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TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS ENGLISH LANGUAGE  
LEARNERS' ERRORS (WITH PARTICULAR  
REFERENCE TO GRADE ELEVEN)

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## ABSTRACT

This study investigated the current attitudes of EFL teachers toward English language learners' errors. Fifty teachers selected from twelve government senior secondary schools in Addis Ababa participated in the study.

In order to gather the data, opinionnaires and written questionnaires drawn from students' written works were given to teachers. Classroom observation, based on Chaudron (1977) model of descriptive discourse were made on sample teachers to examine their treatment behaviours.

The subjects responses were coded and mean scores were computed for individual items. The Pearson product moment correlation and multiple regression were computed. The statistical tests showed that there was significant inverse relationship between attitude and severity of scoring. The conclusion drawn was that Ethiopian EFL teachers' attitude toward learners' errors when seen in practice looked negative. However, there seems to be a disparity between their theoretical conception of error and the actual classroom practice. Their actual treatment of errors seems to be influenced by factors which can be described as non-pedagogic.

It is suggested that, perhaps, it will be better if teachers develop somehow tolerance toward learners' errors by reacting leniently to students' in correct responses.

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## ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS USED IN THE STUDY

EFL	=	English as a Foreign Language
TL	=	Target Language
NL	=	Native Language
CA	=	Contrastive Analysis
S	=	Student
T	=	Teacher
SS	=	Whole Class
No.	=	Number
F	=	Frequency
[ ]	=	Phonetic Transcription

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CHAPTER ONE  
THE PROBLEM, SCOPE, OBJECTIVES AND  
SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

**1.1 Statement of the Problem**

The question of attitude of teachers toward error and the pressure it exerts upon their corrective treatments has become one of the most important professional issues in second language pedagogy. Inspired by the generative linguistics of the sixties, which focused on the creative aspects of language learning, error analysts raised the status of errors from unwanted form to that of pedagogic indicator of learning and a guide to teaching (Dulay et al. 1982). Significance of error in language learning has further been emphasized by a number of researchers and experts (see Bartram et al. 1991, McArthur 1983, Marrow 1994, McCretton and Rider 1993, Sheorey 1986).

The studies conducted by Ensz et al. (1982) and Khalil (1985), for example, assert the emphasis on the correction of learner's errors. This explicitly states that errors, as composing a significant portion of learners' language performance, can promote active rather than passive learning. Realizing its merits, many countries are currently practising this view of error in their language teaching methods.

Here in Ethiopia, high school students learning English as a Foreign language regularly make errors. They often hear and read other learners' commission of errors, and they also dutifully submit themselves to correction by their teachers. Some studies conducted in the Ethiopian context (see Wondwossen 1992; Getnet, 1993) pointed out that the direct corrective feedback behaviour of teachers to the students' incorrect utterances or written works constitute the largest and frequent category of classroom teacher's behaviour. Nevertheless, what underpins this type of intensive error treatment lacks investigation.

### **1.2 Objectives of the Study**

In this study, the researcher is interested to explore teachers' attitude toward English language learners' errors. Thus, the purpose of the present investigation is:

1. to see how teachers view errors;
2. to find out which type of corrective norms teachers adhere to;
3. to see the influence of some inside and outside pedagogic and non-pedagogic contexts in determining the teachers attitude toward error;
4. to see how severe teachers are in evaluating student's written works.
5. to determine the features of acts used by high school teachers (specifically, Grade 11 English teachers) to treat learners incorrect oral responses, and

6. to see if some speculative suggestions could be generated which may help to modify current practices in language teaching and teacher training.

### **1.3 Significance of the Study**

In a country like Ethiopia where new insights and curriculum renewals in the area of English language teaching are being implemented, studying teachers' attitude toward learners' errors serves two main purposes: (1) It will suggest guidelines for the curriculum of instructional programmes, (2) It will enable teachers to understand, control and change (if necessary) what they do by conducting training programmes particularly in the management of learning.

In addition, it is the hope of the researcher that it will contribute to the development of additional methods for correcting errors.

### **1.4 Scope of the Study**

The current research investigates the attitude of Ethiopian teachers toward English language learner's error. The scope of this study was delimited to a random sample study of fifty Eleventh Grade English teachers selected from twelve government secondary schools in Addis Ababa (for the list of the schools see section 3.2).

Grade Eleven teachers were selected for the sample because, the level they teach is much better for the teacher-student interaction than any level in the secondary schools. This interaction, (both written and oral) is believed to yield pertinent data for the study.

### **1.5 Definition of Terms Used in the Study**

Attitude: 'A relatively enduring organization of beliefs around an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner' (International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences. p.450 Vol. 1 and 2).

Belief: 'A belief is any simple proposition conscious or unconscious, inferred from what a person says or does 'International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences. p.451. Vol 1 and 2).

Insiders: Those who are directly involved in the process of correction (teachers and students).

Outsiders: Those participants of the correction processes who can have indirect role in the teacher's attitude (school authorities, parents and colleagues).

Heavy-Correctors: Teachers who are correcting each and every error of the learner (Bartram et al. 1991).

Non-Correctors: Teachers who are extremely tolerant to errors made by learners (Bartram et al. 1991).

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### 2.1 Defining Error

One persistent problem with which second language teachers have to deal with continuously is that of defining student's language errors. Researchers have difficulties in defining language errors. Some definitions include reference to the production of linguistic form which deviates from the correct form. In his study of teachers' reaction to children's errors Chaudron (1986b: 66) defines errors as 'linguistic forms or content that differed from native speaker norms and facts.' Bartram and Walton (1991: 20) define error as 'wrong language which a native speaker would not usually produce.' Norrish (1983: 7) states it as 'a systematic deviation which a learner makes until he notices that native speakers do not produce this form.' All the definitions stated above have something in common, that is, native speaker's norm is used as the standard version. However, research has pointed out that this practice of taking the native speaker norm is unlikely to take into account the possibility that the target language model to which the learner is exposed may not 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 the learners are 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.

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.'

There are some researchers (see, Burt and Kiparsky (1972) as cited in Dulay and Burt (1982)) 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'.

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 (1986b:88) also defines it as 'any other behaviour signalled 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.'

## **2.2 The Place of Error in the Learning Process**

### **2.2.1 Contrastive Analysis**

The previously dominant perspective on error stemmed from the contrastive analysis view. Wardaugh (1970) points out that the CA hypothesis can exist in two versions: a 'strong' version that claims to be able to predict learning difficulty on the basis of the previously executed contrastive (NL:TL) description, and a 'weak' version that makes the more modest claim of only being able to explain a subset of attested errors as resulting from transfer from the NL. Information about the identified contrasts, thus, can be incorporated into pedagogic materials and imparted to foreign language teachers so that this potential NL interference can be deactivated and the incidence of errors arising from this source minimised (James 1991).

Historically, but not necessarily, the CA perspective is linked with the behaviourist view of language learning. According to this view, foreign language learning is seen as 'a process of imitation and reinforcement' (Crystal 1987).

Learners attempt to copy what they hear, and by regular practice they establish a set of acceptable habits in the new language. Properties of the L<sub>1</sub> are thought to exercise an influence on the course of L<sub>2</sub> learning. Learners transfer sounds, structures and usages from one language to the other. The main aim of behaviourist teaching is to form new, correct linguistic habits through intensive practice eliminating interference errors in the process (Crystal 1987).

However, by the mid-1970s, the CA hypothesis was under attack most menacingly from those who, working mainly in a second language (immigrant) setting, saw little unequivocal proof of NL interference, for example among Chinese and Spanish children acquiring English in the USA (Dulay et al 1982).

More generally, the predictive power of CA was shown to be limited because of some items of high interlingual contrastivity proving to be easily learnt, and some items of low or no contrastivity proving difficult. It was, consequently, felt that CA could not keep the promise of providing a scale of learning difficulty based on the analysis of language differences and, therefore, it was reluctantly abandoned by many of its followers.

### 2.2.2 Interlanguage

In the case of learners adding another language to their existing competence in their first language, they are thought

to progress along a continuum where the two poles are their first language and the target language (Allwright and Bailey 1991). This system of the learners development has been variously referred to by different writers on the subject as 'interlanguage' (Selinker 1974), 'approximative systems', (Nemser 1974), and 'idiosyncratic dialect' or 'development continuum' (Corder 1974). The term commonly used now is 'interlanguage.'

Norrish (1983:128) defines interlanguage as 'the language used by the learner as she/he progresses from no knowledge at all of the target language to a satisfactory knowledge.' It is viewed as constantly changing. It specifically stresses the systematic nature of the learner's linguistic development between the two languages (Allwright and Bailey 1991: 91).

The interlanguage perspective is linked with cognitivism or generativism (Crystal 1987). According to this view, learners are credited for using their cognitive abilities in a creative way to work out hypotheses about the structure of the target language. They construct rules, try them out and alter them if they prove to be inadequate. At each stage, they are in control of a language system that is equivalent to neither the L<sub>1</sub> nor the L<sub>2</sub> \_ interlanguage (Selinker 1974). According to this approach, errors are likely to emerge when learners make the wrong deductions about the nature of the second language, such as assuming a pattern is general

when, in fact, there are exceptions. These developmental perspective can be clearly seen in the following quotations of Corder (1974:53)

'It is fairly clear that it is the risk-taking strategies which are likely to result in an acceptable utterances. But this merely highlights the principle that it is by taking risks that we develop our interlanguage that we learn. The pedagogical moral of this is obvious. The encouragement of the learner to take risks even at the expense of committing errors and by implication, a willingness on the part of the teacher beyond what is usually found in most classroom to accept error is a sign of motivation for learning, or indeed a strategy of learning, and not something to be deprecated let alone penalised.'

According to such a view, errors are claimed to provide positive evidence about the nature of learning as the learner gradually works out the structure of the L<sub>2</sub> system is. Development or change in interlanguage signifies learning. In this regard, review of the interactive methods of teaching documents that there is deliberate avoidance of error treatment or at least down playing of its role in formal instruction.

Regarding the significance of the notion of 'interlanguage' in second language pedagogy, Allwright and Bailey(1991: 92) discuss as follows:

If we adopt the notion of interlanguage in a discussion of second language learners' errors, we can see that by treating errors, teachers are trying to help students move ahead in their interlanguage development. However, mis-timed error treatment may not be helpful, and may even be harmful if it is aimed at structures which are beyond the second language learners in terms of their stage of interlanguage development.

This explicitly expresses that teachers' decision of error treatment should be based on their knowledge of the learners' interlanguage in order to make learning effective.

### **2.3 Error Correction**

In second language pedagogy, error correction is a classroom activity which most people consider to be one of the most important functions of language teachers. Researchers often comment that one of the things which distinguishes classroom interaction from interaction outside the classroom is the existence of error correction in the form of teacher's feedback.

It is argued by Chaudron (1988) that teacher's feedback to the learner allows the latter to confirm or reject his hypothesis about the rules of the target language. This feedback can take two forms known as 'positive' where the teacher is assumed to provide reward to motivate action and provide information as to the adequacy of an action; and 'negative' where the teacher is supposed to correct deviations from the accepted norm.

The decisions teachers have to make about 'what', 'when' and 'how' to correct and make remedial intervention is also noted in the literature. In this context, the distinction drawn by researchers (Corder 1974; Johnson 1987) between 'knowledge' on the one hand and 'control' on the

other (i.e., inadequacy in knowledge results in error, lack of control results in mistake), raises the problem of determining whether a mistake is a 'slip' or a genuine 'error'. Edge (1989) likewise attempts for a refinement of the classification. For Edge 'mistake' is the generic term, sub types of which are 'errors', 'slips' and 'attempts'. His division is based on the teacher's opinion of how a mistake fits in with an individual's stage of learning in his or her class. Each of these has a different status and ought to receive different treatment from teachers. Edge takes an extremely tolerant attitude to 'mistakes' perhaps captured in her claim that 'correct should mean, helping people to become more accurate not insisting on completely standard English' (p.50).

Bartram and Walton (1991) also make some reference to problems of over-correctors and non-correctors that can have an impact on actualizing teachers' attitude toward errors. They comment that if teachers are heavy-correctors, students are likely to face problems of teacher dependence, lack of creativity, lack of independent thought, being unable to make new and original language, and tension or being worried about making errors. If error-tolerance or being non-corrector is necessary, they claim that teachers are likely to encounter problems from school authorities, parents, colleagues and even students' anxiety.

## **2.4 The Role of Attitude in Determining Teaching Style**

### 2.4.1 Overview of Attitude

First of all, having an attitude means that 'the individual is no longer neutral toward the referents of an attitude' (Sherif et al 1965:5). He/she is for or against, positively inclined or negatively disposed, in some degree toward the referents not just momentarily, but in a lasting way, as long as the attitude in question is operative. According to social psychologists, attitude is inferred from characteristic and consistent modes of behaviour toward some class of objects, persons, events and issues over a time span (Campbell, 1963; Sherif et al 1965).

Research on the second language pedagogy has pointed out that teachers' attitudes are not always on the surface, open to ready inspection. 'They could, however, show themselves in a variety of non-conscious but very specific ways (McArthur 1983: 107). In this regard objectively recorded teachers behaviours such as actions, utterances and verbal expression of their attitudes (opinions) towards the concept 'error' can be elements of descriptive studies.

### 2.4.2 Attitude Toward Errors

Attitude toward the concept 'error' and the 'correction of errors' can be closely tied in with a teacher's general

assumption about the kind of methods used in teaching a language.

McArthur (1983: 106) discusses the interplay of attitude toward errors and learners' motivation as follows:

The teacher's attitude to mistake-making as 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. 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.

The idea in the above quotation refutes absolute attitudinal inclination toward an approach of error treatment which capitalizes either on accuracy or fluency work.

#### 2.4.3 Teaching Style

Teaching style can be defined as 'the collection of the many attitudes and behaviours the teacher employs to create the best possible conditions under which learning can take place' (Wright 1987: 52). This definition implies that the teacher's style of teaching is inevitably going to be influenced by his/her beliefs and attitudes which are manifested in his teaching behaviour. What he/she does and says in the classroom are by-products of his/her attitudes

toward the cultural and social beliefs, attitude toward the nature of language and language learning.

Research by Barnes (1970) as cited in Wright (1987) has identified two basic types of teachers: 'transmission' and 'interpretation' type teachers.

A 'transmission' teacher wants to maintain a high degree of control over his learners in order to create the conditions under which the discipline can be taught. A teacher of this type will reward contributions from the learners that he approves of within the bounds set by the discipline. Results in examinations are the criteria of such a teacher's success.

An 'interpretation' teacher prefers to disperse responsibility for learning among the learners. Control is maintained by persuasion and appealing to the better judgement of the learners. The teacher's position, exemplified in terms of the amount of control he exerts over the learners, is weaker than that of the transmission teacher. Emphasis on the student's understanding is the criterion of such a teacher's success.

These identified teaching styles implicitly express attitudes of teachers toward language teaching in general and toward learners' error in particular. According to Norrish

(1983) the area which broadly corresponds to transmission versus interpretation teachers dichotomy considers errors in two ways. Norrish identifies two basic types of attitudes to errors made by L<sub>2</sub> learners. On the one hand, some teachers regard errors as undesirable, as signs of failure either on the students' part to pay attention or to listen properly, or on the teachers' part to make his/her meaning clear or to give the student sufficient time to practise what they have been taught. On the other hand, there are teachers who regarded making mistakes as an essential part of learning. Teachers adhering to the former view can be categorized as those who see teaching as the transmission of knowledge, and the latter ones perceive teaching as the interpretation of knowledge.

### **2.5 Error Gravity**

With the beginning, in the late 1960s, of a trend away from audiolingualism and toward making language teaching more humanistic and less mechanistic, there arose a realization that errors were perhaps not "just aberrations, admissions of guilt or inadequacies, or failures in the pedagogic system but might be evidence of the learners creative efforts to build a new linguistic structure, in similar ways to children learning their first language (Lier 1988: 181). This new area was identified as Error Analysis and has been a centre of research attraction for years. Several investigations

have been made to identify the types of learner errors which are most or least indicative of learning (or progress) and the ways in which errors are or should be selectively treated by the classroom teacher. This seems to have been guided by the belief that it is more important to communicate successfully in a foreign language rather than to communicate perfectly in it (Hendrickson 1978).

The result has been a demand on teachers to have tolerance to some kinds of errors. In this regard, researchers suggested that global errors (i.e., those errors that cause a listener or reader to misunderstand a message or to consider a sentence incomprehensible) as opposed to local errors (i.e., errors that affect single elements or constituents in a sentence which do not usually hinder communication significantly) should receive the top priority for they are determining the communicative importance of errors (Dulay et al. 1982)

Additional criteria have also been suggested for establishing priorities in error treatment. It has been suggested that high frequency errors at high level of generality (or errors which involve general broad grammatical categories) get priority, and errors that have stigmatizing effect on the hearer and those that are relevant to pedagogic

focus should follow suit (Holley and King 1971, Cohen 1975, Hendrickson 1978, Gower and Walters 1983, Norrish 1983, Clark 1987, Edge 1989, Klassen 1991). There appears to be a consensus among many language educators that correcting the three types of errors discussed above would be essential to second language learners. These orders of priority seem to have been offered as responses to the kind of difficulty that Sheorey (1986: 306) raises: 'The difficulty in judging student errors is that the teacher needs guidelines for determining their seriousness but these do not presently exist.'

As a way out of the aforementioned quagmire, native speakers' judgment has been sought to furnish insights concerning the relative laxness and severity in evaluating learners' error.

The pioneer work in this area is that of James (1977) which has subsequently been used as a framework for later studies. Her findings show that 'non-native speakers mark more severely than native speakers.' In addition to this, she has also established 'a provisional hierarchy of errors.' Most of the successive studies made seem to corroborate with the findings of James.

Davies (1983) has developed some ideas discussed by James (1977) and Hughes and Lascaratou (1982) on differences

in gravity ratings of errors made by different groups of judges: teachers, non-teachers, native-speakers and non-native speakers of the target language. The native speakers tended in all cases to greater leniency. She suggests that 'the foreign teacher's deprecatory assessment of learner error is likely to reflect her teaching experience, her own proficiency in the target language, plus a feeling she herself is being tested for her ability to spot errors and express suitable disparagement of them.'

Another monumental work in this area has been that of Sheorey's (1986). He compared the error perceptions of native and non-native ESL teachers from the United States and India. Twenty sentences containing errors were presented to the two groups in the form of a written questionnaire. Concurrent with the findings of James (1977) and Hughes and Lascaratu (1982), Sheorey found out that, as a group, the non-native ESL teachers deducted more points than the native teachers (1986: 308).

## **2.6 Local Research Pieces**

Albeit not directly related with this study, some investigations related to error identification and treatment have been made in Ethiopia. The main focus of these research works, which are basically MA theses, is on the different kinds of errors that students and teachers make at various levels of learning.

Works like Abdulkadir Ali (1983), Tewolde G/Yohannes (1988), Yoseph Mekonnen (1990) and Wondwosen Tamrat (1992) have shown that a substantial proportion of the class time is devoted to the purpose of providing feedback to students' work in the form of error treatment or otherwise. It may be noted at this juncture that the aforementioned pieces of research focus on the types of oral feedback that teachers give to their students.

When we come to works which focus on written works of Ethiopian students, we have the works of Mammo (1981), Kiflemariam (1988) and Demeke (1990). Other than identifying the types of errors that students make, these studies do not deal with the attitudes of Ethiopian teachers toward error. The only research which has attempted to investigate the kinds of teachers' responding behaviours is that of Getnet's (1993). Having the responding behaviours of Sophomore English instructors at AAU investigated, described and analyzed, Getnet comments: 'The sophomore instructors exert much time and effort on responding to student writing.' It appears that they frequently respond to surface level features (e.g. mechanics and grammar) and overlook content level issues. Although Getnet's study clearly indicates the kinds of linguistic elements Ethiopian teachers focus while offering written feedback, it was not the purpose of his study to see the attitude of teachers toward English language learners' errors.

The other local piece of research which has direct relevance to the present study is that of Aster's (1994) BA thesis on Attitudes of High School Teachers Towards Learners Written Errors and Their Impact on Their Scoring System.' She distributed a questionnaire containing twenty -seven erroneous sentences to 40 teachers so that they would mark each sentence according to the seriousness of the error. Aster's finding shows that Ethiopian high school English language teachers have a negative attitude towards students' written errors. She also found that there is inconsistency in teachers' correction and scoring of errors which fall under the same category.

**CHAPTER THREE**  
**RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

In this chapter, the instruments used to collect data are discussed: data sources, data collection techniques and methods of arriving at conclusions. It is predominantly a descriptive research. It tries to see the relationships of the outstanding variables that influence teachers' attitude to errors.

**3.1 Source of Data**

The major sources of data were the sampled Grade Eleven English teachers. Classroom observations were conducted and students were also used as sources of data.

**3.2 Selection of Schools**

Twelve government comprehensive and senior secondary schools in Addis Ababa were included in the study. These schools were randomly selected out of the total number of 24. They are: Yekatit 12, Kefteгна 7, Shimeles Habte, Nefas Silk, Medhanealem, Entoto, Addis Ketema, Misrak, Abiyot Kirs, Bole, Ayer Tena and Kefteгна 20 comprehensive secondary schools.

**3.3 The Subjects**

The study included 50 Grade Eleven English teachers with an average of 18 years of experience in teaching English in Ethiopian Secondary schools. They have all taken their first

degrees (BA) majoring English but one who has an MA in TEFL. All of the subjects volunteered to offer the information needed by responding to the written questionnaire. Ten percent of those teachers were observed while teaching.

### **3.4 Instruments Used**

#### 3.4.1 Questionnaire

In order to examine the attitude of teachers, and collect the data for the study, a questionnaire was administered. The questionnaire constitutes four parts: professional background, attitude inventory, problems of heavy-correctors and non-correctors and evaluation of learners' written errors.

##### 3.4.1.1 Professional Background

In order to obtain data on their professional background subjects were asked to provide information pertaining to their educational status, duration of service and seminar(s) or workshop(s) attended (see appendix E)

##### 3.4.1.2 Attitude Inventory

The five stage Likert-scale was employed to measure the extent to which the teachers have favourable or unfavourable attitude toward errors in second language pedagogy. The Likert-scale is used because it is found to be easy to construct, administer and sufficient enough to yield similar results like the more laboriously constructed scales (see Kerlinger 1965; Best 1981). In general, 14 items were included in the scale. (see Appendix E, Part II). Eight of

the items were worded such that they expressed unfavourable attitudes. These are:

- Item 1: Errors tell the teacher something about the defectiveness of his teaching materials and his teaching techniques.
- Item 2: Students will learn more errors if teachers are tolerant to their incorrect written works or utterances.
- Item 4: Learners' errors are the result of laziness or sloppy (careless) thinking.
- Item 5: Errors are signs of failure.
- Item 6: The teacher should take the native speaker proficiency as the best model for his/her students.
- Item 9: I feel despair when I hear my student making an error.
- Item 12: The principal method of avoiding errors in language learning is to observe and practise the right model for a sufficient number of times.
- Item 14: The principal way of over-coming errors is to shorten the time-lapse between the incorrect response and presentation once more of the correct model.

Six of the items were worded such that they expressed favourable attitude to errors. These are:

- Item 3: Producing errors is a natural and necessary phenomenon in language learning.

- Item 7: Teachers should accept deviance from so-called "standard" form and structures of the target language.
- Item 8: Errors are signals that actual learning is taking place.
- Item 10: The most valuable way to correction is to comment on the student's ideas.
- Item 11: A language teacher should expect errors from his/her students.
- Item 13: A language teacher should accept learners' errors as natural phenomena integral to the process of learning a second language.

The respondents were required to respond to each statement on a five point scale: Strongly Agree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree and Strongly Disagree. Each scale has a numerical value of 1,2,3,4 and 5 respectively. Any item score above an average of 3 is seen as negative and any item score below an average point of 3 is viewed as positive.

#### 3.4.1.3 Problems Linked with Correction

This section of the questionnaire consisted of list of problems related to teachers perception of correction. The purpose was to see the impact of some inside and outside pedagogic contexts on teachers attitude toward corrective norms. The list of problems was adapted from Bartram and Walton (1991). Before being used for this study the list of

problems was tried on the pilot study and proved workable to reveal the problems of correctors and non-correctors (see Appendix E Part III). Respondents were asked to give their reactions against each problem by putting a tick ( ✓ ) in boxes under the headings 'YES' or 'NO'.

#### 3.4.1.4 Evaluation of the Students' Written Works

The data for this study used twenty-seven erroneous sentences (see Appendix E Part IV). They were all taken from written works of 138 (two class) grade 11 students at Entoto Academic Vocational and Technical School during the first semester of the 1994 academic year. The students were instructed to write a short essay under the title 'My Life'. From these written works grammatically deviant sentences were selected. These faulty sentences were grouped into 12 grammatical categories. The categories constitute errors of prepositions (11.2%), Tense (11.6%), Lexis (6%), Article (5.7%), Possessives (14%), Punctuation (3%), Verb forms (14.8%), Conjunction (3.7%), Word order (9.9%), Omission of helping verbs (11.5%), Spelling (6.8%) and Concord (2.9%). However, the error samples used in the study included only the nine frequent error categories. These are errors of prepositions, Tense, Possessives, Verb forms, Word order, Omission of the helping verb, Lexis, Article and Spelling.

The selected sentences were first presented to colleagues for identification and categorization of errors, This was made to establish ,in particular, general agreement

over the categories. In this regard most of the sentences taken from the original script contained more than one error. To avoid difficulty in distinguishing the error categories, such sentences were made to have single error. Then, the teachers were asked to indicate how many points they would give for each sentence on a scale of '0' to '4'. For each erroneous sentences the '0' indicated that in their opinion, the sentence contains a very serious error while '4' indicates that the sentence did not contain an error.

#### 3.4.2 Classroom Observation

The study focused on an analysis of the error treatment techniques of five Grade 11 teachers who had not been made aware of the main purpose of the research, nor had they been informed about or given a specific lesson to teach. They were left to stick to the syllabus. From a background investigation made, it was found out that the five teachers had been teaching English for an average of 15 years with a range from ten to twenty-five years. For this study, the following procedures were followed.

##### 3.4.2.1 Recording of the Lesson

The nature of the study deemed it necessary that for catching teacher-student interaction (oral) there be a tape recorder. The allotted class-time for a single period in government high schools is forty minutes. Each teacher was recorded for the entire period. There was only one teacher who was recorded for 30 minutes of the class time for it was

the period after the break and students usually spend 5 to 10 minutes before they go to class.

#### 3.4.2.2 Model of Description

The model of description used to categorize the behaviours captured was that of Chaudron's (1977) model. This descriptive system identifies 10 elements of treatments which demand adjustments of student's incorrect utterances. Since the categories identified by Chaudron were excess for the purpose of the current study, some categories have been excluded and another one has been added: Repetition with options (see Appendix H)

#### 3.4.2.3 Exchanges and Treatment Types

The exchange type which was the concern of the current study was only students' incorrect utterance and teachers' error treatment. In identifying the exchange, every exchange in the sample lessons that involved the treatment of error was noted.

The extracts which are appended at the end are only that part of the tape script containing error treatment. These extracts are consecutively numbered.

### **3.5 Methods of Data Analysis**

All the questionnaires were returned. Each questionnaire was checked for accuracy and completeness. In the process of organizing the data each part was considered separately.

Background information of the respondents was obtained and summarized. Attitudinal scores with respect to each approach and the whole scale were calculated, then, the following statistical methods of calculations were used for analyzing the data.

1. Percentage was used to summarize the background information, to show the acceptable and unacceptable problems related with heavy-correctors and non-correctors, and to indicate the coverage of categories of error treatment.
2. Mean was calculated to identify the teachers average score with respect to each variable and establish rank order of errors.
3. Pearson Product Moment Correlation was computed to observe the existing relationship between attitude and severity of scoring, and duration of service with severity of scoring.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE DATA

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

As previously noted, the purpose of this investigation was to find out how Grade 11 English teachers perceive errors. The presentation and analyses of the results obtained will be done into two phases. First, the presentation and discussion of quantitative data gathered with the help of the questionnaire will be made. Then follows the presentation and discussion of descriptive data collected using classroom observation.

#### 4.1 Presentation and Discussion of the Quantitative Data

Data analyses for this study focus on two perspectives. The first one is based on the structural views of language teaching and the second one is based on the non-structural views of language teaching. The analyses in this study focus in answering the question: 'which belief system do teachers favour? Structural or non-structural?' The data in the following two tables will answer the above questions.

Table 1  
Mean Scores and Frequency of Response of  
Teachers on Structural Views

Item No.	Items	F	X
1	Errors tell the teacher something about the defectiveness of his teaching materials and his teaching techniques.	172	3.44
2	Students will learn more errors if teachers are tolerant to their incorrect written works or utterances.	193	3.86
4	Learners' errors are the result of laziness or sloppy (careless) thinking.	118	2.36
5	Errors are signs of failure.	111	2.22
6	The teacher should take the native speaker proficiency as the best model for his/her students.	183	3.66
9	I feel despair when I hear my student making an error.	104	2.08
12	The principal method of avoiding errors in language learning is to observe and practise the right model for a sufficient number of times.	221	4.42
14	The principal way of overcoming errors is to shorten the time-lapse between the incorrect response and presentation once more of the correct model.	189	3.78
Grand Mean			3.23

Table 2  
Mean Scores and Frequency of Responses of  
Teachers for Non-Structural Views

Item No.	Items	F	X
3	Producing errors is a natural and necessary phenomenon in language learning	167	3.34
7	Teachers should accept deviance from so-called "standard" form and structures of the target language	167	3.34
8	Errors are signals that actual learning is taking place	175	3.5
10	The most valuable way to correction is to comment on the students' ideas	171	3.42
11	A language teacher should expect errors from his/her students	199	3.98
13	A language teacher should accept learners' errors as natural phenomena, integral to the process of learning a second language	213	4.26
Grand Mean			3.64

#### 4.2.1 Errors as Signs of Failure in Language Learning

The mean score was basically computed to show the arithmetic average of the teachers' attitude toward English language learners errors. As can be seen from table 1, the

results provided some evidences of the tendency of teachers to agree with opinions which regard errors as signs of failure. For instance, if we take item 1 'Errors tell the teacher something about the defectiveness of his teaching materials and his teaching techniques', the mean score is 3.44 and for item 2 'Students will learn more errors if teachers are tolerant to their incorrect written works or utterances' the mean score is 3.86. This shows teachers adherence to a teaching methodology which associates committing errors to failure either on the teacher's part or defectiveness of his/her teaching materials.

The respondents seem to be convinced of the value of taking the native speaker proficiency as the best model for their students. The mean score for item 6 is 3.66. From this perspective the teacher may focus on accuracy which may not be achieved at the level of grade he/she teaches.

With respect to methods to be implemented to overcome the commission of errors by learners, teachers remarkably agree with techniques which characterize the behaviourist view of language teaching where learning is viewed as a 'a process of imitation and reinforcement' (Crystal 1987). Here, their underling principle can be captured from their proposal that 'learners attempt to copy what they hear and

by regular practice they establish a set or acceptable habits in the new language.' (Ibid.) This was reflected in the data by the respondents remarkable agreement with item 12 which received a score of 4.42. For such teachers, the principal method of avoiding errors in language learning is to observe and practise the right model for a sufficient number of times. They also agreed with item 14 whose mean score is 3.78 (where the principal way of over-coming errors is to shorten the time-lapse between the incorrect response and presentation once more of the correct model). In this context, the teacher's principal aim looks to be forming new and correct linguistic habits through intensive practice which can avoid errors.

As can be seen from the data, there seemed to be clear contradiction in the teachers' attitudinal make-up when their response for item 12 and 14 is compared with item 5. Their response to the opinion expressing errors as signs of failure was apparently low. Besides, the subjects did not attribute errors to the learner's carelessness or sloppy thinking. The insight to be learnt from such a contradiction is the failure of teachers to be involved in critical thinking.

The least agreement was observed with item 9 whose score is 2.08 that expressed teachers' disagreement to the 'feeling of despair' when they hear students' making errors. In fact, from such a reaction one can assume that teachers rather exercise an anticipatory reaction to errors in their actual class room practices. This was seen in the features of acts captured on the classroom observation (see section 4.8).

In general, the computed grand mean which is 3.23 indicated teachers general tendency of showing unfavourable attitude toward errors. They agreed with opinions which are limited to structuralist principles of language teaching, which consider error as 'a sin to be avoided and penalized.' Their attitude toward learners' errors was quite unfavourable.

#### 4.2.2 Errors as Indicators of Learning Steps

Table 2 demonstrated the respondents' reactions to opinions expressing errors as learning steps. The greatest consensus of opinion was found in the response to item 13 whose mean score is 4.26. Moreover, significant number of the respondents agreed that a language teacher should accept learners' errors as natural phenomena, integral to the

process of learning a second language. Clearly, agreement was observed in all the items stating errors as signals that actual learning is taking place. In this respect, the method which is more favoured by the respondents was commenting on students' ideas than forms and systems of the language.

Respondents adhering to such a non-structural trend were believed to credit the learners use of cognitive abilities, in a creative way, to work out hypothesis about the structure of the target language. Such pedagogical perspective is linked to 'generativism' which asserts that students construct rules, try them out, and alter them, if they prove to be inadequate (Crystal 1987). According to this approach, errors are likely to emerge when learners make wrong deductions about the nature of the target language. This perspective of errors is said to be analogous to children's commission of errors and parent's expectation and acceptance of errors as a natural and necessary part of language development.

However, such directions were not observed matching consistently with the teachers' response to structural views. There was direct and clear contradiction observed in

the subjects' reactions to both trends. On the one hand, they favoured views which consider error as something which hampers learning. On the other hand, they agreed with views to errors which take it as a step in.

By implication, this contradiction could be ascribed to the lack of critical thinking about the method they use to teach students. Perhaps, this inadequate blending of basic principles of language teaching was due to lack of transforming their intuitions, instincts and impressions into an explicit concept or theory of language and language teaching.

#### 4.2.3 Over-Correctors and Non-Correctors

This section is an attempt to see the interplay of some variables which are directly or indirectly involved in defining the teacher's attitude toward errors. Here, the researcher used the term 'insiders' to refer for those who are directly involved in the process of correction. These could typically be teachers and students. The term 'outsiders' is used to those participants of the process who could be school authorities parents and colleagues. The terms 'insiders' and 'outsiders' are used to distinguish these two categories. The distinction between the two is that teachers and students were observed to be the direct

agents of 'correction' where as school authorities colleagues and parents were taken as variables which could play an indirect role in the teacher's attitude toward errors. (see Tables 3 and 4 below).

Table 3  
Problems of Heavy-Correctors and Percentage of  
Response for Individual Items

No.	Items	Yes		No	
		No.	%	No.	%
1	Teacher dependence	25	50	25	50
2	Lack of creativity	30	60	20	40
3	Lack of independent thought	26	52	24	48
4	Caution	30	60	18*	36
5	Tension	23	46	27	54
	Average		53.6		45.6

\* No response was given from two respondents

Table 4  
Problems of Non-Correctors and Percentage of  
Responses for Individual Item

No.	Item	Yes		No	
		No.	%	No.	%
6	Guilt	33*	66	15	30
7	Complaints on the side of the students	28	56	22	44
8	Complaints on the side of the school authorities	34	68	16	32
9	Complaints on the side of the parents	43	86	7	14
10	Image of colleagues: to think you are lazy	33	66	17	34
11	Students' anxiety by wondering if the teacher knows what he or she is doing	32	64	18	36

\* No response was given from two respondents.

#### 4.2.3.1 Problems of Heavy-Correctors

Table 3 demonstrated the problems of over-correctors and respondents' reactions to problems attributed to heavy - correctors. Sixty per-cent of the respondents agreed that over-correcting students errors would result in lack of creativity. Fifty-Two per-cent of the respondents claimed

that it would also result in lack of independent thought. Caution from making errors was perceived to be the other problem which received apparently the greatest consensus by the respondents. Such teachers may assume that students tend to take long time formulating sentences. In this regard, students are likely to be obsessed by the final result being correct if teachers are heavy-correctors.

Though the claim in this context seemed to acknowledge the problems of heavy correctors, the percentage of response to item 1 i.e., 'teacher dependence', was equally accepted to be a problem and not as a problem in its own regard. Those who did not take 'teacher-dependence' as a variable influencing the attitude of heavy-correcting teacher may assume over-correction as a way out to make students free and independent of teacher's interference. In this regard, students may realize that what the teacher values above all is freedom from mistakes. In response to this, they will be ready to speak only when they can avoid mistakes. This may be more likely to clash with the prevailing methodological framework which assumes over-correction as something that discourages learners and affects their confidence to use the language.

Fifty-Four per-cent of the respondents responded 'no' for taking 'tension' on the part of the learner as a problem of an over - correcting teacher. The subjects might assume that students are not worried about making mistakes. However, the actual classroom realities seem to promote lack of confidence, reluctance to speak English freely in class. (see section 4.3).

#### 4.2.3.2 Problems of Non-Correctors

As can be seen from table 4, 66% of the respondents felt that they should correct even if they were not convinced of its value for fear of 'guilt'. The most serious problem for a non-correcting teacher was agreed to be that of 'complaints on the side of the parents'. Such a factor, which was taken as an 'outsider', was found to play a determinant role in influencing the teacher's attitude toward errors. This showed the significance of considering societal expectations in introducing changes even in school curriculum. Complaints on the side of the school authorities were also assumed to be problems for teachers who are non-correctors. Such complaints coupled with students' complaints seemed to be barriers for teachers from being tolerant to learners' errors. The other outside factor which was believed to be a problem by the subjects was 'image of colleagues' (66%). This showed that practical observations

and discussions among colleagues contribute much to the attitudinal reflections a teacher can make.

In general, the percentage of scores revealed that teacher's non-corrective behaviour could for the most part be influenced by factors outside the actual classroom variables i.e., teacher and student variables. The various outside contexts were found to be variables which could regulate the change taking place in the teachers' attitude toward errors.

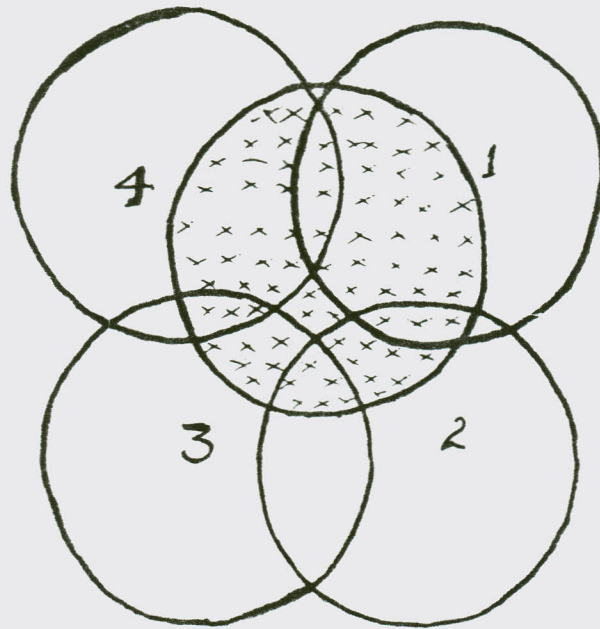
As a whole, the data revealed that teachers were more concerned on problems related with non-correcting teachers, hence, they pay due attention for correction. Such teachers want to maintain a high degree of control over their learners in order to create the conditions under which they believe the language could be taught. As discussed earlier (see section 2.4.3) the teaching behaviour of such teachers is somehow similar with that of Barners' (1970) 'transmission-style' teachers as opposed to 'interpretation - style' teachers. A transmission teacher was reported to reward contributions from the learners so long as they are within the bounds set by the discipline. So for such a teacher, teaching is the transmission of knowledge as opposed to the interpretation of knowledge. Hence, teachers in the present study, who valued over-correction more than

non-correction can be grouped as transmission oriented teachers. These teachers are likely to down play the role of taking learners' errors as learning steps in a way and as the language of the learner (interlanguage) (see section 2.2.2).

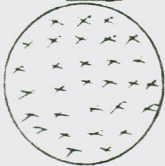
From this one can tentatively conclude that the teachers perception of error and error correction are unlikely to be based solely on his own attitude. It can be influenced by issues like familiarity with the learners, their need and background, the syllabus being used, expectation of parents, head of departments, in short by the whole 'inside' and 'outside' contexts against which he or she will inevitably view errors.

The following diagram illustrates the interplay among the variables which can be most likely to be sources of teacher's actual teaching behaviour toward errors.

Conceptualization of Sources of Teachers' Actual  
Teaching Behaviour Toward Errors



Key



Teacher's practical teaching behaviour.

- |                           |   |
|---------------------------|---|
| 1. Teachers' own attitude | 3. Students' expectation                                      |
| 2. School expectation     | 4. Others (colleagues,<br>parents, societal<br>expectations.) |

The above diagram, constructed using series of circles, represents the body of knowledge that leads to the formulation of teachers' attitude toward errors. The series of circles overlap one another to indicate the inseparability of parts of the sources of teachers actual teaching behaviour. In this context, the teacher's practical teaching behaviour is the aggregate reflection of the parts i.e., school expectation student's expectation and others. As indicated in the diagram above, the amount each part contributes varies. Teacher's own attitude being an inside factor plays the major role followed by societal expectation (within the pedagogic circle and outside the pedagogic circle) and school expectations. Students' expectation also contributes significantly to the teachers' attitude toward learners' errors. In fact, what he/she does and says in the classroom are by products of his/her attitudes toward the cultural and social beliefs, attitude towards language learning and towards the nature of language. McArthur (1983:106) puts it as 'his [her] attitude toward error can be tied in closely with a teacher's general assumption about the kind of method to be used in teaching a language:'

#### 4.2.4 Evaluation of Students' Written Errors

This study used twenty-seven erroneous sentences. They were all taken from written works of Grade 11 students under the title 'My Life'. The study was based on the corpus of errors in 9 broad areas: prepositions, tense, possessives,

omission of helping verbs, spelling, lexis, article, word order and verb form. For each category, there were three sentences containing single error. The nine categories corresponded to the errors most frequently made by the students. The errors constitute about 90.8% of the occurrence of errors in their works.

#### 4.2.4.1 Rank Ordering of Errors

The teachers' evaluation of selected samples of errors in written sentences indicated a significant intolerance for learners' grammatical errors. Using the lowest and the highest range of the mean scores of items in each category the rank order of error categories was made. The following table shows the rank order of the error types.

Table 5

Rank Order of Error Categories and Their Mean Scores

Error Categories	Mean Score	Rank Order of Gravity
Verb form	0.81	1
Tense	0.85	2
Possessives	1.04	3
Omission of helping verb	1.05	4
Word order	1.25	5
Spelling	1.33	6
Preposition	1.34	7
Article	1.41	8
Lexis	1.43	9

From the above table one can realize that the error types most serious were, in descending order: verb form, tense, possessives, omission of helping verb, word order, spelling, preposition, article and lexis.

According to the information from the table above, the most serious errors affecting sentences were seen in the two categories: verb form and tense. Teachers deducted more points for sentences containing these two categories of errors. This study revealed a very close correspondence with the hierarchy established by Sheorey (1986). In his own words Sheorey suggests that 'we should be more tolerant overall in evaluating errors.... In practical terms, non-native teachers can use the following hierarchy of error categories in marking the written works of their students.' (p.307)

most serious	less serious	least serious
verb-form errors (agreement tense)	prepositions Articles	spelling
Lexical		

Of course, by so doing teacher can direct student learning in terms of native sensitivity to error.

The two categories, lexis and article, are, however, not directly comparable to Sheorey's hierarchy. Lexis, which is the most serious concern in Sheorey's study was not so in the current study. This showed that it was not taken as serious as verb-form errors which were the prime concerns of the Ethiopian non-native English teachers. The category

which was not included in Sheorey's study was that of word-order error which was less serious in the current study. (see table 6 below)

Table 6  
Severity of Scoring of Individual Items

Error Category	Item No.	Mean	Grand Mean
Preposition	1	1.2	1.34
	10	1.6	
	19	1.22	
Tense	2	1.04	0.85
	11	0.76	
	20	0.76	
Possessives	3	0.96	1.04
	12	1.42	
	21	0.74	
Omission of helping verbs	4	1.04	1.05
	13	1.1	
	22	1.02	
Spelling	5	0.88	1.33
	14	1.74	
	23	1.38	
Lexis	6	1.34	1.43
	15	1.88	
	24	1.08	
Article	7	2.08	1.71
	16	1.48	
	25	1.58	
Word order	8	1.42	1.25
	17	1.26	
	26	1.08	
Verb form	9	1.04	0.81
	18	0.62	
	27	0.78	

#### 4.2.4.2 Severity of Scoring

As can be seen from the above table, respondents marked severely. With the exception of item 7, all sentences were marked with in the range of 0-2 in four scale. This revealed that teachers are extremely concerned almost exclusively with the errors effect on grammatical accuracy. They didn't question that the error makes the sentence difficult or impossible to understand. With regard to such severe evaluation, James (1991: 182) suggests that, 'the foreign language teachers deprecatory assessment of learner's error is likely to reflect his/her teaching experience, his/her own proficiency in the target language plus a feeling that he/she herself/himself is being tested for her/his ability to spot errors and express suitable disparagement of them. The other important reason is the context of the curriculum. These teachers attached some importance to these grammatical errors because of the positions that 'structure' occupied in the English course being given. Such severity in scoring can be against the view of innovative methods, which undermine the role of such severe error evaluations. In light of these methods, such teachers lack the knowledge of an interlanguage continuum.(see section 2.2.2). Their treatment strategies may eventually be harmful for they may mistime and aim at structures which are beyond the second language learners stage of interlanguage development (Allwright and Bailey 1991).

Another significant finding in the study is that, as can be seen from table 6, a single category of error (for example, possessives and spelling) was marked inconsistently by the respondents. This revealed that teachers were inconsistent in deducting marks and evaluating errors which fall under the same category.

In general, comparison of the reactions of respondents to opinions referring to belief and attitudes as opposed to their severe evaluation of students' written works unfolded mismatch between theory and practice. Teachers, on the one hand, to a greater extent adhered to opinions expressing errors as natural phenomena, integral to the process of learning a second language and also as learning steps. on the other hand, they were observed evaluating students' written works severely. This showed that teachers were obsessively concerned with error avoidance than tolerance. This implies that for such teachers the word 'error' is associated with 'correction' not with 'learning'. A further explanation for this lies in the lack of teaching theory which is consistent and critical throughout. The lesson to be learnt from the results of the current research is the failure of teachers to be involved in a critical application of their attitudes. This would probably make theory an issue before the community of English language teachers in Ethiopia, so as to generate an active second language pedagogy which can practically combine the findings of research and the actual classroom practice.

#### 4.2.5 Correlation Between Attitude and Severity of Scoring; and Duration of Service and Severity of Scoring

The correlational study was based on the sample size of 50 teachers. In the current study, the variables: attitude and duration of service, were taken as independent variables and severity of scoring was taken as a dependent variable. (see Appendix F).

Computations of intercorrelations (see appendix F) indicated that there is a significant inverse relationship between attitude and severity of scoring ( $r = -.67$ ,  $p < .05$ ). This means high severity in scoring is related to low-attitude and vice versa. The correlational examination between severity of scoring and duration of service indicated that the correlation is non-significant ( $r = -.21$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

#### 4.3 Presentation and Discussion of the Data on Classroom Observation

As previously noted, the purpose of this investigation was to find out how Grade 11 English teachers view errors both theoretically and practically in their classrooms. To

this effect, this section attempts to discuss the data gathered using classroom observation. The observation was done specifically to collect the pertinent data in relation to error treatment.

Data analysis for this study focused on two major questions. The first question concerns how tolerant teachers are in treating learners errors. The second question concerns 'if they treat all the noticeable errors, what techniques do they employ?' The data in the following table answers these questions.

Table 7  
Frequency and Percentage of Oral Errors  
Treated and Untreated

Error Category	Total		Treated		Untreated	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Lexis	7	12.3	5	8.8	2	3.5
Pronunciation	11	19.3	11	10.3	-	-
Grammar	30	52.6	28	49.12	2	3.5
Spelling	1	1.8	1	1.8	-	-
Punctuation	2	3.5	2	3.5	-	-
Omission	3	5.26	2	3.5	1	1.8
Verb form	3	5.26	3	5.26	-	-
Total	57	100	52	91.3	5	8.8

The data in the above table indicate that teachers were more concerned and intolerant to learners' oral errors. About 91.3% of the errors committed in the lessons were treated and 8.8% were left untreated. The errors which were left untreated were in most cases unnoticed, hence, untreated by the teacher. This result is somehow contrary to the findings of some previous studies by Allwright (1975) Chaudron (1977) as cited in Allwright and Bailey (1991) which show that 'teachers do not treat all the errors that do occur.'

In fact, re-examination of the oral errors in the current study revealed that the errors were not genuinely oral errors. The errors were made when learners practise the controlled and guided 'structure' exercises in the ENE(English For New Ethiopia). The nature of these exercises, essentially, do not call students for freer language practice. Both the teacher and the entire class were working according to the instructions given. Hence, teachers were extremely severe in their treatment of errors in order to meet what the instruction tells them to do.

Here, the curriculum factor is likely to affect teacher's attitude and treatment of errors.

The other question which this research sought to answer was the identification of various types of techniques of treatment employed by teachers. The various types of acts used, their frequency and percentage of scores are shown in the table that follows and then discussed. The categories of behaviour, in the table below, are ways in which teachers dealt with incorrect answers. They are adapted from Chaudron's (1977:38-39) model of discourse in corrective treatments.

Table 8

Corrective Behaviours Used, their Frequency and Percentage

Categories of Behaviour	Frequency	Percentage
Ignore	6	8.1
Interrupt	11	14.8
Repeat with no change	3	4.1
Repeat with change	6	8.1
Repeat with options	4	5.4
Negation	23	31.2
Transfer	7	9.4
Altered Question	4	5.4
Criticise	3	4.1
Repeat	7	9.4
Total	74	100

**Negation**

Among the ten sub-categories of behaviours identified, it was possible to observe that teachers showed a high preference for this category. Teachers' preference in the use of this category most frequently is indicative of unfavourable attitude toward error. After obtaining an incorrect response from a student, teachers prefer reacting to the incorrect response directly and immediately. This category covers 23 instances (31.1%) out of the total 74 occurrences. Teachers responded to students mistakes by frequently using the word 'no'. The following extract illustrates this:

T: No.4 As he knew the truth, he said nothing.

S: As he know the truth, saying nothing.

T: No

S: As he knowing the truth, he said nothing.

T: No, No.

**Interrupt**

The frequency of this category ranks second and covers 14.8% of the total number of treatments. Sample teachers basically used this act for the purpose of pin-pointing areas of students' errors. This act was mostly followed by

questions directed either to the student that uttered the incorrect response or to the entire class. The following extract exemplifies this.

T: Who can answer No.3

S: I would rather have stay...

T: [Interrupts] stay? What is the past participle of stay

SS: Stayed

T: Read it again.

#### Extract 13

Next to this category, Repeat, Transfer, Repetition with change and Ignore were used with the percentage that covers 9.4%, 9.4%, 8.1% and 8.1% respectively.

#### **Repeat**

It was used to ask students to repeat their incorrect utterances with the teachers intent to have them self-correct. In most instances students were observed doing self-correction. In the following extract the teacher noticed a 'pronunciation' error and repeated the incorrect response.

T: [Writes on the BB: I can hear (they, come) down stairs.

S: I can hear them [kem ] downstairs.

T: Again? Where did you get the word [kəm:ɪŋ]

S: I can hear them coming [dawnstars]

T: [dawnstars]

S: Yes, downstairs

Extract 20

**Transfer**

This act is used when a teacher asks another student or several, or class to provide correction. This category is usually preceded by direct negation (No) and, in cases, it might have a discouraging role in the student's language practice. The following extract illustrates this:

T: [Writes on the BB: They watched (we, do) an experiment.]

S: They watch us doing an experiment

T: No, No.

S: They [wic d] we doing an experiment

T: No, any other

S: They [wic d] we...

T: [Interrupts] No, No, Yes, Zewditu.

S: They [wic d].

T: No, don't say [wic d]

S: Watched

T: Yes, watched

S: They watched us doing an experiment

Extract 21

**Repetition with Change**

Repetition with change is used when a teacher modeled incorrect student's response substituting the correct forms.

The following extract exemplifies this:

T: He hopes that he will meet his family on arrival

S: He hopped to meet

T: [Interrupts] He hopes.

S: He hopes to meet his family on arrival.

Extract 30

**Ignore**

This act is used when a teacher ignores student's error and transfers by asking another student or several to provide correction or to provide the right response. The following example illustrates this:

T: What is present participle?

S: It is coming after a noun

T: [Ignores] How do we define it?

S: The verb indicate a noun

T: [Ignores and gives his own explanation]

Extract 5

Repetition with no change, Repetition with options and altered questions were also observed. In general, these acts were used when teachers elicit student's response. 'Criticise' is the least frequently used category used in only 3 instances and covers 4.1% of the total occurrence. Teachers rarely criticise when a student fails to give the right response and unexpected wrong formulation.

The overall picture of the data revealed that teachers most frequently use category of negation followed by interrupt in 34 instances which covers about 48% of the total error occurrence. In most cases, these techniques were observed to be ineffective in eliciting correct responses from students (see extract 8, 14, 15, 16, 21 & 24). This shows that if students' correct response is attributed to the features of acts of a teacher, these categories of behaviour were found to be ineffective for they were direct and could not appeal to the student's emotion.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Summary

From the analyses and observations made, the following summaries are made.

1. Examination of the attitudinal reaction of the subjects in the study revealed that teachers responded positively to opinions expressing both views (structural and non-structural). On the one hand, they favoured opinions which are limited to structuralist principles of language teaching. On the other hand, respondents positively responded to opinions which considered the learner's errors as linguistic phenomena likely to emerge when learners make the wrong deductions about the second language. Such inconsistency in attitude could be due to lack of critical thinking and theory of teaching on the side of teachers.
2. Investigation of the wide variety of problems of over-correctors and non-correctors enabled the researcher to explore the variables responsible for the actualization of attitudes of teachers toward errors. In this regard, other than the teacher's own attitude and student variables, outside variables such as complaints on the side of school authorities colleagues and

parents were found to be factors influencing the attitude of teachers toward error. Hence, the teacher's attitude toward error is found to be the aggregate reflection of the teacher's own attitude, the learner's background, the syllabus being used, expectation of parents and head of departments. In short a range of pedagogic and societal factors influence the teachers' view of errors.

3. Evaluation of student's written works by the sample teachers showed significant intolerance by teachers for grammatical errors. Teachers looked to be severe for verb form and tense errors and, apparently, less severe for errors of article and lexis. These findings partly coincide with Sheorey (1986) hierarchies of errors, established to help teachers in error correction and evaluation of learner progress. So, the findings of this study cast trust on the hierarchies explored by Sheorey which relied on the comparison of native and non-native speakers' judgements of intelligibility in establishing such hierarchies.
4. The correlational study made between attitude of teachers and severity of scoring revealed that there is an inverse significant relationship between attitude toward error and severity of scoring. That is, the more a teacher scored in attitude the less severe will the evaluation be and the vice-versa.

5. The data analyses on classroom observation revealed that teachers preferred to put stringent demands on grammatical accuracy and pronunciation. This clearly indicates that they are most interested in the form of the language than in what students say. Besides all errors noticed were noted being corrected by teachers.
6. Teachers were correcting student's incorrect oral response using variety of treatment techniques. Comparatively speaking, the most frequent acts used were negation and interrupt. However, these most frequent categories were not, found to be the acts which could elicit correct responses. They were rather indicators of teacher's unfavourable attitude toward incorrect oral responses.
7. In general, from the analyses and examinations of teacher's behaviour made, though not absolute, the attitude of teachers toward learner's error is inferred to be negative.

## 5.2 Conclusions

Despite the difficulties in undertaking attitudinal study, the researcher was able to come up with findings that can, to some extent, describe the Ethiopian EFL teachers' attitude toward learners' errors.

As seen in this study, it seems that:

1. teachers lack clear understanding of their practices. The mismatch between what they think and what they do is a reflection of this. Although teachers seem to view errors as aspects of the learning process, they were observed showing negative attitude toward error.
2. teachers seem to lack self confidence in the decision making process. Most of them seem to be dictated by non-pedagogic forces in their actual teaching practices.
3. the current thinking of EFL teachers on errors in language learning can be described as one of the most inhibiting factors in learning and using the target language. Because they have attached too much importance to the avoidance of errors than tolerance.

## 5.3 Recommendations

Having gone through the data based on observations and the questionnaire, it is possible to generate few speculative suggestions for teaching and teacher training. In this context, the following recommendations are made.

1. One general suggestion that could be made is that, teachers should be helped to develop critical thinking in such a way that they can relate their practice with conceptual frameworks of teaching.
2. Teachers should be trained to develop the intellectual competence of transforming their intuitions, instincts and impressions into an explicit concept of language and language teaching.
3. It is also important to consider the results of this study in relation to current trends in foreign language teaching in Ethiopia. In this regard, the results obtained from this study may have several applications for teacher training institutions as well as teachers. First of all, teachers should be trained to deal effectively with student's errors. They should be aware not only of the grammatical items that were mistaken but also why students make errors. Secondly, rather than being overly concerned on errors, teachers should be more tolerant of them, so that their reactions to errors correspond most closely with those of their native English counterparts.
4. The implications of research works which concentrate on the attitude of teachers toward language teaching in general and toward learners' errors in particular should be given important place and their utilization should be sought. In this regard, teacher training institutions should exploit the findings coming from research to run effective teacher training.

5. Finally, to substantiate the validity and practical application of error - tolerance in the Ethiopian context, the researcher suggests the significance of an empirical research to be carried on classrooms where genuine teacher-student interaction (oral or written) is taking place.

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## APPENDIX A

### Extracts of Error Correction of T<sub>1</sub>

#### Extract 1

T: Who can give me examples of present participle used as an adjective?

S: Handsome boy.

T: Handsome is not a verb. Handsome is an adjective. Now the verb is used as an adjective.

#### Extract 2

T: Who can give example of present participle used as an adjective.

S: Reading bible

T: Yes reading book.

S: Washing Cloth

T: Yes, washing cloth

S: Driving car

T: [Ignores]

S: Learning English

T: Learning English

S: Singing music

T: [Ignores]

#### Extract 3

T: [Writes on the BB: Their story is amusing.

S: They have amusing story.

T: They have [an] amusing story [nods his head: sign of approval].

## Extract 4

T: [Writes on the blackboard: Keep the ball rolling]

What's the subject of this sentence?

S: Keep

T: Is it a subject?

SS: No

S: [raises his hand] the ball

T: [Ignores]

S: You

T: Yes, that's right.

## Extract 5

T: What is present participle?

S: It is coming after a noun.

T: [Ignores] how do we define it?

S: The verb indicate a noun.

T: [Ignores and gives his own explanation]

## Extract 6

T: No.3 who will do it on the blackboard?

S: [writes on the blackboard: Can you smell someting  
burning.]

T: Is he correct?

SS: No.

T: Who can correct him?

S: [Corrects the spelling error on the word 'something'  
and put a question mark.]

## Extract 7

T: No. 10

S: They watched our doing an experiment.

T: Yes, they watched us doing an experiment

## Teacher 2

## Extract 8

T: What was our topic, Yesterday?

SS: Past tense form of would rather.

T: We also learned the contracted form of would rather and what?

S: [kuwes n] form.

T: Don't say [kuwešən] say [kuwesčən].

## Extract 9

T: Who can give me an example using the negative form of would rather, a sentence, Yes Mersha!

S: I would rather have stayed home for dinner.

T. Negative form. That's past form, again!

## Extract 10

T: [Reads the Text] Who will do number 1? Raise your hands!

S: I have another appointment, therefore, I will rather not stay for dinner.

T: Will or would.

S: [silence]

SS: Would.

## Extract 11

- T: Let's see the past form of the sentence [writes on the BB: She would rather go to the cinema now) who can change this into the past form?
- S: She would rather have gone to the cinema now.
- T: [Writes on the BB] What is the meaning here? Tell me, the connotation of the sentence. Did she go to the cinema cannot? You think she has gone to the cinema?
- S: [alhed c m] (she hasn't gone).
- T: Is this the way to answer in English or in ... [mentions names of vernaculars] I will never give you another chance.

## Extract 12

- T: Who can answer No.2.
- S: She would [r e r].
- T: [Interrupts] [rezer]? which [rezer]. [raʔa: ].

## Extract 13

- T: Who can answer No.3
- S: I would rather have stay...
- T: [Interrupts] stay? What is the past participle of stay?
- SS: Stayed.
- T: Read it again!
- S: I would rather have stayed [hum].
- T: [Interrupts] [hum] or [həʊ m].
- SS: home.
- S: I would rather have stayed at home than go out.

Teacher 3

Extract 14

T: The question say reduce the following sentences by joining them with present participle phrases. Reduce!

No.1.

S: I picked up the hot pan, because I think it was called.

T: Again again!

S: [Repeats]

T: No, you haven't reduced it, ok.

S: I picked up the hot pan telling it was called.

T: Telling. You don't have that word. Yes, [gives chance to another student]

S: I picked up the hot pan, thoughting it was called.

T: No, 'thought' is past tense. To change it into a present continuous tense first change it to V<sub>1</sub>. Ok! Yes.

S: I picked up the hot pan, teaching it was cold.

T: No. No. 'thought' is the past tense. What's the present form.

SS: teach

T: [looks them surprisingly] No, think is the present form.

Extract 15

T: No.4. As he knew the truth, he said nothing.

S: As he know the truth, saying nothing.

T: No.

S: As he knowing the truth, he said nothing.

T: No. No.

## Extract 16

- T: Ok. No.5. The dog, stopped barking when it recognized my voice.
- S: The dog stopped barking, when it recognizing my voice.
- T: No, the question is, reduce it to a participle phrase.
- S: Recognized my voice...
- T: [Interrupts] No, recognized is not a participle phrase.
- S: When it recognized my voice...
- T: No, [Interrupts] You are asked to change it into an -ing form.

## Extract 17

- T: Put the words in brackets in the object and participle forms and write out the sentence in your exercise book.  
[Reads the example] Ok! Who will do question No.2
- S: I found her [a r j i ŋ] with her father.
- T: [Interrupts] Pronounce the word correctly!
- S: I found her arguing with her father.
- T: Yes, No.3

## Extract 18

- T: Ok, No.5
- S: We noticed her [keriŋ] (crying)
- T: We noticed her [expects completion].
- S: [keriŋ]
- T: [keriŋ]
- S: [kariŋ]
- T: Say it again [other students pronounced it correctly]

S: We noticed her crying.

Extract 19

T: [writes on the blackboard: We listened to (they, read) poetry.]

S: We listened to her reading poetry.

T: eh...? again

T: No, his reading poetry.

Extract 20

T: [writes on the blackboard: I can hear (they, come) downstairs.]

S: I can hear them [kemiŋ] downstaris.

T: Again? Where did you get the word [kemiŋ].

S: I can hear them coming [dawnstars]

T: down stairs.

S: Yes, down stairs.

Extract 21

T: [writes on the blackboard. They watched [we, do] an experiment.]

S: They watch us doing an experiment.

T: No, No.

S: They [wičʔd] we doing an experiment.

T: No, any other.

S: They [wičʔd] we...

T: [Interrupts] No, No, Yes, Zewditu.

S: They [wičʔd]...

- T: No, don't say [wičɔd]  
S: Watched.  
T: Yes, watched.  
S: They watched us doing an experiment

## Extract 22

- T: [Reads the instruction in the text]. Reduce the following sentences by joining them with present participle phrases, Ok. No.1.  
S: Hearing [aloud ] crash, we rushed to the window.  
T: Say it again!  
S: [Repeats].  
T: No don't say [ aloud ] say [a loud].

## Extract 23

- T: As he knew the truth, he said nothing.  
S: Saying nothing.  
T: eh.. eh...?  
S: Saying.  
T: No, No, another student, Ok.  
S: Knowing the truth, he said nothing.

## Extract 24

- T: The dog stopped barking when it recognized my voice.  
S: The dog stopping barking...  
T: [Interrupts] No, No, No, how many -ing forms are you going to use, stopping, barking.  
S: Stopping [murmurs]

T: Say it again!

S: The dog stopping barking.

T: No, No, No, another student.

S: The dog stopped barking when it recognized my voice.

Teacher 4

Extract 25

T: [writes on the BB: I was glad when I heard of your appointment] Which one is the subordinate clause.?

SS: When.

T: Which type?

S: Place.

T: Place?

S: Time.

T: Yes! Time [explains].

Extract 26

T: Who will do No.1.

S: I was moved with pity to saw her.

T: [Interrupts] No, not 'to saw'.

S: to see.

T: Yes.

Extract 27

T: We asked if we might buy it on credit.

S: We [askʔd].

T: No, I taught you how to pronounce the word [askt].

S: We [askt] to buy it on credit.

## Extract 28

T: Now, No.3 [writes on the blackboard: You have agreed that you will take care of the household problems] What kind of clause is it?

S: Adverbial.

T: No.

S: Adjective.

T: No.

S: Noun.

T: Yes.

## Extract 29

T: She would be sorry if she dropped out of school.

S: She would be sorry to out of school.

T: What?

S: [Repeats the correct answer].

## Extract 30

T: He hopes that he will meet his family on arrival.

S: He hopped to meet.

T: [Interrupts] He hopes.

S: He hopes to meet his family on arrival.

## Teacher 5

## Extract 31

T: [Reads the instruction. Put the words in brackets in the gerund form and finish the sentences with suitable complements.] What is a complement?

- S: Modifier.
- T: [Laughs] Is it a modifier?
- S: No, something which is complete.
- T: Is that?
- S: A word which is suitable and given.
- T: Is that? [Gives his own explanation.]

## Extract 32

- T: [write on the BB: I began (learn).....]
- S: I began learning English since 1981.
- T: Who can give me the correct completion.
- S: [No, response, silence, and gives his own answer].

## Extract 33

- T: [writes on the BB. We don't like (be)\_\_\_\_\_] being what? What's your complement?
- S: Walked in the sun.
- T: No, it is not grammatical. Any other response.
- S: We don't like being an old man.
- T: Ok, we need a short complement. Remember complement is a word or group of words. Ok [writes on the BB: being late].

**APPENDIX B**

Demographic Characteristics of the Samples in Terms of Educational Status and Duration of Service

Educational Status			Duration of Service						
	1	2	3	A	B	C	D	E	F
	-	49	1	2	5	14	21	7	1
Total	-	49	1	2	5	14	21	7	1
%	-	98	2	4	10	28	42	14	2

**Key:**

Educational Status

1. Diploma level

2. Bachelor of Arts Degree

3. Master of Arts Degree

Duration of Service

A. 5-10 years service

B. 11-15 "

C. 16-20 "

D. 21-25 "

E. 26-30 "

F. 30 and above years service

**APPENDIX C**

Frequency of Responses and Weighted  
Mean Scores for Individual Items

Item No.	SD	D	N	A	SA	Fi	X
*1	10	40	15	48	15	128	2.56
*1	19	40	0	28	20	107	2.14
3	5	20	12	100	30	167	3.34
*4	1	22	27	56	70	176	3.52
*5	3	10	21	80	75	189	3.78
*6	12	38	15	52	30	147	2.94
7	2	30	30	80	25	167	3.34
8	3	16	27	84	45	175	3.5
*9	2	16	3	80	95	196	3.92
10	4	24	15	108	20	171	3.42
11	4	4	9	92	90	199	3.98
*12	22	54	3	0	0	79	1.58
13	1	2	3	112	95	213	4.26
*14	10	54	15	28	10	117	2.34

\* These are items representing a structural attitudes and beliefs. All the rest are non-structural.

**APPENDIX D**

Scores of Error Evaluation of Individual Items  
and their Weighted Mean Scores

Item No.	0	1	2	3	4	Fi	X
	-	10	40	6	4	60	1.2
2	-	14	26	12	-	52	1.04
3	-	15	20	9	4	48	0.96
4	-	9	24	15	4	52	1.04
5	-	12	18	6	8	44	0.88
6	-	12	40	15	-	67	1.34
7	-	50	30	48	16	504	2.08
8	-	11	30	30	-	71	1.42
9	-	19	20	9	4	52	1.04
10	-	9	30	33	8	80	1.6
11	-	15	8	15	4	38	0.76
12	-	23	20	24	4	71	1.42
13	-	16	12	27	-	55	1.1
14	-	13	34	24	16	87	1.74
15	-	10	26	54	4	94	1.88
16	-	10	38	18	8	74	1.48
17	-	14	26	15	8	63	1.26
18	-	19	6	6	-	31	0.62
19	-	15	26	12	8	61	1.22
20	-	16	16	6	-	38	0.76
21	-	8	14	15	-	37	0.74
22	-	19	20	12	-	51	1.02
23	-	17	36	12	4	69	1.38
24	-	15	30	9	-	54	1.08
25	-	13	38	24	4	79	1.58
26	-	11	28	15	-	54	1.08
27	-	8	16	15	-	39	0.78

APPENDIX E

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY  
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES  
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

Dear Respondent,

The purpose of this survey is to obtain information about some aspects of teaching in relation to your attitude. The value of the survey is directly dependent upon the care and truthfulness with which you answer each item. Since your answers will be treated with the strictest confidence, feel free to answer all questions frankly. Please do not omit any of the questions.

Your co-operation will be greatly appreciated.

Thank you for your time.

**PART I: INFORMATION ABOUT YOURSELF**

**Instructions:**

This section contain questions about yourself. Please answer them as frankly and as accurately as possible.

1. Educational Status: \_\_\_\_\_

2. Duration of service \_\_\_\_\_

3. Seminar(s), workshop(s) attended:

Where? \_\_\_\_\_

When? \_\_\_\_\_

Who? \_\_\_\_\_

Topic/Title \_\_\_\_\_

Objective \_\_\_\_\_

Any insight gained from the seminar.

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

**PART II****Instructions:**

Following are a number of statements with which some people agree and others disagree. There are no RIGHT or WRONG answers since many people have different opinions. The researcher would like you to indicate your opinion about each statement by putting a 'tick' alongside it and below the alternative which best indicates the extent to which you disagree or agree with that statement.

(Please, insert " ✓ " in the appropriate sense where  
SD = Strongly Disagree, D = Disagree, N = Neutral,  
A = Agree, SA = Strongly Agree).

**Beliefs and Attitudes**

1. Errors tell the teacher something about the defectiveness of his teaching materials and his teaching techniques.
2. Students will learn more errors if teachers are tolerant to their incorrect written works or utterances.

SD	D	N	A	SA
1	2	3	4	5



## PART III

Instructions:

This section contains 'YES' or 'NO' questions about your attitude towards correction. Please give your immediate reactions to each of the following items. (Insert "X" in the appropriate box)

A. If you correct your students' work, do you believe that your students have the following problems?

- |   | Yes                      | No                       |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Teacher dependence   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Lack of creativity   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Lack of independent thought being unable to make new and original language | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Caution by taking a long time formulating sentences                        | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Tension: being worried about making mistakes                               | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

What others? Would you list?

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B. If you do not correct, do you recognise the following problems?

- |  | Yes                      | No                       |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 6. Guilt: because of the feeling that you should correct even if you are not convinced of its value. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- |  | Yes                      | No                       |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 7. Complaints on the side of the student about being corrected too little.                       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. Complaints on the side of the parents being unhappy about a non-correcting teacher.           | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. complaints on the side of the school authorities being unhappy about a non-correcting teacher | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. Image of others that they tend to think you are lazy, irresponsible or incompetent.          |                          |                          |
| 11. Student-anxiety by wondering if the teacher knows what he or she is doing                    |                          |                          |

What others? Would you list?

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**PART IV**

**Instructions:**

The following sentences are selected from grade 11 students' written works. Each sentence contains an error. Mark them in accordance with their seriousness. Use the key below.

- 0 = The error is extremely offensive. The student does not deserve any mark.
- 1 = It is serious but the student deserves one-fourth of the mark.
- 2 = It is somewhat tolerable. The student deserves half of the mark.





## APPENDIX F

### PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION

$$r_{xy} = \frac{n\sum xy - \sum x \sum y}{\sqrt{(n\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2)(n\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2)}}$$

#### 1.1 Computations of Inter Correlations

Dependent variable (y) severity of scoring  
independent variable (x)

$x_1$ : attitude

$x_2$ : duration of service

Example: Correlation between severity of scoring and  
duration of service ( $x^2$ )

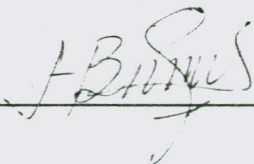
$$\begin{aligned} r_{yX_2} &= \frac{n\sum x_2 y - \sum x_2 \sum y}{\sqrt{[n\sum x_2^2 - (\sum x_2)^2][n\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}} \\ &= \frac{50(34755.46) - (1040)(5725)}{\sqrt{[50(23538) - (1040)^2][50(54419) - (1725)^2]}} \\ &= \frac{-56225}{266513.55} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore r_{yX_2} = -.21$$

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my work and that all sources of materials used for this thesis have been dully acknowledged.

Name: Haileyesus Bala

Signature: 

Place: Institute of Language Studies  
Addis Ababa University

Date of Submission: June 7, 1995