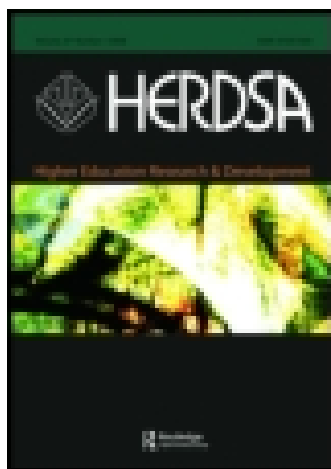


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The differences in error rate and type between IELTS writing bands and their impact on academic workload

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This paper attempts to demonstrate the differences in writing between International English Language Testing System (IELTS) bands 6.0, 6.5 and 7.0. An analysis of exemplars provided from the IELTS test makers reveals that IELTS 6.0, 6.5 and 7.0 writers can make a minimum of 206 errors, 96 errors and 35 errors per 1000 words. The following section explores the differences in error patterns between IELTS 6.0, 6.5 and 7.0 writers and a proposition is made that the IELTS 7.0 writer shows some convergence of error types found among native English writers. In regard to workload issues, the paper discusses the impact of errors as a distraction which affects reading time and gives an indication of the amount of extra workload that may be required to assess IELTS 6.0, 6.5 and 7.0 writing. The paper concludes with remarks about entrance requirements for tertiary study and suggests that it may be simpler to raise entry standards than attempt to remediate the writing of students with low IELTS scores.

Keywords: academic workload; academic writing; IELTS; tertiary entry requirements

Background

English language proficiency testing for entry into university is an international activity, with a diversity of possible test formats available for use on overseas students wishing to study in an English-speaking country. One of the more well-known and researched measures is the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), which is widely used in Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, the UK and the USA.

A great deal of research about the score setting and validity of IELTS can be found for these countries – for example, Australia (Arkoudis, Baik, & Richardson, 2012; O’Loughlin, 2011), Canada (Golder, Reeder, & Flemming, 2011), New Zealand (Smith & Haslett, 2007), South Africa (Cooper, 2013) and the UK (Hyatt & Brooks, 2009). In a number of these studies, concerns have been raised about the setting of proficiency levels, with the literature commenting about how some universities accept entry scores which are too low (Arkoudis et al., 2012, pp. 31–32; O’Loughlin, 2011). A lack of English preparedness for university studies can have significant negative consequences for international students, but what is less discussed in the literature are the increased difficulties posed for university staff. Indeed, Arkoudis and colleagues (2012, p. 33) point out that:

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Poor enrolment processes invoke complexities for institutions in dealing with struggling students and place an enormous burden on institutional staff. This burden can lead staff to regard EAL students as a problem, derailing institutional efforts at internationalisation and creating tensions between staff and students.

Currently, IELTS bands 6.0 and 6.5 are the most common entry scores for both undergraduate and postgraduate study (Arkoudis et al., 2012, p. 31; Hyatt & Brooks, 2009, p. 14; Smith & Haslett, 2007, p. 20). These band scores are often below that recommended by the IELTS test makers, who provide a range of entry scores which are based upon the linguistic demands of a discipline (IELTS, 2013b, p. 13). While rarer for undergraduate courses, some postgraduate studies may require an entry score of 7.0 (or above), particularly if the university is prestigious (Hyatt & Brooks, 2009, p. 14). Even then, an IELTS 7.0 may only be deemed ‘probably acceptable’ rather than ‘acceptable’ for these courses, if the IELTS entry score recommendations were consulted (IELTS, 2013b, p. 13).

The cause of setting English entry standards too low stems from a number of factors, one being a lack of awareness about what the test scores actually mean in practice. Indeed, the literature shows that there is a need for greater knowledge and understanding about English proficiency testing among those who set the entry levels (Arkoudis et al., 2012, p. 33; O’Loughlin, 2011, pp. 155–156, 2013; Rea-Dickins, Kiely, & Yu, 2007, pp. 28–29). In one study, a participant commented about the disjoint between those who set the English entry levels and those who deal with the consequences of that choice: ‘My feeling is that Admissions tutors, seeing what a 6.0 looks like, would be more inclined to actually want to up the entry requirement to a 6.5 or a 7 ...’ (Hyatt, 2013, p. 853).

This paper sets out to demonstrate exactly what a 6.0, 6.5 or 7.0 writer might produce, in terms of error rates and types. Thus, it seeks to explicitly and quantifiably make the differences between IELTS writing bands transparent. This paper will also seek to demonstrate the impact on workload that lower IELTS band scores can hold for academic staff. Thus, this paper opens the conversation for those who seek to review their current English language entry requirements and to those wishing to quantify the increased workload from dealing with international students (according to each IELTS entry band score or equivalent English test score). Admittedly, while writing is only one subtest of four categories, it is an important part of academic assessment in many disciplines. As such, the role of writing in academia will be discussed in the next section.

Writing skills and workload

Academia relies upon the written transmission of information, whether this be in scientific or linguistic scripts, to communicate ideas and allow engagement in scholarly activities. In linguistically demanding courses, the mastery of English writing and reading skills is essential. The demand on linguistic skills is especially pertinent for research of higher degrees which rely on a sustained piece of writing, or a thesis, which is the only assessable item for the degree. Contrast this to undergraduate studies where the role of the written component varies according to the degree. Each written submission is smaller in word count and less complex in nature. Furthermore, while it is common for lecturers and casual tutors to only read the final written submission from undergraduates and provide one-off feedback, the postgraduate student

undertaking a thesis requires the supervisor to read multiple drafts of the same work and provide feedback each time. In this situation, a postgraduate student with a lower IELTS score places a sustained burden on the individual staff member supervising them. Similarly, a large volume of undergraduate students with lower IELTS scores would cause substantial strain on lecturers and casual tutors in each topic. In either case, a lower IELTS score increases the workload when dealing with both undergraduate and postgraduate international students.

In the most recent release by the IELTS test makers, writing is revealed to be the lowest scored sub-band for 90% of candidates across 40 countries (IELTS, 2013a). In fact, the average IELTS writing score across these 40 countries is approximately half a band lower than the other scores for reading, listening and speaking (IELTS, 2013a). Despite understanding that writing is a difficult skill to master, and that writing is often the poorest skill among IELTS candidates, it is difficult to picture the differences between an IELTS 6.0 and an IELTS 6.5 in real terms, especially for those administering university entrance applications. The score itself is an abstraction and has little meaning in itself. To make this relationship between score and linguistic ability less abstract, this paper will focus on error types and rates, as found in IELTS academic writing task two, which involves the student writing a short expository essay that is similar to academic written assessments. This similarity between genre forms will allow us to relate the differences found in test-taker responses to that which can be expected in university assessment once the student is enrolled. More specifically, the number of errors for each band will provide the focal point for understanding these differences.

Written errors

There are many studies which look at errors in writing and how to remediate them. The university composition studies indicate that there are a number of common error types found in tertiary-level writing (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012, p. 96), so the most common 15 are used in this study (these are listed in Table 1).

Table 1. The 15 types of error used for analysis.

Symbol	Error type	Examples
V	Verbs (form/tense)	Wrong verb or verb missing, for example, 'now it changed'
N	Nouns	'Ability', 'car', 'advice', every 'day', etc.
adj	Adjectives	'Everyday', 'painful', 'expensive', etc.
adv	Adverbs	'Quite', 'soon', 'however', etc.
prep	Prepositions	'In', 'at', 'on', 'for', 'with', 'by', 'to', etc.
art	Articles	'The', 'a', 'an', Ø
pron	Pronouns	'Their', 'it', etc.
pl	Plurals	Car/cars, staff/staff, etc.
conj	Conjunctions	'And', 'but', 'nor', 'yet', etc.
vocab	Vocabulary choice	Clearly the wrong choice of word, for example, 'flat river'
punc	Punctuation	, . : ; ' - etc.
caps	Capitals	'Brazil', 'The first point ...', etc.
sp	Spelling	'Easily', 'bycicle', etc.
s/v	Subject-verb agreement	'A person has', 'people have', etc.
sent	Sentence fragment/run on	'Having looked at the problem.'

It should be made clear that only grammatical items and issues associated with the basic mechanics of writing are counted in this study, but not stylistic errors. Thus, this analysis will count the barest minimum number of problems for each exemplar, even though a greater range of problems may exist. While stylistic improvements greatly improve the readability of a text and contribute to proficient writing, an analysis of stylistic issues is beyond the focus and scope of this paper. Some stylistic improvements can be straightforward (e.g., transition signalling, variation in sentence structure, paragraphing and verb tense are marked in the IELTS rubric), but other stylistic recommendations are open to dispute (e.g., the use of the Oxford comma). The advantage of this minimal approach is that only indisputable discrete errors and grammatical problems form the majority of the error count and, as a result, this allows an objective stance to be adopted. The aim is to find the very basic number of errors which directly affect comprehensibility, regardless of other readability characteristics. Further notes on the coding process are provided at the end of the paper in greater detail. It should be noted that such an approach is unique in the literature and so seeks to open a discussion about the quantification of errors in students' academic writing and the quantification of the impacts of such errors for the assessors.

Error rates

The written error categories shown in [Table 1](#) were applied to a sample exemplar text for each half-band, as made publicly available by the IELTS test makers (IELTS, 2009a, 2009b, 2009c). The exemplar texts with error markings are provided in the [Appendix](#). The results of the error counts for the three exemplars are provided in [Figure 1](#), and these are expressed in rates per 1000 words because the word length in each text differs. Furthermore, expressing error rate per 1000 words allows a rapid calculation of errors to expect according to text length, that is, a 2000 word essay or a 90,000 word thesis.

As can be seen in [Figure 1](#), the written error rate drops by over half as each band rises by 0.5. Anecdotally speaking, there are some English teachers who feel that the differences between the half-bands from IELTS 6.0 to 7.0 are exponential, and it has been observed by the IELTS test makers that improvement is slower in the higher bands than in the lower bands (Cambridge ESOL, 2004, p. 14). The results of this study tend to bear out the notion of exponential differences between the half-bands, at least within the range of IELTS 6.0 to 7.0, as they are clearly not composed of equal intervals.

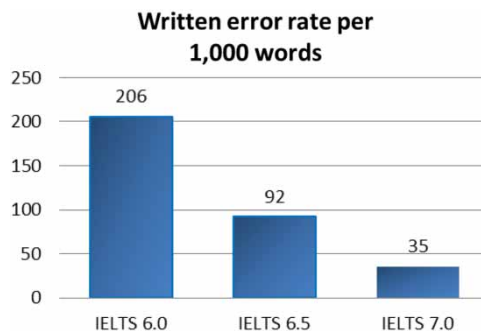


Figure 1. Written error rate per 1000 words.

Types of error

While the error rates listed in Figure 1 are instructive in quantitative terms, there are noticeable qualitative differences between the half-band scores. While the same types of error might be found, these are not of the same quality. For example, an IELTS 6.0 writer might make a basic word error which clearly demarcates them as non-native or novice English users, for example, ‘unsufficient’, but the IELTS 7.0 writer might make an almost unnoticeable error which resembles that of a native speaker, for example, the use of ‘forcefully’ (vigorous or powerful) instead of ‘forcibly’ (done by, or involving, force). Language is not acquired in a smooth, linear process. Second language grammar is subject to developmental patterns (Ellis, 2008, pp. 67–115), where forms and structures are often mastered in a sequential fashion. The acquisition of some target structures depends on the initial mastery of other target structures. However, vocabulary knowledge does not show a clear sequence of acquisition (Ellis, 2008, p. 102) and is dependent on exposure for acquisition (Schmitt, 2010, pp. 30–31). In general, learning a new grammatical structure is more productive because it allows multiple novel expressions to be generated in a shorter period of time; however, vocabulary development is less formulaic in nature, so each new word needs to be acquired individually, has a limitation number of variations, may require individual contextual meanings that need to be learned, and so forth. To draw out the differences in the quality of the writing, Figure 2 shows the difference in the types of error, and Figure 3 indicates the changes in error types that might be expected between the bands.

There are a number of qualitative differences between the bands which affect the error types. The first is the complexity and length of the sentences attempted. The average sentence length for the IELTS 6.0 example is 14 words, whereas it is 18 and 19 words for the higher bands. Furthermore, the IELTS 6.0 writer produced 271 words conveying simply expressed statements in contrast to the 422 and 373 words produced in the IELTS 6.5 and 7.0 texts which attempted more complex expressions. For example, compare the sentence from the IELTS 6.0 exemplar ‘The people did not worry about the time to arrive in some where’ to that of the IELTS 6.5 exemplar ‘Children who are brought up in families that do not have large amounts of money are well-trained to face adulthood’. Although the samples are limited, they indicate an increasing mastery and fluency evident in the higher scores, and in the move towards this, the number of types of error increased in the IELTS 6.5 text as the expressive range

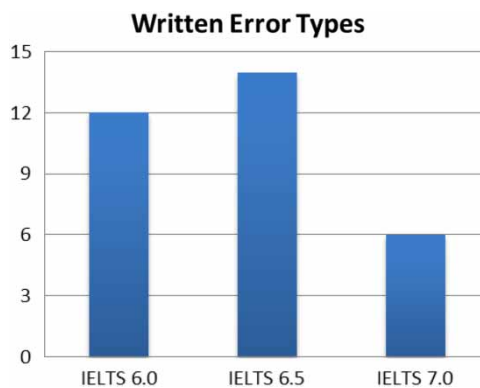


Figure 2. Written error types (totals).

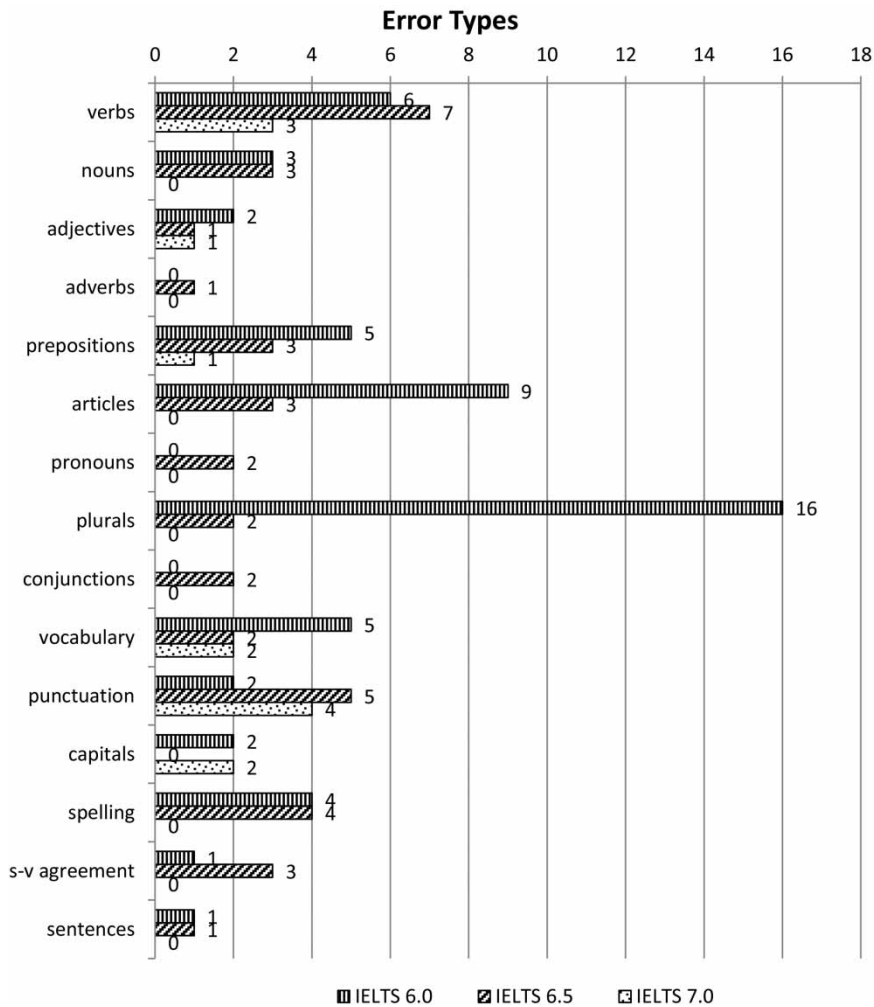


Figure 3. Breakdown of written error types by band.

broadened, only to be consolidated by the fewer types of error evident in the IELTS 7.0, as mastery was gained over the expression of more complex ideas. This increased written fluency is observed elsewhere, with Riazi and Knox (2013, p. 83) finding that the readability of a text and the range of words used improve with higher band scores: ‘the measures of Readability (Flesch Reading Ease) and Word Frequency were able to significantly differentiate scripts at bands 5, 6 and 7’.

It is notable that the fluency found in the IELTS 7.0 exemplar was accompanied by the disappearance of some error types altogether, including errors involving nouns, adverbs, articles, pronouns, plurals, conjunctions, spelling, subject–verb agreement and sentence construction. Indeed, nearly half of the errors in the IELTS 7.0 text involve punctuation and capitalisation, which are common errors found among less-proficient native English writers. Given this observation, it can be argued that professional development programmes which support local writers would be sufficient for the IELTS 7.0 writer. In contrast, the errors found in the IELTS 6.0 and 6.5 texts are often unique to

Table 2. Differences between the error rates.

Score	Errors per 1000 words	Difference
IELTS 6.0	206	2.2 times more errors in 6.0 than 6.5
IELTS 6.5	92	2.6 times more errors in 6.5 than 7.0
IELTS 7.0	35	Note: 5.9 times more errors in 6.0 than 7.0

non-native speakers of English and require specialist language support. In terms of workload and skillset, it must be asked whether the average academic is capable of providing timely and effective second language support for writers below IELTS 7.0, since the problem is likely to be outside of their area of expertise.

Workload

It is difficult to establish the increase in workload created by the lower scoring IELTS writers, but a fledgling attempt will be made in this paper, again to open the conversation on this issue. A larger study would be needed to establish the mean values of extra time taken for a similar number of words. This involves a raw translation of the number of errors to calculate a proportional increase in time needed to read and assess an error-free essay of the same length. Thus, if the IELTS 6.0 writer produces double the number of errors of the IELTS 6.5 writer, arguably the reader faces double the distractions when assessing the lower quality work. When faced with errors, the reader must decode the possible meaning that was implied – essentially ‘overwriting’ the error in their minds as part of the deconstruction process of reading. The differences between error rates are provided in Table 2, and if those figures are used to extrapolate the interruptions in meaning created by errors (the distractions), then we can obtain a rough indication of the extra processing load between the different IELTS bands. IELTS 6.0 writing has 2.2 times more distractions than IELTS 6.5 writing, which in turn has 2.6 times more distractions than IELTS 7.0 writing. Notably, IELTS 6.0 writing has nearly 6 times more distractions than IELTS 7.0 writing. While assessing a piece of writing will naturally involve a basic amount of time, these figures represent extra time spent on marking which goes beyond this baseline. The actual time taken will depend on departmental factors such as the amount and type of feedback required of the marker (e.g., if tutors are expected to actually provide comprehensive written error corrections for each student, rather than mentally correcting it as part of comprehending the content); however, the difficulty in marking lower versus higher quality work is substantial.

Discussion

From the evidence provided in this paper alone, it is very clear that the IELTS 7.0 writer is vastly different in quality to the IELTS 6.0 writer. The error rate drops from 206 errors to 96 errors and 35 errors per 1000 words for each band, at the very least, and this increases the impediments to comprehending the written work of international students, with IELTS 6.0 writing presenting 6 times more distracting errors than IELTS 7.0 writing. The effect on actual time spent marking and assessing will depend on the feedback practices of each department, particularly at an undergraduate coursework level. However, for postgraduate thesis supervisors who are expected to help students

with multiple drafts of larger texts, including the correction of written errors, the impact of a lower IELTS score would certainly be more marked.

This paper's analysis bears out the IELTS test makers' recommendation that only at a score of 7.0 is the student 'probably acceptable' for linguistically demanding courses (IELTS, 2013b, p. 13). Below this, there is a risk that the student is linguistically under-prepared because it is essentially an uncertain area with 'English study needed' (IELTS, 2013b, p. 13). Indeed, it is probably the case that below an IELTS 7.0, the student is still likely to be translating in their mind between their home language and English (Birrell, 2006, p. 60), and this in itself has serious implications for the cognitive capacity of the student to fully engage in their education. For those international students who enter university studies below IELTS 7.0, if they dedicate themselves to further English study, there is a good chance that they will improve; however, there are a significant number who will not. For example, one study conducted over a three-year period found that the English proficiency of 32% of students did not improve and some even worsened (O'Loughlin & Arkoudis, 2009).

Considering the large number of Australian universities that accept students with an IELTS entry score of 6.0 or 6.5, and that there is a requirement for universities to develop the language of international students throughout their degree (Department of Industry, Innovation, Science, Research and Tertiary Education, 2011, pp. 14, 15, 17), the question must be asked how these students' writing skills are developed. There is a field of scholarship on error correction (see Bitchener & Ferris, 2012) which deals with written corrective feedback and may inform institutional responses to this problem. These studies are important because they provide an evidence base for remediation. It is widely known that not all errors are amenable to correction using the same remediation technique, and some types of error need more time to improve than others, so providing a one-size-fits-all approach to language development is unlikely to succeed. As was shown in this paper, even the distribution of error types for different IELTS levels varied greatly. Furthermore, there is individual difference in language learning, so it would be difficult to provide a clear and predictable timeline for improvement (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012, p. 89). It is likely that most casual tutors will not have sufficient knowledge to provide this kind of support for students with low IELTS levels.

To guarantee linguistic preparedness for study, it may be more prudent to wait until a higher level of English proficiency is demonstrated upon entrance to university, particularly for the degrees which rely heavily on written assessment. In the meantime, the workload will continue to fall upon the majority of academics who are often ill-equipped and untrained to deal with the needs of second language learners. Hopefully, this paper has gone some way towards opening the conversation on this issue and providing an understanding of the differences between the IELTS bands and offering a quantification of the increased time needed to deal with lower IELTS band writers.

Note on error analysis

- (1) If an error was detected that, upon correction, required changes in other parts of the text, only the initial error was counted. For example, if pluralisation of a noun was needed and, as a result, an adjustment of the verb was required, only a single error was counted and recorded under 'plurals'. The rationale is that the original (although incorrect) choice by the writer had grammatical agreement at that time. In the marking of each text, problems such as word choice (unless glaringly

inappropriate), lack of variation in sentence structure and vocabulary, the absence of signalling, etc., are ignored even though they do contribute to the quality of a text. Stylistic issues such as the Oxford (serial) comma and commas after introductory phrases or adverbs are ignored, even though their use contributes much to the ease of reading. Despite this minimal corrective method, it is expected that some people may dispute the occasional error identified in an exemplar and others will criticise that not enough errors were noted; however, the overall differences in quality between texts should remain consistent. The type of error can be slightly more difficult to objectively classify because some forms of error, such as the lack of a space for ‘every day’, that is, ‘everyday’, can be categorised as a punctuation error (the missing space), a noun error (day) or an adjective error (everyday). This kind of error is classified according to what function it should have performed in the sentence, for example, the use of a noun when an adjective was needed.

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Appendix. Exemplars with error markings

Band 6.0 Exemplar (IELTS, 2009a)

Question: The first cars appeared on the British roads in 1888. By the year 2000 there may be as many as 29 million vehicles on British roads. Alternative forms of transport should be encouraged and international laws introduced to control car ownership and use. To what extent do you agree or disagree?

<p>The transport has been one of the most important <u>problem</u> for the last two centuries. The problem began with the development and the <u>growing</u> of the cities.</p>	<p><i>art, pl</i> <i>n [verbal]</i></p>
<p>Before the eighth century <u>the</u> people lived in small villages or <u>tows</u> and did not have <u>the necessity</u> to <u>go</u> to <u>too</u> far. <u>The</u> people did not worry about the time to arrive <u>in</u> <u>some</u> <u>where</u>.</p>	<p><i>art</i> <i>sp, art, vocab, v</i> <i>prep, art</i> <i>prep, n</i></p>
<p>Nowadays the situation <u>changed</u>. Many cars <u>are</u> on the streets and many people need to go to <u>any</u> place. The numbers of <u>car</u> has increased and as a result there are many problems: pollution, noise, car <u>accident</u>, <u>unsufficient</u> car <u>park</u> and petroleum <u>problem</u>.</p>	<p><i>v, v</i> <i>adj, pl</i> <i>pl, adj, n, pl</i></p>
<p>On the other hand, people use <u>car</u> to go anywhere: to work, to travel, to <u>spent</u> holiday and to <u>amusement</u>. Meanwhile the <u>car</u> is important <u>so</u> the cities must have another solution. It is important to organise its <u>using</u> and to <u>meet</u> alternative ways.</p>	<p><i>pl</i> <i>v/ vocab</i> <i>v, conj</i> <i>v, vocab</i></p>

In big cities there are some alternatives like the undergrounds (metro), coach, train and bicycles. In China and Cuba, for example, they use a lot of bicycles for substituting the cars or coach.

prep
art, pl, pl, pl
sp, punc, punc
sp, vocab, art, pl

It would be better to think about others different kinds of transports. In Brasil the Government has talked about transport on the rivers. In this country there are many rivers where it is possible to go to different places. In general they are flat rivers.

pl
pl, pl, sp, caps

Another kind of Transport is a car that uses solar energy. Probably they don't have a pollution problem and it is cheaper than others car.

caps, art
art
pl, pl

In conclusion, the transport is a social problem in big cities but its solution depend on new. technologies, others kind of energy and political aspects.

art
preps, s/v
punc, pl, pl

206 errors per 1000 words (12 types of error)

Text statistics: 271 words, 56 errors, 20 sentences, average of 14 words per sentence

Band 6.5 Exemplar (IELTS, 2009c)

Question: Children who are brought up in families that do not have large amounts of money are better prepared to deal with the problems of adult life than children brought up by wealthy parents. To what extent do you agree or disagree with this opinion?

I greatly support the idea about children who are brought up in families that do not have large amounts of money are better prepared to deal with the problems of adult life than children brought

up by wealthy parents. I support it, because of the following reason. Children who are brought up in families that do not have large amounts of money are raise in a certain psychological values. Such as the value of hardworking, and discipline, they are used to be in the condition where money doesn't come easily. They have to earn it, work for it. Oppose to it, a child who comes from a wealthy family is used to have money all the time. Whenever they want something, the money is easily gave to them as if everyday are their birthday.

pl
v, prep, art
pl, n, conj
v
adj, pron
v
sp, v
n, s/v

Children who are brought up in families that do not have large amounts of money are well-trained to face adulthood. They are well-prepared to see the fact that the world is a very tough place. They watched their parent everyday worked very hard just to put the food on the table. They have the advantage to see the reality and embrace it, and set their mind that they too have work hard for their future, their own dreams, & their authentic self. A child that came from a wealthy family doesn't always have this advantage. This is because their eyes are blinded by the power of money, that their parent has. They also have a disadvantage of a family love life. Commonly, ,

n, v
vocab
conj, prep
sp
punc
vocab, sp, punc

wealthy parents express love by money. They love their children, so they bought them cars, expensive clothes, toys, but they are never home when their children needs them. The basic necessity of compassion isn't fulfilled in this kind of family. The impact to a child is that they will grow up and think that money is everything, that the source of happiness is money. They don't care about other people, they only care about money. The problem is they don't know how to get it, they've been spoiled all the time, so doesn't have the time to discovered the art of money making, only money spending. On the contrary children from families that do not have a large amount of money will grow up with the sense of respect for money, they know how to get it and use it well. They know how to face adult life problems because they've been watching since they were achild. But a wealthy child is always to busy with himself to know that.

v

s/v

prep

[not punc]

punc

s/v, v

art, art

punc

punc, adv, sp

pron, sent frag

92 errors per 1000 words (14 types of error)

Text statistics: 422 words, 39 errors, 23 sentences, average of 18 words per sentence

Band 7.0 Exemplar (IELTS, 2009b)

Question: International tourism has brought enormous benefit to many places. At the same time, there is concern about its impact on local inhabitants and the environment. Do the disadvantages of international tourism outweigh the advantages?

'Tourism' – Friend or Foe?

Tourism is a very big industry in the modern time and is growing quite rapidly. Thousands of people travel everywhere to various destinations every year. Arguments have come up regarding the benefits and negative impacts of tourism in places and on its local inhabitants and environment; however, I believe there are more advantages than disadvantages of international tourism.

vocab

People travel for various reasons; we travel for business purposes, holidays, visit friends and relatives, etc. Travelling is mostly seen as a recreational activity.

v

punc

Tourism has many advantages. Tourism can play a tremendous part in a country's economy, the more tourists visit a country and spend money there the better it is for the country; that way more money is circulated within the country and even the stability of their currency's rate of exchange persists if not improve.

punc

v

Vendors and shops get to sell more goods and make an income. Tourism also has its non-monetary advantages; it brings cultures and people closer. People from all around the world get to share their culture with each other and even learn more. This is a good opportunity in education.

prep

caps

Tourism seems to have some disadvantages too; However, I believe the problems caused by tourism are not something that cannot be solved or prevented.

A lot of people believe that tourism can destroy or deviate culture and causes quite an impact on visited locations. such as pollution and littering.

v [intr]

punc

People can adhere to their own beliefs and way of life if they want to;

no one can really forcefully influence someone to change from their morals and ethics. Pollution can be avoided by increasing usage of environmental friendly vehicles used for tours and rentals, Warnings and visual education on littering and smoking. Specific times can be allocated for tours to certain areas, such as peak times where local inhabitants feel uncomfortable due to too many foreigners.

vocab

adj

caps,

punc

Where there are problems there can always be solutions. Tourism brings great advantages for any place in many ways and it a 'win-win' exchange process. The very few problems caused can always be avoided or taken care of. I believe tourism should be highly promoted, specially in traditional and poor countries with natural beauty such as Bangladesh.

35 errors per 1000 words (6 types of error, but half these errors are *punc* or *caps*)
Text statistics: 373 words, 13 errors, 20 sentences, average of 19 words per sentence
