# CHATER ONE

# INTRODUTION

## 1.0  Background :-

The main purpose of this study is to investigate  EFL teachers' opinions about the role of using error correction techniques (ECT) in EFL students' written language  at secondary level. In other words, it is to explore the influence of using error correction techniques on learners' writing skills in EFL teachers' point of view.

How EFL teachers think of every aspect concerning the process teaching has a lot to do with their interactions with the students, dealing with the material ( planning, preparation, supplementation, etc. ), participating in syllabus design, developing the language, creating attractive learning environment, etc. So, as the opinions are prone to change for some kinds of intrinsic or extrinsic factors, the above role are influenced.

Language skills have their status in the process of language teaching  and learning. They are , broadly, classified as productive (writing and speaking) and receptive (listening and reading)  macro-skills and  ordered  as  listening,  speaking,  reading  and  writing. In spite of such grouping and ordering, they are  taught integrally according to the modern trends of syllabus design. Alfaki (2007:55) asserts that *"in recent modern courses using spiral gradation: a lesson will have some speaking, some writing, some listening, and  some  reading  activities all using  the same  language being used in the same context."* Nevertheless, they can be  addressed  in  isolation , whenever it is possible.

Writing and speaking as productive skills have the priority of being practical evidence of learners' achievement in the process of learning and teaching at schools, universities and institutions. They are also thought of as important means of linguistic communication. So, they are like mirrors into which language development , declining or change can be seen. however, writing is more prior than speaking in the field of EFL learning. Salih, et al (2004) state that writing helps students in practicing oral work, increasing their involvement in language learning as it needs physical and mental movement, keeping their texts for later revision and developing their whole language accuracy and competence.

In comparison with speaking, writing is more difficult. Rivers (1980:292) asserts that *"writing a language comprehensively is much more difficult than speaking it. When we write, we were as, it were "communicating into space."* Such difficulty and other surroundings of learning and teaching process, spontaneously, result in the existing errors in learners' written language. Hubbard, et al (1987-144) point out that errors are inevitable at whatever level of language learning which corresponds mentalist point of view. This means errors are intrinsic to the process of learning and it is teachers' responsibility to cope with. So, their role is of great importance. They are to have positive attitudes to both of teaching and learners' errors in order to deal with them helpfully and purposefully.

Learners at secondary level, nowadays, produce so erroneous language. This makes some teachers, at some cases of giving feedback, desist from expressing their responses, or else, they show them as a despair or dispraise which is really frustrating. if so, why do not they guide the students to the correct forms of the language instead?, and why do not they follow them up to make sure that students substitute the wrong forms for the correct ones?. On the other hand, some teachers do

their best to eradicate those errors, but do they factually and willingly use effective techniques at a suitable time so as to make the process effetive ?. accordingly, different researchers may think of various reasons for such writing skills demotion at this level which keeps on seriously, in most cases, to the next levels of learning ( tertiary level ) or even after graduation (fossilization).

Generally speaking, the inevitability of errors, the written language demotion that is witnessed and the need for appropriate language, involves the process of correction. Teachers are practically liable for dealing with those errors regardless of their causes, and types. Therefore, it is worth mentioning to seek for effective ways of treating the errors and putting an end to the current language deterioration.

## 1-1    The Statement of the Study Problem:-

English language is learnt throughout the world for different reasons: it makes its speakers employable, it is the language of science, it is used commonly as a foreign or second language, etc. hence, accuracy is necessitated.

In Sudan it has been learnt as a foreign language since the British colonization. Recently, it has declined in that students produce very poor language, in particular, at secondary level. Whereas, they are required to produce rich language because they are considered to have been linguistically well-founded at basic level. In addition, they are at the threshold of university level at which they will be fairly responsible for their errors and the direct follow-up from their lectures is not so close. Such errors appear in their writing may be because of writing skill comprehensibility which makes it difficult. The difficulty, in turn, causes problems, for example, linguistic, cognitive and psychological problems. Another reason is the reoccurrence of the accumulated

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and fossilized errors which can be ascribed to the lack of teachers' effective feedback on learners' productive language. There may be other causes which will appear via close and deep investigation in this area.

Making errors is the only sign for measuring the extent of language deterioration. Accordingly, teachers' role in tackling the errors at the level is necessary. Moreover, writing skill comprehensibility and difficulty which cause the above critical problems that are embodied in the erroneous written language, which is self-evident, raise many subject-matters that worth exploration and involve a great deal of efforts to be exerted. Thus, several studies have been conducted on examining the causes of written language deterioration, and finding out suitable ways of its promotion. As well as the society does its best for that reason: English is taught in governmental and private institutes using various kinds of syllabuses based on different methods of foreign language teaching in variant educational environments, private lessons are given around, books of all language brunches are sold everywhere, and learners buy or carry the books browsing through them whether at school time or not. Nevertheless, learners still produce quite weak language. In other words, it is the intangibility of the actual outcome from the every effort made. The thing calls for further investigation. Therefore, this study is intended to examine the role of using error correction techniques in learners' written language from EFL. teachers' perspective. Such variability seems not to have been raised.

Some may think of other things or ways that can play a certain role in students' written language enhancement, but may not be more effective than using the techniques which can be considered as the only direct way of error identification, error eradication, averting error recurrent and consolidating correct forms.

**1.2 Objectives of the Study:-**

**1-** Identifying EFL teachers' opinions about the effect of using error correction techniques on learners' writing skills.

2- Establishing effective techniques for eradicating the errors and consolidating correct forms.

3- Pointing out types of written errors that entail correction.

**1-2    Questions of the Study:-**

a- what is the impact of error correction techniques on learners' writing skills according to EFL teachers' opinions?

b- What are the techniques that should be used by the teachers in order to eradicate the errors and consolidate correct forms?

c- Are there certain written errors that should be corrected?

**1-3    Hypotheses of the Study:-**

I.    EFL teachers have various opinions on the role of  error correction techniques in learners' writing skills.

II.    There are definite  techniques to be used for confronting such written EFL retrograding.

III.    Making a decision about what is to be corrected of students' written errors is inevitable.

**1-4    The Contribution of the Study:-**

The study draws its significance  and impressionability from the fact that it attempts to discover the existence of the relationship between EFL teachers' attitudes towards the role of using error correction techniques and students' writing skills at secondary level. It puts forwards a very crucial problem(written language deterioration ) at that indispensible level which faces the vulnerable section of students, intimidates the overall language into fading away and  seems to be ignored at some times

and veiled at other times. This calls for further investigation of this kind. The study is unique in advancing adequate and peerless strategies for refining students' writing kills. At the same times, it entitles the teachers who are likely to be loyal, responsible and qualified with the implementation of the strategies. In other words, it brings to the teachers' attention the fact that learners cannot learn without goofing, so that, it is their duty to help them by using techniques which provide confidence, motivation and progress.

Eventually, it assures that the promotion of EFL learners' writing skills cannot be achieved except by eradicating the fossilized errors and implanting the correct forms via practicable, definite and effective techniques willingly. So, beside the other ways of writing skill promotion, efficient techniques are necessitated to be accompanied.

**1-5    The Delimitations of the Study:-**

The study is restricted to the investigation of the relationship between EFL. teachers' opinions about using error correction techniques and the advancement of learners' writing skills at secondary level in Eastern Gezira Locality.

**1-6    Methodology of the Study:-**

As the study aims at providing information about EFL teachers' attitudes to using error correction techniques; discovering the relationship between the opinions about using the techniques and the promotion of learners' writing skills at secondary level; and clarifying how such opinions on the usage of these techniques play a role in students' written language at the level; descriptive analytical, co-relational and explanatory methods will be used respectively. It is quantitative, cross-sectional, retrospective-prospective and non-experimental design.

The researcher intends to cover a large area like Eastern Gezira Locality, for that reason, questionnaire will be used as a suitable tool for collecting data. Moreover, EFL teachers at secondary level are qualified enough to deal with questionnaire items and the questionnaire itself is likely to provide anonymity which is expected to reflect spontaneous answers, in particular, to the questions concerning respondents' inner world ( attitude ) needed to be represented in their outer behavior ( effective process of correction ).

Owing to the fact that Eastern Gezira Locality is one of Sudanese vast and prosperous areas , in terms of, its population and education, EFL teachers at secondary level in the area are intended to be the community of the study.

The researcher will use one of the techniques of the probable sample in choosing a suitable size of respondents from the total amount of EFL teachers at secondary level in the area for providing the data needed, because such type of sampling techniques give equal opportunities to all individuals of the specimen.

**1-7    The Structure of the Study:-**

The study is made up of five chapters as follows:-

Chapter one: is an introduction of the study which includes the pertinent background information, identification of the problem, purposes of the study for achieving, questions to be answered, hypotheses to be tested, contribution that the study is expected to have, limits within which the research is conducted, and the methods used. Chapter two: exposes the literature of the study which is its integral part. It provides a theoretical background, it establishes the links between what the researcher is examining and what has already been studied by other investigators, and shows how its findings that are foreseen will

contribute to the existing body of the knowledge in the field. Chapter three: it is allotted to the methodology developed for assessing the validity of the procedure, details of the population identified, techniques of sampling used, and the tool chosen for data collection. Chapter four: which concerns with data presentation, analysis and discussion. Chapter five: is to set forth the conclusion, findings, recommendations, and some suggestions for further investigations. In the end, some pages are appropriated for list of references and appendices.

## 1-8    Operational Definitions:-

### Error:

In learning a foreign or second language, Richards et al (1995 : 95 – 96) define error as the use of a linguistic item (a word, grammatical item, speech act, etc.) in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning.

### Mistake:

As it is compared to error which is caused by lack of knowledge about target language, mistake is caused by temporary lapses of memory, confusion, slips of the tongue, etc. Hubbard et al (1987:134).

### Technique:

It means classroom activities such as drilling, dialogues, role-plays, reading aloud, dictation, paragraph writing, etc. (Alfaki 2007:4).

### Correction:

Correction is a linguistic term, which can be conceptualized. As a headword, it is a change that makes something more accurate than it was before. In the field of foreign language teaching and learning, Richards et

al (1995:65-66) explain it as an act of making a particular language as right as opposed to wrong.

## 1.9 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has provided a description of the theoretical framework of the study with special focus on the study problem, research questions, hypotheses, and objectives. It has also included the limits, methods, operational definitions and overview of the five chapters.

# CHATER TWO

# LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

## 2.0   Introduction

This chapter attempts to review the relevant literature on the issue in question and other related subjects with some kind of emphasis on the key concepts: writing skills, opinion, error, correction, and technique. It raises opinions of different linguists, scholars, other researchers and educators about the concepts. Moreover, it tries to find out how those opinions are convergent. The chapter is divided into two parts: part one is literature review and part two is about the previous studies. Then, it is ended with a brief summary.

## 2.1 Part One: Literature Review

### 2.1.1 Conceptual Framework of the Study

Traditionally, written form of language is given a primacy to spoken language and considered as a criterion for literacy. Halliday (1988:5) states this vividly as:

> *Traditionally in the description of languages a much high status was accorded to the written than to spoken. It is not difficult to see the reasons for this. In culture where only a minority was educated, literacy was the significant indication of the educated mind. The educated man was reversed for the knowledge to which his literacy gave him access and for the social prominence to which his literacy gave him. Since by definition, a literate man is one who can understand written language.*

Halliday (ibid:5-7) adds that, written language is the repository of the finest of literary achievements of the society. Then, it is not surprising that language of all sorts is evaluated against the norm of literary language. In addition, this attitude still exists, in that, some school teachers devote much energy to eradicate the influence of speech on

writing, commonly asserting that the forms produced by students are grammatically incorrect. For the parents and students themselves, written language is a convenient evidence of learning language at school.

Above all, written form has religious sanction: in Muslim countries, for example, the purest form of Arabic language is found in the Holy Koran, which is unquestionable. Therefore, the written form has religious significance. However, the linguists' attitudes are in reverse. They attach the greater importance to the spoken language for some reasons; spoken language is man's biographical nature. It emerged before written form in evolutionary trail. Accordingly, they give the primacy to the spoken form. Hubbard, et al (1987: 62) assures the linguists' attitudes clearly:

> *Of four skills, writing is the skill most neglected. A lot of modern ELT 'methods' under the influence of the audio-lingual method stress the importance of speech, with writing coming a very poor second. It is no wonder that, writing is taught very sketchily, if at all.*

The attitudes that think of written form as less important do not dismiss it from their scope. They only relegate it. Thus, writing has its un-inevitable role in the process of teaching and learning languages as well as in communication.

Looking at a form of language as important, more important, the most important and as pure, purer, or the purest indicates comparison between different forms of language. This leads to the preference of one form to another for certain features or criteria. Therefore, the concept of correction has had an existence since the earliest epochs of language evolution.

## 2.1.2 Definitions of Writing Skills

Talking about writing can be from different angles. Some scholars define it according to the approaches used in teaching writing and others think of it on the basis of the arrangement of its visual symbols. It is also possible to be described in terms of the activities that take place during its performance. So, to write means to form spoken language into shapes that can be seen. It is to use a graphic symbol according to certain rules to form words and arrange the words to form sentences. The sentences then are connected to form a cohesive and coherent text. Such a process generates a variety of similar views, Langan (2001: 113) defines writing as "*a process that involves discovering a thesis, supporting it, organizing thoughts for the first draft, revising and editing the final draft*". Byrne (1995:13) defines it as "*When we write we use graphic symbols (letters) or combination of letters which relates to sound we make when we speak*". According to Palmer, et al (1969:39), "*It is simply a clever and convenient device by which certain symbols, which are called letters, are used to represent the sounds of speech*". But Halliday (1988:1-8) gives a more detailed definition, writing is a sequence of written symbols arranged in a constituencies (especial relationship between graphic symbols) hierarchy (from the smallest unit to the largest unit) with structural signals (punctuation and spaces). Therefore, writing skills can comprehensibly be introduced as those specific abilities which help writers put their thoughts into words in meaningful form and to mentally interact with the message. Those words cannot convey the message unless they are chosen and arranged correctly.

**2.1.3 Peculiarities of Writing:**

In spite of the fact that the four macro-skills of the language are to be considered together, writing skill has its own features that give it a distinct difference from the rest. Such features can be exposed in terms of the following points:

1- **Its difficulty:**

Writing skill seems as much more difficult  than any other skill. Learning to write needs longer time and much effort than either of the other skills. Khansir & Abdolahi ( 2014) assure that writing is a very difficult skill not only for its foreign learners but also for native learners. They argue that writing requires thinking and sense so that it is as much an emotional as a cognitive process. Therefore, the affective factors strongly impact all phases of the writing process. This concept can be seen more clearly in Byrne's (1995: 4) view of its problems which face EFL. learners in writing performance: psychological problems**,** these imply that writing is a solitary activity that takes place without any possibility of interaction or the benefits of feedback; linguistic problems**,** which hint on the fact that it is practiced at a distance from the reader, the writer is required to select the vocabulary carefully, use correct structure, and connect the sentences and ideas with suitable devices to create a cohesive and coherent text; cognitive problems**,** which indicate the fact that the writer is to bear in mind the readers' knowledge, educational level and cultural background to have his text accessible. Stubbs ( 1989, 203: 204)  clarifies the severity of cognitive problems with some hints on how the audience are selected, when asserts that the writers are not certain who their audience are going to be. This means if the topic is of general interest it is prepared with well-defined social group in the mind such as teachers, researchers, the common people, etc.

> *The problem is acute in a collection of articles on language in education where different disciplinary perspectives are likely to be represented among readers: practicing teachers, educational researchers, psychologist, socialist and linguist all with different assumptions and interests, and probably not even agreeing on what reading and writing mean.*

Other than academic, articles which are for specialist journals are prepared for well-defined and homogenous group of fellow professionals

who are actively working in some academic specialism. So, researchers with a general interest will find such articles impenetrable. This does not only happen with articles of specialized areas but also when readers with general interest try to read articles on linguistics itself.

Accordingly, identifying the readers is the problem that faces the authors of whatever pieces of writing and represents as a peculiar feature of written language which is in contrast with spoken language. Thus, spoken language is usually addressed to particular individuals (listeners are before speakers). The thing that is very marginal with written language. The result is that writers have to have mythical group of audience in mind when writing, but speakers have merely well-defined audience when speaking. Another thing, written language can stand on its own and strongly institutionalized and decontexualized, whereas, spoken language is always contextual. Thus, further comparing difficulties can be seen much more apparently, when it is juxtaposed to the spoken from as its peer macro productive skill, (Appendix - A).

In accordance with such peculiarity, writing is an activity concerning various human sciences: it is a social activity because it serves particular social functions in different communities. It is a linguistic activity in that people read and write meaningful language and it is a psychological activity as it involves the process of visual information and various kinds of problem solving. As additional to the linguistic problems, the most serious and bothering one is "spelling" which is usually caused by the mismatch between the graphemes and phonemes ( the forms of written English and the sounds of spoken English ). Yule (1996:14) ascribes such mismatches to a number of historical influences on written English in:

*The spelling of written English was very largely fixed in the form that was used when printing was introduced in the fifteenth Century in England. At that time a number of conventions*

*regarding the written representation of words derived from forms used in writing other languages, notably Latin and French. Moreover, many of the early printers were native Dutch speakers and could not make consistently accurate decisions about English pronunciations. Perhaps more important is the fact that, since the fifteenth century, the pronunciation of spoken English has undergone substantial changes. Thus, even if there had been a good, written-letter to speech sound correspondence at that time, and the printers had got it right. These would still be major discrepancies for present-day speakers of English.*

Other writing difficulties are encountered as its requirements, such as, conventions of various types of writing (personal, social, official, etc.) and materials, substances, or devices used for writing. All those problems are encountered altogether during the process of writing. Teachers, but not anyone else, are responsible for facilitating them. White (1983: 106-107) states this in: *Although there is much emphasis nowadays on the concept of teacher as facilitator, there is one important function which normally only the teacher can perform, and that is his role in monitoring standards of accuracy and appropriateness.* Therefore, students are transited gradually from illiteracy to literacy and skillful writing. Such transition is done by means of various techniques, which are used for teaching and remedying or correcting their errors. Thus, written error correction is necessary for overcoming the difficulties and making that written form achieve its objectives.

## 2. Writing as an Integration of Other Skills

For explaining another peculiarity that makes it distinguished from other skills, writing skill is thought of as an integration of other skills. This integration is crystal even to the syllabus designers despite of the clear cut explanatory classification of the four skills.    According to Elfaki, and Ahmed (2007: 55), Language skills are classified as: receptive ( listening and reading ) and productive skills ( speaking and writing). Or as oral/aural  (speaking and listening ) and graphic skills ( reading and writing). Such classification does not mean their disintegration in the

field of language teaching and learning. Therefore, recent courses use spiral gradation rather than linear gradation. Alfaki and Ahmed (ibid:55) who assert this as: *"However in recent modem courses using spiral gradation, a lesson will have some listening, some speaking, some reading and some writing activities, all using the same language taught in a similar context"*. Armer (1983:47) points out that, it is very often true that one skill cannot be performed without another. He continues to reinforce the idea obviously in:

> *Where students practice reading we will use that to practice other skills. Students involved in an oral communication activity will have to some writing or reading in order to accomplish the task, which the activity asks them to perform. Student will be asked to write but on the basis of reading, listening or discussing.*

He proves writing skill integration since its performance means the performance of the other skills. Rivers (1980: 398) emphasizes this more apparently and implies some focus on it at lower levels of learning as well as some possibilities where it can be practiced in isolation, as:

> *Writing is not, then, a skill which can be learned in isolation. In the apprentice stage of writing what a student most learn apart from the peculiar difficulties of spelling or script, is counterpart of what has to be learned for the mastery of listening comprehension, speaking and reading, a nucleus of linguistic knowledge.*

So, they are intimately related to each other. However writing is the comprehensive one in that a writer, at least, needs some kind of listening, speaking, and reading to write properly but not the contrary. In other words, one may not necessarily write to listen, speak, or read properly. For such integration, the promotion of writing skill implies the other skills.

Thus, written error correction is an activity intended to maintain correct language as a whole.

**3- The Importance of Writing**

This form of a language has its own significance, which makes it so bothering: learners of various levels and specialties are anxious to master it. Many studies have been conducted on different pieces of this form (composition, handwriting, summary, etc.) regardless of its relegation to spoken form, as linguists think of. Rivers (ibid: 296) asserts that written form of the language is required, at least, in all specialties. For example, in writing business letters, writing reports on clearly defined proposals or projects. This importance is ascribed to its significant role in distant communication and in the process of teaching and learning languages.

## a- Its Significance in Communication

No doubt, that communication is a key skill. communicators use different tools, Written form of the language is one of its important media that is frequently used by the writers throughout the world. Davis (1975:114) points out that, *"A fourth category of median needs to be noted, namely modes of writing which exploit visually two dimensional spaces. Recent interest in a theory of graphic communication may hasten the development of new modes which might affect writing quite substantially"*. The author emphasizes that writing is necessary to be taught at schools, *"There are at least four reasons for including writing in the EFL curriculum. First writing is an important means of distant communication at the personal, business and official level…"*. So, by means of writing, writers can translate their thoughts to other people, preserve ideas so that they can be reflected upon later, promote the ability to pose worthwhile questions and help the readers to give feedback about different issues. It is unquestionable that communication is necessary for human factors. Therefore, such a communicative role of the written form involves accuracy which is a candid demand for correction.

## b- Its Importance in Learning

Beside its importance as means of communication, writing skill plays an essential role in all fields of study and much more essential in language learning so that it is considered as the most important of the four main skills. In this sense, it is considered as an effective way for helping students learn languages. Raims (1988:3) explains such importance in:

> *Writing helps our students learn. How? First, writing reinforces the grammatical structures, idioms and vocabulary that we have been teaching our students. Second, when our students write, they also have a chance to be adventurers with the language, to go beyond what they have just learned. Third, when they write, they necessarily become very involved with the new language, the effect to express ideas and the constant use of eyes, hand, and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning.*

More overtly, it helps in developing the overall language skills and reinforces the concept of integration in the process of language teaching and learning. This can be seen as Khansir (2012: 282) puts: " *learning of writing is one of the most important skills that second language learners need to develop their ability . . . Writing can be recognized as an integral part of language learning process in ELT classroom".* Doff (1996:480) adds that students need writing for study purposes and as an examination skill. However, its importance is that it makes them remember the words, structures and focus their attention on what they are learning. According to Bryant et al (1985:1) it has another importance especially for children in various ways. They put: *"Of the entire thing that children have to learn when they get to school reading and writing are the most essential. Particularly everything else that they do there will be permeated by these two skills".* In addition to its help to the students at all levels of their learning, writing also helps the teachers manage foreign language classrooms as it distracts the students from chaos and indulges them in learning.

At large, the importance of writing whether in communication or the process of language learning and teaching, represents the answer for

the question of "why focusing writing?". such importance involves enhancement and correctness so that writing should play its role perfectly. For that reason, there are many things to be done or many ways to be learnt such as (writing every day, reading a lot, committing certain rules to memory and force one to use them) of how writing skills are developed. However, EFL learners' writing skills development, especially, at secondary level where students are prepared for optional education, calls for teachers' intervention. They are to help students overcome writing difficulties and correct the errors they make positively. Hedge (2000,8 -7) reinforces Raims' view with some further details, reasons and the type of writing exercise that is believed to achieve the goals. Writing is needed as a skill or an activity in the English classroom as well as an aid to learning: to consolidate new structures or vocabulary, and to help in remembering new items of the language. In this sense the role of writing in EFL. Learning is different from its role in studying other subjects in that it allows students to see how they are progressing, to get feedback from their teachers, and it helps teachers to monitor and diagnose the problems that encounter the students. Hence, she recommends " *sentence level reinforcement exercises*" for their value in language learning. Never the less, success in writing depends on more than producing clear and correct sentences. besides, she  suggests the kind of writing tasks that is preferable to be given to the students, she puts:

> *I am interested in tasks that help students write whole pieces of communication, link, and develop ideas, or arguments for a particular reader or group of readers . . . tasks which have whole texts as their outcome related appropriately to the ultimate goal of those learners who need to write English in their social, educational, or professional lives.*

She adds that classroom writing provides learners with opportunities to write different types of texts such as stories, reviews, essays, poems, etc. simply for practicing and improving their English.

## 2.1.4  Writing Skills Typologies and Discourse Types

To develop students' writing skills to the extent that helps them in their continuous assessments, final evaluations, higher academic writings, and meeting their future writing needs; they are to be taught core writing types and various types of writing discourse. Hedge (2000:95-99) explains writing types according to the form as: personal writing (diaries, journals, shopping list, recipes, etc.), social writing (invitations, notes of condolences/congratulations, cable grams, etc.), study writing (making notes while reading, summaries, synopses, essays, etc.), institutional writing (agendas, memoranda, reports, etc.), public writing (letters of complaint / request, form filling, applications for membership, etc.), and creative writing ( poems, stories, autobiographies, etc.). She also points out to the writing types according to the functions or organizing ideas in a text, for example, static description (describing place/system) or process description (describing the sequence of steps in how something is done), discussion (putting forward arguments), narrative (telling a sequence of events),etc.

## 2.1.5  Writing Skills at Seconary Level

For the multitudinousness of writing skills the researcher, herein, confined himslf to highlighting some of the skills concerning secodary level. This is because there is no clear cut line that delimitates wriring skills of each level and to clarify what to be focused on .

Sudanese secondary students can formally be regarded as of intermediate level students, despite of the fact that they may not be so cognitively. So, the practical writing skills required at intermediate level, in no circumstences, can be summarized from Hughes' (1990:98-100) description. He quotes that writing skills at this level can be devided into three stage:

**1- Intermediate low:**

At  which the student is enabled to meet practical writing needs of : creating statments and formulating question on proper materials, producing sentences as recombinations of learned vocabulary and structures usually in subject-verb-object word order, using present time frame with incorrect past of futre time. Their writing is described as collection of sentences losely strung; repeatitive structures with vocabulary limited to common objects and routine activities; mechanic in somewhat; of basic errors of vocabulary choice, grammar, punctuation, spelling, formation, and use of some nonalphabetic symbols; and it can be understood by natives but used to non-natives writing.

**2- Intermediate Mid:**

Students here are required to meet practical writing needs include: writing short simple letters, essays, and losely connected descriptive texts on personal preferences or experiences, daily routines, common events, and immediate surroundings; using present time with inconsistence reference to other time frames; minimal usage of grammatical and stylistic elements (object pronouns, relative pronouns, adverbs of time, co-ordinating conjunctions); grammar and vocabulary as reflective of spoken form; mastering grammar in noncomplex sentences and basic verb form (delension and conjugation). Their writing can be defined as collection of discrete sentences as there is no good evidence of delibrate organizatoin.

**3- Intermediate High**

At this level students are skilful in taking detailed notes on farmiliar topics; writing uncomplicated letters, summaries, essays on topics related to works, school, experiences or of general interest; writing description and narratives of paragraph length on everyday events and situations; using various time frames with some inconsistencies; using basic cohesive elements with some breakdown; and paraphasing texts. Their vocabulary, grammar, and style is relatively of spoken. They make no

significant errors. Their writing is generally comprehinsible to the natives and used to the wiritng of non-natives.

## 2.1.6 Improving Students' Writing Skills:

There may be several ways of improving students' writing skills. Hedge (2000:10-11 ) emphasizes that marking or responding to students' written task is completely a process of improving. She puts:

> *Even more important are moves to involve students in the revising and editing of their own works so that the activity known as ' marking' becomes part of the writing process and a genuine source of learning for both students and teachers. In other words it becomes a process of improving.*

She adds that a widely held belief to be a good writer is to read a lot because it exposes students to models of different texts types that can develop awareness of what constitutes good writing. But it does not mean that reading is alone sufficient for improving writing skills, students also need to write a lot. Accordingly, learners' writing skills improvement needs a lot of writing exercises, a lot of reading, careful and positive feedback to their written tasks after a careful preparation of writing exercises.

From Hedge's view above several useful points can be inferred: there is a forthcoming profession that students make errors; a candid approval that writing skills improvement is to make the students produce accurate or appropriate language which is possible; and an adoptability of marking as one of the appropriate ways of affecting on learners writing skills. Wherefore, such marking needs

## 2.1.7  Error correction:

It is clear that the phrase "error correction" comprises two key linguistic terms each of which deserves conceptualization before undergoing the actual process of error correction.

### 2.1.7.1 The term "error"

The term error is wide-spread and included in people's every day terminology. Therefore it is used in different contexts or fields, as a headword in language lexicon and term human sciences. For example, literary Wehmeier (2005 : 424) introduces it as *"a mistake, especially one that causes problem or affects the result of sth"*. In sciences, like in computers " an error message" means the message that tells the user that something is wrong in a computer program.

### 1. Error Definitions in EF/SL learning:

There is no doubt that knowing something closely will actually help in dealing with it successfully. Almost all learners' current dictionaries, simply, define error as a synonymous with mistake, but in the light of applied linguistics specially "Error Analysis" it is quite different elaborately. It is defined diversely on the basis of several perspectives: as a deviance from native speaker norm, language performance norm, learner's interim, teacher's unwanted forms, learner's disability in coping with the difficulties encountered. All of the definitions can eventually be embodied as aberrance from linguistic norms.

### a- As a Deviance from Linguistic Rules

Carl (1998:62,82) defines the term error broadly and in accordance with its connotations as it is used within the domain of language teaching and learning. Error means ungrammaticality which means ill-formedness; it means unacceptability in language use and usage. This is when an utterance is produced by non-native speaker in some inappropriate contexts and not accepted by the native speaker of the language. It is also used to mean incorrectness which is not only restricted to the deviance from language rules but also referred to the cases of deviance from prescriptive standards of correctness or deemed erroneous by native

speakers. The term error can be applied to the dimension of strangeness and infelicity, for example, the semantically disharmonious expressions such as *"Crooked sky", "down they forgot", "wet water "*. The unusual expressed ideas like *"my lawnmower thinks that I do not like it"* are also described as errors. Failure to fit the intended idea as in "*Pole wrote a green dress and made three goals*" is added to the definition list of error.

## b-As it is Compared to Associated Terms

Carl ( 1998: 83-84) juxtaposes the term to the other term of relevant connotations. Those are slips of the tongue, mistake, and solecism. The term *slip* or *lapse* of the tongue, means misuse of pen and misplace of fingers on keyboard, such types of deviations are described as quickly detected and self-corrected. *Mistakes* also are self-corrected by their agent but after they are pointed out or indicated some audience, they fall into two categories: first-order mistake with which simple indication is a sufficient prompt for self-correction and second-order mistake when additional information is needed for identifying its location or nature. *Solecism*, is referred to as violators of correct rules as laid by purists and taught at schools, for example, split infinitive , for example, "*they studied to cursorily succeed*", donating participles as in "*at the age of eight, my family finally bought a dog*" , etc. Errors on the other hand,  cannot be self-corrected until further relevant (to that error) in put ( implicit or explicit) has been provided and converted into intake by the learner. In other words, errors require further relevant learning to take place before they can be self-corrected.  Crystal ( 1985, 112 ) defines it in terms of it is mechanical production as an analogy to mistake as well as in terms of producer (speaker or writer), and receiver (reader or hearer). He discusses that the term error in psycholinguistics is referred to as mistake in spontaneous speaking or writing which attributable to malfunctioning of the neuromuscular commands from the brain. Thus, it is different from it is

traditional definition that was based on language users' ability to confirm to a set of real or imagined standards of expression. For more clarification psycholinguists' classify it into two types : errors of speaker's, that are involving difficulties with timing or sequencing of commands which will lead to the addition, deletion or substitution of sounds and noticeable in the phenomenon described as slips of the tongue ( re-described by some psychologists as slips of the brain ), false starts , pauses and non-fluencies of everyday speech. Another type is of hearer's that are noticeable, for example, in a child's misanalysis of adult's sentences as well as in the history of language where new forms have come from a reanalysis  or misanalysis of older ones .

Crystal  adds that it is difficult to draw a differentiation between errors of production and of perception in proper contexts, so that the term is to be used with caution, especially, in language acquisition studies where it can easily be confused according to the educationalist's notion (in the context of essay marking ) .

### c- As Deviance from Native Speaker Norm

One persistent problem with which second language teachers and researchers have to deal with continuously, is that of defining student's language errors. Some definitions include their reference to the production of linguistic form which deviates from the correct form. In addition Carl's view above, error is seen as a deviant from native speaker's norm. Hence, they can be described  as linguistic forms or content that is differed from native speaker norms and facts. Bartram, et al (1991:20) also define them as wrong language which a native speaker would not usually produce. Norrish(1986:7) states that *"a systematic deviation which a learner makes until he notices that native speakers do not produce this form"*. Richards, et al (1995:95-96) define the term as the use of a linguistic item in a way that a fluent or native speaker of the language regards it as

faulty. All the definitions stated above have something in common, that is, native speaker's norm is used as the standard version. Some researchers criticize the notion of adopting native speaker's norm as the only criterion by which learner's language is judged because the possibility of the target language model to which the learner are exposed may not always be the native speaker norm. In fact, a great deal of the foreign language teaching is done by non-native speaking teachers. Allwright and Bailey(1991) point out that the language taught in classrooms may itself actually deviate from the native speaker norm in a number of systematic ways depending, in part on the target language proficiency of the non-native speaking instructor.

### d- As Language Performance Norm

Still, others define error with reference to some selected norms of language performance, not necessarily to native speaker's norm. Dulay and Burt(1982:189) have stated it as "*the flawed sides of learner speech or writing that are parts of conversation or composition that deviate from some selected norm of mature language performance*". Similarly, Allwright and Bailey(1991:84) view errors as "*the learners' speech which usually deviates from the model they are trying to master*".

### e- As Learners' Interim

Carl (1998) quotes that There are some researchers who take learner's errors not as the result of lack of knowledge but essentially as "*the learners use of interim principles to produce a new language*". This concept is, entirely, acceptable when learner's errors are interpreted on the ground of their idiosyncraticy.

### f- As Teachers' Unwanted Form

Some take the formal classroom instruction i.e., teachers' response to students' utterances as departures to their definitions. George (1972:2) states that an error is a form unwanted by the teacher. Chaudron

(1986:88) also defines it as any other behavior signaled by the teacher as needing improvement. This reveals the fact that some linguistic elements are accounted as 'errors' not because they are wrong but because they are unwanted or unexpected by the teacher. Hendrickson(1978:387)defines it as *"an utterance, form, or structure that a particular language teacher deems unacceptable because of its inappropriate use or its absence in real-life discourse"*.

## 2. Error Analysis

The term " Error Analysis" is defined as a detailed study or examination of error for its understanding. In the terminology of applied linguistics as used in the field of second or foreign language teaching or learning, it is defined in a way that shows its practical meaning. showing such a meaning clearly, can plausibly be through its juxtaposition with other paradigms that are operational in the same field like *"contrastive analysis"* and "*transfer analysis*". Chronologically, throughout the history of linguistics, in particular, the study of language learning, contrastive analysis is the first, error analysis is the second and transfer analysis is the third. Carl (1998:2-5) describes them as successive paradigms. He makes a clear destinction between them as: contrastive analysis is the pattern that is based on describing the comparable features of mother tongue, inter-language, and target language, then comparing the structures and forms to find out the mismatches which believably lead to overcoming learning problems. Transferee analysis is the one intended to compare inter-language with mother tongue, it is a sub-procedure applied in the diagnostic phase of doing " Error Analysis", it is not an alternative paradigm but ancillary procedure within error analysis. "Error Analysis is an alternative theory formulated to replace " Contrastive Analysis", it is based on describing IL and TL and comparing them to point out the mismatches for locating FL / SL. Learners' errors. He adds that  *"Error Analysis is the study of erroneous utterances produced by a group of learners"*, he

differentiates it from *'performance analysis'* in that performance analysis is *"The study of the whole performance data from individual learners"*.

In his book *"Error in Language Use and Usage"*, Carl (1998:25-26) states that the main purpose of 'Error Analysis" is to clear out all the misconceptions about coping with learners errors. Thus, it is widening to be relevant to multitudinous, important and vexatious issues of the errors. The issues can, simply, be viewed as of errors concerning both native and non-native learners. Besides, it moves further to include deviations beyond language learning such as of ding activities in sport and Mathematics. Such inclusiveness shows that the paradigm covers errors of all fields of human science. The portrayal of the importance of the paradigm is crystallized by Crystal (1985:112) in: *"in language teaching and learning, error analysis is a technique for identifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms, produced by someone learning a foreign language using any of the principles are procedures provided by linguistics"*. Hence Its importance, herein, is apparent that is to find a strong ground for the nature, causes, and sorts of errors which, in return, facilitates their treatment.

## 3. Causes of Errors

Almost all the intellectuals of the field depict, to some extent, EFL. Learners' error causes from the same perspectives. However, they use a bit different points and terminology. Carl (1998:175-200) puts ignorance and avoidance as the ultimate cause: a learner is ignorant of target language item and turns to L1 as a surrogate resource but it may not help. So the learner either keeps silent (topic avoidance) or resort to $L_2$ approximative systems which are usually represented as communicative strategies of paraphrasing and circumlocution. The first,

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manifests covert errors of under-representation and the second represents overt errors of either  verbosity or vagueness. Going into details, he analyzes such broad portrayal into: mother tongue interference (causes interlingual errors), target language itself ( causes intralingual errors ), communication strategies ( cause communication-strategy-based errors ) And inducing ( causes induced errors ).

Mother tongue interference means, there is L1 interference or transfer. So the elements that are similar facilitate learning process whereas the different ones encumber the process. The target language item ignorance leads learners to either set about learning the needed item adopting their learning strategies or attempt to fill the gap by resorting to the overall communicative strategies. The first option causes learning strategy-based errors via, for example, false analogy, incomplete rule application, etc., and the second encourages communication strategy-based errors by means of holistic and analytic strategy. Inducing points to the case away from incomplete competence, first language interference, and learner's spontaneity. It is referred to the cause that is not the learners' responsibility so that classroom situation, teacher's way of giving explanation, material used, and pedagogical priorities are thought of as other causes of the errors. The same concepts but different explanatory techniques. Hubbard, et al (1987:140-142) think of them as follows:

**a. Mother-tongue Interference**

This shows that $L_1$ systems impose themselves on $L_2$ systems, which leads to faulty grammatical patterns, wrong lexical choice, etc.

 E.g.  she in my chair sitting.

**b. Over-generalization**

Learners usually attempt to generalize new rules based on the rules, which they have already learnt, but their learning is still incomplete. Such attempts, in almost all cases, result in an erroneous language, e.g., "where you went yesterday?" instead of "where did you go yesterday?"

**c. Errors Encouraged by Teaching Materials or Methods**:

1. syllabus-induced errors: if a syllabus greatly emphasizes on or gives prolonged drilling of, for example, "I'm …ing" structure, it may lead to producing structures like "I am go …".

2. Teacher-induced errors: the teacher that over-stresses certain points, for example, auxiliary verb as in "what did you do yesterday?" may be answered, "I did go to the cinema (not intended emphasis). Teacher-induced errors can also be caused by teachers' indulgence in overgeneralization themselves.

what is conspicuous is that to most scholars, mother tongue is considered as the main cause of SL/FL learners errors. When they are, for example, learning, they try to transfer their mother tongue norms and culture to the foreign or second language norms or culture. Lado (1957:2) puts: *"The individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture, both productively . . . and receptively "*.

The same thing Fries (1945:9) reinforces the concept by a strong emphasis on the effectiveness of the materials used in teaching SL/ FL languages that based on the description and comparison of learners' mother tongue and target language. He writers , *"The most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned carefully compared with a parallel description of a native language of the learner."* Richards (1984:5) , in his list of  factors that characterize and influence on the

second or foreign language systems, depicts it as "*major but not the only source of difficulty*". Carl (1998: 173) expresses the role of MT. in his process of error diagnosis under the notion of " *ignorance and avoidance*". He portrays the errors generally as of declarative cause (when the learner ignores the target language item) or procedural cause (otherwise). Then explains its role in :

> *When the required TL item is unknown and the learner borrows an L1 substitute, the consequence is an L1 transfer error, but when the learner knows. The TL. Item but fails to access it, and instead accesses an L1 substitute, we have a case of an L1 interference mistake.*

So mother tongue in such a case is, by a considerable number of concerned studies of language learning, regarded as a cause of both errors and mistakes regardless of their seriousness in the process of SL/FL learning.

To some others, in particular, who support behaviorist theory, Ineffective teaching is the major cause of errors. Khansir (2008) investigates syntactical errors of second language learners.. The aim of his paper is to classify "errors" made by the learners at the sentence levels: Auxiliary verbs, passive and tenses. The study arrives at the notion that the learners have committed errors in the use of auxiliary verbs, passive forms and tenses. Accordingly, the errors are ascribed to the unsatisfactory teaching, and that learning strategies were the cause of the errors. In another study Khansir (2013) investigates types of written errors by EFL and ESL learners. The results of the study indicates that the learners have made a considerable number of errors. Then he adds that learning strategies can be the main cause of errors.

## 4. Error Classification

Classification ,herein, is to show which errors are the same and which are different. Thus, the prime purpose is to facilitate the act of

coping with them. The thing led a considerable number of scholars and researchers to devote themselves to the issues like ' Error analysis', ' Error classification', 'Error correction', etc. Due to error classification some went further to compile "Dictionaries of Errors, such as Feticides' "*Common Mistakes in English*", Turton's "*ABC of Common Grammatical Errors*", etc. some others use a wide range of terminology and techniques. Hence, their classification before tackling is necessitated. Thereupon, they are classified via various ways by many analysts. Carl (1998, 129 – 30 ) classifies them on the basis of three main criteria of modality, medium and level: error on the basis of modality are those committed when learner's behavior is either receptive or productive, errors on the basis of medium are those made when the language produced is spoken (The learner deals with speech sounds) or written (The learner deals with writing symbols), and errors on the basis of level refers to those committed when the learner is operating on a certain level of language such as substance level, text level or discourse level. Carl's classification can be seen as grouping errors according to errors concerning graphemes and phonemes, errors concerning word and sentence level, and errors concerning the overall use of the language receptively. As Carl talks about the linguistic and non-linguistic errors in both language learning and use, Hubbard et al (1987:135 -140) confine themselves to linguistic ones, as:

**a. Grammatical and Lexical Errors:**

Students may make a grammatical error. For example, the omission of appropriate noun or pronouns after a particular verb "He told, she was on holiday". It is clear that here is a noun or pronoun omitted after the verb 'told'. Or else, they may make lexical error such as the substitution of told to say in "He said me that she was on holiday".

## b. Errors of Chain and Choice:

The term "chain" refers to the order of words in English sentences, e.g. "To school should have gone Mary". Therefore, words of such sentences have errors of chain, which is another form of grammatical errors. However, the term choice concerns both lexical and grammatical errors. Examples: an error of lexical choice "Just drop in at my residence on your way to Jane's place". The use of the word residence indicates the inappropriate choice of lexical item; error of grammatical choice In "Mary is knowing the answer", the use of the verb 'know' in progressive form shows the inappropriate choice of grammatical structure.

## c. Errors of Implausible Reconstruction

One of the actual problems is to decide what to correct. At advanced level, students' tasks may involve teachers to correct all the errors, but at lower levels, students may be disheartened by over correction. Consequently, over-correction at lower level where students are incompetent is likely to lead to implausible reconstruction. For example, "John is ill since four days". May be reconstructed as: *"John is ill and has been for four days"*. Therefore, it is useful for the teachers to think of the language when correcting their students' tasks both in terms of a linear sequencing of structure and choices or substitutions.

Jamalinesari, et al (2015) classify them in terms of their possibility of eradication, as treatable (verb tense and form, subject-verb agreement, article usage, plural and possessive noun endings, and sentence fragments) which occur in a rule-governed way which can simply be treated by showing grammar books or set of rules to the students to resolve the errors, and untreatable errors (word choice errors, some exceptional uses of pronouns, some idiomatic sentence structures, et) that occur as problems concerning learners' idiosyncraticy, they require

learners to acquire more knowledge of the language to correct them. They also suggest global (ideas, content, organization) and local (spelling, grammar, punctuation) error groups. However, Duly, Burt, and Krashen's taxonomy (cited in Jichun 2015) seems more detailed and specific to writing skills which is on the basis of language used, content, and work organization. It is as follows:

1- Linguistic errors. They refer to grammatical errors which can be divided into:

    a. Morphological errors such as misspellings, misuse of plural forms, omission of third person singular, errors of capitalization and punctuation.

    b. Lexical errors: they indicate semantic or conceptual errors in lexis like malformation, coinage and collocation errors.

    c. Syntactical errors :This category indicates errors in the use of structures, words ( articles, prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliaries, pronouns, etc), errors in sentence structure, use of tenses, voices, and moods.

    d. Cohesive errors: They are the errors concerning the misuse of cohesive ties ( reference, substitution, conjunction, and lexical cohesion).

2- Discourse errors: in comparison to linguistic errors which are overt, discourse errors are covert and difficult to identify. They are commonly reflected in idea production and writing organization, such as idea coherence and information ordering.

3- The researcher adds to this group, errors on the basis of observing learners' overall input, output and interpretation of the target language. They can be considered as interlingual errors. They are in: *"Chinese English can be easily witnessed in students' writing"*. *It means that Chinese student applies his mother tongue rules to those of English, and with the*

*inference of Chinese thing mode and the specific culture, he produces the " deformed" English that deviate from standard English."*

Errors can also be typed according to the stages of second or foreign language development. Hejazi (2012) develops the following four types:

1. Random errors which are known as pre-systematic errors, in this stage students are vaguely aware that there is some systematic order to a certain class of items.

2. Emergent errors, in this stage the students discern, the system and internalize some rules. Their production is not correct by the standards of second or foreign language, but legitimate to them. It has some backslidings which mean that they have grasped some rules and then regressed to some previous stages.

3. Systematic stage errors, at this phase the learners show more consistency in their production. The rules are not well-formed in their minds.

4. Stabilization (post-systematic stage) errors, the learners, here, have relatively few errors because rules are complete and they can pay attention to the errors.

Other ways of sorting out written errors can be, in more details, assimilated from the criteria designed for correcting pieces of free-writing exercises (paragraph, composition, etc.).

## 5. The Significance of Errors

The conduction of serious researches, and preparation of long essays on learners' errors indicate that they are, specially, of EFL. Students' have their own importance to scholars, pedagogues, teachers, methods of teaching English as foreign language, learners, etc. as in Corder's paper (1967 cited in

Richards, (1974:19-27) errors have their considerable status, that is:

> To the teachers … how far towards the goals the learner has progressed … what remains for him to learn … to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing … indispensible to the learner himself …making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn …test his hypotheses. …is a strategy employed both by children acquiring their mother language and by those learning a second language.

According to Crystal (1985-112 ) Errors in language learning and teaching are used as criteria for measuring the quality of language acquired by the learner. He assures this in "*errors are assumed to reflect, in a systematic way, the level of competence achieved by a learner*" .

More rigorously their importance to the scholars, pedagogues researchers, etc. is assimilated from Richards (1974:19) who not only appeals to but also reproaches whoever ignores learners' errors, in terms of, both their identification and correction, he puts:

> When one studies the standard works on the teaching of modern languages it comes as a surprise to find cursorily the authors deal with the question of learners' errors and their correction. It almost seems as if they are dismissed as a matter of no particular importance, as possible annoying, distracting, but inevitable by-products of the process of learning a language about which the teacher should make as little fuss as possible.

The author goes further to emphasize that a linguistic and psychological theory adds a new dimension to the discussion of errors. It hands out a principle for accounting the errors as they are the results of interference in the learning of a second language from the habits of the first language. The contribution of this theory is the extensive contrastive study of the systems of both languages for inventing areas of difficulty which the learners usually encounter in the process of learning. Then the value of such invention directs teachers' attentions to areas, so that they

might devote special care and emphasis in their teaching to, at least, avoid or overcome the predicted difficulties. Afterwards, the author mentions that teachers are not impressed by the contribution for the reason that it does not provide them with any significant information. Here Richards seems as if conveys the claims of some highly-experienced teachers about the theory. Thus teachers' underestimation of theory is because of their notice that, for example, many of the error they are familiar with are not explanatorily predicted by the linguist or psychologist away. So, as a benefit of that long experience, they are to be concerned with simply how to tackle the errors rather than identifying them. In this sense, those teachers are keen on dealing with learners errors, as soon as, they occur, to the extent that they think of the theoretical studies as a matter of postponement.

Depicting their significance, in particular, to learners themselves, Alfaki and Ahmed (2007, 35 ) make a comparison between helping the students to progress and correcting them to learn. learners do not progress by being corrected as much as they are being helped to construct the discourse. Learners seem to have their own ways of going about learning. So, making errors is as their way of learining. Then, such ways cannot easily be affected either by learning or correction. Moreover, it is the teache's responsibility to help the students to overcome their learning problems not of themselves and consolidate correct forms or structures.

All the significances above, are reflected applicably in EFL. teaching methods that are unequally practical around the world, learners' errors are taken into consideration and coped with. However the variation is in the manner of their tackling. Larsen Freeman (2000,11-66) discusses how they are to be dealt with, in terms of, different language teaching

techniques and principles. In " *grammar translation method* " having the students get correct answers is very important. If students make errors or do not know the answer, the teacher supplies them with the correct answer. On the basis of "*direct method*", the teacher is to employ various techniques for getting the students to self-correction whenever possible such as asking students to make choice. As the teachers use the "*audio-lingual method*", they are oriented to avoid students errors if at all possible through their awareness of where the students will have a difficultly and the restriction of what the students are taught to say. On the ground of "*the silent way*", learners' errors are considered as natural, indispensible, and inevitable since the learners explore the language so that they are used as a basis for deciding where the further work is necessary. with "*desuggestopedia*", the errors are to be corrected gently. In the same way as desuggestopedia, " *Community language learning*" users are also involved to. The rigorousness of attack on learners errors is reduced in case of practicing "*total physical response method*" in which teachers are recommended to correct only the major errors and in "*Communicative language teaching method*" students' errors are tolerated during the fluency and dealt with, later on, with an accuracy-based activities. So, any EFL teacher who uses one of the methods or the best techniques from all methods or each one (*eclectic method*), must be involved in coping with learners' errors one way or the other. Such coping indicates the place of learners' errors to the overall language teaching principles and techniques. In addition, Jain's study (1969 cited in Richards, 1974:189-215) *"learners errors are important for understanding the process of second language acquisition and planning courses incorporating the psychology of second language learning"*.

### 2.1.7.2 The Term Correction

A number of similar or related terms are used to refer to the term "correction" when collocated with "error". According to lee (2004), to

correct or mark is to provide "feedback" using definite techniques, or to provide "error feedback". Correcting errors is referred to dual concepts: general activity of teachers as providing feedback on learners' errors and specific provision of corrections for students' errors. So "error correction" in its general sense is used interchangeably with "error feedback". But in its specific sense is referred to overt correction or direct error feedback. Then it is given variant definitions in SLA. Context.

## 1. Definitions of Correction

According to Richards, et al (1995:15) language is sometimes discussed in terms of three related aspects of approach, method, and technique. Thus, correction can be one of the practicable techniques in the process of teaching. It is considered as a linguistic term, which can be conceptualized. Literary, Wehmeier et al (2005, 343) define it as "*a change that makes something more accurate than it was before*". In the field of foreign language teaching and learning, Richards et al (1995:65-66) explain it as an act of making a particular language as right as opposed to wrong. It is needed positively to support learning. However, teachers do not ,all together, agree on how errors are to be corrected. They are either tolerant or intolerant. Some teachers cover the page with red ink, which seems de-motivating. Whereas, others show their feedback by little actual correction on the page. However, some teachers only judge or evaluate the piece of writing without influencing it by giving grades, writing comments or correcting errors in the margin. Therefore, correction seems as contentious point. For their role, teachers are considered as sympathetic readers or editors. They show weaknesses as well as strengths and make the students feel that they are in progress. Such positive feedback has the advantage of raising students' awareness of

what makes a piece of good writing and it prevents misunderstanding about the role and system of grading in writing lessons.

the process of correction may be defined relatively variant by linguists, language teachers, etc. Carl ( 1998,235-40 ) views its denotation and connotations as it is practiced in the domain of EFL. Teaching and learning:

> *It is obviously a reactive second move of an adjacency pair to a first speaker's or writer's utterance by someone who has made the judgments that all or part of that utterance is linguistically or factually wrong … correction is form-focused rather than a reaction to truth-value. correcting is a metalinguistic act since it is a comment on language. In this it is more abstract than, say, a warning which is a linguistic comment on non- language behavior.*

the author adds it is auto-generation of acceptable forms and structures of language, in case, talking is about self- correcting or self-editing a text one has composed oneself. It is an act of being scrupulously objective in re-processing ones' own textual creation. It is an act of developing an improved version of what the first writer or speaker produced erroneously. It is to tell the learners the error they have committed, provide them with the correct alternative form required, or tell them the error they have committed with providing both the correct alternative form required and further explanation for preventing the same error or its type from recurring.

The process of correction is also defined in terms of error diagnosis which means discovering the errors, identifying their exact causes and choosing the best way/s for treatment. Another indication of correction is labeled as an intuitive provision of correct form/s. This carries the sense of how learners sometimes discover that their current hypotheses are incorrect, so they reject

them and search for alternatives - self correction without any benefit of feedback. In addition to the above connotations correction is, by prior, looked at from the perspective of "evidence", Hence it is to provide learners with information ( evidence ) about target language. In this case, it comes in four forms of positive or negative evidence and direct or indirect evidence: positive evidence is to tell the learners form/s that is/are used or acceptable in the target language, negative evidence is to tell them the form/s that is/are not used or unacceptable in the target language, direct evidence is to tell them that such and such form/s which is/are not, for example, grammatically correct or comprehensible in the intended language; and indirect evidence is that when learners or any other producers produce a stretch of the target language and it is reacted to, by either the teachers or its native speakers, happily or irritably without providing the learners with actual correction (i.e. saying it is wrongness, telling the correct form or commenting on it verbally that the production is intelligible or unintelligible). The most comprehensive meaning is helping students to do balancing act to achieve optimal fluency without any sacrifice of accuracy and vice versa.

## 2. Forms of Correction:

There are certain types of correction with which scholars are engaged. Carl ( 1998:236-37) mentions its three forms: feedback, correction proper and remediation. Prabhu ( 1987:62 ) reinforces the idea with alterative terminology: error token and error type correction. So error token is confined to particular: token " (i.e. the error itself is corrected, but there is no generalization to the type of error it represents ), which is referred to as incidental form of correction. whereas error type correction is confined to the

correction of instance error and explanation of the kind it represents so as to prevent the reoccurrence of such errors ( systematic correction). Another distinction is presented by Hammerly (1991:93) that is the same concepts but different terms as, surface and deep correction. Surface correction corresponds incidental correction or correction proper and deep correction which identifies error-type correction, systematic correction and remediation.

All in all, there are three types of correction, which can be thought of as the uniqueness of Carl's portrayal: feedback: "*informing the learners that there is an error and leaving them to discover and repair it themselves*"; correction proper ( referred to as error token, incidental correction or surface correction ); and remediation ( referred to as error-type correction , systematic correction or deep correction ).

## 3. The Importance of Correction

It means discussing the role of correction in changing situations into better or the best. Herein, its function in assisting students learn and improve their language, is intended. For this reason, a large number of studies have examined the effectiveness of corrective feedback on student's writing. Mishra (2005: 61) argues that correction is a form of feedback specially on learners use of the language which is Essentially neutral and may describe success or failure. Because language in use exploits both form and function, it may be concerned with accuracy or fluency. In addition, teachers use it to help and improve learning. The thing makes learners want and find it useful. Edge (1989) considers correction to be a reminder (reminds the students what they have learnt), an informative ( gives the students information about standard English) or a helper ( helps the learners to progress). She adds that It should not be a

kind of criticism or punishment. Teachers are to think of it as a vehicle for carrying information as it supports learning. It should not mean that everything must be absolutely correct, but helping students to become more accurate in their use of language. Carl (1998:26) talks about its importance to both native and non-native learners at various levels. He depicts this in two meaningful phrases of *"good English for the English"* and *"good English for SL/FL learners"*. Thus, they represent his firm attitude to correction which is, lengthily, explained on page ( 101  ).

### 2.1.8 **Correct English**

As long as it is important to correct, it is necessitated to have an exact form of a correct English to which learners' language is compared. Some linguists think of incorrect English as not only an erroneous one but also what is in contrast with proper English. Thomas (2008,4-7) mentions that the concept of incorrectness was emerged in eighteenth century when grammarians and pronunciation pundits believed that language had gone out of control by the appearance of too many new words, regional accents, and ways of saying things which needed establishment. Behind this lays an anxiety about linguistic status. This indicates the stigmatization of regional dialects and denigration of the value of standard English ( as it is used in formal context, for example, in press, professions and governmental institution). Thus, the author explains incorrect English in several points as follows:

a-     Incorrect English is the use of difficult complex words, phrases or sentences where simple ones can do that is why they thought of  as there is no room for them.

b-     The use of language that reflects corseted tone and vocabulary, as well as un clarity of thoughts and expressions. That is why students are taught to worship than being comfortable with the language. Therefore, their learning makes them insecure.

c-      Correct English is not the use of bombastic words.

Thomas adds that a sensible person should follow three basic principles while dealing with language as correct and wrong: think of the use of a simple lucid and as possibly grammatically correct English, bear in mind the vernacular aspects and avoid excessive formal and ornate language, and social or cultural pressures with free usage for effective communication. Swan (2005: 290-291) explains the same matter in detail that correct English may mean the one with one of the following:

**1-      Slips and Mistakes.**

Language users make slips of the tongue. Some use words wrangles for uncertainty of its meaning or confusion with another word, some have trouble with spelling and pronunciation and some learners may make mistakes with some grammatical points.

**2-      Divided Usage**

In standard forms of some languages two different forms are common, for example, "*they are different from us*" or "*they are different to us*". The two forms are standards, but who learnt only one of them may claim that the other form is incorrect.

**3-      Dialect Forms:**

Some people think that a dialect is a corrupted form of a standard language and that it is a form of mistake caused by ignorance and lack of education. In fact, it is less than standard form because it hasn't yet been adopted for official purposes.

**4-      Prescriptive and Descriptive Rules:**

Prescriptive rules are made by eighteenth and nineteenth British grammarians who believed that they could improve and protect English from change, they thought English grammar should follow the rules of Latin language as its ancestor. So who thinks of, for instance, divided usage and split infinitives or ending sentences in prepositions as wrong

forms is following prescriptive rules. In contrast, descriptivist's belief in what happens not what people feel ought to happen.

**5-    When Mistakes Become Correct:**

This happens when someone misuses language, and this influences other people – it is fossilized – to make the same mistake. Then it spreads widely. It is no longer called a mistake but considered as part of language and discussed as one way of development. Therefore, who doesn't know that the language has developed may think of it as a mistake. For example, the expression " *oblivious of* " used to mean "*forgetful of*" but now is used to mean "*unconscious of*", the phrase "*concerted effort*" was used to mean an effort exerted by people working together but now is used to mean "*strong effort*", etc.

In consequence, correct language in Swan's point of view and as his supporters think is to use the language bearing in mind slips of the longue, differentiating between confused expressions, having no trouble with pronunciation and grammatical points, and being aware of the latest language developments.

## 2.1.9 Actual Error Correction

This intends the practical work of correction as its implemented by teachers inside or outside the classrooms with students together (when it takes place before the students) or the teachers for their own ( when the teachers collect notebooks, for example, to do correction at their tables). The overall process can be seen as pre-activities, meantime activities and post-activities. In this sense, effetive marking needs some preparation for helping students to produe correct forms (error prevention), delimitating what to be focused on (for practice and marking) and how those ticks, crosses and symbols are placed around the text.

## 2.1.9.1  Before Correction

Pre-activities require teachers' exertion which is well preparation of the lesson, choosing appropriate teaching approach, adopting supportive activities and identifying what is new to the students to be focused on in teaching. This indicates the integration of all the elements of teaching process from lesson planning to the activities after correction: giving a good lesson depends on a good lesson planning, doing effective correction is based on good lesson performance, and so on. The concept is clearly asserted by Hubbard et al (1987:147), they put that: *"… there are no exclusive strategies for the correction of error that do not exist elsewhere. In other words, there is no separate methodology for getting things right, the avoidance of excessive error will inevitably be one of the chief aims in any lesson or teaching programme".*

### a/ Lesson Planning

Wang (2010) advices teachers to bear in mind language skils integration when planning writing lessons so that students should have some listening, speaking, reading and then writing. They are also to pay attention to the comtinum on which writing works in classese as from copying to free writing. In essay writing, teachers are to guide the studrnts that writing is a process with several stages of planning, revising,and    proofreading. Hedge ( 2000:5-12) adds that teachers shoud set up writing tasks in a way that reflects writing process in good writers, vary the audience or to think of different types of texts, design activities that support students in product process, etc.

### b/ Effective Teaching

how to teach for effective correction is another facilitater. According to Abd elmonim's studies (cited in Alfaki 2007:84)

overall advice on giving written tasks is explained to teachers that they are to:

1- Do a step-by-step preparation: pupils are to tisten, speak , read and then write.

2- Grade each step: give short simple tasks until pupils are ready for more .

3- Think of practice in planning, organizing and expressing the material intended.

4- Prepare outlines with class and write them on the boad .

5- Give some model compostions .

6- Practice structures and lexis orally before using them in writing.

7- Keep a record of common errors in each period.

8- Insist on corrections to be done by each pupil.

9- Encourage students to do write in class. not only as home work .circulate and help.

10-    Use group work frequently especially for preparation.

11-    Give a good model when writing on the boad.

12-    Use a clear joined up script when  writing on the board.

## c/ Focused Writing:

It may be difficult to focus equally on all language items or areas in practice and correction at once. Jamalinesari, et al (2015) recommend focused written (learners are directed at a single linguistic feature) as a facilitator for corrective feedback. White (1983:107 – 109) asserts that a good writing task is to specify some items for giving more attention, *"The written lesson should always be organized in such a way that the students' attention is focused on key items so that they know what it is that they should be getting right"*. He enumerates the advantages benefited from such lesson organization :

1. Students can easily check each other's work by changing books/notebooks.

2. Depending on the identified item/s, students can be instructed to correct other items. For example, if the point identified is the use of **'S'** with the infinitive form of the verb when the subject is third person singular (in present simple tense), students can be instructed to follow the use of articles with nouns and so on.

3. It helps students in writing their first drafts, which are considered as the basis for writing continuous paragraphs.

4. It helps teachers' correct students' works during their performance. This lightens teachers' load of take-home marking and facilitates the identification of common errors.

5. On the basis of identifying common errors, the teachers can decide to give remedial work, plan new lessons or look for better teaching materials.

The fact that a writing lesson should be organized in such a way as it concentrates on certain language point/s, does not mean disregarding the other errors, which may occur, but it is a matter of priorities and learning writing skills in stages.

 **d/ Format**

learners are to get used to layout when writing. Longan (2011,541-42) mentions a format as one of the facilitators in *"The formal characteristics of a manuscript, comprising such thing as paper size, margins, spacing and font,"* He advices whoever teacher teaches writing on making students used to organizing papers according to the following set of items:

1- The paper is to be full-sized .

2- There must be wide margins (of one or one an half inch) all around the paper. The right-hand and bottom margins mustn't be crowded.

3- In hand-written papers, use blue or black pen. Be careful not to overlap letters or make decorative loops on letters – make all of them legible, and keep the capital letters clear distinct from smaller ones.

4- Centre the title, do not put it in quotation marks or underline it, and capitalize all the initial letters of its words except the short connecting ones like to, for , of, the, and, etc.

5- Skip a line between the title and the first line of your paper.

6- Indent the first line of each paragraph, at least, half an inch from the left hand margin.

7- Punctuate the script clearly.

8- Pay attention to break a word between syllables.

9- Put your name date and other intended information at the end of the paper or wherever specialized by the instructor.

So, whoever teacher wants to make the process of correction easier should make the students used to follow the above advice of page organization.

## 2.1.9.2  While Giving Feedback

So teachers after having an adequate knowledge of the subject, well planned lessons that can relatively achieve all their objectives and have given purposeful lessons. They come to the phase which includes some concepts on which correction is based and that every teacher should take into consideration when hands students' tasks to mark, the techniques used for marking, and what is to be monitored of writing skills.

## 2.1.9.2.1  Conceptualizing Error Correction:

Making correction is not, practically, an easy task. It is not simply the use of red pen and making marks of tick ( $\sqrt{}$ ) to indicate the acceptability of the language produced or cross ( $\times$ )

to show the unacceptabitity of the language used. It involves taking account of certain principles. Parrott (1996: 234 – 236) suggests that it may be desirable for teachers to discuss their approaches to correcting written work with their students and adopt a variety of approaches according to the preference of individual learners. Alfaki (2007:36-37), recommends thinking about suitabble strategies that take into consideration learners' differences and preferences, maintaining motivation, encouraging practice, developing adventurism in learning, generating competition among the students and ease communication. He also recommends making students familiar with classroom routines and teaching terms to enable them understand the instructions which are to be short, direct, crystally clear, etc. for avoiding confusion. Hedge (2000: 10 ) talks about teachers' use of learners' scripts when correcting, in:

> *Responding positively to the strengths in student's writing is important in building up confidence in the writing process. Ideally, when marking any piece of work, ticks in the margins and commendations in the comments should provide a counterbalance to correction of 'errors' in the script.*

## 2.1.9.2.2  Approaches to Error Correction

As it is common among pedagogues an approach is term used in the field of teaching to indicate a way, or thought that underlies the entire activities of teaching. In some dictionaries it is literary defined as  way of doing or thinking about something as a problem or a task, Wehmeier (2000:50). But as term it may denote broader than this. Larsen-Freeman (2000:1) defines it as a coherent link between principles and techniques. Then he clarifies that principles are ideas adopted by the philosophers, educationalists, etc. and techniques are the actions performed by the teachers in  the actual scholastic context. Hence, language teaching is

thought of from the perspective of approaches as ideas and techniques as activities related to certain ideas on which they are based. So, how to correct learners' errors is a part of teaching process that requires adoption of certain approach/es (strategies or plans) on the basis of which correction is to be done (in a form of activities).

### a- Correction Strategies in Terms of its Amount:

One of the controversial issues about the process of error correction is " how much correction should be given". Therefore, scholars develop different approaches and forms. Wang (2010) discusses hyper-correction which can alternatively be known as maximal correction, excessive correction,  comprehensive correction, etc. it is referred to correcting every error that occurs in students' written product. Hyper-correction versus minimal correction, selective correction, etc.

Hughes (1990:97 – 100) suggests holistic and analytic approaches, they indicate responding to learners' work as a whole or involving in searching individual errors. Saito (1994) puts forwards the strategy " commented correction",  as teachers are to either comment generally on the overall product or specifically on certain error/s. Wang (2010) claims that there is hands-off approach to error correction which means no correction or the teachers should not react to learners' works, they are left to disappear by time. Joel (2007) reports focused feedback by which teachers provide feedback on specific structure or form that students have just learnt. The opposite is unfocused which indicates giving feedback on every error does occur in learners' product _ it can be another term for maximal correction.

### b- Strategies for Error Identification and Localization.

Other points of contention represent error identification and localization, in addition to the provision of correction forms or structures.

Jamalinesari (2014) quotes direct and indirect methods of error correction. Indirect feedback, is to indicate the locations and types of the errors and leave the learners provide corrections for themselves. This implies the use of error codes or it can be known as implicit feedback ( correct forms are not directly provided). On the other hand direct feedback is to give the learners the corrections directly. It can be described as un-coded feedback or explicit correction. However, Saito (1994) obviously points to  error identification as "*the teacher indicates the place where a perceived error occurs by underlying or circling it. But no corrections are made*".

### c- Plans for Timing Feedback

When corrections are provided is also a debatable topic. It implies that there is scheduling and prioritizing. Long (1977:290) explains delayed/postponed and immediate correction. In terms of spoken language, delayed correction is to provide corrections after the completion of student's utterances; postponed feedback is referred to giving corrections after some future time, for example, in the course of the next lesson; and immediate corrective feedback is giving a form of a model of correct version that is immediately compared with learners' erroneous product for making the learners recognize the difference between what they have produced and the correct form that they should have produced. Thus, in writing, to provide corrections during the performance is immediate correction, after the completion of written performance is delayed correction, and keeping error logs or preparing a remedial activity is postponed correction. According to Amara (2015) time for correction is determined by some factors such as error type, commonness, importance, etc. for example, in case of grammatical or pronunciation errors correction on the spot is preferable. It is also useful to immediately correct errors made by the whole class, singled out by one

student, or cause incomprehensibility. Doff (1996:186-187) wants correction to be sometimes and as little as possible.

### d- Methods of Correction Apropos of Participants

variety of strategies concerning the participants in the context of correction are proposed. Bijami, Kashef and Nejad (2013) defined peer – correction *" as the use of learners as resources of information and interactants for each other in such a way that learners assume roles and responsibilities normally taken on by a formally trained teacher, tutor, or editor in commenting on and critiquing each others' drafts in both written and oral formats"* in the process of writing, Joel (1983:28-32) mentions self-correction (Students correct their own works ) and teachers-correction (the teachers are responsible for crossing out the errors and providing corrections). Doff (1996: ) introduces face- to-face conversation which can be known as teacher – student correction, or pair correction. Saito (1994) defines it as teacher and student talk individually about the students' writing. It also called one-on-one or conferencing. The writer adds when it is, in: *"The teacher and student discuss a piece of student writing individually during the writing of a composition, and after it is finished"*.

### e- Correction Strategies in Terms of Medium

One of the most important strategies is that how the corrections are given. They are given either orally or in writing. All the strategies must use either or both of the media. For example, in direct method, the teachers can provide the corrections in writing or orally, in conferencing, they are firstly orally then in writing, etc. Jamalinesari, et al (2015) argue that teachers' written corrective feedback is an important part of writing process since the goal of teaching writing is both teaching the conventions of writing in a particular culture and grammatical forms. Doff (1996: 157) states that teachers go through the answers orally and get students correct their own works. Sometimes the teacher writes the answers on the board.

### 2.1.9.2.3 Error Correction Techniques

The use of correction techniques means the actual correction of students' written tasks, at a suitable time and in different contexts. As there are many strategies, there are also many techniques to represent them actually. Then, in using whatever technique/s students are guided either by their teachers, peers or themselves. Such techniques can be explained as follows:

*a-* With peer-correction, Joel (1982:30-31) suggests the technique of *"projection":* on the first day the teachers ask two or three students to write essays on transparencies, the next day one of the essays is projected on the screen to the whole class to be corrected, after that all the students compete with each other on writing the same essay without errors.

*b-* He/she adds the technique of "*group compositions*": as some teachers have large classes, a group of a certain number of students is gotten to write a composition, then the teacher has few papers to mark instead.

*c-* He/ she also adds *"in-class editing"* technique, students do their works at home, then they redo them in the class under the guidance of their teachers or peers that is by reading out the compositions and discussing the errors that occur.

*d-* Joel concludes the peer-correction activities by "*exchanging compositions*" technique in which the students swap their compositions to provide corrections with some help from the teachers, such as specifying certain types of errors to be looked for or typing the entire composition with errors eliminated that involves the students to evaluate and improve their works accordingly. Doff (1996:58), simply, suggests that each student exchanges his/her work with the one next to him/her. Then the teacher goes through the answers and they correct each other's work.

e- Conferencing: Wang (2010) introduces it as one-to-one correction it is also known as face-to-face conversation between the teachers and their students. It can be implemented as: while the students are performing their

writing, the teacher can sit beside one of them and talk about the writing in progress. The teacher gives support with the organization of the ideas, assists with the language and extends students' thinking about the topic.

**f-** Taking a Remedial Work: In the process of correcting students' written tasks, teachers may substitute marking for giving a remedial exercise or lesson. Such task is given for eliminating the common errors. White (1983:109) points out that either some remedial practice or an exercise should take place in a class when the error is common to many students. However, if it is confined to a small number of the students a remedial practice is to be given for homework to avoid boring the rest of the students by going over something they have got correct. Or else, pair or group work is to be organized. White continues to show some limitations of giving any remedial work. It should not be more of the same work as they have already done, it did not work the first time and it is less likely to work for second time. In case of inheriting a remedial problem, the teacher is needed to make the task as easy as different to the tasks they did with their previous teachers. It is worth mentioning that the teacher is to rethink of his/her approaches when dealing with remedial problems. Alfaki and Ahmed (2007:81) advance remedial work in a distinct way, that is as a group composition work technigue.

g- Doff (1996: 193) suggests a basic procedure for correcting simple written work in the class. The teacher writes the correct answers on the board, or gets students to come out and write them. If spelling is not important, he or she can go through the answers orally. As the teacher gives the answers, students correct their own work and the teacher moves around the class to supervise what they are doing; or students can exchange books and correct each other's work. When there is a common error/s occurrence, he/she draws attention to those for the benefit of the whole class.

h- Wang (2010) develops the technique of *"discussing common error/s as a class"*: teachers write two or three of students' erroneous sentences on the board with some  correct sentences anonymously, then ask the students to work in pairs, to identify the sentences with errors and decide what is exactly wrong, and correct them. After that they check with the whole class and discuss the errors and the rule. Another activity is choosing significant error/s  made by most of the students, then get the students discuss, and who made the error/s is also given a chance to correct or say that we made the error/s and found no correct form.

i- According to Doff (1996: 193) some teachers "*collect the books at the end of the lesson and correct them during lunch hour. Then I give the books back the next day"*. Those teachers can use either of the following techniques:

1/ Evaluating the task without harming: they can give grades or write comments at the bottom.

2/ Writing the correct forms in the margin without any symbol to indicate the position or type of error. Others may resort to checklists, error codes, or other possible teacher-correction activities.

 j- Checklist: It is an editing list of linguistic items used by both teachers and students. It can be cumulative that each new grammatical item covered in the class, is added to the list. It can contain questions about manuscript form, instructions about grammar, and tasks to analyze content and organization. It is used by the students to provide them with guidelines to correct their own works or other students'. It gives guidance, clear instructions on what to look for and what to do. So it involves them in reading the works and examining them critically to find the mistakes or errors and correct them for themselves, (cited in net). According to Joel (1982:28) checklist works as a reminder. Teachers prepare list of frequent errors with code numbers. In the process of correction, they write a suitable code number above the error. Then, students go through their

works several times with a certain structure in their mind each time, when they come across the code, they look at the checklist and provide the correction needed.

k- Error correction codes: The word code as it is explained as a headword in Wehmeier (2005:287) is a *"system of words, letters, numbers or symbols that represent a message or record information secretly or in a shorter form".* Same way, in the process of correcting students' written tasks, codes are letters, group of letters or symbols used to facilitate the indication of errors' locations and types. As it is mentioned, the teachers who collect their students' tasks to correct, for example, at lunchtime, use them. They are used broadly in correcting free-writing tasks. Rivers (1986:307-38) asserts the following limitations for the use of error correction codes:

1- A symbol should be used to indicate the location of error and another is used to indicate the type of the error itself.

2- The codes are made familiar with the students by either displaying on the wall or copying and handing them to the students.

3- Students should be trained to use the codes properly.

4- The teachers should return the scripts to the students and give them enough time for individual correction or under teachers' supervision. In addition, there may be a discussion of the implications of the commonest faults.

5- Students then may resubmit their tasks for further correction.

6- The teachers are to bear in mind that the use of such codes will not absolve them from marking with discretion.

It is obvious that students at secondary level have considerable linguistic knowledge. Therefore, teachers may be in need of using a wide range of symbols which eventually based on discussing the approaches to correction with the students. In addition, there are certain common symbols used for correcting written tasks, (Appendix C).

As Rivers explains the principles on the basis of which the codes are used and their advantages as well as its disadvantages, Willis (1981:172 -73) suggests directly how they are to be applied in the actual correction. So, teachers can follow one of the following methods when marking learners written tasks via using correction symbles:

1/ underline the individual mistake and write the symbol in the margain.

2/ underline the whole word, phrase or sentence that includes the mistake and write the symbol in the margain.

3/ do not underline anything (word, phrase, or sentence ) and write any symbol in the margain.

4/ niether underline the erroneous expression nor write any symbol in the margain, but put a dot (.) or cross (x) in the margain for each mistake. Such activity means the use of symbols in a good way but no correct forms or structures are provided to the learners ( indirect correction ).

l-     Joel (1982:31-32) implements teacher-correction strategy via the following activities:

1/ the teachers indicate the error/s by circling or underlining and write the correct form/s or structure/s intended in the margin. So the students only have to erase the erroneous production and write the correction/s provided instead _ direct correction or written corrective feedback.

2/ Some teachers may use *"recording"*, as they record the corrections or explanations on a cassette or CD. Then they either write simpler corrections on the paper with numbers keyed to the tape, or the works can be read along with comment. After that students can rewrite their tasks to ensure their benefit from the process.

3/ some others may prefer the activity of "*charting errors*". They correct learners' tasks and may grade them. Then they choose certain error/s to each a student which occur in his/her work so that they are to be eliminated in the future tasks. The students keep their sheets of chosen errors and grades and bring them in the next session to remind the teacher with the errors intended to be overcome.

m- in self-correction, Cogie, Strain and Lorinskas (1999:15-19) develops the activities of " Dictionary Detective" and " Error logs" Techniques:

1/ "Dictionary detective" activity involves the teachers to determine learners linguistic level, attitude, and goals to decide which errors to be corrected and prioritized. Therefore, with this technique errors that receive high priority are global and local frequently occurring ones. The rest are addressed according to students' attitude, goals and level of proficiencies. It has several Steps: the teachers start with reminding the student/s of Target language features deviated. Next test their understanding by asking them to identify the error/s in their products themselves. Some may succeed, but who shows lack of confidence or proficiencies, they are asked to look the feature/s in their dictionaries. Next using contrast between the feature/s found in the dictionary and what is produced by the students/s. then the student/s can provide corrections themselves and deal with all the errors similarly.

2/ Error logs: it is *" a technique for recording and analyzing those errors and gaining metacognitive control over them*". It is like a personalized dictionary of most frequent and serious errors of individual learner. Such technique is designed in a form of several columns that can be modified by adding or deleting. For example, the first column is for erroneous sentences, the second is for error categories, the third is for describing the errors the

forth is for corrections. This means both teacher and student keep logs of errors that have appeared. they add if the student commit the same error again, it will be explained further and considered as learner's special problem which may call for the interference of other specialists. They can be deleted if the learner gets the point/s and produce it/them correctly.

o- In addition to the list of self-correction activities, Wang (2010) adds using games. For instance, the teacher groups the class into several groups and asks a certain group for writing a word from the list that has already been dictated, so the group may get scores ( if it spells the word correctly ) or lose the scores ( if it spells it wrongly ), then the next group until the list is finished. During this each student corrects his own error/s. at the end one group may win, several groups, all groups or none of them.

p- Comments: Saito (1994) defines comments as ways of motivating students to revise their works. They are known as two-ways communication, generally on the overall product and specifically on certain errors. So, the teacher provides feedback by making written comments or questions on the margin or in between sentences, but no corrections are made.

q- on the basis of teacher / peer correction, Saito (1994) develops the activity of using prompts: in this technique, teacher or another student provides feedback on a piece of writing by referring to one or several thinking Prompts. For example, Word (to indicate is this the right word or expression?, L1 / L2 (which prompts how do I say it in my language?/ does it make sense in English?), Goals (means will people understand this? what do I want to tell my reader?), Fit (to ask does this part fit with the other parts?), and rules ( to prompt by asking question like do I know the grammar or spelling rule for this?). So the teacher or student either indicates the place where an error occurs and refers to the relevant

thinking prompts or comments more globally on the overall composition by using each of the prompts.

r- With peer-correction, Wang (2010) adds the procedure of using " post-it notes" in which the teachers can write list of error categories on the board and dispense post-it notes to the students either in different colors or suitable number, so as each error category is written in a separate post-it note and put in appropriate place on the work. The purpose is to provide advice to the peer writer when rewriting.

### 2.1.9.2.4 What is to be Corrected

One of the prerequisites for an affective correction is to clearly determine what to correct. Joel (1982:10-11) summarizes the types of errors to be corrected as of comprehensibility, which indicate errors that causes misunderstanding; frequency, this points to the errors made by the entire class; pedagogical focus, it means to correct the errors that made in forms that students have just learnt; and errors of individual concerns, in this case the indication is to the errors based on the concept that good teachers know their students very well, so some students benefit from the correction of minor errors in that they need firmer grasp of linguistic features (e.g. those who take sequence of courses) than some others (those who enrolled in a terminal courses). Hughes (1990:101-102) arises several points to be focused on when evaluating learners' or candidates' written task. They are explanatorily categorized as follows:

**A-      Grammatically**

    1- Errors which are sever as to make comprehension virtually impossible.

    2- Errors that impose readers to rely on their own interpretation.

    3- Errors that need effects of interpretation to be exerted on the part of readers.

    4- Errors that are fairly frequent and impede full comprehension.

5- Some errors of grammar or word order which do not, however, interfere with comprehension.

6- Few (if any) noticeable errors of grammar or word order.

## B- Lexically:

1- The use of vocabulary and idioms that are barely distinguishable from that of native writer.

2- The use of inappropriate terms or relies on circumlocutions; expressions of ideas that hardly impaired.

3- The use of wrong words; fairly frequently expressions of ideas may be limited because of inadequate vocabulary.

4- Extremely limited vocabulary as to make comprehension virtually impossible.

5- Limited and frequent misuse of vocabulary that makes readers rely on their own interpretation.

6- Limited and frequent errors of vocabulary that hinder expression of ideas.

## C- In Terms of Mechanism:

**1-** Few (if any) noticeable lapses in punctuation or spelling.

2- Those occasional lapses in punctuation or spelling which do not, however, interfere with comprehension.

3- Fairly frequent errors in punctuation or spelling; occasional re-reading is necessary for full comprehension.

4- Type of frequent errors in spelling or punctuation; lead sometimes to obscurity.

5- So frequent errors in spelling or punctuation that readers must often rely on their own interpretation.

6- So sever errors in spelling or punctuation as to make the comprehension virtually impossible.

## D-Errors of Fluency Concerning Style and Ease of Communication

1- The choice of structures and vocabulary consistently inappropriate; unlike that of educated native writer.

2- Occasional lack of consistency in the choice of structures and vocabulary which does not, however, impair overall ease of communication.

3- Patchy inappropriate structures or vocabulary noticeably damage a general style.

4- Not only inappropriate but also misused structures or vocabulary that hinder sense of ease of communication.

5- Inappropriate or misused structures or vocabulary that completely impair communication.

6- A hotchpotch of half-learned misused structures and vocabulary items rendering communication almost impossible.

**D- Errors Concerning Form (organization of the task).**

1- Any lapses that make the text not highly organized, clearly progressed and well linked like of educated native writer.

2- Some lapses that show the material not well organized.

3- Lack of organization by which re-reading is required for clarification of ideas.

4- Absence of connectivity, though reader deduce some organization.

5- Absence of connectivity that develops individual ideas clear on their own, but very difficult of deduce connection between them.

6- So sever lack of organization that communication is impaired.

In spite of Hughes' detailed explanation of what to be focused on when marking, Hedge (2000:145-46) managed to concisely diagram it in a different way that makes it easier to be conceptualized and rememberd. She starts with the question *"what are we looking for in our students' writing ? "*, then the diagram has been summarized in the table below:

| What skills do good writier Demonstrate? | Criteria for marking |
|---|---|
| **Authoring**: | |
| Having something to say(a sense of ourpose) | Content and length |
| Being awear of the reader(a sense of audience) | Style |
| Developing the ideas(a sense of direction) | organization |
| **Crafting**: | |
| Organizing the content and in a logical manner | organization |
| Manipulating the script | handwriting |
| Using the conventions, e.g. spelling and layout | accuracy |
| Getting the grammar wright | Accuracy and cmplexity |
| Developing sentence structure | coplexity |
| Linking ideas in a variety of ways | Complexity and range |
| Having a range of vocabulary | range |

As it is unwise or impracticable to some scholars to correct every error, Joel (1982:5–11) exposes variant categories that represent different views of several groups of scholars about which errors should be corrected. They are as follows:

(A)    The first system includes:

1- Stylistic errors.

2- Errors that are considered important: when it is of pedagogical focus, made by a number of students, and relevant to the success of communication .

3- When the error is caused by $L_1$ or $L_2$ (i.e. interlingual or interalingual), strategies of second language learning, and inappropriate teaching methods.

4- Errors concerning the ease of communication on the part of teachers, practically, their competence, resources, and time available.

(B)    The second group is quoted from Swedish teachers' criteria for grading composition. It suggests errors of :

1- General rule infringement .

2- Frequency.

3- Incomprehensibility (causes lost of meaning).

4- Curriculum focus (have features of being taught previously).

5- Competence / performance (caused by slip of the pen), and

6- of written form that cause errors in spoken form.

Thus the clear difference between the two categories is that the first focuses on errors of mode, for instance, where as the second is interested in errors of rules, slips of pen, performance, etc.

(C)    The third seems rigorous, as if it tends to correct all the errors, because it selects them on the basis of globalism and localism. Then all the errors made by the students are either global (that block communication) such as:

1- Errors concerning the use of connectors.

2- Errors of distinction between co-ordinate and relative clauses.

3- Those hinder tense continuity.

4- Errors that ban the existence of parallel structures in reduced co-ordinate clauses.

Or local that appear in the isolated sentence elements, like:

a- Wrong word order.

b- Missing or misplacing words.

c- Missing cues that signal exceptions to syntactic rules.

d- Over generalization, etc.

(D)    The fourth categorization seems to be more comprehensive than the first and the second. It includes four areas:

1- Errors that show what is written is different from what is intended.

2- Errors that their correction represents the importance of error correction itself: errors of intelligibility, frequency, high

generality of rules, those stigmatize or irritate, and of pedagogical focus.

3- Errors concerning the ease of communication.

4- Errors of student characteristics:

In spite of the problems, which students many encounter, teachers / markers think of free-writing exercises as of two levels: paragraph level and composition / essay level. Each of these lengths has certain points according to which the teachers should check or evaluate. Sullivan (1976: 173–175) states several points according to which the paragraph and the whole composition can be corrected:

**1- Points According to which Paragraphs are Corrected**

a- The clarity of the topic sentence.

b- Well development and organization of the paragraph.

1. The paragraph is of one central idea.

2. The adequate supporting and development of the topic.

3. The unity and coherence of the paragraph.

4. Continuity and smooth transition of the paragraph.

c. Good sentence structure.

d. Effective choice of words.

e. Being free of errors in grammar, punctuation and spelling.

f. The imaginative and though provoking treatment of the subject matter.

**2- Points According to which Compositions are Evaluated**

a. The clarity and well support of thesis sentence.

b. Organization and development of the composition.

1- Is the order or arrangement of the material in the composition as a whole correct, clear, and easy to follow?

2- Does the discussion part of the composition keep a balance and support the purpose of the composition?

3- Is there sufficient use of specific, concrete details to support any generalization made in the composition?

4- Is each of the paragraphs well organized and developed?

5- Is there continuity between the paragraphs?

d. Effective choices of words, which make the composition avoid wordiness.

e. Correct structure, spelling, punctuation marks, etc.

f. Effectiveness and appropriateness of the title.

g. The extent to which a composition is imaginative and logical. Then does it reflect a thought or not?

It is apparent that the techniques above are set up by different educationalists or scholars of the field and proved by researchers or pedagogues that they efficiently contribute to learners' language accuracy. Then, their implementation is teacher' burden, so that, such efficiency may be affected by a variety of teachers' attitudes to their actual use. The researcher thinks so because attitudes are prone to change. Consequently, before mentioning how those diverse attitudes exist and may potentially play that role, attitudes are better to be well conceptualized.

### 2.1.9.2.5 Marking Criteria

Another criteria for marking which explains the skills to be evaluated is according to the levels of learning (basic, intermediate and advanced). Herein, the focus is on of intermediate level which corresponds to Sudanese secondary level. They are designed as four criteria:

1- Accuracy: is in grammar, vocabularies, orthography, hand writing. But some errors which do not destroy communication are accepted.

2- Appropriateness: what is intended is the use of language to function, demonstration of the style, overall intention of the writer, and layout of the work.

3- Range: writers ability to express themselves without distortion.

4- Complexity: simple organization of the ideas presented .

### 2.1.10  The Term Opinion

The word opinion is used similarly in both everyday and speccialist terminology. In *"Addvanced Learners' Dictionary"*, Wehemeier and Ashy ( 2003: 890) define it as feelings or thoughts about somethiing, rather than facts; when it concerns a group of people, it is used to indicate beleifs or views of the group; and when it concerns professional figures, it is assimilated as their advice to their adressees. In *"Wester's Ditionary of Synomyms"* ( 1968:579 ) it is explained with the synonyms of: view that suggests opinion colored  with emotions and feelings; belief that different from view in that it is not neessarily formulated by the person who holds it, but may be proposed by sombbody else for aeptance; conviction denotes a belief that sombody holds firmly; persuation implies opinion and belief at once; and sentiment which is applied to more or less settled opinion.

Accordingly, bad or good opinion about whatever thing plays a great role in dealing wth it. The same thing it can be noticed in larning languages.  So. It can influence in language input and output. Palmer (2004:153) assures that language is a vehicle by means of which speakers express their feelings of various things and an object on which speakers' opinions are reflected. Good or bad opinion can be   thought of as very important contributor to language shift. Holmes (ibid:67-69) discusses that shifting from a native language to a second or foreign language is slow among communities where their native language is highly valued.

The role of such an opinion an also be in language policies. So, It is familiar to come across people some of whom hold strong views about the way words of a particular language are pronounced and its users. Holmes (2001: 243-44 ) asserts that some people have opinions about the pronunciation of , for example, the letter "r" in English language. It is a good example of the arbitrariness of linguistic features as there is nothing about "r" is pronounced as good or bad. Nevertheless, in some communities it is bad to pronounce "r" where as in others it is a sign of language mastery. Therefore, opinions to a language reflect opinions to users and usage of the language. Then, this influences on other surroundings that are related to the same language. Consequently, some people prefer to study certain language / s as well as the government decide to adopt certain language as formal, second or foreign.

**2.1.10.1  Opinions about English as Foreign Language**

All these influences can be narrowed down to one language, for instance, English language. In order to dig deep in how EFL learners think of English language, how their surroundings help them to have certain opinions about it and how such opinions influence on their learning, Alyidirim and Ashton (2006) assert that having good opinions about EFL is necessary. It is realized that students learning potentially increases and motivation runs high when opinions are high, and vice versa. This means that students' ability to learning can be influenced by their opinions about the target language, its speakers (native or non-native), its culture, social values of its learning and students' opinions about themselves as members of their culture which might be disagree with the culture of the target language. It is obvious that English people managed to influence on almost all the people throughout the world so that their language nowadays is learnt as either foreign or second language in more or less world ountries.

**2.1.10.2  Opinions about Written Language**

There are totally different defiles about the value of reading aloud. Stubbs (1989,214 – 15 ) points out that it is exemplified in Middle East children are taught to read aloud a foreign language that they do not understand for religious significances. It is also common in synagogues in Britain, such cases imply different cultural beliefs about literacy and the function that it can serve. Then the author puts:

> *" although many people have been in contact with written language over the past 2000 years or more, most of them have only been marginally affected. This is still the case with many people in the world. There are fewer and fewer countries left in which people do not have access to written language in some form. But individuals may not have access do literacy in their own language or dialect. "*

Besides, such ignorance of written form and high appreciation of reading, there are many reports, according to the author, that a high value is given to the oral traditions in many parts of the world by social group who stand outside the main stream middle-class culture. He adds, as exposing Milroy's argument about *" the view that written language is to be more highly valued than spoken language is not a generally held belief, but a belief that has particular historical roots in western culture"*. Stubbs' argument implies that opinions on a language descend from the language in general to be embodied in its skills and areas. Consequently, writing skill is the most influenced one on the evidence that a considerable number of world language have not got written forms yet and there are a lot of illiterate people but able to give standard speech among literate people. Palmer (2004:155-156) compares the two main productive skills and gives the priority to the spoken form. There are, at least, four ways in which spoken language is prior to written one or more basic: human race had speech long before it had writing and that there are still many languages which have no written forms ( the children  learn to speak long before they learn to write); speaking plays far greater role in our lives than writing so that

people spend more time speaking than writing; and written language can, to a large extent, be converted into speech without loss. But the converse is not true if we write down what is said. This means we will lose a great deal. Besides, each form has its own peculiar characteristics, for example ,written language has Italics and spoken language has prosodic and paralinguistic features (see appendix c).

To some linguists the juxtaposition goes further to think of speaking as the origin of the language from which written form is derived. In other words, written form is invented to represent the spoken form visually. This is portrayed by Ahmed (2010,16) in: "*writing in the strict senses of the word, is derived from speech, and is in fact an imperfect visual representation of it, for such purposes as communication at distance and the keeping of records*".

In the field of teaching and learning, views about writing skill vary from scholar to another. As it is mentioned above, all the views are based on its juxtaposition to one or all the other skills. scholars like Byrnes (1995) and Pajares (1993) talk about its difficulty, Armer (1983) argues its comprehensibility, Rivers (1986) and Davis (1975) discuss its importance, etc. this means there are multitudinous attitudes towards writing even the learners themselves think of it differently.

### 2.1.10.3 Various Opinions about Learners' Errors

It is worth mentioning that errors exist and they are made by EFL. learners of different levels. Then those of written form are considered to be more serious because they are likely to be fossilized. Some errors are serious ( interrupt communication) whereas others are flippant. Thus, teachers are responsible for their tackling. However, some teachers have low opinions to the process of tackling which may be based on their

opinions about errors themselves. Same way linguists and all the solicitous about pedagogy have variant opinions on learners' errors.

As Hurbbard, et al (1987:144) point out that: there are two main bases of constructing opinions about learners' errors: behaviourists' perspective, which prefers immediate attack to errors, and they attribute them to the failure of the teaching process. Therefore, they reject error occurrence. In reverse, mentalists seem as tolerant as to consider errors as evidence that students are working their way toward the correct rules. So, they accept errors occurrence. On the basis of these two grounds various opinions on EFL learners' errors have emerged and varied which can be portrayed as follows:

### 1- Learners' Errors as Useful Factors

In addition to those who talk about the importance of learners' errors, others think of them as very useful factors in the process of second language acquisition. Doff (1996:195) discusses that *"learners' errors are useful because they indicate what they have learnt and areas might need to he taught again".*

### 2- Learners' Errors and Idiosyncratic Dialect

Errors can be depicted differently. Some lingcuists do not describe any second language learner's deviant use of it as error. Corder in his discussion (cited in Richards, 1974:158-70) assumes that second language learner's language may be thought of as a dialect according to the linguistic sense, in that it is systematic, regular, and describable. It has set of rules, i.e. it has its own grammar. That grammar is used in formulating sentences that are isomophous with some of the sentences of the targel language and have the same interpretation. Nevertheless, it does not share

behaviour of any social group. In this sense, it could not, absolutely, be described as dialect .

Some readers may think of it as idiolect ( the way that a particular peson uses a language ), but idiolect is a personal dialect because its rules are existent some where in the set of rules of one or another social dialect ( share behaviour of a social group ). Therefore, the dialect has rules drawn from various overlaping dialects, and does not have any rules that do not belong to any of those overlaping dialects is dsescribed by the author as idiosycratic dialect . It is characterized by having rules that are pecular to the individual speaker which results in constructing sentences that are not readily interpretable and unstable. Then, the aim of its use is communication. To reinforce the notion, the auther adds that second language learner's language is not the only idiosyncratic one but there are other types: poetic language which is described as deliberate deviant, aphasic speech ( before the disease the speaker might be a native speaker of acertain dialect ) which cannot be known as a deliberate deviant, but a phathological deviant, and infants' goofing when they are learning their mother tongue.  Then, all these types are interactable.

Certain authors and linguists describe such idiosyncraticy as interalanguage (its rules share charaderistics of two social dialects or languages ), and others alternitively name it as transitional dialect. Consequently, the auther assures that it is also reasonable to call poet's dialect as deliberate deviant, and aphasic's idiosyncraticy as a pathological deviant. Whereas, it is unresesonable to think of a child's idiosyncratic sentence as a deviant because they have not been speakers of any social dialect yet. The same way it is misleading to refer to learners'

idiosyucratic as deviaunt, it is undesirable to describe them as erroneous because they imply willfulness. They are inavertent breach of rules since the rules of target langecage are not yet known. They indicate no failure in performace and cannot be corrected precisely by the learners themislves as they only follow the rules known to them. They also do not present any problem of interpretation to the linguists.

Corder ends the argument about the idiosyncratic dialect with some general considerations throught which more attempt is made to prove it as unworthy of being described as error. Such considerations seen as if they are the overall features of second language learners idiosyncratic dialect. They can be summed up as follows:

a/ It cannot be described as ungrammalical becouse it has its own grammar in terms of learners language, which can be known as idiosyncritic rules.

b/ It is not considered as a language in that its conventions are not shared by any social group, also they are not unique to an individual, but they are common among those who have similar cultural background. The same thing occurs in poetic language. Some poets use utterances that are not accepted by all English Speakers as well as by other peots, and they are not described as erroneous utterances. So they are full idiosyncratic utterances like those of second language learner's.

c/ It can be assumed that second language learners who have the same mother tongue and undertake learning the same second lanuguage, speak more or less the same interlanguage at any point

of their learning career and that the differences are ascribed to indicidual variation.

d/ It is possible that learners follow their own selective routes in learning rather that the routes mapped out for them by the syllabus designers, such routes are out of educationalist's, psychologist's, and other scholors' discerment because the information about the development of the individual second language learner outside their classroom situation has not been provided yet.

e/ Second language learner's idiosyncratic requires more analysis on the basis of the general law of "*every sentence is to be regarded as idiosyncratic until shown to be otherwis,*" such deep analysis is to recognize the idiosyncratic: may be superficially well-formed ( covertly idiosyncratic ) or superficially ill-formed ( overtly idiosyncratic ), to explain what is idiosyocraticy? And how it is related or unrelated to both learner's native or target language, and to account for how and why the learner's idiosyncratic dialect is of the nature it is.

All in all, the author speaks out his principlal reason for objecting to lable second language learner's idiosyncratic as erroreaus, deviant or even ill-formed language. Some readers may infer that such a view indicates learners error ignorance. However, it recommends a systematic conperhensive and tolerant treatment.

### 3-  Learners' Errors as Relaxation or Tense

It is obvious that linguists think of EFL learners errors variously. the most influential one is that they conssider them as an approximative system not a problem to bother. Richards (1974:3-17) asserts that there is a fluctuation in learners' perception of sounds in new languages and suggests that learners perceive the sounds in terms of their native

language or other languages to which they have earlier been exposed. With the existence of the notion of "*language as a system*", second language learning is thought of as the juxtaposition of two systems. This leads to a super system which combines features of both systems or inter-systematic interference. The concept of interference between two systems struck the linguists and teachers as an interesting idea since it accounts for the problems of second language acquisition. Hence various fields concerning the study of the problems emerged, such as contrastive analysis which focused on analyzing the two grammars, and that deemed as its major defect, and error analysis.

Some linguists proposed closer studies, for example, studies on performance of actual learners' process of language acquisition, the strategies that learners may use in learning the new languages. Subsequently, some others hypothesized that errors should not be viewed as problems to be overcome, but rather as normal and inevitable features indicating the strategies that learners use. They conjecture that if a regular pattern of errors observed in the performance of all learners in the same situation, and they are to progress through their pattern ,their errors can be taken as an evidence of success and achievement in learning. But some pioneering studies of learners' errors done with focus on errors of interference between the two languages, note that considerable categories of errors occur in second language learners' performance, do not systematically fit into neither native language nor target language.

Recently it has been suggested that errors alone are of little interest to focus on without investigating and bearing in mind the entire linguistic system of second language learners. The thing made current researchers focus on the learners themselves as the generators of those deviant rules in the new languages. This emphasis is reflected in growing terminology for new areas of study in the field of research concerning the learners attempt to internalize the aspects of the language they are learning. This

terminology includes error analysis, idiosyncratic dialect, interlanguage, approximative system, and transitional competence. Accordingly Richards himself summarizes his view of second language learners partial success that is reflected in the construction of rules which do not necessarily correspond those of mother tongue or target language, as learners' approximative system affected by the following factors:

**A- Language Transfer:**

Sentences in the target language may exhibit interference from the mother longue. This is considered as the major, but not the only source of difficulty. So, it is found that one-third of the deviant sentences from the second language rules could not be attributed to language interference alone. Some result from language transfer.

**B- Interalingual Interference:**

The term is referred to items produced by the learner which reflects not the structure of mother tongue but generalizations based on partial exposure to target language. Learners try to derive rules behind the data to which they have been exposed and may develop hypotheses that correspond to neither of those of mother tongue nor target language. It is found that systematic intralingual errors involve overgeneralization, ignorance of rules restriction, incomplete application of rules, and systematic errors. Such errors are said to represent two level rules in the target language, such as, the differences between the verb inflection. Both transfer and interalanguage errors confirm the notion of transfer training (i.e. previous learning influences later learning).

**C-    Sociolinguistic Situation:**

This indicates that different setting's for language  use result in different degrees and types of language learning. It is assumed that different settings for language learning may motivate different processes of language learning. The relationship between the opportunities for learning and learners' developing systems – co-ordinate bilingualism /

compound bilingualism. Such opportunities may be limited to those provided at schools or outside the schools according to various social setting.

**D-  Modality:**

Learners' language may vary according to the modality of exposure to treat language and the modality of production. This may be ascribed to the acquisition of two partially overlapping systems. On the other hand some linguists observe that such interference between the bilingualism's languages is on the productive side rather than receptive one.

**E-  Age:**

Learners' approximative system may be affected by age because some aspects of children's learning capacity change as they grow older, for example, memory span increases with age so that it is capable of acquiring a greater number of abstract concepts, so they use them in interpreting their experiences. This process is said to begin when a child starts walking until puberty. Moreover, some of child's language characteristics are ascribed to the nature of meaning and processing strategies.

**F-  Succession of Appoximative System:**

This factor concerns the instability of learners' approximative system since there is invariable continuing improvement in learning the target language. Because the circumstances for individual language learning are not identical; the acquisition of new lexical, phonological and syntactic items differ from an individual to another; and the novel items or structures in the learners' dialect do not occur regularly ( it is rare for a learner to use a replaced error or overuse a given structure). There are other predictable things that may affect and characterize. Learners' approximative system: The difference between the system on the basis of which they perceive and produce the language, (e.g. the learner produces

" *I has a book*" but understand it " *I have a book* " ), and the nature of the approximative system that covers data which have no source in neither native nor target language.

## G-    Universal Hierarchy of Difficulty:

It is pertained to the inherent difficulty for person of certain phonological syntactic or semantic items and structures. Some forms may be intrinsically difficult to be learned. For example, it is well known that the English pairs (/v/ -  / ð / and /f/ - /θ/) are very hard to distinguish not only for non-native speakers but also for native speakers. Therefore, if hierarchy of difficultly is posited for learners of a given language background, it must include not only interlanguage difficulties but also take into account a possible universal hierarchy of difficulty. This difficulty may affect learners' organization of what they perceive (learning strategies) and the organization of what they produce (communication strategy). Then talking about learners' strategies turns attention to the cues that they use to identify elements in the new language. So, where cognate derivatives and loan words exist or the target language follows the structures of mother tongue, for example, the identification of new elements in the new language are made easier, otherwise it is complex. Another difficulty is that one item may belong to two levels in one language and to four in another language. In this sense, the degree of difficulty  depends also on the degree and nature of what learners have required of target language because their knowledge of the target language forms part of the data by which they infer the meaning of the new element. For instance, English students learning French language will encounter the difficulty of gender and vice versa with French students learning English. So errors of English students who learn French indicate their search for regularities in the French gender system.

Generally speaking, Richards discusses the point as if he wanted to, simply, say that there are no errors, but nature of  learners' linguistic

system that is peculiar to them and prone to be regulated by target language rules by time. Because it is shaped and characterized by some temporary factors.

### 4- Errors as Confidence and Motivation Supporters

Teachers responsibilty towards students is of great importance. Nasr (1970:144-45 ) descends down the stairs of teachers importance. From the importance of their philosophy of life to their philosphy of education. Then she exemplifies the specificity of teachers' role in that they are responsible for shaping up students' psychological trends just as they are liable for their education. In this sense, Nasr requires teachers to play that multiple rote of exemplar, guide, counsilor, etc. In the same way, learners' errors are essential aspects of their psgchological and educational surroudings that needs special attention from the teachers. Alfaki (2007, 35-36) agrees with nasr when points to teachers' duty of maintaining their students' behaviour as proper in the context of teaching and learning. They are to encourage them face and deal with the difficeclties confidently.  He puts:

> *It is also teachers' rerponsibility to help students develop a possitive attitude to errors. Otherwise, we will be holding them back. We might also be encouraging thir withdrawal and avoidence attitudes. students will not practice if they are afraid of making mistakes which can result in intruption and corrections, then they may never learn how to communicate in English. In short, teachers should ecourage pupils to feel that they are making progress even when they are making errors.*

Alfaki, and Ahmed (2007:35) suggest that errors and mistakes are considered as a natural outcome as well as features of a highly complex process of learning a language, so that they are to be regarded with a great tolerance to support motivation. They add that having bad feeling of

learners' error create a tense counter-productive learning atmosphere in general and frustration as well as de-motivation on the part of the learner. McArthur (1983:106) discusses the interplay of nasty feeling of errors occurrence and learners' motivation and concludes that such a feeling mistake-making when the student proceeds with the target language may well have a powerful influence on motivation, on the wish to continue with the pain and effort as well as the gratification of study.

## 2.1.10.4 Various Opinions about Error Correction

There is a general agreement on sorting out, indicating, and correcting error. However, views actually vary in what, how, when, etc. of their correction. Hurbbard et al (1987:143) want EFL teachers to deal with students' errors appropriately to preserve confidence and motivation. They explain the eclectic approach, which is commonly, used in remedial work and asserts that the learners want intellectual and mechanical help in order to sort out things for themselves. Thus, some teachers think that they are to, rigorously, be corrected, others think that they are to be corrected leniently. On the other hand some educators propose that learners' errors are to be dealt with tolerantly and others prefer intolerant dealing. Some teachers prefer correction on the spot, others do postpone their correction for the sake of keeping the communication going or other purposes. Some want every error is to be corrected at once, others want only to focus on certain errors and deal with the rest later on. Diab (2006:3) points out that some discrepancies in what features of writing should be responded to have emerged among the teachers. Some think of correction as a difficult task others think of it as an easy task. Some think that error prevention is better than correction, whereas others think that correction is inevitable as committing errors is.

**1- Error Prevention or Treatment**

One of the prominent perspectives on error correction is that doing Preventive/error-awareness activities during the course of the lesson can replace it. According to Wang (2010), Some errors, in particular, of mother tongue interference can be prevented by using error awareness activities (encouraging students to review an monitor their works carefully, take the responsibility of the standard of their works, helping them develop self-help strategies in dealing with some problems, etc.).

Then prevention is better than cure since returning a written work covered in red ink is disheartening, one of the credible preventive activities is the use of multiple-choice and fill-in-the-blank activities before writing performance or as a remedial activity because repetitive teaching of the same item sounds boring. However teachers strive to prevent errors from occurring and dread the act of correction for some side effects that it many have, but mechanically, they find themselves with red pens in hands reading students' products and analyzing the errors they have made. This means that prevention is possible and better, but correction is a practical and spontaneous task for all writing teachers.

Carl (1998:240-43) initiates such variety of opinions about error correction and prevention with a comparative question of " which is better prevention or cure?" he puts:

> *The question of whether or not to correct error is not as simple as it appears to be to first sight. There are two broader questions that it is bound up with. The first is weather prevention of error is better than cure; the second question is whether explicit formal instruction in a word, 'teaching' – is effective – .*

He seems uncertain about the answer of the questions and develops triple concept of error prevention, error correction, and effective teaching. however, he states that if prevention is better than correction, ways of prevention must be searched, rather than of correction. He gives some evidences: errors need not to be focused on, so teachers are to ignore

them and make their students less inclined to ; teachers should make sure that newly taught items are repeated a lot and spaced away from other similar target language items to avoid their competition and overlapping in learners' mind which may lead to confusion; syllabus, is to be reduced that is to teach little of target language in the sense of a mini-version of a native speakers'; learners are to be directed towards searching for the meaning rather than forms; learners should not be required to produce target language before they have had maximum receptive experience; target language is to be fully contextualized when being taught which means encouraging efficient ways of storing and accessing correct target language forms and keeping the recall or memory errors manageable; and correction indirectly means learning erroneous forms which will first have to be unlearnt.

Various implications can be inferred from such suggestions and justifications. Some of them are possibly as : too much exposure to target language may be the cause for errors occurrence, errors ignorance and making no fuss of them can make them disappear, focusing on error correction may distract learners from mastering correct forms; over teaching of correct forms does not give room for erroneous form to occur, etc. However, wrong and correct forms co-exist side by side in the process of learning. So, to correct means to help learners retain correct forms and reject wrong forms. The idea of preventing errors by over-teaching or learning is based on behaviorist theory which suggests that more drilling means perfection, and perfection means error-free. Then it is said that we learn from our mistakes: the more errors we make the more negative evidence we receive, consequently, the more error we make the faster we learn because learners test their hypotheses and get direct evidence as quick as possible; and the most moderated assumption is that why exerting or investing efforts in error prevention since its

commission is inevitable and irreversible. Some scholars make numeral suggestions that as errors are committed, it is wrong to say prevention has not worked or should not be attempted, and cure is not be done. They also suggested that learners resort to wrong forms only when they could not remember correct forms. He summarizes this in: *"This is a strategic concept of error making based on the idea that when problems of language performance arise, the learners have to resort to alternative secondary resources in order to cope"*.

Carl raises the notion of learning from our mistakes to indicate that prevention may not fully work to eliminate correction. He proves that learners who are left to test their hypotheses, commit errors and immediately corrected, learn better than those whose potential errors are forestalled. He adds that learners' success does not solely depend on their correction on the spot. So, broadly the concept of "prevention or cure" is debatable and remained ongoing. But the majority of the views incline to prefer correction to prevention.

## 2- Effective Teaching and Correction

Discussing the relationship between teaching and correction may bring up other concepts: in the process of teaching the teacher is responsible for correction, teaching implies correction, effective teaching means effective correction, etc. This led Carl (1998:244-49) to quote the question of "*is teaching effective*?", after his suspicious view about the prevention, or conversely and raise views of specialists. Some scholars talk about the role of teaching in correction, they believe that errors persist whether students receive instruction or not. This is based on universal order of acquisition theory. others vary from this and asserts that, even though the order of acquisition is not changed via teaching but the rate of learning is. In addition instructed learners show higher degree of achievement. Then correction is efficacious because it is part of teaching. Same way, different group of scholars compares instructed of

non-instructed learners' productive errors, and establishes that errors of the learners who have been taught are of redundancy (i.e. oversupply grammatical morphology). Such oversupply has the effect on inhibiting the development of pidginizational forms of interlanguage. It also implies that instruction brings about error defossilization. Thus, the evidences and experimental arguments managed to change views of several educators who claim that they were against teaching effective role in error severity, and that they champion this now. Therefore, English as a foreign language instruction has an effect on accurate production. Carl expresses his advocacy of this in:

> *Opposition to error correction seems to have been based mainly on evidence that it does not work with children acquiring L1 (because they have little language awareness to benefit), and does not work in untutored L2 acquisition contexts. The reason why it does not work in such contexts is probably that it does not occur there. But both of these contexts are irrelevant to the classroom practice of error correction, where the effect on learning is considerable.*

Besides, he backs up his point of view with quotes on views of several scholars about the effectiveness of teaching that implies error correction on learners' language development (error eradication, enhancing accuracy and achieving fluency). Such as "*instruction can improve accuracy in careful, planned speech production*", "*error correction is considered to be effective*", "*in fact, teaching structure at the point of readiness has been shown to have positive effects on the speed of learning*", *etc.* this indicates that effective teaching has its function regardless of or including correction.

Carl heads to clearly list of the surroundings that favor correction, and justify its necessity for making teachers' role in the process of teaching to be seen more credible. He hints, simply, at how errors are to be dealt with according to their status. He also suggests that correction is more necessary in case of foreign language learners than second language learners. Such a list can be as follows:

a-      It is proved that correcting grammar errors, universally, brought about improvement of grammar and content expression.

b-      A great deal of studies show that learners want their errors of both written or spoken production to be corrected. So, even if learners may have wrong expectations that correction will bring about improvement, but should teachers and those who concerned with the issue ignore learners' feelings about it, when they are urged to take these into consideration in other domain of foreign language learning. "*There is no evidence that correction adversely affects learning cognitively,*"

c-      The risk-taking learners whom are called  "*high input generators*" are readily self-correct, while carful planners whom are known as " *low input generators*" are not so, the later have high effective filter (that correction can raise learners' level of anxiety) which hinders improvement.

d-      In case where language processing task is difficult, correction is essential because learners are unable to correct themselves.

e-      The rigorousness of correction depends upon the status of deviance: in the case of slips the corrector may not be in need of more than a raised eyebrow to signal its existence to the learners, in case of mistake the teacher needs to prompt the learners to after their hypotheses, and in the case of error some remediation is necessitated.

f-      Foreign language learners need more correction than second language learners who receive correction casually from their native-speaker friends and have more access to the direct evidence since the language used around them is more contextualized and meaningful.


### 3-   Correction Impedes Fluency

Both fluency and accuracy are aimed at in the process of language teaching and learning. Correction is viewed as an access to accuracy and

fluency, but focusing on fluency may hinder or postpone fluency and focusing on fluency may lose accuracy. Carl (1998, 239) puts:

> *The hierarchy slip <mistake<error we have suggested exists raises the question of priority. Should the learners first aim for accuracy ( error minimization) and finally aim for slip-free fluency – the ice on the cake? The converse prioritization might be preferable however. This would be the case if it were established by research that high levels of fluency and proceduralization enhance accuracy.*

In accordance with this, Carl puts the ball in the court of teacher research. He adds that when repertoires are automatized, their production will make few demands on the speakers' or writers' attention, leaving spare attention for monitoring out any possible mistakes that would otherwise appear. If one is not making many mistakes, they have spare attention to correct the few they might make. This notion is simply on the basis of "*success breeds success* " or " *have to have money to make money*".

As a conversational view fluency and accuracy are somehow in competition. Hence, learners have to do some kind of balance to achieve optimal fluency without sacrificing accuracy and vice versa. So, not whatever type of correction hurts fluency, it is over-correction which can inhibit or terminate it.

**4- Correction as Teachers' Duty**

As there are different opinions about making errors, it is plausible to reflect various views and feelings of their correction. Hedge (2000.10) portrays error correction as a half of teachers' task in teaching writing. She thinks that responding to learners' writing is necessary for a number of reasons:

a- Writing requires a lot of conscious effort from the students, so they expect feedback and can be discouraged if it is not going to happen.

b-      Students monitor their writing more closely and carefully than their speech because writing is a very conscious process, it is a very true indication of how they are making a progress in the language learning and it gives teacher opportunities to assess learners' performance and diagnose their problematic areas.

c-      Writing is easier to be revised than speaking because it is permanent and therefore available. The thing makes it possible for the teachers to exploit it for learning in several effective ways.

d-      It is important to respond to the strengths in students' writing for building up confidence in the writing process.

e-      Correction involves students in revising and editing their own works so that it becomes part of the writing process and unique source of learning. Therefore it is considered as the process of improving.

### 5- Correction is a Difficult Task

Marking students' writing is a complex and arduous. According to Alfaki (2007, 81) the main reason for that difficelty, in particular, in sudanese schools is the overcrowdedness of classes. Besides, teachers are needed to give sympathetic feedback in the form of gentle correction and the explanation of errors . Enginarlar  (1993) emphasizes the idea that brings up corrective feedback on students' writing which is one of the writing teachers' most difficult tasks.

### 6- Correction is an Ignored Activity

The most important issue is that EFL. Teachers and students become aware of the usefulness of written corrective feedback. However, it is ignored in almost all cases. As in the light of Leiki's (1991)  study findings, it seems rational to hold the error correction of English language teaching in class activities. Obviously, error correction has not received enough attention in our lesson plans. This carelessness may be due to the

lack of teachers' attention at language schools, or it may be because of time limitation in the classes. However, as Leiki's study has indicated, error correction plays a crucial role in the ELT setting, mainly in developing writing skill. Providing written error correction requires a considerably large amount of time. So, ESL or EFL teachers should have more attention on the written feedback.

## 7- Correction is a Controversial Topic:

Despite of the fact that error correction its peculiar role in promoting learners' language, some scholars have bad opinions on the process and frankly state its ineffectiveness. As of Truscott (1996), there are three major reasons why for grammatical errors should not be corrected in ESL students' writing compositions ; the first reason is that grammar correction is ineffective, the second reason is that this ineffectiveness is to be expected because students are in the process of acquiring language and what we are correcting is their interlanguage, which will continue to develop and change anyway as it becomes closer to the target language, and the last reason is that grammar correction has harmful effects. On the contrary, Diab (2006) emphasizes its effectiveness. It is clear as some scholars who have investigated the effects of different types of feedback on second language students' writing, suggest that explicit error correction of surface-level errors (spelling, punctuation, grammar) seems to be effective. However, Truscott (1996) insists on and recommends that such type of correction should be abandoned in second language classes for it is harmful effects. This shows that Truscott is against correcting surface-level errors. On the other hand feedback  on the content and organization is necessary and gives the results of improving students' writing. Diab (2006) adds that, in spite of the above futility of surface-level errors, correction, as stated by Truscott, other studies verify the opposite which are in favour of their correction. Then cements the concept by another evidence that is,

students' strong preference for feedback on such errors. Moreover, teachers who do not correct all surface-level errors might lose credibility with their students.

Consequently, such views indicate apparent discrepancy about what to be corrected such contradiction is, on one hand, between teachers or instructors themselves and, on the hand, between teachers and students which may lead to "*miscommunication and result in unsuccessful teaching and learning; therefore, it is especially important to continue to explore this area of research in ESL. and EFL, writing*".

## 8- Correction is either Encouraging or Discouraging Activity

The same as making errors, some scholars think of error correction as either encouraging or discouraging. This is on the basis of the process that takes place in the context of teaching and learning. According to Alfaki, and Ahmed (2007:35) hypercorrection is disadvantageous whereas little correction is advantageous. He puts: *"Furthermore, overt criticism can undermine or even destroy PUPILS' confidence in their ability to use the language, i.e. (brash written comments)."* More specifically and respectively, McArthur(1983:106) puts forth the same concept as relaxing and frustrating, in: *If a teacher constantly burdens student...with a red-ink correction of written work, or the constant stopping and checking of spoken work, then frustration can reach high levels for all concerned....on the other hand, however, the constant avoidance of criticism may create a relaxed approach."*

## 9- Is Correction Immediate or Postponed?

Teachers can correct students' written errors on the spot. This means they can deal with the errors when they are still fresh in the students' minds. Rivers (1986: 306) puts this, as individual efforts at writing should be read by the teacher as soon as possible after completion. Then corrected

and sometimes rewritten by the student without delay. He justifies the immediate correction by the following points:

a.	A great deal of uncorrected writing is a waste of time and energy.

b.	Inaccuracies and miss-concepts may be entrenched. Consequently, they are difficult to be eradicated.

c.	Short writing assignments, given at frequent intervals then carefully corrected and discussed provide an effective practice, which leads to the consolidation of correct language. Rivers (1986:303) adds that correction should be immediate and inclusive "*To be effective, a systematic training in writing requires systematic correction of individual script … ideally individual efforts at writing should be read by the teacher as soon as possible after completion*". It is clear that such correction imposes an intolerable burden on teachers, especially, when it is of a large class. However, it seems to be concerned with the errors of the key items unless the errors call for re-teaching. Such errors are considered the most serious ones, and more likely to be consolidated if practised incorrectly. Hughes (1990:200) expresses his opinions about timing learners' error correction more explicitly in: "*feedback from test (and feedback from assessment generally) should be immediate and positive. By being immediate its value will be maximized. By telling children not only what their weaknesses are but also what they have done well, the potential demoralizing effect of test results is lessened*"."Whereas, post-correction is likely to be concerned with the errors of the other factors which seem difficult to be dealt with at once. Therefore, teachers can also deal with the errors not immediately. This means it demands take-home correction, taking remedial work or giving correction lessons. White (1983: 108) suggests the concept of post-correction in: "*It is quite likely that students will make a number of different types of errors, but it will be fruitless to concentrate on all of them, either when marking or in a remedial or correction lesson. It is best to let the students know what you are going to mark for*".

**10-	Correction is Maximal, Minimal or None**

According to willis's discusion (cited in Dr. Alfaki and Mr. Ahmed, 2007:34-35) about how teachers should feel towards learners' errors and to what extent that feeling sustains the confidence and progress of the learners, they quote:

> *Corrections of mistakes should be kept to a minimam or your students will lose confidence and give up …; if you understand what a student says despit of his mistakes, then he has communicated successfully. . . . encouraged by his sueccess, he will try again more practice, and his mistakes will grudually disappear.*

they confirm the idea of allowing some mistakes to pass, but disagree on letting the rest of the error disappear by time. In other words, they disapprove of leaving students in the lurch. They insist on correcting all the errors but minimally for maintaining confidence. and maximally for diffidence. Diab (2006) identifies which errors are to be corrected in order to minimize correction. She asserts that responding to students' writing is a controversial topic in second language writing instruction and theory. Then feedback on content and organization should be provided to the students while feedback on form should be avoided.

## 11-    Correction is a Time-consuming Activity

in spite of that entire agreement on error correction, it is considered as a time-consuming activity and may not be effective. Doff (1996:192) claims that correcting written work is very time-consuming for the teacher and often seems to have very little effect on students' progress.

## 12-    Correction is an Unavoidable Process

As making errors is inevitable, according to mentalists, their correction also is necessitated regardless of who makes or what causes. Such

correction concerns all English learners as native, non-native, adult, young, etc. Carl (1998:26 – 44 ) depicts such necessity at various levels of English language learning and all kinds of its learners in two meaningful phrases *of " good English for the English" and " good English for SL/FL learners".*

### a- The Unavoidability of Correction for the Native Learner:

The first phrase emphasizes the importance of correction to native learners. In other words, it imposes error correction even upon English language native learners. For explaining the concept, the author refers to the situation in 1980s when it was observed that English language had declined which was confessed by all British subjects. Therefore, the government deputized committees with the commission of making objective reports and recommendations on how to put matters right in teaching English as a mother tongue. The recommendations were rejected by the government as they were thought of as insufficiently radical. So they failed to rescue the situation. The thing made the applied educational linguistics community outraged. It was alienated to listen to expert advice. Some linguists' opinions, then, appeared in print after and during the public debate about error. From this point, their stance to the issue of error can be distilled. The debate continued but it was mainly focused on, children's errors not severely standard form of the language.

Some discussants went further to clarify the situation by arguing different types of errors which were described  at that time as different types of bad English. So everybody wanted to know about  correctness of some linguistic items and they saw this as something natural and legitimate to be done.

The anxiety caused by English medium (news papers, magazines, etc) that used incorrect English, for example, the use of old expression

like " yearend rush at airport", verb less sentence, making verbs nouns, etc. let the author to say that there was a public demand for error analysis, condemnation of the columnists who use that language and dispraise of the papers and the books published on that declined language. It also let to publishing books concerned with language evolution such as Fowler's " the ding's English", which was described as campaign to de-Americanize British English, and Howard's "Good English Guide", who was assumed to not only, be a professor, academic, or linguist but also a publicist. Carl received a conflicting advice from a panel of writers, editors, broadcasters, but it was underestimated because it was not from linguists or educationalist.

He assures that written English must be careful and precise as well as to create balance between conventional norms and the way writers use the language. So when language is evaluated, the distinction between expressions that are taking roots and easy come, easy go words were needed. However, doing so raises several questions such as "*should we lent the wrong forms enter the language before purging them* ?", "*should we 'gate keep' to make sure that undesirable forms are kept out?, Is this prejudicial*?", and *"if it concerns learning, will we allow the learners make mistakes than we correct them or prevent their occurrence in the first place?"*, etc. such questioning continues to arrive at describing the errors as two types on the ground of what was revealed as complaints about the circulation of errors in English: to keep errors out of spoken form means agreeing with the speakers on correctness and discouraging their misuse of linguistic system. this involves detection of errors that are due to ignorance, failed education, and careless planning. Some consider this type as harmless when the aim is communication flow, but abused as a way of stigmatizing outsiders. Another type is concerning written language, it is said that the clarity in writing and abusing what may cause confusion are recommended, the concept is

highly supported even by some non-linguists like George Orwell. This type is the deliberate manipulation of language by those who are cognizant, well-educated, and scrupulous. It is thought of as more serious because it concerns with protection from jargon, media language and advertisement deceit.

It is apparent that Carl concentrates on the danger of errors, finding ways of keeping them back from language use and usage, detecting them wherever and whenever they are and correcting them. One of his firm ideas about supporting the idea of error correction is his strong confuting of "r". Hall's view that confuses between the systematic and social equivalence of language when Hall lessens the value of the two complaints traditions and shows them as illegitimate and specious distinctions. He clarifies that R. Hall doesn't recognize that the concept of " bad and good" or " standard and nonstandard" are intended to discuss languages in terms of their systematic equivalence. So, any language or dialect has such forms or norms. To emphasize this he puts *"all dialects are linguistically pretty much on a par"*.

Another thing that justifies Carl's concern about correction even for native learners is his questions about the situations at schools: what can be taught at schools if there is no such distinction of standard and non-standard language?, with which form of a language that students' performance will be compared?, which from is to be elevate for formal use?, will there be a pedagogic norm?, should students use whatever form of language that becomes natural?, etc. The case is as a tantamount to abandoning the institution called school and break down the languages. So there must be standard educational form to eliminate home language, be re-enforced in schools and establish the concept of " bidialectism". More clinging to the correct forms and avoidance of wrong forms, the author cites that the learners ought to learn standard English whether it is

spoken or written. They must use good English when they are in formal situation. He also positively comments on Trudgill and Anderson's work "*Bad Language"* when they portray the concept via the aspects of language variability of style (formal or informal), accent (high or low) prestige, register (technical versus non technical), and dialect (standard versus non standard). His comment is that their notion is a heart of correctness.

### b- The Inevitability of Correction for ESL/ EFL. Learner:

On the same pattern Carl portrays the importance of correction to English non-native learners in regard to the complexity of the situation in which English is taught. He shows that there are three sorts of English according to their users: inner circle English that are described as older English, native English and providers of original norms. They are represented by countries like Britain, America, Canada, etc. The second sort is outer circle English, this is known as colonial varieties or nativazed English. They are spoken in pillippin, Malizia, Zambia, etc. among these there is a tendency for developing new norms. The third sort is expanding circle English with this type there are no colonial links and no tendency for developing new norms.

The problem starts with selecting norms for outer and expanding circles. The crux of the problem that faces SL learners is that their English works as international, national and local language. This means English is to serve as a means of transitional communication which shows English as intelligible to them. To FL  learners, which is the subject of the study, the problem is that they want to have English that is their very own: having signs of foreign speakers and confirming the norms of world standard English. Herein, a specific problem which is intended is the case of EFL learners' spoken form is usually divergent from the world standard English (WSE) and their written form is nearly

convergent to the WSE. However the national curriculum council insists on learning the WSE, in both speaking and writing as equal. So, the learners are compelled to eschew non-standard norms and learn inner circle ones. In almost all cases they fail to produce correct English, specially, in writing. This mean the process of correction is mandatory.

### 2.1.10.5  Views about Feedback Methods

Dealing with learners' errors is necessarily involving teachers to adopt certain methods which are actually translated into activities. Ganji, (2009) puts: *" learner's errors should be corrected ... and teachers need coherent policies and classroom strategies,"* to do so.

Teachers' opinions about the overall process of teaching are significant in guiding learners. They are shaped and oriented via different components. Thus, some of such constituents can be mentioned as follows:

Firstly, research on the second language pedagogy has pointed out that teachers' views about such concepts are not always frankly stated. This is clearly given by McArthur (1983:107) as "*They could, however, show themselves In a variety of non-conscious but very in Specific ways*". In this regard objectively indicated teachers' behaviors such as actions, utterances and verbal expression of their opinions on whatever thing concerning the process of teaching can be regarded as elements of descriptive studies.

Secondly, the variance in attitudes to learners' errors itself ( mentalist and behaviorist) constitutes a strong ground. Wang (2010) puts Teachers behavior in dealing with students' written errors vary, reflecting different opinions they have about written errors.

Thirdly, variety of attitudes to the effectiveness of correction can influence on EFL teachers'. Jamalinesari, et al (2015) report that after a

long discussion of researchers and teachers, some contradictory views were raised. some think of written corrective feedback as a kind of dramatic failure and grammar correction, in particular, has no place in writing courses and should be eliminated. However, others prove that the process can improve students' writing precision in certain context, and assure that the preceding view is based on evidences that were not thorough. some scholars state that written corrective feedback has nothing to do with students' writing accuracy for some reasons: error correction overlooks second language acquisition insights about the gradual and complex process of acquiring the forms and structures of second language. The process of correction itself encounters some practical problems concerning the capability and willingness of teachers to give and students to receive it; and error correction can be regarded as a detriment because it diverts time and energy away from more dynamic aspects of writing program.

Fourthly, differences in scholars' views about error correction techniques can contribute to forming the same differences in teachers' views. Jamalinesari, et al (2015) state that When questions like, which strategy is preferable or more likely to help students?, occur to the mind of whoever concerned with SLA premises, some, simply, reply " none of them". However others indulge in discussing significant differences across the different ways of treatment. Some researchers assure that correcting EFL learners' errors is necessary, but via effective techniques. They overestimate that when teachers effectively employ feedback procedures, they powerfully impact on students' achievement more than other teaching behavior and add that such impact is consistent regardless of grade, socioeconomic status, race, school setting, etc. Amara (2015) puts that if error correction is according to purposeful principles, it will be effective, so that it cannot achieve the goal of learning unless it is done systematically.

Fifthly, it is normal that different approaches to ELT. Should involve different techniques. Therefore, the diversity of attitudes to the techniques used for error correction emerges from the variance of each teaching method or marking strategy on each other. Consequently each form or strategy of correction has its own features (i.e. advantages and disadvantages) that make it more or less preferable and reflected in the activities designed to, actually, translate it. This means, beside the factors above and other pedagogical circumstances, the nature of teaching approaches plays an essential role in underlining teachers' attitudes to the impact of the intended techniques on learners' writing skills as it is the commonest factor. Some features of some applicable strategies with their activities can be explained as follows:

## 1- Conferencing Advantages

According to Doff (1996:58), this technique has the advantages of encouraging students to think of writing as something that can be organized and improved and giving the students opportunities to talk about their writing and reflect on the process. Moreover, it provides the teachers with good chances to listen to their students and help them, in what they are trying to say. However, it is considered as time-consuming, it is relevant with young adult learners or special contents and impracticable in some contexts like in large classes. Peter, el al (1987: 149) call it as an ideal context. They put, *"Ideally the teacher will check the written work with the writer, but this gets increasingly difficult as the learner progresses beyond the elementary stage"*. But they add its shortcoming of being inapplicable beyond elementary level. Jamalinesari, et al (2015) report that many teachers consider it as potentially more effective than written corrective feedback for the advantages mentioned above. But the absence of published empirical research on the subject lets it not to be taken as evidence of effectiveness. The thing makes error correction studies emphasize the fact that, different linguistic categories should not be

treated as if they are equivalent because they represent separate domains of knowledge that are acquired through different stages and processes. Wang (2010) adds It enables teachers and students to trace the causes of the problems arise from both students' products and teachers' feedback mismatches and discover new strategies for improving. It also helps teachers explain their comments, address specific problems of each work.

## 2- Advantages of Remedial Activities

Strong support for remedial work is from Roos' (1990) who has examined a syntactic error analysis of the written work at university level. She reported that the use of remedial feedback enables the student to review their hypothesis about the rules which govern the use of the problematic language structures. When giving a remedial work, teachers should bear in mind the limitations mentioned on page (55) for maintaining it advantageous.

## 3- Benefits of Error Identification and Localization

To Saito (1994) error identification and localization is to use, for example, circling or underlining to show error place and write its type in an appropriate place in the body of the script or corresponding margin. It is widely used for responding to ESL/EFL learners' written performance. This plays a great role in increasing their writing accuracy because it draws their attention to material not adequately learn and allowing the students focus on there without being distracted by too much re-examination of work that has already been done well. According to Lee(2004) error location is a matter of learning level that students of higher language proficiency benefit more than of lower level proficiency. However it is cumbersome for the teacher and confusing for the students _ indicates to the disadvantages of correction codes.

## 4- Effects of Error Correction Codes.

Using correction codes is a form of indirect feedback, but sometimes indirect feedback may not use codes (refers to error localization). So code using has its own features. According to Bright and McGregor (1970:156) using error correction codes makes correction neater and less threatening than masses of red inks and helps students find and identify their mistakes. Harmer (2007:111) adds its encouraging students to think about what the mistake is, so that they can correct themselves and achieve their linguistic competence. Hedge (2000:316) portrays its advantage as an act of changing learners' views about writing skill, in that it makes them look at it as the skill that can really be improved. Johnson (2001:335) points out that it makes errors occur in a hurly-burly of conversation which encourages insistence on correction. Doff (1996:193) reinforces that making the students think of their errors, means the use of composition for teaching. Therefore, students can learn more quickly if teachers note new areas for focusing on in the next exercise at the end of any written exercise. It also helps the teachers note down the type of problems recommended for special effort. Thus, students will understand what they must do and be working at the progressive elimination of the weaknesses. In addition, it helps the teachers evaluate the work more quickly and asses the relative degree of errors in the different areas. The use of codes in correction seems to have the disadvantage of time consuming, in that it needs the teachers to look at students' tasks, at least, twice. The use of codes may not be useful to be applied to the correction of beginner's tasks because it may lead to the problem of understanding the codes themselves and the difficulty of correcting the errors indicated. A major shortcoming may emerge when teachers use them without taking into consideration the limitations for using the codes mentioned on page (59).

**5- Advantages and Disadvantages of Peer-correction :**

Sultana (2009) Points out that peer-correction has a cognitive, social and effective role: It is less threatening than teacher correction and evokes less anxiety because it lets students more comfortable; in traditional classes teachers were the authoritative figures and considered the only sources of knowledge, as the students are sole passive receivers but through peer-correction the classroom is free from teacher dominance; it makes friendly and supportive classroom atmosphere; it increases students' involvement in the classroom; it takes the focus away from the teacher, so that learning role is transferred to the students; and it helps the teachers check students achievement. Moreover, it develops learners' critical thinking, autonomy and different language skills. However, it has several shortcomings: with it some students might feel reluctant to correct their peers' works because it may harm their relations; some may feel that they are inferior; some are reluctant to give their works to their friends because they do not want to make them know about their works; and some students do not value their peers knowledge so they do not revise. Some other drawbacks are added by Bijami, et al (2013) who report that peer-correction is likely to comment on surface errors and gives advice that does not help revision, it focuses on product rather than process of writing , and it focuses on sentence level error rather than content and ideas. On the other hand Joel (1982:30-31) explains its effects on the basis of classroom implementation: with "projection" activity it has the disadvantages of distracting the student-author, few students' dominance of the discussion, and the rarity of student-to-student communication, with "group composition activity" it has the advantages of lightening teachers' work and making students practice the target language, with "exchanging composition" technique it permits students to deal with long essays, and with in-class editing exercise students correct their compositions analytically. On the of basis this approach Wang (2010) adds the advantages of "post-it note" technique as it encourages team

spirit and reinforces the language in other students' mind. But the possibility of getting incorrect information from the peer is shown as its shortcoming.

## 6- The Role of Using Comments

Doff (1996:  ) reports that comments have the advantages of giving the students' directions to follow gradually as well as they are more productive than any end comments like, good, nice, etc. Questions are useful, too, in that, they lead the writer to consider other options without necessarily suggesting those options themselves. They also direct student's attention to unclear contents, organizations or lack of details. They may also be criticized for tending to ignore content and ideas in favor of grammatical elements. Wang (2010) adds that  Writing encouragement comments are to be integrated in any error correction approach to supplement students' success, reinforce what they do well and aid them to pursuit what has gone wrong tirelessly.

## 7- Preference of Holistic to Analytic Responding

Hughes (1990:94-100) states that techniques based on either holistic or analytic approaches to error correction or responding to any productive piece of language, in particular, learners' essays have their own advantages and disadvantages that can be shown as follows:

Holistic responding is referred to as impressionistic perspective according to which teachers can respond to learners' tasks on the basis of overall impression. It is characterized by being too rapid. It is less preferable to other ways of assessment such as TOEFL (teaching of English as foreign language) method , ACTFL (American council for the teaching of foreign language ) ways, ILR (integracy round table) levels, etc. because it hasn't any headings for scoring. Therefore, it suits only the situations or purposes for which it is designed to, such as to find out if a person has sufficient language ability for, say, a certain post. It does not

bear in mind any individual error. It just shows the extent to which the person who is tested master the language.

Analytic correction has advantages of responding to every aspect of the task, disposes of all the uneven developments of sub-skills, it gives equal importance to each aspect of performance. So, its results are reliable and valid in every situation and it has an insight into all the difficulties that face the learners which help teachers  plan for their facilitation. On the other hand, it is said to have the disadvantage of taking too much time. The thing makes some teachers, in particular, who deal with large classes avoid its practice; and it may divert teachers' attentions from the overall effect of the task that may lessens the content for the sake of language. Thus this approach based on the concept that "*a small number of grammatical errors of one kind could have a much more effect on communication than a large number of another kind.*" In accordance with this approach, the teacher is to evaluate the task on the basis of five main components of grammar, vocabulary, mechanism, fluency ( style and ease of communication) and form ( organization) – in details on page (62-64).

### 8- Teacher correction may be the Best

In addition to the other techniques of teacher correction ( corrective written feedback, coded correction, etc., Joel (1982:31) asserts that recording has the advantages of  developing student-teacher rapport. Doff (1996:57-58) adds oral correction in the class reduces teachers' workload and let them make sure that students are really doing correction.

Some researchers have juxtaposed teacher-correction with peer-correction, teacher-student conferencing technique and other traditional ways of correction. Ahmadian et al (2013) examine and prove that peer-feedback is not more effective than teacher-feedback in helping the learners improve their writing ability. However, Diab (2006) prefers peer-correction and teacher-student correction as alternative strategies to the traditional error correction. She puts:"*and she recommended that second language*

*teachers incorporate peer reviews and student-teacher conferences in their teaching as two valuable alternative feedback methods to traditional error correction."* Johari (2008) adopts process writing technique as a prerequisite for giving feedback effectively, and particularizes the uses of peer evaluation and teacher-student conferencing activities by enumerating their advantages together as follows:

a-      Students are encouraged to discuss the drafts and give feedback on various features of writing by asking and answering questions raised on the clarification of readers' comments.

b-      These interactive activates are versatile with regard to focus and implementation along the process writing continuum, which is a cycle of decisions on what to be written, how to be written, and how to be improved.

c-      Teachers in such activities are not the only responders or evaluators, the students are also involved in the process.

d-      Such responding and evaluating activities do not only promote critical awareness, they also make rewriting activity itself essentially learner-centered, interactive and recursive.

e-      These techniques take place in such away as each group presents its written work to the class, encourage and re-enforce the successful features of each draft, provide advice and help its improvement.

f-      They help students' discover of new ideas, new ways to write and new words or expressions as students plan for, write the first draft and revise what they have written for the second draft.

g-      Such classroom review and remedial work provided via the interactive process is so vital in situations where opportunities to use language and receive feedback outside the classrooms are limited.

h-      The techniques remain the students not only writers but also readers and evaluators. In doing so, critical skills are developed – the

skills needed by every student to be applied to their own work to become an effective writer.

i-      Further interaction between the teacher and students which is available via the development of the techniques, in post-writing stage makes students discover their weaknesses and strengths. It helps them learn to correct some errors themselves rather than blindly responding to what the teacher has corrected for them. This means that teachers' correction becomes as some kind of communications between the teacher and students.

## 9-  Benefits of self-correction

Rana and Perveen (2013) ascertain the overall benefits of self-correction as: it instills feelings of self sufficiency and success; provides learners with opportunity to take more active role in learning ; makes students away from dependency on teachers for correction; helps them work out how errors are rectified using the metalinguistic cues provided; makes them understand their strengthens and weaknesses; enables the teachers to understand individual learners' ability; and it generally boots the level of confidence. More benefits of self-correction are reflected in the variety of activities designed to translate it such as checklist, coded correction, referring students to grammar sources, etc.

## 10-      Which is Preferable direct or indirect correction?

They are forms of teacher correction. Jamalinesari, et al (2015) in their study prove that direct correction (explicit feedback) is more preferable than the indirect one, in that the latter leads to the same level of accuracy over time. It also arrived at the conclusion that direct error correction led to more correct revisions (88%) than indirect feedback(77%).   Lee (2004) suggests that the direct feedback has the danger that teacher may misinterpret students' meanings and put words into their minds rather than what are intended. But it may be appropriate for beginners where errors are untreatable and the students are unable to

self-correct. In terms of long-term writing development indirect feedback is more beneficial because it increases learners' engagement and attention to the problems. It involves error prompting which is useful as it helps students correct more errors in a short time and represents as starting point for discussion. More advantages are included in benefits of using error codes.

**11-        Selective or Hyper-correction:**

Jamalinesari, et al (2015) suggest that in spite of the fact that teachers are not fully aware of how much feedback they are to give on both global (ideas, content, organization) and local (spelling, grammar, punctuation) issues, and what type of feedback they should adhere to , they try to give help via corrective feedback. Another problem is that there are less amount of researchers examined the amount and type of revision that teachers should actually recommend students to make.

Regarding Wang (2010) selective correction is considered beneficial because it focuses on one area for correction which has different vials: it makes students feel confident about composing, it fixes correct forms in the long-term memory of the students, it improves their attitudes to writing, and ends their anxiety about writing exercises.

According to Ferris and Hedgcock (2005: 265 - 66), comprehensive feedback is not condemned. They argue that students want their teachers to correct all their errors. Some researchers suggest that leaving errors uncorrected leads to error fossilization. Then, according to their study results, students are able to address language and content issues simultaneously. Therefore, they concentrate on the notion that such technique can result in learners' language development when the teachers treats the errors not at once. For example, in composition marking the teacher can deal with some major errors in writers' first draft and deal with the reaming in the final draft. However, Wang (2010) reports that teachers' excessive attention to error causes frustration for students and

exhaustion to the teachers. It is very disconcerting for the students to see any words crossed out, new words added and an array of material comments (all written in red letters). Thus, when they are faced blood of unsightly red scribble all over their neatly presented work, is it tempting for them to ignore the corrections and file under bin or even lose heart altogether?. Lee (2004) adds that comprehensive feedback has several disadvantage : it turns writing teacher into grammar teacher or critic; it is questionable since it is based on the mistaken premise that error free writing is a desirable goal, while researches indicate that L2 students can hardly produce error free work; it is impossible for the teachers to capture every single error made by the students; among the teachers themselves, there are bounds to be considered as disagreements about what can be considered as an error and what cannot; by comprehensive correction the teacher may end up spending time and efforts in improving learners' writing style apart from grammar, because it is difficult to draw a line between grammatical inaccuracy and stylistic infelicity. Joel (1982:6) portrays the situation from another perspective. As it is proved that when every error is corrected, students are then unable to produce a single complete sentence. In spoken form it seems discourteous to interrupt people when they are speaking. Excessive correction destroys learners' motivation and encourages the production of simplistic sentences. It leads to spending time on superficial errors rather than serious ones. It prevents student from concentrating on message which means the diminishment of foreign language learning pleasure. It detracts from classroom pace.

**12-        The Role of "Dictionary Detective" and "Error Logs".**

As Cogie, et al (1999) assert not native speakers' dictionary but learners'  because it provides detailed and complete information with easy to use examples, such as explanation of common errors. The technique is designed ,mainly, to make students benefit from the information available

in the dictionaries. It also provides sample sentences for hypothetical writer to illustrate the rules. It helps teachers to avoid proofreading and students to begin acquiring the awareness to self-edit. They assure that "error logs" has the following advantages:

a/ it provides clear context for the target feature which helps rules acquisition clearly and steadfastly.

b/ Appropriate for both who makes several types of errors and who makes only one or two types.

c/ It reflects individual students' needs.

In addition to the above advantages, both of them have the following ones in common:

1- They promote students' self – monitoring.

2- They lead to more effective proofreading skills.

3- They suit for both tutoring sessions and classroom meeting.

4- They suit for both intermediate and advanced level.

5- They are said to be more effective with proficient and confident students than a mature and diffident students.

6- Learners' rule internalization and monitoring is promoted.

7- They are intended to enable learners edit their own works independently.

However, they share the disadvantage of time-consumption for teachers to introduce and students to apply.

### 13-        Checklist Benefits

It is one of the techniques considered as efficacious. Joel (1982:29 – 30 ) states that checklist works as a reminder of form and structure because it makes students go over their works many times with a particular structure or form in their minds each time. It provides teachers with more objective way of evaluating their students' progress the teachers can use symbols to reduce the number of comments that they

should make on students tasks. It works as a sort of syllabus for the students as it makes them demonstrate what they have mastered of a certain section, or it seems as if it breaks writing into manageable units. It is suitable for eradicating frequent errors via putting  a code number above a students' work and the same number on the checklist next to the appropriate explanation. On the other hand it is denounced for its need of greater concentration on the part of the teacher, and giving more attention to style than grammar accuracy.

## 14-        Hand-off Approach Drawbacks

Wang (2010) assures that overall correction of written errors is acknowledged. On the other hand hands-off approach to error correction (none correction) may not work because students want their teachers to correct them and they appreciate it, despite of the fact that students' preferences are neither be ignored nor put on pedestal. Jamalinesari, et al (2015) compare the three different feedback treatments (error marked with codes, error underlined but not coded, and none error feedback) and report that the two significantly out-performed than none correction one. Whereas Truscott develops two studies (1996 and 1999 ) in which she supports hand-off methods in dealing with, in particular, grammar errors and describes their correction as a dramatic failure.

## 15-        The Impact of Immediate and Delayed Feedback

Ehri, et al (1988) conclude that delaying correction by even a day allows errors to take foothold in learners' mind and enter their long-term memory store**.** Feedback is essential to be immediate, for example, in tests as it saves much trouble and helps teachers to decide what is to be taught next. Feedback on the spot is recommended because if errors are allowed to stand uncorrected, they may be rehearsed, consolidated, strengthened and more likely to reoccur. On the contrary it supports correct forms consolidation, it also leads to better performance. However,

it has its own shortcoming in that the information with it tends to be massed. whereas with delayed feedback is spaced.

Delayed feedback is preferred in laboratory studies because learners sometimes may not pay attention to the feedback in the classroom and lab studies are well controlled. It is also preferred in geography as entire seeing of the map is entailed. It has several benefits: it is given when students have forgotten their incorrect answers which means the absence of their *"postulated proactive interference"* during the process of correction, this leads to easy learning of correct forms and better remembering. It also results in better performance eventually. But, according to the feedback processing, it may be more difficult than of immediate one, Matcalf, Kornell and Finn (2009) show that it is an immediate correction, which draws students' attention to the problem while it is still fresh in their minds; using such techniques keeps the class involved; such oral correction gives a good practice in reading as students correct each other's works; it is more encouraging; as it attacks errors when they are still fresh, it seems more useful in consolidating correct language points and eradicating errors; and they are considered as the best techniques for correcting controlled writing because the answers are alike. However, these techniques have the disadvantages of taking much time and having little effect on students' progress if the exercise is not easy for the students to perform and simple for the teachers to correct.

**16-      The Role of Games**

Wang(2010) suggests Using games in correction for the two benefits: It helps teachers focus on key errors without losing face of individual students. It also helps students to develop their proofreading skills in a funny way.

**2.2 Part Two: previous Studies**

Salteh and Sadeghi (2015) have conducted a study of this kind on *"Teachers' and Students' Attitudes toward Error Correction in $l_2$ Writing"*. The study uses questionnaire to both teachers and students and interview to the teachers to collect its data. It adopts teachers and students at university level in Iran as its population. Thirty teachers and hundred students from Azad and Pyan Noor universities in the Northern part of West Azarbaijan Province are the chosen sample, but it does not mention the procedure of sampling. The study raises two questions: *" on what aspect (s) of language ( content, ides, vocabulary, grammar, text organization, mechanical errors, etc,) do teachers offer and students receive feedback?"* And *"what are the favored techniques of error correction according to teachers and students?".* Some important results include the fact that teachers give priority to the errors of content and ideas of organization, whereas students prefer feedback on all errors indiscriminately with priority to grammar and vocabulary errors.

From the title, it is obvious that the study is relevant to this one in that both studies include the investigation of "teachers' attitudes". However, its divergence can be seen in two main dimensions. The first, it has confined itself to some techniques of teacher-correction approach, whereas there are, at least, five categories of approaches to error correction and more than eighteen techniques. For example, the category concerning the participants is translated into four approaches ( teacher-correction, teacher-student, peer-correction, and self-correction). So the researcher raises a general topic *"Teachers' and Students' Attitudes . . .".* but investigates less than one-third of its scope. It seems as if its title should be *" teachers' and students' attitudes to teacher- correction in l2 writing".* Therefore, to fully discuss such subject, there are many areas still in need of investigation. For instance, teachers' and students' attitude towards the rest of error correction techniques ( more than two-third of a single part of the subject), the impact of using the techniques on learners'

writing skills at various levels of learning, how teachers actually use the techniques in different classroom contexts, etc. the second divergence is that the study is conducted at university level. The rationales behind this are: the methods of teaching and tools of assessment or evaluation used at the level are variant from those of secondary or primary level, and factors that usually influence the process of correction (teaching aids, class size, teacher qualification, etc) are different from country to another, even from university to another in the same country or from level to another. For example, the study reports that coded correction ( giving clues ) is a favorable technique among teachers and students in Iran at university level, in Sudan some teachers hardly have to respond to more than five hundred assignments per a week via coded correction. So to such teachers it is a so bothering technique _ they should not say it is favorable or cannot use it properly to achieve the objectives.

Another study is carried out by Icy Lee (2004) on " *Error Correction in l₂ Secondary Writing Classrooms: The Case of Hong Kong*". The study uses questionnaire and follow-up telephone interviews as its tools. teachers and students in Hong Kong are its population. 206 respondents have completed the questionnaire via convenience sampling, 139 university teachers and 67 secondary school teachers are selected. Seventy of them have experiences less than five years and 56 have experiences raged between 5-10 years. The study results in the fact that both teachers and students prefer comprehensive correction.  Teachers rely on direct and indirect correction, but coded feedback is less effective. The study also casts doubt on teachers' competence in error correction.

The study is relevant to the study in question in that it investigates written error correction at secondary level and covered teachers perspectives, regardless of their levels, about only three approaches out of more than twelve. However, it is different because it does not show any indications to neither teachers' nor students' attitudes to the techniques

and investigates a few of them. In other words, according to the title it does not seem to search teachers' attitudes at all. As for the scope of the subject, there is a lot of it remained uncovered, in particular, if the study is supposed to investigate attitudes to the techniques. There are multitude of techniques waiting the researcher to cover, for example, checklist, dictionary detective, error logs, charting errors, projection, conferencing, etc. on the other hand if the study is to treat " error correction" as the title states, it can hardly be covered in a single study: there are range of attitudes, such as, towards the process of correction itself, the variety of approaches, the effect they cause, etc., and there are different topics like, what skills to be responded to, how the teachers use the techniques, what affects on the process itself, etc.

In addition to the above studies, Dan and Feg (2015), have conducted on *"Effectiveness of the Error Correction Strategies in Improving Senior High Students' English Writing in China".* The researcher uses writing task, questionnaire and interview to collect data. Senior high students are intended as study population and one hundred of them are the participants. The study arrives at the fact that teacher-correction, self-correction and peer-correction can considerably improve senior high students' writing competence.

The similarity of this study to the one in question is that both of them investigates "the effectiveness of error correction" at secondary level. However, they show a considerable number of dissimilarities, some of them can be summarized as follows:

1-    Dan and Feg have investigated the effectiveness of only three corrective strategies in general _ they do not show what techniques of the three approaches have proved their effectiveness, whereas the other study is to investigate almost all the techniques that can be used in correcting EFL. written task.

2-      Their study does not bear in mind EFL. teachers' attitude towards the approaches _ one of the strategies might have been used only by one teacher. However, the study discussed focuses on teachers' attitudes.

3-      They focus on correction when preparing students for matriculation test in which students are properly more motivated and anxious. For example, if a student makes a mistake in this duration and a teacher explains that a question on such point has been put to the students in some previous matriculation test and now he/she is prepared for, they will actually grasp the information with all its details. On the other hand they can ignore it if the case is different.

So, what about the effectiveness of the other approaches, techniques, and the other students' (junior) writing skills?. then teachers' attitudes may influence on the effectiveness of the approaches, and so on.

Althobaiti (2014) also conducts a study on "*Error Correction in EFL. Writing: The Case of Saudi Arabia*. It is a descriptive study. Its data is collected via test ( essay writing and paragraph writing). It aims at Taif university students as its population. Thirty beginner students ( who have just been enrolled to university level after their preparatory year) and thirty advanced students ( in their second year) are requested to write a paragraph and essay respectively. It has arrived at providing the teachers with the types of error committed by their students so that they are encouraged to find effective ways of teaching and treating the errors.

According to the subject raised, the study is relevant for searching in "*error correction in EFL writing*". But throughout its course of tackling and the results achieved, it shows a great difference: the study does not treat error correction but investigates the types of errors committed by the students; it does not  investigate teachers' or students' perceptions, techniques or approaches; and so on. So there are many areas which need further research.

## 2.3 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter the researcher has entirely depended on the secondary sources that have the information needed. It has been divided into two parts: the first one has reviewed the relevant literature concerning the study with some expansion of its key topics and the second part has been allotted to most relevant studies from which the researcher has reported three of them.

# CHAPTER THREE

# RESEARCCH METHODOLOGY

## 3.0 Introduction

This chapter is intended to introduce the population, sample, instruments, validity and reliability of the tools of the study. The researcher has followed the descriptive method to find out the relationship between the various variables of this study, such as, EFL teachers' opinions about the effect of using error correction techniques on students' writing skills. Then statistic analysis is applied to find the result.

## 3.1 Population

English language teachers at secondary schools level in Eastern Gezira Locality were selected as the population for the importance of their views, good background about the English syllabus taught at the level and experience in monitoring students' accuracy and appropriateness.

## 3.2 Sampling

The researcher has used "*probability sampling design*" in that it gives equal and independent chance of selection to each element, avoids bias, leads to drawing inferences that can be generalized, and helps in establishing conclusive correlations between the variables of the study. He has adopted "*simple random sampling*" method according to which units are identified by numbering, sample size is decided upon ( more than half of the population of about 125 teachers ), and "*fishbowl draw*" technique is  used as the most common technique adopted in selecting random sample.

## 3.3 Instrument of the Study

The questionnaire has been chosen to be the tool for collecting data from the English teachers. There are several factors whereby such choice influenced: geographical distribution of the population over a wide area like "Albutana Territory" which makes other instrument, such as interview, exhausting and tiring, enough competence of the population that is supposed to deal with any piece of written language appropriately, greater anonymity that the questionnaire offers, the nature of the study. The questionnaire's forty statements have been grouped into three sections according to the study questions. Moreover, there are opinionnair or open-ended requests to make the respondents brainstorm as many ideas as possible.

## 3.4 validity

The term validity is introduced by different researchers via various expressions that have the concepts of measurement and what is measured in common. Kumar (2011:178) defines validity as "*the ability of an instrument to measure what it is designed to measure*", and quotes from other several researchers, for example, Smith (1991:106) who puts " *validity is defined as the degree to which the researcher has measured what he has set out to measure*", Kerlinger ( 1973:457) who writes " *the commonest definition of validity is epitomized by the question: are we measuring what we think we are measuring?*", and Babbie ( 1989:133) who portrays that "*validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration*". Furthermore, the author adds that the definitions above raise questions of who decides whether the tool is valid or not ? And how is that determined ? Three participants in research domain are responsible for that: the researcher, readership and experts in the field of the study.

Besides, the author ( ibid:178-181 ) asserts that there are two approaches to establishing instrument validity: justifying each element of the instrument in relation to the study objectives/hypotheses (using logic that underpins the construction of the tool) and calculating the coefficient of correlation between the questions of the instrument and outcome variables. Accordingly there are several types of validities ( face and content, concurrent and predictive, and construct ). Therefore, the researcher uses the first approach(using logic) to prove that his tool has acquired "*face and content validity*", for the following reasons:

1-    The result of consulting experts in the  field does not mention any irrelevant item.

2-    The opinionnair request made to the respondents for expressing their point of views about the role of using error correction techniques in students' writing skills, adding ( if any ) error correction techniques rather than those included in the questionnaire, and mentioning (if any) other error type/s that they point out when correcting students' written tasks, has resulted only in adding one error type ( errors of affixes ).

This indicates that every questionnaire item tests a certain aspect of the issue which represents a face validity and that they cover almost all scope of the study which means content validity. Statistically, it has been calculated as follows:

$$\text{Val} = \sqrt{\text{reliability}}$$

$$\text{Val} = \sqrt{0.89} = 0.94$$

## 4.5 Reliability

According to Kumar ( 2011:396 ) gives it a definition that seems precise as in:

> *Reliability is the ability of research instrument to provide similar results when used repeatedly under similar conditions. Reliability indicates accuracy, stability and predictability of a research instrument: the higher the reliability the higher the accuracy; or the higher the accuracy of an instrument, the higher its reliability.*

In Moser and Kalton's study ( cited in Kumar ibid: 181) emphasizes the concept that the word reliability in the field of research has the same meaning and connotation as in everyday use i.e. dependability, consistency, predictability, stability and honesty.

There is no noticeable factor to obviously affect the reliability, as wording ( ambiguity ) of the items was treated by consulting experts and regression might have ended by time span ( the whole week ) given for responding. The only possible one was respondents' mood which could have moderated by their automatic engrossment in marking.

As Kumar ( ibid:182) asserts two procedures are used for determining reliability: external consistency procedures which based on comparing the findings from two independent processes of data collection such as test/retest and parallel forms of the same test, and internal consistency procedures ( the split-half technique is the commonest ) that based on using number of items or questions from the tool to measure the phenomenon then comparing  their results to the results of using the whole tool. In the later procedures, reliability is calculated by using the product moment correlation ( a statistical procedure) between scores obtained from the two halves. Such calculation is via Spearman-Brown formula which is as follows:

$$r_{XY} = \frac{N(\Sigma XY) - (\Sigma X \Sigma Y)}{\sqrt{\left[N(\Sigma X^2) - (\Sigma X)^2\right]\left[N(\Sigma Y^2) - (\Sigma Y)^2\right]}}$$

Where

r = correlation

R: Reliability of the test

N: number of all items in the test

X: odd scores

Y: even scores

∑: Sum

$$R \quad \frac{2 \times r}{1+r}$$

Correlation          =<u>0.80</u>

$$R = \frac{2 \times r}{1 + r} = \frac{2(0.80)}{1 + 80} = \frac{1.6}{1.80} \quad \text{Reliability} = 0.89$$

## 3.6 Procedures

The questionnaire was collectively administrated. The respondents were obtained when they were marking third class students' mock exams and invigilating final examinations of the rest classes. This has enabled the researcher to distribute more than ninety copies. Seventy-three of them were returned which interprets both teachers' preoccupation with examination procedures and their willing to participate in such studies. Distributing and gathering continued for more than two weeks to give the respondents enough time span to think and answer. Then statistical package for social sciences ( SPSS ) was used to analyze the data collected.

## 3.6 Summary

In this section, questionnaire options are used for gathering data from the primary sources. It has been proved that it is valid and reliable

for providing the information concerns the study. It is shown that why the researcher has preferred questionnaire to the other tools and accompanied with some open-ended requests. The overall procedure and the procedure of sampling have also been explained. Then the data were analyzed, organized and tabulated by computer as it is illustrated below.

# CHAPTER FOUR

# DATA  ANALYSIS  RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

## 4.0 Introduction

This chapter shows the results of analysis and discussion of the data collected from the previously mentioned respondents. The program which has been used in the analysis of the data collected, is SPSS ( statistical package for social sciences ). All the results are revealed below in tables and figures showing the responses and reflecting the respondents' points of view on the effect of using error correction techniques on students' writing skills, the most appropriate techniques used for treating the errors and the types of errors they treat. The hater also discusses the data collected by the opinionnair requests and explains how the study hypotheses have been fully tested.

## 4.1 The Results of the Questionnaire

This section concerns the results of the data analysis. The researcher has adopted the following procedure: the questionnaire that consists of forty statements is divided into three parts according to the study objectives. Moreover, it includes a section of personal information about the respondents and some open-ended requests. It is responded by seventy-three teachers. General table of frequency for each group of statements is shown. Then, the result of each statement is represented in a small table accompanied by a figure for explaining the statistical result in detail. After that, some comments are regarded and followed to reflect the researcher's point of view. Moreover, respondents' academic qualifications and their experience in the field is necessary to be mentioned so as to support dependability the result.

## 4.2 Data Analysis and Discussion

## 4.2.1 Information about the Respondents

The respondents have gratefully given information about their sex, academic qualifications, and years of experience which means that the sample was well-chosen and the questionnaire was distributed to the intended sample. Therefore, the information obtained from such sources in more reliable.

## 4.2.1.1 Gender

**Tale ( 4.1)**

|  | T | % |
|---|---|---|
| male | 19 | 26.0 |
| female | 54 | 74.0 |
| TOTAL | 73 | 100 |

**Figure ( 4.1 )**
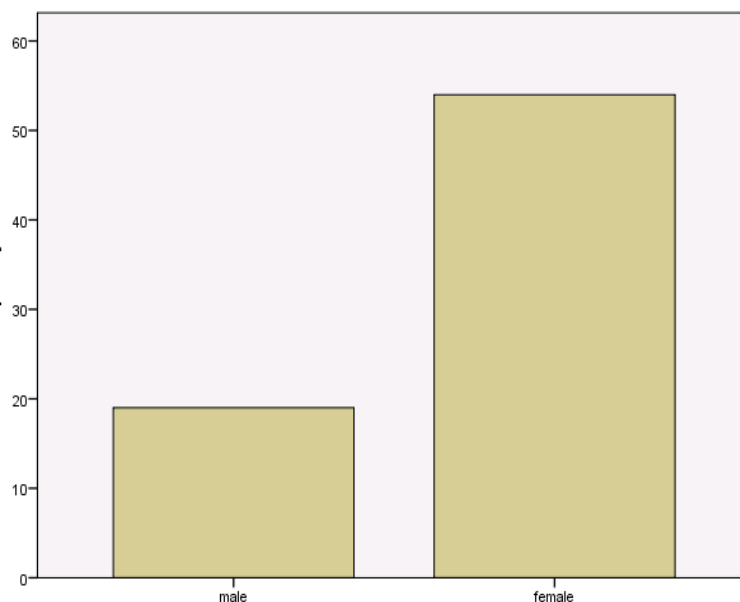


## 4.2.1.2 Qualifications

Table ( 4.2 )

| qualifications | T | % |
|---|---|---|
| graduate | 70 | 95.9 |
| post – graduate | 3 | 4.1 |
| TOTAL | 73 | 100 |
| | | |

Figure ( 4.2 )
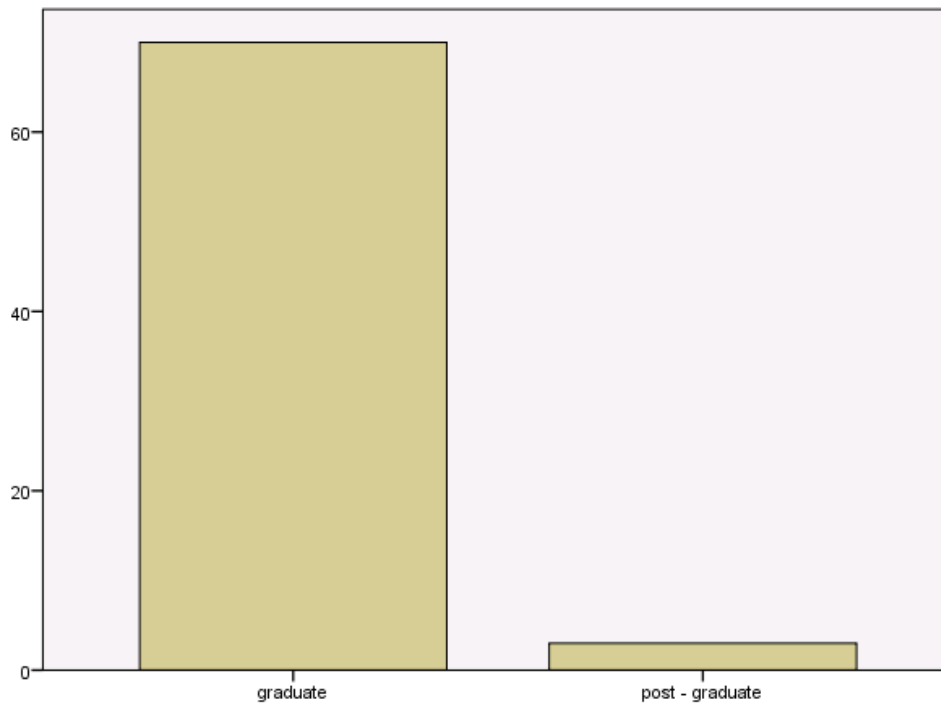


## 4.2.1.3 **Experiences**

Table ( 4.3 )

| Years of experience | T | % |
|---|---|---|
| Less than one year | 0 | 0.0 |
| 1 – 5 | 0 | 0.00 |
| 6 – 10 | 4 | 5.5 |
| More than 10 | 69 | 94.5 |
| TOTAL | 73 | 100 |

**Figure ( 4.3 )**
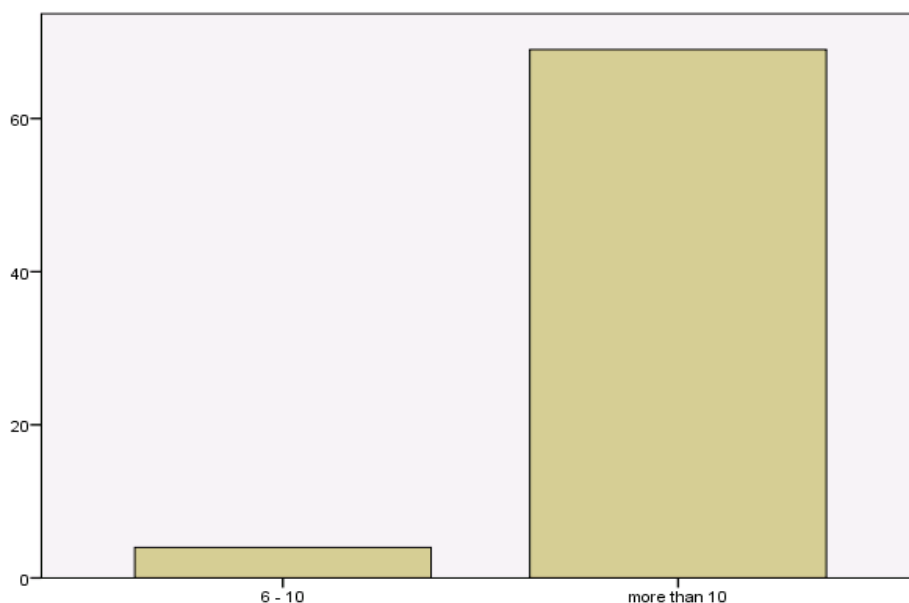


With reference to the above tables and figures, it is clear that more than two-thirds of the respondents ( 54 % ) are female according to table ( 4.1 ) and figure ( 4.1 ). From table ( 4.2 ) and figure ( 4.2 ), ( 95.9 % ) are graduate with ( 4.1% ) post-graduate which means they are certified as qualified enough to undertake all the processes of teaching, and they are well-experienced as table ( 4.3 ) and figure ( 4.3 ) show because all of them have the experience of more than six years with ( 94.5 % ) of more than ten years' experience. The information from such population in firm and strong.

**4.2.2 The Result of the Questionnaire – Part ( A )**

Analysis of the statements of group ( A ) represents the analysis of the data collected from the primary source on " EFL teachers' attitudes towards the effect of using error correction techniques on learners' writing skills". the result is shown in table ( 4.4 ) below. Then the table is, in detail, explained and discussed in other small tables and figures as they are explained below it.

Table ( 4.4 ) for the general results of the questionnaire – part ( A )

| Q$_s$. | Strongly Agree | | Agree | | Undecided | | Disagree | | Strongly disagree | | SD | M | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | T | % | T | % | T | % | T | % | T | % | | | |
| 1 | 39 | 53.4 | 30 | 41.1 | 0 | 0.00 | 4 | 5.5 | 0 | 0.00 | .762 | 1.58 | 0.00 |
| 2 | 33 | 45.2 | 34 | 46.6 | 6 | 8.2 | 0 | 0.00 | 0 | 0.00 | .635 | 1.63 | 0.00 |
| 3 | 25 | 34.2 | 18 | 24.7 | 12 | 16.4 | 18 | 24.7 | 0 | 0.00 | 1.189 | 2.32 | 0.00 |
| 4 | 16 | 21.9 | 27 | 37.0 | 14 | 19.2 | 16 | 21.9 | 0 | 0.00 | 1.065 | 2.41 | 0.00 |
| 5 | 18 | 24.7 | 49 | 67.1 | 4 | 5.5 | 2 | 2.7 | 0 | 0.00 | .631 | 1.86 | 0.00 |
| 6 | 8 | 11.0 | 13 | 17.8 | 26 | 35.6 | 24 | 32.9 | 2 | 2.7 | 1.034 | 2.99 | 0.00 |
| 7 | 39 | 53.4 | 26 | 35.6 | 6 | 8.2 | 2 | 2.7 | 0 | 0.00 | .759 | 1.60 | 0.00 |
| mean | 25.4 | 34.8 | 28.1 | 38.5 | 34 | 13.3 | 9.4 | 12.9 | 0.2 | | | | |

**Statement** – No. (1) " using error correction techniques to give feedback on learners' written tasks makes progress in their writing skills".

Table ( 4.4$_a$ ) The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 39 | 53.4 % |
| Agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Disagree | 4 | 5.5 % |
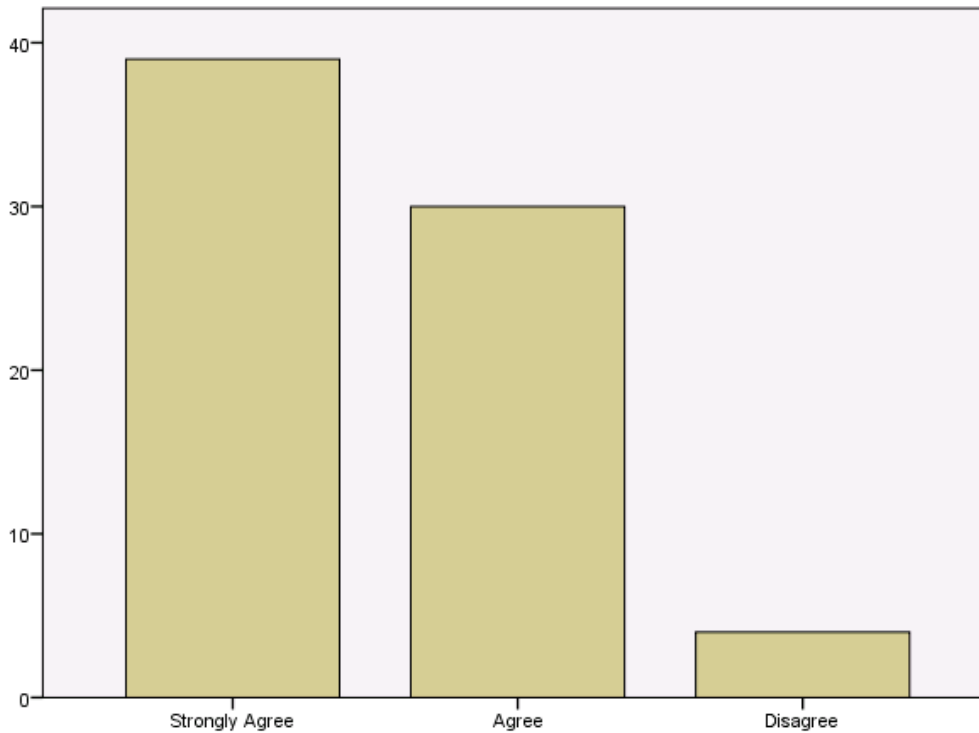


Figure ( 4.4$_a$ ) for statement – 1

According to the table and the figure above the majority of the teachers, at least, have positive attitudes towards the statement that is ( 53.4 % ) strongly agree and ( 41.1 %) agree. This is an indicator that using error correction techniques for giving feedback on students' written tasks can highly contribute in their writing skills promotion.

**Statement – No ( 2 )** Adopting certain technique/s to give feedback on students' written tasks is necessary.

Table ( 4.4$_b$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 33 | 45.5 % |
| Agree | 34 | 46.6 % |
| Undecided | 6 | 8.2 % |
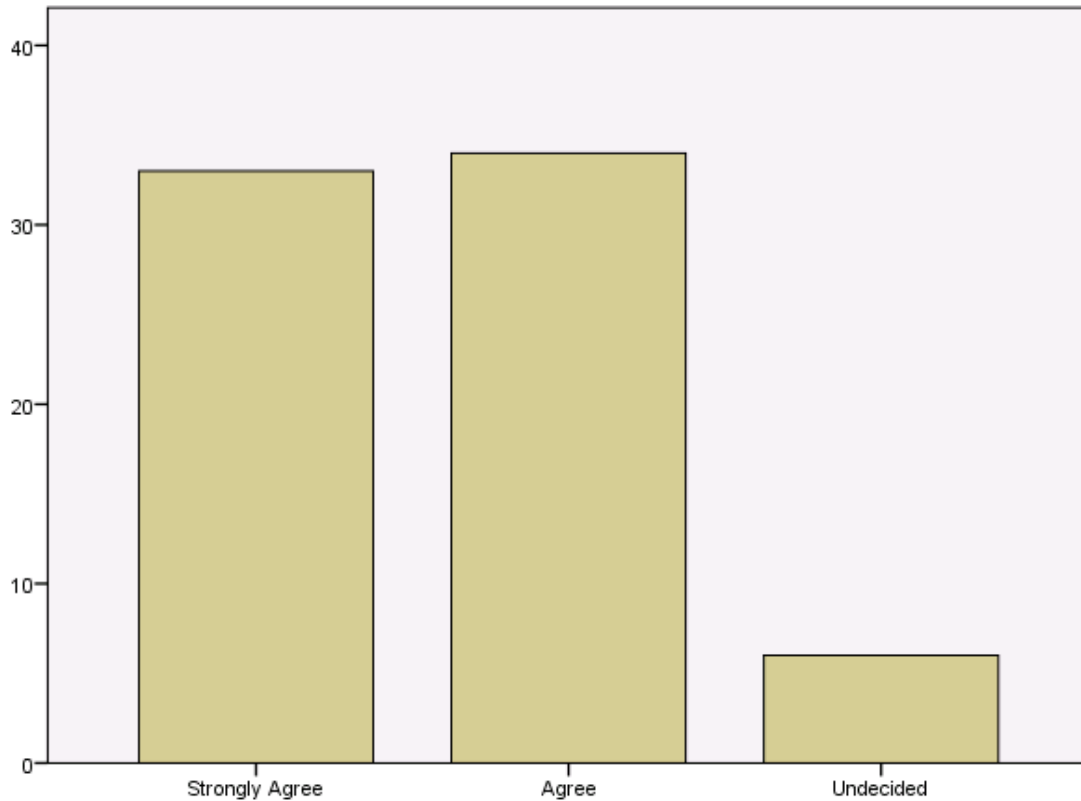


Figure ( 4.5 ) for statement – 2

Only six of the respondents ( 8.2 % ) are undecided about the statement as the rest are either strongly agree ( 45.5 % ) or ( 46.6 % ) agree. This means that it is important to use certain technique/s for effective correction of students' written errors.

**Statement No. ( 3 )** " Students' written errors can be radically eradicated without using correction techniques".

Table ( 4.4c )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 25 | 34.2 % |
| Agree | 18 | 24.7 % |
| Undecided | 12 | 16.4 % |
| Disagree | 18 | 24.7 % |
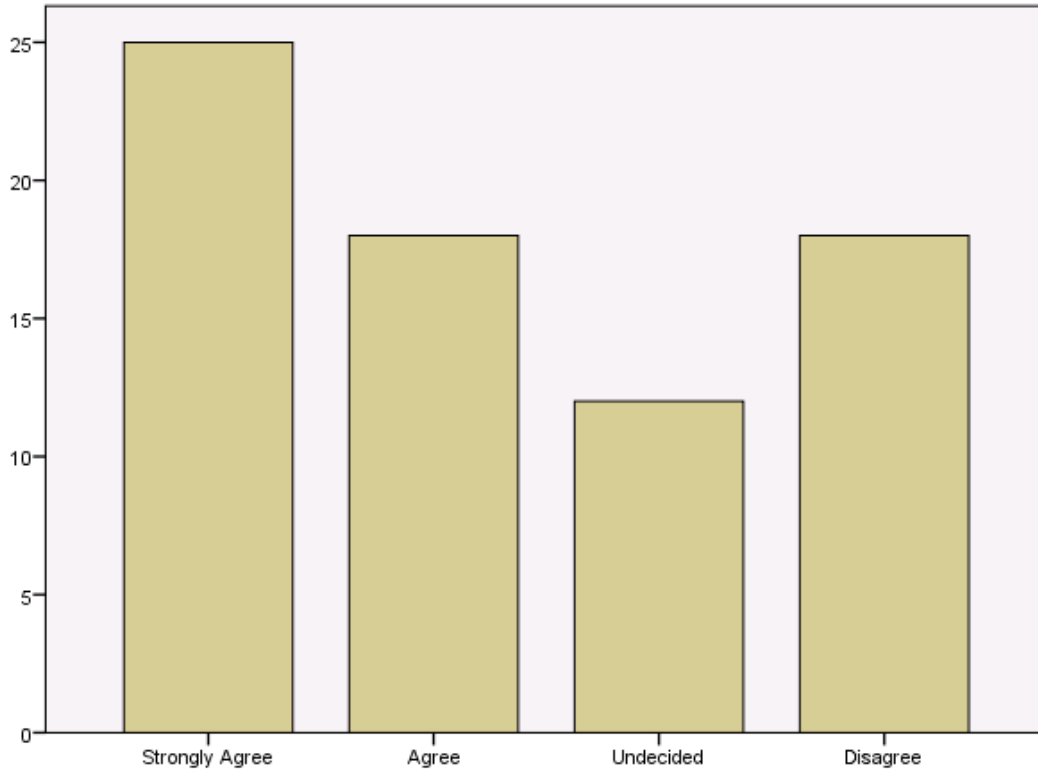
Figure ( 4.6 ) for statement – 3

The highest percentage of strongly agree ( 34.2 % ) as it is shown in the table and diagram ( $4.3_c$ ),  proves that it is possible to entirely eradicate students' written errors via other ways rather than using error correction techniques. In other ways, the respondents can radically extirpate students' written errors without only depending on using the techniques.

**Statement No. – 4** " Giving  systematic feedback on students' written works is tiring".

Table ( $4.4_d$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 16 | 21.9 % |
| Agree | 27 | 37.0 % |
| Undecided | 14 | 19.2 % |
| Disagree | 16 | 21.9 % |
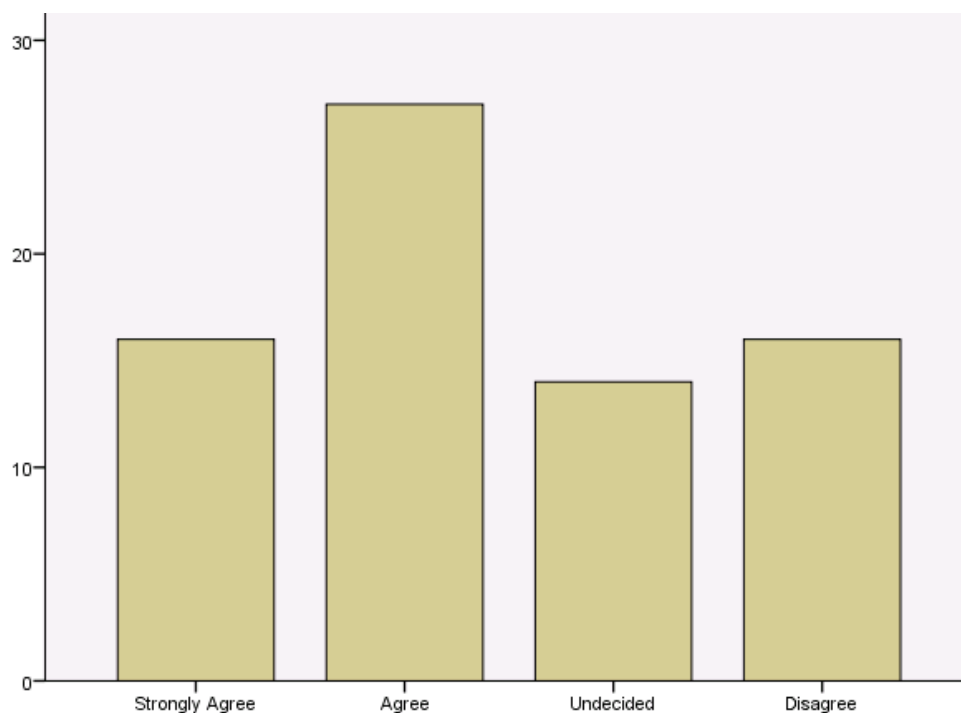
Figure ( 4.7 ) for statement No – 4

From the above table ( 4.4$_d$ ) and diagram ( 4.7 )  more than half of the respondents ( 21.9 %  strongly agree and 37.0 % agree ) show positive attitudes to the statement. Thus, in one way or the other using the techniques to give feedback causes some tiredness to the teachers.

**Statement No. – 5** "Using error correction techniques helps in consolidating correct language forms".

Table ( 4.4$_e$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------|-----------|------------|
| Strongly agree | 18 | 24.7 % |
| Agree | 49 | 67.1 % |
| Undecided | 4 | 5.5 % |
| Disagree | 2 | 2.7 % |
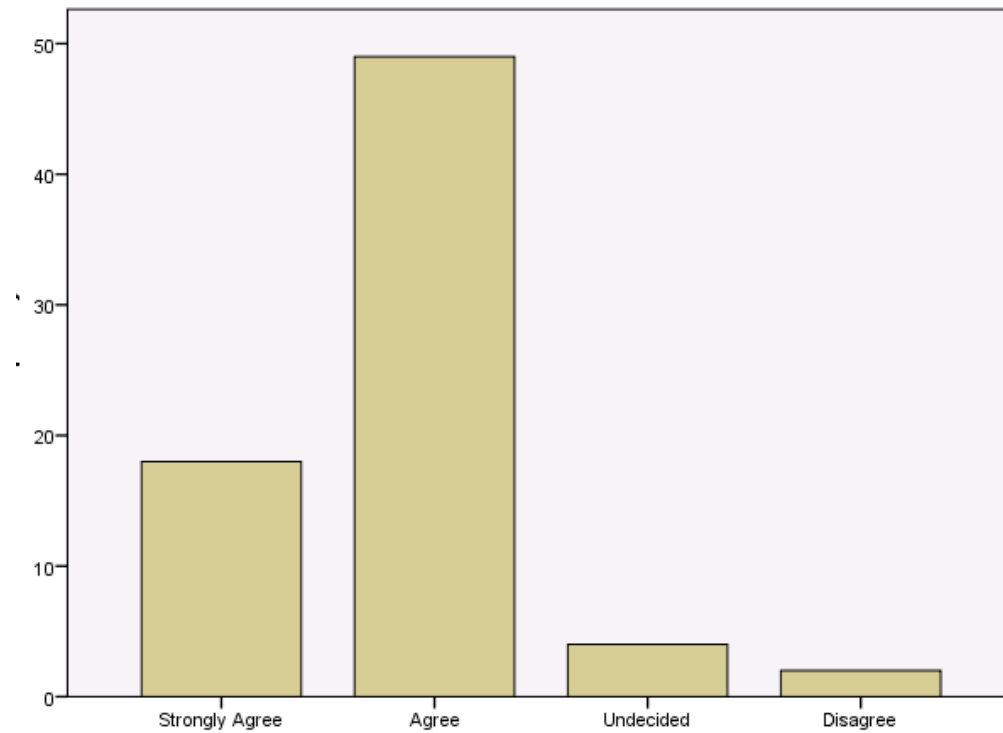
Figure ( 4.8 ) for statement – 5

According to the respondents' point of view as exposed in table ( 4.4$_e$) and figure ( 4.8 ), using error correction techniques has a great role in consolidating the correct forms of the language as the statement attained the highest percentage ( 67.1 % ) with the option agree and ( 24.5 % ) strongly agree. This means that it has been positively scored by the majority of them.

**Statement No. – 6** " Teachers feel bored with systematic correction".

Table ( 4.4$_f$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 8 | 11.0 % |
| Agree | 13 | 17.8 % |
| Undecided | 26 | 35.6 % |
| Disagree | 24 | 32.9 % |
| Strongly disagree | 2 | 2.7 % |
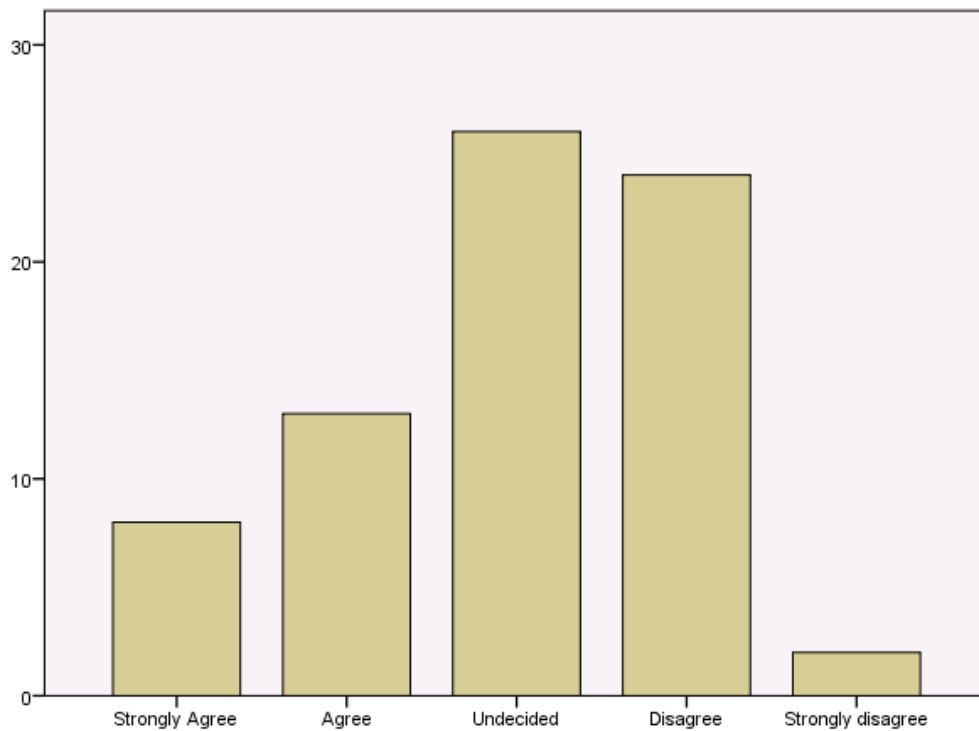
Figure ( 4.9 ) for statement – 6

With the exclusion of undecided scores ( 35.6% ) – from table (4.4$_f$) and figure ( 4.9 ) – and comparing the two sides of the scale which represent positivity and negativity, it is obvious that negativity has achieved more scores ( 32.9% disagree and 2.7% strongly disagree). This interprets that despite the highest percentage of neutrality, teachers do not noticeably bore with giving feedback by means of using error correction techniques. In other words, the respondents who have negative attitudes are more than those who have positive attitudes.

Statement No. – 7  " Teaching writing without correction is a worthless activity".

Table ( 4.4$_g$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 39 | 53.4 % |
| Agree | 26 | 35.6 % |
| Undecided | 6 | 8.2 % |
| Disagree | 2 | 2.7 % |
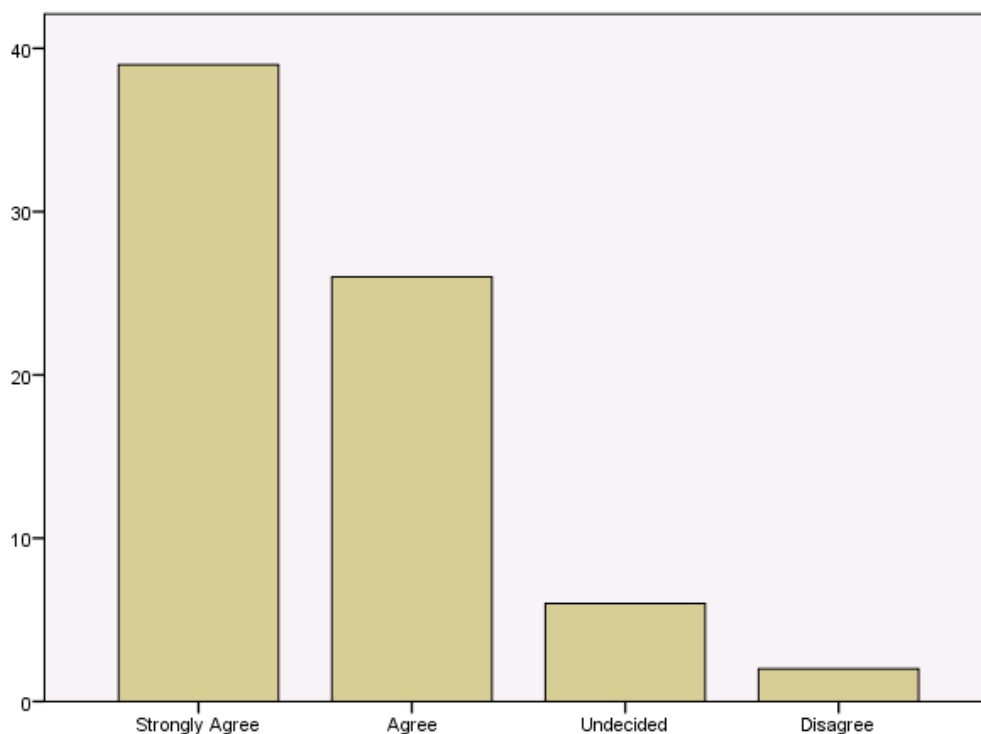
Figure ( 4.10 ) for statement – 7

On the basis of the above-mentioned table ( 4.4$_g$ ) and figure ( 4.10 ) strongly agree ( 53.4 % ) and agree ( 35.6 % ) have achieved the majority of the scores which is an evidence of positive attitudes to the statement. Thus, giving writing exercises without correcting students' production is meaningless activity.

### 4.2.3 The Result of the Questionnaire – Part ( B )

Analyzing the data collected by this group ( B ) of the statements depicts the practical techniques used in treating EFL learners' written errors at secondary level schools. It shows the most beneficial and common ones among the teachers. It also gives some reasons why some techniques are more preferable than the others. The result is shown in table ( 4 ) below. Then it is, in detail, explained and discussed in sub-tables and diagrams that follow the general table.

Table ( 4.5 ) for the general results of the questionnaire – part ( B )

| $Q_s$ | Strongly Agree | | Agree | | Undecided | | Disagree | | Strongly disagree | | Std. Deviation | mean | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | T | % | T | % | T | % | T | % | T | % | | | |
| 1 | 18 | 24.7 | 37 | 50.7 | 12 | 16.4 | 4 | 5.5 | 2 | 2.7 | .936 | 2.11 | 0.00 |
| 2 | 18 | 24.7 | 47 | 64.4 | 4 | 5.5 | 4 | 5.5 | 0 | 0.00 | .722 | 1.92 | 0.00 |
| 3 | 3 | 4.1 | 24 | 57.5 | 20 | 27.4 | 8 | 11.0 | 0 | 0.00 | .746 | 2.45 | 0.00 |
| 4 | 20 | 27.4 | 27 | 37.0 | 8 | 11.0 | 8 | 11.0 | 10 | 13.7 | 1.365 | 2.47 | 0.00 |
| 5 | 18 | 24.7 | 33 | 45.2 | 4 | 5.5 | 12 | 16.4 | 6 | 8.2 | 1.254 | 2.38 | 0.00 |
| 6 | 33 | 45.2 | 34 | 46.6 | 6 | 8.2 | 0 | 0.00 | 0 | 0.00 | .635 | 1.63 | 0.00 |
| 7 | 22 | 30.1 | 33 | 45.2 | 12 | 16.4 | 6 | 8.2 | 0 | 0.00 | .897 | 2.03 | 0.00 |
| 8 | 24 | 32.9 | 33 | 45.2 | 8 | 11.0 | 8 | 11.0 | 0 | 0.00 | .943 | 2.00 | 0.00 |
| 9 | 30 | 41.1 | 33 | 45.2 | 6 | 8.2 | 4 | 5.5 | 0 | 0.00 | .821 | 1.78 | 0.00 |
| 10 | 30 | 41.1 | 30 | 41.1 | 5 | 6.8 | 8 | 11.0 | 0 | 0.00 | .957 | 1.88 | 0.00 |
| 11 | 26 | 35.6 | 33 | 45.2 | 4 | 5.5 | 10 | 13.7 | 0 | 0.00 | .986 | 1.97 | 0.00 |
| 12 | 20 | 27.4 | 23 | 31.5 | 26 | 35.6 | 4 | 5.5 | 0 | 0.00 | .908 | 2.19 | 0.00 |
| 13 | 30 | 41.1 | 33 | 45.2 | 6 | 8.2 | 4 | 5.5 | 0 | 0.00 | .821 | 1.78 | 0.00 |
| 14 | 33 | 45.2 | 34 | 46.6 | 2 | 2.7 | 4 | 5.5 | 0 | 0.00 | .780 | 1.68 | 0.00 |
| 15 | 20 | 27.4 | 23 | 31.5 | 22 | 30.1 | 8 | 11.0 | 0 | 0.00 | 1.436 | 2.66 | 0.00 |
| 16 | 30 | 41.1 | 31 | 42.5 | 4 | 5.5 | 6 | 8.2 | 2 | 2.7 | 1.021 | 1.89 | 0.00 |
| 17 | 30 | 41.1 | 39 | 53.4 | 3 | 4.1 | 1 | 1.4 | 0 | 0.00 | .628 | 1.66 | 0.00 |
| 18 | 24 | 32.9 | 30 | 41.1 | 8 | 11.0 | 11 | 15.1 | 0 | 0.00 | 1.024 | 2.08 | 0.00 |
| 19 | 15 | 20.5 | 45 | 61.6 | 6 | 8.2 | 7 | 9.6 | 0 | 0.00 | .822 | 2.07 | 0.00 |
| 20 | 9 | 12.3 | 34 | 46.6 | 23 | 31.5 | 7 | 9.6 | 0 | 0.00 | .827 | 2.38 | 0.00 |
| 21 | 31 | 42.5 | 24 | 32.9 | 16 | 21.9 | 2 | 2.7 | 0 | 0.00 | .861 | 1.85 | 0.00 |
| 22 | 30 | 41.1 | 31 | 42.5 | 4 | 5.5 | 6 | 8.2 | 2 | 2.7 | 1.021 | 1.89 | 0.00 |
| mean | 22.9 | 30.7 | 30.8 | 45.3 | 9.5 | 13.0 | 6.0 | 8.23 | 1.0 | 1.36 | | | |

**Statement No. – 1** " Selective correction is preferable to the comprehensive one".

Table ( $4.5_a$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 18 | 24.7 % |
| Agree | 37 | 50.7 % |
| Undecided | 12 | 16.4 % |
| Disagree | 4 | 5.5 % |
| Strongly disagree | 2 | 2.7 % |
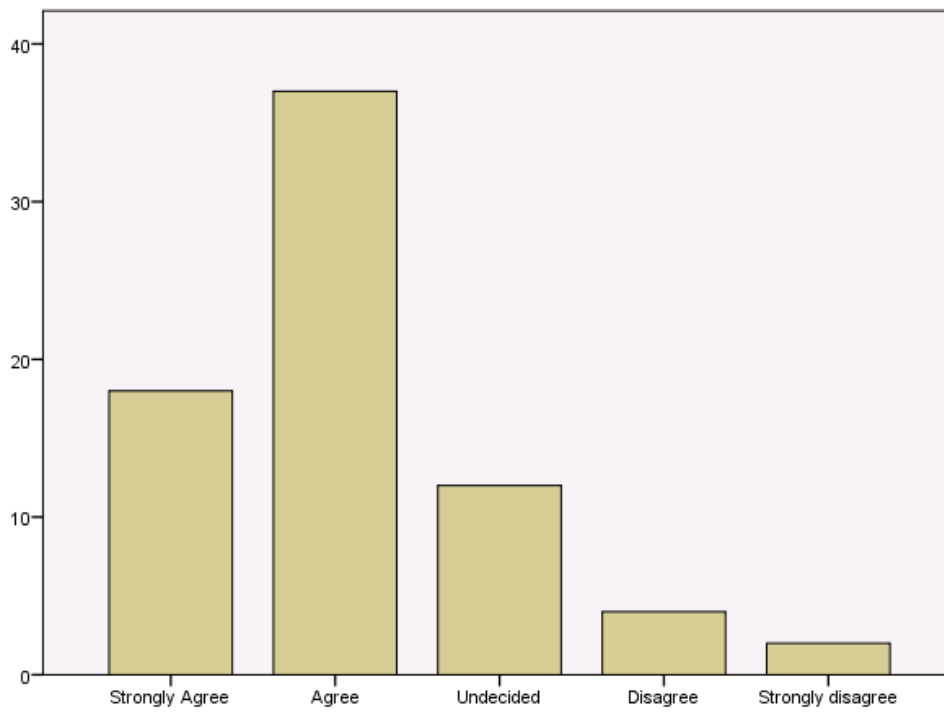


Figure ( 4.11 ) for statement – 1

As strongly agree ( 24.7 % ) and agree ( 50.7 % ) represent the majority of the respondents (55) from (73), the statement is positively scored. Therefore, teachers in the locality prefer selective correction ( to focus on certain error/s to be corrected in one task ) to the comprehensive correction ( indicating every error that does occur in the task ).

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**Statement No. – 2** " Analytical correction is useful but time-consuming".

Table ( 4.4$_b$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 18 | 24.7 % |
| Agree | 47 | 64.4 % |
| Undecided | 4 | 5.5 % |
| Disagree | 4 | 5.5 % |
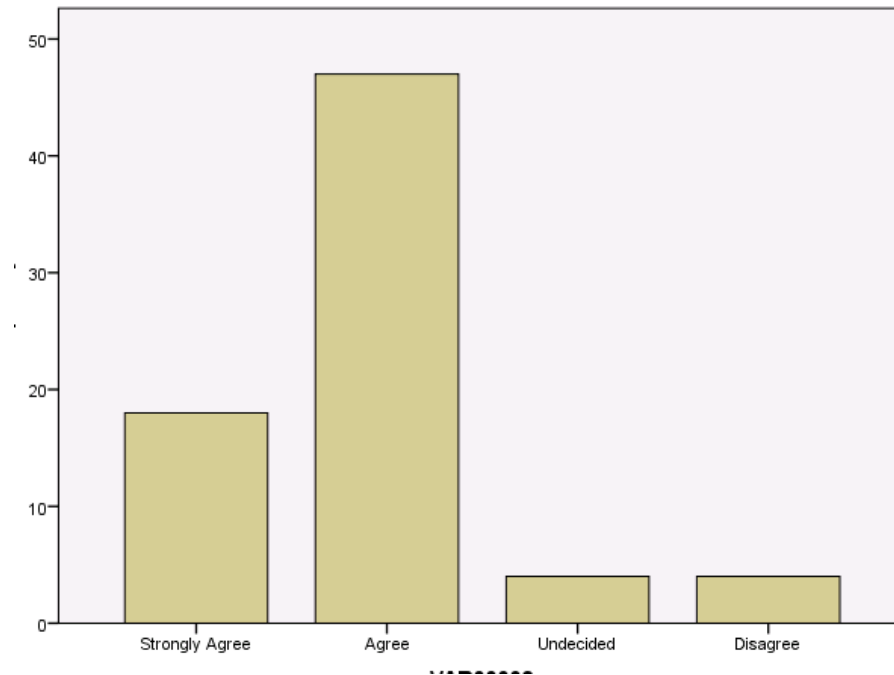


Figure ( 4.12 ) for statement – 2

Strongly agree has achieved 24.7 % and agree has achieved 64.4 % whereas the rest of the options ( undecided and disagree ) have only achieved 5.5 % each. It is obvious that the majority of the scores ( 89 % ) are obtained by strongly agree and agree. Such result means that analytical correction which is to correct the errors and analyze them to know their types and causes is the most beneficial, but to the teachers it consumes time.

**Statement No. – 3** " Impressionistic ( holistic ) correction allows error fossilization".

Table ( 4.5$_c$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 3 | 4.1 % |
| Agree | 42 | 57.5 % |
| Undecided | 20 | 27.4 % |
| Disagree | 8 | 11.0 % |
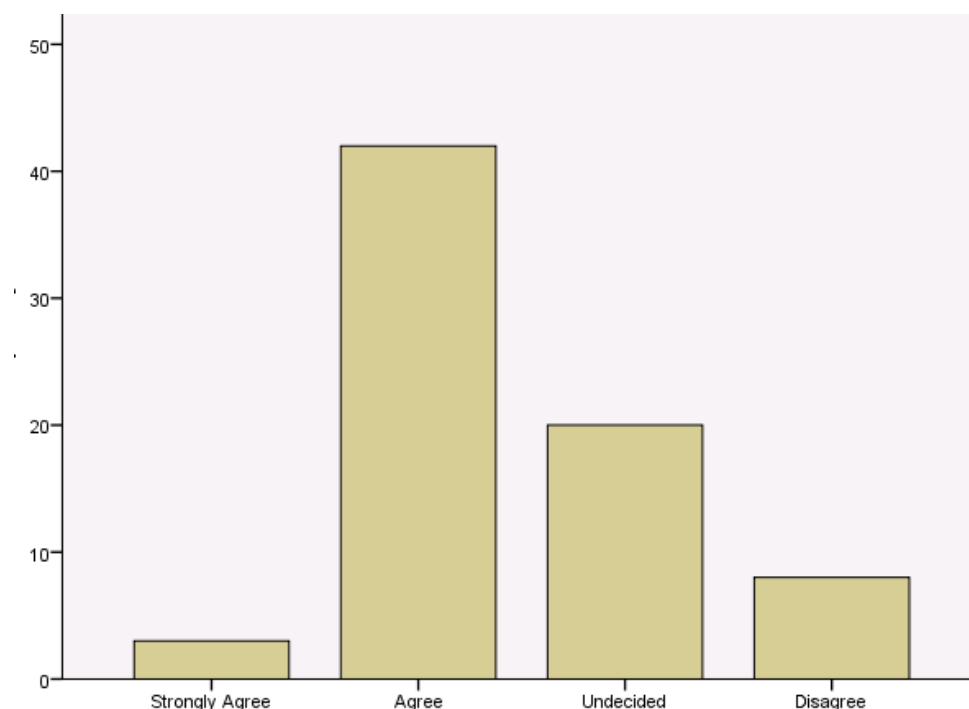


Figure ( 4.13 ) for statement – 3

The result is ( 57.5 % ) agree as the highest percentage, (4.1 % ) strongly agree, (27,4 % ) undecided and ( 11.00 % ) disagree. This emphasizes the notion that has been stated by the former statement because impressionistic is the antithesis of analytic. So, holistic correction is not preferred by the teachers at the level because it leads to error fossilization.

**Statement No. – 4** " Postponed correction is more beneficial than immediate correction"

Table ( 4.5$_d$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 20 | 11.0 % |
| Agree | 27 | 17.8 % |
| Undecided | 8 | 35.6 % |
| Disagree | 8 | 32.9 % |
| Strongly disagree | 10 | 2.7 % |
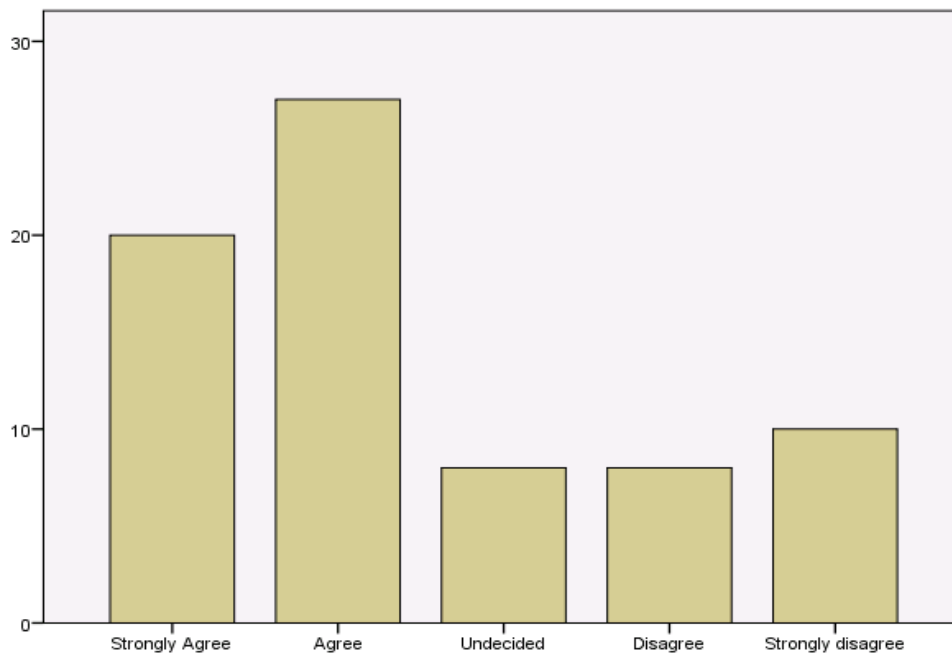


Figure ( 4.14 ) for statement – 4

From the result shown by the table and diagram above, each of the five options has gained a considerable number of scores as: ( 27.4 % ) strongly agree, ( 37.00 ) agree, ( 11.00 ) undecided, ( 11.00 ) disagree and ( 13.7 ) strongly disagree. This demonstrates that there is a sense of controversy over making a decision on which technique is best liked. However, the right scale is the preponderant in that it represents viewpoints of about two thirds of the respondents. Hence, delayed correction is better than correction on the spot. It corresponds the strategy of giving time for thinking when a question is asked.

**Statement No. – 5** " Letting written errors to disappear for themselves by time, adds nothing to students' writing skills".

Table ( 4.5$_e$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 18 | 24.7 % |
| Agree | 33 | 45.2 % |
| Undecided | 4 | 5.5 % |
| Disagree | 12 | 16.4 % |
| Strongly disagree | 6 | 8.2 % |
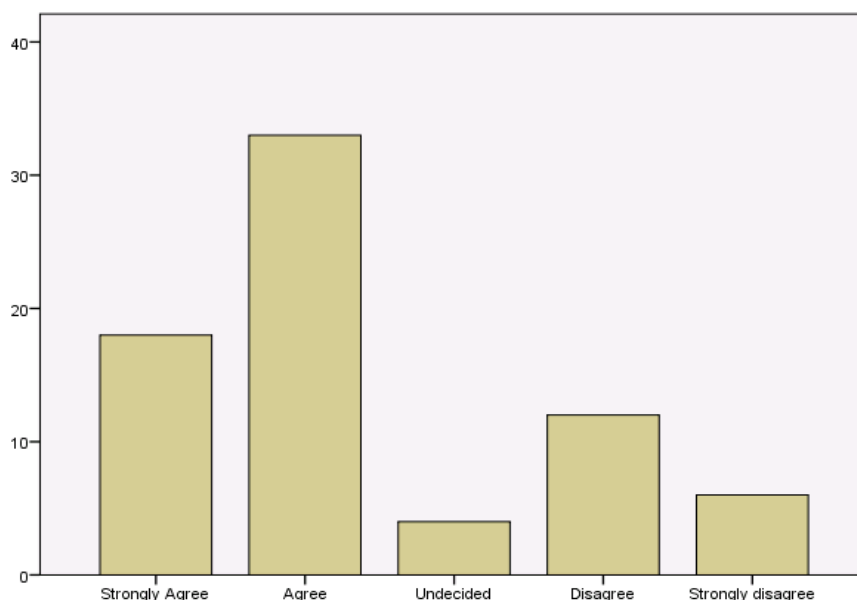


Figure ( 4.15 ) for statement –5

As some educators like Truscott states that correcting learners' error/s, in particular, of grammar is a dramatic failure of the teacher himself, teachers in Eastern Gezira Locality contradict the notion and declare that adopting hand-off technique means adding nothing to students' writing skills via writing exercises. This is through their responses to the above-mentioned statement which have resulted in (24.7 % ) strongly agree, ( 45.2 % ) agree, ( 5.5 % ) undecided ( 16.4 % ) disagree and ( 8.2 % ) strongly disagree. In this sense the purposefulness of writing exercises depends on giving feedback.

**Statement No – 6** " Using "checklist" helps teachers determine individual differences among their students".

Table ( $4.5_f$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 33 | 45.5 % |
| Agree | 34 | 46.6 % |
| Undecided | 6 | 8.2 % |
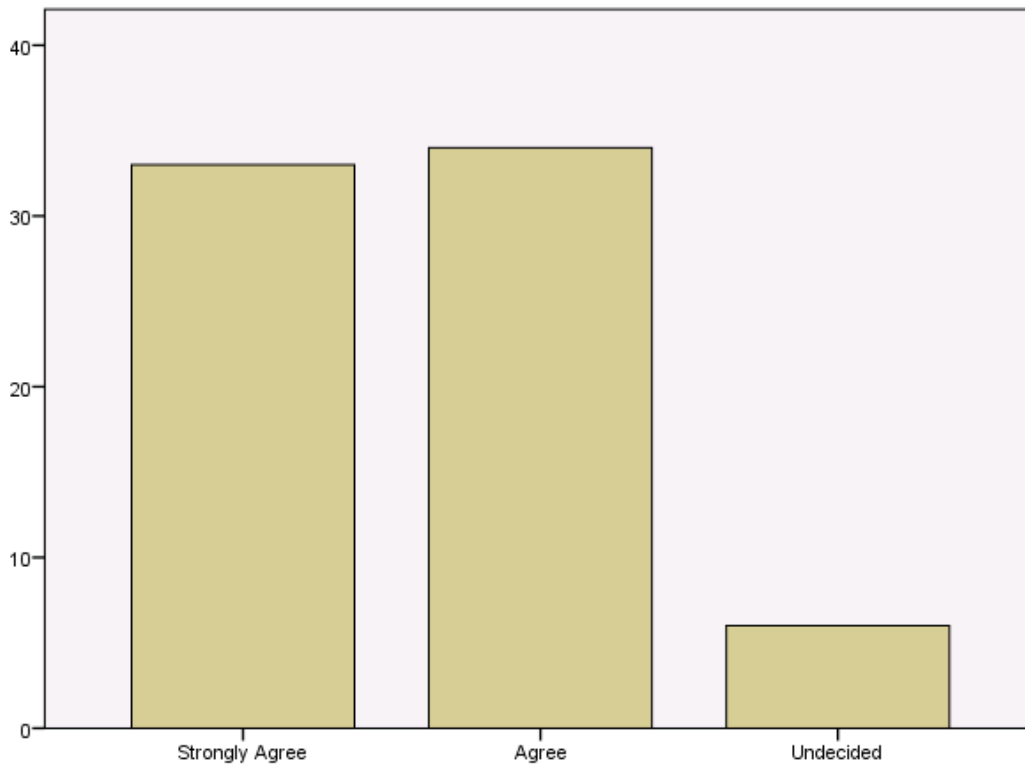


Figure ( 4.16 ) for statement – 6

According to the result illustrated by the table ( $4.5_f$ ) and figure ( 4.16 ), almost all the respondents either strongly agreed ( 45.5 % ) or agreed ( 46.6 %). Consequently, such result is an indicative of the fact that using checklist in giving feedback on students' written tasks can help teachers in identifying individual learners' differences which will affect the overall teaching strategies.

**Statement No. – 7** " Taking  remedial work is suitable only for error/s made by the majority of the students".

Table ( $4.5_g$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 22 | 30.1 % |
| Agree | 33 | 45.2 % |
| Undecided | 12 | 16.4 % |
| Disagree | 6 | 8.2 % |
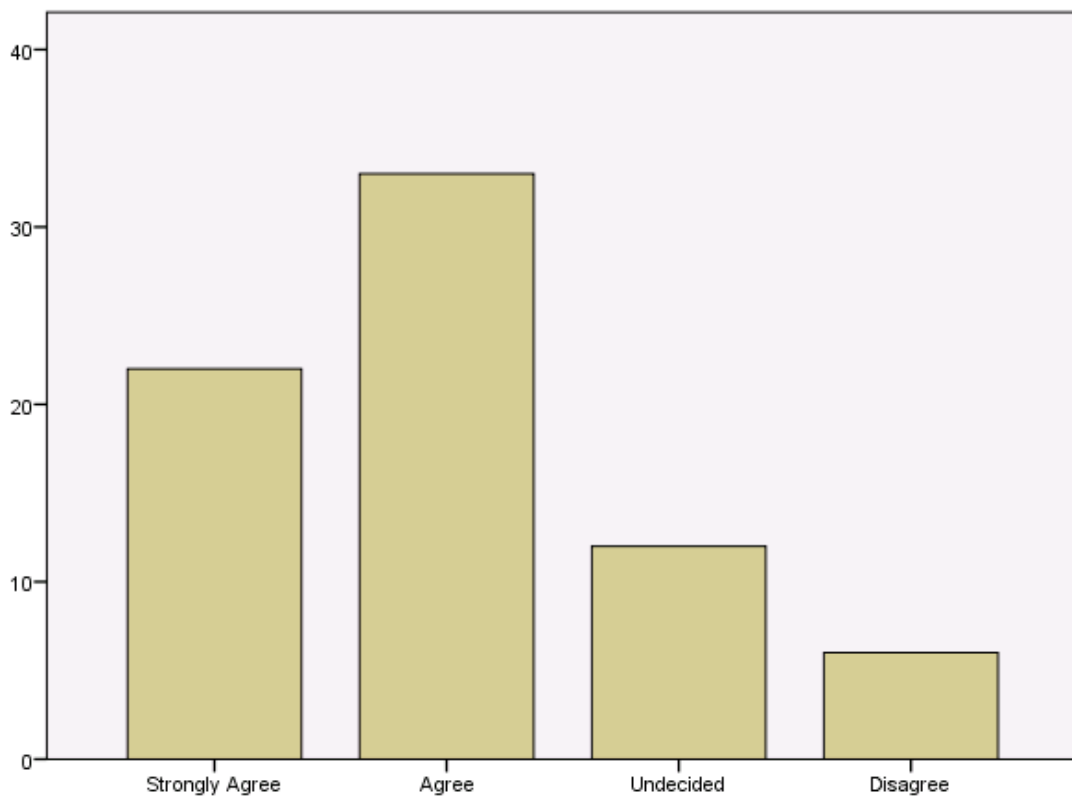


Figure ( 4.17 ) for statement – 7

The statistical analysis of the data collected via the aforementioned statement has resulted in ( 30.1 % ) strongly agree, ( 45.2 % ) agree, ( 16.4 % ) undecided and ( 8.2 % ) disagree. The clear suggestion made by this result is that taking remedial work is appropriate for the errors made by the majority of the students.

**Statement No. – 8** " Self-correction leads to disappearing collaboration in the classroom".

Table ( 4.5$_h$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 24 | 32.9 % |
| Agree | 33 | 45.2 % |
| Undecided | 8 | 11.0 % |
| Disagree | 8 | 11.0 % |
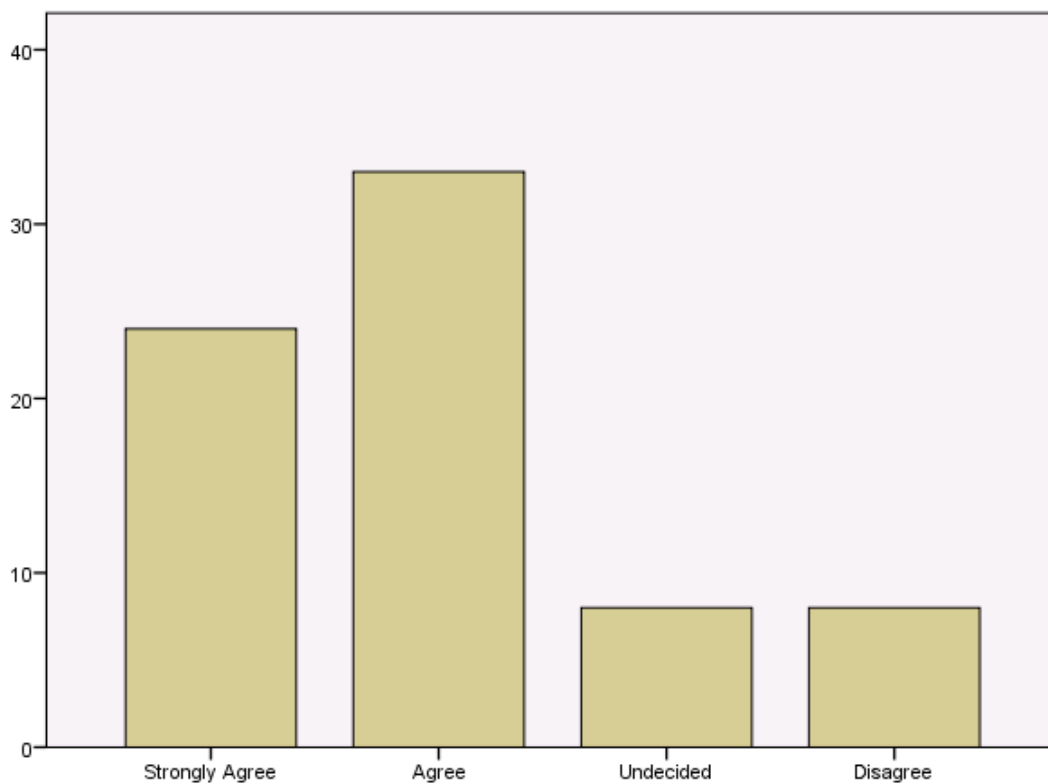


Figure ( 4.18 ) for statement No. – 8

In spite of the fact that self-correction has some benefits, it shows the shortcoming of interrupting or terminating collaboration in the classroom. This is according to what has been demonstrated by the result herein above. So, more than two thirds of the respondents have positive attitudes towards the statement ( 32.9 % strongly agree and 45.2 % agree) strongly supports the concept.

**Statement No. – 9** " Teacher-correction saves time".

Table ( 4.5$_i$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------|-----------|------------|
| Strongly agree | 9 | 41.1 % |
| Agree | 33 | 45.2 % |
| Undecided | 6 | 8.2 % |
| Disagree | 4 | 5.5 % |
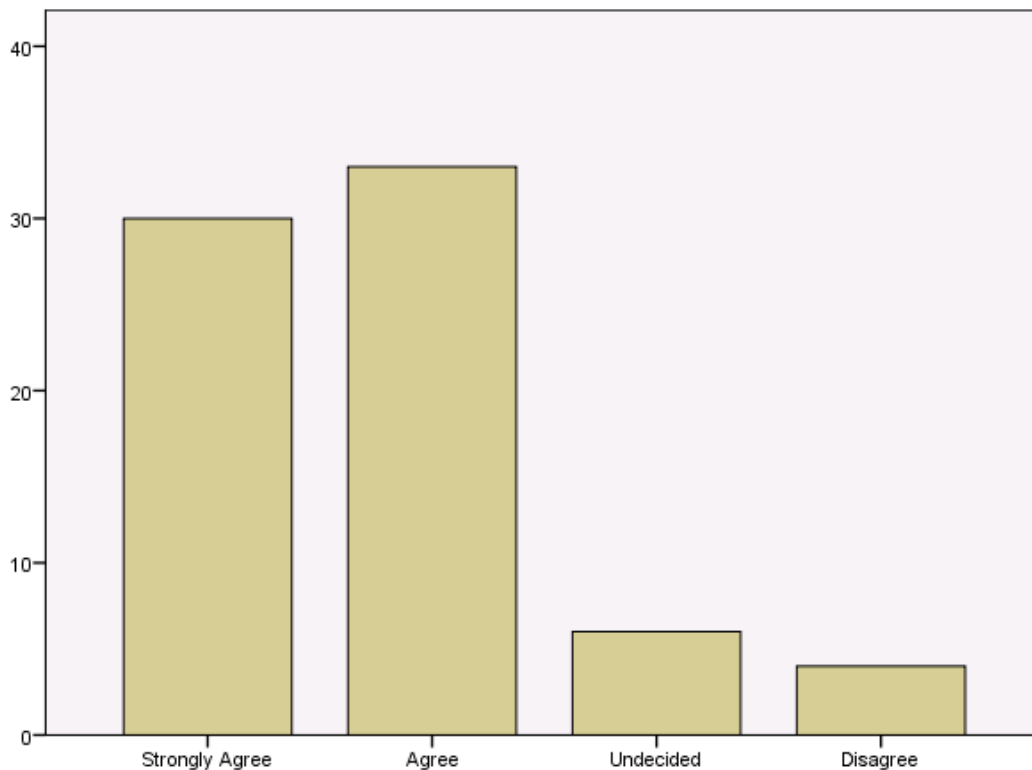


Figure ( 4.19 ) for statement No. – 9

(41.1% ) strongly agree, ( 45.2 % ) agree, ( 8.2 % ) undecided and ( 5.5 % ) disagree means that the scale of positivity is the predominant one. This is a good proof of the idea that teacher-correction saves time. Therefore, it plays a great role in the process of teaching, but such a role may be conditional upon certain surroundings such as classroom size, light teaching loads, students' level of proficiency, etc.

**Statement No. – 10** " Using error logs leads to a steady and gradual promotion of writing skills".

Table ( 4.5$_j$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Undecided | 5 | 6.8 % |
| Disagree | 8 | 11.0 % |
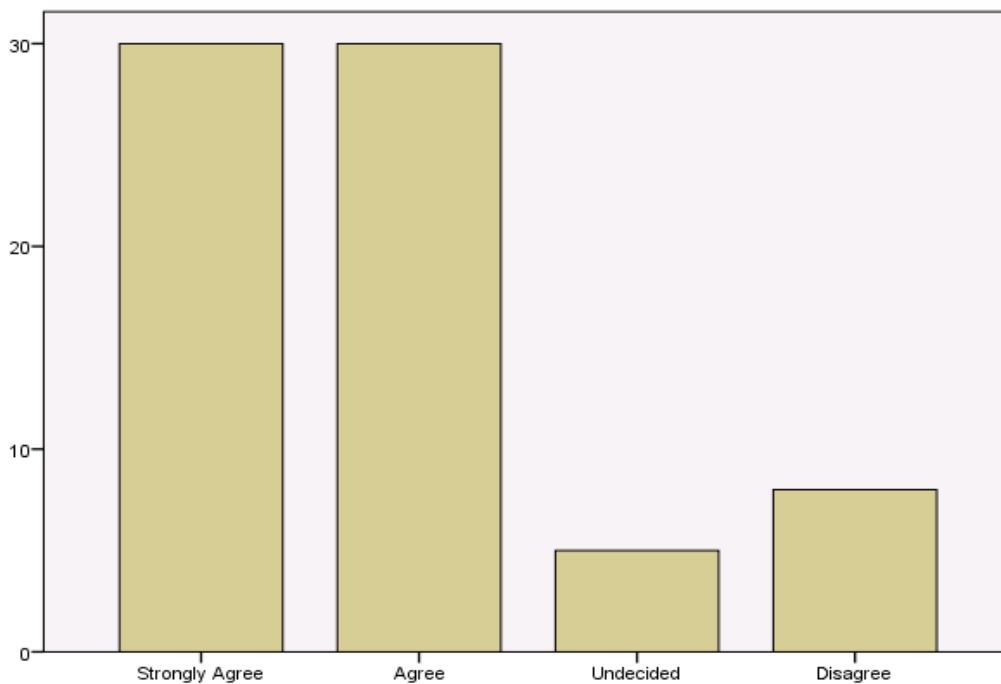


Figure ( 4.20 ) for statement No. – 10

EFL teachers in Eastern Gezira Locality have joined their views to those educators' or markers' who believe in the great role of using error logs in correction, this is according to the results that have been set forth in the table and diagram above. They show that ( 41.1 % ) strongly agree, ( 41.1 % ) agree, (6.5 % ) undecided and ( 11.00 % ) disagree. The denotation is that the statement is accepted which means using error logs can lead to the graduate and accurate promotion of students' writing skills.

**Statement No. – 11** " Conferencing (discussion between teacher and student about the error/s ) is  suitable only in small classes".

Frequency table ( $4.5_k$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 26 | 35.6 % |
| Agree | 33 | 45.2 % |
| Undecided | 4 | 5.5 % |
| Disagree | 10 | 13.7 % |
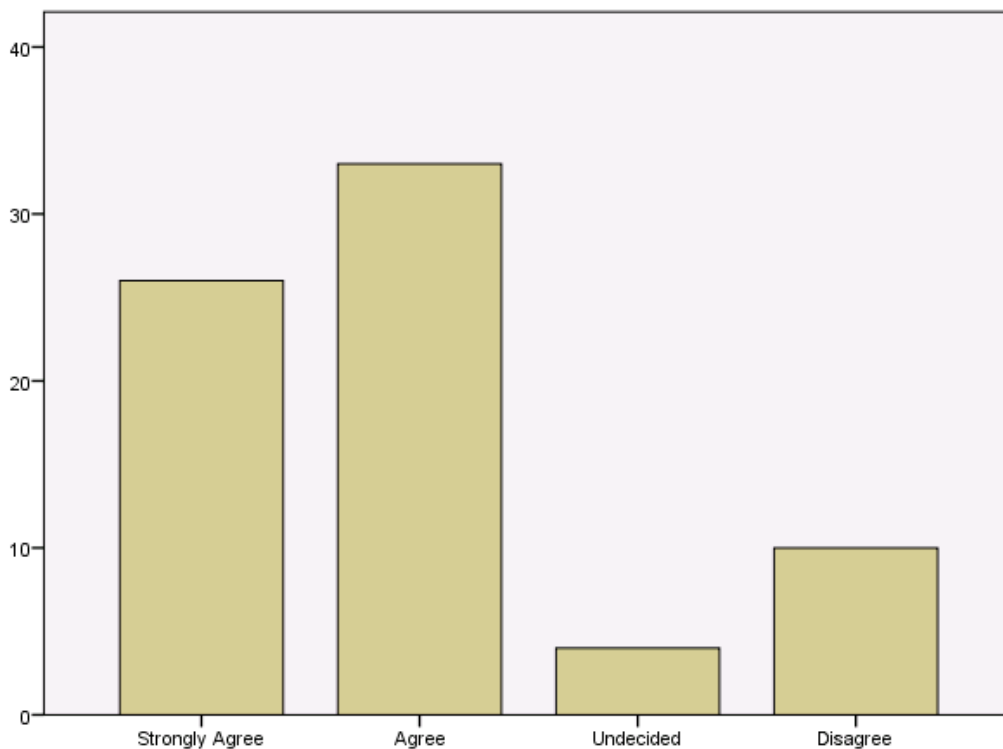


Figure ( $4.21_k$ ) for statement No. – 11

The aforesaid table and diagram ( 35.6 % ) strongly agree, ( 45.2 %) agree, ( 5.5 % ) undecided and ( 13.7 % ) disagree, imply that scoring is for the benefit of acceptance. It explains the advantages of using the technique but only in small classes. Another inference is that if the teacher has not got small class he/she should not think of using such technique.

**Statement No – 12** " Peer-correction in large classes is a matter of chaos".

Table ( $4.5_1$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 20 | 27.4 % |
| Agree | 23 | 31.5 % |
| Undecided | 26 | 35.6 % |
| Disagree | 4 | 5.5 % |
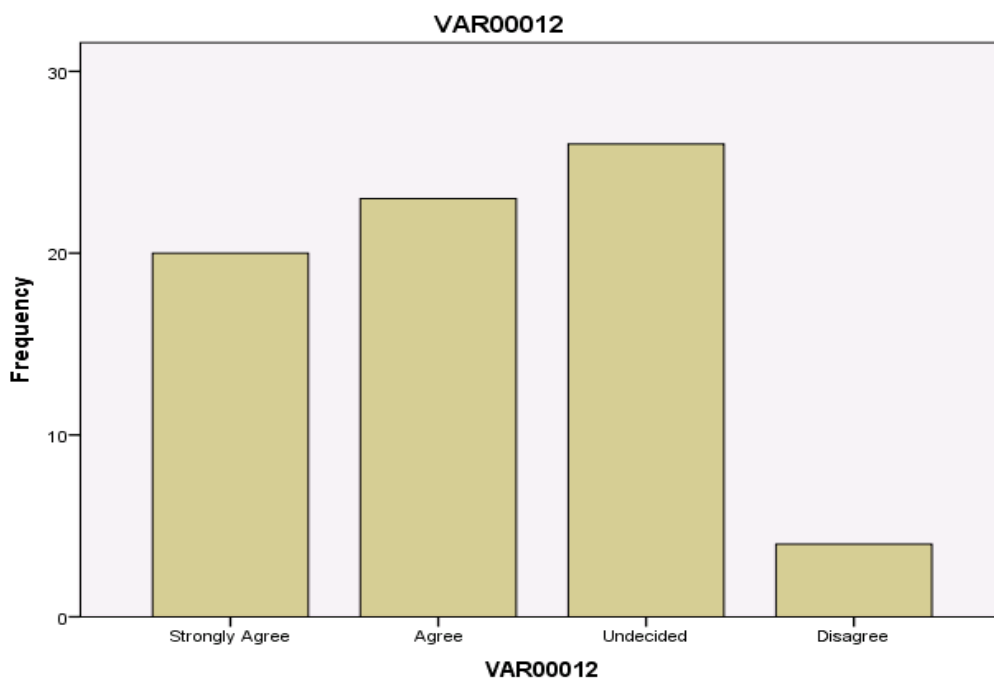


Figure ( 4.22 ) for statement No. – 12

In accordance with the table and diagram above, the result is illustrated as: ( 27.4 % ) strongly agree, ( 31.5 % ) agree, ( 35.6 % ) neutral and ( 5.5 % ) disagree. The highest percentage of the option undecided means about one-third of the teachers are unable to decide. However, the total scores of strongly agree and agree represents more than half of the respondents. Thus, it suggests that peer-correction is fruitful but only in small classes. In other words, peer-correction can cause chaos in large classes.

**Statement No. – 13** " Identifying the place and type of error/s makes correction more utilized ".

Table ( 4.5$_m$ )

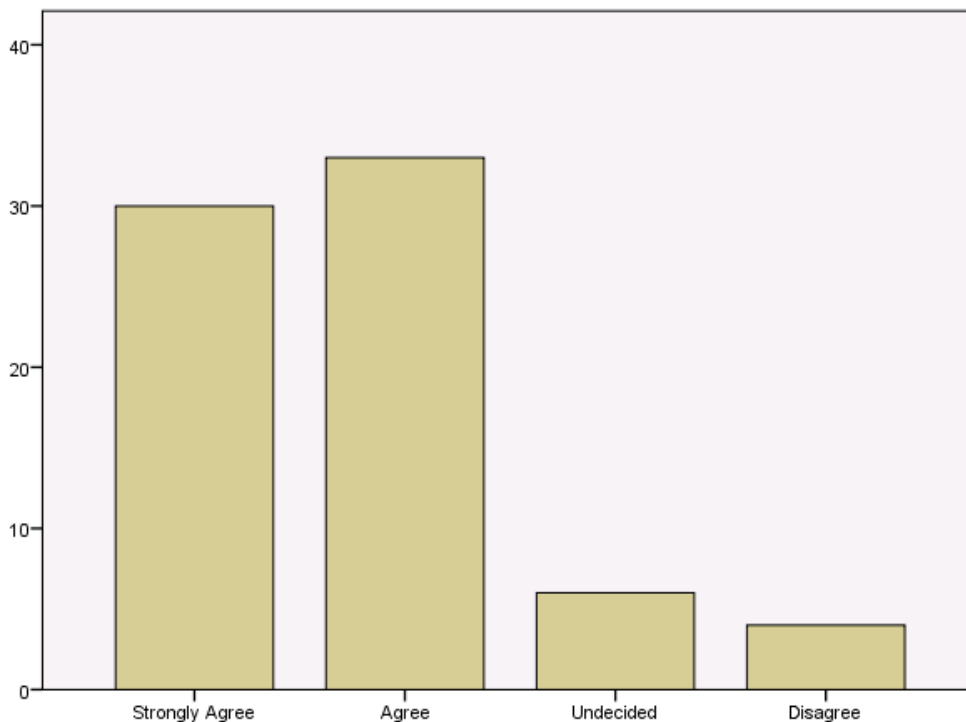| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Agree | 33 | 45.2 % |
| Undecided | 6 | 8.2 % |
| Disagree | 4 | 5.5 % |



Figure ( 4.23 ) for statement No. –13

A clear decision can be made about the role of error identification ( pointing out its type and place ) in correcting learners' written tasks via considering the result expounded by the foregoing table and diagram. It is exposed as: ( 41.1 % ) strongly agree, ( 45.2 % ) agree, ( 8.2 % ) undecided and ( 5.5 % ) disagree. It is obvious that the statement is strongly accepted. So, the decision is that error identification makes the process of correction, which is the core of giving writing exercises, more effective.

**Statement No. – 14** " Using "projection" technique encourages competition among the students".

Table ( $4.5_n$ )

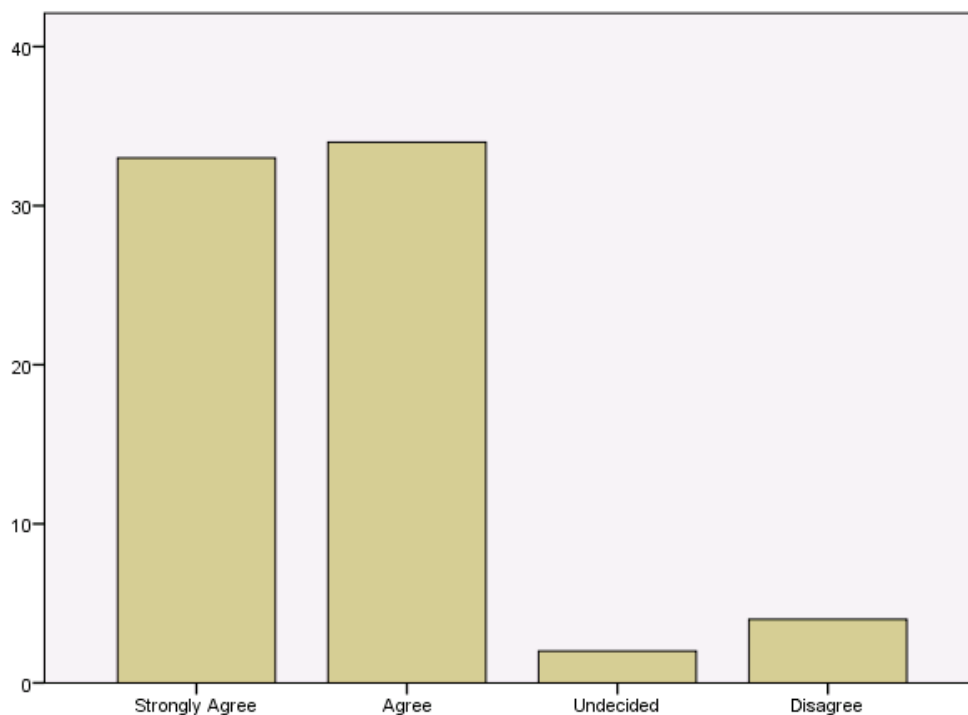| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------|-----------|------------|
| Strongly agree | 33 | 45.2 % |
| Agree | 34 | 46.6 % |
| Undecided | 2 | 2.7 % |
| Disagree | 4 | 5.5 % |



Figure ( 4.24 ) for statement No. – 14

Like most of the results, strongly agree is ( 45.2 % ), agree is ( 46.6 % ), undecided is ( 2.7 % ) an disagree is ( 5.5 %) which indicates a high percentage of acceptance. This leads to the resolution that projection technique has a great role of encouraging competition among the learners. In the this sense, it can be used as a tool for both eradiating learners' written errors and motivating them to learn more. However, it is not available in almost all our schools because it is a sign of using modern devices in the process of teaching and well-infrastructural schools.

**Statement No. – 15** " Weak students stay passive in 'group composition' activity".

Table ( 4.5$_\text{o}$ )

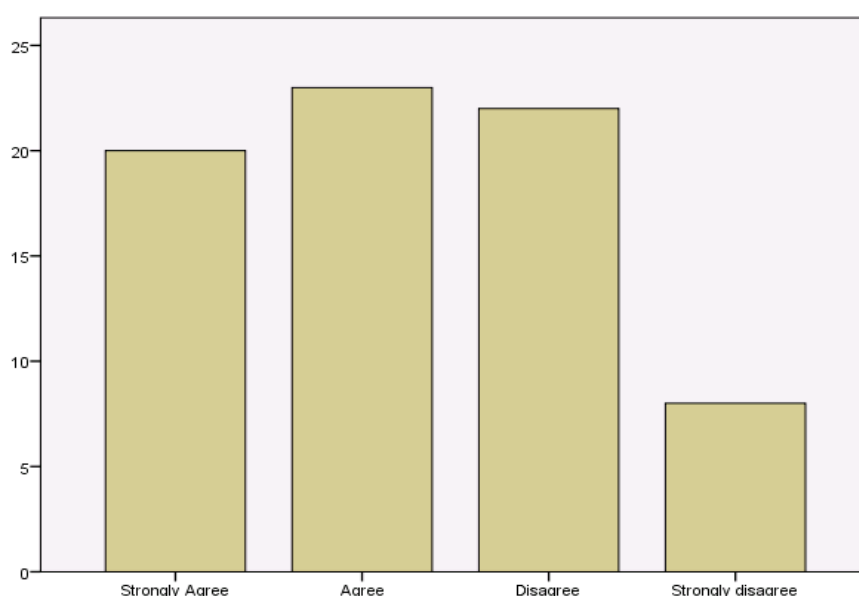| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 20 | 27.4 % |
| Agree | 23 | 31.5 % |
| Undecided | 22 | 31.1 % |
| Disagree | 8 | 11.0 % |



Figure ( 4.25 ) for statement No – 15

In the light of EFL teachers' attitudes that represented in the previously mentioned table with the figure, group composition technique is helpful to the teachers but the drawback of remaining weak and careless students completely passive and inactive makes it invalid. This is inferred from their responses to the statement which have been shown as: ( 27.4 % ) strongly agree, ( 31.5 % ) agree, ( 31.1 % ) undecided and (11.00 % )  disagree. It is clear that the statement is approved y more than half of the respondents. So, this technique is preferred by the teachers who seek for decreasing their teaching loads without taking care of individual students' differences or working in over-crowded classes.

**Statement No. – 16** " 'Exchanging Composition' technique makes some students' works messy".

Table ( 4.5$_p$ )

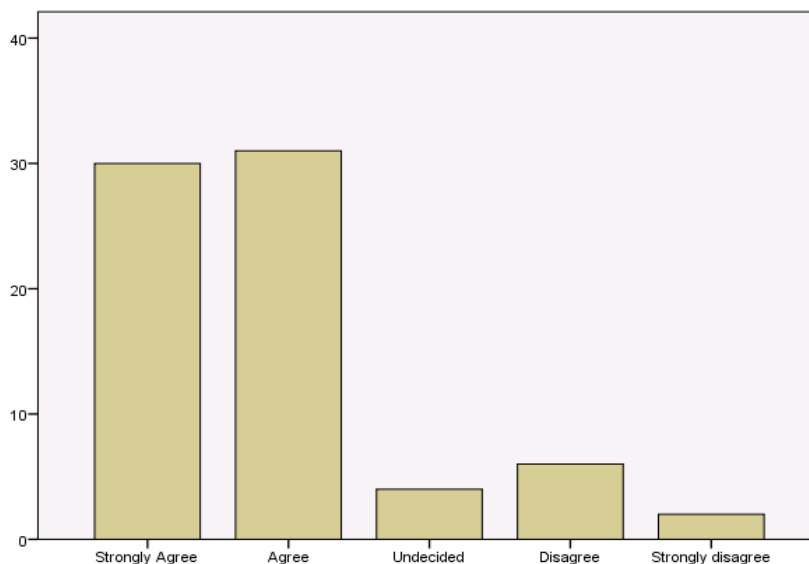| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Agree | 31 | 42.5 % |
| Undecided | 4 | 5.5 % |
| Disagree | 6 | 2.8 % |
| Strongly disagree | 2 | 2.7 % |



Figure ( 4.26 ) for statement No. – 16

The statistical analysis of the data collected via the above statement has resulted in ( 41.1 % ) strongly agree, ( 42.5 % ) agree, ( 5.5 % ) undecided, ( 2.8 % ) disagree and ( 2.7 % ) strongly disagree. It points to the predominance of agree and strongly agree ( 83.6 % ) which are regarded as the positive side of the scale. This interprets that the teachers live with the actual problem/s caused by exchanging composition because in the reality some students are very careless and untidy in dealing with their school properties whereas others are highly careful and tidy. So such a technique in such multi-type of class is entirely demotivating on the part of the students.

**Statement No. – 17** " Discussing common errors in the class is useful for their uprooting".

Table ( $4.5_q$ )

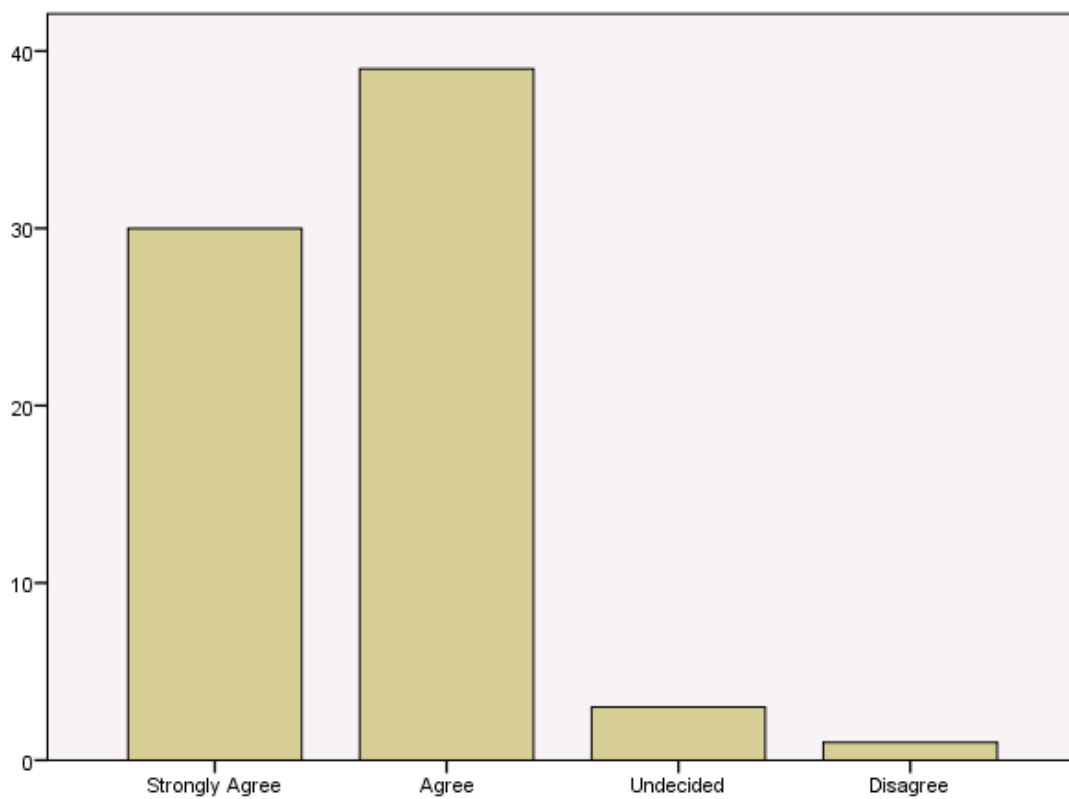| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Agree | 39 | 53.4 % |
| Undecided | 3 | 4.1 % |
| Disagree | 1 | 1.4 % |



Figure ( 4.27 ) for statement  No. – 17

In the table and figure here above the result is ( 41.4 % ) strongly agree, ( 53..4 % ) agree, ( 4.1 % ) undecided and ( 1.4 % ) disagree. The implication is that the statement is agreed by almost all the respondents. This means  the teachers believe that discussing common error/s in the class leads to their entire eradication.

**Statement No. – 18** " Error reoccurrence can be ended through 'charting errors' ".

Frequency table ( $4.5_r$ )

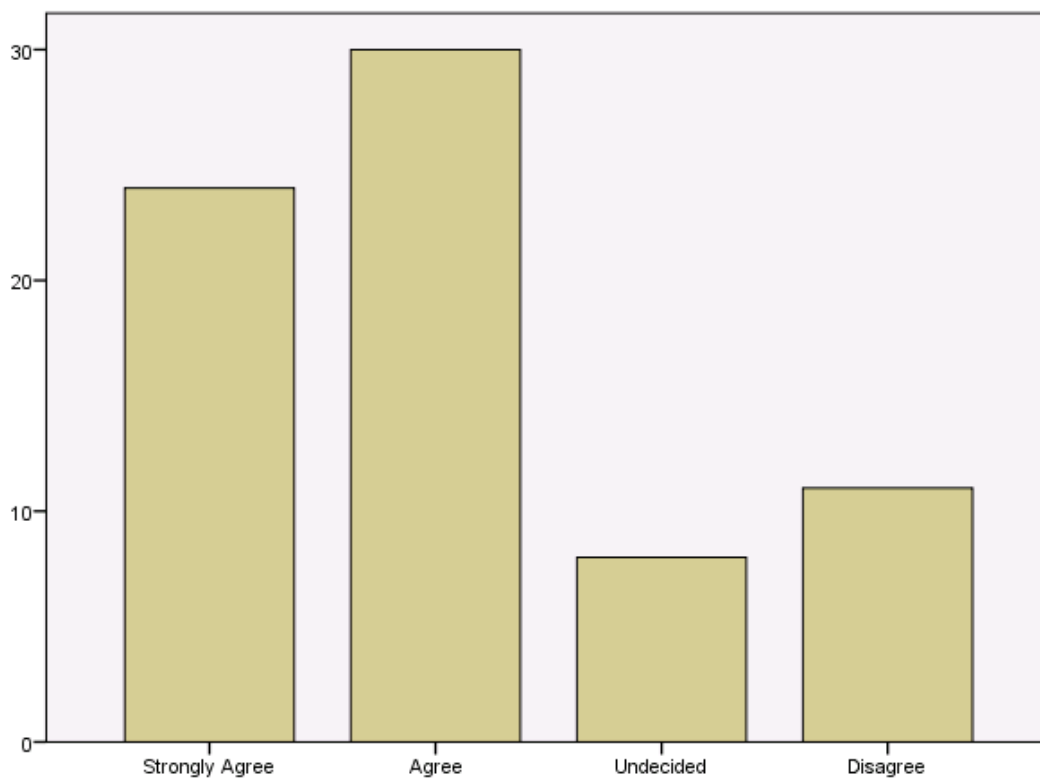| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------|-----------|------------|
| Strongly agree | 24 | 32.9 % |
| Agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Undecided | 8 | 11.0 % |
| Disagree | 11 | 15.1 % |



Figure ( 4.28 ) for statement No. – 18

( 24.9 % ) strongly agree, ( 41.1 % ) agree, ( 11.00 % ), and ( 15.1 % ) is the result of the analyzed data collected by the statement above. It is observed that the two options strongly agree and agree have gained more than two-thirds of the scores. This designates the acceptability of the notion which means that "charting errors" is the best technique for stopping error reoccurrence.

**Statement No. – 19** " Using learners' dictionary in correction distract them from correcting the intended errors"

Table ( 4.5$_s$ )

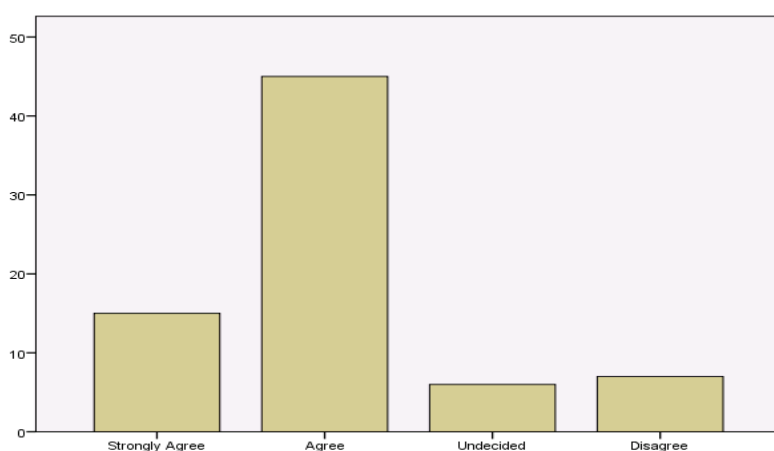| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------|-----------|------------|
| Strongly agree | 15 | 20.5 % |
| Agree | 45 | 61.6 % |
| Undecided | 6 | 8.2 % |
| Disagree | 7 | 9.6 % |



Figure ( 4.29 ) for statement No. – 19

Using learners' dictionary in whatever activity concerning the process of learning seems to be an acceptable idea. But EFL teachers in Eastern Gezira Locality have their own points of view about using the dictionary, in particular, in correcting students' written errors. These views are exposed by means of the aforementioned table and figure which illustrate ( 20.5 % ) strongly agree, ( 61.6 % ) agree, ( 8.2 % ) undecided and ( 9.6 % ) disagree. This means the teachers agreed with the idea raised by the statement which is against using learners' dictionary in correcting written error/s in that it distract them from focusing on the intended error/s. such distraction may result in other shortcomings like wasting time, reoccupation with dictionary use, etc.

**Statement No. – 20** " Using "thinking prompts" technique activates learners' linguistic competence".

Frequency table ( $4.5_t$ )

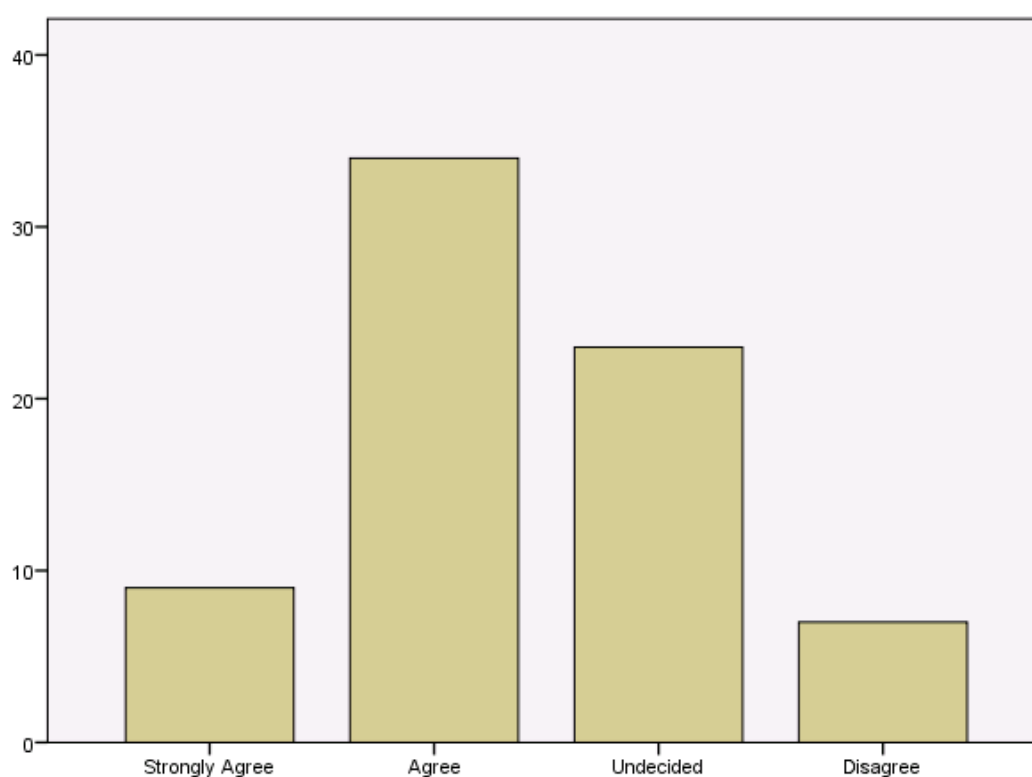| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 9 | 12.3% |
| Agree | 34 | 46.6 % |
| Undecided | 23 | 31.5 % |
| Disagree | 7 | 9.6 % |



Figure ( 4.30 ) for statement No. – 20

As it is shown in the above table and figure strongly agree has obtained ( 12.3 % ), agree achieved ( 46.6 % ), undecided received (31.5% ) and disagree gained ( 9.6 % ) of the scores. The highest percentage is of agree. So, agree interprets positivity which means the statement is acceptable. Thus, the respondents believe that using "thinking prompts" can lead to the activation of linguistic items.

**Statement No. – 21** " 'post-it-notes' technique is costly and exhausting".

Frequency table ( $4.5_u$ )

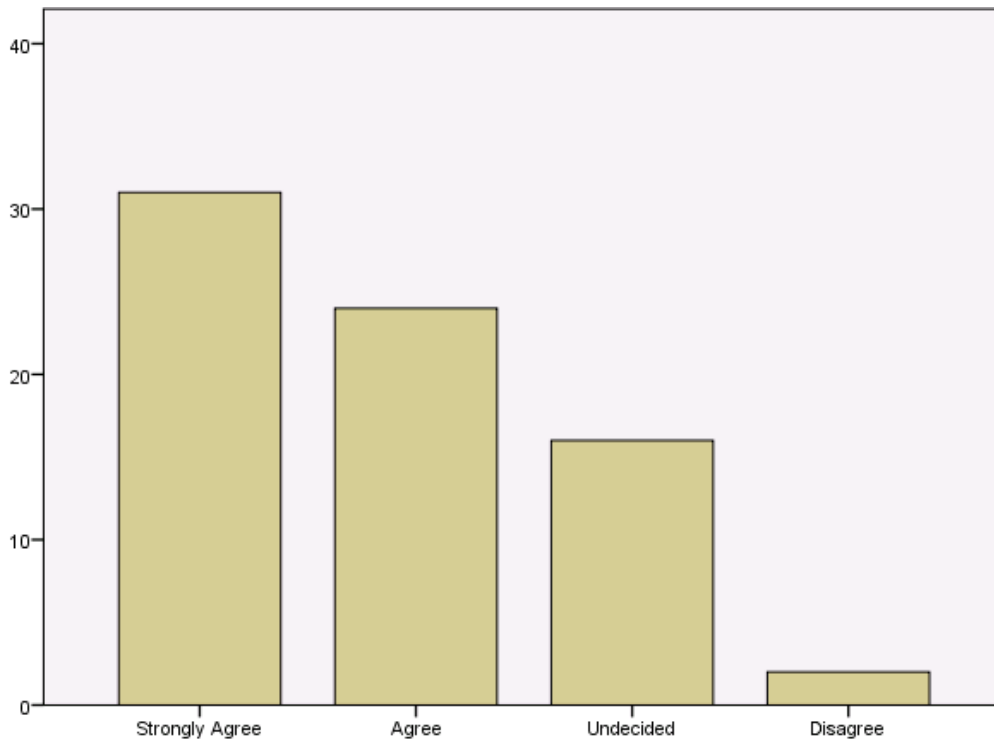| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 31 | 42.5 % |
| Agree | 24 | 32.9 % |
| Undecided | 16 | 21.9 % |
| Disagree | 2 | 2.7 % |



Figure ( 4.31 ) for statement No. – 21

Table ( $4.5_u$ ) and figure ( 4.31 ) are illustrating the result achieved by analyzing the data collected via $Q_{21}$. It is distributed as ( 42.5 % ) strongly agree, ( 32.9 % ) agree, ( 21.9 % ) undecided and ( 2.7 % ) disagree. It is noticeable that strongly agree and agree represent more than two thirds of the respondents. This reflects the idea that teachers are with the statement. So, "post-it-notes" technique is really costly and exhausting. Then does not suit the tasks of the students whose schools are not under real investment in education.

**Statement No. – 22** " Coded correction is more beneficial than non-coded one".

Frequency table ( 4.5ᵥ )

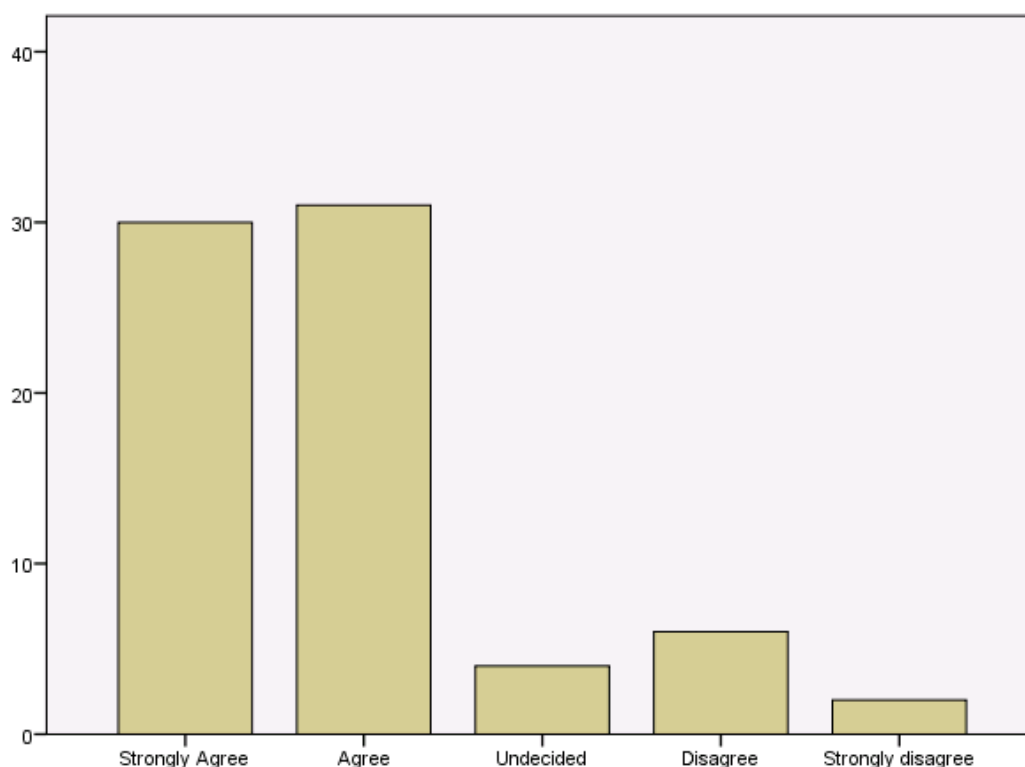| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Agree | 31 | 42.5 % |
| Undecided | 4 | 5.5 % |
| Disagree | 6 | 8.2 % |
| Strongly disagree | 2 | 2.7 % |



Figure ( 4.32 ) for statement No – 22

In accordance with the tale and diagram herein before, the result is reflected as: ( 41.1 % ) strongly agree, ( 42.5 % ) agree, ( 5.5 % ) undecided, ( 8.2 % ) disagree and ( 2.7 % )strongly disagree. Obviously the highest percentage is with the positive side of the scale. This indicates that the acceptability is high. Therefore, coded correction is proved to be more beneficial than non-coded one.

**4.2.4 The Result of the Questionnaire – Part ( C )**

Analyzing the data collected by this group ( C ) of the statements portrays the type of errors that EFL teachers treat when they give feedback on EFL learners' written tasks at secondary level schools. It shows the most beneficial and common ones among the teachers. The result is shown in table ( 5 ) below. Then it is, in detail, explained and discussed in sub-tables and diagrams that follow the general table. Then throughout the discussion each statement is mentioned above the table that intended to illustrate its result.

Table ( 4.6 ) for the general results of the questionnaire –part ( C )

| $Q_s$ | Strongly Agree | | Agree | | Undecided | | Disagree | | Strongly disagree | | Std. Deviation | mean | Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | T | % | T | % | T | % | T | % | T | % | | | |
| 1 | 39 | 53.4 | 30 | 41.1 | 4 | 5.5 | 0 | 0.00 | 0 | 0.00 | .603 | 1.52 | 0.00 |
| 2 | 39 | 53.4 | 30 | 41.1 | 2 | 2.7 | 2 | 2.7 | 0 | 0.00 | .688 | 1.55 | 0.00 |
| 3 | 30 | 41.1 | 35 | 47.9 | 4 | 5.5 | 4 | 5.5 | 0 | 0.00 | 1.058 | 1.86 | 0.00 |
| 4 | 33 | 45.2 | 30 | 41.1 | 5 | 6.8 | 3 | 4.1 | 2 | 2.7 | .946 | 1.78 | 0.00 |
| 5 | 37 | 50.7 | 26 | 35.6 | 6 | 8.2 | 4 | 5.5 | 0 | 0.00 | .848 | 1.68 | 0.00 |
| 6 | 30 | 41.1 | 35 | 47.9 | 6 | 8.2 | 2 | 2.7 | 0 | 0.00 | .731 | 1.73 | 0.00 |
| 7 | 35 | 47.9 | 30 | 41.1 | 6 | 8.2 | 2 | 2.7 | 0 | 0.00 | .749 | 1.66 | 0.00 |
| 8 | 30 | 41.1 | 37 | 50.7 | 4 | 5.5 | 2 | 2.7 | 0 | 0.00 | .701 | 1.70 | 0.00 |
| 9 | 33 | 45.2 | 30 | 41.1 | 6 | 8.2 | 4 | 5.5 | 0 | 0.00 | .834 | 1.74 | 0.00 |
| 10 | 30 | 41.1 | 14 | 19.2 | 22 | 30.1 | 5 | 6.8 | 0 | 0.00 | 1.113 | 2.11 | 0.00 |
| 11 | 12 | 16.4 | 47 | 64.4 | 6 | 8.2 | 8 | 11.0 | 0 | 0.00 | 1.093 | 2.97 | 0.00 |
| Mean | 31.6 | 43.3 | 32.9 | 42.8 | 6.4 | 8.8 | 3.2 | 4.4 | 0.1 | 0.2 | | | |

Statement No. – 1 " When responding to students' written tasks, teachers point out errors in grammar".

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Table ( 4.6$_a$ )

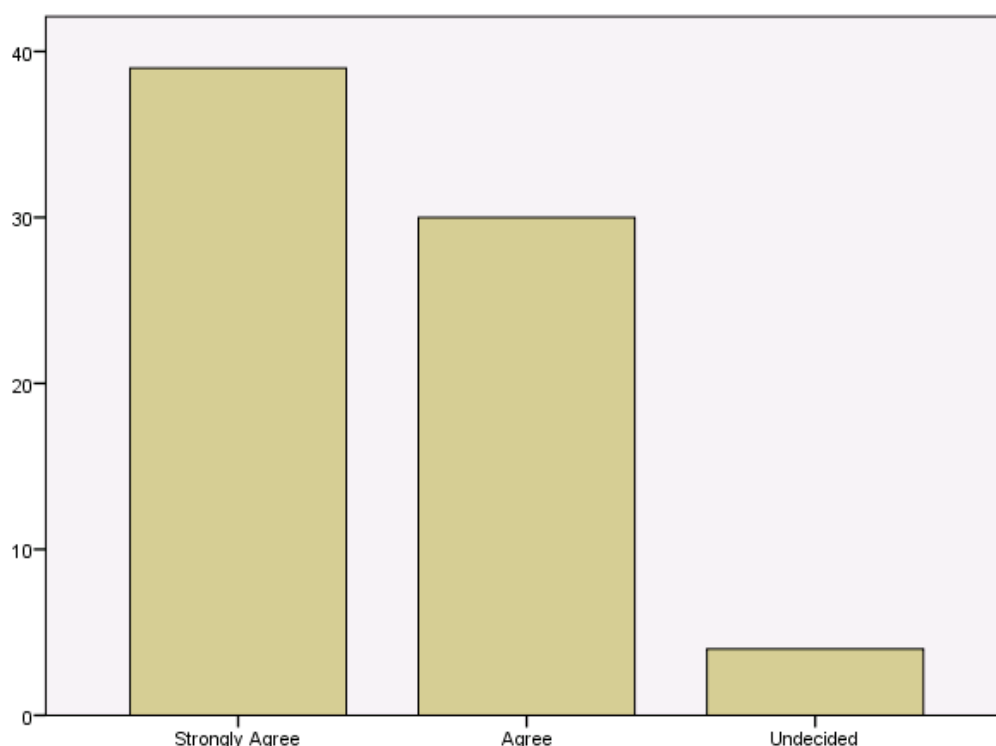| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 39 | 53.4 % |
| Agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Undecided | 4 | 5.5 % |



Figure ( 4.35 ) for statement No – 1

As it is shown in the above-mentioned table and diagram, the teachers point out all grammatical errors that occur in their students' written tasks rigorously. This is because they have scored ( 53.4 % ) strongly agree, ( 41.1 % ) agree and  only ( 5.5 % ) undecided. This result is another reaction to Truscott's work " *the case against grammar correction"* in which she tries to evidence that correcting students' grammatical errors is a dramatic failure of the teacher.

**Statement No. – 2** " When responding to students' written tasks, teachers point out errors in spelling".

Table ( $4.6_b$ )

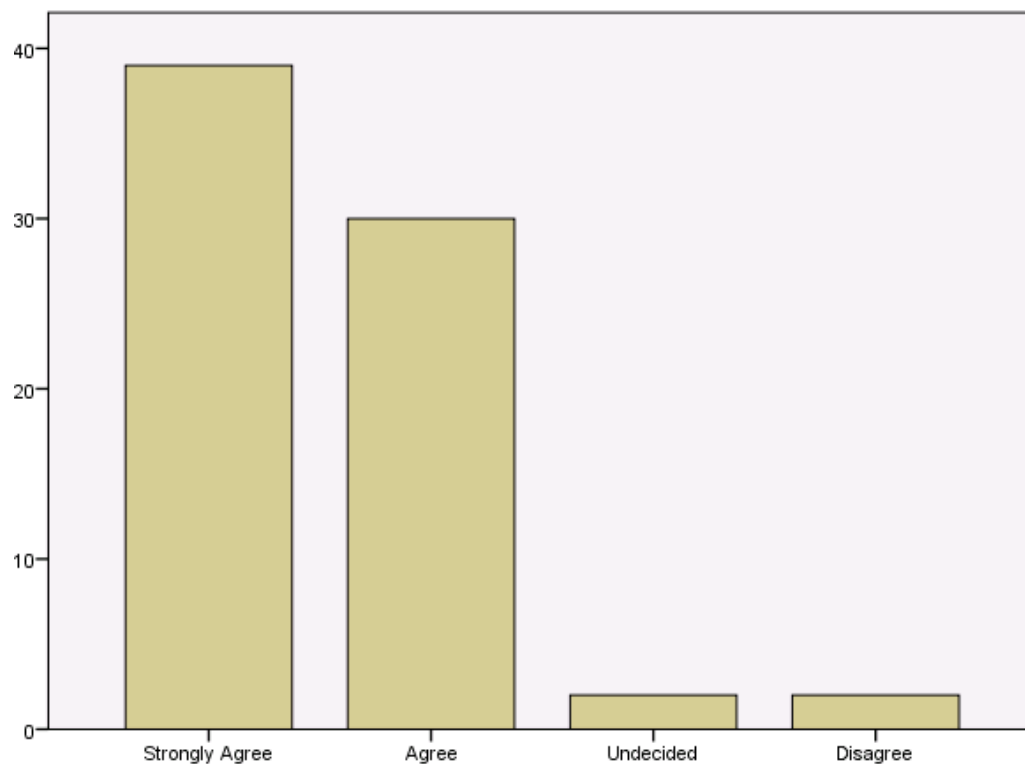| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 39 | 53.4 % |
| Agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Undecided | 2 | 2.7 % |
| Disagree | 2 | 2.7 % |



Figure (4.36 ) for statement No.2

The result of ( 53.4 % ) strongly agree, ( 41.1 % ) agree and both undecided and disagree ( 2.7 % ) each, shows that nearly all the respondents have positive attitudes towards the statement. Thus, it is a clear evidence that the teachers treat errors of selling in their students' written tasks. Consequently, errors of selling are added to the type of errors those teachers attempt to eradicate.

**Statement No. – 3** " When responding to students' written tasks, teachers point out errors in vocabulary choice".

Table ( 4.6$_c$ )

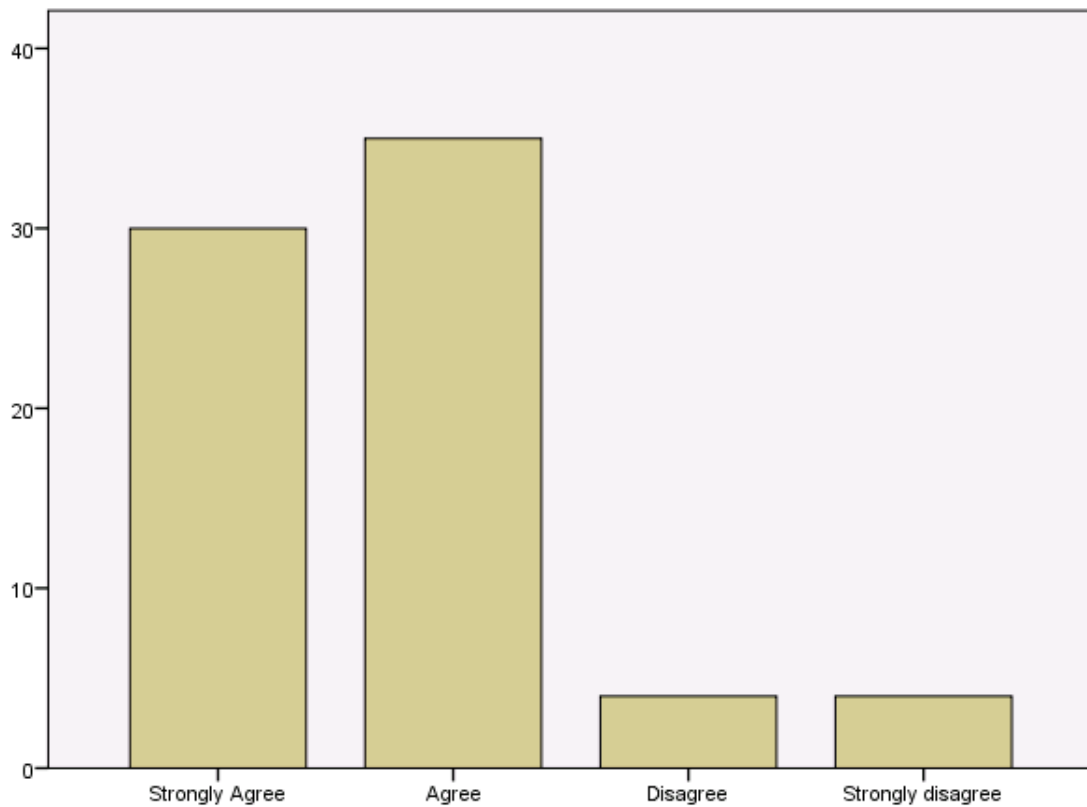| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Agree | 35 | 47.9 % |
| Undecided | 4 | 5.5 % |
| Disagree | 4 | 5.5 % |



Figure ( 4.37 ) for statement No. – 3

Having ( 41.1 % ) strongly agree, ( 47.9 % ) agree, ( 5.5 % ) undecided and ( 5.5 % ) disagree, shows that the majority of the teachers accept the idea of indicating errors of vocabulary choice when they correct their students' written tasks. In reference to the study objectives, such result adds another item to the list of the errors that preoccupy the teachers when they give feedback on their students' written tasks.

**Statement No. – 4** " When responding to students' written tasks, teachers point out errors in punctuation".

Table ( $4.6_d$ )

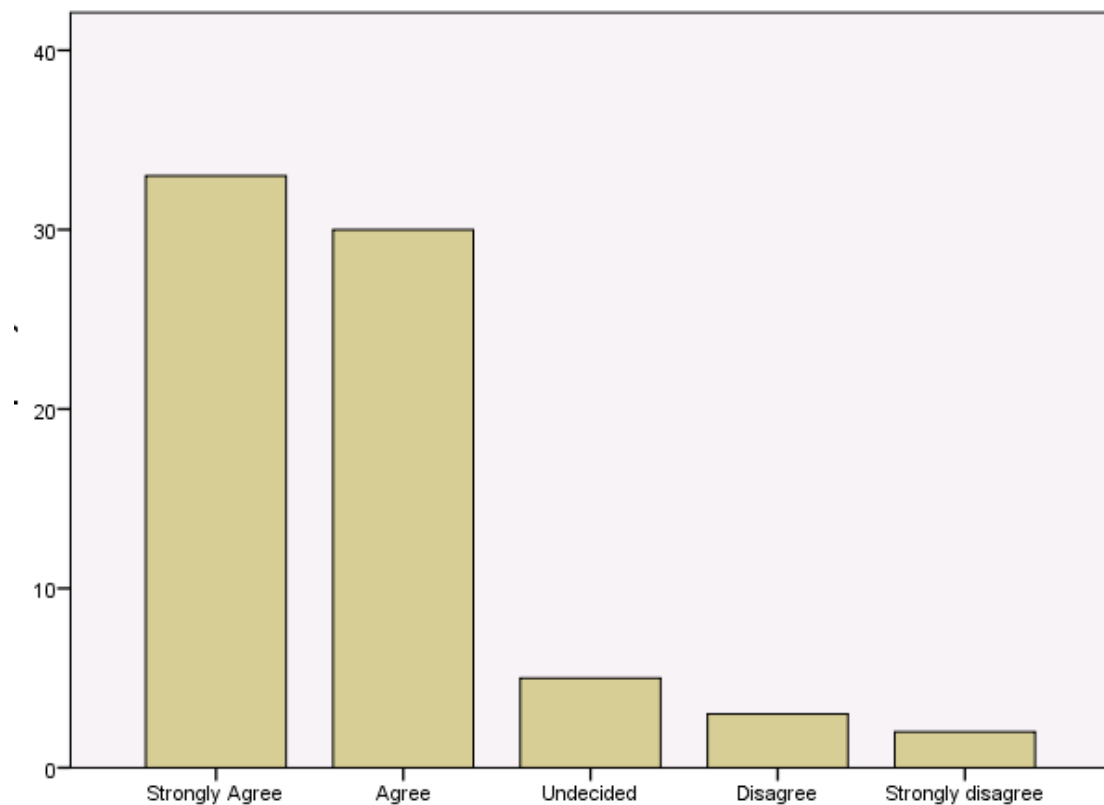| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 33 | 45.2 % |
| Agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Undecided | 5 | 6.8 % |
| Disagree | 3 | 4.1 % |
| Strongly disagree | 2 | 2.7 % |



Figure ( 4.38 ) for statement No. – 4

In spite of the fact that the sores are distributed throughout all the options (45.2 % strongly agree, 41.1 % agree, 6.8 % undecided, 4.1 % disagree and 2.7 % strongly disagree ), strongly agree and agree have gained the majority of them. This can be an evidence of statement acceptability. Therefore, the decision is that teachers point out errors of

punctuation whenever they find them in their students' written works. So, these are group of errors number four that the teachers correct.

**Statement No. – 5 "** When responding to students' written tasks, teachers comment on page organization".

Table (4 .6$_e$ )

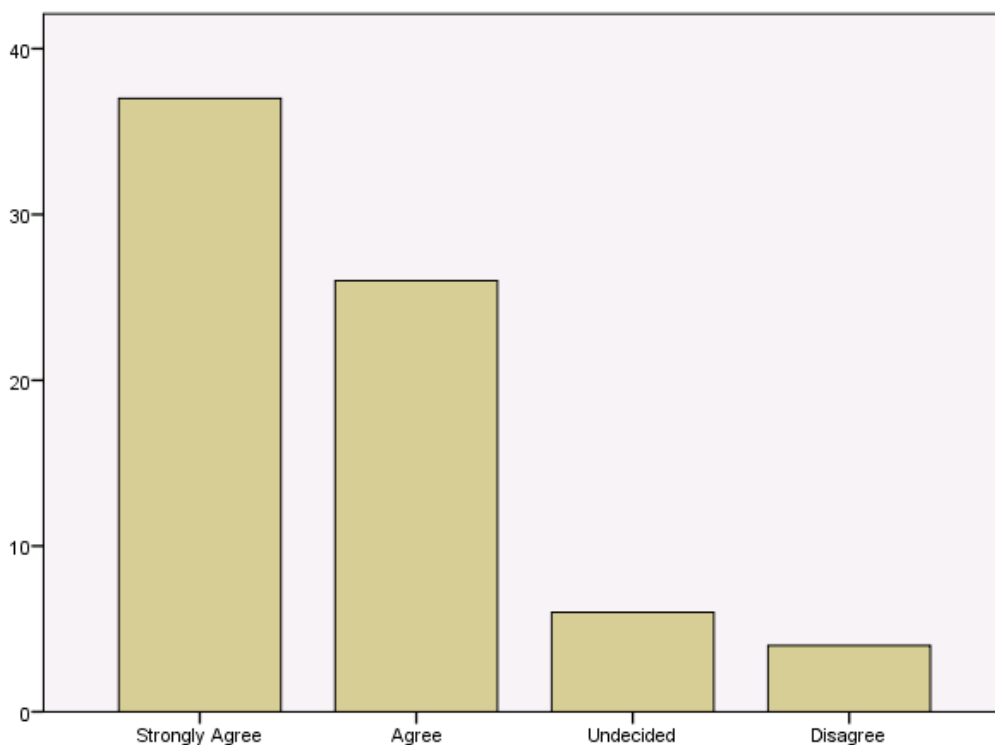| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 37 | 50.7 % |
| Agree | 26 | 35.6 % |
| Undecided | 6 | 8.2 % |
| Disagree | 4 | 5.5 % |



Figure ( 4.39 ) for statement No. – 5

From the above-mentioned table and figure ( 50.7 % ) is strongly agree, (35.6 % ) is agree, ( 8.2 % ) is undecided and ( 5.5 % ) is disagree. Such result indicate that the statement is approved. Moreover, the percentage of acceptance is high. Therefore, the investigation has arrived

at the fact that teachers do not let disorganized pages of their students' written works to pass without their comments.

**Statement No. – 6** "When responding to students' written tasks, teachers comment on writing style".

Table ( $4.6_f$ )

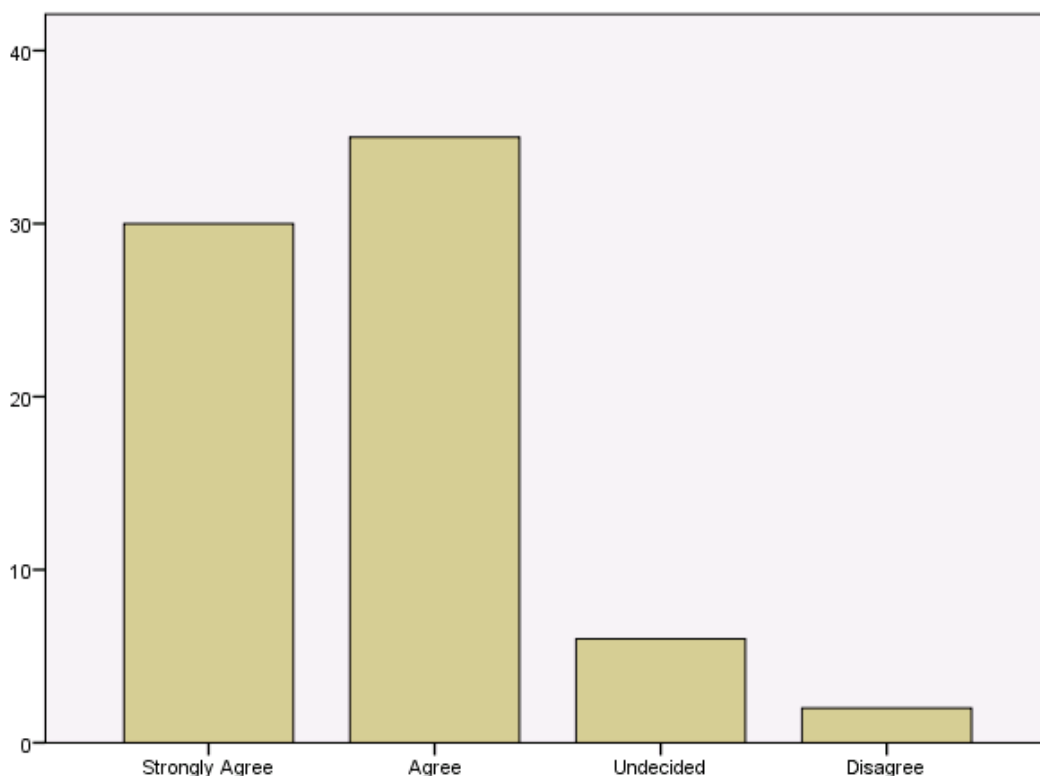| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Agree | 35 | 47.9 % |
| Undecided | 6 | 8.6 % |
| Disagree | 2 | 2.7 % |



Figure ( 4.37 ) for statement No. – 6

Strongly agree has gained ( 41.1 % ), agree has gained ( 47.9 % ), undecided has gained ( 8.6 % ) and disagree has gained (2.7 % ). However, strongly agree and agree represent more than two thirds of the total respondents' views which denote that the statement is consented by

the majority of them. This leads to the conclusion that EFL teachers also bear in mind errors of writing style when they are to give feedback on their students' written tasks.

**Statement No. – 7** " When responding to students' written tasks, teachers comment on organizing ideas".

Table ( 4.6$_g$ )

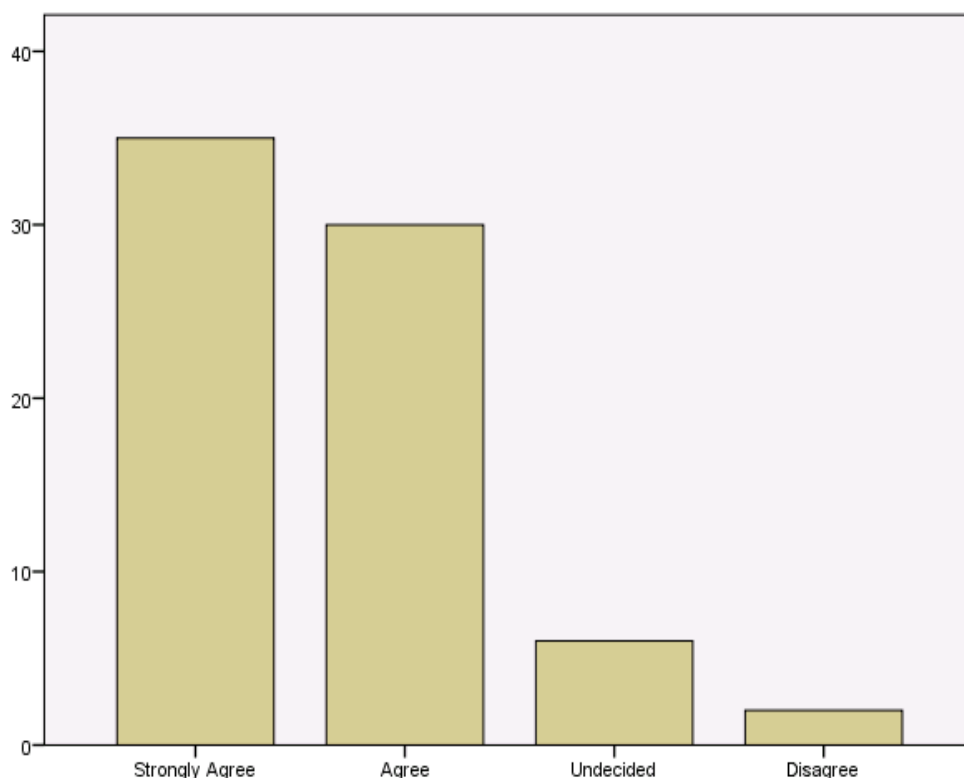| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 35 | 47.9 % |
| Agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Undecided | 6 | 8.2 % |
| Disagree | 2 | 2.7 % |



Figure ( 4.41 ) for statement No. – 7

The statistical analysis of the data collected by means of the above statement has resulted in ( 47.9 % ) strongly agree, ( 41.1 % ) agree, ( 8.2 % ) undecided and ( 2.7 % ) disagree as it is set forth in the table and

figure above. Then, it is evident that the percentages of strongly agree and agree cover nearly all the views of the respondents. So the statement is highly adopted. Consequently, it can be said that the teachers, in almost all cases, identify disorganization of ideas ( if any ) in their students' written tasks.

**Statement No. – 8** " When responding to students' written tasks, teachers correct errors of content".

Table ( $4.6_h$ )

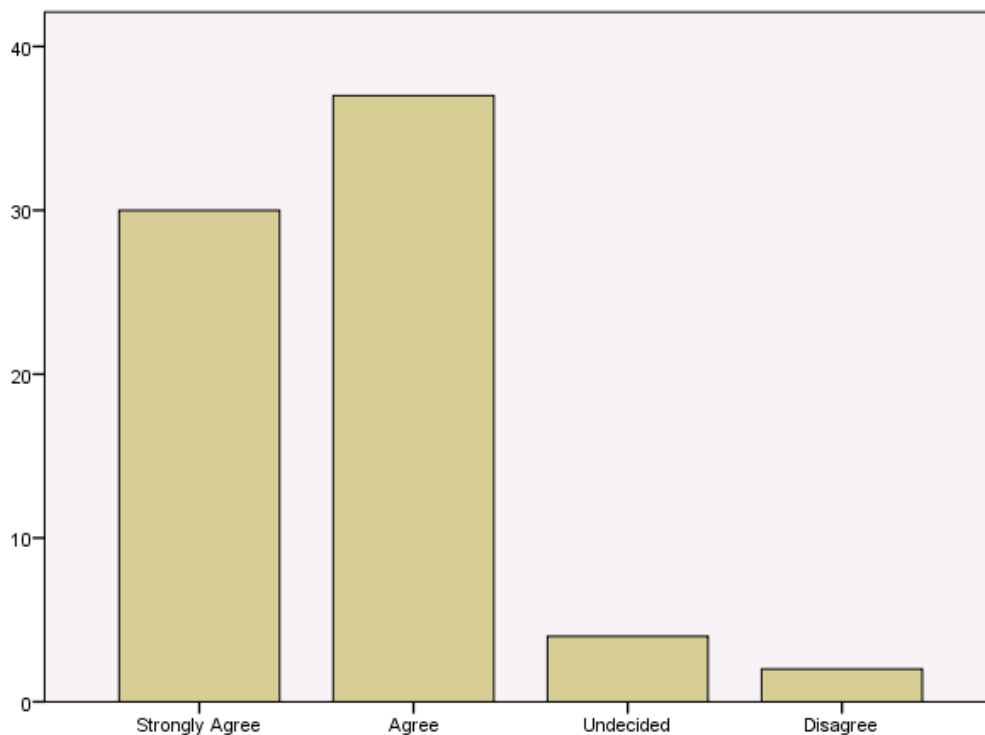| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Agree | 37 | 50.7 % |
| Undecided | 4 | 5.5 % |
| Disagree | 2 | 2.7 % |



Figure (4.42 ) for statement No. – 8

The above table and figure ( 41.1 % ) is strongly agree, agree has ( 50.7 % ), (5.5 % ) is undecided and disagree is ( 2.7 % ). The result shows that ( 91.8 % ) of the respondents have positive attitudes towards the

statement. This proportion is quiet enough for making a decision. Accordingly, what is to be inferred is that EFL teachers in the locality at secondary level schools regard the content when they give feedback on their students' written tasks. In other words, it is necessary to think of students' written tasks in terms of their content – to see if there any irrelevant or missing information.

**Statement No. – 9** " When responding to students' written tasks, teachers point out errors of capitalization".

Table ( 4.6$_i$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 33 | 45.2 % |
| Agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Undecided | 6 | 8.2 % |
| Disagree | 4 | 5.5 % |
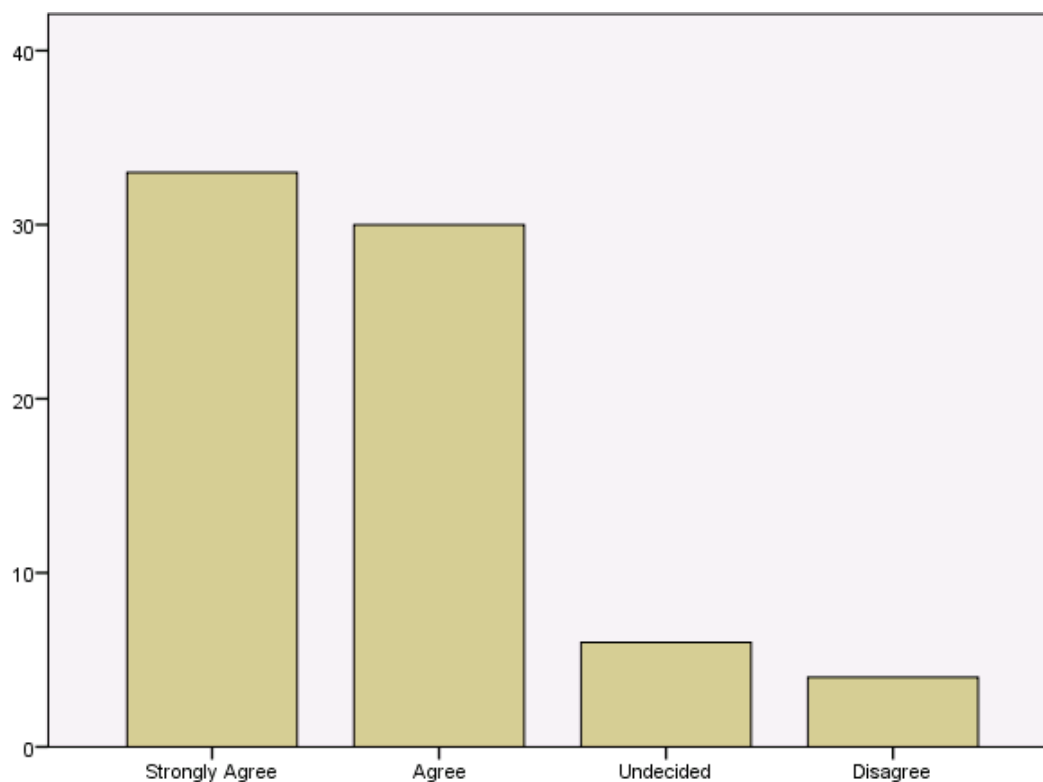


Figure (4.42 ) for statement No. – 9

Taking into consideration the result that has been elucidated in the above table and figure which is ( 45.2 % ) strongly agree, ( 41.1 % ) agree, (8.2 % ) undecided and ( 5.5 % ) disagree, correcting errors of capitalization in students' written tasks is necessary. Thus, the researcher has found the ninth error type that the teachers try to eradicate.

**Statement No. – 10** " When responding to students' written tasks, teachers do not just comment and suggest ways for improvement or sustain".

Table ( 4.6$_j$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------|-----------|------------|
| Strongly agree | 30 | 41.1 % |
| Agree | 14 | 19.2 % |
| Undecided | 22 | 30.1 % |
| Disagree | 5 | 6.2 % |
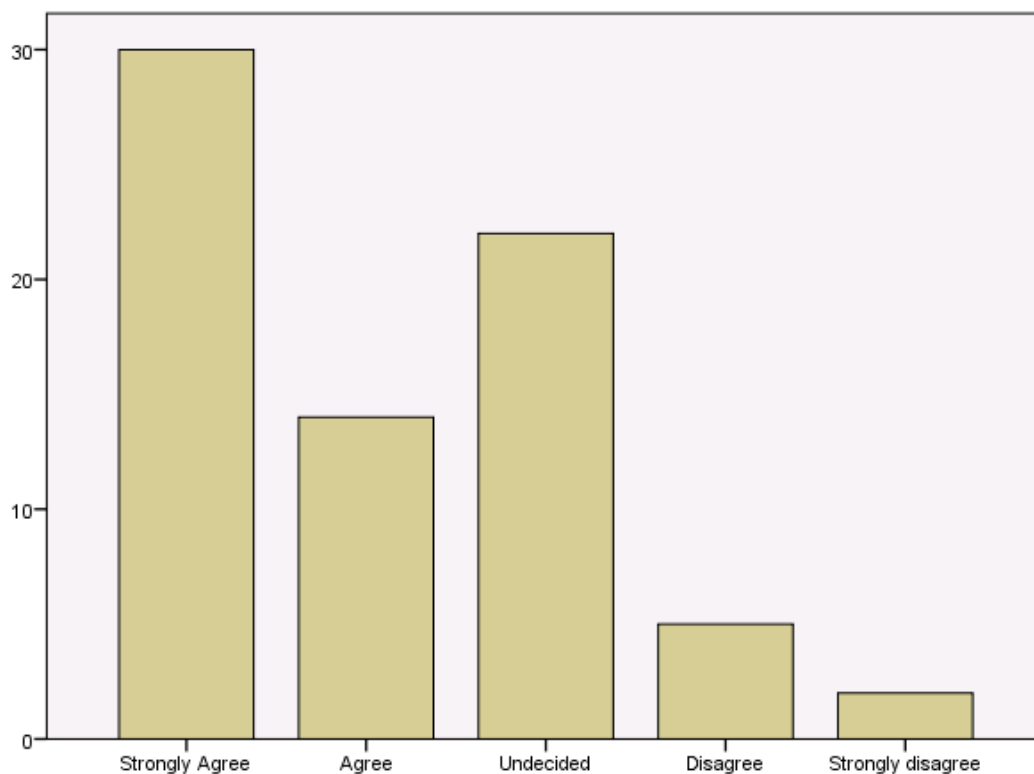


Figure ( 4.44) for statement No. – 10

As it is mentioned by means of the above table and diagram, ( 41.1% ) strongly agree, ( 19.2 % ) agree, ( 30.1 % ) undecided and ( 6.2 % ) agree. The result shows that strongly agree has the highest percentage which means the teachers do not only depend on commenting and suggesting ways of improvement when giving feedback. The result of this statement highly supports the results of the above nine statements. Another interpretation is that if there are comments or suggestions, they will be after identifying the error types mentioned above.

**Statement No. – 11** " When responding to students' written tasks, teachers do not simply give a (✓) or (×) to indicate their feedback on the whole work". Table ( $4.6_k$ )

| Options | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Strongly agree | 12 | 16.4 % |
| Agree | 47 | 64.4 % |
| Undecided | 6 | 8.2 % |
| Disagree | 8 | 11.0 % |



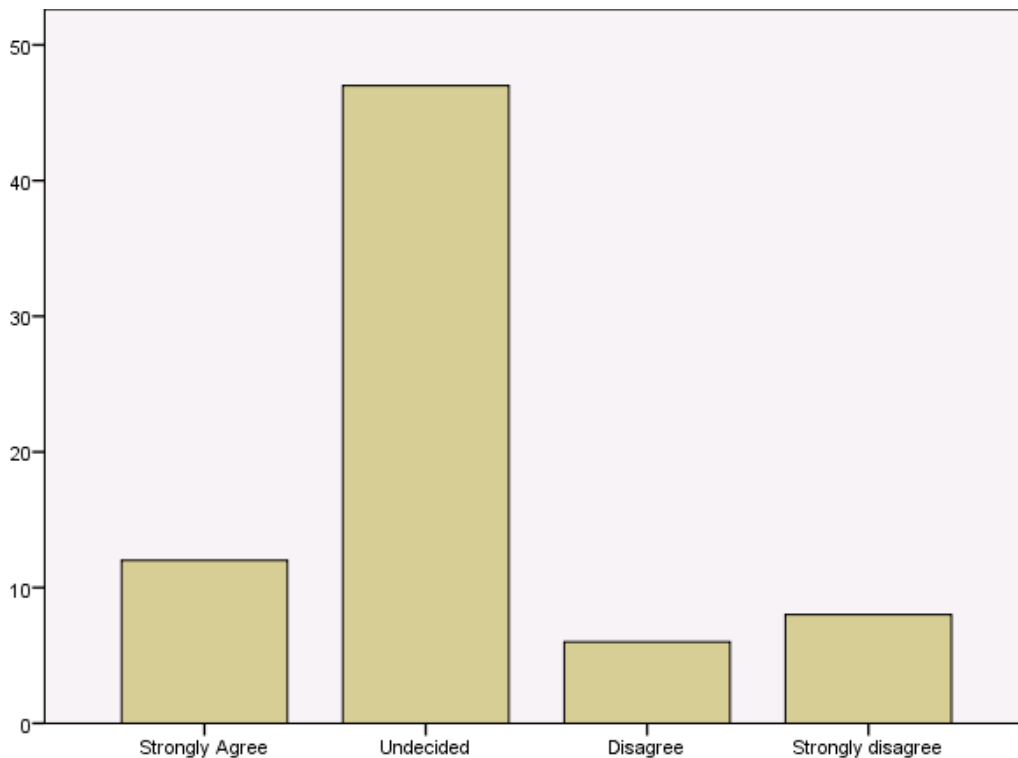Figure (4.45 ) for statement No. – 11

According to the table and diagram above only strongly agree ( 16.4 % ) and agree ( 64.4 % ) have scored more than two-thirds of the respondents' views that is ( 80.8 % ). Such scoring is a strong indicator that the statement is accepted. The result implies that the majority of the teachers do not do such form of correction. In other words, when giving feedback, they think of the errors mentioned in the previous statements.

**4.2.5 The Result of the Open-ended Requests**

The opinionnair or open-ended requests were designed in a way that they, generally, explore teachers' opinions about more perspectives concerning the role of using error correction techniques on students' writing skills, error correction techniques that can be used in correcting students' written tasks, types of errors which preoccupy the teachers when they mark the tasks, effective ways of improving students' writing skills rather than using the techniques, and recommendations that should be made to whoever concerned with the students' achievement at the level. For further perspectives, the teachers assert that, in addition to the benefits mentioned throughout the questionnaire, using error correction techniques increases students' confidence, improves the overall language skills, helps the teachers praise students' strengthens and deal with their weaknesses, and it represents the best way of monitoring students' progress. For more error types, the teachers have only added errors of paragraph organization and using affixes. For more effective ways, they stated that it is the best way but needs some kind of reinforcement via giving more writing exercises ( a need for more lessons ), starting correction from the early stages of writing ( there is error accumulation and fossilization ), writing the correct forms after presenting them orally ( language skills integration ), preparing lessons ( prevention is better than

cure ), and taking care of students' individual differences. For more  they have recommended to the different participants in the field of education and that they are responsible, by one way or the other, for the process of written error correction, they recommended the followings:

1-     English language supervisors, should provide training for the teachers with special focus on the novice teachers, the traditional tools and modern devices for the overall teaching process and let the teachers treat students' errors in a way that they think it is suitable for their students' surroundings.

2-     Their colleagues, should be patient and sincere with weak students, should not underestimate the small errors because they grow bigger or fossilize and they must not highly focus on correcting in a way that they ignore the other processes of teaching and make it boring.

3-     Students, must bear in mind that they can learn better from their mistakes which are recognized via providing their correct forms, learning EFL cannot be at once but step by step, making errors is a progress so that they do not attempting and must not learn only for exam but also for knowledge.

4-     Families, are to co-operate with teachers for creating follow-up environment to the students.

## 4.3 Verification of the Study Hypotheses

This section is to explain how the three hypotheses of the study have been tested throughout the study.

### 4.3.1  Hypothesis One

*"EFL teachers have various attitudes towards the role of  error correction techniques in learners' writing skills".* This means that teachers at secondary level are expected to have various attitudes towards the role of error correction techniques ( when they are used in correcting learners' written tasks ) in their students' writing skills.

The hypothesis is tested via all the statements of the questionnaire part ( A ). They are seven statements. Then, The results assure that teachers hold positive attitude and believe that their appropriate use will lead to learners' writing skills promotion.

### 4.3.2 Hypotheses Two

*"There are definite  techniques to be used for confronting such written EFL retrograding".*  The hypothesis claims that there is a certain number of  error correction techniques. then EFL teachers at secondary schools should know them to properly be used for developing learners' writing skills. It has been tested by means of the statements of group ( B ). The results reveal that there is, actually, a limited number of the techniques for the intended purpose. But each of the techniques has its own advantages and disadvantages which makes differences in their appropriateness. This needs experience in recognizing that.

### 4.3.3 Hypotheses Three

*"Making a decision about what to be corrected of students' written errors is inevitable"* The hypothesis assumes that there are many errors made by the students at secondary level, especially, in writing performance. Sometimes it seems difficult to the teacher to identify all the errors at one. However, some teachers think that it is necessary to identify whatever error does occur in students' works. So, knowing teachers' decision on what kinds of errors that should be treated became necessary. The hypothesis has been tested via statements of group ( C ). The results show that there are definite errors worth treatment.

### 4.4  Summary of the Chapter

Throughout this chapter, the researcher has displayed the results of the data collected from the primary resource ( EFL teachers in Eastern Gezira Locality at secondary schools ) via the use of questionnaire of

fourty statements that have been divided into three groups and five opinionnair/open-ended requests. Statistical packages for social sciences ( spss. ) was used for analysis. Then the information resulted was tabulated via computer. So that tables and figures were used to display the information for discussion. The responses of the open-ended requests have been paraphrased and summarized for being presented clearly. Eventually verification of the study hypotheses is shown explicitly.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

## 5.0 Introduction

This chapter is allotted to the summary, conclusion, findings, recommendations, and suggestions for further studies on the basis of the investigation made in finding out EFL teachers' opinions about the effect of using error correction techniques on learners' writing skills at secondary level schools.

## 5.1 Summary of the Study

The study is about EFL teachers' opinions about the role of using error correction techniques in students' writing skills at secondary schools. The researcher has followed the descriptive analytical method. The study is designed as quantitative cross-sectional study. It is conducted in Eastern Gezira Locality. The researcher has chosen this title for the importance of correct English at the level, the role of writing skills in the overall learning and communication, using error correction techniques in eradicating students' written errors for sustaining correct English, and the role of teachers' attitudes in affecting that importance. On the other hand, there is the significance of secondary education that contributes in all social settings. The teachers at the level were chosen as a sample because they are practically responsible for monitoring and affecting on students' accuracy and well-experienced in developing their overall skills. The aim of the study is to find out how EFL teaches think about the impact of error correction techniques on learners' writing skills, establish the techniques which can be used in dealing with such errors and explore different types of errors that the teachers usually identify.

The tool used for collecting data was questionnaire ( for it is peculiar features ) with open-ended requests. It was distributed to seventy-three teachers at the level in the locality. The obtained data was organized, tabulated and analyzed by using SPSS (statistic packages for social sciences) program to show the result of each statement. The results of the analysis are displayed and discussed in ( 45 ) figures and ( 46 ) tables in chapter four.  What is worth-mentioning is that all the questions of the study were answered, all the hypotheses were proved or tested and all the objectives were achieved.

## 5.2 Conclusions

Via marking the questionnaire items in part ( A ), the teachers have shown their attitudes towards the effect of using error correction techniques in students' writing skills. Therefore, the study has arrived at various findings some of them are as follows:

1-    Using error correction techniques not only leads to writing skills promotion but also to the promotion of the overall language skills.

2-    In spite of the fact that there are other procedures ( giving more writing exercises, starting correction from the early stages, etc. ) which can be followed in developing learners' writing skills, using error correction techniques has been assigned as the best one in treating errors and consolidating correct forms.

3-    Giving writing exercises without correction is a worthless activity.

4-    For the sake of responsibility, teachers do not feel bored with giving systematic feedback on students' regular written tasks despite their trouble surroundings.

With reference to data collected by means of questionnaire items part ( B ) and analyzed, five approaches to error correction were examined and more than fifteen techniques were compared. Hence, the researcher has concluded different points,  for example, some approaches

are preferred to the others: selective correction is preferable to comprehensive, postponed to immediate, etc. some techniques are favored for their advantages, such as, discussing common errors in the class because it is useful for uprooting them, "charting errors" as it can end their reoccurrence, using "thinking prompts" in that they can activate learners' linguistic competence, etc. some are distracting, like 'using dictionary' which can distract learners from dealing with the intended errors, "group composition" that may let weak students passive, "exchanging composition" which may turn some students' works messy, etc. and some are valid only under certain conditions, for instance, "post-it-notes" is valid when there is a subsidy to the process of education, "peer-correction" and "conferencing" are useful only in small classes, etc. However, the "hand-off" technique which means error can disappear for themselves by time is entirely refused among the teachers.

The information attained from analyzing the data collected via questionnaire items – part ( C ), prove that the teachers treat any errors that occur in their students' writing performance. They treat errors of grammar, punctuation, selling, content, page organization, etc. Then according to their long experience, teachers have recommended various participants in the field of education. They are listed in the section of recommendations.

## 5.3 Recommendations

Having a look at that number of findings above, a great deal of recommendations can be inferred. The researcher has deduced some of them as follows:

1. For giving feedback on students' written tasks one of the following techniques should be adopted: conferencing, remedial activities, using error correction codes in identifying and localizing errors, peer-

correction, using comments, checklist, dictionary detective and error logs, etc .

2.	Beside their experience, teachers should be well-trained for dealing with learners' errors effectively.

3.	Advantages, disadvantages and the conditions under which some techniques are useful must be taken into consideration when tackling students' errors.

4.	Essential prerequisites ( lesson planning, effective teaching, conceptualizing of whatever technique, etc. ) for efficacious error treatment must be done.

5.	Teachers are to be given the option to choose  the technique/s that is/are suitable for their teaching surroundings.

6.	Co-operative principles between the families and the schools for providing follow-up atmosphere for the students' are to be established.

7.	Additional English lessons should be introducd.

8.	Using error correction techniques must be accompanied by the supporting procedures.

9.	Small errors should not be ignored for avoiding fossilization.

10.	EFL teachers are to be incented for hard responsibility.

11.	Teachers are to bear in mind students' psychological features when correcting.

12.	Some advice for developing writing skills must be provided to the students.

**5.4 Some Suggestions for Further Studies**

The researcher has tried hard to make the process of teaching and learning more effective. So, he suggests that, in addition to using error correction techniques, other ways which can play a role in developing students' writing skills can be instigated. For example, oral practice of the language, following appropriate techniques in writing process, writing

tools, reading a lot, etc. Experimental studies are also suggested for identifying the most effective technique/s for their generalization. How the teachers treat the errors is another topic to be tackled. Another relevant concept is the Analysis of the spine series to find out to what extent it covers the intended writing skills and whether they are graded in a way that it plays its proper role or not. The thing involves many deep and technical studies.

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# Appendices

## Appendix (A)

### Other Difficulties of Writing

Crystal (1995: 291) compares the written form of the language with the spoken form in a way that it details the difficulties in writing:

| Writing | Speech |
|---|---|
| 1. Writing is permanent, space-bounded and statistic. | 1. Speech is transient, time-bounded, and dynamic. |
| 2. It requires development of careful organization, straight forward construction and layout. | 2. It is spontaneous and has looser construction. |
| 3. Extra linguistic cues have nothing to do with aiding the meaning. | 3. Speakers use extra linguistic cues to aid meaning. |
| 4. Writers use precise words to crate setting. | 4. There are deictic expressions (inhere, right now, etc) which assimilated according to the situation. |
| 5. Writing suits recording facts, communicating ideas and task of memory and learning. So, accuracy is necessary. | 5. Speech suits social and poetic functions. So, rethinking, interruption and overlapping is normal. |
| 6. The writers anticipate and expect problems which may be posed by having their works read or interpreted. | 6. Speakers live with the consequences. |
| 7. Punctuation is necessary for the clarity of meaning. | 7. In speech the prosody is verbal. |

# Appendix (B)

## The Correction Codes

Some of the common symbols used in correcting written tasks at different levels of learning language are as follows.

| Symbol | Meaning | Example |
|--------|---------|---------|
| C | Capitalization error | C<br>The school starts in <u>J</u>uly. |
| P | Punctuation error | P<br>It is an amusing movie? |
| SP | Spelling error | Sp<br>We <u>luve</u> the Sudan. |
| PL/SG | Plural / Singular  mistake | Pl/Sg<br>I have three <u>sister</u> |
| S/V | Subject – verb agreement error | S/V<br>She <u>like</u>  dolls. |
| V/T | Verb tense mistake | T/V<br>Last week we <u>have</u> a test. |
| ⌀ | Delete (erase) | I am going <u>to</u> shopping tonight |
|  |  |  |

| Symbol | Meaning | Example |
|--------|---------|---------|
| ∧ | Add something | **a**<br>It is beautiful picture.<br>∧ |

| Symbol | Meaning | Example |
|--------|---------|---------|
| W W | Wrong Word | **WW**<br>Turn <u>write</u> at the corner |
| # | Count / non-count mistake | **#**<br>How <u>many</u> money have you got? |
| Conj. | Conjunction mistake | **Conj.**<br><u>And</u> we studied Arabic. |
| wo | Word order mistake | **wo**<br>I <u>you see will</u> later |
| ╱ | Separate these words | Class is over <u>attwo.</u> |
| RW | rewrite (meaning unclear) | **RW**<br><u>I used to every often</u> |
| div | Wrong syllable division | **div**<br>She lives in <u>scot-</u><br>land |

Sullivana ( 1976:163-172) suggests the following list of symbols used in written error correction:

| Symbol | Meaning | Example |
|---|---|---|
| Ambi or ? | Unclear meaning | ***ambi*** <br> <u>San Francisco is father from Los Anglos than Elko</u> |
| ap | Apostrophe needed | **ap** <br> Her bag is as big as Ahmed<u> </u>. |
| awk | Awkward phrasing | **awk** <br> <u>Muskrats work on the dikes before we get to them by burrowing through between them when their contents are supposed to be kept</u> |
| bpr | Broad pronoun reference | On the first floor we were shown where the fiction <br> **bpr** <br> books were kept. <u>This</u> completed the tour. |
| ca | Wrong case used | **ca** <br> The secretary notified Maria and <u>I</u> to come to the office |
| cap | use capital letter/s | **cap** <br> He is a Jefferson <u>high school</u> graduate |
| coh | Faulty coherence | The train of thought of development cannot easily be followed in an identified paragraph or sentences |
| cst | Faulty sentence construction | **cst** <br> <u>Privacy hindered my studying while in high school because living in a house where there are many children it is very hard to secure privacy.</u> |
| d | Faulty diction (word) selection | **d** <br> He calculated that the <u>gent</u> could e banked on |

| Symbol | Meaning | Example |
|--------|---------|---------|
| dm | Dangling modifier | **dm**<br>Running across campus, the bell tower struck five |
| fact | The authenticity of the fact is questionable | **fact**<br>Gold was discovered in California in 1860. |
| focus | Lack of sense | The reader is confused with what point the writer is trying to say |
| frag | Fragment rather than a sentence | He came to the office Monday afternoon.<br>**frag**<br>Immediately after he arrived from New York. |
| f/sub | Faulty subordination | **f/sub**<br>I was looking in the window when the thief ran off with my briefcase. |
| gab | Unintelligibility of concept | **gab**<br>As a child my grandmother perambulated hyperbolically to imbibe multitudinous prevarications. |
| gr | Grammar error | **gr**<br>He the most tallest boy in the class. |
| id | Unidiomatic phrasing | **id**<br>He has agreed on the plan. |
| illeg | Illegibility | When it is impossible or difficult to be read. |
| it | Italicization is needed | **it**<br>His favorite book is Thomas Hardy's Return of the Native. |
| logic | The reasoning is faulty | |
| n/a | Do not use abbreviations | n/a          n/a<br>J. Smith went to Cal. |
| n/cap | No capitalization | **n/cap**<br>Six High School students won Medals for Good Citizenship. |

| Symbol | Meaning | Example |
|---|---|---|
| n/pgr or n/ | No new paragraph needed | When there is no need for starting a new paragraph |
| o | Superfluous punctuation | The cat sitting on the roof , is mine. |
| =s | Faulty parallel structure | The teacher is to prepare the lesson, <u>teaching</u>, $\overset{=s}{}$ <br> $\overset{=s}{}$ <u>collects</u> students' works and <u>will mark</u> them. $\overset{=s}{}$ |
| n/ap | No apostrophe | **n/ap** <br> He returned the book to <u>it's</u> owner. |
| Pgr/ | New paragraph needed | When developing one idea is finished, shifting to a new one needs starting a new aragrah. |
| Pgrd or | Paragraph development is inadequate | When enough details to prove the topic sentence/central idea have not been given. |
| Pgro | Weak paragraph organization | The factors in the develoment of the paragraph are not well organized. |
| Pgru | Paragraph unity has been violated | When there is material in the paragraph that is not to the toic sentence  or enteral idea and that also distrats from it. |
| red | redundancy | **red**      **red** <br> Repeat<u>again</u>, combine <u>together</u>. |
| rep | repetitious | **rep** <br> A good student turns his composition in <u>on time</u>. <br> **rep** <br> He always has his work ready <u>on the day it is due</u>. |
| rts | Run together sentences | **rts** <br> The story <u>was not true however it was</u> interesting. |
|  |  |  |

| Symbol | Meaning | Example |
|--------|---------|---------|
| sc | Split construction | **sc**<br>We <u>flew</u> over Chicago at noon and the Golden Gate<br>   **sc**<br><u>was seen</u> by sunset. |
| Sn | Shift in number | Be sure to take your <u>passport</u>; the custome official<br>   **sn**<br>always look at <u>them</u>. |
| Sp | Spelling error | **sp**<br>He was <u>disatisfied</u> with the grade. |
| s/p | Shift in person | To the <u>student</u>, going to summer school is worse<br>     **s/p**<br>than having no vacation at all, for when <u>you</u> have no<br>     **s/p**<br>vacation, you do not think aout all the things <u>a</u><br><u>erson</u> could do if he had one. |
| spec | Be more specific | **spec**<br>In high school I studied <u>shakespear</u> and a victoeian<br>   **spec**<br> <u>novelist</u>. |
| st | Shift in tense | **st**<br>For months I <u>had admired</u> Marry from afar, but I<br><u>have</u> not the ourage to ask her for a date. |
| sub | Subordination of idea | **sub**<br><u>The project was aproved by the resident in 1970.</u><br><u>The plans were ready the following year. However,</u><br><u>the actual workdid not begin until 1974 .</u> |
|  |  |  |

| Symbol | Meaning | Example |
|--------|---------|---------|
| subj | Subjective mood | **sub**<br>If I <u>was</u> the chairman, I would place him here. |
| trans | Transitional link necessity (hanging of thought is too abrupt) | **trans**<br><u>Modern machinary makes man its slave. Last summer I worked for the great motor company.</u> |
| trite | Avoid clichés, hackneyed expressions and trite observations | **A** budding genius. At one fell swoop, nipped in the bud, seething mass of humanity, launched into etenity, good as gold, etc. |
| vague | Lack of developmental details / generalization needs clarifying examples. | We were very hungry and the food in the cafeteria<br>    **vague**<br>was <u>dull.</u> |
| wd | Wordiness/ better to be said in fewer words | **wd**<br><u>The boy had a temperature that would e regarded under all circumstances as dangerously high one.</u> |
| wr | Weak reference of pronoun | **wr**<br>When the baby is through drinking milk , <u>it</u> should be sterilized. |
| Wt or t | Wrong tense | **wt**<br>In the drama the hero <u>was slain.</u> |

Alfaki ( 2007:82-83) adds:

| symbol | meaning | Error example |
|--------|---------|---------------|
| c | Concord verb and subject do not agree | **c**<br>Two policemen <u>has</u> come. |
|  |  |  |

| Symbol | Meaning | Example |
|---|---|---|
| **na** | The usage is not appropriate | **na**<br>He <u>request</u> me to sit down. |
| **s/p** | Wrong ingular or plural form | s<br>We need more <u>informations</u>. |
| **ir** | Irrelevant information | When the material is not relevant to the content |

Hedge ( 1988:152) also uses:

| Symbol | Meaning | Error example |
|---|---|---|
| **v** | Wrong verb form | v<br>Last night she <u>sung</u> cheerfully. |
| **U** | No need for new sentence, join up the ideas | |
| | This is not quite right: it needs clear expression ( the teacher provides an alternative) | |
| | This part needs to be re-arranged or reworded. | |
| **!!** | You really should know what is wrong here because we have just done it in the class and I have told you so many times. | |

## Appendix ( C )

## The Questionnaire

**Dear Colleague, t**he researcher would be grateful to receive your response to this questionnaire which is designed to collect data for the research on "***Investigating EFL Teachers' Opinions about the Effect of Using Errors Correction Techniques on Students' Writing Skills – A Case Study of Eastern Gezira Locality''.*** Please put a tick ( ✓ ) in the most appropriate brackets and boxes below.

1- **Personal information:**
 *Gender:*   male [   ]  female [   ]
 *Education:*  graduate [   ]  post-graduate[   ]
 *Experience in teaching English:*
    less than one year [   ] 1-5 [   ] 6-10 [   ] more than 10 [   ]

2- **The Questionnaire:**

A- **Opinions on using error correction techniques**

| Statement | Strongly Agree | Agree | undecided | disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. using error correction techniques to give feedback on learners' written tasks makes progress in their writing skills. | | | | | |
| 2. Adopting techniques to give feedback on students' written tasks is necessary. | | | | | |
| 3. Students' written errors can be radically eradicated without using correction techniques. | | | | | |
| 4. Giving  systematic feedback on students' written works is tiring | | | | | |
| 5. Using error correction techniques helps in consolidating correct language forms. | | | | | |
| 6. Teachers feel bored with systematic correction. | | | | | |
| 7. Teaching writing without correction is a worthless activity | | | | | |

Remark ( if any) further perspective/s on the role of using error correction techniques in EFL secondary students' writing skills.

……………………………………………………………………………

## B-    Techniques for correction

| Statement | Strongly Agree | Agree | undecided | disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Selective correction is preferable to the comprehensive one | | | | | |
| 2. Analytical correction is useful but time-consuming. | | | | | |
| 3. Impressionistic ( holistic ) correction allows error fossilization. | | | | | |
| 4. Postponed correction is more beneficial than immediate correction. | | | | | |
| 5. Letting written errors to disappear for themselves by time, adds nothing to students' writing skills. | | | | | |
| 6. Using "checklist" helps teachers determine individual differences among their students. | | | | | |
| 7. Taking  remedial work is suitable only for error/s made by the majority of the students. | | | | | |
| 8. Self-correction leads to disappearing collaboration in the classroom. | | | | | |
| 9. Teacher-correction saves time | | | | | |
| 10. Using error logs leads to a steady and gradual promotion of writing skills. | | | | | |
| 11. Conferencing (discussion between teacher and student about the error/s ) is  suitable only in small classes. | | | | | |
| 12. Peer-correction in large classes is a matter of chaos. | | | | | |
| 13. Identifying the place and type of error/s makes correction more utilized. | | | | | |
| 14. Using "projection" technique encourages competition among the students. | | | | | |
| 15. Weak students stay passive in "group composition" activity. | | | | | |

| Statement | Strongly Agree | Agree | undecided | disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 16. "Exchanging Composition" technique makes some students' works messy. | | | | | |
| 17. Discussing common errors in the class is useful for their uprooting. | | | | | |
| 18. Error reoccurrence can be ended through "charting errors". | | | | | |
| 19. Using learners' dictionary in correction distract them from correcting the intended errors. | | | | | |
| 20. Using "thinking prompts" technique activates learners' linguistic competence. | | | | | |
| 21. "post-it-notes" technique is costly and exhausting. | | | | | |
| 22. Coded correction is more beneficial than non-coded one. | | | | | |

23. Add  (if any ) technique/s that teachers use for correction in secondary schools:

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## C-    Errors corrected : When responding to students' written tasks, teachers:

| Statement | Strongly Agree | Agree | undecided | disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Point out errors in grammar. | | | | | |
| 2. Point out errors in spelling. | | | | | |
| 3. Point out errors in vocabulary choice. | | | | | |
| 4. Point out errors in punctuation. | | | | | |
| 5. Comment on page organization. | | | | | |
| 6. Comment on writing style. | | | | | |
| 7. Comment on organizing ideas | | | | | |
| 8. Correct errors of content | | | | | |
| 9. Point out errors of capitalization | | | | | |
| 10.  Do not Just comment and suggest ways for improvement or sustain. | | | | | |
| 11.   Do not simply  give a (✓) or (×). | | | | | |

12. List ( if any ) other error type/s that teachers point out when correcting students' written tasks at this level:

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13-    Are there any more effective ways than error correction techniques for promoting learners' writing skills at the level? if yes, what are they? …………….…………………………………….
………………………………………………………….…………………

14- Make as many as possible recommendations to the English language supervisors, your colleagues, the students and their families on correcting students' written errors.

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