

**THE EFFECTIVENESS OF LEARNER SELF-CORRECTION OF
WRITTEN ERRORS IN THE EFL CLASSROOM**

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**BY
TESFAY SOLOMON**

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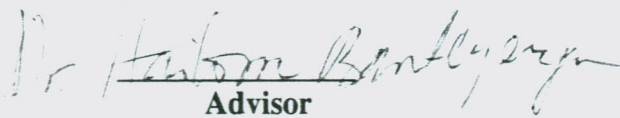
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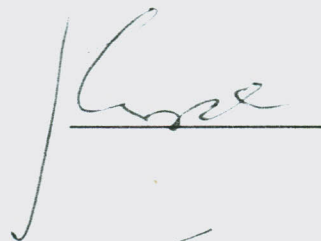
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Examiner



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ABSTRACT

The present study aimed at finding out which feedback technique(s) to student written errors is/are more effective in helping learners improve their proficiency in written English. In other words, it attempted to explore and describe the process of learning EFL through learner self-correction of written errors with and without teacher clues and direct teacher correction.

To do this, a classroom of thirty two Freshman students of AAU were grouped into experimental and control groups based on their scores of the first semester Flen 101A Examination. The experimental group received feedback types that let them self-correct their written errors. The control group received direct teacher correction on their writing tasks.

The following instruments were employed to collect data. These were: a pre-test and a post-test, nine classroom tasks that were given to students for writing, questionnaires that were administered to members of each group, and interviews were conducted with samples from each group.

Errors omitted and opinions given by research subjects on the type of treatments used were collected and analyzed. Comparisons were made to see differences between treatment types and error categories. Means, standard deviations and t-tests were calculated to find out any significant differences between groups and among error categories affected by each treatment.

The results obtained showed that self-correction techniques are more effective in helping students learn than the techniques where the teacher gives direct correction. It is recommended, therefore, that teachers should frequently use feedback types that help students to self-correct their written errors. Teacher training programmes should include topics on the use of students focused error treatment where the teacher predominantly plays the role of a facilitator. It is only when the students totally fail to understand and correct their errors that direct feedback is appropriate.

CHAPTER ONE

1. The Problem

There is growing tendency these days to view second or foreign language learner errors as natural, inevitable and indispensable part of the learning process. This view has raised some questions such as which and who should correct learner written errors. And researchers and educators seem to have varied answers to them. Some, for example, say errors have to be corrected while others claim that error correction does not reduce errors and therefore, errors should be ignored. In between these two extremes are also other researchers who claim that some errors have to be corrected.

In spite of these arguments, however, most students are believed to expect and want their teachers or themselves to correct their errors.

With regard to who should correct written errors, answers also vary. Different teachers and researchers suggest that either teachers, peers, whole class or learners themselves or some combination of these to be the 'right' people to correct learner errors. (Bartram and Walton, 1991).

Furthermore, different techniques of error treatment have been proposed. However, there seems to be no consensus as to whose correction and which techniques are effective and worthwhile in treating learner written errors in the EFL classroom.

Students joining the Addis Ababa University are observed to have serious problems of English, particularly writing. One obvious problem is lack of satisfactory competence in the English language. The common saying of English language instructors as well as other subject teachers is that a good majority of the freshman students cannot compose a single grammatical sentence. Although such students are exposed to grammar focused English language teaching for more than seven years, the

problem of writing a grammatically acceptable and meaningful sentence remains a challenge.

Studies made by Getnet (1993), Wondwossen (1992) and Aster (1994) show that the majority of university and high school English teachers use direct treatment of student written errors.

It is obvious, therefore, that though letting learners to try and correct their own errors has been found out to be effective in studies carried out by Lalande (1982), Bartram and Walton (1991) and Makino (1993), it does not seem to be widely practised nor is it studied in our situation.

This study tries to examine the effectiveness of the error treatment techniques in the management of learning by investigating how effective learner self-correction of written errors is in the teaching of English in the Ethiopian context.

2. The Importance of the Study

1. Teachers may benefit from this study in some ways. It may help them to reflect on their own practises of error correction. It may also add to the already practised techniques of handling written errors in the classroom. If more alternatives are available, it is believed that a teacher will have choices to make which may work with his particular kind of learners, writing tasks, and purposes of writing.
2. The results of the study could also be important for the training of English teachers. Teacher trainers could apply the results of the study in the training of prospective teachers particularly in the how and who should treat learner written errors.

3. On a more general basis, the study is hoped to contribute some insights to the growing literature in the field of SLA research, particularly to the ways of treating student written errors.
4. This is the first experimental study in our situation which attempts to investigate the effectiveness error correction techniques of direct teacher correction and learner self-correction with varied types of treatment techniques under each. It is hoped that it will encourage more studies in the field which may come up with more effective techniques of treating errors in the classroom. More investigations can lead to the understanding of the management of errors of learners of English.

3. Objectives of the Study

The objective of this study is to find out which feedback technique(s) is/are more effective in helping learners improve their proficiency in the written English language.

In other words, it aims:

1. To explore and describe the process of learning EFL through learner self-correction of written errors with teacher clues, without teacher clues and direct teacher correction.
2. To determine the level of teacher intervention in the treatment of errors in order to promote effective teaching of EFL.
3. To determine which written error treatment technique(s) is/are effective in reducing learner written errors.
4. To determine whether the error treatment techniques were particularly effective on certain types of errors.

5. To contribute to the understanding of the management of learning which is basic in teacher training.

4. Limitation of the Study

One limitation of the study is its number of subjects - one classroom of thirty two students in Freshman English. This is done for two reasons. The first one is the nature of tasks given and the types of feedback provided to members of each group demanded a manageable size of students. The tasks were varied and many in number that the resulting data would not be manageable by the investigator. In fact, two pilot studies made previously made this problem clear.

The second reason is the fact that the experiment required strictly controlled situations that only the researcher could effectively carry out. If another class had been added it would have become necessary to call another person for help which in turn would have reduced the reliability of the study.

5. Definition of Terms

5.1. Error Feedback

In this study, the term feedback is used in the sense Long (1977) defines it. It is error detection which is designed to promote correction by supplying learners with information about the correctness of their language production.

It is also used to refer to the kinds of directions given to learners as to how to self-correct their own errors and to the kinds of responses given to the written tasks by the investigator.

5.2. Error Correction

Error correction is describing the hoped-for results of feedback on errors (Long, 1977). In other words, it refers to the result of feedback (i.e., its effect on learning).

According to Chaudron (1977) error treatment or error correction is any reaction by the teacher that clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to or demands improvement. Such treatments may result in the elicitation of a correct response from the learner or in the learner's autonomous ability to correct him/herself.

5.3 The terms '**feedback**' and '**treatment**' are used interchangeably in this study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

The question of learner written errors in learning a foreign language is a very much debated area in FL/SL acquisition research. Many researchers have expressed their views and preferences regarding the roles and practices of errors and error correction in learning a foreign language. The following review of the related literature briefly presents views related to written error correction.

The first part of the literature focuses on views and significance of learner errors. The second part deals with literature on the views and procedures of written error correction and on the provision of feedback. Literature on answers to the question 'Who should correct learner written errors?' is discussed in the third part of this chapter. Finally, the fourth part deals with works on error correction related to our situation.

2.1. Literature on the Views and Significance of Learner Errors

Through the years, two contending views have been observed regarding errors. The behaviourist attitude views errors as symptoms of defective teaching or as evidence of failure on the part of the students. So, when errors occur, they are to be remedied through intensive drilling of correct forms. Teachers with such an attitude are often afraid of their students making errors. They feel that the students might 'learn their mistakes', and so they must make sure that everything they say or write is correct (Hubbard, etal, 1983: 144).

The mentalist attitude, on the other hand, views errors as inevitable and integral part of the learning process. Consequently, second language (SL) research has come to attach great significance to the role of errors in the learning of second languages.

As opposed to the behaviourist view, the mentalist attitude believes that language is not learned by repetition of correct forms. Rather it is a system of rules that the learner has to acquire, and that 'trying out' language and making errors are unavoidable part of this process (Doff, 1988); Bartram and Walton, 1991); and are necessary if learners are to learn 'better rules' (Edge, 1989).

2.2. Views and Procedures of Written Error Correction

Though correction remains to be a key issue for both practising teachers and researchers, the opposite views towards learner errors have also their impacts on the practice of error correction. The positive view that regards learner errors as part of the second or foreign language learning process has raised questions such as 'Should learner errors be corrected?' If yes, 'Which errors should be corrected?' This part of the literature review attempts to answer these questions as well as provides views regarding the provision of feedback to written errors, factors to consider during written error correction and on the use of effective error treatment techniques.

2.2.1 Should Learner Written Errors be Corrected?

Two arguments (for and against) are apparent in trying to answer the question: 'Should learner errors be corrected?' Learners' views on written error correction are also discussed.

Sheorey (1986) observes that, although the Italian saying 'one learns by erring' describes the current view held by many EFL/ESL teachers towards learner errors,

error correction remains important because most people, including native speakers, are less tolerant for written errors than for spoken errors. Hendrickson (1978), in an overview of the literature available at that time, concluded that error correction does improve the proficiency of learners. He also quotes Krashen and Selinger (1975) as saying that error correction in the adult foreign language classroom helps many learners become aware of the exact environment for applying grammatical rules and for discovering the precise semantic range of lexical items (Hendrickson, 1980).

Lalande (1982) also believes that unless all errors in writing are identified, the faulty linguistic structures, rather than the correct ones, may become ingrained in the students' inter-language system. He further quotes Thompson (1965) as saying: "The student does not improve his skills if his work is not corrected" (1982:114).

For Larsen-Freeman (1991) though error correction can be intrusive and unwarranted during communicative phase activities, focused error correction is highly desirable because it provides the negative evidence students often need to reject or modify their hypotheses about the target language.

Edmondson (1985), as cited in Ellis (1990), argues that bringing errors to the learner's attention helps learning. He sees error correction as contributing to the process of consciousness - raising which he thinks is important for language acquisition. Furthermore, according to insights provided by researchers, error treatment is not a manipulative process - as it was seen to be in audiolingual learning theory. Rather it is the process of negotiation, one of several ways in which the teacher and the students collaborate in managing interactional tasks in the classroom (Ellis, 1990).

With regard to written errors, Kulhavy (1985) has shown that corrective feedback has its greatest impact on incorrect rather than correct responses. For many years, Skinner and Other behaviourists had claimed that feedback had its greatest impact

on correct responses. Such an approach to error correction, adds Ellis (1990), was compatible with the central tenet of operant conditioning, namely that correct responses received positive reinforcement and negative responses negative reinforcement.

However, Kulhavy has demonstrated that Skinner's position is valid only with regard to spoken language. In view of Kulhavy's findings, therefore, any systematic model for treating written errors would appear to be most effective if student attention were directed primarily to incorrect responses.

In contrast to the above views on error correction, there are also researchers who claim that student errors should be ignored because their correction does not significantly affect learning. Such view were forwarded, according to Ellis (Ibid), by inter language researchers who argued that it was pointless correcting errors which were inevitable and an integral part of the process of L_2 acquisition.

Cohen and Robbins (1976) also argue that the correction of student written errors is often ineffective in reducing errors because teachers correct mistakes inconsistently. Furthermore, Chaudron (1988) states that it seems extremely difficult to verify the effect of correction. In like manner, Long (1977) argues that error treatment is not so important. Others have also expressed similar doubts about the effectiveness of error correction (for example Krashen, 1982; and Krashen and Terrell, 1983). Their argument is that the errors made by learners are simply indicative of a certain stage in their inter-language which will develop naturally into more accurate and appropriate forms.

Despite these arguments, however, most students understand the need for error correction in helping them to test their hypothesis about how the target language is formed or functions. Consequently, they often deliberately seek error correction 'to

assist them with their language learning task (Larsen-Freeman, 1991). Furthermore, Ellis (1990) quotes Cathcart and Oslen (1976) as claiming that error treatment in language classroom is frequently not only welcomed but also demanded by learners. According to Makino (1993), most students expect and want their teachers to help them to correct their own written errors so that the chance of recurrence is reduced.

2.2.2 Which Written Errors Should be Corrected?

There seems to be a consensus among teachers and researchers as well as a desire by students on the need to treat errors. This in turn raises another controversial questions, namely, 'Which written errors should be corrected?'

There are two ways of approaching this question. One is in terms of the extent or amount of errors that should be corrected, and the other is in terms of the focus of correction.

With regard to the extent of errors that have to be corrected, some alternatives are suggested by researchers. Some propose comprehensive or total error correction. For example, Lalande (1982) claims that:

Since the affective disposition of students is not adversely affected by total correction of errors, and since students can be made aware of their deficiencies in linguistic competence, teachers should consider seriously the adaption of a policy of total correction of written errors. (p. 147).

The other extreme stand refers to those who claim that errors should not be corrected at all. Such beliefs and practices are recommended, as discussed earlier in this section, by Cohen and Robbins (1976), Chaudron (1988), and Long (1977).

For Dulay and Burt, (1977); and Krashen, (1977), on the other hand, "a selective approach to error correction, tailored to the learner's internal level of linguistic development, might be beneficial to students in both cognitive and affective

terms (cited in Hendrickson, 1980:217). Similarly, Doff (1988) claims that we need to correct some errors to help students learn the correct forms of the language. Hendrickson (1978), furthermore, proposes that error correction does improve the proficiency of EFL/ESL learners, if they are errors that stigmatize the learner, inhibit communication or appear frequently.

Griffin (1982:299) noted that, "the major question confronting any theory of responding to student writing is where we [teachers] should focus our attention" during error correction. The question, in other words, is whether to focus on form (for example, grammar, mechanics) or content (for example, organization, amount of detail).

Research on the focus of feedback in both L_1 and L_2 is inconclusive: there is little agreement among teachers and researchers about how teachers should respond to student writing (Fathman and Whalley, 1990). Studies in L_2 context draw different conclusions. Focus on form in some cases appears to be effective in helping students write better; in others it is not. Hendrickson (1978), for example, found out that providing the correct form, in addition to noting the errors had no statistically significant effect on students' writing proficiency.

Other researchers, on the other hand, have found out that students who received feedback on form do make more improvement on writing tasks than those who do not (Fathman and Whalley, *Ibid*). Writing accuracy does increase with teacher feedback that gives the location of grammatical errors (Lalande, 1982; Robb, *etal.*, (1986).

Another rationale for focusing on form, according to Frodesen (1991), is the fact that students often have difficulties with both sentence-and discourse-level English grammar. Moreover, research has provided evidence that EFL/ESL writers' grammatical errors may negatively affect assessment of overall writing quality.

Furthermore, a study made by Hoack, et al, (1978) also suggests that foreign language learners, as opposed to second language performers, will show more use of the conscious grammar, as these students will have had less opportunity to acquire the target language and may rely more on the conscious grammar. In another study by Cohen (1987), those students who considered themselves as good writers showed willingness to pay more attention to the basics of writing - mechanics, grammar and vocabulary. This would suggest that "while writing may be a creative process, successful creativity does not take place at the expense of basic matters of form" (Cohen, 1987: 66).

In those cases where accuracy of form is required, it is important, according to Celce-Murcia (1985), for the EFL teacher to know how to focus on form and to know how to correct errors. To do so, she claims that a number of learner variables and instructional variables have to be taken into consideration. To put it briefly, she believes that focus on form in teaching as well as correcting written errors becomes more important when the learners are adults; with advanced proficiency level and educated; and when the focus of the instruction is on formal and professional writing.

2.3 The Provision of Feedback to Learner Written Errors

An important concept very much related to written error correction is the way teachers respond to learner written errors, namely, the provision of feedback. Aside from instruction, the primary role of language teachers is often considered to be the provision of both error correction, a form of negative feedback, and positive sanctions or approval of learners' production. Feedback is therefore, an inevitable constituent of

classroom interaction, for no matter what the teacher does, learners derive information about their behaviour from the teacher's reaction (or lack of reaction) to their behaviour (Chaudron, 1988).

Whereas the audiolingual approach to language teaching tended to equate feedback with positive or negative reinforcement, in a cognitive view of learning the function of feedback is not only to provide reinforcement, but also to provide information which learners can use actively in modifying their behaviours (Zamel, 1983).

Views also differ markedly on the nature and characteristics of feedback. For some, it may take the form of a simple "yes-no" answer regarding the correctness of a student response. For others, it may become rather elaborate and represent in itself a mode of instruction (Lalande, 1982).

Chaudron (1988) discusses the importance of feedback for both language teachers and learners. From the teacher's point of view, the provision of feedback is a major means by which learners are informed about the accuracy of their formal target language production. From the learner's point of view, the use of feedback in repairing their language production and that of their interlocutors' may constitute the most potent source of improvement in target language development.

An important function of providing feedback to written errors is its role in making errors salient. According to Gardner (1990:71):

Most researchers believe that for written error work, contrary to the practice common to oral activities, teachers should at least signal all the errors, even though they will not be able to deal with them all in a follow up work.

Other writers (for example, Page 1958; Clark 1975; Clifford. 1979), all cited in Cardelle and Corno (1981), have noted further that pointing out errors need not be

considered as punishment but rather as information to motivate the learner. Such an assumption rests on the belief that the more information students have about their response the better they will understand why they make mistakes (Cardelle and Corno, *Ibid*) and the more this will aid their ability to correct mistakes and increase achievement (Kulhavy, 1977).

Furthermore, the results of Cardelle and Corno's (*Ibid*) study showed that salient error conditions produced higher level of performance than suppressed error conditions. In addition to this, Zalewsky (1993) argues that grammatical forms can be easily learned by increasing their occurrence in language input contexts that raise their cognitive salience.

Based on the above discussion and implications of the provision of feedback to written errors, Cardelle and Corno (*Ibid*) advise second language instructors to provide specific feedback on written errors that identify student errors and guide him/her toward a better attempt next time. Higgs (1979) also proposes that teachers use error codes to alert students to the nature and location of errors.

As with error correction, these views are not without counterparts, however. Some studies, for example, Cardelle and Corno (*Ibid*), point out that there may be lack of proper relationship between feedback on written errors and the learners' interests - between what the teachers provide and the students would like to receive.

Part of the problem lies in the nature of the feedback by the teacher, namely, that it may be unclear or inaccurate. Another problem with corrective feedback is the fact that such feedback on written errors has mainly concerned itself with the "best" means of teacher correction rather than with the issue of how students actually respond to each of these methods. Moreover, students vary in their responses to feedback (Radecki and Swales, 1986); and students seem to be deficient in their repertoire of

strategies for handling the feedback that they get (Cohen, 1986; Cohen and Cavalcanti, 1987).

2.4. Factors to Consider in Written Error Correction

A related question to the provision of feedback to written errors is: What factors need to be considered in implementing error-correction feedback strategies in the EFL Classroom? According to Hendrickson (1980:217) when deciding which errors to correct and how to correct them, one should consider at least four critical factors. First, one needs to be aware of a student's purpose and goal for communicating in writing. Second, one must take into account students' proficiency in the target language at any given time. Third, the teacher's awareness of error types and frequencies as well as understanding of how these two aspects relate to students' writing goals. The fourth critical factor is the students' attitudes about the nature of errors and error correction.

According to Carroll (1977:6), quotes Hendrickson (Ibid), "willingness to use a foreign language-and to make errors - is one characteristic of a successful language learner". One implication of this statement is the need for teachers to create a healthy learning environment in which learners recognize that making errors is a natural, indeed, a necessary phenomenon in language learning.

Taking the above factors into consideration during written error correction may not suffice. For effective success of error correction in the EFL classroom, another question needs to be addressed: What kinds of correction treatments are worthwhile? Hendrickson (Ibid: 218-219) proposes the use of combinations of direct and indirect treatments for correcting written errors.

Indirect correction treatments may be done in either or combinations of four ways:

1. by underlining incorrect orthographic and morphological forms,
2. by circling an inappropriate word,
3. by inserting an arrow to indicate a missing word, and
4. by placing a question mark alongside a confusing word or structure.

Direct correction treatments may be done in the following ways, beginning with the least direct correction treatment:

1. by underlining a word and providing a written tip,
2. by bracketing a misplaced word or phrase and indicating its proper place in a sentence,
3. by crossing out a superfluous word, and
4. by providing a correct form or structure of an incorrect word or phrase.

Moreover, Wingfield (1975:311) describes a variety of techniques typically used in classrooms for correcting written errors. These include:

1. Providing sufficient clues to enable self-correction,
2. Correcting the script by the teacher,
3. Providing marginal comments and footnotes,
4. Oral explanations, and
5. Using the errors as illustrations for class explanations.

Other researchers also propose a variety of written error correction methods. Heyland (1990), for example, favours just locating errors by putting a cross (x) or more

in the margin alongside the lines in which they occur. He also advocates a taped commentary as another way of talking about a student's writing. Though described by Raimes (1983b:145) as "extremely time consuming and ... not practical," conferencing is also favoured by Ken (1990), Knapp (1978), and Searl and Dillon (1980), all cited in Getnet (1993). Reformulating is also considered as an alternative technique of dealing with student written errors (Allwright, 1988).

2.5. Correction of Learner Written Errors

Another important question usually raised with regard to error correction is 'who should correct learner written errors?' In the language classroom, peers, the whole class, the language teacher and the learner him/herself can correct errors.

According to Doff (1988), though it takes time in the lesson, getting students to correct their own or each other's errors gives students useful practice in reading through what they have written and noticing errors. Brumfit (1980), Norrish (1992), and Manglesdorf (1992) suggest that being provided with the necessary guidelines, students can (in groups or pairs) be made to correct, to locate or give comments on their friends' writing.

Another way of treating learner errors is whole class correction. According to Bartram and Walton (1991), in this technique the teacher makes a collection of errors from written works of the learners and puts them on the blackboard for discussion.

2.5.1. Teacher Correction of Learner Written Errors

According to the behaviourist theory of learning, correcting students' errors is the main responsibility of the teacher. Students are not encouraged to discover and correct their own mistakes. The recommended method is immediate correction by the

teacher followed by further practice to produce the correct response by the students. Thus, the teacher has a traditional right to provide learners with feedback regarding the correctness of their responses.

Some classroom researchers, for example, Green and Hecht (1993) point out that teacher correction strategies where teachers correct written errors directly; give indirect, diffuse cues and location of correction needed; and where teachers correct everything are less effective. On the other hand, those where teachers elicit peer or self-correction; give focused, specific cues as to what correction is needed; and where teachers correct selectively are considered more effective.

What then is the role of the teacher in written error correction? On the one hand, it is clear that negative feedback prevents fossilization of incorrect linguistic forms in SL acquisition. On the other hand, the effectiveness of teacher correction in FL language learning remains open to question (Green and Hecht, *Ibid*).

Whilst Horner (1988), for example, on the basis of relevant studies, pleads for careful and moderate teacher correction, Semke (1984) opposes it, since her own investigation failed to demonstrate any advantages in teacher correction. Allwright also considers teacher correction as "inefficient and constituting a large quantity of 'spoonfeeding' with the spoonfeeding taking virtually all the responsibility for error detection and correction" (Allwright, 1988:109).

Contrary to these investigations is the result of Ramirez's and Stomquist's (1979) study. As quoted by Gaies (1983:210), they found out that "Overt correction of grammatical errors correlated with pupil achievement." One of the initial findings, however, of research on error treatment is that overt correction of student writing by the teacher tends to have negative side effects on the quality of subsequent essays and

student attitudes to writing. (Cohen and Robbins (1976), Hendrickson, 1977; Krashen, 1982; and Brumfit, 1980).

For Hendrickson (1980) providing the correct forms and structures in students' faulty sentences is "a time consuming ordeal that can also be frustrating to teachers, especially when they see that identical types of errors appear repeatedly on compositions written over a period of time by the same student" (p. 217).

2.5.2. Learner Self-correction of Written Errors

As opposed to the traditional views on error and error correction and the role of the teacher with regard to written errors, there was a tendency to shift away from these attitudes beginning from the latter part of the sixties. Corder (1967) suggested that it was much more important that L₂ learners be allowed to discover their own errors rather than be corrected by the teacher.

Research also suggests that while making errors is an important part of the learning process, systematic correction does not improve written language. What is of help is giving learners more time to formulate what they want to say or write (Lavezzo and Dunford, 1993; Harmer, 1991). Gardner (1990) also believes that if learners are not aware that they have made a mistake, they cannot remedy the situation. To do so, "a principle which all researchers approve of is that of the involvement of the learners themselves in the feedback process" (Gardner, 1990:71).

Furthermore, Lewis and Hill (1985) suggest that if in every case the teacher immediately corrects an error, an opportunity for real understanding is lost. If, on the other hand, by the help of some clue from the teacher the student can correct him/herself, nothing more needs to be done. For Edge (1989:24) and Lewis and Hill (Ibid) the main principle of correction is that self-correction is best. The reason they

give is that if the student corrects him/herself he/she inevitably does repeat the correct form.

Contrary to these findings, however, Semke (1984:82) believes that "making students correct their own errors with the help of error code was found to be least effective in terms of both achievement and attitude".

2.5.2.1. Studies on Learner Self-correction of Written Errors

Some researchers have made studies on the effectiveness of self-correction of written errors. Some descriptive studies focused on the ability of learners to search and correct errors indicated for them. For example, the results of Tucker and Sarofim's 1979 study showed that the range of the proportion of errors corrected was from 33 percent to 83 percent depending on the kind of errors. Errors in number were, for example, found easier to correct than prepositions.

A study by Green and Hecht (1992) tried to find out the role of linguistic rules in self-correction. And they came up with such results as: learners could correct their errors not only if they knew the grammatical rules broken but also when they have incorrect explicit rule or no rule at all, and as some grammatical rules are more straight-forward than others, the success of self-correction of individual rules also varied.

Enginarlar (1993) looked at how students react to teacher feedbacks to their written errors. He came up with results that showed students preference and approval for error correction strategies that used underlining and coding errors for self-correction.

Makino (1993) studied the effectiveness of different self-correction strategies and took up the idea that the teacher can provide learners with the opportunity to try to self-

correct without further help. He also investigated to what extent teacher cues or hints help their students correct their own errors and what kinds of clues are more effective in self-correction. As the results showed, all subjects could correct their own errors to some extent, even if no cues were given to the errors. The more detailed cues, however, led to a higher ratio of self-correction of written errors.

In his experimental study Lalande (1982) tested the efficacy of the theoretical issues relating to comprehensive error correction, systematic marking of compositions, guided learning and problem-solving approaches to error correction. The results of the study revealed that students in the experimental group (self-correction) produced compositions of superior grammatical and orthographic quality. Measurement of performance by the same group indicated a slight reduction in the amount of errors. The control group (teacher correction), however, realized a considerable increase in errors.

2.5.2.2. The Pedagogical, Linguistic and Psychological Implications of Self-correction

Recently, in language learning the traditional view of the teacher-student relationship has been strongly challenged. It is now accepted that learning is a complex process, and does not consist simply of the transmission of knowledge. Teaching has come to be seen as letting learners learn (Bartram and Walton, 1991). Among the reasons Bartram and Walton give for the shift from teaching to learning is the long-term nature of language learning and the fact that though learning a FL/SL never stops, the teacher will sooner or later walk out of the classroom for the last time and from then on the students are on their own. Thus, "It is better to make the students autonomous and independent before the teacher leaves for ever" (1991:9).

From a pedagogical point of view, therefore, self-correction may be seen as part of an education for autonomous learning. "If our teaching of foreign languages aims to lead to what Dickinson (1988:34) called 'learning to learn', then self-correction is a step in that direction because it encourages responsibility and independence in the learner" (Green and Hecht, 1993:158). For Bartram and Walton (Ibid) active involvement of students in the process of dealing with errors militates less focus on the teacher.

Furthermore, a correction process where the students are helpless 'victims' of the teacher's red pen seems unlikely to make the students more independent. So letting learners self-correct their written errors, on the other hand, induces a more cooperative atmosphere in the class because certain students accept and learn from self-correction much more readily than from the teacher (Bartram and Walton, 1991, Makino, 1993; Greenbaum, 1985).

The psychological implications of self-correction of written errors refer to what goes on in our minds when we self-correct or monitor our language productions. Green and Hecht (1993) believe that being a learning strategy in a FL, self-correction is also part of our psychological make-up, belonging to the attentional processes which accompany procedures that are not fully automatic. They quote Cohen (1989:19) as describing attentional processes thus:

Attentional processes are under moment-to-moment control by a central process, which monitors ... the action sequence, modifying performance according to feedback about changes in external circumstances and internal needs and intentions.

Thus, speaking and writing are processes which are not fully automatic and which are therefore accompanied by the psycholinguistic control process of monitoring. As a psycholinguistic phenomenon, all self-correction derives from two basic faculties - the creative and the critical - which are applied in both language production and

language reception. Our concern is with self-correction in language production that in psycholinguistics is designated overt-self-correction. Thus, according to Green and Hecht (Ibid) the process of self-correction enables us to discover, through implicit or explicit knowledge, discrepancies between "internal" and "external" language and retrospectively correct any deviations in form or content.

But how self-correction process takes place in our minds is another question some researchers have tried to address. What instance gives us specific instruction as to how we are to self-correct? Green and Hecht (Ibid) quote Levelt (1983:50) as answering the question as follows: "... the monitor makes the speaker aware of this (mismatch) ... and an alarm signal is sent to working memory." Working memory then gives instruction on how the correction is to be carried out. This involves employing knowledge of language that may be either implicit or explicit, or some combination of the two (Green and Hecht, Ibid).

Krashen (1987) also believes that we can get some approximation of the efficiency of the conscious grammar by looking at how good performers are at self-correction of their own linguistic output. He further quotes Houck (1978b) as saying that "self-correction (as opposed to 'other correction') is the most valid object of study in investigating Monitor strength, since this is what one's Monitor actually does in real performance" (p 105).

As the above discussion points out, learners may notice their errors by themselves or by others through the strategy of monitoring and may self-correct some of their errors. Those learners who are able to correct their own errors can activate their linguistic competence (i.e. their linguistic knowledge) to monitor their linguistic performance (Makino, 1993). According to Makino "self-correction gives students an opportunity to consider and activate their linguistic competence, so that they can be

active participants in written compositions rather than passive recipients of feedback" (p. 340). Another advantage of self-correction is that teacher cues give students a chance to reflect on their writing and to pay more attention to the structural forms they have written (Makino, 1993). Bartram and Walton (Ibid) also claim that self-correction of written errors involves students in an active manner and that active, involved students learn better.

Kleppin and Konings (1991) found out in their study that the pupils with the highest degree of interest in self-correction were those whose teachers most often invited pupils to self-correct. So learners can be motivated and encouraged to develop and make use of the strategy of self-correction. Thus, if self-correction motivates students to learn better, as Chamot and Kupper (1989:21) found out, it is "a strategy leading to more effective language learning". It is also an active process of mistake management which engages the student intellectually and is therefore likely to be more effective.

Other researchers view self-correction of written as problem-solving and discovery approach to error-correction. Some literature suggests that the foreign language writing abilities of students could be favourably enhanced through strategies which promote problem-solving techniques (Lalande, 1982). Robb, et al, (1986:89) proved in their study the assumption "that learners will retain feedback only if they are forced to approach error-correction as a problem-solving activity".

Problem-solving gives one the opportunity to reconstruct grammatical structures with the expressed intent of making them more adequate than would otherwise be the case (Morris, 1976). It seems advisable, therefore, for teachers not to write in the correct form above an error but only to indicate the location of the error and give a clue as to the type of error by placing a symbol in the margin. This process makes the

students to puzzle over the errors (problem-solving) and then (possibly) come up with the correct item themselves (Gardner, 1990).

Some researchers consider learner self-correction of written errors as a discovery approach to error correction (for example, Corder, 1967; Gorbet, 1974; Valdman, 1975; as cited in Hendrickson, 1980). These three researchers suggest that a discovery approach would also help students make inferences and formulate concepts about the target language, and would help them to fix the information in their long-term memories.

2.6. Research on Errors and Error Correction in AAU and Some High schools in Addis Ababa

Studies in our context on error and error correction focused on the analysis of student written errors (Mamo, 1981); on error gravity (Guta, 1984); the oral feedback behaviour of grade eleven English teachers (Wondwossen, 1992); high school teachers' attitudes towards learner written errors (Aster, 1994), and Getnet's (1993) who investigated the responding behaviour of Sophomore English teachers of AAU to student writing.

Of these, Wondwossen found out, among others, that teachers spent a considerable portion (29.2%) of class time providing feedback. He also claims that the teachers were unsuccessful in their provision of feedback for they did not involve students in an active manner. Aster also came up with the conclusion that teachers of English in our high schools seem to have negative attitude towards all students' written errors, they indiscriminately corrected and penalized students for every error they made and that teachers were inconsistent in their correction and grading of errors.

Related to the present study is that of Getnet's (1993). His descriptive study aimed at discovering the responding behaviour of Sophomore English instructors to their students' writing. The feedback types investigated were grouped into two categories based on the focus of correction. Under category one were grouped written feedback types to low-level features of writing (for example, grammar, mechanics and vocabulary). Those included direct and indirect correction techniques, written comments and ignore. The focus of the present discussion will be on this feedback type.

As the results of the questionnaire show, the great majority of the teachers (67%) gave only grades to what students wrote, only eight teachers reported to be frequently giving written comments, and only 3 of them used peer correction. Furthermore, almost all the respondents (12 of them) replied that they either frequently or sometimes corrected errors directly, whereas only 7 of them said they indicated errors with codes, symbols, etc.

As the data obtained from the corrected papers show, 'direct correction' was found to be the only technique used by all of the nine instructors from whose students the papers were collected. 'Indirect correction' was used by very few. Four sub-groups were identified under indirect correction: 'indicate-identify', 'indicate-locate', 'indicate-not- identify' and 'indicate-relate'. Under these categories learners were required to discover right form(s) by themselves.

Teacher corrected papers were tabulated to see how frequently these indirect correction treatments were employed by the teachers. Only 3 of the nine instructors were observed using 'indicate-identify'. 'Indicate-locate' was used by five instructors

but with a lesser frequency and extent. 'Indicate-relate' was observed to be used at least in four situations by three teachers. 'Indicate-not identify' was used by none of the instructors.

As the results further indicate, students seem to know very little or nothing about how to handle teacher feedback. An insignificant portion of them, however, used the strategy of re-writing.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN

The study is basically experimental seeking both quantitative and qualitative results through the performances of students in experimental and control group treatments. It also describes data observed through questionnaires and interviews.

3.1. Subjects

The subjects of the experiment comprised a classroom of about thirty two Freshman students of Addis Ababa University. Half of the students belonged to an experimental group, the other half, to a control group. To ensure that no significant difference existed between the groups, the classification was based on the first semester Freshman English (Flen 101A) scores of the subjects. The scores were arranged in a rank order from the highest to the lowest score. The first score was assigned to the experimental group by rolling a die and the second to the control group, and so on (see Appendix 1). The t-value calculated for both group means did not show any statistically significant difference between the groups (see Table 1 below).

Table 1: First Semester Flen 101A Scores for both Groups.

Group	Mean Score out of 100	Standard Deviation	t-value
Experimental	63.63	11.89	0.0068
Control	63.66	12.84	

3.2. Techniques of Data Collection and Analysis

Quantitative and qualitative data were collected from each group through the use of pre-test and post-test results, classroom writing tasks, questionnaires and interviews. The data were analyzed and some conclusions were drawn.

3.2.1. Sources of Data

Quantitative Data

A pre-test and post-test were used to determine the effectiveness of teacher versus learner self-correction techniques in the learning of English.

In the classroom writing tasks, student errors were recorded for all members of each group. The number and percentage of errors for each task under each treatment type were calculated and compared against each group in order to determine the effectiveness of the feedbacks given.

Results of the questionnaires were also converted into percentages and compared with the results obtained from post-test and classroom tasks to see the relationship of students' thinking about the feedbacks given and their performances.

Qualitative Data

1. Errors were recorded from both tests and from the classroom tasks and grouped into eight common ones: Agreement, Spelling, Punctuation, Tense, Preposition, Article, Vocabulary and Auxiliary verbs. For the experimental group, the types of errors affected by each of the three feedback types used were calculated and compared (see section 3.2.3 for the types of feedback employed).

2. Questionnaires were administered to both groups to verify the perception of research subjects about the error treatment techniques they were provided with.
3. Interviews were also conducted (i) to check the reliability of responses given to the questionnaires. A sample of the respondents were interviewed for this purpose. (ii) To get some insights as to what the students think about feedback in language learning.

3.2.2. Teaching Activities and Writing Tasks

The teaching activities and some of the writing tasks were based on the materials now being piloted by the Department of Foreign Languages and Literature, (AAU). The study lasted for about six weeks. The class met twice a week for about two hours a day. At the beginning of the first week a pre-test was administered. It was an essay writing task taken from Unit 4 of the new material being piloted. Before students wrote their essays, topics on grammar and vocabulary were discussed in class. Furthermore, the number of words for the essay and how to write it were also discussed.

For the post-test another essay form the same material (Unit 5) was used and was administered on the last day of the classroom meeting. All necessary discussion on grammar, vocabulary were done prior to writing the essay. Both essays were written in the classroom.

During the six weeks, nine different writing tasks were given to students. Different types of errors were recorded from the writing activities of the students. Vocabulary errors were recorded mainly from the translation writing exercises. Auxiliary and tense errors were recorded mainly from the paragraphs written by the students.

Of the nine tasks used, five were taken from the materials prepared by the Department. These included: three sentence-completion (Tasks 1, 3, and 7), one paragraph writing (Task 5) and one answering comprehension questions (Task 8) (see Appendix 4). The rest were taken from other sources but were thematically related to the units taught. These included: one sentence transformation (Task 2), one paragraph writing (Task 6), and two translation - Amharic into English - (Tasks 6 and 9) (See Appendix 5).

3.2.3. Treatments to Which Both Groups were Submitted

Both experimental and control groups received the same briefings on the nature of tasks and how to deal with them. The tasks were also the same for both groups and were administered at the same time. The correction techniques used for both groups were slightly adapted from Hendrickson (1980:218-219).

The Control Group

Students in the control group received direct teacher correction techniques to all their tasks. After tasks were collected, errors were corrected using the teacher correction techniques of (i) giving grades only (ii) crossing out errors, and (iii) crossing out errors and providing correct forms. Errors collected from each treatment type were recorded for each member of the group. After all these, tasks were given back to students during the second session (usually the next class meeting) (see Appendix 10c). These students were then instructed to ask questions regarding the corrections made on their tasks.

The three teacher correction treatments were distributed equally to all the tasks, that is, each type of feedback was provided to three different types of writing tasks. The feedbacks were written on the photocopied tasks returned to the students.

The Experimental Group

Students in the experimental group received different types of feedbacks that let them self-correct their own written errors. After each task was collected during the pre-feedback session, errors were recorded and grouped into error categories. The original tasks were photocopied and given back to students with feedbacks and instructions for self-correction with one of the following three different clues for self-correction:

1. a copy with instructions for students to search for any errors and try and correct them;
2. a copy with errors indicated by underlining them; by inserting an arrow (\wedge) for missing words, phrases or punctuation; by circling unnecessary or inappropriate words or phrases; by placing a question mark (?) for confusing or unclear words, phrases or sentences; and bracketing misplaced words, phrases or sentences for self-correction, and
3. a copy with errors indicated, as in (2) above, plus error codes used to indicate the type of error(s) made as well as with instructions on how to correct the errors. The codes were written on each of the students' papers. Upon reception of the tasks, during the post-feedback session, students were charged with reading the instructions, interpreting the codes and symbols and correcting their errors (See Appendix 2 and Appendix 10b).

Other Controls

Some precautions were taken to ensure the validity of the experiment. First, although the class was divided into two groups, the classification had remained confidential. It was only the experimenter who knew who was who in each group. Second, students never knew of their participation in an experiment. As Lalande (1982) claims if students are aware that they are involved in an experiment, they tend to achieve high scores regardless of the treatments involved. The third precaution was that no written comments were given to student written tasks except feedbacks such as "Excellent", "Very good," and "Good". Fourth, all experimental and control groups met the same number of hours and times per week; all followed the same course content which has, more or less, uniformity in grammar and vocabulary exercises.

3.3. Data Processing

1. Errors from the pre-test and post-test were recorded and grouped into error categories which occurred in both tests and differences in number and percentage as well as in error type calculated (see Appendix 10a).
2. For both tests the number and percentage of errors for each group were calculated. Standard deviations and t-tests were used to see if significant differences existed between the results for both groups in the post-test in general and among error types in particular.
3. Errors from the nine classroom writing tasks were recorded and grouped into error types. Number and percentage of errors observed and self-corrected were calculated for each of the three self-correction techniques used. This was meant

to find out: first, which error type(s) were affected by the kind of clues given for self-correction? And second, which correction technique(s) resulted in less number and percentage of errors?

4. Data collected through questionnaires and interviews were used to find out whether students considered the respective treatments they received to be useful, interesting or irritating; which of the treatment type(s) they preferred; what they thought they have benefitted from the treatments. The data, moreover, were used to shed light on the quantitative results of both tests as well as on that of the in-class tasks.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

In this chapter an attempt is made to describe the data obtained and discuss the results of the study. The data collected from the pre-test, post-test, classroom writing tasks, questionnaires and interviews are analyzed.

4.1. Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

The results of the pre-test and post-test were intended to answer the following questions: (i) What is the general decrease in number and percentage of errors in the post-test as compared to that of the pre-test? (i.e., quantitative difference) (ii) Which error types decreased, persisted or increased in the post-test? (i.e., qualitative difference), and (iii) Was there any significant difference between the results in the post-test for the two groups in general and among error types in particular? (i.e., statistical difference).

4.1.1. Differences in Number and Percentage of Errors

Pre-Test Results

A total number of 374 errors in the experimental and 343 errors in the control group were observed in the pre-test. Though there was a slight difference in number and percentage of errors committed by both groups, in the pre-test, this difference was not statistically significant (See Table 2).

Post-Test Results

For the experimental group, there was a substantial decrease of errors in the post-test. Of the total 341 errors reduced by both groups in the post-test, 225 or 66 percent were reduced by the experimental group. Punctuation errors showed the highest decrease: 69 or 18.3 percent of the total. Vocabulary errors were the second highest with 59 errors or 15.7 percent, followed by Agreement with 39 errors or 10.4 percent decrease. For this group, the other error types did not show significant decrease. No increase in errors was recorded for the experimental group (See Table 2 and Graph 1).

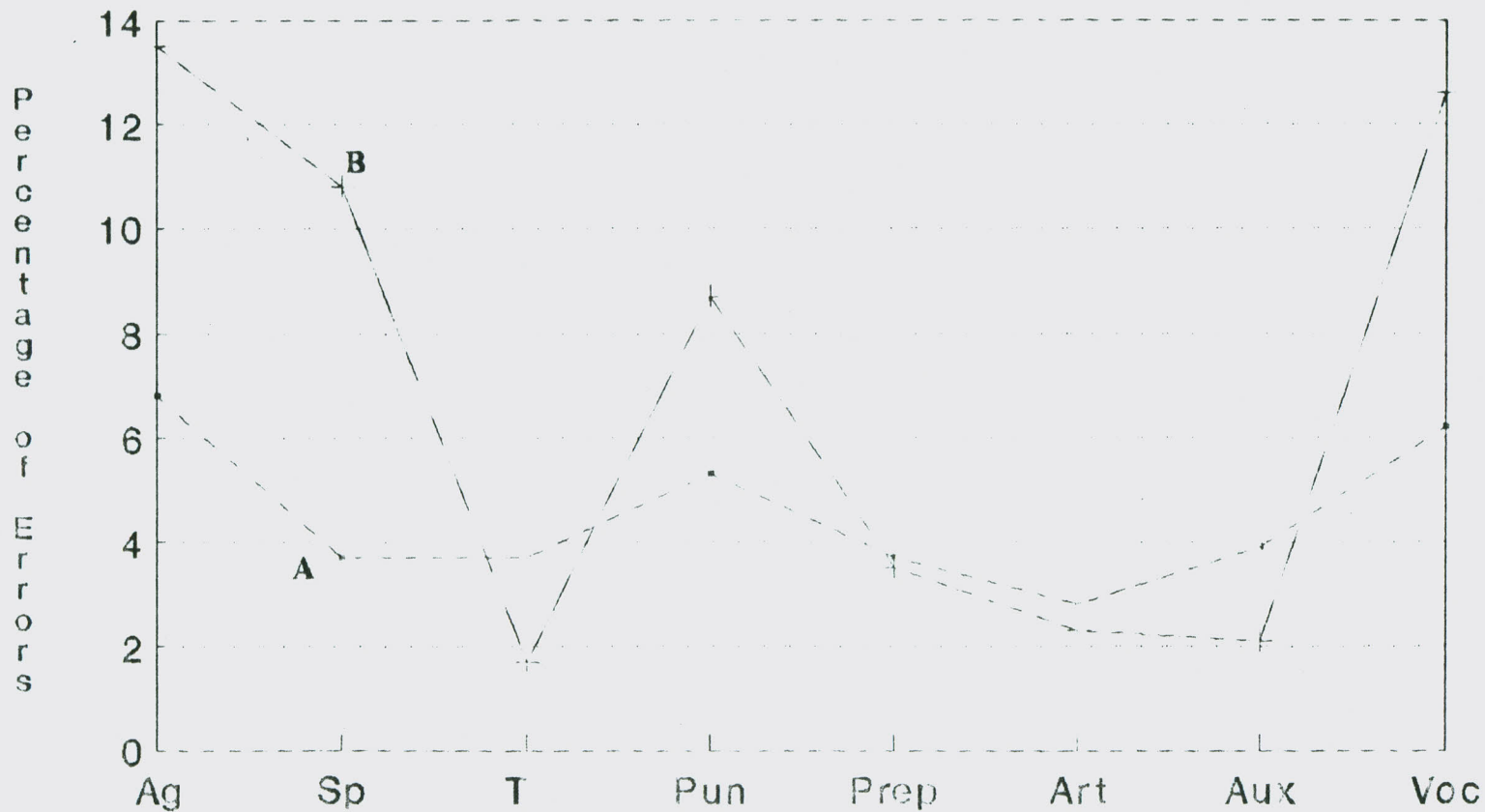
Table 2. Number and Percentage of Errors Present in the Pre-Test and Reduced in the Post-Test for Group A (Experimental) and Group B (Control).

Error Type	Error Present in Pre-Test				Errors Reduced in Post-Test			
	Group A		Group B		Group A		Group B	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Agreement	68	9.5	61	8.5	39	10.4	5	1.3
Spelling	43	6.0	42	5.9	28	7.4	-4	-1.1
Tense	20	2.8	13	1.8	5	1.3	6	1.6
Punctuation	93	13.0	87	12.1	69	18.3	50	13.3
Preposition	27	3.8	30	4.2	12	3.2	17	4.5
Article	18	2.5	16	2.2	7	1.9	7	1.9
Auxiliary	21	2.9	15	2.1	6	1.6	6	1.6
Vocabulary	84	11.7	79	11.0	59	15.7	29	7.7
TOTAL	374	52.2	343	47.8	225	66.0	116	34.0

There was a decrease in errors in the post-test for the control group as well. But it was lower (i.e., 116 error or 34 percent) than that of the experimental group. For the control group, errors in Punctuation with 13.3 percent and Vocabulary with 7.7 percent showed the highest decrease. However, errors in other categories except in Spelling have persisted. Spelling errors increased by four errors in the post-test (See Table 2 and Graph 1).

Graph-1 Post-Test Data. Percentages of Errors Present for Experimental (A) and Control Group (B)

--- Group A -+- Group B



4.1.2. Differences in Type of Errors

Pre-Test Results

The errors observed in the experimental group were slightly higher than those in the control group. They constituted all types of errors except Preposition. However, they were not significant (See table 2).

Post-Test Results

The experimental group performed better in half of the error categories, namely, Agreement, Spelling, Punctuation and Vocabulary. The control group, on the other hand, was better in Tense and Auxiliary. Both groups were almost the same in Preposition and Article errors.

4.1.3. Mean Difference in Performance Between the Experimental and Control Groups

To see if there existed a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in number and type of errors observed in the post-test, standard deviations and t-values were calculated. Table 3 below shows the difference in performance between the two groups in the post-test by aggregate and by type.

On the whole, there was a significant difference between the two groups in the post-test results. It would be possible, therefore, to claim that the self-correction technique applied on the experimental group has been more effective in helping students learn than the direct teacher correction technique applied on the control group.

Furthermore, the fact that both groups have shown a decrease in the number of errors committed in the post-test strengthens the claims made by Chaudron (1988), Cardelle and Corno (1981) and Zalewsky (1993) that the provision of feedback to student writing has a positive effect on their future performance and achievement.

TABLE 3. Post-Test Data: Mean Differences for Distinct Error Types

Error Type	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-value
Agreement	A	1.81	1.05	-3.65*
	B	3.50	1.55	
Spelling	A	0.94	0.58	-4.83*
	B	2.88	1.50	
Tense	A	0.94	1.24	1.49
	B	0.44	0.51	
Punctuation	A	1.50	0.97	-1.716*
	B	2.31	1.62	
Preposition	A	0.94	0.93	0.37
	B	0.81	1.05	
Article	A	0.69	0.65	0.43
	B	0.56	0.73	
Auxiliary	A	0.94	1.29	1.03
	B	0.56	0.73	
Vocabulary	A	1.56	0.90	-2.25*
	B	3.13	1.71	
Total	A	9.31	3.53	-2.94*
	B	14.25	4.74	

* Significant at 0.05

Note: Group A represents the Experimental Group

Group B represents the Control Group

The self-correction technique was particularly effective in learning Spelling, Agreement, Vocabulary and Punctuation. All in all, errors observed in the students who learned through the use of self-correction techniques were significantly less. This is also what Lalande (1982) found out. Nevertheless, the students who learned through the direct teacher correction technique did slightly better in Tense and Auxiliary verbs. Ramirez and Stomquist (1972) also found out that such technique was effective in reducing grammatical errors.

4.2. Observations of the Class Tasks

Three different techniques or treatment types were employed in letting students self-correct their written errors (See Chapter 3). These were (i) letting learners search and correct their written errors, (ii) indicating or locating errors for self-correction, and (iii) locating as well as using codes to show the kind of errors made for self-correction. Furthermore, it was also pointed out that for each of the three self-correction feedback types three different tasks were employed.

The feedbacks provided to the experimental group during the writing tasks were used to answer two questions: (1) Out of the three feedback types which one was more effective in learning English? (2) Which particular error types were reduced when each of the three feedback types were employed?

4.2.1. Feedback Type and Error Reduction

All self-correction techniques have helped learners to reduce written errors. In the nine tasks used a total of 1708 errors were recorded in the pre-feedback sessions. Of these, 1034 or about 60.5 percent were self-corrected when learners were provided with the three feedback types during the post-feedback sessions (See Table 4).

- i. When writing tasks were returned to students with feedbacks to search for any errors and correct, the students were able to detect and correct 244 errors or 35 percent of the total errors present.
- ii. When the same students were provided with feedbacks where errors were located for self-correction, they corrected 394 errors or 74 percent of the total errors observed.
- iii. During the third feedback type, that is, when errors were located and type of errors made indicated using error codes, learners self-corrected 396 errors or

82.7 percent of the total errors present (See Appendix 2 for error correction codes).

To generalize, the ability of learners to self-correct errors increased when the clues given by the teacher became specific. Makino (1993) also made similar observations. Furthermore, it has been seen that there was a great difference between letting students to search and correct their written errors, on the one hand, and providing them with clues as to the location and the type of errors made, on the other. In other words, when learners were provided with more information about their errors, as in feedback types (ii) and (iii) above, they were able to correct more than three quarters of their written errors (See Graph 2).

4.2.2. Effect of Feedback Type on Error Type

The second question addressed was whether each feedback type has affected the self-correction ability of the students in relation to error types. The results indicated that grammatical errors (i.e., errors in Agreement, Tense, Preposition, Article, Auxiliary) were effectively dealt through self-correction techniques. Of the total percentage of errors self-corrected these items accounted for 26.8 percent. Next Orthographic and mechanical errors received 21.2 percent followed by lexical errors, 12.6 percent. In the subsections that follow an attempt is made to elaborate the findings:

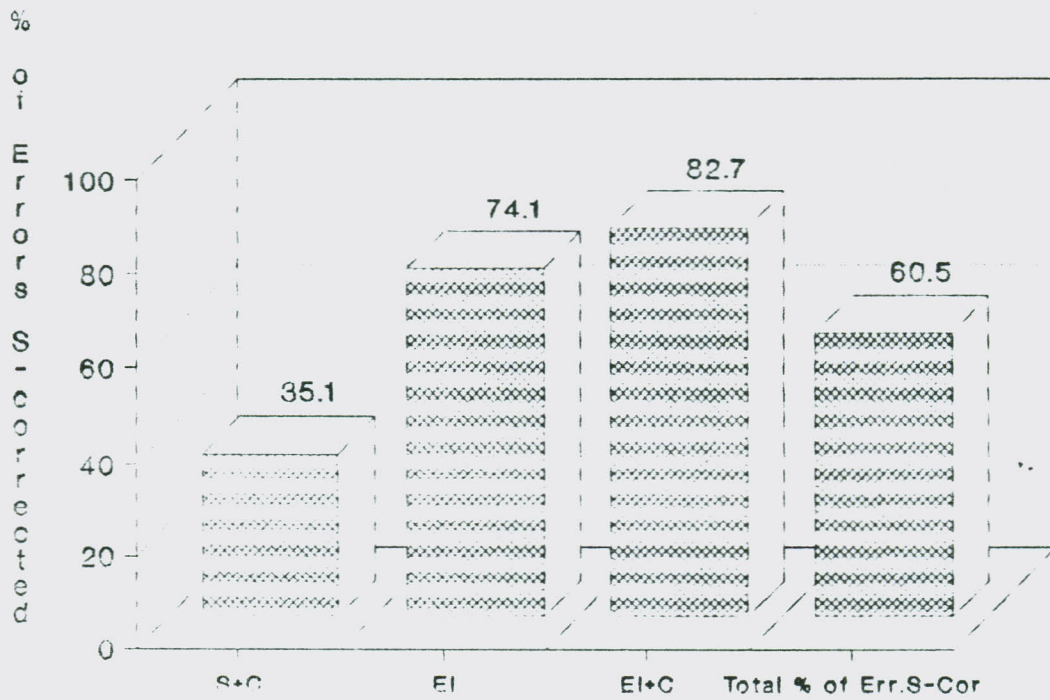
4.2.2.1. Search and Correct

This technique was less effective in dealing with errors of Preposition, Tense and Articles. However, it was relatively effective in reducing errors of Agreement and Vocabulary. It was significantly effective in the learning of Auxiliary verbs, Spelling and Punctuation.

4.2.2.2. Errors Located

Treatment type two, where errors were indicated for self-correction, resulted in a more successful self-correction of Punctuation, Article and Preposition errors. The rest error types, however, did not result in effective self-correction.

Graph-2 Percentage of Errors Self-corrected by Experimental Group using The Three Feedback Types



Key S+C: Search and Correct
 EI: Errors Indicated
 EI+C: Errors Indicated and Coded

4.2.2.3. Errors Located and Coded

The number and type of errors successfully self-corrected by this group were higher when errors were located and coded. The errors successfully treated were also different in type except in Preposition. Errors in Agreement, Punctuation, Vocabulary, Tense and Auxiliary were effectively self-corrected (See Table 4).

TABLE 4: Number and Percentage of Errors Self-Corrected Using the Three Feedback or Treatment Types.

Error Type	Search and Correct			Errors Indicated			Errors Indicated and Coded		
	No. of Errors present	Self-Corrected		Errors Present No.	Self-Corrected		Errors Present No.	Self-Corrected	
		No.	%*		No.	%		No.	%
Agreement	120	42	35.0	111	82	73.9	58	48	82.8
Spelling	89	37	41.6	72	53	73.6	75	61	81.3
Tense	29	7	24.2	38	27	71.1	64	54	84.4
Punctuation	104	40	37.1	111	85	76.6	103	86	83.5
Preposition	45	8	18.0	48	38	79.2	25	17	68.0
Article	49	14	29.0	32	25	78.1	23	19	82.6
Auxiliary	53	24	45.3	36	23	63.9	32	28	87.5
Vocabulary	204	72	35.3	84	61	72.6	99	83	83.8
Total	697	244	35.1	532	394	74.1	479	396	82.7

*Percentages have been Rounded.

From the observations made so far, it seems that:

- i. Search and correct is less effective in learning and self-correcting grammatical errors. But it is more effective in the treatment of mechanical and orthographic errors.
- ii. Indicating or locating errors was observed to be effective in learning and self-treating Punctuation and grammatical errors such as Article and Preposition.
- iii. Indicating and coding errors was observed to be more effective than the two. For in addition to grammatical and Punctuation errors, lexical errors have also been successfully self-corrected.
- iv. On the whole, Punctuation errors were self-corrected successfully in all treatment types.
- v. Errors in Agreement, Vocabulary and Auxiliary were effectively treated in the 'search and correct' and 'errors located and coded' treatment types.
- vi. Spelling and grammatical errors resulted in lower percentages of self-correction in all feedback types.

Except for Spelling and Auxiliary errors, the above results are similar to those of the post-test. Auxiliary errors were treated better in the class activities than in the post-test. Errors in Spelling, on the other hand, were more effectively treated in the post-test than in the class activities.

4.3. The Results of Questionnaires and Interviews

The questionnaires and interviews sought opinions of the students about the value, preference, benefit of and reactions to the types of error correction techniques provided to them. The results of these instruments are discussed simultaneously.

4.3.1. General Improvements Observed

The opinions gathered from the questionnaires and interviews indicate that all the students believed that all the feedback types provided helped them to improve their written English language. The questionnaire data particularly show that 68 percent of the experimental and 75 percent of the control group said that they have made improvements in their writing.

4.3.2. The Question on Feedback Evaluation

Both groups found the treatment techniques to be 'Useful' (31.3 percent), 'Interesting' (12.4 percent) and both 'Useful and Interesting' (53.3 percent). Only one student from the control group said that he found the feedbacks to be 'Undesirable and Irritating'.

The results of the post-test for both groups have also shown a general decrease in errors probably supporting the claim for usefulness of the treatment types used.

4.3.3 The Question on Feedback Preference

The Experimental Group

46.6 percent of the subjects in the experimental group preferred their errors to be both located and coded for self-correction. This finding is in line with what Enginarlar (1993) found out. Some of the reasons for this preference included: easiness to recognize and correct one's errors and less time-consuming (See Appendix 9A for some opinions).

On the other hand, 31.25 percent of the subjects in the same group preferred to 'search and correct' their errors. One student particularly found this feedback to be important because it let her think more on her writing and encouraged her to try to find

her errors. In the interview, another student believed that feedback types which located and/or located and coded errors were straight-forward and did not demand more effort on his part.

One student, however, found the same feedback to be not her 'type' because it tended to make her change the whole thing and sometimes to make more errors.

25 percent of the students preferred the feedback type that only located or indicated the presence of an error. However, there was mismatch between students' opinions on 'search and correct' and 'errors indicated' and their performances in the class tasks. In the classroom writing tasks, students had been able to perform better when their errors were located than when they were asked to 'search and correct'.

The Control Group

In the control group, no one preferred written tasks returned to him/her with grades only. A majority of the students or 62.5 percent preferred their tasks when returned to them with errors crossed out and correct forms provided by the teacher. 37.5 percent of them opted for crossing out errors. The above results are similar to what Gardner (1990) found out. In his questionnaire, 67 percent of his subjects preferred feedback types in which correct forms were provided by the teacher. This procedure of error correction, he claims, is "Probably the least memorable and productive - since it entails little active involvement on their [students] part" (p. 217).

The relative failure of the group to reduce errors significantly in the post-test may be due to their exposure to such teacher correction practices in the classroom writing tasks. Lalande (1982) also made similar observations in his study. Some subjects in the present study said that they tried to correct the errors that were crossed

out by the teacher and rewrite their texts keeping the corrected forms in mind. However, the results in the post-test did not support their opinions (See Table 2).

4.3.4. Respondents' Thinking on the Advantages Obtained from the

Feedback Types

Both groups reflected similar thinking. Fifty percent of the subjects in each group said that the feedback types provided to them have increased their performance in writing grammatically correct sentences. 15 percent claimed that they have been more motivated to study, 34.5 percent think that both their performance and motivation have improved.

4.3.5. Respondents' Thinking About Types of Errors Reduced

Opinions were collected to see what students think they have learned in terms of grammatical, orthographic, mechanical and lexical errors. They were asked to rate their responses by choosing either 'A lot', 'Some', 'Little' or 'None' for each error type (See Table 5).

Table 5. Questionnaire Data: Mean Percentage of Students Who Responded to What they Have Learned in Terms of Distinct Error Types

Error Type	Experimental Group				Control Group			
	A Lot	Some	Little	None	A Lot	Some	Little	None
Grammar	18.75	56.25	18.75	6.25	56.25	31.25	0.0	12.5
Spelling	3.25	37.5	25.0	6.25	62.5	12.5	18.75	6.5
Punctuation	62.5	31.25	0.0	6.25	43.5	43.6	25.0	0.0
Vocabulary	0.0	37.5	62.5	0.0	18.75	31.25	18.75	31.25
Grand Mean	28.1	40.7	26.6	4.7	45.2	29.7	15.7	12.4

The Experimental Group

On the whole, the majority of the students in the experimental group (40.7 percent) think that they have learned 'Some' in all error categories. For the group, the highest percentage of students claimed to have improved 'A lot' or 'Some' than 'Little' or 'None' in all error types except in Vocabulary. In Vocabulary, 62.5 percent claimed to have learned, 'Little' while 37.5 percent 'Some'. In Punctuation 62.5 percent of them believed to have made 'A lot' of improvement.

The Control Group

The majority or 45.2 percent of the subjects in the control group believed to have learned 'A lot' in all error categories. The highest percentage of students in this group claimed to have learned 'A lot' or 'Some' in all error types except in Vocabulary. The percentage for Vocabulary is equally distributed between the 'A lot' - 'Some' and 'Little' - 'None' columns with an inclination towards 'Some' and 'None'.

Thus, each group has different opinions regarding what has been learned in terms of grammar, orthography, mechanics and lexis. For example, the same percentage (or 56.25) of students claimed to have learned 'Some' grammar in one group, and 'A lot' of grammar in the other. Furthermore, the results indicate that there is mismatch between student opinions and their performances.

4.3.6. Student Feelings Towards the Treatment Types Provided

The questionnaires also sought to see the reactions of subjects towards the feedback types provided to them in the classroom writing tasks. As the results show, the majority of the students in the control group 'Liked' when their errors were either

crossed out (75 percent) or crossed out and correct forms provided by the teacher (68.75 percent). 31.25 percent of them 'Liked' only grades written on their tasks.

Subjects in the experimental group were asked their reaction to feedback types which brought all their written errors to their attention for self-correction. The results pointed out that 81 percent of them 'Liked' such feedbacks - the rest either 'Disliked' or were 'Indifferent',

A similar question was asked to members of each group in the interviews. Some of them said that at the beginning they were frustrated and apprehensive when they saw that all their errors, even 'silly mistakes', were treated by the teacher. But later, they said that they found the procedure important because it showed them where their weaknesses were, and which needed further study.

According to answers given to an open-ended question in the questionnaires, feedback types which made errors salient were found useful because these made students to be able to recognize their errors and correct them, helped students not to repeat similar errors again, and to pay more attention to what they write in the future (See, Appendix 9B).

4.4. SUMMARY

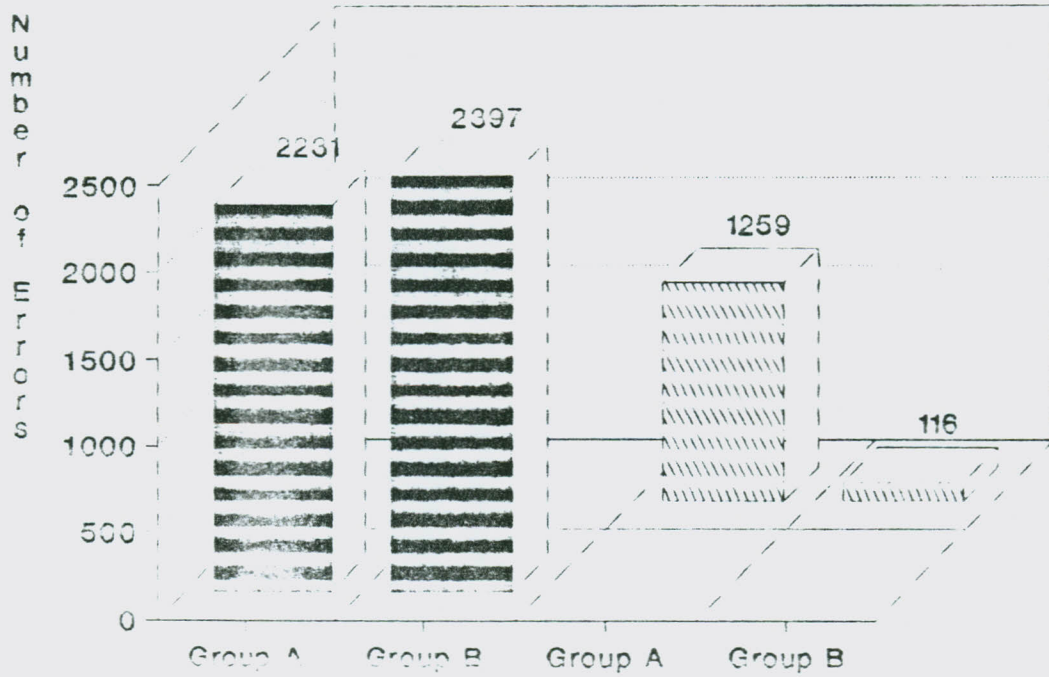
This discussion tried to show the general improvements made during the study in terms of the total number of errors committed and those learned and corrected by both groups.

A total of 4628 errors were observed in all the tasks and tests in the study (See Figure 3). Most of these (52 percent) were committed by students in the control group and the rest (48 percent) by the experimental group. Of the total errors observed, 1259 or 27 percent were self-corrected by the experimental group and 116 or 2.5

percent were reduced by the control group. In general, a total of about 30 percent of the errors present were corrected.

Based on these findings, it seems possible to claim that if all students in the study were given the same second chance, that is, to self-correct their written errors, the total number of errors committed would have been reduced by about 60 percent.

Graph-3 Total No. Errors Committed and Reduced During All The Tasks & Tests



KEY

 Errors committed

 Errors reduced

Group A = Experimental
Group B = Control

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the preceding discussions on results obtained from the instruments used to test the effectiveness of learner self-correction and teacher correction of written errors and on the analysis of results that followed, the following conclusions and recommendations are made:

5.1. CONCLUSIONS

1. The process of learning EFL writing would be greatly improved through the use of the strategy of learner self-correction of written errors when teachers provide students with clues than when they directly correct written errors.
 - 1.1. Self-correction of written errors by the students has been found more effective in significantly reducing the overall number of errors than teacher correction.
 - 1.2. Self-correction has been effective in meaningfully reducing errors types such as grammatical, orthographic, mechanical and lexical errors.
2. The role of the teacher in treating written errors would be more effective if he/she focuses on the provision of feedback that enhances self-correction. The teacher may in fact directly deal with some of the grammatical errors such as Tense, Article, Auxiliary and Preposition, however.
3. All self-correction techniques have been found out to be more effective in helping students reduce their written errors thereby learning better and increasing their achievement than the more direct ones provided by the teacher.

- 3.1. Of all the techniques used for self-correction, those that provided more detailed clues were found out to be more effective in reducing learner written errors.
- 3.2. There was a great difference in error reduction efficiency between simply letting students 'search and correct' their errors and providing them with clues as to the location and type of correction needed.
4. The results of the questionnaires and interviews indicated that providing learners with feedback (detailed or otherwise) to their written errors has helped them to improve the quality of their writing.
 - 4.1. On the whole, the feedbacks provided to both groups were believed to be 'Useful', and 'Interesting' and have increased student performance and motivation to study the language.
 - 4.2. Both groups also believed that they have learned 'A lot' and 'Some' from their errors in grammar, Spelling, Punctuation and 'A little' or 'None' from Vocabulary errors. These claims were more or less supported by the results of the post-test.
 - 4.3. Students in the teacher correction group liked best when their errors were crossed out and correct forms provided - a procedure observed to be of least benefit for learners in improving their written performance.
 - 4.4. The majority of students in the self-correction and teacher correction groups liked when all their written errors were brought to their attention for self-correction or through direct teacher correction.
5. The overall performance of the students in the present study showed that about 30 percent of the errors committed were reduced through self-correction exercises and in the post-test essay writing. Thus, giving students a second

chance to self-correct their written errors would decrease the number of possible errors by about 60 percent.

5.2. RECOMMENDATIONS

The conclusions discussed above call for some recommendations for future practice in the area of ELT and, in particular, in the effective management of written errors, at least, in the Freshman English classroom. These include:

1. The process of writing grammatically acceptable and meaningful sentences is improved significantly through the techniques of learner self-correction of written errors. Teachers are thus recommended to supply learners with clues as to the location and type of errors for self-correction than directly correcting them by themselves.
2. Though self-correction techniques have been found effective in the overall improvement of written English sentences, teacher correction has also been found out to have modest effects on some grammatical errors. Thus, teachers may not totally abandon their role as error correctors: while providing clues for learner self-correction of Orthographic, mechanical and lexical errors, on the one hand, they may directly correct errors in Article, Preposition, Tense and Auxiliary, on the other.
3. In using the self-correction techniques with written errors, teachers are recommended:
 - 3.1. To use the 'search and correct' treatment type less often. But when using it they may preferably apply it with all errors types except with Preposition, Tense and Article errors.

- 3.2. To use the 'errors located' and 'errors located and coded' techniques more often. Locating errors for self-correction may be used when dealing with Punctuation, Article and Preposition errors. Locating and coding errors could be used when letting students correct errors in Agreement, Punctuation, Vocabulary, Tense, and Auxiliary.
4. English language teacher trainers are also recommended to include topics on who and how learner written errors should be treated. Teacher trainers should help trainees practice the use of student self-correction techniques.
5. Future research may focus on related topics such as:
- Which self-correction techniques are effective for different levels of student writing proficiency?
 - On how to integrate self-correction practices with the actual teaching and learning of writing in the EFL classroom.
 - On where self-correction of written errors would be more effective - on the content or form of writing.

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APPENDIX 1

First Semester FLEN 101A Scores Out of 100 of Both Groups*

	Group A		Group B	
	Student Code ⁺	Raw Score	Student Code	Raw Score
1	A-KB	62.5	B-KD	79.5
2	A-KH	72.0	B-KG	32.5
3	A-LTa	62.0	B-KHm	58.0
4	A-Te	55.5	B-KK	62.5
5	A-LS	39.0	B-KB	80.5
6	A-LN	64.5	B-KZ	63.5
7	A-LB	68.0	B-LTem	47.5
8	A-LF	58.5	B-LF	56.0
9	A-LY	82.5	B-LTes	61.0
10	A-LG	75.5	B-LWA	66.5
11	A-LAl	79.0	B-LTf	74.5
12	A-MF	76.0	B-LH	64.0
13	A-MTs	64.0	B-MB	51.5
14	A-MTk	55.0	B-MA	70.0
15	A-MTM	45.0	B-MGm	78.0
16	A-LAs	59.0	B-LTg	73.0
	Mean Score	63.63	Mean Score	63.66

*Two students have been excluded from the experiment because one was blind and the other's score was 91.5% about 9% higher than the second highest.

⁺In student code 'A' refers to Experimental and 'B' to control groups. Other letters refer to the initials of the student's and father's names.

Appendix 2

Error correction codes and symbols

Ag ≡ Agreement: subject-verb, and number agreement. eg. He have

(**Ag**) a brother.

Sp ≡ Spelling

Art ≡ Article

Prep ≡ Preposition

Aux ≡ Auxiliary

WC ≡ Word Choice: eg. My neighbour is stupid (**WC**).

^/WM ≡ Word Missing: eg. They ^{^WM} good students.

WW ≡ Wrong Word or Phrase: eg. They said (**WW**) me the truth.

WF ≡ Word Form: eg. You drive careful (**WF**).

[**^** **^**] ≡ Word Order: eg. We gave [**^** the present **^**]to them.

(**)** ≡ Unnecessary/inappropriate word or phrase.

eg. I went shopping (**to**) downtown.

T ≡ Verb Tense: eg. It study (**T**) yesterday.

VF ≡ Verb Form: eg. They made (**VF**) my watch in Japan.

? ≡ Unclear.

P ≡ Punctuation: eg. Does he live in Addis (**P**).

Inc ≡ Incomplete sentence: eg. Although she is my friend. **Inc**

R ≡ Rewrite: (**Advice**)

Appendix 3

Essay Writing (Pre-Test)

You are going to write an essay on "Malnutrition and Ways of Overcoming it in Ethiopia". In your essay you will be able to use the ideas and language you have studied in this unit. You could organize your essay as follows:

Paragraph 1. Introduction: Reasons for considering malnutrition as a serious problem in developing countries. (You could refer to ideas from Guidelines for Training Health Workers in Nutrition as well as using your own ideas.)

Paragraph 2. Ethiopia's experience : Reasons for considering malnutrition as a serious problem in Ethiopia. (you could refer to the article Food Avoidance and Fasting as well as your own ideas.)

Paragraph 3. What kinds of information should a community health worker collect from a community? What methods of collecting information about nutrition problems in a community could the community health worker use? (See Guidelines for Training Health Worker in Nutrition as well as your own ideas.)

Paragraph 4. Ways to improve the nutrition status of the community. (See Task 8 as well as using your own ideas.)

Paragraph 5. How can the community health worker persuade people to change their beliefs and practices concerning foods? (See Helping Health Workers Learn as well as using your own ideas.)

Paragraph 6. Conclusion and Recommendations (e.g. initiating local people to set up projects to help poor people develop their overall standard of living.)

Of course there are many other suitable ways for you to organise your essay, too.

On the final page there are some suggestions on how to carry out the actual process of writing.

Essay Writing (Post-Test)

In this section you are going to write a descriptive essay which will be longer than the paragraphs you have written in this unit so far. Remember that a descriptive essay requires the correct use of:

1. **Present simple** (active and passive) tenses e.g.

Gurage children are not usually recognized as boys and girls until they are named.

2. **Time Clauses** e.g.

The naming ceremony takes place when the mother comes out of confinement.

Task 16

Write a short essay on *The role of Shimagille* (an elder) in Ethiopia. You may use the following ideas and also add your own. As much as possible, try to use words and structures you have learnt in this unit.

Roles of a Shimagille:

- negotiates and legalises marriage contracts*
- pronounces his blessings at the birth of a child*
- acts as a medium in settling dispute*

A *Shimagille* in Ethiopian culture traditionally carries out a variety of responsibilities and performs important roles in society. One important function of a Shimagille relates to marriages. A Shimagille traditionally negotiates and legalises any marriage contract. Before a couple are properly married

Appendix 4

Classroom Tasks Used from the Material Being Piloted

(Task 1, 3, 5, 7, 8)

TASK 1

Complete the blanks with what you consider to be the best completions.

1. Children need to be immunized against _____ in order for them to _____.
2. Mothers must try to note signs of nutritional deficiency diseases in their children in order to _____.
3. Children of weaning age should be given low-cost weaning foods in order to _____.
4. Community health workers must encourage mothers to _____ their children _____ in order that they do not suffer from Vitamin A Deficiency diseases.
5. Women must be helped to learn skills such as a weaving, wax-making and gardening so that they can _____.

TASK 3(a)

Now complete the following paragraph with the jumbled sentence fragments given below.

A few days before the marriage feast takes place, _____
_____ will entertain her nightly, dancing and drumming, _____
_____. Later, the best men will attempt
to seize the bride, who is being guarded by the bride's maids. Furthermore, _____
_____. After the best men have challenged
the bridesmaids and are victorious, _____ on a mule
provided for this purpose.

- 1) They will triumphantly take the bride to the groom's village
- 2) while the best men feast the groom in his village
- 3) a song duel takes place between the bride's maids and the best men
- 4) celebrations are carried on in houses of the relatives of the bride and groom
- 5) the bride's maids and her friend

TASK 3(b)

Now write a paragraph about **Marriage among the Ari** using the jumbled notes given below.

When Ari boys and girls are old enough to marry, _____
_____. As soon as a boy has found a girl he is interested in marrying, _____
_____. After agreement is reached
between the parents, _____.
The marriage feast is held _____. The custom is that
_____. After the wedding is completed
_____.

1. the girl's parents may ask her to return home, if they are not happy with her choice.
2. he make sure that she is of good character and equal social status.
3. soon after the parents have agreed to marry.
4. the boy informs his parents immediately that he intends to marry the girl he has chosen.
5. they are free to choose their own partners
6. the girl's parents are only informed a day after the wedding ceremony.

TASK 5

Write a similar paragraph describing a marriage ceremony you are familiar with.

A large, empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for the student to write their response to the task. The box occupies the central portion of the page and is completely blank.

TASK 7

Scan the last part of the article and write below what the writer says about the importance of the following in Pokot culture.

1. Marriage and kinship ties _____
_____.
2. Co-operative teams _____
_____.
3. *Kokwo* _____
_____.
4. Living by old traditional rules _____
_____.
5. Stock allocated to women at marriage _____
_____.
6. Initiation for boys and girls _____
_____.

TASK 8

11.1. Write answers to the following questions individually and then discuss your answers in groups.

1. Why was everyone *absorbed* in the ceremony
(paragraph 1)?
2. Why are Siwareng and his wife important to the
ceremony?
3. What does *others* refer to in "*the others handed
around a wooden mortar*" in paragraph 2?
4. In paragraph 3, what two phrases are to refer to
Siwareng and his wife?
5. What is the *magic mixture* in the mortar mentioned
in paragraph 3?
6. In paragraph 3, what does *its* in *its contents
spilled* refer to?
7. Why are communal blessings given by elders
considered important? (para 4)
8. In paragraph 4, what is the *moral bond* that links
the living and the dead?

Appendix 5

Classroom Tasks from Other Sources

(TASKS 2, 4, 6, 9)

TASK 2

Use the information to make up sentences. Use the appropriate pronouns where possible. Follow the example:

Example: 'Don't be late again!' (Order)

(boss to secretary)

He ordered her not to be late again.

1. 'Avoid feeding infants with a bottle.' (Advice)

(community health worker to mothers)

2. 'Don't wash fruits and vegetables with unsafe water' (Order) (mother to daughter)
-

3. 'Be back by ten thirty' (expect)

(father to son)

4. 'Don't talk to strangers' (tell)

(mother to children)

5. 'Wash hands before handling food.' (tell)

(teacher to students)

TRANSLATE THE FOLLOWING AMHARIC SENTENCES INTO ENGLISH

1. ባሕር የሰንድ ስገር የሚኖሩት የፖለቲካና የባሕር ነጭነት ነው።

2. ሊት የአይ የተለያየ የሰነድ ዘይቤ አያነተና ባሕር ወዘተ ያሉ የተወ-
ዘዘቱ በሂረቦች ማዘጋጀት አንደህነት ይነገርገታል።

3. በወለጋ ዘቆላ ሃገር በሚገኙት በሥራባች ጽባሕ ስንት የሰራ
በሥራባች ነው።

4. የሰራ በሥራባች ገቢ ያሳድራል የሰራ ስንት በሥራባች ነው።

5. ለአባል ሙሙ የደረሰ የሰራ ገረገባ ለህት ባለው የራሱን በጥቶ የሰራ
/በሰራባችነት ሞላት ነው/ ለህት በሰራባች ደገፍ የቀርቦ ዘመን ስት ለደ
በሰራባች በጥቶ ያገባል።

6. ለህት ወይም የቀርቦ ዘመን ስት ለደ የሰራባች ያለገባው የሚቀርቡት
ሁኔታ አለ።

7. በገቢው ወቅት የሰራባች የሚሰራው በሰራባች ወገን ነው።

8. ለደገብ ስት በወይንት ተስተሎ ሰራባች ሁኔታን ሁሉ ለገቢ ተ
ለገቢው ሰራባች ይነገራል።

9. ጊደኛ ጥናት ለጉዳይ ለሚከተሉት ጉዳዮች ላይ በጥንቃቄ ለመገምገም የሚያስችሉትን ማሳሰቢያዎች ይጻፉ።

10. የሌሎች ጥናቶች ላይ ወይንም ለሌሎች ጥናቶች ይጻፉ።

11. ሌሎች የሌሎች ጥናቶች ላይ ለሌሎች ጥናቶች በጥንቃቄ ለመገምገም የሚያስችሉትን ማሳሰቢያዎች ይጻፉ።

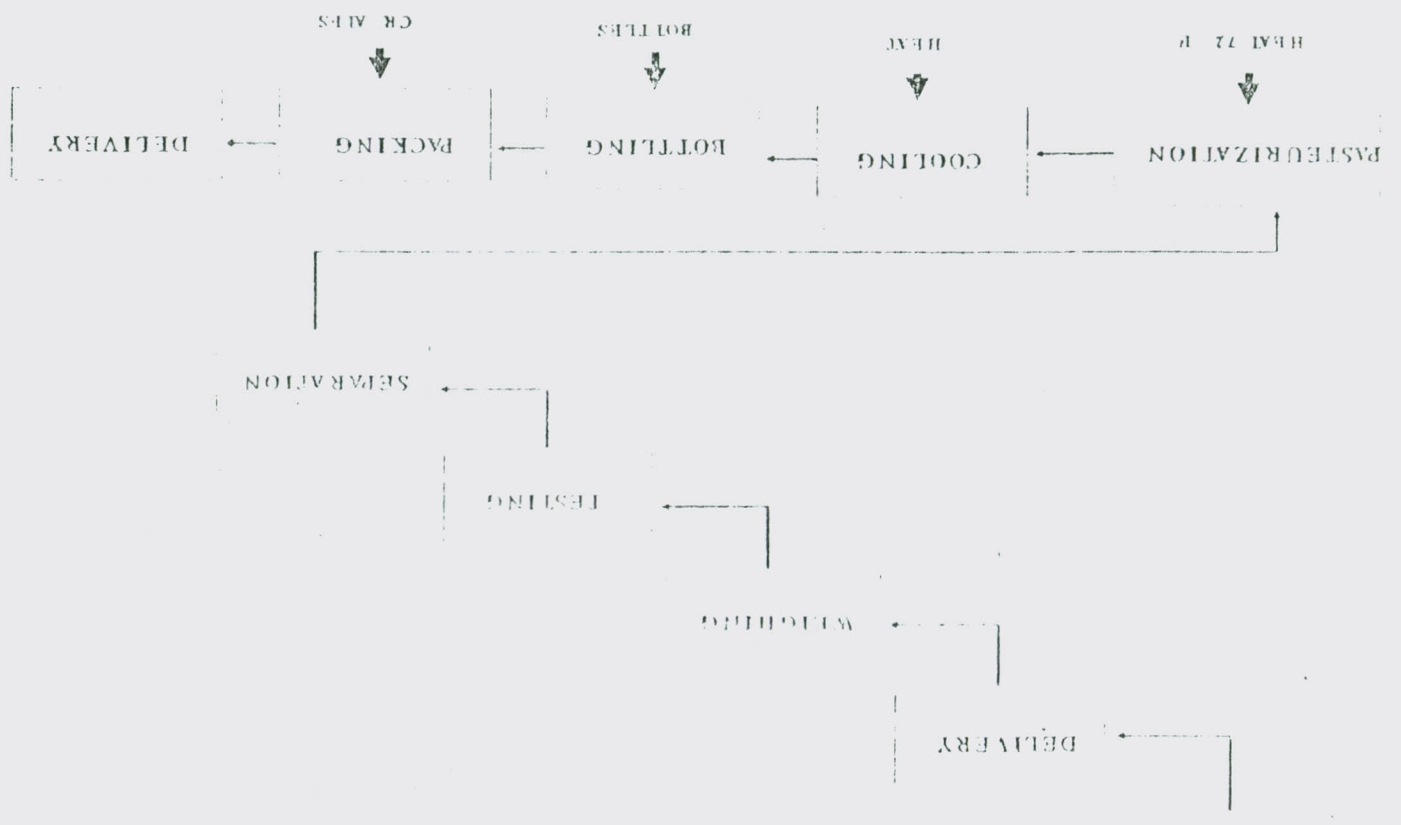
12. ሌሎች ጥናቶች ላይ ለሌሎች ጥናቶች ይጻፉ።

TABLE 6

Use the flow diagram below to write a complete paragraph on how milk is processed

MILK

PRODUCTION



(Slightly adapted from Raines (1983:17))

T A S K 9TRANSLATE THE FOLLOWING AMHARIC SENTENCES INTO ENGLISH

1. ወገው ሁሉን ይቆሃል።

2. አዲስ አበባ ውስጥ በገተ የከተማ አውቲዎቸ አሉ?

3. ይህ አርባስ የአባቱ ወይም የባንደሩ ነው።

4. አባይ አሁን ወደ አገሪቱ የሄዱት በአውሮፕላን ነበር።

5. በተጻፈው መግቢያ ሁለት ገጽ ስላት ናት።

6. ወንድ ይህን ቤት መለየት አልቻለም።

7. እኔ አያመናሁ እባ ለበቦገን ተኩስ ነበር።

8. ባይህ ውስጥ ሁለት ልጆች ስላት ናት።

9. መጠናቀቅ የተከተለው ለሁሉም ላይ ነበር ያገኘሁት ገን ለሁሉም ስር ነው።

10. በሁለት አሁን መግቢያ አገዳጅ አልነበረብንም።

Appendix 6

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

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

(Experimental Group)

Dear Student,

This questionnaire is intended to find out your views regarding the different types of feedbacks provided to your writing tasks and the errors you have committed during the writing of these tasks. Therefore, the researcher kindly requests you to remember the types of corrective feedbacks you were provided with and give your frank responses.

Thank you,

Tesfay Solomon.

Direction:

Mark with a (X) in only one of the choices given for each item and write your answers to the open-ended questions on the space provided.

1. On feedback evaluation

How did you find the correction techniques you were provided with?

- a) Useful _____
- b) Interesting _____
- c) Both 'a' and 'b' _____
- d) Undesirable _____
- e) Irritating _____
- f) Both 'd' and 'e' _____
- g) Others (Please specify) _____

2. What is your preference?

- a) I prefer to search and correct my own errors _____
- b) I prefer to correct my own errors which have been indicated to me _____

- c) I prefer to correct my own errors which have been both indicated and coded for me _____

3. What do you think you have benefitted from the type of correction techniques?

- a) They increased my performance _____
- b) They increased my motivation to study _____
- c) Both 'a' and 'b' _____
- d) I have benefitted nothing from them _____
- e) others (please specify) _____

4. What have you learned or improved in terms of each

	A lot	Some	Little	None
a) Grammar				
b) Spelling				
c) Punctuation				
d) Vocabulary				

5. What is your reaction to all of your written errors being brought to your attention for self-correction?

- a) I like it _____
- b) I don't like it _____
- c) I don't mind _____

6. How do you feel when you fail to correct your own errors after you have been provided with clues for self-correction?

- a) I get irritated _____
- b) I don't mind _____
- c) Others (please specify) _____

7. What do you think you did after your writing tasks have been returned to you with clues and without clues for self-correction?

8. Do you think these kinds of feedbacks to your written tasks have helped you in improving your proficiency in English Language? Why?

Appendix 7

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

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

(Control Group)

Dear student,

This questionnaire is intended to find out your views regarding the different types of feedbacks provided to your writing tasks and the errors you have committed during the writing of these tasks. Therefore, the researcher kindly requests you to remember the types of corrective feedbacks you were provided with and give your frank responses.

Thank you,

Tesfay Solomon.

Direction:

Mark with a (X) in only one of the choices given for each item and write your answers to the open-ended questions on the space provided.

1. On feedback evaluation

How did you find the correction techniques you were provided with?

- a) Useful _____
- b) Interesting _____
- c) Both 'a' and 'b' _____
- d) Undesirable _____
- e) Irritating _____
- f) Both 'd' and 'e' _____
- g) Others (Please specify) _____

2. What is your preference?

- a) I prefer grades only _____
- b) I prefer a teacher crossing out my errors _____
- c) I prefer a teacher crossing out my errors and providing the correct forms _____

3. What do you think you have benefitted from the type of correction techniques?

- a) They increased my performance _____
- b) They increased my motivation to study _____
- c) Both 'a' and 'b' _____
- d) I have benefitted nothing from them _____
- e) others (please specify) _____

4. What have you learned or improved in terms of each

	A lot	Some	Little	None
a) Grammar				
b) Spelling				
c) Punctuation				
d) Vocabulary				

5. What is your reaction to a teacher returning your writing task with grades only?

a) I like it _____

b) I don't like it _____

c) i don't mind _____

6. What is your reaction to a teacher returning your writing task with all your errors crossed out?

a) I like it _____

b) I don't like it _____

c) i don't mind _____

7. What is your reaction to a teacher returning your writing task with all your errors crossed out and correct forms supplied by him?

a) I like it _____

b) I don't like it _____

c) i don't mind _____

Appendix 8

Student Interview(for both groups)

This interview will be conducted with a sample of subjects from both groups to verify the answers each subject has given to the items contained in the questionnaires and views on other related questions.

1. You have been exposed to kinds of written error correction techniques you are familiar with now. Do you think this kind of feedback to be of benefit to you in improving your writing grammatically correct sentences? If Yes/No. Why?

2. Do you find a corrective feedback that focuses on grammar, mechanics, and vocabulary errors useful? If Yes, Why?
If No, What do you think it should focus on?

3. What do you think has the kind of corrective feedback provided to you helped you to improve more with?

With your grammar, mechanics, spelling or vocabulary, or some of these, none of these, or all of these?

4. If you were asked to express your preference as to how a teacher should respond to your written errors or what kind of corrective feedback is important, what would you suggest?

5. In general, which one do you prefer:
 - a) A corrective feedback that actively involves learners in correcting their own errors

 - or

 - b) A corrective feedback that is directly provided by the teacher? Why?

APPENDIX-9

Examples of student responses to open-ended questions in the questionnaires

- A. On the Need to Give clues to Written Error
- i. "If my tasks are returned to me with clues, it is easy to correct it or recognize my mistakes. If it is not indicated, it is difficult to know my errors. Anyway I am learning." (A - LY)
 - ii. "If the tasks have been returned to me with clues, won't be that difficult to correct it. But if it is given for self-correction (i.e., 'Search and corrected'), would tend to change the whole thing I have written. Therefore, self-correction is not my type". (A - L - Al)
 - iii. "I think, when they have been returned to me with clues, it was much easier to find out my mistakes and correct them. But without clues I might not found all my errors. (But I think searching and correcting one's own mistakes is very good."
 - iv. "If it has clues it is easy for me but if it doesn't it needs more time. Anyway, I think it is better to have clues." (A - LG)
- B. Opinions on how feedbacks that made all written errors salient have helped students, improve their proficiency in the English language.
- i. "Because in the past I don't bother much about the way I write these tasks or so. I have given no attention to punctuations, title writings and also capital letters. But now I am trying hard to improve it. If these feedbacks hadn't been

there, then I won't be able to recognize my errors and correct them." (A - L
Al)

- ii. "Because, after oing these tasks, I know what my problems
are. They helped me to be careful in word choosing." (A - LN)
- iii. "I think, it helped me to realize my mistakes. ... I am aware of my weaknesses
now." (A - LY)
- iv. "... it helped me to write a correct spelling, and to use a right vocabulary."
- v. "... at least I try to correct the errors that are crossed out. And if helps not to
make the same mistakes next time." (B - LY T)

Examples of Corrected Essays for Pre - Test and Post - Test for Both Groups.

M-1002 7/2/11
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Sec 11

Appendix 20 A
Malnutrition and Ways of Improving it
in Ethiopia

A Pre-Test
(Experimental Group)

Malnutrition is a serious problem in developing countries. One of the cases that malnutrition is the basic problem in developing countries is that their feeding habit is not good. The people have no idea ^{about} or they do not give any attention ^{about} the nutritional feeding systems. Specially, they concentrated only on the common food. Because of traditional beliefs and other they do not want to eat another food, ^{different} from their culture, which is found nearer to their area, or their home. They always want to eat their own kind of food. Second case is unskilled labour is greater than skilled power in developing countries. This plays a vital role in the feeding system and home management. When the people don't know about home management, they couldn't use their food properly. Therefore, this and the other cases ^{are} malnutrition is a the serious and basic problem.

In our country, there are many causes that ^{cause} this big problem. Because of Ethiopian ethnic, social and occupational, religious, and during fasting, number of food avoidance ^{periods}. The first is traditionally avoided food. These foods are good for our body but they ^{are} ignored because of the tradition beliefs. Second, our people only use common food or cultural food. They don't use nutritional feeding system. Because of this the people ^{are} faced ^{with} some deficiency diseases. Third, because of some religious fasting some problems ^{are} appeared. Specially, the fasting that ^{is} common is milk, meat, blood and other. On this period some kinds of food are used, but this food are the most useful food for our body, but ^{they} don't use it. Then the body loses ^{these} kinds of elements that are essential for many purposes. Therefore, their body come to this problem.

<u>Ant</u>	<u>Pre</u>	<u>Loc</u>	<u>Ag</u>	<u>Preo</u>	<u>Amv</u>	<u>Sp</u>	<u>T</u>	Total
7	4	9	9	3	1	11	3	= 37

Maintenance and Ways of Overcoming it in Ethiopia

Maintenance is a sign of poor health. In the future of growth (in the growth of mind, body, muscle, etc.) is the first and the most important sign of malnutrition. It is especially most common in developing countries. It is often a big problem, and it affects children, house wife, is mainly below five, pregnant women, nursing mothers, and the old people and the sick people, and mothers who have recently given birth. This is because of several reasons, that is the economic status of the family (whether it is rich or poor) may be doesn't allowed them to eat any kind of balanced diet, which they want to eat, in other words, the ability to buy food or land or animals which produce food affects the nutritional status. The absence of education, it may also be included in the economic status of the family, the seasonal fluctuation, that means, the variation of the cash crops and food crops, the method of preparation and dietary practices. There are also traditional beliefs associated with them, and the habit has an influence on the traditional nutritional value.

In Ethiopia there are different linguistic groups, social occupation, religion, etc. Based on these differences (on the ethnic, social, occupational, religious group, age and sex) the type of food that is eaten by the society is different. For instance, according to religion some kinds of foods are forbidden, especially by food restriction, and fasting. Food avoidance refers to eat certain kind of food, and reject some kind, and fasting means abstaining from eating any kind of food the whole day. For Islam during Ramadan, and for Christian orthodox during Fasika. In some regions, certain foods are not well known about their advantage and disadvantage, and during this time certain balanced diet food is rejected so the society become malnourished, that is why in Ethiopia malnutrition is a serious problem.

LULADAY = Pre-test
 HAGOS (Control
 SEC 71 (Group)
 Total

<u>Plan</u>	<u>Vol</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>Art</u>	<u>Prep</u>	<u>As</u>	<u>SP</u>	<u>WO</u>	<u>Total</u>
11	4	7+1	1	2	1	1	1	24

Kidder-Homonium (Control Group) Post-Test
Role of a Singsong

A Singsong in English is a time to learn, review, and reinforce experiences and perhaps important concepts. The main reason of a singsong related to motivation, participation, and the area before the two books and games. The Singsong goes to pre-inform the children, in a way, the parents that they will be. This is because to strengthen or heighten the line between, and to develop a relationship, there will be well as to be repeated each other, and to inform of the Singsong date. Inform about their behavior, if they clear a pattern that may be there, but not their parents, that is why the Singsong is important.

The second purpose of Singsong is to provide the teachers at the time of the Singsong. I think, and it is better, but I don't know more about it. I think, the same as most people say of the child is that when the Singsong is pronounced his teachers, they believe, he will be a good person and he will attend. I don't know more about it, I don't know more.

The third purpose of Singsong is to provide the children with a medium of review of what they have learned. This is done by repeating what they have learned and by using it in a new context. This is done to reinforce the learning and to create a positive attitude towards the Singsong.

$$\frac{Ag}{3} \quad \frac{Sp}{3} \quad \frac{Peer}{2} \quad \frac{Aut}{2} \quad \frac{Aut}{1} \quad \frac{Voc}{2} = 13$$

Lewegen Tesfaye

(Experimental Group)

Roles of a Shimagille

A Shimagille in Ethiopian culture traditionally carries out a variety of responsibilities and performs important roles in society. One important function of a shimagille relates to marriages. A Shimagille traditionally negotiate and legalises any marriage contact. Before a couple are properly married, the parents of the boy should select some shimagille and send to the girl's parents. These Shimagille ask the girl's parents for marriage and create agreement between the two families. They also decide the date of the marriage. Therefore, Shimagille is important within a society for marriage.

sun Voc

The second important function of a shimagille is, pronounces his blessings at the birth of a child. In ^{Ethiopia} most of the societies believe that the blessings of a shimagille brings good thing for a person. And if a shimagille blesses a child when the child was born, the child will get good chance through his life and, happy life so a shimagille is honored within a society for ~~the~~ ^{his} blessings.

The shimagille ~~is~~ is used also as a court to bring peace ~~to~~ between quarreled people, ^{then} and acts as a medium in settling disputes. To sum up a shimagille in Ethiopian culture has so many roles and he is respected within a society.

$$\frac{1}{1} + \frac{2}{2} + \frac{3}{3} + \frac{4}{4} + \frac{5}{5} + \frac{6}{6} = 12$$

Examples of Corrected Tasks Using the Three self-correction Techniques

TASK 2
Appendix 108

Letice Tamesgen
ID 0513147

1. Marriage and kinship ties is important. Because ~~to share work~~^{they to} cultivate fields scattered throughout the area together.
2. co-operative team is important to share work during busy periods.
3. kowoo is a kind of open court for the settling of disputes.
4. Living by old traditional rules ~~are~~^{are} important in pokot. Because to make their way of life secure.
5. Stock allocated to women at marriage is important in pokot. Because, to take care of their need and this stock is passed on to their son.
6. Initiation for boys and girls are important in pokot. Because after initiation they can, the way is open to a pokot women to marry and bear children.

Try to find out and correct any errors.

1/15/88

and Khabutchen. See 11 I.D. MS SSR1049010+

1. Everyone was shocked in the country because it was important.
2. Siu-wang and his wife are important in the country because they are the parents.
3. ~~Make~~ The phrase "the others handed around a wooden mortar" refers to the slaugher of a goat a ritual performed years before the slaugher of before the police members of Siu-wang's family had killed another Peking.
4. The two phrases which are used to refer to ^{Siu-wang} the workers and his wife are "celebrants" and "couple".
5. The magic mixture mentioned in the previous note and red earth, however, were stored intact.
6. The phrase "in its contents spelled" refers to that the mortar with the magic power is perished.
7. Commercial business of the vegetables are considered important because they buy to appear deposited in the Inc. and it can bring health.
8. There are some other things and indeed because the text states that for many centuries, a disease mentioned could cure and cure an ancestor, magical, can have a cure descendant.

Try to correct the text and correct it as much as possible.

Supply the missing punctuation, etc.

Inc. = Incomplete.

3. The phrase "the others handed around a wooden mortar" refers to the slaugher of Peking old men.

Lila Bekhal Sec 11 I.D. No 0214/87

The marriage that I am familiar with is familiar in most cities. The boy and the girl ^{As} ^{Sp} have the privilege of choice. They have ^{As} ^{Sp} the right to choose their marriage mates. If they love each other, they start courtship, but they have to inform this to Congregation elders. In courtship, they have to take enough time to know each other. Each have to give the correct information like health ^{has} ^{pur} ^T ^{Sp} ^{Sp} problem, income, future plans, etc. If they reached an agreement, they ^{Sp} tell it to their parents. The boy & the girl including ^{Sp} their parents choose the date & the place where the marriage feast is held.

Use the codes to self-correct the errors:

As = Agreement in person/number (singular, plural)

Sp = spelling

? = unclear

T = Tense

Pun = Punctuation

Prep: preposition

() = unnecessary/inappropriate word or phrase

Examples of Corrected Tasks Using the Three Teacher Correction Techniques

Appendix 200

Idist Gebie _____ Oosisa _____ 0633 _____

In Amhara people there is ^{an} cultural ceremony
 of marriage. According to ~~the~~ ^{the} ~~culture~~ ^{the} culture, it has
 steps to marry. 2ndly say one youth is ^{old} enough to
 marry. He will ^{go} try to find a good friend. In
 Amhara people the woman ^{work like} ~~work like~~ ¹⁰⁻¹³ years ^{old} and the
 boy 17-25 years. He has decides which
 girl to marry he sends elders to the girl ~~parent~~
 If ^{the} girl's parents agree to ^{the marriage} ~~marry~~ they will appoint
 a time for marriage to take place
 to marry. After agreement he sends gifts to her
 parents ~~parents~~

His family will provide for his self supporting resources
 after
 The marriage is completed passing ^{through} ~~all~~ these processes,
 the woman ^{is} led ^{to} her husband's home.

Task 4

Michael Polanyi - 20.11.1891 - 22.02.1972

- 1. ... the relationship between ...
- 2. ...
- 3. ...
- 4. ...
- 5. ...
- 6. ...

Lubó Tojari

How milk is processed.

After milk is produced by cows, it is delivered to Shola in Addis. Before any test is made on it, it is weighed to know the quantity delivered. To make it manageable, the milk part is separated ~~by modern~~ from the watery part. Microorganisms can be got rid of when ~~the~~ it is pasturized at the heat of 72°F . Then it is cooled by reducing heat. After this it's bottled and packed ~~in~~ ⁱⁿ crates so that it ^{is} can easily be delivered to the consumers using different transportation systems.

8/10

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis in my original work, has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sources of material used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name: Tesfay Solomon,

Signature:

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'T. Solomon', written over a horizontal line.

Place: Institute of Language Studies
Addis Ababa University

Date of Submission: June 6, 1995