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on theme “TYPES OF ERROR AND ERROR CORRECTION TECHNIQUES
IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING”

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INTRODUCTION

Learning a foreign language is a lifelong process and it is often a challenging experience for language learners. Most if not all writing teachers would agree that composition writing is one of the most difficult subjects for foreign language learners and especially for freshman students. They may be better at planning, idea generation, and revision steps than they were before coming to University, but EFL student compositions still contain lexical and grammatical inaccuracies. Among EFL and ESL professionals it is understood that language acquisition is a difficult process that takes time and energy. Expectation of perfect papers is not realistic, especially from freshman students. When they look at their work after correction, they are often discouraged and learners are not eager to perform their homework or class assignments anymore. Teachers' task is to help students to overcome the problems and encourage them to compose better papers. We should identify their errors and correct them but the problem is how and when. This paper will discuss some error problems and possible solutions to create a better learning atmosphere for foreign language learners.

For years, there have been many studies on the process of first language acquisition and second language learning. Children learning their native tongue make plenty of mistakes are a natural part of language acquisition process. As they get feedback from adults, they learn how to produce grammatically and semantically acceptable sentences in their native language.

It is inevitable that all learners make mistakes and commit errors. However, that process can be impeded through realizing the errors and operating on them according to the feedbacks given. The steps that learners follow get the researchers and language teachers realize that if the mistakes and errors of language learners in constructing the new language system are analyzed carefully, the process of language acquisition shall be understood. The analysis of errors thus has become a field of linguistics in that sense.

In foreign language learning, error correction has become one of the important teaching processes. But actually, few teachers know a lot about error analysis and some related theories. They often take so negative attitudes toward errors that they could not tolerate any errors and tend to correct them as soon as they could find any.

Learning English language is not an easy task. According to Brown [Brown, p.5], in order to master the English language, learners have to be adequately exposed to all of the four basic skills, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing. The field of language teaching benefit from the findings of linguistics in many cases including error analysis. Many of the teachers complain that their students are unable to use the linguistic forms that they are taught. Lengo [Lengo, p.15] states “this situation is due to the teacher’s false impression that output should be an authentic representation of input.” This belief ignores the function of intake- that knowledge of language the students internalize. Intake may be different from the teacher’s syllabus being subject to be internalized.

Error analysis enables teachers to find out the sources of errors and take pedagogical precautions towards them. Thus, the analysis of learner language has become an essential need to overcome some questions and propose solutions regarding different aspects.

In foreign language learning, error correction has become one of the important teaching processes. This study concerns the error analysis and its contribution to English language teaching at both linguistic and methodological levels.

The work consists of Chapter I and Chapter II. Chapter I deals with theoretical notions of error analysis and the importance of error correction. In this part we distinguish between notions: “error” and “mistake” and make a classification of basic types of errors. Chapter II deals with the practical application of errors in writing and communication in English.

Objectives of the course paper attempt to identify and analyze the errors in

English teaching language, to devise teaching procedures to help the students deal with these problems.

The task of course paper is to give an answer for all questions about errors in teaching language, to develop students' self-realization and correction their own mistakes.

Why errors occur and how they should be dealt with in the classroom have been puzzling teachers for ages. We have put the blame on the mother tongue, the foreign language, the teacher, his G' her training, the materials, the learners and their ears. Some kind of enjoyment is experienced by learners when they identify their own mistakes. This awareness contributes to success.

CHAPTER I. ERROR ANALYSIS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

1.1. Previous Researches in the Field

Earlier studies of the relationship between language teaching – learning and error treatment revealed different trends in dealing with this matter.

According to Bartram and Walton, it is an oversimplification to say that there is any consensus in the TEFLG'TESL field about error correction [Bartram, Walton, p.399]. In behaviorist accounts of SLA, errors were considered undesirable. As Ellis mentioned in the book "Understanding Second Language Acquisition", errors, according to behaviorist theory, were the result of non-learning rather than wrong learning. But in either case, there was almost total agreement that errors should be avoided [Ellis, Understanding, p.34]. Later, however, as a result of inter-language theory, errors were no longer seen as "unwanted form" [George, p.44] but as evidence for the learner's active contribution to SLA. In dealing with errors, many teachers and their students still prefer immediate correction by the teacher, in the Audio-Lingual style, despite its lack of efficacy and its punitive nature. On the contrary, recent theory on language

acquisition and teaching methodology [Krashen, p.23; Doff, p.76; Lewis, p.199; Ur, p.6] supported by those teachers who emphasize communicative competence states the position that not all errors should be corrected, and those that are corrected should usually not be “treated” immediately based on the fact that errors are normal and unavoidable during the learning process.

Krashen, when putting forward his notion of comprehensible input, saw second language acquisition as similar to first language acquisition [Krashen, p.92]. Since in first language acquisition, caretakers correct errors of fact rather than errors of language structure (while second language teachers often focus on grammatical errors), Krashen believed that error correction was not important in the second language classroom, and immersion in the target language was the essential and sufficient condition for acquisition.

Dunford [<http://www.eltforum.com>], a UK teacher trainer at Bell School, Cambridge, supported the idea that immediate and constant correction of all errors as and when they occur is not necessarily an effective way of helping course participants improve their English. She gave several reasons for not correcting on the spot:

1. While making errors is an important part of the learning process, systematic correcting does not improve written or spoken language.
2. The danger of embarrassing the speaker in front of his/her peer group. Though not everybody reacts in the same way, there is always the risk of a participant losing face, to which trainer must be sensitive.
3. Interrupting the flow of a fluency activity and responding so much time on correction prevent teachers from achieving the initial aim of the lesson.
4. The nature of error is relevant. Not all errors are easy to correct particularly fossilized ones while minor errors are unlikely to interfere with communication.
5. Constant correction does not help learners sound “less stiff”. On the contrary, nothing could be more stilted than a conversation where both trainer and

teacher are focusing on form rather than content, and spontaneity.

Less critically, Pandolfo [<http://G'G'athena.english.vt.edu>] expressed how she viewed errors in *ESL Tutoring Handbook*, that is “to see errors as friends and not as enemies to be conquered; they tell you a great deal about your students and their learning processes.” Also in this book, she pointed out six criteria for determining what errors to respond to, since trying to catch all of them and deal with them equally can destroy self-esteem and confidence:

1. The generality of the error, or the extent to which it violates a general rule or principle.
2. The error’s frequency in occurrence.
3. Comprehensibility, or how incomprehensible the error makes the idea.
4. Curricular focus, or what the curriculum would value as more important or less important.
5. The error’s source in the students’ competence or performance grammar.
6. The relationship of the written error to similar errors in oral language.

While Pandolfo focused on a selective strategy of error correction, Lyster and Ranta in their study of when and how teachers correct their students’ errors concluded, “None of the feedback types stopped the flow of classroom interaction” and “corrective feedback and learner uptake constitute an adjacency pair” [Lyster, Ranta, p.28] which is expected by all parties engaged in classroom discourse.

In discussing oral grammar correction, while Truscott [Truscott, p.34] protected his opinion of the ineffectiveness of oral correction in class, Lyster, Lightbown and Spada [www.utpjournals.com] strongly disapproved of this conclusion. In his article, Truscott concluded three reasons why oral correction is ineffective. First, success does not mean that students acquire the ability to solve grammar problems. Second, success cannot be judged by the students’ immediate response to the correction. Third, success cannot be measured simply by students’ use of the correct forms in contexts that require their use. In opposition to this, Lyster, Lightbown and Spada clearly stated, “While we would agree with Truscott

that there are many challenges and complexities involved in providing effective feedback for L2 learners, we strongly disagree with his conclusion that feedback on error should be abandoned. On the contrary, in our view, there is increasing evidence that feedback on error can be effective. What is needed is continued systematic and rigorous research to investigate whether different types of feedback are more effective than others and to what extent this may be dependent on the instructional contexts and the characteristics of learners within them.”

Ancker, after conducting a survey attempting to answer the question “Should teachers correct every error students make when using English” [Ancker, p.63], came up with several reasons why teachers should not correct every error including affective concerns, classroom management concerns and teaching concerns and concluded with a suggestion that something should be done to rectify the opposing expectations of teachers and students about how errors (also mistake and attempts) should be handled.

Focusing on another aspect of error correction, Lee examined the relationship between the genders of international college students’ spoken errors made during English conversational instruction. Lee finally indicated that errors committed by male students were treated more often and in more explicit ways and that students’ gender does not affect preference of explicit error treatments [Lee, p.47].

Before the advent of process-oriented instruction in language literacy, teacher feedback to second or foreign language writing students was excessively concerned with eradicating student errors [Zamel, p.12]. Often, that feedback was notably unsuccessful in helping to reduce error frequency in subsequent student writing. As process-oriented practices achieved a wide-spread acceptance, some instructors swung to the opposite extreme, giving little or no attention to the morpho-syntactic or lexical accuracy of students’ final products [Horowitz, p. 59].

According to Zamel, “engaging students in the process of composing does not eliminate our obligation to upgrade their linguistic competences... If, however,

students learn that writing is a process through their thoughts and ideas, then product is likely to improve as well” [Zamel, p.13].

Eskey and Horowitz raised questions about whether fervent adherence to process approaches would meet the needs of writers, who are struggling with language acquisition and the development of their literacy skills [Horowitz, p. 61]. Many writing teachers who were trained in process pedagogies also found that students’ errors “were not magically disappearing as the sure result of a more enlightened process and view of writing” [Ferris, p. 28].

Worse, they “helplessly watched some of their students fail the course final exam and the university’s writing proficiency exam” [Ferris, p.31].

Teachers in the late 1980s and the early 1990s began seeking better answers about techniques and strategies to help students improve the accuracy of their writing while working within a process-oriented paradigm [Ferris, p.32].

Truscott strongly argued for the abolition of grammar correction in writing courses. Truscott’s article led to a published debate, spurring new research efforts. For most teachers, students, and readers, the “debate” is academic [Truscott, p.10]. Everybody knows that students have gaps in morphological, syntactic, and lexical knowledge different from L1 learners. Foreign students do not have enough language practice, especially in written language. As a result, students’ errors in writing class may be quite serious with the vague message in paper and stigmatizing as well. To conclude, they know that learners need expert help to improve text accuracy. Most of educators would agree with me that primary concern in writing class is not error correction, but it is still an important one. Making mistakes is an important and useful part in language learning because it allows learners to experiment with language and measure their success in communicating. Errors are mistakes which students cannot correct without help – and which, therefore, need explanation. Errors occur when learners try to say something that is beyond their current level of knowledge or language processing. Because they are still processing and don’t know this part of language,

learners cannot correct errors themselves because they do not understand what is wrong.

According to Harmer, there are two distinct sources for the errors which most, if not all, students display: L1 interference and developmental errors [Harmer, p. 40]. Students who learn English as a second language already have a deep knowledge of at least one other language. Where L1 and the variety of English they are learning come into contact with each other, there are often confusions which provoke errors in a learner's use of English. This may be at the level of sounds, grammar (where a student's first language has a different system), and vocabulary, word usage (where similarly sounding words have different meanings). Students mainly have problems with sentence structure (because the Uzbek or Russian language has a different sentence structure) and using articles (there are no articles in the Uzbek or Russian language). Among different kinds of problems in writing one stands out with some students is omission of verbs in present tense, let alone other problems, such as vocabulary and sentence structure.

Another error category is often described as developmental errors. These types of errors occur when students' language knowledge develops; they are the result of making apparently sensible (but mistaken) assumptions about the way language works [Harmer, p.43].

In general, everything cited in this Literature Review section reveals the idea that attitudes towards error treatment still arouse different arguments, yet all serve the same purpose, that is to find out the optimal method for language teaching and learning. However, in whatever way correction is carried out, it needs to be done with sensitivity to avoid embarrassment and demotivation [Ur, p.117]. The purpose of this research is not far from the same.

1.2. Identification of Notions: “Error” and “Mistake”

Identifying an error goes beyond explaining what an error is. However, as

linguists pay attention to the distinction between an error and a mistake, it is necessary to go over the definition of the two different phenomena.

According to Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics [Richards, p.252] a learner makes a mistake when writing or speaking because of lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, or some other aspects of performance. Mistakes can be self-corrected when attention is called. Whereas, an error is the use of linguistic item in a way that a fluent or native speaker of the language regards it as showing faulty or incomplete learning. In other words, it occurs because the learner does not know what is correct, and thus it cannot be self-corrected.

To distinguish between an error and mistake, Ellis [Ellis, p.27] suggests two ways. The first one is to check the consistency of learner's performance. If he sometimes uses the correct form and sometimes the wrong one, it is a mistake. However, if he always uses it incorrectly, it is then an error. The second way is to ask learner to try to correct his own deviant utterance. Where he is unable to, the deviations are errors; where he is successful, they are mistakes.

1.3. Error Analysis

Error Analysis is a type of linguistic study that focuses on the errors learners make. It consists of a comparison, between the errors made in Teaching Language and within that Teaching Language itself. Corder is the "father" of Error Analysis". It was in his article entitled "The significance of learner errors" [Corder, The Significance, p. 181] that Error Analysis took a new turn. Errors used to be "flaws" that needed to be eradicated. Corder [Corder, The Significance, p. 183] presented a completely different point of view. He contended that those errors are "important in and of themselves". In his opinion, systematically analyzing errors made by language learners makes it possible to determine areas that need reinforcement in teaching. This analysis, a branch of applied linguistics, emerged in the sixties to

demonstrate that learner errors were not only because of the learner's native language.

Error analysis, offered as an alternative to Contrastive Analysis, may be carried out directly for pedagogic purposes. [Ellis, p.146]

According to Corder [Corder, *The Significance*, p. 185], Error analysis has two objects: one theoretical and another applied. The theoretical object is to understand what and how a learner learns when he studies a language. The applied object is to enable the learner to learn more efficiently by using the knowledge of his dialect for pedagogical purposes. At the same time, the investigation of errors can serve two purposes, diagnostic (to in-point the problem) and prognostic (to make plans to solve a problem).

The use of Error analysis and appropriate corrective techniques can aid effective learning and teaching of English.

Relevance of Error analysis in Language Teaching Learning a language is a step-by-step process, during which errors or mistakes are to be expected during this process of learning. Corder [Corder, *The Significance*, p.186] states that errors are visible proof that learning is taking place. He has emphasized that errors, if studied systematically, can provide significant insights into how a language is actually learned by a foreigner. He also agrees that studying students' errors of usage has immediate practical application for language teachers. In his view, errors provide feedback; they tell the teachers something about the effectiveness of his teaching.

According to Ancker [Ancker, p.20], making mistakes or errors is a natural process of learning and must be considered as part of cognition.

Weireesh [Weireesh, p.21] also considers learners' errors to be of particular importance because the making of errors is a device the learners' use in order to learn. According to him, Error analysis is a valuable aid to identify and explain difficulties faced by learners. He goes on to say that this analysis serves as a reliable feedback to design a remedial teaching method.

Sercombe [Sercombe, p.17] explains that Error analysis serves three purposes. Firstly, to find out the level of language proficiency the learner has reached. Secondly, to obtain information about common difficulties in language learning, and thirdly, to find out how people learn a language.

Candling [Candling, p.146] considers Error analysis as “the monitoring and analysis of learner’s language”. He refers to an error as a deviation.

Stark [Stark, p.19] in his study, who also explained that the teachers need to view students’ errors positively and should not regard them as the learners’ failure to grasp the rules and structures but view the errors as process of learning. He subscribes to the view that errors are normal and inevitable features of learning. He added that errors are essential condition of learning.

Vahdatinejad [Vahdatinejad, p.53] maintains that error analyses can be used to determine what a learner still needs to be taught. It provides the necessary information about what is lacking in his or her competence. He also makes distinction between errors and lapses (simple mistakes).

Lyster and Ranta found that approximately 34% of the student utterances audiotaped during those 18 hours of class time contained some type of error. Teachers responded with some type of corrective feedback to 62% of all the errors produced by students. Of all the feedback utterances produced by the teachers in response to learner errors, 55%, or slightly over half, were found to lead to uptake of some type on the part of the learner. However, only 27% of the feedback utterances led to student repair. When Lyster and Ranta looked at the total number of errors produced by students and the total number of repairs they produced, they found that just 17% of the total errors made by students were repaired in some way by students.

The study produced interesting results in terms of feedback types. Lyster and Ranta found that the teachers in their study provided corrective feedback using recasts over half of the time (55%). Elicitation feedback was offered in 14% of the cases, clarification requests 11%, metalinguistic feedback 8%, explicit correction

7%, and repetition 5%. Lyster and Ranta point out that the low percentage of repetition feedback is rather deceptive because teachers often produce repetitions along with other types of feedback. More interesting still is Lyster and Ranta's analysis of what types of corrective feedback lead to uptake that contained student-generated repairs. These results are summarized in the following table [Lyster, Ranta, p.62]:

Feedback Type	All Repairs (n = 184)	Student-Generated Repairs (n = 100)
Recast (n = 375)	66 (36%)	0
Elicitation (n = 94)	43 (23%)	43 (43%)
Clarification request (n = 73)	20 (11%)	20 (20%)
Metalinguistic feedback (n = 58)	26 (14%)	26 (26%)
Explicit correction (n = 50)	18 (10%)	0
Repetition (n = 36)	11 (6%)	11 (11%)

As clearly shown in this table, recasts and explicit correction did not result in student-generated repair at all, because those two feedback types provide students with the correct forms and thus can only lead to student repair that is a repetition of the correct form provided by the teacher. On the other hand, when the other four types lead to repair, it must be student generated because these feedback types do not provide the correct form. Lyster and Ranta summarize that student-generated repairs are important in language learning because they indicate active engagement in the learning process on the part of students. This active engagement occurs when there is negotiation of form, or when the students have to think about and respond to the teacher's feedback in some way. And this negotiation of form occurs when the teacher does not provide the correct form but instead provides cues to help the student consider how to reformulate his or her incorrect language.

1.4. Description of Errors

A number of different categories for describing errors have been identified.

Firstly, Corder [Corder, Introducing, p.34] classifies the errors in terms of the difference between the learners' utterance and the reconstructed version. In this way, errors fall into four categories: omission of some required element; addition of some unnecessary or incorrect element; selection of an incorrect element; and misordering of the elements. Nevertheless, Corder himself adds that this classification is not enough to describe errors. That is why he includes the linguistics level of the errors under the sub areas of morphology, syntax, and lexicon [Corder, Introducing, p.36]

Ellis [Ellis, p.44] maintains that "classifying errors in these ways can help us to diagnose learners' learning problems at any stage of their development and to plot how changes in error patterns occur over time." This categorization can be exemplified as follows:

Omission:

1. Morphological omission, ex.: A strange thing (...) happen to me yesterday.
2. Syntactical omission, ex.: Must (...) say also the names?

Addition:

1. In morphology, ex.: The books is here.
2. In syntax, ex.: The London
3. In lexicon, ex.: I stayed there during five years ago.

Selection:

1. In morphology, ex.: My friend is oldest than me.
2. In syntax, ex.: I want that he comes here.

Ordering:

1. In pronunciation, ex.: fignisicant for 'significant'; ex.: prulal for 'plural'
2. In morphology, ex.: get upping for 'getting up'
3. In syntax, ex.: He is a dear to me friend.
4. In lexicon, ex.: key car for 'car key' (Appendix 1)

An error may vary in magnitude. It can include a phoneme, a morpheme, a word, a sentence or even a paragraph. Due to this fact, errors may also be viewed

as being either global or local [Brown, p.51]. Global errors hinder communication. They prevent the message from being comprehended as in the example below:

Ex.: I like bus but my mother said so not that we must be late for school.

On the other hand, local errors do not prevent the message from being understood because there is usually a minor violation of one segment of a sentence that allows the hearer to guess the intended meaning as follows:

Ex.: If I hear from her, I would let you know.

The final group is the two related dimensions of error, domain and extent. Domain is the rank of linguistic unit from phoneme to discourse that must be taken as context in order for the error to be understood, and extent is the rank of linguistic unit that would have to be deleted, replaced, supplied or reordered in order to repair the sentence. This suggestion by Lennon [Brown, p.53] is parallel with Corder's other categorization of overtly such as "I angry" are obvious even out of context and covertly [Corder, Introducing, p.38]. Overt errors are unquestionably ungrammatical at the sentence level and covert errors are grammatically well- formed at the sentence level but are not interpretable within the context of communication.

For example, "I'm fine, thanks." Is a correct sentence but if it is given as an answer to the question of "How old are you?" it is covertly error.

Errors may also be classified according to the level of language: phonological errors, vocabulary, morphological errors, and so on. They may be assessed according to the degree to which they interfere with communication: global errors make an utterance difficult to understand, while local errors do not. In the above example, "I angry" would be a local error, since the meaning is apparent.

Students often demonstrate accurate processing (hearing) of a word but make phonological errors when attempting to reproduce that word. In many cases, students "hear" – or at least opt for – a more familiar word. For example: Teacher: Use "coax" in a sentence. Students: He put several coats of paint on the wall.

Vocabulary errors: when some words sound similarly from language to

language. For example, “sensible” in English and “sensible” in Spanish. However, they have totally different meanings: “intelligent” in English and “sensitive” in Spanish. These words are considered false cognates of these languages. If we use Spanish “sensible” to translate English “sensible”, we are making a translation error at the vocabulary level.

Morphology means the structure of words, how words are formed, and how the parts fit together. If you get the wrong morpheme (i.e., word part) in the wrong place at the wrong time, you've committed a morphological error.

For example: "He putted the plate on the table." (A past tense morpheme has been added to the verb, but it's not supposed to be there.)

"They have six childrens." (The word "children" is already plural, but someone has added a needless plural suffix)

There are morphological errors that are caused by phonological errors. For example, if removed the “T” from the end of the word "breakfast" say "breakfases" instead of "breakfasts". Removing the “T” made the wrong form of the plural suffix on the word. That was a phonological error that resulted in a morphological error. [Corder, *The Significance*, p.161]

Corder introduced the distinction between systematic and non-systematic errors. Unsystematic errors occur in one’s native language; Corder calls these "mistakes" and states that they are not significant to the process of language learning. He keeps the term "errors" for the systematic ones, which occur in a second language.

Sources of Errors. As there are many descriptions for different kinds of errors, it is inevitable to move further and ask for the sources of errors. It has been indicated in the first part of the study that errors were assumed as being the only result of interference of the first language habits to the learning of the second language. However, with the field of error analysis, it has been understood that the nature of errors implicates the existence of other reasons for errors to occur. Then, the sources of errors can be categorized within two domains: (1) interlingual

transfer, and (2) intralingual transfer. [Hendrickson, p. 152]

Interlingual Transfer. Interlingual transfer is a significant source for language learners. Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics [Richards, p.310] defines interlingual errors as being the result of language transfer, which is caused by the learner's first language.

However, this should not be confused with behaviouristic approach of language transfer. Error analysis does not regard them as the persistence of old habits, but rather as signs that the learner is internalizing and investigating the system of the new language.

Interlingual errors may occur at different levels such as transfer of phonological, morphological, grammatical and lexica-semantic elements of the native language into the target language.

Intralingual Transfer and Developmental Errors. Interferences from the students' own language is not the only reason for committing errors. As Ellis [Ellis, p. 86] states, some errors seem to be universal, reflecting learners' attempts to make the task of learning and using the target language simpler. Use of past tense suffix '-ed' for all verbs is an example of simplification and overgeneralization. These errors are common in the speech of second language learners, irrespective of their mother tongue.

Intralingual errors result from faulty or partial learning of the target language rather than language transfer. They may be caused by the influence of one target language item upon another. For example, learners attempt to use two tense markers at the same time in one sentence since they have not mastered the language yet.

Ex.: When they say: "He is comes here", it is because the singularity of the third person requires "is" in present continuous, and "-s" at the end of a verb in simple present tense.

In short, intralingual errors occur as a result of learners' attempt to build up concepts and hypotheses about the target language from their limited experience

with it. Learners may commit errors due to this reason in many ways as in the following examples:

Ex.: He made me to smile.

I want learning English.

The meat smells freshly.

Doctors always give us good advices.

I don't know why did he go.

Errors are a means of feedback for the teacher reflecting how effective he is in his teaching style and what changes he has to make to get higher performance from his students. Furthermore, errors indicate the teacher the points that needs further attention. Additionally, errors show the way to be treated when their sources are identified correctly.

CHAPTER II. PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENT OF COMMON ERRORS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

2.1. Errors and New Techniques of Their Correction in the Foreign Language Teaching

English as a foreign language learners make a lot of mistakes. Speaking, writing, grammar and spelling errors are practically way of life with teachers and learners alike. It's a "healthy" problem though because with errors come corrections. And with correction comes learning. [Brown, p.92] The more errors learners make the more correction is done. The more correction is done, the more leaning that takes place. We most often learn much more from our mistakes than our successes.

There are essentially three basic forms of error correction:

- Self-correction
- Peer correction

- Teacher correction

Of these the most effective in English or foreign language skills acquisition is self-correction. When learners realize and correct their own mistakes, they are more effectively internalizing the language. The next most desirable and effective form is peer correction. When learners are able to recognize and correct their mistakes collectively, they actually help each other to develop English language skills with less interference of their respective Affective Filters. [Hendrickson, p.87] Finally, there is correction of errors by the teacher. An effective means, but one that should be last and the least frequently used form of English or other foreign language correction. In cases where the EFL teacher may not be a native or near-native speaker, has grammar or pronunciation problems, heavy accent or speech traits or may otherwise desire to do so, recorded audio or video materials could be used to provide corrective modeling. [Hendrickson, p.85]

Concerning this problem, the most controversial issue is to treat them immediately or to delay. First, we are confronted with a dilemma - fluency versus accuracy. For communicative purpose, delayed correction is usually preferred. Some advanced students believe that when to correct errors is determined by the type of errors committed. For instance, if they are pronunciation or grammatical errors, immediate correction is preferable, for post-correction cannot make learners remember anything. Furthermore, the overall situation in the classroom is also important. When the whole class is familiar with a word, but only one of them is singled out for being corrected, he or she would feel awkward. So, we can see that when to correct is very complicated. Both the teachers' intuition and the feedback from the students are equally important.

We can categorize an error by the reason for its production or by its linguistic type. Categorizing errors:

What's the reason for the error?

It is the result of a random guess (pre-systematic).

It was produced while testing out hypotheses (systematic).

It is a slip of the tongue, a lapse, a mistake (caused by carelessness, fatigue etc.) (post-systematic).

To be sure about the type of error produced by a student we need to know where the student's interlanguage is (the language used by a student in the process of learning a second language).

What type is it?

According to James [James, p.125], it is sensible to follow the three principles in error correction. Firstly, the techniques involved in error correction would be able to enhance the students' accuracy in expression. Secondly, the students' affective factors should be taken into consideration and the correction should not be face-threatening to the students. Some scholars believed that teachers' indirect correction is highly appreciated. They either encourage students to do self-correction in heuristic method or present the correct form, so students couldn't feel embarrassed. For example, compare the two situations:

(1) Student: "What means this word?"

Teacher: "No, listen, what does this word mean?"

(2) Student: "What means this word?"

Teacher: "What does it mean? Well, it is difficult to explain, but it means..."

It is obvious that teacher's remodeling in (2) is more natural and sensible than the direct interruption in (1).

Up till now, both the theory and the application have been illustrated, in the next section we are going to deal with both the significance and limitations of error analysis in language teaching and learning.

In general, the teacher's job is to point out when something has gone wrong and see whether the student can correct himself, then, to find out if what the student say or write is just a mistake, or it is global or local.

According to Hendrickson [Hendrickson, p.97], global errors need not be corrected and they are generally held true. But the expressions such as "a news", or "an advice" are systematic errors, and they need to be corrected. As for

pre-systematic errors, teachers can simply provide the correct one.

For systematic errors, since learners have already had the linguistic competence, they can explain this kind of errors and correct them themselves. So teachers just remind them when they commit such errors. As to what kind of errors should be corrected, it needs teachers' intuition and understanding of errors. At the same time, the teacher should consider the purpose of the analysis and analyze them in a systematic way. However, the technique of correction is not simply presenting the data repeatedly and going through the same set of drills and exercises to produce the state of over learning.

On the contrary, it requires that the teacher understand the source of the errors so that he can provide appropriate remedy, which will resolve the learner's problems and allow him to discover the relevant rules.

Thus, the source of the error is an important clue for the teacher to decide on the sort of treatment.

Harmer [Harmer, p.57] suggests three steps to be followed by the teacher when errors occur. The teacher first listens to the students, then identifies the problem, and puts it right in the most efficient way. Corder [Corder, Introducing, p.52] states that knowledge of being wrong is only a starting point. Skill in correction seems to lie in determining the necessary data to present to the learner and what statements, descriptive or comparative, to make about it.

For example, Brown [Brown, p.96] suggests that local errors as in the following example usually need not be corrected as the message is clear and correction might interrupt a learner in the flow of productive communication:

Ex.: I gave she a present.

On the other hand, global errors need to be treated in some way since the message is not comprehended clearly:

Ex.: Daddy my car happy tomorrow buy.

Errors in pluralization, use of articles, tenses, etc. are less important than errors regarding word order, the choice of placement and appropriate connectors in

terms of the comprehensibility of the sentence. Therefore, it is implied that priority in error correction should be given to global errors in order to develop the students' communication skills. The knowledge of error analysis enables the teacher to monitor the students' errors in this frame and take precautions where needed.

Different kinds of tasks may require a different treatment. The reaction of the teacher towards errors and the type of feedback to be given is usually determined by the position of the error in the objective of the task.

Oral works are at crucial point in terms of corrections and feedback time. For oral works, it is usually recommended that students making mistakes during a fluent speech should not be interrupted, but be reminded of the mistakes and talk about the reasons. The type of the feedback- form or content should be decided on according to the goal of the study. If the goal is to make the students practice a certain grammar point, it may be necessary to give a form feedback. Or else, if a pronunciation item is being practiced, the teacher should correct the related mistakes without interrupting the speaker [Ur, p.19].

The existence of errors has been subject to all language-teaching theories as they represent an important aspect of second language learning. There are different opinions by different language teaching approaches regarding error correction [Stark, p.18]. Below is what they suggest for the correction of errors:

Audio-lingualism: There is little need for correction at first sight. Latter one is not useful for learning. In audio-lingualism, there is no explicit grammar instruction—everything is simply memorized in form. The idea is for the students to practice the particular construct until they can use it spontaneously. An audio-lingual lesson usually begins with a dialogue which contains the grammar and vocabulary to be focused on in the lesson. The students mimic the dialogue and eventually memorize it. After the dialogue comes pattern drills, in which the grammatical structure introduced in the dialogue is reinforced, with these drills focusing on simple repetition, substitution, transformation, and translation.

Oral drills: Drills and pattern practice are typical of the Audio-lingual

method. These include:

Inflection : Where one word in a sentence appears in another form when repeated
ex.: Teacher : I ate the sandwich. Student : I ate the sandwiches.

Replacement : Where one word is replaced by another

Ex.: Teacher : He bought the car for half-price. Student : He bought it for half-price.

Restatement : The student re-phrases an utterance

Ex.: Teacher : Tell me not to smoke so often. Student : Don't smoke so often!

Repetition : where the student repeats an utterance as soon as he hears it

The following example illustrates how more than one sort of drill can be incorporated into one practice session :

“Teacher: There's a cup on the table ... repeat

Students: There's a cup on the table

Teacher: Spoon

Students: There's a spoon on the table

Teacher: Book

Students: There's a book on the table

Teacher: On the chair

Students: There's a book on the chair [Harmer, p.79]

Cognitive-code learning: Mistakes should be corrected whenever they occur to prevent them occurring again. Cognitive-code focuses on developing all four skills of language: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. In lessons, the main focus is on the communicative competence and learning the rules of grammar in its new Kolomic's terms (phonologyG' morphologyG' semanticsG' syntax) is overemphasized. Lessons focused on learning grammatical structures but the cognitive code approach emphasised the importance of meaningful practice, and the structures were presented inductively, i.e. the rules came after exposure to examples. [Kolomits, p. 55]

Ex.: The aim of the class is for learners to understand the rule of the day', which is that the past form of regular verbs is made using -ed. The teacher elicits a dialogue that includes clear examples of the structure. The learners practise it, and the teacher uses it to elicit the rules.

Interlanguage: Mistakes are important part of learning. Correcting them is a way of bringing the learner's interlanguage closer to the target language.

Ex.: Child: Nobody don't like me.

Mother: No, say 'nobody likes me'.

Child: Nobody don't like me.

(after 8 repetitions)

Mother: No, listen carefully; say 'nobody likes me'

Child: Oh! Nobody don't likes me. [Vahdatinejad, p.20]

Communicative approach: Not all mistakes need to be corrected. Focus should be on message rather than mistakes. Focuses on language as a medium of communication. Recognizes that all communication has a social purpose - learner has something to say or find out. The communicative approach is based on the idea that learning language successfully comes through having to communicate real meaning. When learners are involved in real communication, their natural strategies for language acquisition will be used, and this will allow them to learn to use the language.

Example: Practicing question forms by asking learners to find out personal information about their colleagues is an example of the communicative approach, as it involves meaningful communication.

Example activities: role play, interviews, information gap, games, language exchange , surveys, pair work, learning by teaching . [Hendrickson, p.118]

Monitor theory: Correction does not contribute to language learning. The learned knowledge helps us to make corrections or change the output of the acquired system. The Monitor Hypothesis is concerned with language production--the ability to use language is a result of competence based on

acquisition, while learning acts to enable speakers and writers to "change the output of the acquired system before [they] speak or write".

There are basically two different attitudes to mistakes or errors made by people learning languages other than their own. Probably most teachers regard mistakes as undesirable, a sign of failure either on the students' part to pay attention or to listen properly, or else on the teachers' part to make his meaning clear or to give the students sufficient time to practice what they have been taught. But on the other hand there is an Italian proverb *Sbagliando s'impara* (We learn through our errors) and making mistakes can indeed be regarded as an essential part of learning.

After teaching English for several years, teachers become able to detect errors easily in their students' pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, spelling, use and their ability to get the intended message across. If one has been trained audiolingually as an error chaser and has spent years making bloody marks with red ink, underlining, circling, highlighting mistakes in written work, correcting every error in students' oral expression, it is not easy to change one's attitude from being corrective or even punitive to being encouraging. [Hortensia, p.38]

It would be useful at this stage to distinguish between different type of error:

a) The error – let us call a systematic deviation when a learner has not learnt something and consistently gets it wrong. As mentioned above a child acquiring his own language sometimes consistently makes the same error. In the same way when a learner of English as a second or foreign language makes an error systematically it is because it has not learnt the correct form. A common example is using the infinitive to after the verb must (I must to go to the shop). Let us suppose that the learners know the verbs want (Qto) and need (Qto) and perhaps ought (Qto) by analogy he then produces must (Qto). Until he had been told otherwise or until he notices that native speakers do not produce this form he will say or write this quite consistently.

b) The mistake – Once a learner has noticed or been taught that in English

the verb must does not follow the same pattern as some of the other modal verbs there will be a period during which he produces he must go and he must to go. Sometimes he will use one form and sometimes the other quite inconsistently. This inconsistent deviation we shall call a mistake sometimes the learner gets it right but sometimes he makes a mistake and uses the wrong form.

c) The lapse – There is another type of wrong usage which is neither a mistake nor an error and can happen to anyone at any time. This is lapse which may be due to lack of concentration shortness of memory fatigue. A lapse bears little relation to whether or not a given form in the language has been learnt or is in the process of being learnt. Native speaker suffer lapses in the same way as learners of the language a recent example was a presenter of BBC's Radio 4 who said chieving to astrive instead of striving to achieve.

d) Careless slip – Many teachers may feel that there is another type of common mistake: a careless slip caused by the learner's in attentiveness in class. In fact by referring to any kind of unacceptable or in appropriate form as careless we are pre-judging the cause and blaming the learner for it. To be realistic we must admit that classrooms are no always populated by the ideal motivated attentive students we would hope for. But can we call a learner careless who produces the following utterance. That is the man that I saw him last Friday after he has worked at sentences demonstrating relative clauses. [Richards, Error Analysis, p.145]

Why errors occur and how they should be dealt with in the classroom have been puzzling teachers for ages. We have put the blame on the mother tongue, the foreign language, the teacher, his G'her training, the materials the learners and their ears. When to correct and when not to? This is a very complex question but basically we should correct students when we are concentrating on form and not on content.

We should be very careful about correcting students when emphasis of the activity is on meaningful communication, i.e. during group or pair work, opinion discussions, etc. If we do this too often, or in an intensive way, we run the risk of

taking away of the student's desire to communicate in the new language. Error correction is very important, however, when the activity is focusing on the form of the language that is when we are presenting grammar structures, new vocabulary or pronunciation. Points that teachers must use as a guide before correcting errors:

1. Allow time in the lesson for the students to simply communicate, correcting them only if communication is affected. This develops fluency.

2. Encourage students to take risks and express ideas that are beyond their linguistic ability. This will increase their sense of achievement

3. Always allow time in the lesson where you concentrate on accuracy and make it clear to the students when this is what you expect from them.

4. Accuracy is the most important when students are practicing something that has just been presented to them.

5. Even when not corrected, mistakes can be part of the learning process as the student is experimenting with the language and may be aware of his mistakes even while talking.

6. Encouragement can be just as important as correction, and in some cases more so.

7. Deal with errors as natural consequences in the struggle to learn.

8. Develop in learners a positive attitude towards peer correction and teacher correction.
9. Give students self-confidence in their own resources.

10. Provide individual help with tasks requiring the use of the problem item.

11. Joke without sarcasm about why errors occur establishing a friendly loving competitive and corporative classroom atmosphere.

In teaching foreign language there exist different types of error correction:

- a) Self correction – this is when the teacher does not correct the mistake, but shows a mistake has been made and gives the student a chance to correct himself.

- b) Peer correction – here the teacher indicates a mistake has been made asks if anyone in the class can give the correct answer. If someone does the teacher may then go back to the first student and ask him to repeat the sentence again correctly.

c)Teacher correction – the teacher provides or models the correct form and may then ask students to repeat it. [Yokomizo, p.15]

Correction techniques

1. Fact or error indicated - teacher makes a questioning face and just pauses or says something like “Err...or Uhm” to invite correction.

2. Location indicated – teacher repeats what the student has said right, stopping just before the mistake then pauses inviting the student to make the correction.

3. Remodeling – teacher repeats the model phrase, emphasizing the part the student needs (the part where heG’she made a mistake).

4. Gestures and mime - can be used to indicate all kinds of things and are particularly useful for correcting intonation and stress. You can also indicate missing words or sounds by counting them on your fingers.

5. Explaining – using the board, the teacher shows again the grammatical structure of the phrase being practiced.

6. After the fact – to be used in freer activities like role plays, student monologues and discusses, where interrupting the student is not desirable. The teacher makes a note of the more frequent and serious errors and waits until the activity has finished before calling the student’s attention to the mistake and inviting him or the other students to correct. This may be followed by brief remedial work on any grammar points that have arisen.

7. Correcting code – the teacher uses code indications and puts them over the error. It helps students to realize what mistake they should correct.

8. Immediate correction – teacher corrects the occurred mistakes by the help of gestures or arms, fingers and facial expressions in order to show where the mistakes should be corrected. [Selinker, p.201]

When the teacher himself is correcting work (rather than students correcting each other’s), it may well be found more profitable to concentrate on errors which are in the areas the class has been working on, rather than to indicate every single

deviation. The difficulty here is for the teacher to assess the relative importance of errors. Many teachers have found a profitable approach to correction in the use of a code of indications written in margins or over the error. For example, T (tense), WF (word form), WO (word order), S (syntax), Ag (agreement), V (vocabulary), Sp (spelling), P (pronunciation), Art (article), R (reference unclear), St (style), etc.

The advantage of this system is that it will lead the learners, if they are given adequate time, to work out for themselves what is wrong, and to go some way towards correcting it. But it should be stressed here that given adequate preparation and discussion, both with the teacher and with fellow students, learners should not be in the position, finding the initial task too difficult for them. [Brumfit, p.74]

What arises immediately from this system of correction is the question of categorizing the deviation. For example, the word “sank” has been marked as a spelling problem. But it could be a grammatical one. Similarity with “felt” is the “t” merely a slip of the pen or is this how the learner would pronounce the word? At a later stage of learning, some teachers go further than this and simply give references to grammar or class books where the particular point which the student has misproduced is dealt with. This is a very useful and time saving technique for the busy teacher.

Immediate correction consists of three techniques:

- a) Indicate to student that an error has occurred
- b) Locate where error is
- c) Give help in showing the correct form

Ways of using correction techniques.

1. Finger techniques: indicating the error with the movement of forefinger, locating where the error is using fingers, linking the forefingers to show the missing word.

2. The use of gestures or arms: sweep the hand horizontally in front of you, using the movement of the hand up or down to show what is wrong and what the

right should be, use the hands in front of you crossing them to show the wrong word order, move your arm forth and back above your shoulder to show the tenses.

3. Verbally indicate where the mistake is: use the expressions as “Nearly; Not quite; Good, but...”.

4. Pretending to misunderstand: cup your hand behind your ear, as if you have not heard properly, ask him questions as if you want him to clarify using expressions like “Verb?”, “Preposition?”, “Article?”.

5. The use of facial expressions: shaking the head, frowning, doubtful expression.

6. Make use of non-verbal sounds: “Mmmmmh...” with doubtful intonation.

In this article some practical procedures are suggested for dealing with errors. In foreign language teaching process teacher must remember the following steps. The first step is to establish what the error is. Four types of errors have been mentioned, they are the lapse, the mistake, the error and the careless slip. The second step is to establish the possible sources of the error to explain why it happened. The main reasons for errors were given earlier: poor materials, bad teaching, and errors from the learning process, mother tongue interference. The third step is to decide how serious the mistake is. The most serious the mistake, generally speaking the higher priority it should have in remedial work. The fourth step is the correction of errors and its techniques. It hardly needs stating that the teacher must tread very cautiously everyone knows the feeling when a piece of written work comes back covered with red ink and many students complain bitterly of their teacher correcting their speech so often that they no longer dare to open their mouth. For even the best intentioned teaching there is no easy way to know how much to correct or how often. It is perhaps best to consider this in relation to two factors: the sensitivity of the student and the nature of the task. Some people are always going to support correction lesswell than others. What a student will accept is very variable and clearly the teacher must exercise his personal judgment.

The development of the ability to express oneself in a new language is one

of the most interesting areas of human study and this book sets out to clarify some of the issues in this field. The main purpose is to persuade teachers to treat learners' shortcomings more leniently and to help learners gain a sense of enjoyment and confidence in using the new language.

2.2. Writing and Grammar Errors

When writing we do not have the chance to rephrase or clarify what we are saying. Our message must be clear the first time. Written errors are also less tolerated than spoken errors outside the classroom.

Look at this model for correcting written work and evaluate it for your teaching situation.

1. Comprehensibility

Can you understand the output?

Are there areas of incoherence?

Do these affect the overall message?

Does communication break down?

2. Task

Has the student addressed the task?

3. Syntax and Lexis

Are they appropriate to the task?

Are they accurate?

The role of planning

Giving students time to plan not only results in a wider range of language being used, it also helps students to avoid some of the following:

Inappropriate layout

No paragraphs

Lack of cohesion

Inappropriate style

Whichever style of plan (linear notes or a mind map) these questions will help students to plan their writing:

- What am I going to write? (An informal letter etc.)

What layout do I need?

What information am I going to include?

How many paragraphs do I need?

What grammar G' vocabulary am I going to use?

What linking words (because, and etc.) am I going to use?

Practical techniques G' ideas for correcting writing

Training students to edit

Even though they have invested time in doing a writing task, students often don't spend a few more minutes checking their writing. The following activities not only help to develop students' editing skills in a fun way, but also enable the teacher to focus on key errors without individual students losing face.

- Grammar auctions:

Students receive a number of sentences taken from their written work. Some are correct, some wrong. Students in groups have to try to buy the correct ones in the auction. They have a limited amount of money. The team with the most correct sentences wins [Rinvoluceri, p.102].

Mistakes mazes:

Students have a list of sentences. Their route through a maze depends on whether the sentences are right or wrong. They follow white arrows for correct sentences and black ones for incorrect ones. If they have identified all the sentences correctly they escape, if not they have to retrace their steps and find out where they went wrong [Bartram, Walton, p.264].

Correction techniques

It can be difficult to decide on what and how much to correct in a student's piece of writing. Students can develop a negative attitude towards writing because their teacher corrects all their errors or if the teacher only corrects a few, they

might feel that the teacher hasn't spent sufficient time looking at their work. Evaluate the following techniques and decide which would be appropriate for your teaching situation. Underline inappropriate language in a piece of writing using a specific colour.

- Using a different colour from above, underline examples of appropriate language.

Correct errors by writing the correct forms in their place.

Use codes in the margin to identify the type of error(s), for example, VOC q a lexical error. Students have to identify the error(s) and if possible make a correction.

Alternatively put crosses in the margin for the number of errors in each line. Students then try to identify the errors and make corrections.

Put students into pairs G' groups. They correct each other's work using one or more of the techniques above.

From time to time give students an individual breakdown of recurring problems in their written work.

According to James [James, p.120] errors in writing such as tenses, prepositions and weak vocabulary are the most common and frequent type of errors that are committed by learners. Since grammar is seen only as a means to an end, some learners tend to re-emphasize its importance and in the process, they make many more errors. The learners usually face difficulties in learning the grammatical aspects of the Target Language (TL), such as in subject-verb agreement, the use of preposition, articles and the use of correct tense. Such errors can be seen clearly in the learners' written performance [Karim, p.89]. The problems that the students are bound to encounter would be weak vocabulary, inappropriate use of grammar in sentences etc.

To enhance students understanding on the use of correct prepositions, the researcher divided the research procedures into three steps, that is:

Step 1: A pre-test was conducted.

Students were given a short paragraph containing 10 wrongly used prepositions (Appendix 2, Ex.1). They were to identify the wrongly used prepositions and replace them with correct ones. The students' exercises were checked and the frequency of correct answers calculated.

Step 2: Treatment Implementation

For two consecutive weeks, for 10-15 minutes before beginning new topics, students were given input on the rules on how to use correct prepositions as well provided error identification drill exercises. Identify the wrongly used prepositions in 10 individual sentences and correct them (Appendix 2, Ex.2). Identify 10 wrongly used prepositions in a short paragraph and correct them (refer to Appendix 2, Ex.3). After completing the exercises, the answers were discussed.

Step 3: Identify 10 wrongly used prepositions in a short paragraph and correct them (refer to Appendix 2, Ex.3).

For correcting written works, it is accepted that the teacher should not correct the students' mistakes directly but instead, should put marks indicating there is something wrong with that sentence, word, or punctuation. There are symbols to show the kind of mistake that teachers use. For example, it is better to write 'sp' for spelling mistake near the wrong word, to write 'rw' for the sentences need to be written once again, etc. than writing the correct form. Thus, students are able to correct themselves looking for the source of their mistakes.

Errors based on the overgeneralization of learning strategies were seen in the usage of the simple past tense form of a verb (Appendix 3). Several types of errors were noticed in the broad categories of regular (Type 1), and irregular verbs (Type 2). Type 1 was categorized into six sub-types. The first (sub-type 1) was the omission of the past marker -ed, as in

Ex.: I think I like English at that time. (line 02)

Sub-type 2 involved the auxiliary do in negation, for example, I don't like school English but I liked. . . (line 12)

Sub-type 3 consisted of be verb before an adjective, as in

Ex.: . . . I met one English teacher. He is very hard teacher. . . (line 14)

Sub-type 4 seen as be verb before a noun, such as Ex.: When, I went to Australia, my teachers are school teachers. (line 18)

Sub-type 5 involved a verb preceding the to-infinitive, as in

Ex.: I began to listen music of song by English and want to read. . . (line 20)

The last (sub-type 6) consisted of the modal can, for instance, I enjoyed listening class, so we can watch (line 31)

These sentences represent a past context through the time orientation (*italics*) [9, p.48]; however, the present forms of the verb (underlined) are employed to convey the past context, a very common tendency in this error pattern.

Other sentences such as I like her oral communication class. (line 03), and . . . but I don't dislike him. (line 13) are superficially correct at the sentence level, however, if the context, that is pastness, is taken into account, they are incorrect (see other examples in lines 07-09, 16, 25, 28-29, and 34-35).

Another type of error was the production of past forms of irregular verbs by merely adding-ed (see Type 2) such as feeled (line 38, 40), including a rare case of an adjective like harded (line 37).

The most important aspect while giving feedback is adopting a positive attitude to student writing. While marking mechanically we may not realize that we are showing the student only his mistakes – negative points. If the student receives only negative feedback, he may easily be discouraged from trying to form complex structures and using new vocabulary. However, feedback sessions can be a beneficial experience for the student if the teacher shows the strong points as well.

Another important point to consider while giving feedback is the amount of correction on the end product. In academic writing, the end product is expected to have:

1. A wide range of vocabulary;
2. Correct grammar;
3. Meaningful punctuation;

4. Accurate spelling;
5. Varied sentence structures;
6. Unity and coherence in ideas;
7. Well-supported and explained major points.

If the teacher tries to make comments and corrections on the final version of the student paper, the teacher would be exhausted and the student would be discouraged. One alternative can be giving feedback through the process of writing. That is, while the student is planning and organizing his ideas, the teacher can comment on the unity and coherence of ideas.

Or while the student is writing his draft, the teacher can proofread for word-order, subject-verb agreement, spelling mistakes. This gradual checking can minimize the exhaustive red marks on the student paper.

Another advantage of such correction is that the student sees these comments when the writing experience is still fresh in his mind.

Another strategy for decreasing teacher writing on a student paper is to use some kind of “code”. This list of symbols which show typical mistakes can be found in writing guides such as APA or MLA or the teacher can come up with one like this:

Code	Explanation	Example sentence
WF	Wrong form	The strong [WF] of Hercules amazed the spectators
WT	Wrong tense	I knew [WT] him for years.
Sp	Wrong spelling	Separate [Sp]

For such a code to be useful for the students, they should be familiar with it beforehand. If you think photocopying would not be enough, you could post an enlarged version on the wall of the class as well. Seeing the common mistakes on the wall may also reduce the number of student mistakes.

Providing constructive feedback to the student, using a special code for proofreading, and editing a student paper through planning and drafting stages are some suggested ways for correcting and giving feedback to student writing.

Some ideas on error correction in ELT

1. Distinguishing between serious and minor errors may be a good guide in choosing what to correct.

2. You should prioritize what you are correcting and grading. Do not focus only on grammar because students start to think that grammar is the only thing that counts in writing. Most teachers react primarily to surface errors, treating the composition as if it is a “series of separate sentences or even clauses, rather than as a whole unit of discourse” [Zamel, p.86]

3. It is a good idea to distinguish between writers who have tried and who have not. Presentation, obvious spelling, punctuation, and capitalization mistakes may be there because the student did not bother to edit and proofread her own paper. Ask the student to edit it before you check the assignment.

4. Lower level learners particularly will have trouble with finding the appropriate word and they need more modeling. Provide correct vocabulary choices. Most of the time word choice is idiomatic or conventionally agreed upon and it is difficult for the learners to come up with the correct or appropriate word even if they consult the dictionary.

5. When correcting prepositions, a very common error in the writing of Turkish learners of English, it is a good idea to provide the correct preposition if it is introduced the first time. For recurrent errors, indicating wrong preposition use and expecting the learners to self-correct would be a good idea.

6. Teachers should use consistent and standardized methods to indicate to their students the type and place of errors. Correction legends, lists of symbols often prove useful if the teacher first trains her students on their meaning and what is expected from the students when a certain symbol is used.

7. Written comments on content should be consistent. Teachers must use a set of clear and direct comments and questions, and also should familiarize students with these comments. These comments must address the strategies required to improve the essay and not just indicate what the teacher found lacking

or interesting. It has been reported that without training, students just tend to ignore written comments on their essays.

8. Lower level learners have been found to benefit from more direct correction rather than indirect correction in which symbols are used or the place of error has been indicated. Another thing that has to be kept in mind in teaching beginning level students is, because the students are struggling with both linguistic structure and writing conventions, the teacher has to stress different things at different times. When the learners are making so many mistakes, it may be futile for the teacher to try to correct every error on the paper: it will be a waste of both time and effort for the teacher and very discouraging and unmanageable for the student. Sometimes the teacher should wait for the students to reach some fluency, then stress correctness.

9. It has been found that students who receive feedback and self-correct their mistakes during revision are more likely to develop their linguistic competence than those who receive no feedback and those who are not asked to do re-writes. Therefore, revision in the form of re-writes is a must if we want any improvement.

10. Conferencing is a particularly useful technique to show the learners the errors in their papers. Students can directly ask the teacher questions on the issues they have trouble with. At the same time the teacher may check the students' meaning and understanding.

2.3. Spoken Errors

There are 15 ways to correct spoken errors:

1. Collect the errors for later

You can then correct them later in the same class (with a game like a grammar auction or just eliciting corrections from the class) or in a future class (for example writing error dictation pairwork worksheets or using the same techniques as can be used in the same class). Make sure you give positive reinforcement as

well, e.g. “Someone said this sentence, and that is really good.”

Useful language:

“Here are some things that people said in the last activity”

“I heard several people say this one”

“Can anyone correct this sentence? It has one missing wordG’ one word missingG’ You need to add one word”

“The words are in the wrong orderG’ You need to change the words aroundG’ change the word orderG’ mix the words up”

“This is a typical mistake for students from...”

“Don’t worry, even native speakers make this mistake sometimesG’ every nationality makes this mistake”

“This mistake is something we studied last week”

2. Facial expression

For example, raise an eyebrow, tilt your head to one side or give a slight frown. Most people will do this naturally, but there is a slight chance a teacher’s expression will be too critical or too subtle for your students to pick up on, and you can (amusingly) practice facial expressions in a teaching workshop by participants communicating certain typical classroom messages (“move over there to work with this person”, “work in pairs” etc.) using just their heads and faces, including feedback on spoken errors in that list.

3. Body language

The problems with using body language to show errors could also be that it is taken as very serious criticism or that it is too vague. Possibilities include using your hands (rolling a hand from side to side to mean “so-so attempt”; making a circle by moving your index finger to mean “one more time”; or a cross with fingers, open palms or even forearms to show a very clear “no” or “wrong”-probably only suitable for a team game etc. where the responsibility is shared), head (tilted to one side to mean “I’m not sure that sounds correct”), or shoulders (hunched to reinforce “I don’t understand what you are saying”). Again, practicing

this in a teaching workshop can be useful, as can eliciting other body language teachers could have used after an observation.

4. Point at the correct language

If you have something on the correct form easily accessible on the whiteboard, in the textbook or on a poster, just pointing at it can be a subtle but clear way of prompting students to use the correct language. What you point at could be the name of the tense or word form they are supposed to be using, a verb forms table or the actual correct verb form, a grammatical explanation, or another grammatical hint such as “future”, “prediction” or “polite”.

Useful language:

“Have a look at your booksG’ the board”

“The correct version is somewhere in this chartG’ posterG’ table”

“You copied this down earlier. Have a look in your notebooks”

5. Repeat what they said

This can mean repeating the whole sentence, one section of it including the wrong part, the sentence up to the wrong part, the sentence with the wrong part missed out (with maybe a humming noise to show the gap that should be filled) or just the wrong part. You can illustrate that you are showing them an error and give some hint as to which bit is wrong by using a questioning tone (for everything you say or just for the wrong part). This method is overused by some teachers and can sound patronizing if used too often or with the wrong tone of voice, so try to mix up the different versions of it described here and to alternate with methods described in the other tips.

Useful language:

“The man GOED to the shops?”

“The man GOED?”

“GOED?”

6. Just say the right version

The students can then repeat the correct version or tell you what the

difference between the two sentences was and why their version was wrong. Because the students don't do much of the work in this way of being corrected, it might not be as good a way of remembering the correction as methods where you give more subtle clues. Its advantages are that it is quick and suits cultures, classes and students that think of elicitation as shirking by the teacher. It can also be more face-saving than asking them for self-correction, as trying to correct themselves risks making even more mistakes. The "right version" could mean the whole sentence or just the correction of the part that was wrong. In the latter case, you can then ask them to put it into the sentence in the right place and repeat the whole thing.

Useful language:

"I understand what you are saying, but you need to say..."

"We studied this last week. "Hardly" has a different meaning to "hard", so you need to say...?"

"The past of say is pronounced G'sedG'. So your sentence should be...?"

7. Tell them how many mistakes

This method is only really suitable for controlled speaking practice, but can be a very simple way of giving feedback in that situation. Examples include "Most of the comparatives were right, but you made two mistakes" and "Three words are in the wrong position in the sentenceG' are mixed up". Make sure you only use this method when students can remember what you are referring to without too much prompting.

Other useful language:

"Very good, but you made just one mistake with the passive"

(For a tongue twister) "Good attemptG' Getting better, but in two places you said G'shG' where it should have been G'sG'. Can you guess which words?"

8. Use grammatical terminology to identify the mistake

For example, "(You used) the wrong tense", "Not the Present Perfect", "You need an adverb, not an adjective" or "Can change that into the passiveG' indirect

speech?” This method is perhaps overused, and you need to be sure that the grammatical terminology isn’t just going to confuse them more.

Other useful language:

“Because that is the present simple, you need to add the auxiliary (verb) ‘do’”

“Say the same sentence, but with the comparative form”

9. Give the rule

For example, “‘Since’ usually takes the Present Perfect” or “One syllable adjectives make the comparative with –er, not more Q adjective” This works best if they already know the rule, and you at least need to make sure that they will quickly understand what you are saying, for example by only using grammatical terminology you have used with them several times before.

10. Give a number of points

This is probably best saved for part of a game, especially one where students work together, but you can give each response a number of points out of 10. The same or other teams can then make another attempt at saying the same thing to see if they can get more points. If you don’t want students to focus on accuracy too much, tell them that the points will also give them credit for good pronunciation, fluency, politeness, persuasiveness and G’ or originality of ideas.

Useful language:

“Very good fluency and very interesting, but a few basic mistakes, so I’ll give your team a score of (IELTS) 5.5. Practice your script in your team again for 5 minutes and we’ll try it one more time”

“You got all the articles right this time, so I’ll give you 9 out of 10”

11. Just tell them they are wrong (but nicely)

Positive ways of being negative include “nearly there”, “getting closer”, “just one mistake”, “much better”, “good idea, but...”, “I understand what you mean but...”, “you have made a mistake that almost everyone does G’ that’s a very common mistake”, “we haven’t studied this yet, but...” and “much better

pronunciation, but...” With lower level and new classes, you might have to balance the need to be nice with the need to be clear and not confuse them with feedback language that they don’t understand, perhaps by sticking to one or two phrases to give feedback for the first couple of months. It can also be useful to give them translations of this and other classroom language you will use, for example on a worksheet or a poster.

12. Tell them what part they should change

For example, “You need to change the introduction to your presentation” or “Try replacing the third word with something else”

13. Ask partners to spot errors

This is a fairly well-known way of giving feedback in speaking tasks, but it can be a minefield if the person giving feedback has no confidence in their ability to do so or in how well the feedback (i.e. criticism) will be taken, and even more so if the person receiving the feedback will in fact react badly. This method is easier to do and easier to take when they have been told specifically which language to use while speaking and so to look out for when listening, usually meaning controlled speaking practice tasks. The feedback can be made even simpler to give and collect and more neutral with some careful planning, e.g. asking them count how many times their partner uses the target form as well as or instead of looking for when it used incorrectly.

14. Try again!

Sometimes, students don’t need much help at all but just a chance to do it again. This is likely to be true if you have trained them well in spotting their own errors, if there was some other kind of mental load such as a puzzle to solve that was distracting them from the language, or if they have had a chance to hear someone else doing the same speaking task in the class or on a recording.

Useful language:

“One more time (but think about the grammar more this timeG’ but concentrating on making less mistakes instead of speaking quickly)”

“Give it another go”

“Do you want one more chance before you get the final score”

15. Remind them when you studied that point

For example, “Nearly right, but you’ve forgotten the grammar that we studied last week” or “You’ve made the same mistake as everyone made in the last test”.

What Corder points out below summarizes the view of error correction in language teaching [Corder, Error, p.112]: Language learning is not parrot learning; we do not ‘learn’ or ‘practice’ examples. They are the data from which we induce the system of the language. Skill in correction of errors lies in the direction of exploiting the incorrect forms produced by the learner in a controlled fashion.

Firstly, by error analysis, teachers will get an overall knowledge about the students’ errors. Foreign language learning is a process of hypothesis and trial and error occurrence is inevitable. So the teacher should learn to tolerate some errors, especially some local errors.

Secondly, errors can tell the teacher how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and consequently, what remains for him or her to learn. So students’ errors are valuable feedbacks. We can do some remedial teaching based on their errors.

Thirdly, errors are indispensable to the learners themselves, for we can regard the making of mistakes as a device the learner employs in order to learn.

Finally, some errors need to be handled; otherwise, they will become fossilized. In a sense, error analysis theory together with other theories have enriched the second language learning theory in that learning involves in a process in which success comes by profiting from mistakes and by using mistakes to obtain feedback from the environment. With the feedback they make new attempts to achieve the more closely approximate desired goals.

Certainly, error analysis is significant, but it also has its limitations.

First, there is a danger in too much attention to learners’ errors and in the

classroom teacher tends to become so preoccupied with noticing errors that the correct utterance in the second language will go unnoticed. While the diminishing of errors is an important criterion for increasing language proficiency, the ultimate goal of second language learning is the attainment of communicative fluency in a language. Another shortcoming in error analysis is the overstressing of production data. Factually language comprehension is as important as production. It also happens that production lends itself to analysis and thus becomes the prey of researchers, but comprehension data is equally important in developing an understanding of the process of language acquisition.

Thirdly, it fails to account for the strategy of avoidance. A learner who for one reason or another avoids a particular sound, word, and structure or discourse category may be assumed incorrectly to have no difficulty therewith. The absence of error therefore does not necessarily reflect native like competence since learners may be avoiding the very structure that poses difficulty for them.

Finally, error analysis can keep us too closely focused on specific languages rather than viewing universal aspects of language.

CONCLUSION

This study has been devoted to introduce what error analysis is and what sort of relationship it has with language teaching, and what contribution it provides for

Language teaching studies. The aims of the studies regarding error analysis can be summarized as follows:

- Error analysis identifies the strategies that language learners use.
- It looks for the answer of the question ‘why do learners make errors?’
- It determines the common difficulties in learning and helps teachers to develop materials for remedial teaching.

Errors are important in learning and teaching language. They are important for teachers as they show students accomplishment, on the other hand, they are

equally important for learners, as students can learn from these errors. Language acquisition does not happen unless the learner is relaxed and keen on learning. Fear of making mistakes prevents students from being responsive (73% in our research). Teachers should try to create a friendly atmosphere to help freshmen learners to overcome this fear, as it is very important stage in their education. We can do it by encouraging cooperation through peer work or small group work and apply different techniques for language acquisition that suit individual learners. Correction is an essential condition for successful acquisition of any language. Our research justifies the idea that learners must be given practice in self-correction of their own work either individually or in pairs. This kind of correction is a kind of motivation for students in writing class. Lectures become more interesting for students. However, students need practice and training in rectifying mistakes without teachers' interference.

In short, error analysis has twofold aims including theoretical and practical aspects. Theoretical objectives contribute to the linguistics studies and the most obvious practical use of the error analysis is to the teacher. Errors provide feedback about the effectiveness of his teaching techniques and show him what part of the syllabus he has been following needs further attention. They enable him to decide on whether to move on to the next item or not.

Studying the learner language in terms of the errors is something that teachers have always done for very practical reasons. Through the results of tests and examinations, the errors that learners make are a major element in the feedback system of the teaching-learning process. For this reason, it is important that the teacher should be able to not only detect and describe the errors from a linguistic view, but also understand the psychological reasons for their occurrences. Therefore, the diagnoses and treatment of errors is one of the fundamental skills of the teacher.

Correction of errors is as important as identification and description of them. In fact, the last two are preliminary for error treatment. The sources and the sorts of

the errors are determiners for the sort of feedback. In conclusion, the inevitable existence of errors has led researchers to study on them and find out the natural steps for language learning.

Findings of error analysis function as facilitator in language teaching in many ways only if the teacher is aware of them and able to make use of them in the teaching process appropriately.

After teaching English for several years, teachers become able to detect errors easily in their students' pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, spelling, use and appropriacy, and their ability to get the intended message across.

The use of Error Analysis and appropriate corrective techniques can aid effective learning and teaching of English. . It is understood that learning a FL is a gradual process, during which mistakes are to be expected in all stages of learning.

In fact making mistakes is a natural process of learning and must be considered as part of cognition. As a result, errors must be viewed positively. Teachers have to recognize that “learning ability varies from person to person”. In addition, “all language learning is based on continual exposure, hypothesizing and, even with the correct hypothesis, testing and reinforcing the ideas behind them”.

This study has shed light on the manner in which students internalize the rules of the teaching language. It further shows that error analysis can help the teachers to identify in a systematic manner the specific and common language problems students have, so that they can focus more attention on types of errors. Error analysis is closely related to the study of error treatment in language teaching. Today, the study of errors is particularly relevant for focus on form teaching methodology.