NOVATEUR PUBLICATIONS
JournalNX- A Multidisciplinary Peer Reviewed Journal
ISSN No: 2581 - 4230
VOLUME 6, ISSUE 11, Nov. -2020

PRODUCTIVE SKILLS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING DIFFICULTIES

MUSTAFAYEVA NILUFAR ULASHOVNA
Termez State University, Faculty of Foreign philology,Barkamol avlod st., Termez 190111, Sukhandarya , Uzbekistan.
nilufar.mustafayeva@mail.ru

ABSTRACT:

Learning a foreign language requires acquiring language skills and subskills. Skills are divided into productive and receptive. One of the important productive skills is writing. This skill involves accuracy, fluency, and content. Doing writing tasks includes a different kind of mental process. It obviously affects the blending of attention, fine motor coordination, memory, visual processing language, higher-order thinking. While acquiring these productive skills one could face some language learning difficulties. The writing difficulties may cause the destruction of a writing process called dysgraphia. It is a learning disorder in which the individual's writing skills are below the level expected for his or her age and cognitive level. The extent of difficulty a learner experiences with a different process of writing should inform steps to remediation and utilizing different types of writing approaches. There are already well-known approaches for teaching writing, and this article links these approaches with effective use for children with disorders of written expressions.

KEYWORDS:Language difficulties, dyslexia, dysgraphia, approaches, writing skills, cognitive neurolinguistics framework, written disorder, higher level of thinking, learning difficulties, mental process, intervention, acquisition, delay, disorder, communication, receptive skills. In order to be a successful and perfect person in his interpersonal relationships, to find their place in society, and to achieve literacy it is important to gain all skills properly.

INTRODUCTION:

Teaching a foreign language system falls into productive and receptive skill, that's writing, speaking, reading, and listening. While teaching English as a foreign language in Uzbekistan, teaching writing skill plays an important role, as most people dislike giving information in written form.

The importance of developing writing skills in teaching foreign language in everyday life has changed dramatically over the last years. When ELT teachers select writing work for learners they need to be clear about whether it is a useful practice as writing is a complex communicative activity. It is known that writing involves a different kind of mental process. It affects the blending of attention, fine motor coordination, memory, visual processing language, higher-order thinking, and lower-order of thinking. The writing difficulties may cause destruction of a writing process called dysgraphia. It is a learning disorder in which the individual's writing skills are below the level expected for his or her age and cognitive level[1].

METHODS:

Firstly, ELT teachers should pay attention to the process of writing that learners pass through. While a learner of a foreign language is doing a writing task, the visual feedback mechanism is at work checking the output, adjusting fine motor skills, and monitoring eye-hand coordination. At that

time, kinesthetic monitoring systems are conscious of the position and movement of fingers on space, the grip on the pencil, and the rhythm and pace of the writing. Cognitive systems are also busy, verifying with long-term memory that the symbols being drawn will indeed produce the sounds of the word that the writer intends to write[2].

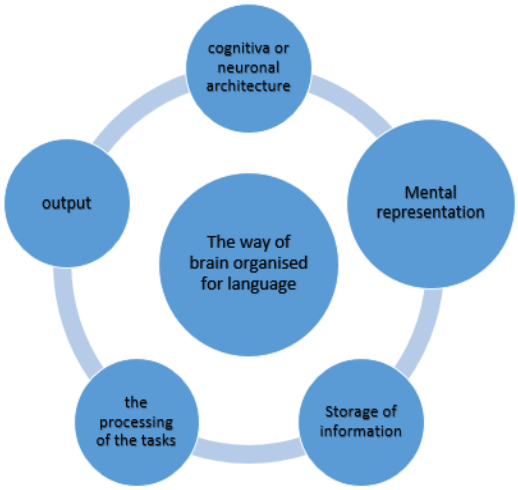
Dysgraphia from the Greek "dys" meaning "impaired" and "graph" meaning "making letterforms of hand" is a disorder of writing ability. At its broadest definition, dysgraphia can manifest as difficulty writing at any level, including letter illegibility, slow rate of writing, difficulty spelling, and problems of syntax and composition [3]. Whatever the neurological cause of writing difficulties, some learners try to get over because so much time they spend on the process that they often lose track of the content they are working on. Dysgraphia is a written language-based disorder in serial production of strokes to form a handwritten letter. This involves not only motor skills but also language skills - finding, retrieving and producing letters, which is a sub word-level language skill. The impaired handwriting may interfere with spelling or composing. These interferences create difficulties in learning foreign languages. And teacher's responsibility is to find a way for them, moreover, motivate them in order not to stop learning.

A famous linguist and mathematician, Noam Chomsky, in the year of 1959 challenged the features of language learning theory and claimed that it was profoundly flawed and seriously misunderstood the nature of language. Chomsky declared that language was not learned in the same way as other areas of knowledge and thus the Stimulus-Response-Reward pattern did not apply to language. He suggested that the human brain has a template to acquire language. He called this the language acquisition device that is LAD, which is capable of generating language and linguistic structures. He also argued that language, in particular grammar, was not learned word by word. Language is learned as a system and not as isolated parts, as in the diagram on foreign language development. In contrast to these theories, there have been two influential approaches by European psychologists, Piaget, and Vygotsky, who have taken a social-cognitive view. Many practitioners in education are more familiar with these ideas. Piaget did not agree with Chomsky's claim that language and in particular grammar, developed autonomously. Piaget argued that language, including grammar, developed within the framework of more general cognitive development. Although language emerged later than other cognitive functions and may well be dependent on them it was not exceptionally different from general cognitive development. The acquisition of language learning was about the child coming to know and understand the elements, the structures and the function of language just as the child would learn about other patterns and relationships such as quantity and probability. At last, Piaget saw the child as a 'little scientist', exploring the world, solving problems and learning a foreign language alone. A useful summary of Piaget's theories is given by Donaldson[9], whose research has reinterpreted some of Piaget's work. The idea of a child operating in isolation was strongly challenged by the Russian psychologist, Vygotsky[10], who emphasized the importance of other people for children's learning. Although children do explore and learn as they discover the world, Vygotsky suggested that this could be influenced in a major way by adults and others who are more competent than the child. Much of children's learning takes place in conjunction with others who support and develop the child's skills further. Bruner called this support 'scaffolding'. It is not difficult to imagine how this applies to

the development of language, which is essentially social and is developed in interactions with others. According to Vygotsky, these interactions influence thinking and conceptualization, which are related to the development of language. Amongst the most recent explanations of language development in children are those which emphasize the cognitive aspects of language processing. This has been done by combining ideas from the fields of psychology, linguistics, and neurology. The approach is sometimes called the developmental cognitive neurolinguistics or psycholinguistic framework.

RESULTS:

The diagram shows the elements of cognitive neurolinguistics framework or language development given by Dockrell and McShane, 1999:



There were and are many pieces of research on language and language difficulties which means that it is difficult to know exactly how many children experience difficulties in acquiring speech and language.

Many of confusing the distinction between a speech difficulty and a language difficulty and sometimes many people probably use the terms inter changeably. Strictly, a speech difficulty would mean that a person had difficulty making sounds, but unclear speech may be linked with other difficulties. It may be unclear because the person cannot think of the right words to say, or they may not be able to put words or sounds in the right order. A language difficulty can occur at any of the levels of language, at the level of sounds and grammatical structure, at the level of meaning, and in the way language is used. We can think of speech as what goes on 'on the surface' but we need to probe a little further to find out exactly where the difficulty lies.

DISCUSSION:

When discussing children's language difficulties, the research works usually draws a distinction between "delay" and "disorder". "Delay" is said to be language similar to that which would be expected from a younger child and disorder is considered to be somehow quantitatively and qualitatively different from it. The distinction, however, is rarely so clear.

Some children will use sounds, structures or words which would be expected from a much younger child. As they develop, their spoken language catches up and it is possible to say, in retrospect, that their language was 'delayed'. For other children, observation over time does not show this type of development and their difficulties may be longer-lasting. Their language difficulty seems to be out of proportion with other aspects of their development, which are progressing quite well. This type of more persistent language difficulty may be called a 'language disorder' or sometimes, a 'specific' language difficulty.

The classification of speech and language difficulties has traditionally fallen into two general forms: terms which give a name to a problem and those which indicate a cause or underlying problem. Many of the terms used to name speech and language problems have the medical prefix "dys", which means a lack of function or ability. We thus find the terms, dysgraphia, dyspraxia, dysarthria and dyslexia,

meaning various forms of spoken and written language difficulty. One of the problems with these terms is that each will be interpreted in various ways by different people. Each term will cover a wide range of signs and features and, most importantly, will give little suggestion of strategies that may help to alleviate the problem. The second type of classification of speech and language difficulties indicates what is assumed to be the main contributor to the problem, so that we find, for example, hearing impairment, cleft palate, cerebral palsy. We can criticize this in a similar way because it gives little indication of the nature of the speech or language difficulty. For example, to know that a child has 'cleft palate speech' seems to imply that it will be the same for all children. This is not the case and such a term may be unhelpful. Similarly, children with hearing impairment may or may not have difficulties with productive speech.

As early as possible learners need to be aware that reading and writing are counterparts. The same pre-requisites for reading obtain in that the children need to have an understanding of the symbolization of text and the representation of the spoken form by the written form. Again, as with reading, children begin to write with the notion of the whole word and this can be encouraged when children do not know individual letter shapes.

Writing usually follows reading because of the development of hand-eye motor control, as well as letter formation and spelling which are dependent on knowing how to read. Once children have developed sufficient hand-eye motor control to master holding a pencil and started drawing, they usually begin the writing process. They usually begin by learning to write their name, starting with the most salient letter shapes, often the first letter. Letter formation needs to be taught and usually slows the process of writing, separating it in time from the development of reading. This separation may be temporarily bridged by using commmercially published materials comprising printed words with which the child can form phrases and sentences. Thus, the language learner may learn to write single words as well as begin to write longer pieces of text.

Here we would like to explore letter formation. The formation of letters is the basis for writing words. Letter shape needs to be taught as a motor activity and kept separate from the speech sounds which they will come to represent for the child. In this respect, letter formation can be paralleled with babbling in speech development. The sounds which the infant produces cannot be imbued with meaning; it is a phase of motor development. One way of supporting meaning in the development of letter formation is through teaching methods that rely on cognitive strategies and mnemonics. Often children will refer to the letter shape by its mnemonic name. Alternatively, the letter shapes can be referred to by their letter names, 'w' is called 'double u' and 's' is called 'es\ Practitioners have noted that pupils with substantial difficulties in phonological processing seem only to be able to refer to letters by their letter names and not by their phonic sound; that is, 'c' is called 'see' and rarely 'kuh' by these children. Most letters in written English are formed from circles, semicircles and straight vertical or horizontal lines. Hence, the child's perception of the orientation of a letter shape is important. Perceptual development is crucial and it is valuable to establish perceptual accuracy before moving onto writing the letters. This may help to limit letter-reversal confusion. Again, explicit verbalizing of the motor movements involved supports the motor activity. Word shape can be learned by the child by encouraging them to write the letters which they know and making some

shape, such as a wiggly line, or the letters which they think might also be there but are unsure about. This helps children who have limited letter formation skills to formulate words by judging the number of (sounds) letter shapes they may have and going on to 'write' continuous text such as a longer phrase or sentence. When children have a repertoire of sight vocabulary which they are beginning to analyses by phonological recoding and hence are beginning to form letter-sound correspondences, they are ready to recognize grapheme-sound correspondences and to start to write the words which are familiar to them.

When we say about spelling, there are some stages, they are precommunicative, semiphonetic, the phonetic, transition stage and the last one correct spelling stage.

The key areas of cognitive functioning where weakness seems to bring about difficulties in learning literacy are phonological processing, working memory and lexical access. That is, if the child cannot access the word for spelling, reading or writing, or cannot manipulate the phonological representation, such as by segmenting, alliteration or rhyming or has difficulties with memory in processing these tasks, then literacy difficulties result. For example, cat is analogous to hat and mat, also found in caterpillar and has the same initial sound as come. Thus, children are segmenting words by sound and syllable, accessing phonologically similar words through rhyme and alliteration and using working memory to process these tasks.

According to developmental processes in children with difficulties. Although much more work needs to be done on distinguishing subtypes of difficulty in children the following framework is a good starting point. Individuals who rely on visual strategies to literacy because they have difficulty with speech sound-grapheme correspondence and consequently have difficulty processing non-words and novel words are thought to have phonological dyslexia. If, in addition, their literacy is characterized by semantic difficulties because words with more concrete meanings are processed more accurately than words which have more abstract meaning, then their difficulty would be called a deep dyslexia. Relying solely on a speech sound-grapheme correspondence allows the person to read regularly spelled words and non-words but not exceptionally spelled words. This difficulty is called surface dyslexia and usually reading is very slow with little comprehension of the overall text. Other readers may show little comprehension of the text but have very good fluency. Such readers are often said to 'bark at print'. They rely on phonological and whole-word processing strategies but by passing semantic analysis and this difficulty may be called direct dyslexia or dysgraphia. These descriptions of literacy difficulties are often called 'pure' or 'ideal' forms because in reality individuals may display features of more than one subtype of difficulty. Furthermore, children may only partially show some of the characteristics of these subtypes and teaching and intervention may further modify these characteristics. Research on children with literacy difficulties shows that they have difficulties with phonological awareness, sequencing, short term memory and comprehension.

ASSESSMENT:

The implications of interpreting literacy difficulties through the cognitive framework affect assessment, teaching and intervention. Assessment is usually task specific, approaching the child's difficulty through phonological processing tasks rather than literacy ones and seeks to pinpoint the level of breakdown in processing. Intervention programs are individual and aim to build up the processing strengths of the child, rather

than focus on the obvious areas of difficulty. This is often done through raising the child's phonological awareness and there is a growing number of class-based teaching programs for teachers to implement with pupils either before they embark on the process of learning literacy or to support specialized intervention programs. Teachers are often the first professionals to note that the pupil has difficulties approaching literacy tasks.

The British Dyslexia Association recommends that there should be a screening procedure starting with a checklist completed by the class teacher on any pupil aged six whose developing literacy is a cause of concern. Assessment includes ascertaining the child's cognitive profile, numeracy skills, auditory and visual sequencing, visual-motor skills and hand-eye coordination, phonological processing, comprehension of spoken and written language, expressive spoken language, reading and spelling strategies, and original writing. There should also be an appraisal of the pupil's social and emotional attitude to literacy. Any assessment of a pupil with potential or actual literacy difficulties needs to include assessment of abilities and progress at both a within a learner, or intrapersonal, level as well as in comparison with peers for interpersonal comparison. Children learn literacy at different rates according to their abilities and the appropriateness of the teaching method. Practitioners involved in teaching literacy need to be aware of assessing and reflecting upon the efficacy of their own teaching methods and materials with their pupils. Finally, practitioners are urged to appreciate 'the symbiotic relationship between assessment and teaching' [5] when working with pupils who have literacy difficulties. There must be a constant and reciprocal relationship between the tasks which the teachers and other practitioners offer to these pupils, the pupils' response and performance and subsequent tasks and teaching so that the assessment and teaching are continually informing each other. Let us now consider the avenues available for teaching and intervention with this pupil group.

Teaching and intervention. There are four perennial challenges to the practitioner: identifying the appropriate method for a particular group who are at a certain stage of development for a specific aspect of literacy. In other words, finding which aptitudes of the foreign language learner interact most effectively with the teaching strategies. Intervention and teaching are seeking to offer the pupils strategies for managing literacy. Intervention and teaching programs can adopt a cross-curricular approach to supporting pupils with literacy difficulties. For example, aspects of the intervention program focusing on specific areas of processing weakness can be adapted for and supported in each curriculum subject; there could be provision of tapes and tape recorders for any lengthy written work; provision of word processors and training in using them; provision of prepared work sheets, special vocabulary and notes. Where this is not possible, there are many specialized teaching approaches available to practitioners for pupils with literacy difficulties. There are also computer-assisted learning programs for literacy difficulties. It is interesting to note that these programs are based on the principles and good practice for teaching literacy so that any and all pupils should benefit. Additional teaching personnel provide in-class support to the class teacher, for example through planning, or to pupils with literacy difficulties and facilitate their access to the curriculum. Where inclusive education is not available then teaching either by withdrawal or specialist classes may apply. It is every pupil's right to access the curriculum and access is dependent on adequate listening, speaking, reading and writing skills.

More studies are needed to investigate how bilingual children with phonological difficulties and literacy difficulties manage the processing tasks involved in reading, writing and spelling.

CONCLUSION:

Since the range and numbers of literacy, difficulties are potentially extensive and beyond the scope of the article, we have focused on the discussion of literacy difficulties as they relate to speech and language difficulties in the classroom. They should think about the problem that occur as the student begins to write or does it appear later on the writing process or with the organization of thoughts. Moreover, the problem with dysgraphia can also be noticeable, when the student changes from just copying material to generating complex ideas and trying to commit those to writing. Or one more thing, confusion overprinted and cursive letters, over grammar, or because of punctuation, these issues also can be dysgraphia. Once the teacher should learn the problem situation area and identify, then select the appropriate combination of accommodation, modification and remedial approaches and techniques for the learners of foreign language.

Within literacy it is included reading, writing and spelling, and we have looked at the development of all three aspects in some detail. We have pointed out that the cognitive neuropsychological framework seems to be the most appropriate for understanding most aspects of literacy difficulty and relates them to the wider field of language processing difficulties. Reviewing the types of difficulty which have been described, we urged caution because some of these descriptions were based on adults' studies and frameworks that are not completely transferrable to children's difficulties. We have reviewed some of the assessment procedures and teaching and intervention programs. It is important to remember that literacy difficulties may stem from difficulties within the pupil and they may be provoked and exacerbated by teaching and intervention approaches.

REFRENCES:

1) American Psychiatric Association. Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental health disorders: DSM-5 (5th ed). Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Publishing, 2013.
2) Mayes SD and Calhoun SL. Learning, attention, writing, and processing speed in typical children and children with ADHD, autism, anxiety, depression and oppositional-defiant disorder. Child Neuropsychol 2007.
3) M.Parimala Fathima, N.Sasikumar and M.Panimalar Roja, Combating Dysgraphia, International Journal of Modern Research and Reviews, 2014
4) Peter Chang, MD and Dilip R Ratel, MD MBA, Dysgraphia, 2015 Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
5) Deirde Martin and Carol Miller "Speech and language difficulties in the classroom" David fulton publishers. 2001
6) J.J.Jalolov, G.T.Makhkamova, Sh. S.Ashurov. English Teaching Methodology, Tashkent. 2015.
7) D. Nunan. Second Language Teaching and Learning, Bostan, 1999
8) Adams, C., Byers Brown, B. and Edwards, M. (1997) Developmental Disorders of Language, 2nd edition. London: Whurr Publishers.
9) Chomsky, C. (1969) The Acquisition ofSyntax in Childrenfrom. Cambridge, Ma: MIT Press
10) Vygotsky, L.S. (1962) Thought and Language. Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press.