention to the fact that rules - which are simple - are not necessarily the ones which are acquired early on, as probably observed by many teachers. Yet individual variability should not be overlooked when regarding this hypothesis. In addition, the morpheme studies have been heavily criticized concerning the elicitation techniques used as well as the assumption that from production inferences about acquisition can be drawn (Mitchell & Myles 1998: 37-38). Nevertheless, it is now widely accepted and supported by further research that learners progress in stages (Lightbown & Spada 1999: 39).

### ***Input Hypothesis***

As seen in the first hypothesis, the overall aim of pedagogy should be to facilitate acquisition. Hence, it is fundamental to figure out how acquisition works in order to do

so. Based on the assumption that learners develop in stages, the point is to discover how learners manage to advance from stage  $i$  to stage  $i+1$  (Krashen 1982: 20).

Krashen's (1989: 9) input hypothesis is based on the argument that "we acquire in just one way – by understanding messages or by obtaining comprehensible input". Comprehensible input is supposed to be just beyond the learner's present state of knowledge. Essential to this claim is that acquisition occurs when messages containing a new rule are understood (Krashen 1989: 9). This is possible because learners next to their linguistic knowledge also access their world knowledge and are able to deduce meaning from context. From his perspective, learners first of all concentrate on meaning and thereby become familiar to the structures of the language, which represents quite a contrast to the procedures adopted in foreign language teaching which tends to commence with a focus on form (Krashen 1982: 21).

Taken literally, it is undoubted that comprehensible input is a necessary condition for SLA, since it is not believed that incomprehensible messages lead to any positive effect concerning language learning (Cook 1993: 60). That "language is best acquired through extensive exposure to comprehensible second language input" constitutes strong support for content based instruction and in return studies concerned investigating Canadian Immersion programs have supported Krashen's hypothesis (Gabe & Stoller 1997: 6). The chief question, however, of how exactly comprehensible input should be defined remains (McLaughlin 1987 in Cook 1993: 60) and this vagueness has yielded criticism from many sides. Moreover, Krashen's input hypothesis was criticised because his theory works in a circular way (Mitchell & Myles 1998: 38, Cook 1993: 60):

- Provision of comprehensible input leads to acquisition.
- Acquisition occurs therefore comprehensible input was given.

Further the implication that speaking is the result of acquisition and hence the result of listening ignoring the importance of output has come under considerable attack (Gregg 1984, McLaughlin 1987, Swain 1985, Baddely 1986 in Cook 1993: 60).

### ***Affective Filter Hypothesis***

However, according to Krashen (1989: 10) comprehensible input alone is not enough. There exists a so-called affective filter, which is low or high and either allows or inhibits acquisition. Factors like psychological state, motivation or needs have an

influence on language acquisition, which according to Krashen explains why learners might fail even though comprehensible input is accessible.

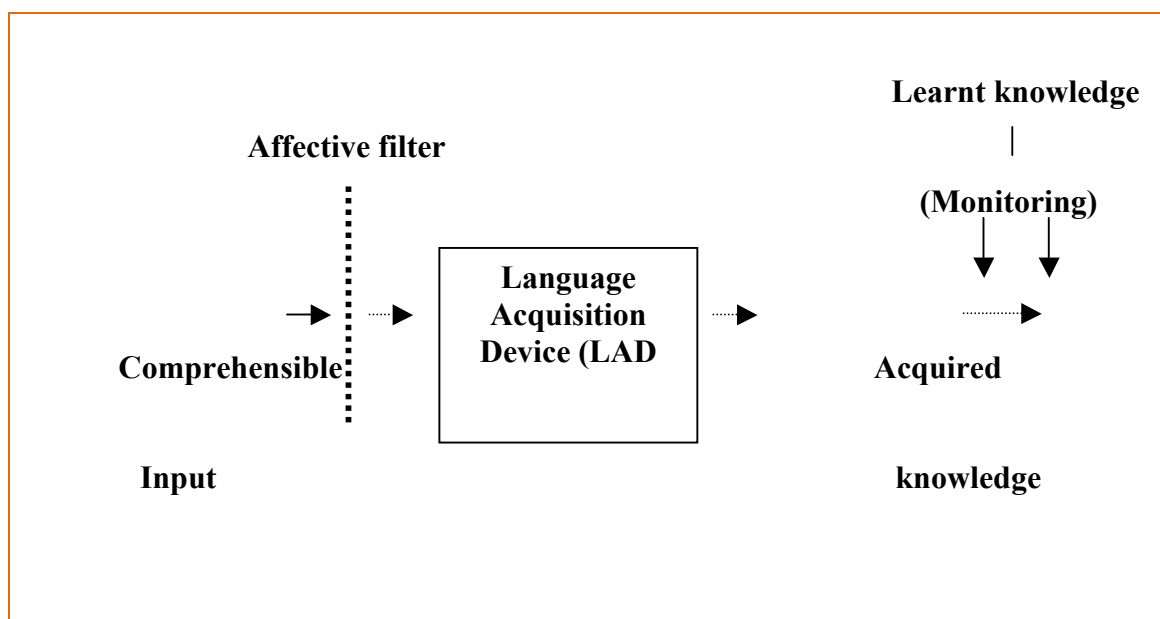


Figure 2: Affective Filter Hypothesis<sup>5</sup>

A major drawback of Krashen's model is that it remained just a theory not empirically tested but used as a reference for pedagogical implications (Mitchell & Myles 1998: 39), such as the natural approach developed by Krashen and Terrell (Johnson 2001: 95). There hardly exists any evidence for his claims, which are more or less based on "a chain of inferences" impossible to verify (Cook 1993: 65).

However, the model is still a major step in attempting to explore SLA and has proved stimulating and influencing SLA research in significant ways (Cook 1993: 65f). It has been praised for its "lucidity, simplicity, and explanatory power" by Ellis (1990: 57 in Cook 1993: 66) and for its connection of various fields such as linguistics, social psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics as well as discourse analysis by Lightbown (1984 in Cook 1993: 66).

### 3.4 SLA Research

The study of SLA established itself as a branch of applied linguistics in the 1970's (Cook 1993: 6) and the article *The Significance of Learner Errors* by Corder (1967) "constitutes the origins of SLA as a field of research" according to Seidlhofer (2003:

<sup>5</sup> cf. <http://homepage.ntlworld.com/vivian.c/SLA/Krashen.htm> (3 Sep, 2009)

170). This chapter will deal with the cornerstones SLA research is based on whereas individual steps in the history of SLA research relevant for this thesis will be thoroughly discussed at a later point.

Klein (1986: 1; similar statement in Byram 2004: 307) “[t]he focus throughout is the learner” and “researchers’ attention was shifted from the teaching process to the learning process” (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991: 5). As pointed out by Ellis (1992: 4) one possibility to gain knowledge about the SLA process would be to consult the learner himself/herself. Although this has proved useful it ignores that the learner is mostly not really aware of his own learning process. Therefore, researchers started to focus on “what learners actually do” (Ellis 1997a: 4). Indeed, the primary source of information on which the research relies on is learner language, “the oral or written language produced by learners” (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 4).

“But what exactly should you look for in samples of learner language?” (Ellis 1997a: 4) Hakuta (1981: 1, in Ellis 1989: 248) argues that the “search for an appropriate level of description for the learner’s system of rules” is the main objective of SLA research. So, one major goal of the study of SLA is to describe how second languages are acquired. As pointed out by Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 2), second languages are learnt under various circumstances and for many different reasons. So what SLA research is primarily interested in are those aspects which relate to all or most learners (Ellis 1989: 4) based on the assumption that “language acquisition is only possible because of an inborn ‘language faculty’” (Singleton 1989: 2). Consequently the question whether a natural order of acquisition exists was asked (Saville-Troike 2006: 43) since SLA seems to be a process exhibiting “certain regularities” (Klein 1986: 1).

Related to this question is another one namely in how far are first and second language processes comparable? (Bussmann 1996: 417). Klein claims that concerning cognitive processing, mental concepts such as “time, space, modality, causality, etc.” (1986: 5) have to be already developed during first language acquisition and are therefore already at the speaker’s command when it comes to SLA. According to him, this fact that some but not all cognitive elements are already available for SLA thus constitutes a crucial difference to first language acquisition. Influenced or inspired by the findings of first language acquisition research in the 1970s, the study of SLA adopted a similar



methodology and next to other things was particularly interested in how far the two processes of language acquisition follow similar lines. Ellis, however, criticizes that although SLA is supposed to comprise of “all aspects of language that the language learner needs to master”, emphasis has been put on syntax and morphology whereas phonology and lexis have been more or less disregarded.

Naturally, not all learners acquire a second language in the same manner. Individual characteristics of the learner as well as of the learning situation are relevant and determine SLA (Ellis 1989: 4). Therefore, another major goal of SLA research is to investigate which external and internal factors have an impact on the acquisition process (Ellis 1992: 4), which factors “determine its course, rate of progress, and final outcome” (Klein 1986: 1). Klein (1986: 1), for instance, argues that SLA is “subject, within certain limits, to external influences such as [...] instruction”. Ellis (1997: 5) also mentions the effect of the status of the L2 affecting the attitude towards the language and as a consequence the motivation of the learner. Furthermore, internal factors such as knowledge of a mother tongue, cognitive mechanisms used to infer rules from the L2 input, general knowledge about the world, communication strategies for example paraphrasing, grammatical knowledge and language aptitude rakishly called “talent for language learning” influence the learning process and progress (Ellis 1997: 5-6). Therefore, stages of development, the phenomenon of fossilization or the accessed previous linguistic knowledge of L2 learners have been central issues for the study of SLA (White 2000: 133).

My analysis, I would argue, focuses on determining what effect the different external conditions the two groups of students are exposed to has on the learner’s L2 competence, more specifically their writing competences.

All in all, it can be said that SLA is a wide field of study, which is concerned with numerous questions relating to the SLA process. At this point it seems reasonable to ask for the motivations governing SLA research. Needless to say that SLA is simply an intriguing issue and therefore has roused intrinsic interest. Mentioned by Cook (1965) in Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 2) it should be acknowledged that there is valuable knowledge which has to be gained in its own right and this opinion about linguistics in

general is also shared by Widdowson who even claims that “[u]nderstanding does not have to be accountable for practical utility” (1996: 75).

However, SLA research has practical value as well. For example, it serves as a resource for teachers on which pedagogical implications can be drawn.

Efficient language teaching must work with, rather than against, natural processes, facilitate and expedite rather than impede learning (Corder 1981: 7).

In order to do so understanding of these natural processes is necessary and this is exactly what SLA research can provide. As already stated earlier, the concept of bilingual education is also informed by SLA findings or theories. Moreover, SLA research has contributed to several other disciplines such as sociolinguistics, anthropology, neurolinguistics or psycholinguistics. All in all, there are obviously plenty of reasons for studying SLA, which has fascinated people, from the antiquity onwards (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991: 2-4).

### **3.5 Learner Language**

As previously mentioned, the actual output of learners is investigated by analyzing samples of learner language. In fact diverse analytical methods have been developed depending on the research question/goal and a range of those are outlined and critically questioned in *Analysing Learner Language* (2005) by Ellis and Barkhuizen. They (2005: 8) distinguish between methods deriving from linguistics such as error analysis, which is employed in this thesis and which regards learner language as expression, and methods borrowed from social sciences such as metaphor analysis, which treat learner language as content. In favour of a full characterisation of L2 acquisition, however, both orientations need to be considered.

So, one could say that samples of learner language are the basis of most SLA research. Notwithstanding, it can be problematic that the retrieved information regarding the learners’ linguistic competence is actually based on the analysis of learners’ performance. Gregg (1990: 377) attacks this inductive approach and argues that not the speaker’s output but his knowledge should be characterized. Ellis (1990: 388 cited in Brown, Malmkjær & Williams 1996: 6) defended the practice of working with performance data by stating that this is the only data accessible and that by drawing

attention to the special character of learners' interlanguage does not allow for putting forward a theory on the basis of "facts". Yet Ellis (1989: 6) admits that a drawback of SLA research is that inferences about a learner's competence can only be drawn on the basis of performance data due to learner language being accessible as opposed to internalized rules stored in the brain of the individual learner.

The competence/performance distinction goes back to Chomsky who states that it is necessary to

[...] make a fundamental distinction between *competence* (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of the language) and *performance*, the actual use of language in concrete situations. (Chomsky 1965: 4)

Although this definition sounds rather straightforward it was used and interpreted differently by many writers leading to confusion (discussed also in Brown, Malmkjær & Williams 1996), which was heavily criticised by Taylor (1988) in his article *The Meaning and Use of the Term 'Competence' in Linguistics and Applied Linguistics* because from his point of view the term competence "has ceased to have any precise meaning" (Taylor 1988: 148). He (1988: 148-149) believes that the major misunderstanding is that writers have often equated knowledge with ability, which was rejected by many authors such as Widdowson (1989) as well as by Chomsky himself.

The term 'competence' entered the technical literature in an effort to avoid entanglement with the slew of problems relating to 'knowledge', but it is misleading in that it suggests 'ability' - an association I would like to sever. Chomsky (1980: 59)

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 5) suggest defining first of all what is understood by *linguistic knowledge* and distinguish between implicit and explicit linguistic knowledge. Everyone accesses implicit knowledge when using his/her mother tongue, for example pre-formulated phrases such as *I don't know*, which are uttered automatically, or knowledge of language rules, which make us capable of expressing ourselves in infinitely many sentences. Explicit knowledge is similar with regards to the schemas and rules that are used to produce meaningful utterances in the respective language, but is conscious knowledge and therefore stored in a different area of the brain. Further, metalanguage, the linguistic jargon necessary to speak about language schemas, constitutes explicit knowledge. So according to Ellis and Barkhuizen, speaking of a learner's competence implies referring to his/her implicit knowledge of a language,

which can only be inferred from the analysis of learner's output/performance the only data available. (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 5-6)

As so often in linguistics researchers do not share one opinion with regards to what sort of data should be analysed in order to gain the most revealing results. Some prefer to investigate the assessment of the grammaticality of certain utterances by learners. Others, including myself, choose to work with samples of learner language as a considerable amount of development is required in terms of being able to distinguish whether a sentence is correct to being able to produce a correct one. (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 5-6)

### 3.6 Interlanguage

The term *interlanguage* (*IL*) has already been used in this thesis but has not yet received the attention it deserves. The term itself was used for the first time by Selinker (1972) acknowledging the learner's linguistic system, different from its L1 but also different from the target language, as a language in its own right (Ellis 1997a: 33) although influences from L1 as well as L2 are not denied (Saville-Troike 2006: 41). The notion of accepting the language learner's grammar as an independent system had actually already been established in the field of L1 research based on Chomsky's work and was found to be true for L2 learners as well (Johnson 1998: 175).

It [interlanguage] represents any intermediate language state between the start of learning and the equivalent of adult native-speaker competence. (Jackson 2007: 116)

Next to interlanguage other terms such as *idiosyncratic dialect* or *transitional competence* (Corder 1971) or *approximative system* (Nemser 1971) were introduced (quoted in Richards & Sampson 1974: 4), but interlanguage is the one that has remained prominent maybe because of "its neutrality of attitude" (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991: 60). However, Bialystok and Sharwood Smith (1985:101) criticise in their article that the term interlanguage "has been used in a variety of contexts and taken on a variety of meanings" but consider this harmless if it is used as "a cover term for all aspects of second-language learner language", which is the case in this thesis.

As already mentioned Corder (1972) coined the term *idiosyncratic dialect* with reference to learner language meaning that interlanguage constitutes a dialect. He argues

that learner's speech is meaningful and rule-governed, therefore has a grammar and consequently must be considered a language. From a linguistic point of view "two languages which share some rules of grammar are dialects" (Corder 1972: 158). The learner's interlanguage is then a dialect because some of the rules of the grammar are exclusively immanent in the learner's interlanguage and some are taken from the target language. This situation is best illustrated by Figure 3.

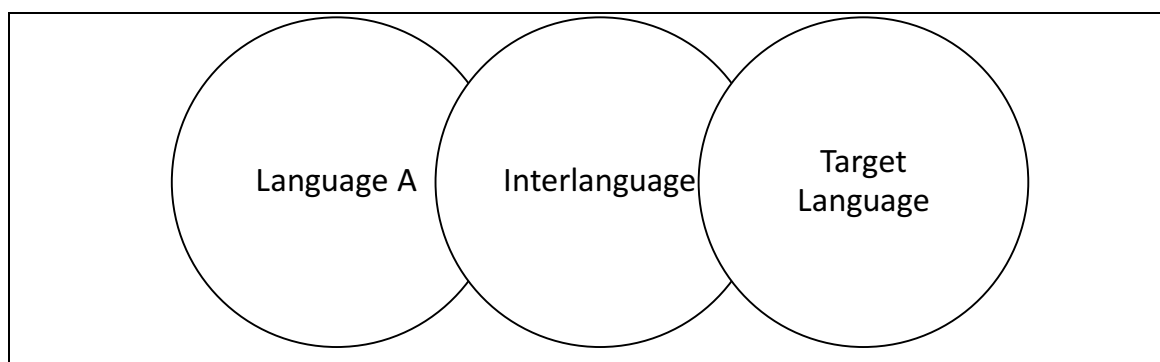


Figure 3: Venn Diagram Interlanguage (on the basis of Corder 1972:162)

Larsen-Freeman and Long suggest imagining interlanguage as "a continuum between L1 and L2" (1991: 60).

The characteristics of interlanguage are summed up in Table 3 below:

systematic	An interlanguage is not random but follows rules, which can be identified when analysing samples of learner language investigating for example errors (Saville-Troike 2007: 41). Ellis (1985: 118) even states "[i]t is now axiomatic that interlanguages are systematic" referring to the acceptance of this claim among linguists.
dynamic transitional permeable	The learner's interlanguage is of course subject to change in the course of the acquisition process (Appel & Muysken 1995: 83; Corder 1972: 160) otherwise the learner is never going to improve. The learner's grammatical system is modified in the course of the learning process. So the learner passes through a series of stages and changes his/her interlanguage constantly. (Saville-Troike 2007: 41; Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 54) To account for the lack of stability Corder (1972: 162) also suggested the term <i>transitional dialect</i> .

variable	<p>Furthermore, it has to be taken into consideration that learner language is variable (Ellis &amp; Barkhuizen 2005: 54; Bialystok &amp; Sharwood Smith 1985: 109). Sometimes the learner uses alternating forms for example at one point using the correct form and at another occasion using an erroneous form (Ellis 1997a: 25). These variations might be random but in general they are systematic depending on conditioning factors such as addressee or time pressure (Ellis &amp; Barkhuizen 2005: 45-55). In the example the student uses three versions of negation in the present tense in the first person singular. In (1a) the student proves that he/she is familiar to the concept nevertheless in example (1b) and (1c) he/she uses erroneous forms. In (1b) the negation for third person singular is used and in (1c) the auxiliary <i>do</i> is omitted.</p> <p>(1a) I don't understand [...] [NVBS 4]  (1b) I <i>doesn't*</i> wan[...] [NVBS 4.10]  (1c) [...] I <i>have not*</i> a job [NVBS 4.15]</p> <p>The variability visible in examples (1a), (1b) and (1c) is called synchronic variability by Bialystok and Sharwood Smith (1985: 110) because the different versions of first person negation concur at one point of time.</p>
reduced system	<p>Reduced system refers to form and function. In comparison to target language less complex grammatical structures can be found in interlanguage due to lack of competence. Additionally, language learners have less communicative needs again compared to native speakers. (Saville-Troike 2006: 41)</p>

**Table 3: Features of Interlanguage**

Selinker identifies five psycholinguistic processes governing interlanguage, which are “central to second language learning” (Selinker 1972: 35). The learners might either employ learning strategies for example L1 transfer, overgeneralization and simplification or they use communication strategies such as paraphrasing to get their communicative message across (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 55).

L1 transfer	<p>Learners of course draw on their L1 knowledge and sometimes transfer L1 concepts to their IL. If this procedure is successful it is called positive transfer, if it interferes with the target language it is called negative transfer (Selinker 1972: 37). Due to a lack of vocabulary, in example (2) and (3) the learners with German as a mother tongue hypothesized that they could transfer the German expression for taking care of the duties in a household and getting up in the morning by literal translation, which in these cases led to negative transfer. Working as a language teacher myself I must say that example (3) is a rather typical and common one with language learners having a German background.</p> <p>(2) [...] women have <i>to do the household</i>* [...] [NVBS 1.5]  (3) I <i>stood</i>* up at 7 o'clock [...] [NVBS 3.54]</p> <p>Therefore, the L1 plays a role in second language acquisition. Ellis (1982: 207) states in her article <i>The Origins of Interlanguage</i> that in Corder's model the L1 of the learner is even regarded as the starting point of interlanguage.</p>
Transfer of training	<p>Selinker (1972: 39) mentions here to the <i>he/she</i> distinction, which was found being widely ignored by Serbo-Croatian speakers. Apparently, these errors were induced by unilateral drills and textbooks rarely ever using the feminine form <i>she</i>.</p>
Over-generalization	<p>This refers to the rules of the target language, which are extended and applied in unsuitable context (Selinker 1972: 38). For the student who produced the utterance (4) it might have appeared logical to use the morpheme <i>un</i> to get the antonym of patient on the basis of a rule familiar from known couples such <i>friendly-unfriendly</i>, <i>happy-unhappy</i> or <i>comfortable-uncomfortable</i>.</p> <p>(4) The narrator grows very <i>unpatient</i>*[...] [VBS 1.7]</p>

Table 4: Language Learner Strategies

It can be concluded that

interlanguage is *not* a kind of language somewhere between the first and the second language with structural features from both, but rather an intermediate system characterized by features resulting from language-learning strategies. (Appel & Muysken 1995: 83)

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## 4 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

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The investigation of deviations in learner language in relation to native speaker norms has been of considerable interest within the field of linguistics from the 18<sup>th</sup> century onwards (Ellis 2005: 51) revealing learner difficulties for teachers on the one hand and providing information about language acquisition on the other hand (Dulay, Burt & Krashen 1982: 138).

Prescriptive grammarians, for example, aimed to set a standard for the appropriate use of a language by establishing rules, which needed to be followed (Yule 1985: 91). This tradition, called the prescriptive approach, emerged in the early 18<sup>th</sup> century in England (Yule 1985: 91) with Henry Fowler as a major representative (Ellis 2005: 51) and is still highly valued for example in France considering its *French academy*, which holds a rather conservative view of language deviation (Norris 1983: 106). Concerning second language learning, as noted in Ellis (2005: 51), various publications addressing “typical” errors of second language learners exist like *Common Mistakes in English with Exercise* (1936) by Pitlikides. Furthermore, books concentrating on learner errors characteristic for a particular group of learners sharing the same mother tongue have been published, for example Parkes’ *The Mistakes Clinic for German-speaking Learners of English* (2001). According to Parkes (2001: 18), German speakers for example tend to ignore the difference between possibility and chance, which results in the production of sentences like “Is there any *possibility*\* to use your computer this afternoon?” instead of “Is there any *chance* to use your computer this afternoon?”.

### 4.1 Behaviourist and Mentalist Learning Theory

The perception of error in the language learning process has changed over the course of history from handicap to necessity on grounds of theoretical beliefs. Two major philosophies, namely behaviourism and mentalism, have shaped the understanding of language learning and as a consequence have lent support to teaching as well as research methodologies (Hill & Parry 1994: 15).



Behaviourism is a psychological theory widely accepted in the early twentieth century, which attempts to explain how learning works in general (Ellis 1997a: 31). The founder of the behaviourist view was J.B. Watson (Bussmann 1996: 50) and probably its most famous advocate was B.F. Skinner, who was later heavily attacked by Noam Chomsky (Jackson 2007: 94). On the basis of animal experiments the stimulus-response model was generated (Bussmann 1996: 50). It is based on the assumption that behaviour is determined by external stimuli leading to a certain response (Richards, Platt & Platt 1995: 34). According to Skinner, language learning can be understood as a habit-formation process dependent on experience and reinforcement (Bussmann 1996: 50). In other words, acquisition is guided by stimulus, response and reinforcement. Learners hear linguistic input (stimulus), respond to it by imitation and finally receive reinforcement, which results in acquisition (Saville-Troike 2006: 35). In this way, learning a second language involved the adoption of target language habits, which should be achieved by memorization and imitation (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991: 55). Influenced by this theory language laboratories, especially in the United States, were introduced at schools to offer practice (Davies 2005: 14; Richards, Platt & Platt 1995: 34). This belief informed the contrastive analysis hypothesis discussed below, which claims that habits of the first language are transformed to the second language resulting in interference.

A major argument against the behaviourist explanation of language learning is based on how quickly and how easily children acquire their language. After a relatively short period they are able to produce grammatically complex utterances which cannot be the result of pure imitation. It is argued that language acquisition is not simply an accumulative process but that humans are genetically equipped with a program referred to as language acquisition device (LAD). (Widdowson 1996: 12) Children in L1 acquisition infer rules from the language input they encounter and this sometimes leads to the production of distorted forms such as *goed\** or *wetted\**. A similar process can be observed in L2 acquisition. (Hill & Parry 1994: 16) So, Noam Chomsky established a new way of thinking, arguing that languages are based on rules, which allow for the production of infinitely many utterances. How else would it be possible for speakers to produce utterances, which they have never heard before in their lives. (Saville-Troike 2006: 38) It is assumed that “knowledge develops from structures, processes, and “ideas” which are in the mind at birth” (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1995: 182). The learners

creatively use language, form hypotheses about how the language works and then test it and if necessary modify or reject it (Celce-Murcia & Schachter 1977: 442). This new conception of learning and knowledge-building is called innatist hypothesis (Richards, Platt & Platt 1995: 182) or mentalist/nativist theory and emerged in the 1960s (Ellis 1997a: 32).

## **4.2 Contrastive Analysis (CA)**

An early approach to the study of learner language was contrastive analysis, which saw its heyday in the 1950s and early 1960s (James 1998: 4) and thus “predates the establishment [...] of SLA as a field of systematic study” (Saville-Troike 2006: 33). Contrastive analysis is based on the assumption that the mother tongue of the learner has a negative influence on the acquisition process of the target language and therefore constitutes “the major obstacle to successful mastery of the new language (Dulay, Burt & Krashen 1982: 97). According to the CA hypothesis, errors are the result of first language interference (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 52) and thus it was believed that by contrasting the linguistic systems of the first (L1) and the target language (L2) and by identifying the similarities and differences, areas of difficulty could be predicted (Lado 1957 in Saville-Troike 2006: 34).

It was the assumption that if similar structures could be found in both languages, the learner would manage this particular area of the target language with ease, which was called positive transfer. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982: 97) illustrate the effective use of an L1 form in an L2 production with the example of the plural marker *-s*, which is added after nouns in Spanish as well as in English. If, however, the L1 form differs from the L2 form, it was hypothesized that the learners tended to transfer the L1 structure into the target language and therefore produced errors. This process is called negative transfer and would result in *the girl smart\** instead of *the smart girl* in the case of Spanish speaking English learners due to the placement of adjectives being different in those two languages.

As noted by Saville-Troike (2006: 34f) the overall aim of CA was to provide information about potentially problematic issues in second language teaching, which

should be considered with regards to lesson planning and testing. As Widdowson puts it, contrastive analysis

was designed for diagnosis and prevention: it was to provide the prophylactic means whereby the learning of the L2 might, as far as possible, be protected against L1 contagion (2003: 151).

The contrastive analysis approach has been widely criticized from various sides. Language teachers, for example, reported that through experience they had gained more knowledge of learners' difficulties than through the predictions made by CA. Most errors familiar to them could not be traced back to mother tongue interference and were therefore not predicted (Corder 1967: 19). Furthermore, areas of difficulty prophesied by contrastive analysis turned out to be unproblematic and were mastered successfully by the learners (Saville-Troike 2006: 37; Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991: 55). A further drawback concerning teaching materials developed according to the contrastive analysis principle, was that they were designed for learners with a specific mother tongue and could therefore not be used for all learners (Saville-Troike 2006: 37).

As mentioned above, contrastive analysis is founded on behaviourist learning theories. The demise of behaviourism in favour of mentalism in the 1960s - with a focus on internal factors together with a shift from a concentration on surface-level forms to a focus on the underlying rules governing the language - contributed greatly to the rejection of the contrastive approach (Saville-Troike 2006: 37).

Perhaps the most fatal flaw [...] was the dubious assumption that one could depend solely upon an analysis of a linguistic product to yield meaningful insight into a psycholinguistic process. (Long & Sato 1984, in Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991: 56)

Nonetheless, a weaker version of the CA hypothesis is still used to provide explanation for some errors, since the influence of the mother tongue cannot be rejected totally but was simply no longer viewed to be the source of all errors (Wardhaugh 1970: 125). Hence, it can be argued that it was the achievement of contrastive analysis to first address the issue of mother tongue influence, which is still an intriguing issue in the study of SLA (Saville-Troike 2006: 34). Although the contrastive analysis hypothesis was refuted, the methodology of contrastive analysis is still employed especially in Europe (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991: 56).

### 4.3 Error Analysis (EA)

The publication of the influential paper “The Significance of Learners’ Errors” by S.P. Corder (1967) as well as the rejection of behaviourist views finally led to the demise of contrastive analysis and to a different attitude towards errors and finally CA was substituted by Error Analysis (Schachter & Celce-Murica 1977: 442ff). Moreover, the analysis of learner language became interesting in its own right and was not only driven by pedagogical concerns (Saville-Troike 2006: 38). Whereas CA involves the comparison of mother tongue and target language, EA is interested in the learner’s language at a certain point in his SLA process in comparison to the target language (James 1998: 5). Thus, actual performance data was analysed instead of grammar.

Corder (1967: 25) points out that there are three crucial reasons, which motivate the study of learner errors.

First to the teacher, in that they tell him, [...], how far towards the goal the learner has progressed [...]. Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, [...]. Thirdly (and in a sense this is their most important aspect) they are indispensable to the learner himself, [...]. (Corder 1967: 25)

Thus, error analysis provides insights for theorists as well as for practitioners (Byram 2004: 198).

“Error Analysis is the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language” (James 1998: 1) or in other words “studies the types and causes of linguistic errors” (Bussmann 1996: 153).

Later researchers presumed that the investigation of errors would be too limited and concentrated on the totality of the learner’s language system named idiosyncratic dialect by Corder 1971, interlanguage by Selinker 1972 and approximative system by Nemser 1971 (Richards & Sampson 1974: 4). Nevertheless, error analysis prevailed as a research tool used for instance in performance analysis, which is concerned with learner language as a whole (Byram 2004: 199).

#### *4.3.1 Attitudes towards Errors*

Right in the first paragraph of his excessively cited article “The Significance of Learners’ Errors” Corder (1967: 19) criticises the lack of attention paid to errors in pertinent literature. He gets the impression that errors are perceived as “distracting” and “of no particular importance”. However, on the basis of behaviourist theory, interference was believed to be responsible for errors in general and by means of the results of CA teachers should be equipped with the required knowledge about areas of difficulty to work against them. As already alluded to, CA could not provide the answers it was expected to give (Corder 1967: 19).

Generally, two major attitudes towards errors exist. Some perceive errors as indicators of insufficient and somewhat deficient teaching. It is believed that if a “perfect teaching method” could be developed, the learners would not commit errors. Others regard errors to be a component of the “imperfect world” we live in and therefore cannot be obviated even by the perfect teacher. Focus should be laid on how to attend to emergent errors (Corder 1967: 20).

Corder (1967: 23ff) referring also to first language acquisition, considers errors as the evidence that the learner’s “transitional competence” is in fact rule-governed and not simply mere imitation. It was assumed that errors are somehow strategic, necessary for development of competence and therefore worth studying (Richards & Sampson 1974: 4). In error analysis, errors were viewed as “evidence of the underlying, universal learning strategies” (Byram 2004: 198). Corder (1967: 24) further argues that only these systematic errors can shed some light on the processes involved in SLA and have to be distinguished from performance errors or mistakes, which are lapses caused by tiredness or emotions. Unfortunately, the distinction between mistake and error in practice is rather challenging and sometimes even impossible.

#### *4.3.2 Criticism of Error analysis*

CA was heavily criticised for many reasons and was therefore replaced by EA as the main and most popular approach in SLA. However, one must not forget that EA is not flawless either and as a researcher one must be careful with one’s conclusions as pointed out by Schachter and Celce-Murcia, probably the most famous critics of EA. In

1977 they published their frequently cited article “Some Reservations Concerning Error Analysis” in which they attempt to raise awareness of “potential weaknesses” (1977: 441) of EA. The clear rejection of CA left a gap filled by EA, which was based on convincing arguments and the new theoretical view of language learning. They (1977: 442) claim that the ultimate success of EA might have led to an ignorance of the weaknesses and drawbacks of this methodology and list six problematic issues in EA.

Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977: 445) were not the first researchers to criticise that in EA errors are investigated in isolation (e.g. Hammarberg 1974: 185). To disregard the error-free utterances of learners might lead to rather meaningless facts such as that a group of Spanish speakers committed more errors using the definite article than using the indefinite article as found by Anderson (1977 quoted in Schachter & Celce-Murcia 1977: 445). However, by taking into account the whole production of the Spanish learners it became evident that they drew on the knowledge from their mother tongue and mostly used the article appropriate in Spanish. Similarly, a concentration on errors ignores the phenomena of avoidance. Clearly, it is a strategy of learners to simply bypass constructions they have not acquired yet in order to avoid committing errors. As a consequence, these areas of difficulty cannot be detected by error analysis. (Schachter & Celce-Murcia 1977: 447)

Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977: 445f) further doubt that the identification and classification of errors is always possible. They name some examples, which allow for several interpretations. A related point of critique is that according to them (1977: 448) many researchers have too quickly assigned causes to errors. They mention several examples where wrong conclusions were drawn and demand more caution with claims regarding the source of errors. These issues will be addressed in more detail when discussing the stages of EA in chapter 5.

Moreover, Schachter and Celce-Murcia address the relativity of statements concerning error frequency. Obviously, it is quite a difference whether one focuses on the total numbers of errors in studies or whether the error counts are relative to the number of words and relative to the number of occasions where the error could have occurred. Either way, they are of the belief that conclusions drawn on the grounds of error frequency are limited since the figures are restricted to an obligatory context. (Schachter

& Celce-Murcia 1977: 446f) Lastly, they (1977: 448) also mention the “biased nature of sampling” which I personally believe is a general problem for all scientific research.

Even though Schachter and Celce-Murcia focus on the drawbacks of EA in their article they stress that they are convinced that EA is a very valuable research methodology contributing to the research in the field of SLA. Their main point they wanted to convey was to highlight the limitations and advise not focusing on one approach but view EA as a research tool among many others. (Schachter & Celce-Murcia 1977: 450)

In the preceding chapters it became apparent that there are various methods to approaching learner language. What makes error analysis convenient and pertinent for the comparison of two language learner groups - as is it is the case in this paper - is that it allows a statement about the level of correctness and adequacy of each group. Of course, the limitations of this method will be considered when categorizing and analysing the errors detected in the data under investigation. Moreover, error analysis is better applicable to written material since mistakes (opposed to errors) are less frequently found than in spontaneous data. How an error analysis is conducted will be expounded in the following chapter.

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## 5 STEPS OF ERROR ANALYSIS

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Corder (1974 in Lennon 1991: 180; in Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 57) suggests five stages when conducting an errors analysis:

- (a) Collection of language sample
- (b) Identification of errors
- (c) Classification or description of errors
- (d) Explanation of causes of errors
- (e) Evaluation of errors

This thesis is concerned chiefly with steps 2 and 3, identification and classification of errors in the corpus and will therefore be thoroughly discussed. However, I will also attempt to draw inferences on the psycholinguistic causes of errors in my sample. The evaluation of errors is called only a “supplementary procedure for applying the results of an EA” by Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 67) and requires judgement on the gravity of errors, which can lead to ambiguous results as the study of Hughes and Lascaratou (1982 in James 1998: 91) showed. Therefore this step will not be considered in this thesis.

### 5.1 Identification of Errors

Finding the errors in learner language is one of the many tasks the teaching profession brings about. Although this might sound like an easy exercise, it can emerge as quite problematic, ambiguous and complicated bearing in mind that error identification is rather subjective and results in diverse judgements even among native speakers of the target language (Hughes & Lascaratou 1982). It often involves a long decision making process, which is hardly surprising considering the complexity of language. Hughes and Lascaratou (1982 in James 1998: 91) conducted a study showing that judgements can vary widely when it comes to recognizing erroneous utterances. English native-speaking teachers of English, Greek native-speaking teachers of English and English-native speaking non-teachers were asked to assess 30 sentences. On the one hand error-free sentences were identified as erroneous and on the other hand errors were overlooked in erroneous sentences. Lennon (1991:185f) encountered a similar problem when he asked



six native speakers of English to evaluate 208 ambiguous error occurrences, which resulted in disagreement concerning acceptability.

James (1998: 91-94) segments the identification of errors into two stages, which he refers to as error detection and locating errors. To put it simply, the analyst is confronted with the following two questions: Is the utterance erroneous and where is the error? The first question requires a yes/no answer and an adequate definition of error itself is also indispensable.

As Lennon made rather clear in his article “Error: Some Problems of Definition, Identification and Distinction” finding a feasible definition is quite a challenging undertaking (Lennon 1991: 183). Different sources provide us with a great number of suggestions like an “error is the breach of the language’s code, resulting in an unacceptable utterance” (Johnson 1998: 117) or an error is

[t]he occurrence in speaking or in writing of a language item which does not conform to the rules of the language, or, in other words, is regarded by an educated native speaker as ungrammatical or inappropriate (Davies 2005: 44).

Lennon himself (1991: 182) proposes the following definition:

A linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speaker’s native speaker counterparts.

This definition also takes into account expressions used by learners which cannot be categorized as a breach of a certain rule but which would simply not be said by a native speaker (Lennon 1991: 182). Since it is impossible for me to decide if a certain utterance would be produced by a native speaker of English or not, I will concentrate on the detection of errors as they are defined by Davies.

As opposed to error detection, locating an error demands identification of its position from the analyst. Therefore, it is crucial in error identification to locate global as well as local errors in order to be taken seriously. This differentiation was submitted by Burt and Kiparsky (1974: 73 in Lennon 1991: 183; in Delisle 1982: 39) to account for errors occurring in a particular constituent (local) and for errors disrupting the match of major constituents (global). Although, it was found that local errors are easier to identify, global mistakes are more likely to impede communication. Moreover, among advanced learners the probability of global errors is much higher than of local ones. Their

deficiencies are rather on a stylistic level (register, collocations) than on a morphological level (in Lennon 1991: 182 and James 1998: 93). Therefore, in many cases it becomes quite problematic to arrive at a clear-cut decision (Lennon 1991: 186).

Corder (1973: 272 in James 1998: 68) further suggests a distinction between overt and covert errors. The first can be referred to as grammatical errors whereas the second is linked to meaning. Overt errors are mostly found within a single constituent or within a sentence as opposed to covert errors, which can only be detected in relation to the context. For example the utterance *Mary is engaged* is perfectly correct on the grammatical level but was supposed to express that she is a dedicated and committed person and not that she is going to get married. Examining the context can only reveal this covert error.

Connected to this issue is Lennon's distinction between domain and extent of errors (Lennon 1991: 189). He states that a rather clear categorization of errors would distinguish between omission, over-suppliance, permutation and substitution errors depending on whether units have to be added, deleted, rearranged or substituted in order to repair the erroneous utterance (e.g. surface structure taxonomy, which will be discussed later). Nevertheless, Lennon (1991: 189) draws attention to the fact that such a differentiation cannot be useful for error description since it is simply too superficial and totally ignores that errors appear on different levels of the hierarchical structure of language from the morpheme upwards. "Most erroneous forms are, in fact, in themselves not erroneous at all, but become erroneous only in the context of the larger linguistic unit in which they occur." As, for example, *a* and *scissors* are both correctly spelt words but in combination as in *a scissors\** are not acceptable, which can only be detected by looking beyond the word level.

Hence, Lennon introduced the distinction between domain and extent of an error. The domain of an error refers to "the rank of linguistic unit which must be taken as context in order for the error to become apparent". In this sense the domain can range from the morpheme to extralinguistic context. The extent of an error is "how far up the hierarchy of linguistic units in which the text is organized the error has permeated." In other words, on which level between morpheme and sentence something needs to be changed in order to reach correctness. Returning to the example above, the domain would

constitute the word group (*a scissors*\*) and the extent only the word *a*. Such a distinction supports the researcher with regards to lexical errors, errors within errors and type/token distinction, which will become more transparent in the practical part of this thesis (Lennon 1991: 191f).

## **5.2 Description and Categorization of Errors**

James (1998: 96f) lists three purposes for the description of errors. The first is to be explicit about one's decisions, the second is to be able to count the number of certain errors and the third is to be able to develop categories on the basis of common features of errors. In the following subchapters different ways of organizing errors will be discussed.

The basic form of error collections are certainly dictionaries, which are mentioned by James (1998: 97-102), but error dictionaries are not of any relevance for this thesis and will therefore not be further discussed. "The description of errors is essentially a comparative process, the data being the original erroneous utterances and the reconstructed utterance" (Corder 1974: 128 in Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 60). James (1998: 102) suggests to categorize errors with the help of so called error taxonomies under which he understands a classification system for errors. For the analytical part of this thesis the following two taxonomies will be employed and therefore investigated in detail, namely linguistic and surface structure taxonomy.

### *5.2.1 Linguistics Taxonomy*

James' (1998: 129) error classification is organized on the determination of the error's modality, medium and level.

With regard to modality it is distinguished between receptive and productive errors. This is obviously closely linked to medium, which reveals whether the receptive or productive language is written or spoken. A listening comprehension error although manifested in written production therefore can be classified as a receptive error based on spoken text. So, the distinction in reference to modality and medium leads to the identification of the skill that was being adopted by the learner. It is relevant to determine whether the learner was reading, listening, speaking or writing. (James 1998:

129) For the study of this thesis the levels of errors with regard to writing are most relevant. James (1998: 130) groups errors into substance, text and discourse errors.

a) **Substance errors** (James 1998: 130-141) are manifested in misspellings like punctuation errors or misspellings proper, which result out of choosing the wrong grapheme for phonemes.

b) **Text errors** (James 1998: 141-161) comprise (i) lexical and (ii) grammar errors. Leech (1981: 179 in James 1998: 142) describes grammar as the set of rules governing a language as opposed to lexis, which constitutes the realities of a language that do not follow any laws. Sinclair and Cruttenden (in James 1998: 143) draw similar distinctions between grammar and lexis. However, this seemingly clear differentiation is in actual fact a rather blurry one as the use of *educating\* methods* instead of *educational methods* [NVBS 2.18] can be regarded as the wrong choice of morpheme (grammar) or as a gap in lexical knowledge. In the analytical part of this thesis such errors are counted as grammar errors since from my point of view the student proves some lexical knowledge by using a derivational version of the intended word. Furthermore it is possible that some grammar errors may actually be the result of a learner having stored an erroneous lexical phrase rather than a learner misapplying a grammar rule (Schmidt 1992: 378 in James 1998: 143).

(i) **Lexical errors** are especially interesting since they seem to cause the greatest irritation among native speakers since it is uncontested that vocabulary is essential for the successful communication of message (James 1998: 144). The different types of lexical errors can be summed up as follows (see Table 5) whereby misselections, misformations and distortions are viewed as formal errors and confusion of sense relations and collocational errors as semantic errors.

<b>Misselections</b>	<p>An existent, however semantically incorrect, lexical item of the TL is used. In example (5) the learner used <i>invented*</i> instead of <i>invited</i> and in (6) <i>die*</i> instead of <i>day</i> was used.</p> <p>(5) I've <i>invented*</i> several guests [...] [NVBS 3.1]  (6) People die every <i>die*</i> [...] [VBS 4.26]</p>
<b>Misformations</b>	<p>Non-existent words are used. The underlying processes causing the error can be compared to word-formation processes namely borrowing (word of mother tongue is included), coinage (learner assumes a relation from mother tongue word and target word) and calque (more or less literal translations of mother tongue structure). A typical example for calque can be found in (7a) and (7b). NVBS 3 learner simply literally translated the German compound noun "Diskussionsrunde" whereas NVBS 4 learner committed an additional grammar error by using the verb <i>discuss</i> instead of the noun <i>discussion</i>.</p> <p>(7a) <i>discussion round*</i> [NVBS 3.2]  (7b) <i>discuss round*</i> [NVBS 4.12]</p>
<b>Distortions</b>	<p>Distortions are errors independent from the L1 of the learner and comprise omissions, overinclusions, misselections, misorderings and blendings. James (1998: 115) mentions for example <i>intresting*</i> instead of <i>interesting</i> or <i>littel*</i> instead of <i>little</i> here. However, I would categorize such instances as spelling errors. As a consequence, I will ignore this category in my analysis in order to avoid confusion.</p>
<b>Confusion of sense relations</b>	<p>Confusion of sense relations means that the wrong term out of a lexical field is chosen or that the learner does not know how to distinguish so called near-synonyms and selects the wrong one as can be seen in (8) where the learner can obviously not distinguish between <i>safety*</i> and <i>security</i>.</p> <p>(8) <i>safety</i> means [VBS 3.5]</p>

<b>Collocational errors</b>	<p>Collocational errors occur if the combination of words does not work together. Some phrases might then just sound awkward, unusual or random to the native speaker, others might simply be unacceptable such as using <i>go*</i> instead of <i>get</i> in example (9).</p> <p>(9) [...] <i>go*</i> on my nerves [...] [NVBS 5.28]</p>
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Table 5: Lexical Errors (James 1998: 145-154)

(ii) **Grammar errors** are distinguished on the basis of whether the error affects one word (morphological) or impairs stretches beyond the individual word (syntax). Again I incorporated examples from my data for illustration in Table 6.

<b>Morphological errors</b>	<p>Morphological errors occur in relation to the word categories of noun, verb, adjective, adverb and preposition and can be defined as “a failure to comply with the norm in supplying any part of any of instance of these word classes” (James 1998: 154). The most common examples for verb morphology errors are the ignorance of third person –s, omission or overuse of past tense –ed and confusions with regards to progressive –ing.</p> <p>(10) [...] would <i>accepted*</i> [...] [NVBS 2.8]</p> <p>Example (10) is a typical case of an annexation of an unnecessary past tense marker. However, not only the overuse of a morpheme but also the omission of a morpheme can lead to an erroneous utterance as can be seen in (11) where the suffix –en is missing.</p> <p>(11) <i>Drunk*</i> men [VBS 2.24]</p>
<b>Syntax errors</b>	<p>Syntax errors are categorized with regard to which greater structure is deviated. Example (12) is a typical phrase structure error with an omission of <i>got</i> in the verb phrase or an omission of <i>do</i> in addition to a misordering of <i>not</i>.</p> <p>(12) I <i>have not*</i> a job. [NVBS 4.15]</p>

Table 6: Grammar Errors (James 1998: 145-154)



Depending on how the target language was modified it is differentiated between double markings, regularization and simple additions. **Double marking** refers to occasions where the learner places a marker on two instead of one item as illustrated in (14).

(14) [...] *more\** easier [...] [VBS 3.21]

The erroneous adding of a marker to an exception to the rule is called **regularization**. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982: 157) mention the use of *eated\** instead of *ate*. Addition errors that fit neither into the double marking nor the regularization category, are named **simple additions**. (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982, 156ff) In example (15) the indefinite article was added.

(15) [...] to watch *the\** television. [NVBS 2.13]

c) **Misformation** is “the wrong form of the morpheme or structure” (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982: 158). Misformation errors can be observed when a wrong item is supplied. Again a differentiation is proposed according the underlying learner strategy. If the learner generalizes a rule applying it also to irregular forms, this is termed **regularization**, for example the use of *unpatient\** [VBS 1.7] instead of *impatient*. To use one item of a certain class, the so-called **archi-form**, as a representative for all members of the class has been found a characteristic of the language acquisition process in general, for example the use of *that* for this, that, these and those (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982: 160). In a later stage all forms appear in learner productions but often in unusual variations – **alternating forms** - for instance *he* for *she* and vice versa (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982: 161)

d) **Misordering** is the “incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance” (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982: 162). Misordering refers to instances where the constituents of a sentence are not ordered in the correct way. It has been found that translations from the mother tongue into the target language advantage this phenomenon. (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982: 162f) In (16) the word *home* is at the wrong place.

(16) [...] *bring the money home\** [...] [NVBS 5.15]



For the EA in the second part of this thesis I follow the advice of Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005:60) who argue that the “categories finally chosen for the analysis need to be data driven”. Moreover, they (2005: 62) suggest combining the categories of the two taxonomies presented.

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## 6 WRITING

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The ability to write effectively is becoming increasingly important in our global community, and instruction in writing is thus assuming an increasing role in both second- and foreign-language instruction. (Cushing Weigle 2002: 1)

The competence in writing of students who were taught in different languages is under investigation in this thesis. As has been emphasized by many authors, being able to communicate in a foreign language has become crucial in many areas such as education, business or social relationships. Naturally, with the increased interest in teaching students how to communicate in writing, the need for evaluation of writing competence emerged. Given that errors cannot be the only indication of someone's writing skills, it is mandatory to take a closer look at other aspects which account for "good" writing. (Cushing Weigle 2002: 1)

The previous chapters provided an in-depth discussion of errors and their analysis, which will later lead to a discussion about student's writing competence. However, the substantial terms and "writing competence" have not been sufficiently addressed. Since writing is inherently used to achieve different communicative goals and serves different purposes, it has been unfeasible to arrive at one overarching definition. For example, different writing skills are required depending on whether you are a stenographer, student or lawyer. (Cushing Weigle 2002: 4)

For a better understanding of L2 writing Cushing Weigle (2002: 4) suggests to first inspect the facts about L1 writing. It is pointed out that writing is distinguished from speaking and listening as it is "inextricably linked to formal education" (Cushing Weigle 2002: 4). While speaking is a skill acquired without formal instruction, writing is usually learnt at school with the assistance of teachers (Leki 1991:124). It is based on linguistic knowledge that is already present and can be considered a special form of one's language. The ability to write is essential if one wants to be a fully integrated member of society and if one aspires to professional success. In continuation with voice, tone, style, accuracy and mechanics, great importance is attached to "originality of thought, development of ideas and soundness of one's logic" (Cushing Weigle 2002: 5).

Moreover, Milroy and Milroy (1985: 43) claim “written language [...] has to be more careful and precise than spoken.”

“Learning to write English for academic purposes presents a significant challenge for non-native speakers.” (Steinman 2003: 1) The challenges are not only syntax, vocabulary and format, but also the fulfilment of academic rhetoric standards. (Steinman 2003: 1) In this sense, especially teachers of content subjects have a new role in their classrooms these days. Not only the teaching of content is of importance during lessons. Students need to be taught how to produce written work of high language standards using appropriate terminology in English if teachers intend to prepare them for an academic career. For these teachers CLIL can be a useful and efficient method of teaching. During CLIL lessons L2 writing would happen automatically, as students have to take notes and when they produce protocols, essays or reports.

Schleppegrell (2015: 1f) refers to language as the “hidden curriculum” as students are supposed to use language in different subjects and contexts without explicit focus on the language itself. She further argues that

[in ]n the context of reading and writing in all subjects, learners need to focus on the forms of the texts they read and write and the meanings and functions of different language choices. As they encounter abstract concepts and complex language in texts and classroom activities, the content learning and advanced mastery of language need to build together. (Schleppegrell 2015:2)

Gonzalez (2015-2016: 21f) sums up the main motivations for explicitly teaching writing skills as follows:

- assessment is often based on written texts
- students need to be able to produce texts on academic level
- receptive skills are developed better than productive skills in L2

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## 7 DATA AND ANALYSIS<sup>6</sup>

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In the following part of my thesis I would like to present the results of my analysis of errors committed by NVBS and VBS students in their final English exams. The description, categorization, comparison and interpretation of errors are the centre of attention in this chapter. Special attention was paid, of course, to differences between the two learner groups, since it was my main intention to investigate whether VBS learners had already progressed further in their interlanguage than NVBS students. For this purpose written data was obtained, which had the advantage of being easily accessible compared to spoken language whose recording and transcription is rather time consuming and for which expensive recording equipment is required. Moreover, I wanted to add to a new angle of CLIL research and, as already stated in the introduction of this thesis, most researchers so far have concentrated on the analysis of spoken text in which the benefits of CLIL education are most obvious. Naturally, I also expected that the analysis of the collected written data in this thesis would support the claim that CLIL education has a positive affect on second language writing skills. However, the results of my error analysis need to be carefully interpreted and closely inspected to support such a conclusion. In writing the CLIL benefits on SLA are not as obvious as in speaking.

I would also like to remark that although the corpus of data under investigation – ten exams – is too small to draw any general conclusions, it is still possible to deduce information that might give reason to explore some hypotheses formed on the basis of this analysis even further. Before the discussion of any results I would like to start with an explicit description of the data my research is based on.

### 7.1 Description of Learners and Data

My study is based on ten essays produced in the course of the Matura (school-leaving exam at the end of 12<sup>th</sup> grade in Austria) by five VBS students and five non-VBS

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<sup>6</sup> Parts of chapter 7 have already been published in my article “Lexico-Grammar in the Essays of CLIL and non-CLIL Students: Error Analysis of Written Production.” (Ackerl 2007)

students. Both groups of students attended the same school, however, did not receive the same education. The non-VBS students were taught according to the Austrian national curriculum (BMUKK 2007a) in all subjects and their exposure to English was limited to approximately three language lessons of 50 minutes per week from 9<sup>th</sup> to 12<sup>th</sup> grade. At the same time the VBS students had four years of CLIL education (from grade 9 to grade 12) meaning they were instructed in German and English in the content subjects next to regular language lessons. This means that although they also had to fulfil the goals set in the Austrian national curriculum, they were exposed to their second language – English – to a much greater extent than non-VBS students. In my analysis of the exams I attempt to reveal differences of written language competence between those two groups of learners due to their different language acquisition environments. However, before that I would like to outline the framework of the written Matura for both groups.

To begin with, it is worth mentioning that Austria used to be a country where the individual subject teachers developed the tasks for the final exams resulting in different exams for every class or school as opposed to standardised tests such as for example the GCSEs in England. This approach has often been heavily criticised for its lack of comparability and objectivity and is finally a thing of the past. Unfortunately the exams under investigation were sampled at a time when the “old” system was still in place. For obvious reasons, it would have been ideal if the two groups had had to produce the same texts under exactly the same conditions. Although it is undoubtedly interesting how the Austrian version of a standardized and centrally tested school graduation exam is designed for English as a second language, it would go beyond the scope of this paper to even discuss its implications for SLA research in Austria.

In general the guidelines for the written Matura exams are stipulated by the Austrian Ministry of Education and are summed up in the Reifeprüfungsverordnung (BMUKK 2007b). As the two learner groups experienced different learning conditions with regard to English, they had to master different exams. The exams for non-VBS learners had to conform to the guidelines set by the Ministry of Education for a second language, as opposed to VBS students whose exams were devised in the same way as their first language (German) exams. The Reifeprüfungsverordnung (BMUKK 2007b) prescribes next to the time frame – five hours for both learner groups – also the structure of the

written exams. For non-VBS learners that meant that they had to master a task based on a listening comprehension and additionally produce three texts of 700 to 1000 words altogether. VBS learners on the other hand had to produce only one text but had to be given a choice of three different topics. Moreover, the Reifeprüfungsverordnung (BMUKK 2007b) states that one text type had to be a text interpretation and another one an expository essay. For more detailed information on the Austrian written Matura consult the Reifeprüfungsverordnung (BMUKK 2007b) .

A slight drawback of the data used for the analysis is therefore that the produced texts vary with regard to length, genre and topic. Not only differ the exams of both learner groups in general but as already mentioned above students have to be given choices in exams like the Matura. Therefore, even the tasks within one learner group are varied with respect to topic, genre and length. Nevertheless, the comparison led to interesting and valuable results and was carried out with a total awareness of the different genres requiring different register and style. Now I would like to give a quick overview – details not relevant – of the tasks in the two exams.

#### ***Written Matura exam - NVBS students:***

Listening comprehension – Details are not relevant since texts based on the recording were not considered for the analysis. An explanation for this decision is offered later.

Text production – The students were given two choices of topic A and B and then had to produce three different texts.

- A)     Talk show discussion about gender – role stereotypes AND  
          Interior monologue of a desperate housewife doing some household chores AND  
          Article – A young househusband writes about his decision to stay at home
  
- B)     Comprehension and analysis – Answer questions on the text “Sex, violence, and so to bed” AND  
          Opinion essay – What do you think about children and the TV? AND  
          Discussion regarding children and the TV

### ***Written Matura exam – VBS students:***

The students could choose between three different topics and genres.

- A) Expository essay – Analyse threats your generation has to face such as hunger in the world, pandemics, terrorism, ...
- B) Text analysis – Write an essay in which you give a short summary and a detailed interpretation of the text “Araby” by James Joyce
- C) Literary Essay – Comment on the historical role of women in society and their expectations and duties at the time in which they lived

For the analysis conducted in this thesis, five papers of each group were selected and it is worth mentioning that the respective teachers were consulted to exclude “outliers”, exams in which the performance did not correspond to the “typical” performance of this particular student. Attention was further paid to include papers of “weaker” as well as “more proficient” students, on the one hand to make the study more multifaceted and on the other hand to avoid comparison of the best pieces of one group to the worst ones of the other group, which would distort the results of the whole analysis. I am aware of the fact that usually the extreme, the best and the worst, cases are ignored and only the interquartile range is further investigated in order to get a representative result. However, for this thesis only a very small sample is analysed and it is a further aim, next to the comparison of the two groups of learners, to explore the range of writing proficiency resulting out of CLIL exposure.

In sum, the students of both groups have German as a mother tongue, were eighteen years old, attended the same institution – a Viennese secondary school - and produced their essays under exam conditions (limited time, pressure, no external help). However, it has to be taken into consideration that the essays themselves differed according to genre, length and topic due to different tasks and options for choice. The VBS-students chosen had four years of CLIL education whereas the regular students were educated according to the standard Austrian curriculum confronted with English mainly during their weekly English lessons.

As Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 57) stress the importance of a detailed description of the samples of learner language, the crucial factors influencing the learner language in the focus of my analysis are summed up below again using an adapted grid as suggested by Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 58).

<i><b>Factors</b></i>	<i><b>Description</b></i>
<b>A    Learner</b>	
1 Proficiency Level	Intermediate/Advanced
2 Other languages	L1 German
3 Language learning background	Instructed vs Instructed/CLIL
<b>B    Language</b>	
1 Medium	Written
2 Genre	Variable (see above)
3 Content	Variable (see above)
<b>C    Production</b>	
1 Planned	Planned

## **7.2 Data Analysis Procedures**

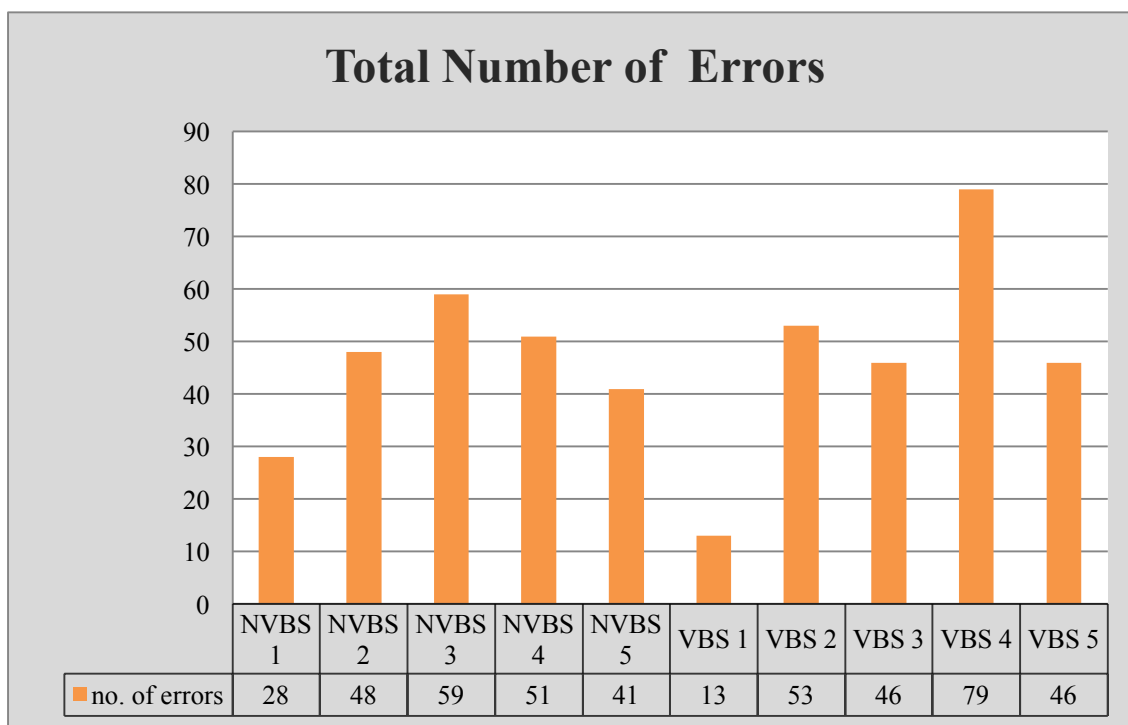
The underlying method of my research is error analysis; an approach which was very popular among linguists during the 1970s (Ellis and Barkhuizen 2005: 53) involving the “detailed description and analysis of the kinds of errors second language learners make” (Lightbown & Spada 1999: 73). It has further been pointed out by many researchers in the field of SLA that errors are a “virtual inevitability” (Norrish 1983: 113). Corder (1967: 23f), referring also to first language acquisition, considers errors as the evidence that the learner’s “transitional competence” or “interlanguage”, a term coined by Selinker (1972), is in fact rule-governed and not simply mere imitation. In this sense the analysis of errors can be viewed as the description and analysis of the interlanguage of learners at a certain stage in their SLA process.



My results below are based on a differentiation of errors according to linguistic category. This type of taxonomy first focuses on the level at which the error occurs. This leads to a differentiation between substance, text and discourse level errors. Regarding written production each level can be further subdivided as follows. Misspellings, punctuation as well as dyslexic errors belong to the category of substance errors whereas lexical and grammatical errors are acknowledged as errors on the text level. Discourse level errors are strongly related to content and refer to all instances where coherence is failed to establish. Although discourse errors are identified as such, I will refrain from discussing them in detail because they can rarely be found in the texts of both learner groups and more importantly are strongly linked to content and genre and therefore impossible to compare because of the heterogeneous nature of the samples. Further, the class of error is specified indicating which word class (e.g. noun, verb, adjective) is affected by the error. Finally, rank and system (tense, number and voice) are assigned to the error. (James 1998: 105-162; Dulay, Burt & Krashen 1982: 138-198) The advantage of this classification is that it is based on “well-established grammatical categories” (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 61) and thus easily accessible. In my thesis, however, this classification scheme will be supported by an analysis of errors from other perspectives, such as surface structure taxonomy.

### 7.3 Quantitative Results – Number of Errors

In this chapter the quantitative results of my analysis will be presented. First I would like to summarize the absolute frequencies of errors found in the essays of both learner groups, which are shown in the bar chart in Figure 4.



**Figure 4: Total Number of Errors**

All in all, 464 errors could be identified. Adding up the number of errors committed by the learners of both groups, one finds that 227 errors were committed by the NVBS learner group and 237 errors by the VBS learner group. Although absolute figures are not significant in a comparison, which will be referred to in detail at a later point, it is interesting to notice that the figures are very similar. An inspection of individual samples reveals that the number of errors committed by individual students ranges from 28 to 59 for NVBS learners and from 13 to 79 for VBS learners. On the one hand this discrepancy results from the different skills of individual learners, on the other hand the total number of errors is associated with the length of the produced text. Therefore, the next logical step is to calculate the relative frequency of errors, the rate of errors in percent, which is conducted in the next part.

As addressed above, the absolute figures have little to no informative value, since a longer text obviously displays a greater amount of errors. Thus in the next step of my analysis the absolute number of errors was divided by the number of written words to obtain the relative frequency of errors. In my 2007 article “Lexico-Grammar in the Essays of CLIL and non-CLIL Students: Error Analysis of Written Production” first results of this process have already been published. The portion of errors of 4% committed by NVBS students did not differ greatly from the 5% of erroneous structures determined in VBS papers. (Ackerl 2007: 9)

However, the recent results presented in this study deviate slightly from the one published at an earlier stage of my analysis. During the course of my study it became apparent that certain parts of the data might distort the results of my analysis and were therefore excluded and not considered for the attainment of the final results. After my initial analysis I decided to dismiss the texts of NVBS students based on a listening comprehension exercise since whole chunks of language were literally taken from the recordings. The point of this thesis is to compare the authentic interlanguage of second language learners and from my point of view the reproduction of a listening text cannot be counted as such. Furthermore, the capability of understanding spoken text takes priority in a listening comprehension rather than the writing skills. Analysing comprehension errors, however, would go beyond the scope of this paper and as Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 51) put it they are “difficult to detect”. A similar problem arose when VBS students used literal quotes of a piece of literature that was given to them for them to interpret. These were also not taken into consideration in the analysis.

In the Table 7 below the amount of words written by the individual students are contrasted with the total amount of words written. The lengths of NVBS students’ exam papers range from 843 to 1351 words, which constitutes a difference between individual exams of up to 508 words. The discrepancy in length is even greater among VBS students whose works consist of 507 to 1697 words, which is a maximum difference of 1190 words. However, a glance at the number of words written by the collective of NVBS students and by the collective of VBS students reveals that both groups have produced a rather similar amount of words, namely 5729 and 5187 words.

	<b>total number of errors</b>	<b>total number of words</b>	<b>erroneous in percent</b>	<b>error-free in percent</b>
NVBS 1	28	1290	2.17%	97.83%
NVBS 2	48	1046	4.59%	95.41%
NVBS 3	59	1199	4.92%	95.08%
NVBS 4	51	843	6.05%	93.95%
NVBS 5	41	1351	3.03%	96.97%
<b>Σ</b>	<b>227</b>	<b>5729</b>	<b>3.96%</b>	<b>96.04%</b>
VBS 1	13	507	2.56%	97.44%
VBS 2	53	1004	5.28%	94.72%
VBS 3	46	1122	4.10%	95.90%
VBS 4	79	1697	4.66%	95.34%
VBS 5	46	857	5.37%	94.63%
<b>Σ</b>	<b>237</b>	<b>5187</b>	<b>4.57%</b>	<b>95.43%</b>

**Table 7: Relative Frequency of Errors**

In Table 7 one can also find the relative frequency of errors and next to it the percentage of error-free language. The exams of NVBS learners as a collective contained 3.96% errors ranging from 2.17% to 6.05% in the individual exams. In sum, the group of VBS learners produced 4.57% deficiencies, varying from 2.56% to 5.37%. Before going into greater detail it is worth mentioning that in both groups a considerably large part (93.95% to 97.83%) of their written language was error-free.

Interestingly, when comparing the relative frequency of errors determined for both learner groups, the difference between the portion of errors of NVBS students (3.96%) and VBS students (4.57%) is not significant. Surprisingly, NVBS students committed slightly less errors than VBS learners, 0.61% to be exact. The reader might have realized that these figures are different to the ones published in Ackerl (2007). As mentioned before, this is due to the adaptation of data, especially the omission of the texts based on a listening task of NVBS learners, which constituted a considerable part of their written work.

Of course, it would be wrong to draw the conclusion that NVBS learners are equally or more advanced than VBS learners on the basis of the so far obtained results. The number of errors alone cannot be used to draw inferences about the learners' language competence. Thus, a closer look at the nature of the errors produced is taken in order to learn more about the interlanguage of both learner groups. In the following chapters the errors will be grouped according to level and their nature will be further specified.

## 7.4 Error Levels

Categories for error classification as suggested by several researchers have been discussed in chapter 5. Following James the errors found in both sets of data were grouped with respect to the level on which they occurred. After a thorough analysis the errors were classified either as text, substance or discourse errors. The results are presented in the table below.

	text	substance	discourse
NVBS 1	24	3	1
NVBS 2	39	9	0
NVBS 3	53	6	0
NVBS 4	46	5	0
NVBS 5	36	5	0
<b>Σ</b>	<b>198</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>1</b>
VBS 1	6	6	1
VBS 2	43	9	1
VBS 3	16	29	1
VBS 4	58	17	4
VBS 5	38	8	0
<b>Σ</b>	<b>161</b>	<b>69</b>	<b>7</b>

**Table 8: Level of Errors - Absolute Frequency**

What becomes immediately apparent by looking at the absolute numbers of errors becomes that all NVBS students committed by far most errors on the text level. This is also true for three out of the five VBS learners. However, there are two exceptions that stand out when analysing the errors of VBS students, namely learners VBS 1 and VBS 3. Student VBS 1 produced as many text errors as substance errors and student VBS 3 made most errors, namely 29 out of 46, on the substance level, which compared to the error levels of all the other learners deviates greatly and seems to be out of the ordinary. Why and how this anomaly in VBS 3 student's errors occurred will be theorised at a later point in this thesis when further subcategories are investigated. Given that the distribution of errors of learner VBS 3 is an exceptional case, one could conclude that in general students struggle mostly with grammar and lexis and not so much with spelling and punctuation (substance) or discourse.

For a more detailed analysis relative frequencies are established and summed up in Table 9 below.

	text	substance	discourse
NVBS 1	85.71%	10.71%	3.57%
NVBS 2	81.25%	18.75%	0%
NVBS 3	89.83%	10.17%	0%
NVBS 4	90.20%	9.80%	0%
NVBS 5	87.80%	12.20%	0%
<b>Σ</b>	<b>87.22%</b>	<b>12.33%</b>	<b>0.44%</b>
VBS 1	46.15%	46.15%	7.70%
VBS 2	81.13%	16.98%	1.89%
VBS 3	34.78%	63.04%	2.17%
VBS 4	73.42%	21.52%	5.06%
VBS 5	82.61%	17.39%	0%
<b>Σ</b>	<b>67.93%</b>	<b>29.11%</b>	<b>2.95%</b>

Table 9: Level of Errors - Relative Frequency

In Figure 5 the relative frequencies of both learner groups are illustrated in pie charts.

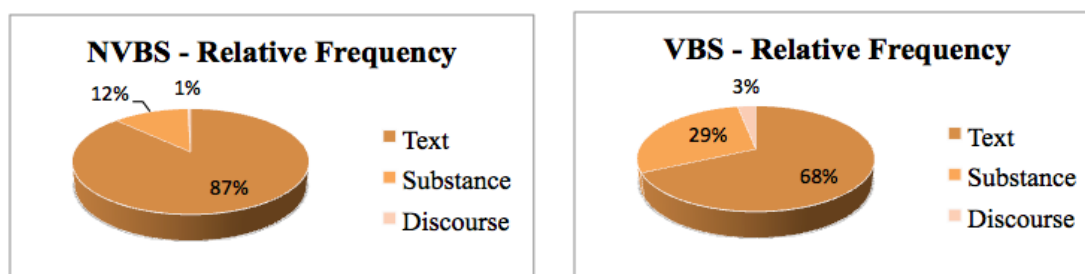


Figure 5: Pie Charts - Relative Frequency

Table 9 confirms the observation from above that in sum for both groups of learners most errors occur on the text level whereby individual exceptions have already been drawn attention to. 87% of NVBS learners' errors and 68% of VBS learners' errors concern grammar and lexis. Contrasting the relative frequency of text errors of both groups one finds that although errors on the text level are predominant in both groups, lexico-grammar appears to be the major source of problems even more so for NVBS learners. It is quite striking that NVBS students commit 19% more lexical and grammatical errors than VBS learners.

As a consequence of the difference of 19% in the relative amount of text errors, the percentages concerning substance errors diverge as well. Whereas NVBS learners' texts display only 12% of substance errors, 29% of VBS learners' errors can be classified as substance errors. So VBS learners commit 17% more spelling or punctuation errors than NVBS learners.

Generally speaking, discourse errors are least common in the samples of both groups with a portion of 1% for NVBS learners and 3% for VBS learners. In my opinion this 2% difference in discourse errors are a result of the long sentences and many subordinate clauses produced by the VBS learners. Differences regarding sentence length will be further investigated and more details will be given at a later point.

## 7.5 Substance Errors

This category comprises spelling and punctuation errors and form 12% (28 errors) of all errors produced by NVBS learners. 21 of those errors can be categorized as spelling and 7 as punctuation errors. In contrast in the written exams of VBS learners 29% (69 errors) of errors could be identified as substance errors with 47 spelling and 22 punctuation errors. In Table 10 below the exact figures are summed up again. In the first column one can find the absolute number of errors and in the second column their relative frequency with respect to the total number of errors is given.

	NVBS		VBS	
spelling	21	9.25%	47	19.83%
punctuation	7	3.08%	22	9.28%

**Table 10: Substance Errors**

These differences might imply that NVBS learners are the better spellers and have a better feeling for punctuation. Refusing to draw such a conclusion just yet, I attempted to come up with more plausible theories.

### 7.5.1 Spelling Errors

When a closer look at the number of spelling errors is taken it is striking that most spelling errors in the group of VBS learners were found in the essay of learner VBS 3, namely 23 of 47 (48.9%). The spelling „weakness“ of this learner explains the atypical distribution of errors mentioned earlier meaning why this learner committed more spelling and punctuation errors than errors with respect to grammar and lexis. Investigating the spelling error of learner VBS 3 even further, it becomes apparent that this learner tends to overuse double-consonants resulting in the production of *oppinion\** [VBS 3.10], *wellfare\** [VBS 3.13], *usefull\** [VBS 3.23] or *beginn\** [VBS 3.26]. When learner VBS 3 is ignored, the percentage of spelling errors of VBS learners is 12.6% and the difference between the two groups of learners is reduced.

Furthermore, the use of a wider range of vocabulary, including technical terms or foreign words in VBS exams, would account for the greater number of spelling errors in comparison to their NVBS counterparts. For illustration, some examples of spelling errors detected in the works of VBS students are *monotonious\** [VBS 1.1], *incompetence\** [VBS 3.4] or *pharmacits\** [VBS 4.57], whereas non-VBS students displayed difficulties with rather common words such as *agree*.

Finally, I would like to draw the reader's attention to the fact that I did not distinguish between mistakes and errors in my analysis because it is simply an impossible task, which has also been pointed out by Ellis (1989: 6). However, I believe that the teachers of the learners, who have already corrected many pieces of written language of their students, could have spotted some instances of slips here.

### 7.5.2 Punctuation Errors

A common error with respect to punctuation was the simple addition of a comma in defining relative clauses, “which explain which person or thing you are talking about” and in front of which “you never put a comma” according to *Collins Cobuild English Grammar* (Sinclair 1999: 363). Two examples are given below.

- (17) Other common uses of genetic engineering are the fertilisation of women,\* who are infertile [...] [VBS 3.24]



(18) But I'm really angry about people,\* who think that I'm not a real man.

[NVBS 4.39]

I would argue that in the examples above due to parallels concerning relative clauses in English and German the learners' L1 had an impact on their interlanguage since similarities between L1 and L2 make transfer possible (Appel & Muysken 1995: 89). It is evident that these are typical examples of what was named 'negative transfer' in contrastive analysis because the learners most likely resorted to their knowledge of a similar structure in their L1 and hypothesized that the same rules must hold in their L2. In other words, the properties of German relative clauses were transferred to English leading to L1 interference. If these sentences were translated literally into German, a comma would precede the relative clause since the distinction between defining and non-defining relative clauses is irrelevant with respect to punctuation in German.

NVBS learners often used full stops in front of connectors. According to Dulay, Burt and Krashen's surface structure taxonomy again an addition of an unnecessary item, which is exemplified below.

(19) I think that parents should make their own decision.\* Because [...]

[NVBS 2.23]

(20) [...] if [...] parents should shield children from sex and violence on TV.\* And if broadcasting stations should [...]

[NVBS 2.35]

Other errors were the simple omission or addition of commas. I dare to say here that I think that in general learners do not spend much thought on the use of commas but rather "follow their guts". As a consequence they use or do not use commas in the wrong places if their "feeling" misleads them. I further think that the mother tongue influence is rather strong in this particular area.

At this point I would like to respond to the comparably high percentage of errors on the substance level in the papers of VBS students. The previous analysis showed that 29% of errors produced by VBS students affect spelling and punctuation whereas only 12%

of NVBS learners' errors fall into that particular category. From my point of view the discrepancy in the number of punctuation errors can be explained when comparing the complexity of sentence structure in the texts of both learner groups. It was found, for example, that VBS students tend to produce longer sentences than NVBS students and thus create a more complex sentence structure requiring more punctuation markers, which inevitably leads to a greater risk of punctuation errors. More precisely, as presented in Table 11, the average number of words per sentence differs by 8.4 words. The average sentence of a NVBS student consists of only 11.7 words whereas VBS students' sentences are almost twice as long with about 20 words per sentence.

	NVBS	VBS
number of sentences	488	258
number of words	5729	5187
average number of words per sentence	11.7	20.1

**Table 11: Sentence Length**

Constructing longer sentences cannot be regarded as equal to a higher quality of language in comparison to shorter ones. However, I would argue that a certain language proficiency is necessary to be able to construct varied complex sentences. The fact that the VBS learners made more punctuation errors correlates with the fact that they constructed longer sentences. Hence by counting the number of words per sentence and comparing them explains why VBS students committed more punctuation errors. I think that this therefore illustrates that the more complex sentences, the higher the probability to commit a punctuation error is. This can also be seen inversely as the shorter and simpler the sentence structure, the lower the risk of making such a mistake is. I would further argue that the rather simple sentence constructions (reduced system) of NVBS learners are a typical feature of interlanguage as mentioned in chapter 3.4.2.

Thence I do not think that the higher number of punctuation errors in VBS students' works justify the conclusion that they are 'weaker' in that area than NVBS students. It merely shows that although they received CLIL education they sometimes struggle with punctuation. Not much can be said with respect to NVBS students since they do not offer much opportunity for the use of punctuation markers. To be fair, one has to admit that the genres in the NVBS exams partly required a less sophisticated language in order to appear authentic. In the talk show discussion, for example, spoken language was

imitated and therefore long and complex sentences would sound unnatural and would not necessarily be appropriate.

## 7.6 Text Errors

Since the vast majority of errors happened on the text level, the lexico-grammar in the students' compositions will be of major concern in this chapter. As James (1998: 142) puts it "text errors arise from ignorance and misapplication of the 'lexico-grammatical' rules of the language". To begin with errors on the text level were classified as either lexical or grammar errors which are summarized in Table 12 below.

	lexical errors		grammar errors	
		in percent		in percent
NVBS 1	8	28.57%	16	57.14%
NVBS 2	6	12.5%	33	68.75%
NVBS 3	19	32.2%	34	57.63%
NVBS 4	6	11.76%	40	78.43%
NVBS 5	5	12.20%	31	75.61%
<b>Σ</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>19.38%</b>	<b>154</b>	<b>67.84%</b>
VBS 1	1	7.69%	5	38.46%
VBS 2	12	22.64%	31	58.49%
VBS 3	8	17.39%	8	17.39%
VBS 4	17	21.52%	41	51.90%
VBS 5	11	23.91%	27	58.70%
<b>Σ</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>20.68%</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>47.26%</b>

Table 12: Lexical vs. Grammar Errors

At first glance it can be noticed that for both learner groups the number of grammar errors is remarkably higher than the number of lexical errors. Once again learner VBS 3 is an exception with a balanced distribution of lexical and grammatical errors. Comparing these error categories to the total number of errors it can be said that in both learner groups about 20% of all errors are identifiable as lexical errors ranging from 7.69% (VBS 1) to 32.2% (NVBS 3). Before drawing any conclusions based on the similar ratio of lexical errors in both groups, the nature of those lexical errors will be further investigated.

### 7.6.1 Lexical Errors

The analysis further revealed that VBS as well as NVBS learners committed about 20% lexical errors. These ranged from collocation errors such as in examples (21) and (22) to simple misselection as illustrated in examples (23) and (24).

(21) *cruel\** (gruesome) movie [NVBS 2.14]

(22) *learn\** (study) for [NVBS 3.19]

(23) I've *invented\** (invited) ... [NVBS 3.1]

(24) *recognizes\** (notices) [VBS 2.17]

By far, most errors can be assigned to the category of misselections. Exact numbers are presented in the pie charts below.

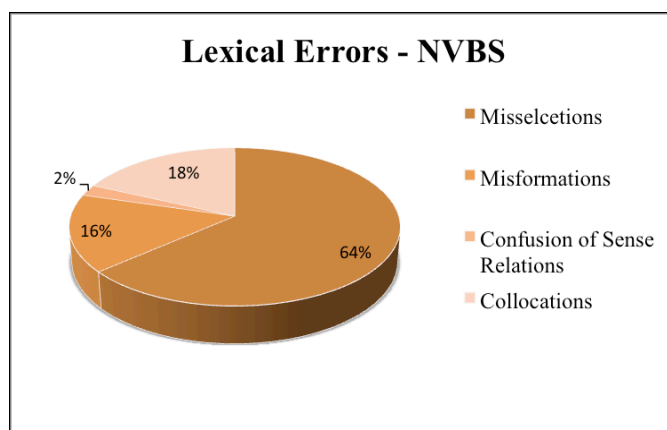


Figure 6: Lexical Errors NVBS

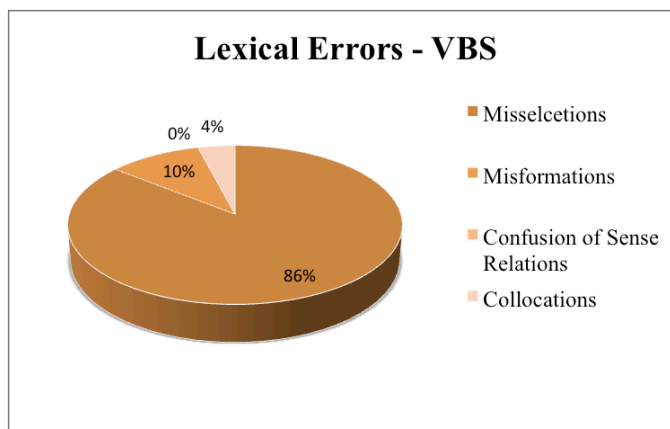


Figure 7: Lexical Errors VBS

From my point of view the difference in the number of collocation errors is quite interesting. In the essays of VBS learners only 4% of the lexical errors were wrong collocations. In comparison, in the essays of NVBS learners 20% of the lexical errors belonged to the category of wrong collocations. From my point of view, the low number of collocation errors could be an indication for the positive impact of CLIL instruction since I am sure that through the extensive exposure to authentic target language the learners develop a good sensor for common or possible word combinations.

By simply reading through the papers, it became further obvious that there is a great difference concerning the vocabulary used. In the works of NVBS students a lot of repetition was found. In order to document this claim, all the occurrences of verbs were counted for both groups. It has to be mentioned that only main verbs were counted and all instances of *to be* in passive constructions or the progressive form were neglected. As a next step, the number of instances of the use of the verb *to be* as a main verb were determined. To get comparative values, the ratio of the occurrences of *to be* relative to the number verbs was calculated and it turned out that the percentage of repetitive vocabulary for NVBS students (20.6%) was significantly higher than for VBS students (11.%). I would argue that this definitely supports the claim that CLIL students acquired a greater range of vocabulary, which they also make use of in written production.

### 7.6.2 Grammar Errors

Interestingly, grammar errors constitute 67.84% of all errors in NVBS productions whereas only 47.26% of all errors could be categorized as such in VBS samples. This is a major discrepancy of about 20% that demands an explanation. Obviously, NVBS learners seem to have more problems in the field of grammar than VBS learners. The exact areas of difficulty in the grammar sector for both learner groups will now be analysed in greater depth.

As suggested by James (1998: 145–154) and summarized in chapter 5 grammatical errors are recognized either as morphological errors – by far the more common – and syntax errors. Moreover, morphological errors are distinguished on the basis of which word category – noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition and article – they affect. The absolute results can be extracted from Table 13 below.

	Noun	pron	verb	adj	Adv	prep	art	syn
NVBS 1	1	2	8	0	0	3	1	1
NVBS 2	5	2	13	0	2	2	7	2
NVBS 3	0	5	16	0	0	7	3	3
NVBS 4	0	5	21	1	0	7	1	5
NVBS 5	2	1	18	2	0	1	4	3
<b>Σ</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>14</b>
VBS 1	0	1	3	0	1	0	0	0
VBS 2	6	2	6	3	0	6	3	5
VBS 3	0	0	2	3	0	3	0	0
VBS 4	5	2	21	1	0	4	2	6
VBS 5	1	1	20	0	0	2	2	1
<b>Σ</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>12</b>

Table 13: Grammar Errors

It is striking that in the exams of NVBS as well as VBS learners most grammar errors affect verbs. To be exact 54.29% (NVBS) and 52% (VBS) of all morphological errors are verb errors and 33.48% (NVBS) and 21.94% (VBS) of the total number of errors are verb errors. In Figure 8 and Figure 9 this dominance of verb errors is illustrated. So in sum one can say that although NVBS learners commit more verb errors overall, the relative frequency of verb errors in the group of morphological errors is almost the same. To analyse this phenomenon even further, verb errors were put under special investigation.

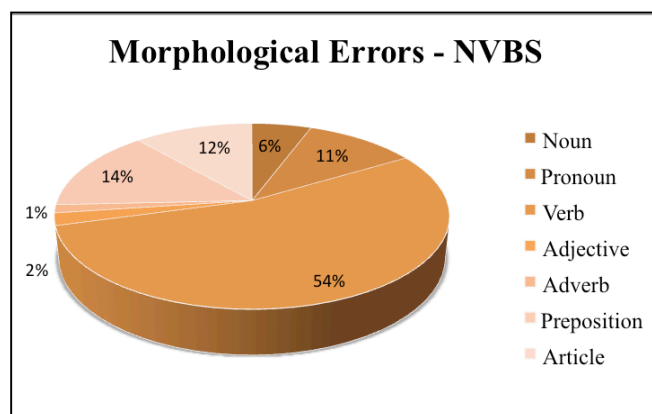


Figure 8: Morphological Errors NVBS

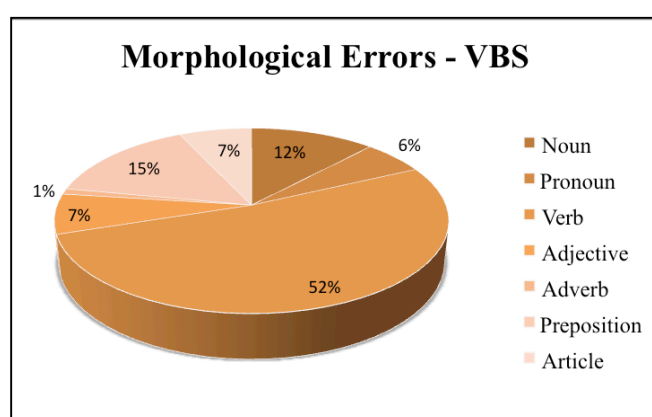


Figure 9: Morphological Errors VBS

Since the percentage of verb errors is strikingly high for both learner groups, it is necessary, as stated above, to carry out a more thorough analysis of exactly those. It was attempted to gather more detailed information about the nature of the verb errors in the

available data. At a first glance the predominance of tense errors in both learner groups catches the eye. With 61 out of 76 the number of tense errors make up 80.26% of all verb errors in NVBS exams. In relation to the total number of errors 33.48% of all NVBS errors were tense errors. In VBS exams 69.23% (36 out of 52) verb errors are the result of the selection of the wrong tense. This means that 21.94% of all VBS errors are tense errors. However, it needs to be mentioned that learner VBS 5 committed 20 of the 52 verb errors and further all of them were due to the wrong use of tense. Ignoring learner VBS 5 the percentage of tense errors in the category of verb errors for the other four VBS learners is still 50%. It might further be interesting to add that tense errors are the most common verb errors for every single individual learner – no exception.

### ***Tense Errors***

As a next step the errors under investigation were categorized according to the tense that was failed to use. For example, the use of the present progressive in *I'm working\* for ten years* [NVBS 1.7] instead of *I have worked for ten years* would be classified as a present perfect tense error. After all, “[e]rrors should be classified in terms of the target language categories that have been violated rather than the linguistic categories used by the learner” (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 60). The categorization is summarized in Table 14 below.

	NVBS	VBS
Present simple	24	29
Past simple	18	6
Present perfect simple	6	1
Other tenses	13	0

**Table 14: Tense Errors**

Thus, it is quite an interesting or maybe surprising observation that in both groups most errors occurred due to an underuse of the present simple. One might have assumed that from all tenses the present simple is the one learners can cope with best since it is usually the first tense that is introduced to learners, which is obviously not the case since the exams of NVBS learners displayed 24 such errors (40% of all tense errors) and the exams of VBS learners even 29 (80.56% of all tense errors). When inspecting the present tense errors more closely it becomes evident that NVBS learners have not yet grasped the difference between present tense simple and progressive. 21 of the 24



(87.5%) present tense errors emerge from a false use of the present progressive as in *Are you working\*?* [NVBS 4.13] instead of *Do you work?*, where the student in the course of a talk show discussion actually wanted to ask whether the person had a job and not whether the person was working at that moment. A similar example is *We are not living\* in the past* [NVBS 5.36] for *We don't live in the past*. In both examples the students were not aware of the fact that the present simple not progressive is used “to talk about permanent situations” (Swan 1995: 444). This sort of error could only be found four times in VBS exams (13.79%). So one could conclude that the difference between present simple and past has already been internalised by VBS students as opposed to NVBS students.

Furthermore, in 30% of all tense error cases NVBS learners fail to use the past tense simple whereas VBS learners hardly ever – once to be exact – choose the wrong tense when past tense simple is required. Very often (in 61.11% of all past tense errors) NVBS students use the present simple where the past tense simple is required. These errors happened for example in if-sentences, see example (25), or in the reported speech, see examples (26) and (27).

(25) It wouldn't be very useful if you *allow\** your children [...] [NVBS 2.29]

(26) Marcus [...] asked only where's\* something to eat [NVBS 4.5]

(27) I ever knew that I *want\** to have children one day [NVBS 1.18]

In other cases the present perfect and the past perfect were used falsely such as in the examples below.

(28) I will tell you what I *have done\** yesterday [NVBS 3.53]

(29) Before I *had decided\** to be a houseman [NVBS 4.33].

### ***Prepositions***

Prepositions appear to be equally challenging for both learner groups. With a frequency of 8.8% (NVBS) and 6.3% (VBS) errors in connection with prepositions are the second most frequent errors after tense errors. For further analysis the errors were further

subcategorized according to whether a preposition was added, omitted or misused. The results are presented in Table 15.

	NVBS	VBS
Addition	2	4
Omission	4	2
Misselection	14	9

**Table 15: Preposition Errors**

As can be seen in Table 15 most errors occurred due to the use of the wrong preposition. Most of these errors seem to be rooted again in the learners' L1. Why and how prepositions can be problematic for EFL learners with German as a mother tongue is addressed in Swan and Smith's *Learner English* (2001). As the following examples show their predictions of likely errors concerning some prepositions prove to be true for the learners under investigation. They claim, for example, that "[M]ost German prepositions have rough English equivalents" and therefore errors occur when an English construction works with a 'different' preposition than the German one. (Swan & Smith 2001: 47). Extract (30) is a prototypical example of such a case. The learner obviously concluded that the verb *spend* must be combined with the preposition *for* since in German one says *ausgeben für*. Similarly, in (31) the German *im Durchschnitt* might have misled the learner to use the flawed combination *in\* average* instead of *on average*. The confusion of the English prepositions *in* and *into*, which is exemplified in (32), was found three times in NVBS students' exams and can be ascribed to the non-existence of the preposition *into* in German. Interestingly, such errors were not found in the samples of VBS learners.

(30) [...] it is not *justified\** to spend millions of dollars *for\** military equipment, ...  
[VBS 3.12]

(31) The cost of proper treatment is *in\* average* \$20.000 per year! [VBS 4.56]

(32) [...] Marcus came *in\** the kitchen [...] [NVBS 4.4]

Swan and Smith (2001: 48) further mention that there are many English prepositions for the German preposition *bei*, however, in hardly any cases *by*. In example (33) the

learner used *by* instead of *with* assuming that *by* has the same meaning as the German *bei* because the two prepositions sound similar.

(33) [...] one or more of their children sit *by*\* them. [NVBS 2.15]

The error in example (34) is the result of a literal translation of the German preposition *über* resulting in a distorted version of what was supposed to mean *for more than 20 years*.

(34) *over* \* 20 years of marriage. [NVBS 3.12]

I would further claim that also in the cases of additions or omissions of prepositions the learners built on their linguistic concepts they have developed in their L1 as for example omission errors such as the ones in examples (35) and (36) where the prepositions *for* and *of* were omitted can clearly be traced back to the German expressions *10 Minuten lang gehen* and *mit der Beschreibung einer ruhigen Straße* in which such prepositions are not required. Likewise the explanation of the addition of *with* in example (37) can be found in the German language where the expression *Spaß haben mit dem Lösen* is acceptable.

(35) walk\* 10 minutes [NVBS 3.38]

(36) with the description\* a quiet street in Ireland [VBS 5.10]

(37) have fun *with*\* solving [NVBS 4.30]

In sum, regarding prepositions my analysis showed that most errors are the result of L1 interference. Therefore it makes sense to me that VBS learners committed less preposition errors as they might have to resort less to their L1 because they became more acquainted with the target's language prepositions through CLIL instruction.

### ***Adjectives and Adverbs***

Generally, not many deficient forms were found concerning the grammatical categories of adverbs and adjectives. Only 1.32% (NVBS) and 2.95% (VBS) of all errors affected

adjectives. To begin with, in the written samples of both learner groups the confusion of *much* and *many* could be detected as in *much\* impressions* [VBS 2.4]. Furthermore, the comparison of adjectives was not always properly carried out, which led to expressions such as *more and more\* clear* [VBS 2.19] instead of *clearer and clearer, more easier\** [VBS 3.21] instead of simply *easier* or *more quiet\** [NVBS 5.20] instead of *quieter*. Additionally, VBS students produced flawed forms with respect to morphology. For example, the omission of –en resulted in the erroneous form *drunk men\** [VBS 2.24] and the selection of the wrong prefix – most likely transferred from the German equivalent *ungeduldig* – led to the non-existent adjective *unpatient\** [VBS 1.7].

Both learner groups hardly committed errors that affected adverbs. With not even 1% (0.8% NVBS and 0.4% VBS) adverbs do not seem to be a great source of errors, which I consider quite surprising since there are no morphological markers distinguishing adverbs from adjectives in German. So, according to CA many errors should have occurred with respect to adverbs. I would have also expected more L1 induced errors. However, the only three errors that were identified in the samples reflect exactly this morphological difference as in all three cases the adverbial marker –*ly* was omitted. One example is given below.

(38) ... educated their children not *strict\** enough. [NVBS 2.27]

It is also worth mentioning that potential adjective/adverb errors of English learners with German as an L1 that were listed by Swan and Smith (2001: 46) could not be found at all in the samples under investigation.

### **Articles**

As predicted by Swan and Smith (2001: 46), articles can be problematic for English learners with German as a first language. Although definite as well as indefinite articles are existent in both languages, articles still seem to be troublesome. To be exact, 7.05% (NVBS) and 2.95% (VBS) of all errors were due to an addition, omission or misuse of an article.

After a thorough analysis, however, it became evident that not the selection of the wrong article was the main error cause but the omission or addition of articles was the major problem, which is illustrated in Table 16.

	NVBS	VBS
Addition	8	3
Omission	6	3
Misselection	2	1

**Table 16: Article Errors**

Some of these can again be traced back to a similar expression in German that does not follow the same article concept as the English one. In the following examples the learners omitted articles relying on the fact that in German no article is required in these utterances. In example (39) the indefinite article was omitted since *Ich war Koch* is a perfectly fine German utterance. Similarly, in example (40) the learner omitted the definite article imitating the German expression *in Zukunft*.

(39) I was cook [...] [NVBS 4.35]

(40) [...] in future [...] [NVBS 5.10]

### ***Syntax***

Compared to the number of lexical and morphological errors syntax errors are less frequent in both learner groups. Additionally with a total number of 14 (NVBS) and 12 (VBS) syntax errors there is no significant difference between NVBS students and VBS students. Most syntactic errors were misorderings in connection with adverbs. Some examples are given below.

(41) Often I ask [...] [NVBS 5.29]

(42) [...] probably still would be [...] [VBS 5.41]

The low number of syntax errors in both learner groups appears to be typical of advanced learners since already Bardovi-Harlig and Bofmann (1989) observed a similar phenomenon in their study comparing pass and non-pass groups of learners (in Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki & Kim: 53).

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## 8 CONCLUSION

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The central part of this thesis was dedicated to the analysis of written competence attained by two groups of L2 learners, on the one hand five students who had received CLIL instruction (VBS) and on the other hand five students who had gone through the standard English as a foreign language programme (NVBS), by the means of error analysis. The overall aim was to explore the errors in the written data – ten exams – and to determine whether CLIL has a positive impact on writing skills of the learners.

In how far does CLIL instruction further writing proficiency in the L2? – This underlying research question has always been in the back of my mind when trying to interpret the results gained from the analysis of errors in the previous chapter. As it became clear, the differences in writing between the two learner groups do not lie in error frequency but more in the nature of errors. Having said this, in the following part I attempted to find explanations or reasons for certain phenomena and discrepancies.

Next to the general focus on errors, some attention has also been paid to other factors that come into play when speaking of “good” writing proficiency. I truly believe – also as a teacher – that speaking of “good” or “bad” quality of text only with reference to errors is fatal as has also been pointed out by Polio (1997: 102) who states that “many factors other than the number of linguistic errors determine good writing: for example, sentence complexity and variety.” In this sense I also wanted to give the error-free language, which - I keep repeating myself - constitutes the greatest part (approximately 95% for both groups) of the data, some room in my paper. I selected some aspects concerning writing that I found most striking when analyzing the quality of the error-free language.

### ***Summary of Results***

After a careful examination of the data, the errors were identified, counted and categorized. What was immediately striking was the fact that there was no distinctive difference in the relative frequency of errors in the two learner groups. Thus, the error

frequency itself did not really offer any valuable clues as to whether one group of learners is more advanced than the other. Quite the contrary, if I had ceased my analysis at this point, one would have to conclude that VBS and NVBS students are at a similar stage in their language learning process. However, by digging deeper and further analysing the types of errors detected in the interlanguage of the two groups of L2 learners revealed noticeable differences.

### ***Limitations of Study***

The findings of my study strongly suggest that learners benefit from the CLIL approach and from my point of view there is no doubt that VBS learners' writing proficiency is superior to the one of NVBS students in various aspects. Nevertheless, there are some shortcomings to this study that need to be addressed and might give rise to further research.

As the results of my study show, VBS students outperformed their peers from a NVBS class in writing. In this connection, it needs to be mentioned that a major problem of all studies comparing data of CLIL and non-CLIL L2 learner groups in general is that students who enter a CLIL class are normally preselected on the basis of their language qualifications (Sylvén 2004: 180), which was and remains the case in VBS schools (GRG23 2007a). Furthermore, I would argue that students who do not show a particular interest in language learning or who struggle in English or other subjects do not tend to even consider applying for such a demanding education programme. Thence I would claim that in CLIL classes mostly highly motivated and rather gifted students can be found and as addressed in Ellis (1997a: 5) motivation is a highly influential factor in language learning. Therefore, the dilemma is that it is impossible to determine how much of CLIL students' linguistic superiority in comparison to non-CLIL students can be ascribed to the CLIL approach.

Another drawback of my study is that although the students produced their texts under the same exam conditions they did not have to fulfil the same tasks. For further research I would suggest for further research to be carried out in terms of comparing CLIL and non-CLIL students' learners within the framework of the new standardized Matura. Moreover, an analysis of a bigger learner group would enhance the value of such a study.

### ***Conclusion***

In sum, my study supports the claim that learners benefit from CLIL education, and more specifically that CLIL has a positive impact on their writing proficiency. The evaluation of errors committed by the two learner groups revealed that VBS students clearly have progressed further in their interlanguage, displaying a greater range of vocabulary, more complex sentence structure and greater variety of tenses compared to NVBS students. Of course, as addressed above research conditions could be optimized – greater number of subjects, same assignments, and same teacher. However, I understand this thesis as a further reflection on the language goals of CLIL and hopefully as a valuable contribution to the on-going research in this area.



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### 10.1 Collection of Data

#### NVBS EXAMS

##### NVBS 1

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###### Talk Show

“Welcome everybody to “Talk-talk-talk”, London’s most famous talk show! Today we’re goin’ to talk about gender-role stereotypes! We’ve got four guests who are going to talk about their opinion about gender-roles. Please (1), introduce yourself (2)!”

Well, my name is Mr Greenfield and I’m 68 years old and my parents brought me up in a very conservative and traditional way.

Hello, I’m Mrs Fielding. I’m 49 years old and I love being a mother of three children.

Hi, my name is Ms O’Casey and I’m a 32 year old career woman.

Hi, I’m Mr Simmons and I’m 19 and a student.

“Okay, now we all know our topic today and I think we’re going to start with you, Mr Greenfield. Tell us about (3) your opinion about gender-role stereotypes.”

I think it’s pretty clear that men have to earn money (4) and women have to raise the children and do the household (5a). We are the hard workers and men just can’t deal with little babies who just scream all the time. In that point I have to admit that we’re unable to raise children. I think it’s because women have a special relationship to their children from the very beginning, so everyone should do what he or she can do best. Men are the workers who are able to feed their families and women have to do the household (5b), the cooking and bearing and raising children (6). Just like Martin Luther King said: [ “Men are intelligent and have strong shoulders and women have broad hips to bear children and stay at home.”]

That’s nonsense! I’m working (7) for ten years now and I’ve got a pretty hard job. I could even feed two families though I’ve got a broad ass! What are you talking about? Men can’t raise children?

Well, then they just don't want to raise them because then they would know what hard work really (8) is!

That's true! It's a full-time-job. When there's nothing to do at home like cleanin' or cookin' you have to spend time with your children and when you're sleeping you can clean their rooms or wash their clothes. I don't think it's that hard and I just think that men have more energy. I think staying at home and watchin' TV or cleaning up the house sometimes, must be a great job. None-theless you can't change the roles of men and women. It is like it is and it's good the way it is!

I can understand that you won't accept such big changes because it's like tradition for you. But it will change one day or I' would say it's already changing! Women get children much later because first of all they want to earn money. Look at Ms O'Casey. She's a career women (9) and wouldn't even have time for children. I think it doesn't matter who earns the money and who raises the children! But fact is that I also want to spent (10) time with my children one day. Won't just work the whole time. I think the work at home should be shared equally!

But in my family it's good that I'm always at home. Our children need me and my husband has a good job and we're all happy.

[...]

What are you talkin' about My husband loves me but I think you're a little paranoid workoholic!

"Okay, ladies! Please be fair! You all have your own opinions and they are all acceptable in a way. We see your opinion depends on how your parents raised you and it depends on your family situation or your job. Thank you so much for coming! Our topic tomorrow will be: "Mum, help me! I'm pregnant!" So much for today! Good night and good evening!

### **Interiour Monologue**

Women have to have beautiful, well-groomed hands and nails. But look at yours: short nails and rough skin like I'm already (11) 80 years old. But I'm only 37 and all I have to do is staying at home and doin' the household (5c).

My two little angels are at school and my husband is at work ... dead silence!

Outside the sun is shinin' but I've (12a) to be in here because I've (12b) to clean the house the whole time! It really sucks. I would rather sit at (13) a little office doing something else than playin' cleaning woman.

I mean, I love my family and I like cookin' for them or cleanin' their stuff because I know they need me and they ain't have time to help me ... But I wished I would get more recognition. I'm really hard workin' every day and they don't even say "Thank



you". They think that's matter of course (14) – they don't even know what I'm doing (15) the whole time.

I bet they think Mummy always stays at home doing nothing because I'm lazy. Whatever ... I ever (16) knew (17) that I want (18) to have children one day and I gave up workin' because I love them!

But somehow I miss my old job because I need a change in my life. I won't stay at home for the rest of my life. I'm a lady but I'm feeling (19) like an old grandmother.

Maybe I should start workin' ... Just for five hours a day. Then I could nevertheless (20) cook till my babies come home from school. Otherwise I'm going crazy in here!

\_ (21) The last seven years I just cleaned the house that's pretty boring. And I think my kids are already old enough to stay at home alone. I will talk with my family today. When (22) I would start (23) working again I wouldn't be depressed and dependent any more. I hope they will accept my decision.

## Article

"Yes, I'm a househusband!"

Two years ago my girlfriend became pregnant and we decided to keep the baby. The only problem was that her boss said that he would fire her if she wanted to take her maternity break. She really loved her job so I decided to give up mine. When our child was born I stayed at home with our baby and my girlfriend did (and still does) her old beloved job.

First of all many friends didn't understand me but I just love her and I didn't want her to ruin her career.

Now she's responsible for earning money and I'm responsible for doing the household (5d). Of course it was a big change in my life and at the beginning it was very stressful but now I'm happy that I have made this decision.

Sometimes I miss my old job and of course sometimes I would rather go out than washing clothes and cleaning (24) the house, but it's okay.

I have made a lot of experiences and I can see by baby growing up.

Many friends of my girlfriend are jealous and she's very proud of me. I make her happy and that's all I want to do though it's sometimes very hard.

At the beginning it was very hard for me to be strict when I was alone with our baby. It was also very difficult to make (25) three things at the same time.

Now I admire all housewives because bringing up a child and doing the household (5e) are very hard jobs.

I never even thought about cleaning the toilets (26) while my girlfriend is working and earning our money. The only strange feeling is that I depend on her because she earns the whole money. But I think we are a good team right now.

In about two years our baby will go to the kindergarten and then I would like to start working again. When (27) nobody has time to do the household (5f) maybe we can (28) afford a cleaning woman.

## Comprehension and Analysis

a)

The Market Assessment Publications (MAP) had discovered (1) that children had (2) no more fixed bed time, like in former times when children had to go to bed in the early or mid – evening. After Tom Kemp read (3) this publication, (4) he felt relieved because he discovered that he was not the only one who failed (5) to bring up (6a) – (7) fixed bedtime to his children. b)

The Kemps wanted that their children were in bed by a given time. They also said that the days would belong to their children but the late evenings would belong to the adults. They thought that after a little while their children would accepted (8) the fixed bedtime as a fact of life and they would go voluntary (9) to bed (10).

But as a baby their eldest son preferred to cry during the night and to sleep during the day. And they also became used to watching television with him late in the night.

Now they have four boys. The two-year-old never wants to sleep, expect (11) in the car or during the small hours. The five-year-old has to stay in school till the (12) afternoon. And when he comes home, he sleeps on the sofa and wakes up in the early evening. The nine-year-old stays up because his older brother is allowed to watch the (13) television.

c)

The author feels uncomfortable when he and his wife watch a cruel (14) movie and one or more of their children sit by (15) them. The only solution that children would (16) not see something (17) unsuitable for them, at any hour of the day or night, is to broadcast nothing unsuitable. He believes that there is only one solution because his educating (18) methods failed (6b) and because he can not (19a) be very strict with his children.

## Opinion

I think that children should have periods of time in which they are allowed to watch whatever they want on TV. I do not think that children should be allowed to watch TV late at night. But I do not agree (20a) with Tom Kemp's (21) attitude.

Broadcasting stations should show whatever they want because it is the responsibility of the parents to decide what their children are allowed to watch. And why should grown-ups not be allowed to watch sex or violence on television because some parents can't control (22) their own children?

I think that parents should make their own decision. Because (23) I can't forbid a foreign (24) child to watch movies on the (25) television. "Premiere" has its own technique to prevent children from sex and violence on TV. You have to enter a code before you can watch a movie. I think that this is a good idea because the adults can decide if a child should watch a movie or not.

I think that it is the fault of the Kems. They educated (26) their children not strict (27a) enough. [“After a while, it would be accepted by the children as a fact of life and obeyed automatically.”]

I agree (20b) with that point. But as I write (28a) before, the parents have to educate their children strict (27b) enough. It wouldn’t be very useful if you allow (29) your children to watch a movie when it is forbidden to them (30).

I also agree (20c) that the days should belong to the children and the late evenings should belong to the grown-ups. Because (31) every grown-up needs his or her leisure time.

[“And that would be to broadcast nothing unsuitable for them, at any hour of the day or night.”]

As I write (28b) before, I do not think that broadcast (32) station (33) should forbid (34a) sex and violence on TV. Normally, you can watch such movies only during the night.

## Imagination

Mr. and Mrs. Kemp MMK

Mr. Sherman MS

Ms. Brady MB

Simon S

Talk show host T

T: Today we will discuss if broadcasting stations or parents should shield children from sex and violence on TV. And (35) if broadcasting stations should forbid (34b) movies which are not suitable for children.

My guests today are Mr. and Mrs. Kemp, who are parents of four sons and who believe that British broadcasting stations should shield their children from sex and violence on television. On the other side there is Mr. Sherman, who is a TV producer and who says that it is the parents’ responsibility to decide what their children watch.

We also invited a children’s psychologist, Mrs. Brady, who says that indiscriminate watching harms children and teenagers.

And at last (36) Simon, who is a 14-year-old-teenager.

At first we will talk about the survey which was published last week and which showed us that the British broadcasters’ code for shielding children from sex and violence on TV has been (37) based on a wild fantasy. So what do you think about sex and violence on TV?

MS: I think that broadcasting stations could (38) not be responsible for what children are watching. Children are not the only TV viewer (39). There are also grown-ups who want to see violence on TV. What should I say to them? You can not (19b) watch bloody movies any longer because some parents can’t control their children. I think that only parents are responsible for their children.

MMK: You can't say that parents are the only one (40) who are responsible for their children. We have to work. Who should decide what our children are allowed to watch when we aren't at home?

MB: I think that it is the responsibility of the parents to decide what their children are allowed to watch. But I also think that parents should talk about unsuitable movies at home.

S: I don't think that this would help. My mother often told me not to watch the (41) movie. But in the end I watch (42) whatever I want.

MMK: You see. How should parents be responsible for sex and violence on TV?

MB: That's only a question of the (43) education. You only have to talk with your children about ...

S: I don't think that talking would shield children from sex and violence on TV.

MMK: Yes, because parents can't shield their children from sex and violence on TV.

MS: Parents have to shield their children.

T: Do you think that \_ (44) fixed bedtime would help to solve the problem?

MS: Yes because bloody movies are only showed (45) late during (46) the night.

MMK: Have you ever tried to send children to bed?

MB: If parents educated their children well, then they also (47) can (48) control them.

S: I don't think that my mother can control me.

T: Thank you for this very interesting discussion.

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## NVBS 3

### Talk Show

The host [to the audience]: Hello, Hello. I've invented (1) several guests for a discussion round (2) about gender-role stereotypes. – I hope you'll enjoy it!

[the guests come in]

The host: Applause! Applause!

[the guests take a seat]

The host: May I introduce you to Mr. Greenfield [The host points to (3) Mr. Greenfield]; Mrs. Fielding, Ms O'Casey and Mr. Simmons. Mr. Greenfield, please be so kind and tell us your attitude about (4) traditional upbringing.

Mr. Greenfield: Do you know Martin Luther King? He already said everything. Women have to stay at home, not somewhere (5) else!

Ms. O'Casey interrupts: What the hell are you talking about? I'm 32 years old and I'm a career woman. I don't have \_ (6) time to bring up

children. – And I don't want to. If a man wants to live with me, he has to take me as I am. I won't do the household (7) (8); I'll get (9) the money.

Mr. Greenfield: Who are you? I see, you would like to be a man. All women do.

Mrs. Fielding: You're wrong. I've married (10) a man like you – Of course a younger one. [the audience is laughing]  
I've made the household (11) over (12) 20 years of marriage (13). And who do you think brought up my 3 children? – I did. But I won't (14) do it again if I've (15) the choice. It's a hard job to bring up children and the parents should share the work. And of course they should share also (16) the household (17).

Mr. Simmons [guarded]: You know... I'm 19 years old and I'm a student. My girlfriend is also a student. We already talked about getting (18) children but we're not sure. Both of us have to learn (19) for exams. The only one who could help us to bring up a child is her grandmother. And I don't know why she should bring up our child.

Mr. Greenfield: Don't be scared, wimp! Get a child and let her do the work. A woman shouldn't be educated.

Ms O'Casey: You're really \_ (20) pesky old man.

Mrs. Fielding: He is old. That's why he honors traditional upbringing.

Mr. Greenfield: I'm 68 – Yes I'm old. In former times there was no discussion like this one. Everyone brang (21) up his children the same way.

The others: Welcome to the 21<sup>st</sup> century!

### Interior Monologue

He left at 6 o'clock without a kiss. I wouldn't care but he woke me up. – I'm tired. Of course he knows that I can't sleep anymore after he wakes (22) me up. I hate him. I really hate him when he wakes me up.

Wow, that "homo habilis" made himself breakfast. Of course he didn't put the bowl into the dishwasher – I've (23) to do it.

It's time to do (24) sandwiches for the children. Of course there is no cheese at home. – I sent him to buy some. But that's fine. Now I know what to do in the afternoon. – I'll go to the supermarket.

It's 7 o'clock – It's time to wake the children up: "Get up! You guys have to go to school! Get up!" – Hm, noone comes (25); it seems to be a normal day. Up the stairs – there I am. Before I turn the lights on I know what will (26) happen. Christopher, the older child, will yell at me and Christoph, the younger child, will put his head (27) under his cushion. – Yes, I was right; of course I was. That's work, not fun. I'm sure it is work.

The sandwiches are ready, everything is in the dishwasher – What else do I’ve (28a) to do? Oh, I forgot! Hurry, hurry. – Up the stairs and in (29a) the bathroom. No, I’m too late: “Christopher! Why can’t you brush your teeth without smearing the toothpaste on the mirror?” – I’ll clean it later. Maybe I shouldn’t clean it. The mirror will be dirty again tomorrow. Who cares? Yes, he cares. He will say: “My treasure! Why is the mirror dirty?” - And I’ll get a cleaning – cloth to clean the mirror.

“Boys! It’s time for school!” – I already know the answer. The Boys (30) don’t know what work (31) they are. Everyday the same. “Come on! You’ve got to go to school!”. – I know the answer. I’m not stupid. I tell (32) them to go to school 10 min earlier. They always need 10 min to come down the stairs.

They kiss \_ (33) before they go to school – Of course at home and not in public. I didn’t forget to put the sandwiches in (34) their school bags. I did it one time (35) and guess what? It was my fault!

I’ll go to the supermarket now, not in the afternoon. Do I have a car? Of course not! He got (36) (37) it to drive to work every day. Why can’t he walk 10 minutes (38a)?

First I’ve (28b) to go in (29b) the bathroom – I look crazy. But what does it matter? I’ve (28c) to walk 20 min, in the sun, to the supermarket (38b) (39). It will be a long way ...

## Article

My name is Christopher Marwin. I was born in 1972, in Ohio (40). I married Ivy at the age of 24. When I was 26, I decided not to work anymore. I wanted to stay at home to care about (41) our baby. Our baby was born in 1997.

My friends like to call me “househusband”. I do everything what (42a) the traditional woman does. – I cook, clean and I also bring up our baby. My wife, Ivy, does everything what (42b) the traditional man does. She goes to work every day. She likes to be (43) a successful career woman. Ivy does a great job. She works in a designer-shop and earns more money than I would earn. Ivy also enjoys her job, what (44) I would never do. What I do is no work. There are many things to do but I do not call it (45a) “work” because I like to do (46) it (45b). I really enjoy the housework.

The relationship between us is normal. It is just a mirror image of the traditional relationship (47). Ivy \_ (48) in the man-role (49a), also called the main-role and I am in the role of a (50) housewife. I also call the man-role (49b), the main-role because it is the dominant role. And Ivy is more dominant than I am.

The role of a housewife is not bad. The relationship between our child and me is much bigger (51) than the relationship between our child and her. Our child prefers to stay with me. That is the reason why I enjoy the mother-role. I feel like all other mothers in the world. The only difference is that I am a man – I don’t feel ashamed. I also do not regret my decision.

What do I do at home? You can not (52) believe that I do all work at home? I will tell you what I have done (53) yesterday:

I stood (54) up at 7 o’clock to make breakfast. I also made a lunch-packet (55a) for my wife – She says that she always enjoys my lunch-packet (55b) at work. After my wife

left (56), I started to clean the bathroom. I clean up one room every day. I have been (57) cleaning the bathroom while (58) Christopher, our baby, woke up. Actually he is not a baby anymore; Christopher is 5. I brought him to the kindergarden (59) at 9 o'clock. Christopher didn't want to leave me; he always wants to stay with me. I went home and finished cleaning the bathroom. That is what I did yesterday morning.

## NVBS 4

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### Interior Monologue

That's impossible. I'm working (1) 365 days a year, I have no holidays and during the year I have no time for me (2a). Not a minute!

And yesterday – they forgot Mother's Day. Brian was only watching TV and asking for dinner. I didn't say something (3), but in the evening ... yeah ...that was the highlight of the day. Brian and our boys were watching TV and I was crying in the kitchen. Marcus came in (4) the kitchen and asked only where's something to eat (5) (6) (7)? That was the height of impudence.

Today Brian and our boys are fishing and I'm cleaning David's room. He is 15 years old and I have to clean his room! Last week I found a condom under his bed. It gives me a feeling of disgust when I'm only thinking (8) of it. He is only 15 years old and Brian doesn't take care of our boys. I'm a woman – I'm the mother and I have to look after the boys.

I want to meet friends and have time for a bath or something like that. And I hate it when Brian is going out (9) with his friend. And I'm stupid and clean the toilet while he is having fun.

Marcus says that I'm uncool and he doesn't want that somebody sees him with his embarrassing mother. That's really hurtful and I doesn't (10) want to do the drudgery (11).

### Talk Show

H: Welcome to a new episode of "Talk with Larry". I have invited several guests for a discuss round (12) about gender – role stereotypes. Some questions: "Are you a house husband / wife?" "Are you working (13)?", ...

G: Martin Luther, I think you know him, said \_ (14) 1531 that women should stay at home, and I think he's right. Women are born to look after the children ... and to cook.

F: I'm a mother of 3 children and I have not a (15) job. My husband has (16a) an affair with a student, but I think it is okay, because ... he is a man and does what he wants ...

O: I don't understand that. He has (16b) an affair and you are still married? I'm a career woman and single. But that's okay, because I have a beautiful house and



- get my own money. And it's a shame that you have such an old, traditional opinion.
- F: I don't understand you. I have a husband<sub>2</sub> who is working (17) and I'm always at home – caring for my children.
- S: I'm a student and have a girlfriend. I think today it is very important that women have the same rights.
- G: The same rights? They should be happy that they are at home.
- O: Maybe – but I have to work! And my problem is that I'm getting (18) less money than my colleagues (19). And I had great problems to find (20) a job! Because “they” thought I wanted to get a child. Some people are still thinking (21) that I can not (22) work as hard as a man.
- G: I don't understand your problem. Okay, maybe it's for you a problem (23) but a woman can't carry a 30-pound-block and I think it is justified. And if you are pregnant, you get holidays.
- F: Holidays?
- S: That are (24) not holidays.
- O: Maternity break is a legal protection (25) and it is really important for the mother and the child.
- S: And now a father can also take a paternity leave. That is a good chance for fathers and relieves (26) the mother.

## Article

I'm a househusband and I love my work. Many people say that I'm not a real man. But I have fun with my work and I'm asking me (27) why women don't want to stay at home. My wife works and we have 3 children.

Mara is 16 years old and have (28) lots of teenage problems. I talk with her a lot and I have really (29) fun with (30) solving her problems.

I'm a really (31) family father and our son – Lukas (8) has really (32) problems in maths and I'm trying to help him. Before I had decided (33) to be a houseman, I was (34) cook (35) in a hotel. So I have no problems with dinner. Sarah is 4 years old and is during the day helping (36) (37) me. We have a great time together and I'm enjoying (38) the time with my daughters and my son.

But I'm really angry about people, (39) who think that I'm not a real man. Housework makes (40) fun and I love it.

Angelina, my wife, is really happy. At (41) the evening I have time for me (2b) and Angelina is looking for (42) (43) our children.

The decision to stay at home was really easy. After Sarah's birth Angelina wanted to continue working. At first I took a paternity break, but then I have decided (44) to quit my job. Angelina earns the money and I have no problems with it.

If I need money, I'll get it from her and also the holidays pays my wife (45) (46). At first it was strange, but now it is okay, because i (47) get money of (48) the state.

In the end (49) I want to say, (50) that the time at home is the best I ever had (51).



### Talk Show

- Host: Good evening. I like (1) to welcome you to my show “Let’s have a talk”. I’m Mr. Meyer, your host for tonight. My guest (2) today are Mr. Greenfield, Mrs. Fielding, Ms O’Casey and Mr. Simmons, and we are going to talk about gender – role stereotypes.  
Mr. Greenfield why don’t you start and tell us what you have to say about gender-role stereotypes.
- Mr. G: From the beginning on (3) I have to say that women are supposed to stay at home! There is no other purpose (4) for them.
- Ms C: What the hell are you talking about? That is just such a (5) rubbish. Rethink your attitude. Today women are often more successful in business than men.
- Mr. G: Don’t talk to me like that, go back into the kitchen.
- Host: Please, we don’t have to offend anyone. Mrs. Fielding what are you thinking (6)?
- Mrs. F: Well, I’m a housewife and mother of 3 children.
- Mr. G: See, a woman who knows where she belongs.
- Mrs. F: No, hold on. Staying at home was my own choice. When I was pregnant for the first time my husband and I had a discussion about who is going to (7) stay at home with the child. And I told him that I wanted to, even though I earned more money than him at that time.  
I just wanted to spend as much time as possible with my children. But as soon as they are all going (8) to school, I want to work again.
- Mr. S: But isn’t \_ (9) very hard to go back to work after a maternity break?
- Mrs. F: Yeah, that’s true, but I’m not worried about that at the moment. My youngest is only a year old, so I still have enough time to think about my job in \_ (10a) future.
- Ms. C: I don’t want to have children, ever! That would ruin my career. So many of my female colleagues couldn’t get a job anymore, after their maternity break. And (11) now they are housewives (12) and fulfil this typical gender role stereotype.
- Mr. S: I would be worried too. Some of my female friends who have a baby already have (13) difficulties to keep up (14) with all the work for university.
- Mr. G: There you see, Mrs. Fielding, you can’t work and have children at the same time. Even Martin Luther said that women are supposed to stay at home!
- Mrs. F: I’m sure I can handle both.
- Mr. S: Although many people, like Mr. Greenfield, still think that men ought to bring the money home (15) and protect his family (16) and the women’s task is to bring up the children, this attitude is changing more and more.

There are much (17) more men who are staying (18) at home than there used to be. I think that this is a very good development.

H: I think we should leave it for now. Thank you for coming. Good night!

### Interior Monologue

Oh no, the alarm clock is already ringing. I'm still so tired, because the baby wouldn't stop crying last night. I have to wake up the kids and make breakfast and their lunches (19). I'm so sick of it. Every morning it is the same. Actually every day is the same.

Oh bloody hell, why are these kids so loud? I'm happy when they are gone for school, then I'm alone with the baby and it is more quiet (20).

What do I have to do today? Oh, I have to do some shopping, cook dinner and I should clean the bathroom. I also might (21) go to the playground or to the park with my little princess. At least I can do one thing I like doing today. I enjoy it so much to be out there in the nature (22) and play with my little daughter, and not having (23) to stay at home. I feel so locked up (24) when I'm at home.

I never imagined that my life would end up like that. I always wanted children but never thought that I would be one of these women who stay at home all the time and there only exercise in life is to clean up, cook and look after the children. I hate all this cleaning up and cooking. I want to work again. I wouldn't get bored there. But I don't want to mention that to my husband. He wouldn't understand. He never understands anything. He doesn't realise that I'm not happy at the moment and that hurts so much. When I married him I always thought that he would help me with the household and the children. But he is working (25) all the time. And someone has to earn money, so I can't be ? with him. I love him and my children very much, it's just that I have the feeling that my life doesn't have a (26) sense.

The kids are getting older and older and soon they don't (27) need me anymore. Although they go on my nerves often (28) (29a), I think that I will have no idea what to do with all this spare time.

Because – quite frankly – I don't think that I will find a job again. I will be too old by then and there is only a very little chance that someone will take me.

I have the feeling that I only live for my husband and the kids. Often (29b) I ask myself if that is the life I always wanted to live. Sometimes I think about leaving everything behind me but then I remember all the happy moments with my family, for example when we are (30) all at the park, having a picnic.

I guess I'm lucky, I'm healthy, I have a husband who loves me and 4 adorable children. I better cook dinner now before everyone is coming (31) home.

### Article

I'm Chris Parker and I'm a househusband.

Many people ask me why, and actually that is a very good question.

I always liked children and when my wife got pregnant she was very successful in her job. So I came up with the idea that I'm staying (32) at home. At first she didn't think that this was a good idea but I convinced her that this was the best solution for everyone.

Our child is now 1 ½ years old. I enjoy being a househusband very much. There is always a new challenge (33) I have to go through (34). For example eating: I wasn't able to make myself ham and eggs before we had the baby, but last Thanksgiving I cooked the whole dinner by myself. Our family couldn't believe it.

Of course there are also many people, especially men who think that I'm gay or a wimp. Many come up and ask me why I do it, because men are the ones who earn the money and women are supposed to stay at home. When someone is telling (35) me that I only answer: "We are not living (36) in the past. Things have changed."

They just don't understand how interesting (37) such a life can be. It's so wonderful to watch your children grow up.

I'm very satisfied with my life and often when I'm at the park many mothers tell me how lucky my wife is that she has someone like me. And they would love to have a husband who is like me. They say that life would be so much easier for them if their husbands would help (38).

When I first told my parents that I'm staying (39) at home, my father was shocked. He was brought up in a very traditional way and he never thought that a man would look after the child and keep the household. But after a (40) time he got used to it. I don't think that he likes it, but he accepted it and I'm very thankful for that. My mother is a little bit proud of me, I guess, and she often comes over to help me or to see her grandson.

I wouldn't want to change anything in my life. I'm very happy with the way I live now and I hope that in \_ (10b) future more men stay (41) at home.

But because so many people still stick to these stereotypes it will take a long time until this phenomenon of a househusband will be "usual".

[May 2006, Chris Parker]

## VBS - EXAMS

### VBS 1

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#### Araby – James Joyce

Hearing the word "Araby" arouses feelings and connections to something magical, mystical, oriental, a place where pure love and adventures exist.

The main character of Joyce's short story "Araby", which appears in "The Dubliners" collection, certainly has a deep desire for something magical and new, something that will open the doors for him and let him out of his miserable, monotonous (1) life.

Joyce opens the story by describing North Richmond Street, a street with a house which is uninhabited and differs from all the other shining neighbouring houses, which are [“conscious of decent lives within them.”]

The narrator, whose name is never mentioned, is attending (2) school, but we do not get to know his exact age. After school he is playing (3) outside with friends, waiting to get a glimpse of Mangan’s sister. He describes her very thoroughly and it is clear that \_ (4) feels attracted to her. [“Her dress swung as she moved her body, and her soft rope of her hair tossed from side to side,”]...her figure defined by the light from the half-opened door.”] Joyce indeed uses a lot of lightning elements (5) to create different atmospheres. At the beginning of the story for instance, the feeble lanterns, already foreshadow a rather sombre ending of the story. The light also emphasizes the feminine beauty of Mangan’s sister, which seduces and enchates (6) the narrator. He would wait for her every morning to come out of the house, to follow her until their ways parted. He is so mesmerized by her beauty that her image follows him throughout day and night. During a [“dark rainy evening”], where again [“some distant lamp or lighted window gleamed below [him]”], he hears his secret love speaking to him, convincing him to go to the bazaar one evening. She tells him that she would not be able to go as there would be a retreat that week in her convent. But what would he find at the bazaar? He promises the girl to bring her something. The narrator grows very impatient (7), and can’t wait to visit this magical place “Araby”. Shopping with his aunt at the market place reminds him of what such a bazaar could look like. [“These noises converged in a single sensation of life for me.”] His life, to him, (8) isn’t very adventurous, and it is evident that he is longing for love, sexuality and to grow up.

Joyce uses a lot of oriental elements in this story, like the word “veil”, which is a cloth worn by many women in Islamic countries as well as silver bracelets. The oriental (9) countries stand for something unknown and mysterious, and that in fact is something that he is looking for.

The narrator’s uncle stands in his way as he comes home very late the day the boy wants to leave for the bazaar. His uncle tries to put his (10) idea out of the boy’s mind, whereas, (11) his aunt encourages him and persuades his uncle to let him go. The uncle seems to be rather conservative, and the boy doesn’t appreciate him.

During the story the narrator’s impatience is gradually growing (12) and he expects to find a glamorous place. To his disappointment, (13) all he actually finds is a dark, cold bazaar with very few people left. He even almost forgets the reason that made him come to the bazaar, and the fact that his desires are not fulfilled makes him very angry. [“Gazing up into the darkness I saw myself as a creature driven and derided by vanity; and my eyes burned with anguish and anger.”]

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## VBS 2

### Araby – James Joyce

Can any human being deny that love plays one of the most important role (1) in every life? James Joyce, the author of the famous short stories (2) collection, “The Dubliners”,

(3) undoubtedly does not. Therefore, he wrote one of the most frequently analysed short stories, which is called “Araby”.

Already, the title of his work makes us think of a foreign country, a place we do not know too well, but for sure we try to get as much (4) impressions as possible. Just the same way everyone finds love strange when felt for the first time, the way the narrator of the story feels when he meets his love.

First described are the surroundings of the Christian Brothers School (5), the (6) North Richmond Street and the houses located there. Already the first impression the reader gets is rather cold, dark and mystical at the same time \_ (7) and although the scene takes place at dusk time (8), the boys playing in the empty streets seem to enjoy it. [“The cold air stung us and we played till our bodies glowed.”]

Following (9), the narrators (10) uncle is introduced. He always seems to take the part of the one who destroys or disturbs something during the story, although he does it not on purpose (11) (12). When the boys see him coming they hide in the shadows and wait until he arrived (13) in (14) the house.

Just-when for the first time light is mentioned, which [“had filled the areas”], also (15) Magan’s sister is introduced. She represents the (16) perfect beauty and love for the narrator. Therefore he recognises (17) [“her dress swung as she moved her body, and her soft rope of hair tossed from side to side”]. The boy seems totally amazed by her and her beauty stays (18a) in strong contrast to the cold unfriendly surroundings in the streets.

During the next paragraph it becomes more and more clear (19), that she is the one and only love for him, although he does not seem to understand properly what love actually means. Furthermore, he is far too shy to talk to her, so he tries to be contented with just following her every morning, but already (20) [“yet her name was like a summons to all my foolish blood.”] Even though we do not know her name, the reader does not miss anything, because the word “Araby” has exactly the same meaning for the boy. It is strange and unknown but still beautiful and it fills him with admiration.

The next image, (21) the reader is confronted with, (22) is one which stays (18b), as well, in strong contrast to the last (23) ones. The boy and his aunt are visiting a market. Drunk (24) men and bargaining women are following their way (25), mixed with the chanting of street-singers. The place seems noisy and disordered, but even this atmosphere is a single sensation for the narrator and again he thinks about love. As there is often a close connection between music and love, the boy compares himself poetically to a harp while the girl’s [“words and gestures were like fingers running upon the wires”]. Here, his adoration seems to be at his (26) high point (27), but the next paragraph leads us even further into his world of deep passionate (28a) love.

The next evening is a very rainy one and there are no noises in the house. Now the rain and the mentioned lighted window (29) which gleamed (30) below him (31) try to clear (32) his sight and feelings, but all he can think of is his love and finally he starts to pray, murmuring [“O love! O love!”] many times. And just as if his prayer had been heard (33), she finally speaks to him. The narrator is almost too shy to answer her. She asks him if he was about (34) to go to “Araby”, a splendid bazaar because she cannot go there. It is to point out (35) that both, (36) her speaking to him and the first mention (37) of Araby are placed by James Joyce in the same paragraph. The reason for that is possibly that love is still strange to him, just like the bazaar (38) has such a strange and foreign name.

Even while she speaks he has difficulties with (39) listening to her and not simply admiring the girl for her perfect beauty. [“The light from the lamp opposite our door caught the white curve of her neck, lit up her hair that rested there and, falling, lit up the hand upon the railing”] In the end he tells her, (40) he will bring her something, if he goes to the bazaar.

From this evening on he constantly thinks of her, during \_ (41) night and during school time. Also now, the word “Araby” seems to be strongly connected with the image of the girl.

After reminding the uncle that he wants to visit the bazaar that evening, the atmosphere seems depressed as “the air was pitilessly raw.” The boy starts wandering around inside the house, watching the clock and staring out of the window. He is impatient because his uncle does not arrive and even the boys, playing in the street, seem totally different to him by now.

Finally, his uncle arrives. He has forgotten about the plans of his nephew but the boy is still allowed to go, although it has gotten rather late.

What he finds there is exactly reflecting (42) the name of the market. Everything seems strange and foreign to him, ranging from the porcelain vases and the flowered tea-sets over (43) the English accents of two young gentlemen to their way of standing at the entrance of a stall like eastern (44) guards. But while the boy listens to the men and a woman’s conversation, he tries to pretend to be interested in the offered goods (45) of (46) the stall. When the woman finally asks him if he intends to buy anything, he denies (47). In the end he turns slowly away, obviously disappointed by himself (48).

Maybe he is still too young to understand love and to be able to handle with (49) it. But certainly at this moment of epiphany his state can be described as being in [“the bonfires of vanity”]. And that is, (50) why his heart, driven between (51) passionate (27b) love and childish vanity, is filled with anguish and anger. James Joyce lets the story end with the boy’s (52) vision of himself between these contrary moods.

Possibly, one could compare James Joyce's short story with the search for the Holy Grail. This is, for some people, the search for the grail from which Jesus himself drank, for others it is simply finding the truest and purest love, just the one the boy in "Araby" seeks, the one we are all trying to find. Aren't we?

## VBS 3

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### What the future may bring ...

On the 16<sup>th</sup> of May, 2006, lets (1) say at about two o'clock, I will have to face a great and deciding (2) moment in life:

Matura will be done!

But what will come after the Matura? Will I study, or go to work, get to know my future husband and have children?

Thinking about the future gives me a positive feeling, but wait, thinking hard about the future does not make me feel that good at all! If I take a closer look, I am confronted with masses of future threats: Not even four years ago, the world was shaken on September 11<sup>th</sup>, as the Twintowers (3) fell after terrorists had crashed two planes into them.

After this event, society and politics went through dramatic changes. People all over the world fell into hysterics, anger arose over the state's incompetence (4) to avoid such events and the longing for security was stronger than ever. Politicians all over the world seized the opportunity and praised security and safety to get as many votes as possible.

Today, about four years later, security means (5) have taken over our society. Everywhere you go, you are confronted with cameras, (6) if you forget your backpack at the railway station, you take the risk of being arrested because a bomb might have been in that bag. Undoubtedly, every city has become more secure, and this is a great advantage but hopefully, we can dismiss a future similar to George Orwell's "1984"!

Being so much concerned with the threat of terrorism, people may oversee (7) the threats, (8) their own government offers. The USA tries its best to let its citizens know, (9) that they are safe from terrorist attacks, while, in the meantime, they are producing and storing nuclear weapons. Here, I have to put in my subjective opinion (10): If George W. Bush is able to bomb thousands civilians, including women and children, in Iraq only because there "may be" weapons of mass destruction hidden there, the threat of a nuclear war becomes more realistic than I want it to be ...

In addition, I think it is not justified (11) to spend millions of dollars for (12) military equipment, if you could spend it on social welfare (13) or education, for the population of Africa for example. There, more than 70% of the population suffer from great poverty and hunger. Civil wars and corrupt politicians slow down the development (14) of Africa. While people are dying from hunger, tonnes of bread and food, to be exact, 40% of all Vienna's waste, are thrown away every day and wheat is burned for heating.



Sadely (15), hunger is not the only big problem in Africa, as 70% of its population is infected with HIV or AIDS. Education in Africa is poor, therefore children and teenagers often have no clue what AIDS is and how to prevent it. In addition, poverty hinders the use of condoms or medical treatment for those, (16) who are infected. Even in our western world, people often underestimate the threat of AIDS and do not use condoms with the excuse:

“I know that I don’t have AIDS!”

The truth is, that you can carry the HIV virus in your body for decades, without even knowing because it did not break out (17) to be AIDS yet. To prevent AIDS, there should be more education and an easy or even free access to condoms.

As medicine has developed rapidly (18) in the past 10 years, maybe there will be a cure for AIDS one day. But finding such a cure takes a lot of medical research and is often linked to genetic engineering. Nowadays, with the help of genetic engineering, diseases (19) on (20) a foetus can be detected earlier, making an abortion a lot more easier (21) and safer. Cloned body tissue, taken from cells of an embryo, can be used for transplantations, which is particularly (22) useful (23) for patients who have specific and rare blood groups. Other common uses of genetic engineering are the fertilisation of women, (24) who are infertile, or the production of insulin (25) in pigs with the help of human genes. Even plants and animals are treated with human genes to make them get resistant to certain illnesses and to make them grow faster and bigger.

On the other hand, is it justified for us to play God like this? When does human life begin (26)? Are we murderers if we use embryos to get genetic material? In fact, all these experiments can be seen as experiments done on (27) human life. Maybe, one day, rich people will be able to create their own “super-children” who are beautiful (28) and intelligent whereas the “normal” children will have no chance in future life to compete with them. All this could be realized and (29) though genetic engineering could do a lot for our future health, who can actually afford it?

Nowadays, it is not even that easy to pay for the dentist anymore. Medical treatment gets more expensive every year. In my case, I might end up with my teeth standing all across in my mouth (30) (31) by the age of 25, only because I can not afford braces.

It gets harder to find a job and the wages get less and less. Even if you find a job, how long will you have it and what age will you have to reach to get a retirement (32)? Employers search for young, competent (33) people but as money is rather put into military use than into schools, education is left behind. Lessons are cancelled and teachers are paid (34) low (35), so will my children have the privilege (36) to get proper education?

The idea of having children scares me the most. One day, I would like to have children but I do not want to send them into an insecure future, where I don’t know if they will be able to have a job or education, if they will be able to afford their health (37) and if they will be able to live in a world which is deteriorating. As global warming causes catastrophes and the air we breathe (38) is polluted, we can literally (39) watch the earth dying. All these threats wander through my mind as I think about the future but what can I do about it?

It would not be wise to drift into panic and think that everything is lost. I try my best to do my best (40) to support the solutions of all those threats (41) by giving



charities (42), going to demonstrations or even by giving half of my pizza to the poor fellow next to me in the bus. I try to think about the positive things in life (43) as (44) love, friendship and hope and, yes, I will have a husband and children and I will face every problem (45) ahead (46) of us together with them.

## VBS 4

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### Global Threats

A threat is an indication of something undesirable coming, such as hunger, poverty, pandemics, terrorism, and ultimately sudden death.

Now, more than ever before, do people feel threatened by global issues. Global issues, because they – in one way or the other – affect everybody, irrespective of race, sex, origin or religion. However, there are issues which concern one geographic area more than other (1).

Hunger and poverty, for example, are issues which mainly concern people living in developing countries. It is also interesting to note that there are currently about 800 mio. people living in the shadow of hunger, while there is food thrown away that could feed more than a billion people. Hunger is therefore not a matter of availability of food, but rather affordability; (2) since most of the people die because they cannot afford paying for the food, not of scarcity thereof.

Pandemics, such as AIDS, malaria, bird (3)\_flu and the-like also affect more than just one region of the world. Diseases don't respect borders and therefore spread to (4) wherever they like.

Pandemics would describe (5) (6) diseases that are prevalent over a whole country or the world with that (7), (8) almost every single person living on this surface earth is or can be affected by pandemics. Who would have ever thought (9) about a disease such as the deadly bird flu spreading? Or did the Western World ever think (10) of being so (11) badly affected by HIV/AIDS the way it is today?

Terrorism, especially since September 2001, scares the world more than any other global threat. We've heard of terrorist attacks in America - the legendary Twin Towers - , have seen pictures and recordings of the bombings in London, and read (12) of many other terrorist attacks world-wide (13a).

Other than (14) diseases which spread widely but can be to some extent controlled, do we not really have (15) any way of protecting ourselves against terrorist attacks; they most often come without prior warning or information, claim the lives of thousands of innocent individuals, and cause pain to many loved ones – both friends and relatives.

In response to such (16), the government has tried to seize its opportunity to create and enhance their powers (17) through various means. People nowadays don't wonder about surveillance cameras anymore or why the police uses (18) some secret information about them which they did not give out. Could this control over the people and power-enhancement by governments lead to another threat?

Having introduced my main topics briefly (19), I now want to discuss them detailed (20).

Overlisted (21) are some facts about hunger and poverty. The – one might say – issue affecting the largest percentage of the world's population.

- The GNP of the world's poorest 48 countries in the world is less than the wealth of the three richest individuals.
- 20% of the world's population uses more than 86% of the world's goods and resources.
- One percent of what was (22) spent every year on weapons by the US was needed (23) to put every child world-wide into school, yet it did not happen (24)!
- In 2005 over two billion people entered the year without knowing how to read or even sign their names.
- 50% of all the food produced is thrown away.

Hunger and poverty are as closely related to each-other (25) as no other topic.

People die every die (26) because they can't afford paying for (27) food; food is being thrown away because people can't pay for it, an irony in itself. You might wonder, "Why don't food-producers just give the food to the hungry people then, before throwing it away?"

– (28) Truth is that it is all about profit. Companies, producers and the-like (29) are profit-oriented and wouldn't just give out food without gaining anything from it.

Another fact would be (30) that food-making is closely related to politics as well.

Western food is much cheaper than the food in the Third World because farmers and food-producing companies receive a lot of subsidies from their governments. Over 40 percent of the EU's budget is spent on supporting the first economic sector, which is agriculture. Therewith (31) enabling (32) farmers to continue farming and selling their goods cheaply, since the government supports them financially.

In developing countries, on the other hand, the government offers almost no help at all and people working on farms don't receive any kind of subsidy. They, because of that, have to (33) sell the food at a higher cost in order to secure their living. People living in developing countries now go to their own local markets and find all sorts of goods; the local food from the neighbour next door, and the Western food which could be exported out of the industrialized countries right into the midst of the developing. People, not having much money, naturally choose (34) to buy the Western food because it is cheaper!! Local governments have badly failed in establishing a healthy economy for their people. It must be added, however, that most poor countries spend almost 70%

of their GNP on debt -repayment (35) and have less money to spend on other necessary things; such as education, health and security.

Another sad truth would be (36) that the industrialized countries are to blame for the fate of many people dying of lack of essential nutrients (37). Water, for instance, is the number one human need: Fact:

- 12 percent of the world's population uses 85 percent of the clean water available; and these 12% are (38) not in the Third World!

Not having any other option, since there is no access to clean water, people have gotten used to drinking unclean water. There are various water-borne diseases and people drinking such unclean water are very likely to be infected by them.

Saying that there isn't enough water for everyone in the world, however, would be just as wrong as to say there isn't enough food available.

About 30%, say facts (39), of the water "used" is being wasted, just as about 50% of food is being thrown away.

Nevertheless, did the UN-Report of Economic Development say (40) that "food production must be increased (41) 50% by the year 2025 to feed the growing world population".

Wanting to (42) continue with the problem of pandemics, here some (43) facts:

- About some 70 percent of all HIV/AIDS-infected people live in Sub-Saharan Africa.
- Roughly \$3 bio. would be needed on (44) preventing (45) the spread of AIDS world-wide (13b), but since most infected people live outside the "First World" it is considered to be a waste of money.
- About 3,2 mio. children below the age of five years die annually of AIDS or other wide-spread (46) diseases.

It is interesting to note the Western media's attention to (47) AIDS. HIV/AIDS and other incurable diseases have existed for long - of which (48) (49) the world (50) well knew.

Never the less (51), did nobody really care or mind (52) to help the people affected by them.

As can be seen on the list of global priorities, what the world spends most of its money on, are: cosmetics, pet foods, alcohols (53), perfumes and, most especially (54), weapons!

But when HIV/AIDS began to spread and people began to see and accept the fact that it was a plague that could reach them as well, they started taking some measures against it. Such as speaking about it openly and encouraging people – especially youths, who are the most affected – to abstain from sex as long as possible or at least protect themselves.

Not surprisingly, is the treatment of HIV/AIDS (55) an issue of its own.

The cost of proper treatment is in (56) average \$20.000 per year! And although pharmacist (57) responsible for the preparation of those drugs needed for treatment were told to cut prizes down (58) (59), they remain high. Again, it is all about money-making, since it is a highly profitable business, which only people with a high income can afford.

Deloving (60) countries are left to suffer again, since they do not stand (61) the probability of receiving (62) affordable treatment or cheap medicine.

The fate of the world we live in is not certain either, since people are destroying it bit by bit; every single one of us.

Our natural environment faces various dangers, since human beings don't find it necessary to treat nature carefully. The environment is gradually disrupted (63) because people act without thinking about possible resulting and lasting consequences of their actions on nature (64).

More and more food, which is thrown away anyway, is being produced, causing the destruction of the soil due to over-production. The water loses its likelihood (65), due to over-fishing, and natural areas are victims of the hand of men too, leading to desertifications (66) and deforestations (67). The natural gases, oil and coals we use for gaining (68) energy emit carbon. Carbon in return damages the Earth's protective (69) Ozon (70) layer, causing acid rain. Nuclear power, which gives us about 8% of the world's energy, produces radioactive waste;

And traditional biomass fuels – such as solid wood – giving (71) about 10 percent of the world's energy, cause air pollutions.

Humanity has failed in many aspects, ultimately causing its own destruction.

The world I would like to live in would be one, in (72) which people learn how to love and get along with each other.

No place on Earth has ever been perfect, at no time in history, nor do I think it will ever be (73). But one thing I do believe, namely that things can improve and stay better.

That is the main reason I decided (74) to study the course “(Third-World) Development Studies” at university. The course mainly deals with understanding why there is such a big gap between the Western World and the so-called Third World, why things – goods and resources – are so inequitable (75) (76) distributed, and the politics behind why some people have to suffer for the well-being of others.

I think understand (77) why, (78) will lead to and bring about solutions, when using and implementing the information gotten somewhere.

A lot of things haven't changed or improved, because many people don't understand the root or source of their predicament.

I believe that a problem confronted and addressed, (79) will give you a solution.

I am very positive about the future of Africa, the Third World, and the rest.

If people begin to join hands and decide to march forward together, we could be living in a world that favours every single one of us!

**Araby – James Joyce**

„Araby“ was written by James Joyce and is one of \_\_ (1) stories of the series (2) „The Dubliners“. The protagonist and narrator, a boy, whose name isn't mentioned, lives with his uncle and his aunt in Ireland. The boy is deeply in love with the sister of his friend Mangan but he is to (3) shy and awkward to start a conversation with her. Even in the most hostile (4) places, like when he is marketing with his aunt, he has to think of his love. Finally the girl asked (5) the boy to meet at the market place, Araby, and after he recovered from a paralysation (6) he agrees. Ironically the uncle of the boy, with whom he wanted to go to Araby, comes home late and when the boy decides to go there alone, he finds himself in a big hall where he gets (7a) confronted with the (8a) reality. Nearly all stalls are closed and the girl isn't there.

James Joyce opens the story with the description (9) \_ (10) a quiet street in Ireland named “North Richmond Street”. The reader gets the impression of a mysterious and gloomy place since there are no people walking around (11). In the second paragraph the atmosphere changes from dark and gloomy to friendly and happy. By saying [“The space of sky above us was the colour of ever-changing videt ...”] the reader gets the impression of a fairy-tale. The boy lives with his uncle and his aunt in a middle class house. By saying (12) [“If my uncle was seen turning the corner, we hid in the shadow until we had seen him safely housed.”] his uncle is introduced. The reason why he is so scared of his uncle could be, that he is very strict as this is the first sentence when the uncle is introduced. It is very significant that the boy is the narrator, although the narrator seems to be more mature than the (13) boy. In the following lines two other main characters are introduced, Mangan and his sister. It gets (14a) obvious for the reader that the boy is deeply in love with the girl when the boy “waited (15) to see wether (16) she would reamain (17)” and “watched her from his shadow peer \_ (18).” In the next paragraph the main theme, love, gains strength.

When the girl finally asked (19) him to go to Araby the boy was (20) busy looking at her hair. The exact description of the girl could symbolise that he is so blind of love that he doesn't realize the bad aspects of her and neither realizes that it would be better to say something instead of keeping silent. After agreeing to meet at Araby the boy got (21) totally dependet (22) on his uncle, because he wants to go there with him. Ironically the boy gets (7b) confronted with the (8b) reality the first time, when his uncle didn't (23) arrive home at the time he should have. As (24) the uncle then finally arrives home and says that he is sorry and that he believed (25) in the old saying: [“All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy”] the reader gets the impression that the uncle didn't (26) care a lot about the boy. Till now the boy is not mature enough to question that anything could go wrong.

Finally he drives (27) by himself in a [“third-class carriage of a deserted train”], which could symbolise the helpless (28) situation he was (29) in right now. By saying [“In front of me was a large building which displayed a magical name”] he could see Araby as something magical because the market place was the reason for the girl to talk to him or he could simply see the market place as something magical because there are so many (30) people trading with goods and meeting there.

However, the atmosphere changes again as the boy enters the big hall. The boy would have expected a light and jolly place, but instead he realized (31) that nearly all the stalls were (32) closed and the greater part of the hall was (33) in darkness.

By saying “Remembering with difficulty why I had come ...” it gets (14b) obvious that the boy starts to realize what had (34) happened and isn’t dreaming anymore. The boy then went (35) to a stall and an unfriendly voice asked (36) him if he wanted (37) to buy something. By emphasizing that her voice wasn’t (38) encouraging we could think that the boy now would have needed compassion.

The darkness of the hall represents the boy’s anger and the darker it got (39), the more obvious it got (14c) (40) for him, what’s going on in reality.

Although the uncle is portrayed as an unpleasant person he is the reason why the boy gets (7c) confronted with the truth. If he hadn’t been, the boy probably still would be (41) blind of love.

The only reason why the boy is so deeply in love is because of her beauty. That could also be the reason why he is so vain (42). If he would know (43) her better he maybe would realize that she also has negative aspects.

It is very significant that James Joyce (44) had chosen not to mention the object of the narrators (45) affection until the middle of the second paragraph. Maybe Joyce wanted to indicate that he only sees the girl coincidentally (46).

The whole story seems to be very autobiographical and it is possible that the little boy is Joyce himself.

## TABLE OF ERRORS - NVBS

### NVBS 1

1	Pleace [...]	Please [...]	S – Sp
2	[...] introduce yourself [...]	[...] yourselves [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Morph – Agreement (Pl)
3	Tell us about [...]	Tell us your [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Addition
4	[...] earn money [...]	[...] earn the money [...]	T – Gr – Art – Omission
5	[...] do the household [...]	[...] do the chores [...]	T – Lex – Coll
6	[...] bearing and raising children [...]	[...] they have to bear and raise the children [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Misselection
7	I'm working for ten years [...]	I have worked for ten years [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Perfect Simple
8	[...] what hard work really is [...]	[...] what hard work that really is [...]	D – Coherence
9	[...] a career women [...]	[...] a career woman [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph – Agreement (Sg)
10	[...] to spent [...]	[...] to spend [...]	S – Sp
11	[...] like I'm already [...]	[...] like you're already [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Misselection
12	I've [...]	I have worked for [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
13	[...] at a little office [...]	[...] in a little office [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
14	They think that's matter of course - [...]	They take it for granted - [...]	T – Lex – Misformation
15	I'm doing [...]	I do [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
16	[...] ever knew [...]	[...] have always known [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
17			T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Perfect Simple
18	[...] want [...]	[...] wanted [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
19	I'm feeling [...]	I feel [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
20	[...] nevertheless [...]	[...] still [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
21	The last seven years [...]	During the last seven years [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Omission
22	When [...]	If [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
23	[...] would start [...]	[...] started [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
24	[...] washing clothes and cleaning [...]	[...] wash clothes and clean [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Misselection
25	[...] make [...]	[...] do [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
26	[...] toiletts [...]	[...] toilets [...]	S – Sp
27	When [...]	If [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
28	[...] maybe we can [...]	[...] we can maybe [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering



<b>1</b>	[...] had discovered [...]	[...] discovered [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
<b>2</b>	[...] had [...]	[...] have [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
<b>3</b>	[...] read [...]	[...] had read [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Perfect
<b>4</b>	[...] this publication he [...]	[...] this publication, he [...]	S – Punct
<b>5</b>	[...] failed [...]	[...] failed [...]	S – Sp
<b>6</b>	[...] to bring up [...] to his children [...]	[...] to impose [...] on his children	T – Lex – Misselection
<b>7</b>	[...] fixed bedtime [...]	[...] a fixed bedtime [...]	T – Gr – Art – Omission
<b>8</b>	[...] would accepted [...]	[...] would accept [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Morph – Addition
<b>9</b>	[...] go voluntary to bed [...]	[...] go to bed voluntarily [...]	T – Gr – Adv – Morph – Omission
<b>10</b>			T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
<b>11</b>	[...] expect [...]	[...] except [...]	S – Sp
<b>12</b>	[...] till the afternoon [...]	[...] till afternoon [...]	T – Gr – Art – Omission
<b>13</b>	[...] to watch the television.	[...] to watch television.	T – Gr – Art – Addition
<b>14</b>	[...] cruel movie [...]	[...] gruesome movie [...]	T – Lex – Coll
<b>15</b>	[...] sit by them.	[...] sit with them.	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
<b>16</b>	[...] that children would not see [...] is to broadcast [...]	[...] that children will not see [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – will - Future
<b>17</b>	[...] not see something [...]	[...] not see anything	T – Gr – Pron – Misselection
<b>18</b>	[...] educating methods [...]	[...] educational methods [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph
<b>19</b>	[...] can not [...]	[...] cannot [...]	S – Sp
<b>20</b>	[...] agree [...]	[...] agree [...]	S – Sp
<b>21</b>	[...] the Kemps's [...]	[...] the Kemps' [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph – Genitive
<b>22</b>	[...] controll [...]	[...] control [...]	S – Sp
<b>23</b>	[...] decision. Because [...]	[...] decision because [...]	S – Punct
<b>24</b>	[...] foreign child [...]	[...] any child	T – Lex – Misselection
<b>25</b>	[...] watch movies on the television [...]	[...] watch movies on television.	T – Gr – Art – Addition
<b>26</b>	They educated [...]	They have educated [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Perfect Simple
<b>27</b>	[...] educated their children not strict [...]	[...] educated their children not strictly [...]	T – Gr – Adv – Morph – Misselection
<b>28</b>	[...] as I write before [...]	[...] as I wrote before [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
<b>29</b>	[...] if you allow [...]	[...] if you allowed [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
<b>30</b>	[...] when it is forbidden for them.	[...] when it is unsuitable for them.	T – Lex – Misselection
<b>31</b>	[...] grown-ups. Because [...]	[...] grown-ups because [...]	S – Punct



32	[...] broadcast station [...]	[...] broadcasting station [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph
33	[...] station should [...]	[...] stations should [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph – Agreement (Pl)
34	[...] should forbid [...]	[...] should be forbidden to show [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Passive
35	[...] on TV. And [...]	[...] on TV and [...]	S – Punct
36	And at last [...]	And finally, [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
37	[...] on TV has been based [...]	[...] on TV is based [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
38	[...] stations could not [...]	[...] stations should not [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
39	[...] TV viewer.	[...] TV viewers.	T – Gr – Noun – Morph – Agreement (Pl)
40	[...] only one [...]	[...] only ones [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Morph – Agreement (Pl)
41	[...] watch the movie [...]	[...] watch a certain movie [...]	T – Gr – Article – Misselection
42	[...] I watch [...]	[...] I watched [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
43	[...] question of the education.	[...] a question of education.	T – Gr – Art – Addition
44	[...] that fixed bedtime [...]	[...] that a fixed bedtime [...]	T – Gr – Art – Omission
45	[...] are only showed [...]	[...] are only shown [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Morph
46	[...] during the night.	[...] in the night.	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
47	[...] they also can [...]	[...] they can also [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
48	[...] they also can control [...]	[...] they would also be able to [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Misselection

### NVBS 3

1	I've invented [...]	I've invited [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
2	[...] discussion round [...]	[...] discussion [...]	T – Lex – Misformation
3	[...] points to [...]	[...] points at [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
4	[...] attitude about [...]	[...] attitude to [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
5	[...] not somewhere else [...]	[...] not anywhere else	T – Gr – Pron – Misselection
6	[...] have time [...]	[...] have the time [...]	T – Gr – Art – Omission
7	[...] do the household [...]	[...] organise the household chores	T – Lex – Coll
8			S – Sp
9	[...] get the money [...]	[...] bring home the money [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
10	I've married [...]	[...] I married [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
11	I've made the household [...]	I've organised the household [...]	T – Lex – Coll

12	[...] over 20 years [...]	[...] for more than [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
13	Marrige [...]	Marriage [...]	S – Sp
14	I won't do [...]	I wouldn't do [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – would + inf
15	I've the choice [...]	I had the choice [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
16	[...] should share also [...]	[...] should also share [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
17	[...] share the household [...]	[...] share the chores	T – Lex – Coll
18	[...] about getting a child [...]	[...] about having a child [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
19	[...] learn for exams [...]	[...] study for exams [...]	T – Lex – Coll
20	[...] really pesky old man [...]	[...] really a pesky old man [...]	T – Gr – Art – Omission
21	[...] brang up [...]	[...] brought up [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Morph
22	[...] wakes me up [...]	[...] woke me up [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
23	I have to it [...]	I will have to dot it [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – will - Future
24	[...] to do sandwiches [...]	[...] to make sandwiches	T – Lex – Misselection
25	[...] noone comes [...]	[...] noone is coming [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Progressive
26	[...] will happen [...]	[...] is going to happen [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – going to - Future
27	[...] had [...]	[...] head [...]	S – Sp
28	[...] do I've to [...]	[...] do I have to [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
29	[...] in the bathroom [...]	[...] into the bathroom [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
30	[...] the Boys [...]	The boys [...]	S – Sp
31	[...] what work [...]	[...] what hard work [...]	T – Lex – Conf – Omission
32	I tell them [...]	I told them [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
33	They kiss before [...]	They kiss me before [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Omission
34	[...] in their school bags [...]	[...] into their school bags [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
35	[...] did it one time [...]	[...] did it once [...]	T – Lex - Misselection
36	He got it [...]	He has it [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
37			T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
38	[...] walk 10 minutes [...]	[...] for 10 minutes [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Omission
39	[...] 20 minutes in the sun to the supermarket [...]	[...] 20 minutes to the supermarket, in the sun [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
40	[...] in 1972, in Ohio [...]	[...] in Ohio, in 1972 [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
41	[...] care about [...]	[...] care for [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
42	[...] everything what [...]	[...] everything that [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Misselection
43	[...] likes to be [...]	[...] likes being [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Misselection
44	[...] what I would [...]	[...] which I would [...]	T – Gr. – Pron – Misselection
45	I do not call it [...]	I do not call them [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Agreement (Pl)
46	I like to do [...]	I like doing [...]	T – Gr – Verb –

			Misselection
47	[...] a mirror image of the traditional relationship [...]	[...] an example of the traditional relationship [...]	T – Lex – Misformation
48	Ivy in the man-role [...]	Ivy is in the role of the man [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Omission
49			T – Lex – Misformation
50	[...] role of a housewife [...]	[...] role of the housewife [...]	T – Gr – Art – Misselection
51	[...] is much bigger [...]	[...] is much greater [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
52	[...] can not [...]	[...] cannot [...]	S – Sp
53	I have done yesterday [...]	I did yesterday [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
54	I stood up [...]	I got up [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
55	I made a lunch-packet [...]	I made lunch [...]	T – Lex – Misformation
56	[...] my wife left [...]	[...] my wife had left [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Perfect
57	I have been cleaning [...]	I was cleaning [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Progressive
58	[...] while [...]	[...] when [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
59	[...] kindergarden [...]	[...] kindergarten [...]	S – Sp

#### NVBS 4

1	I'm working [...]	I work [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
2	[...] no time for me [...]	[...] no time for myself [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Misselection
3	I didn't say something [...]	I didn't say anything [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Misselection
4	[...] in the kitchen [...]	[...] into the kitchen [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
5	[...] asked only where's something to eat [...]	[...] only asked where there was something to eat [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
6			T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
7			T – Gr – Pron – Omission
8	I'm only thinking of it [...]	I only think of it [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
9	[...] is going out [...]	[...] goes out [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
10	I doesn't want to [...]	I don't want to [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Morph – Agreement
11	[...] to do the drudgery [...]	[...] to do all the hard work [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
12	[...] discuss round [...]	[...] discussion [...]	T – Lex – Misformation
13	Are you working?	Do you work?	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
14	[...] said 1531 [...]	[...] said in 1531 [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Omission
15	I have not [...]	I don't have [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Negation
16	My husband has [...]	My husband had [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense –

			Past Simple
17	[...] who is working [...]	[...] who works [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
18	I'm getting [...]	I get [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
19	[...] colleagues [...]	[...] colleagues [...]	S – Sp
20	[...] problems to find [...]	[...] problems finding [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Misselection
21	[...] are still thinking [...]	[...] still think [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
22	[...] can not [...]	[...] cannot [...]	S – Sp
23	[...] it's for you a problem [...]	[...] it's a problem for you [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
24	That are [...]	They are [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Misselection
25	[...] legal protection [...]	[...] right [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
26	[...] relieves [...]	[...] disburdens [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
27	I'm asking me [...]	I'm asking myself [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Misselection
28	[...] have [...]	[...] has [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Morph – Agreement
29	I have really [...]	I really have [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
30	[...] have fun with solving [...]	[...] have fun solving [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Addition
31	I'm a really family father [...]	I'm a real family father [...]	T – Gr – Adj – Morph – Misselection
32	He has really problems [...]	He really has problems [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
33	I had decided [...]	I decided [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
34	I was cook [...]	I had been a cook [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Perfect Simple
35			T – Gr – Art – Omission
36	[...] is during the day helping me [...]	[...] helps me during the day [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
37			T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
38	I'm enjoying [...]	I enjoy [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
39	[...] people, who [...]	[...] people who [...]	S – Punct
40	[...] makes fun [...]	[...] is fun [...]	T – Lex – Coll
41	At the evening [...]	In the evening [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
42	[...] is looking for [...]	[...] looks after [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
43			T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
44	I have decided [...]	I decided [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
45	[...] also the holidays pays my wife [...]	[...] also the holidays are paid for by my wife [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Passive
46			T – Gr – Prep – Omission
47	[...] i [...]	[...] I [...]	S – Sp
48	[...] get money of [...]	[...] get money from [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
49	In the end [...]	Finally [...]	T – Lex – Misselection

<b>50</b>	I want to say, that [...]	I want to say that [...]	S – Punct
<b>51</b>	I ever had [...]	I have ever had [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Perfect Simple

## NVBS 5

<b>1</b>	I like [...]	I would like [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – would + inf
<b>2</b>	My guest [...]	My guests [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph – Agreement (Pl)
<b>3</b>	From the beginning on [...]	At first [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
<b>4</b>	[...] no other purpose [...]	[...] no other place [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
<b>5</b>	[...] such a rubbish [...]	[...] such rubbish [...]	T – Gr – Art – Addition
<b>6</b>	[...] are you thinking [...]	[...] do you think [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
<b>7</b>	[...] is going to [...]	[...] was going to [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
<b>8</b>	[...] are all going [...]	[...] all go [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
<b>9</b>	But isn't very hard [...]	But isn't it very hard [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Omission
<b>10</b>	[...] in future [...]	[...] in the future [...]	T – Gr – Art – Omission
<b>11</b>	[...] break. And [...]	[...] break and [...]	S – Punct
<b>12</b>	[...] housewives [...]	[...] housewives [...]	S – Sp
<b>13</b>	[...] already have difficulties [...]	[...] have already had difficulties [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Perfect Simple
<b>14</b>	[...] to keep up [...]	[...] keeping up [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Misselection
<b>15</b>	[...] bring the money home [...]	[...] bring home the money [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
<b>16</b>	[...] his family [...]	[...] their families [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph – Agreement (Pl)
<b>17</b>	[...] much more men [...]	[...] many more men [...]	T – Gr – Adj – Misselection
<b>18</b>	[...] are staying [...]	[...] stay [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
<b>19</b>	[...] lunches [...]	[...] lunches [...]	S – Sp
<b>20</b>	[...] more quiet [...]	[...] quieter [...]	T – Gr – Adj – Morph – Comparison
<b>21</b>	I also might [...]	I might also [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
<b>22</b>	[...] out there in the nature [...]	[...] outside [...]	T – Lex – Misformation
<b>23</b>	[...] not having [...]	[...] not to have [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Misselection
<b>24</b>	[...] locked up [...]	[...] locked in [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
<b>25</b>	[...] is working [...]	[...] works [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
<b>26</b>	[...] have a sense [...]	[...] have sense [...]	T – Gr – Art – Addition
<b>27</b>	[...] don't need [...]	[...] won't need [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – will - Future
<b>28</b>	[...] go on my nerves often [...]	[...] often get on my nerves [...]	T – Lex – Coll

29	Often I ask [...]	I often ask [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
30	[...] we are all [...]	[...] we were all [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
31	[...] is coming [...]	[...] comes [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
32	I'm staying [...]	I stay [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
33	[...] challange [...]	[...] challenge [...]	S – Sp
34	[...] to go through [...]	[...] to face [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
35	[...] is telling [...]	[...] tells [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
36	[...] are not living [...]	[...] don't live [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
37	[...] interessting [...]	[...] interesting [...]	S – Sp
38	[...] would help [...]	[...] helped [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
39	I'm staying [...]	I was staying [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Progressive
40	[...] after a time [...]	[...] after time [...]	T – Gr – Art – Addition
41	[...] stay [...]	[...] will stay [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – will - Future

## TABLE OF ERRORS - NVBS

### VBS 1

1	[...] monotoniuos [...]	[...] monotonous [...]	S – Sp
2	[...] is attending [...]	[...] attends [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
3	[...] is playing [...]	[...] plays [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
4	[...] that feels [...]	[...] that he feels [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Omission
5	[...] lightning elements [...]	[...] colours [...]	T – Lex – Misformation
6	[...] enchates [...]	[...] enchants [...]	S – Sp
7	[...] unpatient [...]	[...] impatient [...]	T – Gr – Adj – Morph
8	His life to him isn't [...]	His life, to him, isn't [...]	S – Punct
9	The oriental countries [...]	The Oriental countries [...]	S – Sp
10	[...] to put his idea [...]	[...] to put the idea [...]	D – Coherence
11	[...] the boy's mind whereas, his [...]	[...] the boy's mind whereas his [...]	S – Punct
12	[...] impatience is gradually growing [...]	[...] impatience gradually grows [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
13	To his disappointment all [...]	To his disappointment, all [...]	S – Punct

1	[...] role [...]	[...] roles [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph – Agreement (Pl.)
2	[...] short stories collection [...]	[...] collection of short stories [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Genitive
3	[...] collection "The Dubliners" undoubtedly [...]	[...] collection, "The Dubliners", undoubtedly [...]	S – Punct
4	[...] much impressions [...]	[...] many impressions [...]	T – Gr – Adj – Misselection
5	First described are the surroundings of the Christian Brothers School [...]	First the surroundings of the Christian Brothers School are described [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
6	[...] the North Richmond Street [...]	North Richmond Street [...]	T – Gr – Art – Addition
7	[...] at the same time [...]	[...] and at the same time, [...]	S – Punct
8	[...] dusk time [...]	[...] dusk [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
9	Following [...]	Next [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
10	[...] narrators [...]	[...] narrator's [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph – Genitive
11	[...] does it not on purpose [...]	[...] does not do it on purpose [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Negation
12			T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
13	[...] he arrived in the house [...]	[...] he arrives at the house [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
14			T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
15	[...] also Mangan's sister is introduced [...]	Mangan's sister is also introduced [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
16	She represents the perfect beauty [...]	She represents perfect beauty [...]	T – Gr – Art – Addition
17	[...] recognises [...]	[...] notices that [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
18	[...] stays in contrast [...]	[...] is in contrast [...]	T – Lex – Coll
19	[...] more and more clear [...]	[...] clearer and clearer [...]	T – Gr – Adj – Morph. – Comparison
20	[...] but already yet [...]	[...] but yet [...]	T – Lex – Misselection – Addition
21	The next image, the reader [...]	The next image the reader [...]	S – Punct
22	[...] confronted with, is [...]	[...] confronted with is [...]	S – Punct
23	[...] last ones [...]	[...] the one created in the beginning of the story [...]	D – Coherence
24	Drunk men [...]	Drunken men [...]	T – Gr – Adj – Morph
25	[...] are following their way [...]	[...] are following their ways [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph – Agreement (Pl.)
26	[...] at his high point [...]	[...] at its climax [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Misselection
27			T – Lex – Misselection
28	[...] passionate love [...]	[...] passion-filled love [...]	T – Lex – Misformation

29	[...] mentioned lighted window [...]	[...] lighted window mentioned [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
30	[...] gleamed [...]	[...] gleams [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
31	[...] window which [...]	[...] window, which ..., try [...]	S – Punct
32	[...] try to clear [...]	[...] clear [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
33	[...] had been heard [...]	[...] has been heard [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Perfect
34	[...] was about to go [...]	[...] is on his way to [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
35	It is to point out [...]	This points out [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
36	[...] that both, her speaking [...]	[...] that both her speaking [...]	S – Punct
37	[...] mention [...]	[...] mentioning [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Misselection
38	[...] the bazaar has [...]	[...] the bazaar, which has [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Omission
39	[...] difficulties with listening [...]	[...] difficulties listening [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Addition
40	In the end he tells her, he [...]	In the end he tells her he [...]	S – Punct
41	[...] during night [...]	[...] during the night [...]	T – Gr – Art – Omission
42	[...] what he finds there is exactly reflecting [...]	[...] what he finds there exactly reflects [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
43	[...] ranging from ... over [...]	[...] ranging from ... to [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
44	[...] eastern guards [...]	Eastern guards [...]	S – Sp
45	[...] offered goods [...]	[...] goods offered [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
46	[...] of the stall [...]	[...] at the stall [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
47	[...] he denies [...]	[...] he says no [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
48	[...] disappointed by himself [...]	[...] disappointed with himself [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
49	[...] to handle with it [...]	[...] to handle it [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Addition
50	And that is, why [...]	And that is why [...]	S – Punct
51	[...] driven between [...]	[...] caught up between [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
52	[...] boys vision [...]	[...] boy's vision [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph – Genitive
53	James Joyce short story [...]	James Joyce's short story [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph – Genitive

### VBS 3

1	[...] lets [...]	[...] let's [...]	S – Sp
2	[...] deciding moment [...]	[...] decisive moment [...]	T – Gr – Adj – Morph
3	Twintowers [...]	Twin Towers [...]	S – Sp
4	[...] incompetence [...]	[...] incompetence [...]	S – Sp
5	[...] security means [...]	[...] safety means [...]	T – Lex – Misselection



6	[...] cameras, if [...]	[...] cameras if [...]	S – Punct
7	[...] people may oversee [...]	[...] people may overlook [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
8	[...] the threats, their [...]	[...] the threats their [...]	S – Punct
9	[...] citizens know, that [...]	[...] citizens know that [...]	S – Punct
10	[...] oppinion [...]	[...] opinion [...]	S – Sp
11	[...] justified [...]	[...] justifiable [...]	T – Gr – Adj – Morph.
12	[...] spend ... for [...]	[...] spend [...] on [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
13	[...] wellfare [...]	[...] welfare [...]	S – Sp
14	[...] developement [...]	[...] development [...]	S – Sp
15	Sadely [...]	Sadly [...]	S – Sp
16	[...] for those, who [...]	[...] for those who [...]	S – Punct
17	[...] did not break out [...]	[...] has not broken out [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Perfect
18	[...] rapidly [...]	[...] rapidly [...]	S – Sp
19	[...] deseases on [...]	[...] diseases of [...]	S – Sp
20			T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
21	[...] more easier [...]	[...] easier [...]	T – Gr – Adj – Morph – Comparison
22	[...] particularly [...]	[...] particularly [...]	S – Sp
23	[...] usefull [...]	[...] useful [...]	S – Sp
24	[...] women, who [...]	[...] women who [...]	S – Punct
25	[...] insuline [...]	[...] insulin [...]	S – Sp
26	[...] beginn [...]	[...] begin [...]	S – Sp
27	[...] done on [...]	[...] on [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Addition
28	[...] beautifull [...]	[...] beautiful [...]	S – Sp
29	[...] realized and though [...]	[...] realized. Though [...]	S – Punct
30	[...] with my teeth standing all across in my mouth [...]	[...] crooked teeth [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
31			S – Sp
32	[...] retirement [...]	[...] pension [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
33	[...] compitent [...]	[...] competent [...]	S – Sp
34	[...] payed low [...]	[...] paid few [...]	S – Sp
35			T – Lex – Misselection
36	[...] priviledge [...]	[...] privilege [...]	S – Sp
37	[...] afford their health [...]	[...] afford a doctor [...]	T – Lex – Coll
38	[...] we breath [...]	[...] we breathe [...]	S – Sp
39	[...] literaly [...]	[...] literally [...]	S – Sp
40	I try my best to do my best [...]	I try my best to [...]	D – Coherence
41	[...] to support the solutions of all those threats [...]	[...] to support the solutions to all of those threats [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
42	[...] by giving charities [...]	[...] by supporting charities [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
43	[...] live [...]	[...] life [...]	S – Sp
44	[...] as love [...]	[...] like love [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
45	[...] proplem [...]	[...] problem [...]	S – Sp

## VBS 4

1	[...] other [...]	[...] the other [...]	T – Gr – Art – Omission
2	[...] affordability; since [...]	[...] affordability since [...]	S – Punct
3	[...] burd [...]	[...] bird [...]	S – Sp
4	[...] spread to [...]	[...] spread [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Addition
5	[...] would describe [...]	[...] can be described as [...]	S – Sp
6			T – Gr – Verb – Passive
7	[...] with that, almost [...]	[...] so almost [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
8			S – Punct
9	[...] would have ever thought [...]	[...] would ever have thought [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
10	[...] did [...] think [...]	[...] has .... thought [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Perfect
11	[...] of being so [...]	[...] that they would be [...]	D – Coherence
12	[...] read [...]	[...] have read [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Perfect
13	[...] world-wide [...]	[...] worldwide [...]	S – Sp
14	Other than [...]	In contrast to [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
15	[...] do we not really have [...]	[...] we do not really have [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
16	[...] to such [...]	[...] to this [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
17	[...] their powers [...]	[...] its power [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Morph – Agreement (Sg)
18	[...] uses [...]	[...] use [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Morph – Agreement
19	Having introduced my main topics briefly [...]	Having briefly introduced my main topics [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
20	[...] detailed [...]	[...] in detail [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
21	Overlisted are some facts about hunger and poverty.	Some facts [...] are listed.	T – Lex – Misformation
22	[...] was [...]	[...] is [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
23	[...] was needed [...]	[...] is needed [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
24	[...] did not happen [...]	[...] has not happened [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Perfect
25	[...] each-other [...]	[...] each other [...]	S – Sp
26	[...] die [...]	[...] day [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
27	[...] afford paying for food [...]	[...] afford food [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Misselection
28	Truth is [...]	The truth is [...]	T – Gr – Art – Omission
29	[...] the-like [...]	[...] the like [...]	S – Sp
30	[...] would be [...]	[...] is needed	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Presesnt Simple

31	Therewith enabling farmers [...]	These enable farmers [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
32			T – Gr – Verb – Misselection
33	They, because of that, have to [...]	Because of that they have to [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
34	People, not having much money, naturally choose [...]	People, who don't have much money, naturally choose [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Omission
35	[...] dept-repayment [...]	[...] repayment of depts [...]	T – Lex – Misformation
36	[...] truth would be [...]	[...] truth is [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
37	[...] nutritions [...]	[...] nutrition [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph – Agreement
38	[...] these 12 % are [...]	[...] this 12% is [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Morph – Agreement (Sg)
39	About 30%, fact says, of the [...]	It is a fact that 30% [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
40	[...] did the UN-Report of Economic Development say [...]	[...] the UN-Report of Economic Developments said [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Misselection
41	[...] must be increase [...]	[...] must be increased [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Morph – Passive
42	Wanting to continue [...]	I want to continue [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Misselection
43	[...] here some facts [...]	[...] here are some facts [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Omission
44	[...] needed on preventing [...]	[...] needed to prevent [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
45			T – Gr – Verb – Misselection
46	[...] wide-spread [...]	[...] widespread [...]	S – Sp
47	[...] media's attention to [...]	[...] media's interest in [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
48	[...] have existed for long - of which the world [...]	[...] have existed for a long time, which everybody [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Omission
49			T – Gr – Prep – Addition
50			D – Coherence
51	Never the less [...]	Nevertheless [...]	S – Sp
52	[...] did nobody really care or mind [...]	[...] nobody really cared or minded [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Misselection
53	[...] alcohols [...]	[...] alcohol [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph
54	[...] most especially [...]	[...] very often [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
55	[...] is the treatment of HIV/AIDS [...]	[...] the treatment of HIV/AIDS is [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
56	[...] in average [...]	[...] on average [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Misselection
57	[...] pharmacits [...]	[...] pharmacists [...]	S – Sp
58	[...] cut prizes down [...]	[...] cut down prices [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
59			S – Sp
60	Deloving [...]	Developing [...]	S – Sp
61	[...] stand [...]	[...] have [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
62	[...] probability of receiving [...]	[...] opportunity to receive [...]	T – Lex – Misselection

63	[...] disrupted [...]	[...] destroyed [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
64	[...] possible resulting and lasting consequences of their actions on nature [...]	[...] possible negative consequences for the environment [...]	D – Coherence
65	[...] likelihood [...]	[...] biodiversity [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
66	[...] desertifications [...]	[...] desertification [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph – Agreement (Sg)
67	[...] deforestations [...]	[...] deforestation [...]	T – Gr. – Noun – Morph – Agreement (Sg)
68	[...] for gaining [...]	[...] to gain [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Misselection
69	[...] proteftive [...]	[...] protective [...]	S – Sp
70	Ozon [...]	Ozone [...]	S – Sp
71	[...] giving [...]	[...] constituting [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
72	[...] one, in [...]	[...] one in [...]	S – Punct
73	[...] it will ever be [...]	[...] there will ever be one [...]	D – Coherence
74	[...] decided [...]	[...] have decided [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Perfect
75	[...] inequitable distributed [...]	[...] unfairly distributed [...]	T – Gr – Adv – Morph
76			T – Lex – Misselection
77	[...] understand [...]	[...] understanding [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Misselection
78	[...] why, will [...]	[...] why will [...]	S – Punct
79	[...] addressed, will [...]	[...] addressed will [...]	S – Punct

## VBS 5

1	[...] is one of short stories [...]	[...] is one of his short stories [...]	T – Gr – Pron – Omission
2	[...] series [...]	[...] collection [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
3	[...] to shy [...]	[...] too shy [...]	S – Sp
4	[...] hostile [...]	[...] unusual [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
5	[...] asked [...]	[...] asks [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
6	[...] paralysation [...]	[...] paralysis [...]	T – Lex – Misformation
7	[...] gets confronted with the reality [...]	[...] is confronted with reality [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
8			T – Gr – Art – Addition
9	[...] describition [...]	[...] description of [...]	S – Sp
10			T – Gr – Prep – Omission
11	[...] arround [...]	[...] around [...]	S – Sp
12	By saying [...]	With writing [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
13	[...] than the boy [...]	[...] than a boy [...]	T – Gr – Art – Misselection
14	[...] gets obvious [...]	[...] is obvious [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
15	[...] waited [...]	[...] waits [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense –

			Present Simple
16	[...] wether [...]	[...] whether [...]	S – Sp
17	[...] reamain [...]	[...] remain [...]	S – Sp
18	[...] shadow peer [...]	[...] shadow peer up [...]	T – Gr – Prep – Omission
19	[...] asked [...]	[...] asks [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
20	[...] was [...]	[...] is [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
21	[...] got [...]	[...] gets [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
22	[...] dependet [...]	[...] dependent [...]	S – Sp
23	[...] didn't [...]	[...] doesn't [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
24	As [...]	When [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
25	[...] believed [...]	[...] believes [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Misselection
26	[...] didn't [...]	[...] doesn't [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
27	[...] drives [...]	[...] rides [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
28	[...] helpless [...]	[...] hopeless [...]	T – Lex – Misselection
29	[...] was [...]	[...] is [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
30	[...] maney [...]	[...] many [...]	S – Sp
31	[...] realized [...]	[...] realizes [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
32	[...] were [...]	[...] are [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
33	[...] was [...]	[...] is [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
34	[...] had [...]	[...] has [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
35	[...] went [...]	[...] goes [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
36	[...] asked [...]	[...] asks [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
37	[...] wanted [...]	[...] wants [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
38	[...] wasn't [...]	[...] isn't [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
39	[...] got [...]	[...] gets [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
40	[...] obvious it got for him [...]	[...] obvious it is for him [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Present Simple
41	[...] probably still would be [...]	[...] would probably still be [...]	T – Gr – Syn – Misordering
42	[...] vain [...]		Vocabulary
43	[...] would know [...]	[...] knew [...]	T – Gr – Verb – Tense – Past Simple
44	Joice [...]	Joyce [...]	S – Sp
45	[...] narrators [...]	[...] narrator's [...]	T – Gr – Noun – Morph – Genitive
46	[...] coincidentally [...]	[...] unexpectedly [...]	T – Lex – Misselection

## **10.2 Abstract**

The aim of this thesis is to find evidence of the positive impact of CLIL instruction on the L2 writing competence of students. The author's main idea is to compare the lexicogrammar in the essays of CLIL and mainstream (non-CLIL) students using the method of error analysis.

In the first part of this thesis the theoretical and historical background of CLIL and error analysis in the field of SLA are explored.

In the empirical part of the thesis errors committed by the two learner groups are categorized, documented, compared and interpreted. The results obtained analysis were quite unexpected as the frequency of errors committed by both learner groups is almost identical, whereas the type of errors and the quality of the exams vary immensely.

## **10.3 Zusammenfassung**

In dieser Diplomarbeit wird versucht, den positiven Einfluss von CLIL auf die schriftliche Sprachkompetenz in der Zweitsprache (Englisch) von SchülerInnen nachzuweisen. Die zentrale Idee ist es, schriftliche Maturaarbeiten von CLIL und Mainstream - SchülerInnen mithilfe von Error Analysis (linguistische Methode um Fehler zu analysieren) zu vergleichen.

Im ersten Teil dieser Arbeit wird der theoretische und historische Hintergrund von CLIL und Error Analysis erörtert.

Im empirischen Teil dieser Diplomarbeit werden die identifizierten Fehler der beiden Gruppen kategorisiert, dokumentiert, verglichen und interpretiert. Schlussendlich zeigt sich, dass die Anzahl der Fehler der unterschiedlichen SchülerInnengruppen nahezu ident ist, während die Qualität der Fehler und damit der gesamten schriftlichen Arbeiten stark divergiert.