ERROR ANALYSIS: MISSPELLINGS IN PARAGRAPHS

A Case Study of Third Year Students of English at
Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra, Algeria.

A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Foreign Languages as
Partial Fulfillment for the Master's Degree in Science of Languages

Presented by: Mr. Boubaker TEMLALI   **Supervised by:** Mrs. Iméne GUETTAL

Board of Examiners:

Chair: Dr. Saliha CHELLI	University of Biskra
Examiner: Mr. Walid AOUNALI	University of Biskra
Supervisor: Mrs. Iméne GUETTAL	University of Biskra

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to my beloved mother for everything she gave for me.

To my father, may Allah have His mercy on his soul.

To my siblings for their support and help.

To my friends with whom I share my time.

To my classmates, and those who helped me during studies.

To the shiny light that led me to the right path....

To anyone who knew, or still knows me.

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Abstract

It is evident that teaching and learning English has become the major focus of many researchers. Hence, many studies are conducted to enhance the learners' competencies, both written and spoken. However, some learners commit different types of errors during this process. Certainly, the knowledge of spelling standards, and its correct usages, is fundamental. Any anomalies would be very useful to educators to better understand this aspect of written language, yet improve it. Based on this, the current study aims at identify, describe, and explain spelling errors of third year students of English at Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra, Algeria. Error Analysis was pursued on 40 copies of the 2015 Written Expression final exam's answers sheets. Random sampling was selected to build the sample (10% of the population). It had been hypothesized that the misspellings would be as follow: doubling letters, non-doubling letters, missing letters, intrusive letters, disordered letters, non-English words (contain three or more errors), and mixing (between British and American spelling standards). Six copies contained no misspelling. The results confirmed and extended the hypothesis to encompass two other types of orthographical errors: substitution and non-readable handwriting –that results in non-accurate spellings. Substitution was the most committed errors; nevertheless, handwriting, mixing, and doubling were the smallest. Fairly occurring, the remaining subcategories are classified: non-English words, missing letters, intrusive letters, and non-doubling letters. Consequently, several potential sources of those errors were provided. These are: low physical and emotional states, overgeneralization (intralingual), negative transfer from French and/or Arabic (interlingual), teaching and/or learning deficits, and the complex nature of English' spelling. Furthermore, certain recommendations are provided at the level of curricula' enhancement, such as better teachers' trainings, alerting learners of faulty associations among learned languages, and such. Further studies on the topic are suggested. All in all, this study is believed to have a great role on learners' written outcomes, yet their overall proficiency level.

Keywords: Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, Interlingual Errors, Intralingual Errors, Misspellings, Sources of Errors,

الملخّــــــص

انه من الواضح أن تدريس وتعلم اللغة الانجليزية أصبح محور اهتمام العديد من الباحثين. بناء على ذلك، عدد معتبر من الدراسات تم انجازها لتحسين قدرات المتعلمين في جانبيها: المكتوب والمنطوق. رغم ذلك، بعض المتعلمين لا يزالون يرتكبون أخطاء لغوية متنوعة في طريق اكتسابهم اللغة. من المؤكد أن التحكم في القواعد الإملائية واستعمالاتها الصحيحة مهم جدا لمستعملي اللغة، فأي خطأ على هذا المستوى سيكون مفيدا للباحثين للاطلاع على هذا الجانب من قدرات المتعلمين اللغوية. في ضوء ذلك، هذه الدراسة تهدف إلى: تحديد، وصف وكذلك شرح الأخطاء الإملائية المرتكبة من طرف طلبة السنة ثالثة انجليزية بجامعة محمد خيذر بسكرة في السنة الأكاديمية 2014/2015 . لتحقيق ذلك، "تحليل الأخطاء" تم تطبيقه على 40 نسخة من أوراق إجابة مقياس "التعبير الكتابي" تم اختيارها عشوائيا، وهي تشكل 10 بالمائة من إجمالي عدد أوراق إجابات الطلبة. الباحث افترض أن تكون هنالك عدة أنواع من الأخطاء الإملائية: أحرف مكررة/غير مكررة، أحرف محذوفة، أحرف دخيلة، أحرف غير مرتبة، كلمات غير انجليزية (تحتوي ثلاث أخطاء أو أكثر)، وكذلك الخلط (بين القواعد الإملائية البريطانية ونظيرتها الأمريكية). ستة أوراق إجابة كانت خالية من أي خطئ إملائي. النتائج المتحصل عليها أكدت، وكذاك وسعت الفرضية لتشمل نوعين آخرين من الأخطاء الإملائية: استبدال الحروف والكتابة غير الواضحة والتي تتسبب في غموض وأخطاء على المستوى الإملائي. الاستبدال كان أكثر الأخطاء الإملائية التي تم تحديدها، في حين كل من: الخط اليدوي، الخلط، والتكرار كانوا أقلهم. بصفة متفاوتة ينحصر بقية الأخطاء الإملائية. في ضوء النتائج المتحصل عليها، تم تقديم بعض الأسباب المحتملة لحدوث هاته الأخطاء. نذكر منها: الحالة الجسدية والنفسية السيئة، التعميم الخاطئ للقواعد الإملائية، الاستيراد الخاطئ من اللغتين العربية و/أو الفرنسية، قصور في العمليتين التعليمية و/أو التعلمية، وكذلك الطبيعة المعقدة للقواعد الإملائية في اللغة الانجليزية. النتائج المتحصل عليها ساهم في الخروج بالعديد من التوصيات والتطبيقات البيداغوجية لتحسين المستوى.

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

CA: Contrastive Analysis.

CAH: Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis.

CS: Cut Spelling.

D: Doubled Letter.

DO: Disordered Letters.

EA: Error Analysis.

EFL: English as a Foreign Language.

FL: Foreign Language.

GB: British Spelling Standards.

HDW: non-accurate Handwriting.

I: Intrusive Letter.

K: Orthographical Error.

L1: First Language.

M: Missing Letter.

MKUB: Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra.

MT: Mother Tongue.

MX: Mixing British and American Spelling Standards.

ND: Non-Doubled Letter.

NonEN: Non-English Word.

SL: Second Language.

Sub: Substituted Letter.

TL: Target Language.

TNW: Total Number of Words.

US: American Spelling Standards.

WE: Written Expression.

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General Introduction

1. Statement of the Problem

It is traced back, historically, that the spoken form of the language preceded the written one. However, this should not impede our understanding from realizing the important existence of a written form of the language. In many domains, written language is used to: communicate news, store data, transform ideas into books, or even hire/fire employees. Certainly, writing procedures are not highly mastered in all cases, especially when it comes to English as foreign language. This latter revealed some serious issues within the generation of a piece of writing. These issues are: grammatical errors, coherence/cohesion-related issues, and even several syntactical structures' falls. All in all, spelling is the tenet of any written piece of the language.

Spelling errors are a serious learning issue that should be examined rapidly. First, most, if not all, examinations in Algeria are written, which demands a high mastery of writing skills, including good spelling abilities. Second, except from some dictation techniques and written drills, there is no clear strategy to teach spelling neither in private schools, middle schools, high schools nor universities where English is a branch of study. Most importantly, teachers are facing great dilemma dealing with 'unexplained' spelling errors of their students, especially while correcting examinations' sheets. This could result in a non-accurate evaluation of students' written outcomes. Moreover, learners' motivation is negatively affected if they cannot make a good use of their ideas into written compositions due to poor spelling abilities, yet get low grades.

In light of the facts stated above, we may certainly declare, with no hesitation, the importance of spelling within any written piece of a language. Mainly, if it was not for the spelling-related issues, any other writing issue, for instance: lexical, grammatical errors, among others, would never be a topic to discuss. Similarly, written pieces would, by then, fail to convey properly its message(s). All in all, EFL' learners spelling errors would certainly prevent them from proceeding to a more advanced levels of language' mastery. This latter demands a huge dedication of both time and efforts from all concerned parties to identify, interpret, and later examine any encountered spelling' error(s).

2. Aim of the Study

The current study aims at identify, describe and explain spelling errors in students paragraphs' writings. It is conducted to reveal the different spelling errors committed by EFL learners at Mohamed Khider University of Biskra, yet establish a logical categorisation for them and figure out which among them are more frequent to occur.

3. Significance of the Study

First, this study will try to build a framework for other researchers to examine the denoted errors. Second, it will help the teachers, students and educators to better understand the nature of errors, what will enable them to adjust the curriculum, available spelling teaching techniques and suggested spelling learning' strategies. Similarly, further studies can focus on the origins of these errors, yet minimize the rate of its occurrence.

4. Research Questions

This study aims to answer the following main question:

- What are the different spelling errors committed by third year learners of English at Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra (MKUB)?

The main question raises the urge to answer other sub-questions:

- What are the most common errors among them?
- How can we group those errors according to its origins and rate of occurrence?

5. Hypothesis

Regarding to the above research questions, the following hypothesis was suggested:

- There are several spelling errors committed by third year learners of English at MKUB. This include:
  1) Doubling/non-doubling of some letters.

2) Missing letters.

3) Intrusive letters.

4) Disordered letters.

5) Non-English Words.

6) Mixing.

6. Research Methodology

6.1. Research Population and Sample

The population that will be under our investigation is the third year students of English at MKUB. They are selected because they have been through an intensive tuition of paragraphs' writing. This should have helped them to build enough language packages to compose a paragraph, including: vocabularies' bank, grammar' structures, different writing' techniques and procedures (brain storming, drafting, editing and polishing, and the like). Besides, written paragraphs are an endemic tool in students' assessment in many modules. In lights of this, they are highly motivated to excel in their written outcomes.

It is worth mentioning that the third year is the initiative in their essays' writing process, in which they have to complete some unfinished essays through the writing of one or more paragraph. They should have overcome the anxiety of exams and following consequences. The students came from different high school' study streams (letters, foreign languages or scientific branches), with different linguistic backgrounds. These are: Arabic, French and Shawi (a regional dialect of Tamazight). Most importantly, teachers do not have real opportunities to interact with each student in isolation. They mainly focus on lecturing in teaching the paragraphs' writing procedure, and home' assignments to monitor their progress.

As far as a census study cannot take place due to the enormous number of third year' students of English at MKUB, and research time' constraints, we will have to select a sample to represent the whole population. Regarding to the fact that both low and high achievers commit spelling' error, simple random sampling should serve our need to draw a significant corpus of their written paragraphs.

6.2. Research Methods and Tools

This study deals mainly with a dichotomous variable, so that one quantitative data collection tool is used: corpus study. Regarding the enormous number of the population, random sampling was used to form the corpus. After the *collection* of the sample, error analysis procedures (*identification*, *description*, *explanation* of errors) will be provided. The results are presented in tables and charts to simplify access. It is noted that the sample's size varies from the pilot to the main study. The out coming data will be encoded electronically using Microsoft Office Excel 2007. Hence, the results will be transferred into diagrams that will be more accurate for readers. These diagrams are to be described on and explained later.

7. Limitations and Anticipated Problems

In light of the above mentioned details, we should mention some expected difficulties and pre-decisions. Basically to: narrow the study, minimize the risk of false measurement and consolidate credibility. First, we will be concerned only by third year's spelling errors in written paragraphs, license graduated' class 2015 at MKUB. Second, we are expecting a difficulty dealing with some students' hand writings. Third, we will only try to investigate the spelling' errors, and theoretically trace back their sources. But there will be no empirical justification for their origins, or an attempt to find any remedy.

The 2015' third year class had a total number of 372 students, subdivided into 10 groups of about 40 students per each (ranges from 35 to 45), and taught by 4 different teachers, which means they did not have the same final exam. The topics were certainly different, as well as the instructions (write/complete an essay, or write a unique paragraph). In case one, we will have to choose the first paragraph instructed to be written to ensure, to a great extent, the equality among investigated paragraphs. Moreover, there is a remote possibility of a paragraph-null answer' sheet. Consequently, we will just choose a portion of answers that is paragraph-like length, or replace it with another randomly selected answers' sheet that contains a paragraph, if possible.

Chapter One. Errors: A Divergent Perception

Introduction

Teaching a second or a foreign language involves many obstacles. One of these is the errors made by some -if not all- learners, and the ways teachers, course' designers, researchers should deal with them. This chapter will be dedicated to have a clearer view of two major issues. First, the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis will be explained in the maximum details possible. This involves its background, roots, types and critiques. Second, Error analysis will be investigated to demonstrate its emergence, procedures and advantages. A representative idea of its implications into languages' teaching and learning will be provided. It will be concluded by an account for the distinction among: an error, a mistake and a lapse.

1. Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH, also known as: comparative linguistics, contrastive analysis) is a linguistic study in which two different languages are compared. James (1980) views it as an interlinguistic, bidirectional phenomenon which is concerned with both the form and function of language. Because certain errors were more frequent to occur among learners, scholars tended to predict them, yet have them avoided. Its main objective is to detach languages into smaller patterns to be compared.

CAH has two main pillars: a psychological approach of how language is gained (acquired and/or learnt), and a linguistic view of what language is. First, the behavioural psychologists like: Thorndike, Watson and Pavlov, in the beginning of the 20th century by claiming that language is a matter of habit formation. Not only this, but also the structuralists' view of the language that was led by: Bloomfield and Saussure and dominant by then. That is to say: a system of finite correlated units that can be grouped and learnt. Certainly, this led to a great emphasis on the comparison between the systems of learners' L1 and the TL.

1.1.   The Emergence of CAH

The twentieth century is known for the rapid improvement of language studies. The scientific approach shows a remarkable dominance. Certainly, it results in many linguistic theories based on scientific evidences. In addition, Psychologists were more concerned by education than they have never been. As will be explained later, CA has not been an exception. By contrast, it was thanks to these changes that CA had found its existence in language teaching and learning.

1.1.1.   The Behavioural Approach

Conditioning is one popular form of learning. It has two main types: *classical* and *operant.* The first claims that there is an association between an external 'stimulus' (teaching' incomes) and another involuntary 'response' (learning' outcomes). The other is more important in education as to the fact that it associates the stimulus with a 'conscious voluntary response'. Last but not least, both classical and operant conditionings have their profitable implications in education.

This explains how The Behavioural Approach in psychology became a tenet in the foundation of CAH. First, the Russian physiologist Ivan Petrovich Pavlov elaborated his own model of classical conditioning. He was examining the dogs' digestive processes. Coincidently, "...Pavlov noticed that object or events associated with meat powder also caused stomach secretions – for example: the mere sight of the experimenter or the sound of his or her footsteps". Hergenhahn (2009:389). Because these responses depend on something else, he refers to them as 'conditioned'.

This claim was supported by the American psychologist John B, Watson, who receive the major credit for the founding of Behavioural Psychology. Regardless to the harsh criticism claimed against the experiment on *Little Albert,* Watson and Rayner (1920) explained how the little boy associated the feeling of fear to the appearance of the white rat after the exposure, then removal of the loud frightening sound. He went further by claiming the following (1913:82):

> Give me a dozen healthy infants, well-formed, and my own
> specific world to bring them up in and I'll guarantee to take
> any one at random and train him to become any type of
> specialist I might select - doctor, lawyer, artist, merchant-

chief and, yes, even beggar-man and thief, regardless of his
talents, penchants, tendencies, abilities, vocations, and race
of his ancestors.

The American psychologist Edward Thorndike, well known for his works in Comparative Psychology: studying animals' behaviours in relation to human ones, has contributed to associative learning through his theory of *Law of Effect.* Thorndike (1905) experimented on cats, and demonstrated how they can learn new behaviours and retain them repeatedly. Using a puzzle box, he drilled the cat to stumble on the lever and escape it. This was the initiation of a new perception in the behavioural school which is operant conditioning.

Last but not least, Skinner (1938) believed in the systemisation of behaviour(s) through reinforcement (positive and/or negative). He referred to this as *operant conditioning.* In a box, also known as: Skinner Operant Conditioning Chamber, he demonstrated, using rats and pigeons, how an animal operates certain behaviour(s). Hunger, a natural drive, pushes the animal to, accidently, move the lever yet getting food from a pellet. Although these findings were of a non-humanistic source, Pavlov (1938:441) claims:

The reader will have noticed that almost no extension to
human behavior is made or suggested. This does not mean
that he is expected to be interested in the behavior of the rat
for its own sake. The importance of a science of behavior
derives largely from the possibility of an eventual extension
to human affairs.

The implications into education showed how the human' mind gain language through repetition. Primarily, many learning tasks were designed to meet the behaviouristic perceptions. For instance, teaching languages was a matter of drilling language' patterns, either spoken or written. Hence, Memorisation took the major part of emphasis, yet errors made by learners were not tolerated. Learners had to, uniquely, produce similar language' patterns of that of the TL.

1.1.2. The Structuralistic School

The CAH is adopted by many scholars. It finds its roots in the early studies of language. According to Bloomfield, CAH can be traced back to the works of early European scholars. Heattributes the beginning of languages' comparison to the works of the European Sanskrit scholar Sir William Jones (1786) in his trial on comparing his MT, Sanskrit: the Hinduism' ceremonial language, to Greek and Latin (1933:12). Later in 1833, a comparative grammar' series among Indo-European languages, such as: Lithuanian, Irish, and Welsh, among others, by the German linguist Franz Bopp. They tried to describe the existing similarities, especially at the phonological level; nonetheless, Bloomfield (ibid) shows that there were some shortcomings:

> European scholars had a sound knowledge of Latin and Greek; most of them spoke some Germanic languages as their mother-tongue. Confronting a precise statement of Sanskrit grammar or a carefully analyzed lexical form, they could usually recall a similar feature from some of the more familiar languages. ... . If European scholars had possessed descriptions of the sister languages comparable to the Hindus' description of Sanskrit, the comparative study of the Indo-European languages (as they are now called) would have progressed far more speedily and accurately.

His linguistic tendency towards the nature of the language results in many outcomes. Mainly, he claims that language is a set of finite structures, i.e. limited patterns, that can be classified, yet described. Accordingly, the accuracy of available sets of descriptive data of languages makes comparative study more reasonable. Clearly stated, Bloomfield' notions of language (structures), and the way how it should be studied influenced many other scholars.

Ferdinand de Saussure (1958) insists on the complex nature of language. He claims that language (*langue*) should be distinguished from speech (*parole*). Not only this, but also the systematic nature of language. "Language, on the contrary, is a self-contained whole and a principle of classification."(1958:9). Furthermore, "Language is a system of signs that express ideas, and is therefore comparable to a system of writing ..." (1958:15). Consequently, Saussure's works on the nature of language contributed in establishing the comparative linguistics.

To conclude, both schools of Behaviourism and Structuralism form the tenets of CAH. Conditioning, in its both forms: classical and operant, were very influential in teaching languages, yet non-tolerance with errors was clearly remarked. Simultaneously, language' perception as finite correlated patterns resulted in an aim of classifying, then comparing two or more languages' systems.

1.2. Types of Contrastive Analysis

The CAH is made of two main forms: *strong* and *weak*. The strong form focuses on the ability to predict learners' errors; nonetheless, the weak form is mainly about analysing the errors, yet traces back its sources in the learners' Mother Tongue (MT). Brown (2007:252) asserts that while the strong version is based on a *priori*, the emphasis in the weak version is on a *posteriori*. To sum up, we might refer to Wardhaugh (1970:12):

> "This version [CAH' strong form] can work only for one who is prepared to be quite naive in linguistic matters. In its weak form, however, it has proved to be helpful an undoubtedly will continue to b so as linguistic theory develops"

1.3. Advantages of Contrastive Analysis

In the mid-twentieth century, it was strongly believed that the inter-language interference is the only source of errors committed by EFL learners. On this basis, certain models of comparison among some languages were made, claiming that languages are finite. Consequently, CAH proves its practical existence in the field of teaching languages, especially second and foreign ones.

One of the strongest supporters of CAH is the modern American linguist Robert Lado. He receives the major credit for the foundation of CA. This could be due to his bilingualism, a second-generation-immigrant of Spanish parents in the United States. Certainly, this raises his awareness, especially linguistic and cultural, in foreign languages' teaching and learning. Lado (1957) added a new dimension to the previous form of comparison. He insists on comparing learners' L1 and the TL. He claims that comparing learners' culture and language to the target ones help to predict difficult patterns. In addition, he believes that the elements that are similar will be easier to learn than those that are different between L1 and TL.

One other strong supporter of CAH is the French anthropologist Levi-Strauss (1958). His works on different social-cultural phenomena were structure-based. According to him, the relations among the phenomena, especially rules governing them, are more important than the phenomena themselves. Similarly, he believes that tools used by structural linguists were more rigorous, so that its findings are no longer fully neglected among other social sciences. Consequently, "The advent of structural linguistics completely changed this situation. Not only did it renew linguistic perspectives; a transformation of this magnitude is not limited to a single discipline." Lévi-Strauss (1958:33).

More to say, this comparison was established to help teachers to better understand learners' errors, its potential sources in their MT, yet predict the difficulties encountered. First, Wardhaugh (1970:1) claims that the best teaching materials are those based on the comparison between L1 and TL. Moreover, James (1980) adds "…contrastive analysis is a useful tool for educators interested in adjusting their teaching to their students' knowledge." This claim is supported by Richards (1970:2) "… contrastive analysis can highlight and predict the difficulties of pupils."

1.4. Reviews on Contrastive Analysis

In spite of the advantages attributed to CAH, it had been criticised by several scholars. First, following the criticism against the structuralism' view of language, a language is infinite. Therefore, it consists of a non-limited number of structures. Chomsky and Miller (1958) argue that a language is a set of finite, or even infinite strings (sentences) of symbols (words) generated by a finite set of grammatical rules. This shows the productive and creative aspect of language. Hence, comparing two languages would be difficult, if not impossible.

The CAH' supporters' claim that the only source of learners' errors is interference cannot be proved empirically. Primarily, Brown (2007) believes that: age, individual differences, socio-cultural heritage and external factors play a major role in second language acquisition, yet in a learner's performance. Most importantly, CA is conducted, exclusively, by bilingual competent linguists; however, those are few, so it is implausible.

Thereafter, grammar is not the only component of language. By focusing on it, other important aspects of language are –wrongly- not treated. Richards and Sampson (1973:4) notes: "The major defect of contrastive analysis was deemed to be the attention paid to the analysis of two grammars". Thus, Strevens (1969) believes that many teachers perceive CA as a useless procedure. Most of them recognise certain errors from their own experience, or their trainers'. Certainly, many EFL' learners commit certain similar errors regardless to their L1. For instance: doubling the final letter of a word when suffixing is very common among: Arabic, French and Chinese and others. In addition, the neglecting of final's' with the third person is also another representative example. Simply put, the learner's linguistic background is never a unique source of the errors.

To conclude, CA is a significant linguistic study that had been used by numerous scholars in the early 20th century. Its structural-behavioural basis had helped finding a comparison between two languages. Besides, it had had two main forms: strong and weak. Clearly, the findings had been enormously applicable in language teaching and learning; nonetheless, there were many critiques against it that resulted in a global reconsideration.

2. Error Analysis

Error analysis is a comparative linguistic study in which two systems of languages are compared. The first is the TL' one, while the second is the learner's produced system. Richards and Schmidt (2010) classify three major aims of EA:

(a) *Identifying* strategies used by EFL' learners.
(b) Discovering potential sources of learners' errors.
(c) Obtaining knowledge of common difficult language' patterns, to *assist* teachers prepare a more efficient lesson' plan and materials.

Its main objective is spotting the errors committed during the use of TL. It has several advantages and implications into teaching languages.

2.1. The Foundation of Error Analysis

Before Pit Corder presented his view of learners' errors, it had been a red-line-cross to commit an error. Errors were signs of teaching techniques' shortcomings. The focus was mainly on the prevention of errors rather than dealing with them after their occurrence. Hence, in his article entitled "The Significance of Learner Error" published in 1967, Corder, father of Error Analysis, added a new dimension to the view of learners' errors. In lights of this, Corder (1967:163) claims:

> In the field of methodology there have been two schools of thought in respect of learners' errors. Firstly the school which maintains that if we were to achieve a perfect teaching method the errors would never be committed in the first place, and therefore the occurrence of errors is merely a sign of the present inadequacy of our teaching technique. The philosophy of the second school is that we live in an imperfect world and consequently errors will always occur in spite of our best efforts. Our ingenuity should be concentrated on techniques for dealing with errors after they have occurred.

Corder paved the way for many works in the field of EA. Gass & Selinker (2008:102) define EA: "As the name suggests, it is a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on the errors learners make." It came as a reaction the previous contrastive analysis (also known now as: language transfer) that dominated earlier which compare and contrast the production of learners in the TL with their own MT forms. Unlike CA, the comparison in EA is made between learners' productions, mainly errors, and the TL forms, Gass & Selinker (ïbid) explain.

More to say, Strevens (1969) believes in the strong, and historical existence of error analysis in teaching. According to him, teachers need to assess and monitor pupils' performance in the language points that were taught. Obviously, reoccurring of certain errors, and suggested remedial are continuously published, he adds (1969:3). Finally, errors made by learners should be seen as an inevitable aspect of learners' progress.

To conclude, EA can be referred to as a linguistic study, mainly comparative, between two linguistic systems. The first is the one produced by the learner, and the other is TL' correct one. It aims to document flaws in learners' performance. This documentation will serve as a groundwork for teachers, course' builder and even learners to improve the language' planning achievements.

2.2.Procedures of Error Analysis

EA is administered through several systematic phases. There had been many improvements during the 1970s.Corder (1981) suggests 4 main steps to analyze learners' errors. First, a *collection* of what is believed to be analyzed must be made. This may include: learners' written compositions, -in-class-conversations' recordings, a listening test' results or even an assessment' quiz after reading. According to Ellis (1994), sample's size varies, so that 3 broad types of EA are classified:

(a) Massive Sample: forms of language' use collected from a large number of learners.
(b) Specific Sample: forms of language's use collected from a limited number of learners.
(c) Incidental Sample: a single learner's language use forms.

Certainly, as the studies in the 1960s and 1970s, he believes in the large size of sample and its efficiency in obtaining more credible results.

The second step is to *identify* the errors within this sample. This should be after first: determining what an error is, and second: which variety of TL to consider. This distinction of error from lapses and mistakes in regard to the norms of the TL will be explained later in this chapter. Moreover, which variety of TL' norms is up to the researcher, teacher, and the conventions implemented for the concerned sample. Simply put, identifying the errors in the corpus is a core step in EA.

Errors' identification can be classified into: grammar-related and appropriateness-related. In Corder's view (1981), errors should not be identified from a purely linguistic perspective; by contrast, appropriateness has to be to be considered. A superficial consideration will cover issues such as: selection of language' constituents, order, addition, or even omission of some. However, it is crucial to consider other aspects of language such as: lexico-semantic level and the target language socio-cultural' appropriate usages.

One common error is the incorrect use of tenses, which is not fully mastered by some learners. To illustrate, 'I am waiting here since eight o'clock' demonstrates how the learner lacks some mastery of English tenses' usages (*have been* instead of *am*) Cored (1981:37). To sum up, the identification of learners' errors should be based on three main criteria: grammar, learner's intention(s) and the pre-determined target language's typical usage(s).

The next step is to *describe* errors. This description is set to compare and contrast the learners' productions with its counterpart from the TL. Thus, errors should be grouped into categories. The analyser will have to record the rate of occurrence of each. This classification must not be comprehensible only, but also easy to interpret. Certainly, it is endemic to provide a significant explanation of how the learner's language differs from the TL' forms; i.e. false selection of certain constituents, omission, non-appropriate choice of some constructions, and the like.

After describing errors, an *explanation* must be provided. Corder (1981) describes this stage as being *psycholinguistic*. First, it is set to trace back the potential sources of errors. Learners' mental processes, psychological status and other intervening factors are considered and deeply investigated. For instance, the analyser may assume some self-hypothesis-testing used by the learners, and its impact on the occurrence of errors. This would account for the learner's idiosyncrasy in the TL. Finally, explanation of errors is the ultimate aim of EA.

To sum up, Corder presented the main 4 stages of EA in the following figure:
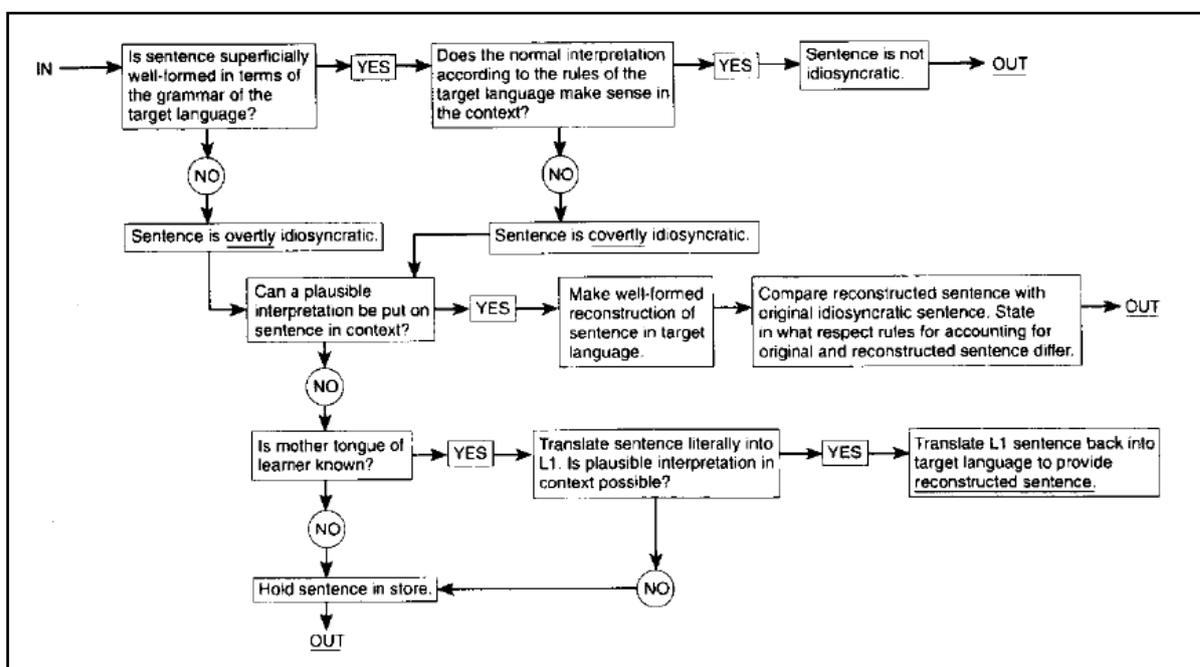
Figure.1.1. Procedures of Error Analysis (Corder, 1981:23).

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) account for one more supplementary step which the *evaluation* of errors. In this final stage, certain recommendations are provided to teachers

and courses' designers if the estimation of errors' occurrence is high. Consequently, several adjustments on how the language is taught will be given. In addition, learners will benefit from the analyser's evaluation (feedbacks) to promote their learning' strategies.

2.3. The Significance of Error Analysis

Before the Corder's perception came to the surface, errors were seen as flaws that need to be eradicated. Many scholars currently believe that errors are not just undesirable aspect of learners' performance in TL. They contain valuable information about the progress of learning. A learner's performance is a clear clue of the learning system s/he is using regardless to its correctness or falseness.

According to Corder (1967:167), errors are significant in three main ways. First, telling the teacher how far the learner has gone in the learning process towards the determined objectives. Second, provide the researchers with valuable details of how the language is being learnt and the different procedures being employed. Third, errors are devices a language learner (either MT or L2) uses to test her/his hypothesis (-ies) about the language s/he is learning.

Gass & Selinker (2008) provided the literature with a more valuable uses of errors. "Errors can be taken as red flags; they provide windows onto a system that is, evidence of the state of a learner's knowledge of the L2" (102). Similarly to Corder, errors should not be regarded as a result of imperfect learning, but rather signs of a rule-governed system that learner tries to impose on the language being learnt.

Referring to James (1998:1), "to error is human", i.e. errors are uniquely humanistic. The major concern of the linguist, here the errors' analyser, is to study objectively these signs of learning processes. Unlike CA, the focus is no longer - exclusively- on MT interference, rather, other aspects are considered. EA' scope extended to cover other disciplines in addition to FL, such as: "mother-tongue literacy, oracy and writing assessment; language disorders and therapy work; and the growing field of forensic linguistics." (xi)

To conclude, it becomes so evident that errors are no longer purely seen as errors. Rather, they are certainly a clear view of how learner' cognitive process is proceeding in

the TL. Hence, they must be exploited properly for the sake of betterment of learners' levels.

3. The Distinction Between: Lapse Mistake and Error

Before any further attempt to deal with this topic, it is crucial to make a clear cut among: an error, a mistake and a lapse. In fact, this has never been an easy task to accomplish. "... the problem of determining what is a learner's mistake and what is a learner's error is one of some difficulty and involves a much more sophisticated study and analysis of errors than is usually accorded them." Corder (1967:130). This, however, did not prevent some remarkable distinctions.

First, one typical distinction is that of 'error-mistake'. Accordingly, Miller (1966) supports that claim, and groups them as follow: (a) *An error*: stands for the systematic flaws in performance. (b) *A mistake*: refers to the unsystematic flaws in performance. Later, Corder (ibid) reviewed it and added a new dimension: *A lapse*: that is due to memory lapses, physical state, such as tiredness and psychological conditions such as strong emotion. (cited in Corder (1967)).

More to state, Corder (1971a) cited in Ellis (1994:54) divided errors into 2 types: *overt* and *covert*. An overt error is when the learner's use of language is clearly deviated from that of the TL. For example: I *goed* home. However, a covert error is the misuse of a grammatically well-formed structure by the learner. For instance: 'He went home' seems to be correct until we realise that speaker is referring to her/his sister.

Meanwhile, Edge (1989) argues that both adults (foreign language' learners) and children (natives) commit mistakes. In that sense, he prefers to use the term 'mistake' as an umbrella to whatever flaws in language performance. "But if we look carefully at the mistakes our students make, and the mistakes we make ourselves, we find that the general term *mistake* covers many different things that happen in language use." (2). In his words, mistakes that affect the meaning should have the priority to correct.

Teachers face certain difficulties in determining the location of an error. Primarily, it is a fact that learner's productions, either written or spoken, might be full of errors, at the level of a single paragraph, sentence, word, or even a phoneme. According to Burt and

Kiparsky (1974), a *global* error covers the overall structure of an utterance; however, a *local* error concerns a single pattern only. Simply, a global error is a combination of several local errors.

That was not enough for literature' reviewers and scholars interested in the topic. Another representative distinction is the one presented by Brown (2007:258). He asserts: "A mistake refers to a performance error that is either a random guess or a "slip," in that it is failure to utilize a known system correctly". In his terms, this goes for both: native speakers and foreign language' learners. The point is that native speakers are, mainly, endowed with the self-correctness capability that enables them to identify and adjust their mistakes or lapses. In lights of Brown's contributions, it is through the rate of occurrence a teacher/researcher may determine whether a learner is committing a mistake and/or an error. The more a mistake occurs, the more we become capable of classifying it as an error.

'Extent-domain' is one remarkable differentiation of errors. Ellis (1994:70) explains how this claim is first introduced by Lennon (1991). On one hand, the breadth, a word, phrase, clause or sentences, required to determine the occurrence of an error is *domain*. On the other hand, the *extent* is the size of language constituent, a morpheme, word, phrase, clause or sentence, that needs to be corrected, reordered, replaced or removed. Overall, Lennon insists on the relation between the size of incorrect use of language, and the global frame which contains it.

Richards and Schmidt (2010) present another typical distinction of errors. To start with, an *error* is any misuse of a language' pattern(s), that is identified by language' masters (fluent or natives) as being incomplete or faulty. In addition, there are some sub-categories of errors. For instance: lexical errors: vocabulary-related, phonological errors: pronunciation-related, developmental errors: learning' process-related, among others. Nevertheless, low physical and emotional status, such as tiredness, may result in some *mistakes*. Finally, this distinction is based on learners' status and language' masters perception of language' use.

To conclude, error-mistake distinction is unconventional. Many scholars use them to refer to any non-correct use of language. Certainly, the presence of some lapses cannot be ignored. Having a clear cut among them would not be an easy task to accomplish; consequently, in this research, the term: '*error*' was, and will be used to cover any *lapse*,

mistake, or *error.* Nonetheless, the original term used by some scholars was, and will be maintained, and explained if ever used to illustrate, support or refute.

4. Distinguishing Flaws of Performance in a Corpus

In light of the controversy upon the distinction mentioned above, we may suggest several procedures to know whether the flaws in performance are errors or mistakes. We may declare that this distinction is not mono-sided. That is to say: teacher, solely, is not eligible to launch any judgement. This is due to the learner's inclusion in the topic. An error analyser –be it a teacher– has to consider the competence of each learner individually, and then decides which aspects of performance to be addressed.

The very useful procedure is to schedule a follow-up task to a writing test, quiz, or any examination where learners are asked to produce a piece of writing with accurate spelling. This task will be in a form of a related text –to that of the examination– including the most, or all, misspelled words by the learner in his/her examination's answers' sheet. Next, the concerned learner will be instructed to spot the misspelled words. If the learner succeeds to accomplish so, then the pervious flaws in the test' answers were just mistakes. i.e. the learner is aware of the correct spelling, and knows the governing rule, but failed – for one reason or another- to apply them during the examination. If not, then those flaws are certainly errors.

The reader might have noticed that this is not very practical as to the fact that learners are, in most cases, very numerous. Applying this to each learner individually is efficient, but might be time-consuming. Consequently, the analyzer might depend on the flaws in performance' percentages drawn from the study, yet build a comprehensive follow-up text including the most misspelled words by the majority of learners. The results of the follow-up test will be examined accordingly. The percentage of the spotted' misspelled words will reveal whether learners are committing errors and/or mistakes.

Another way is to use a blank-filling activity in the follow-up test (instead of a text with misspellings). This can be achieved through the demonstration of pictures, images or drawings. For instance: if one learner fails to spell the word "bottle" properly, the teacher uses a picture of a bottle, and asks the concerned learner to fill in the blank with the corresponding word. A set of 3-4 words (including the accurate spelling and misspelt ones)

might be suggested to help him/her do so. Although this is seems to be more like a vocabulary' building activity, it helps to diagnose the learner's spelling ability.

This latter concerns mainly: tangible objects and motion verbs. Nonetheless, for words that cannot be displayed or gesticulated, using dictionary' definition –or an adapted explanation- would be a useful alternative. It is worth mentioning that these techniques are attributed exclusively to spelling ability; nevertheless, an extension to other aspects of language can be made. This latter demands several adjustments to address the concerned language' patterns.

Conclusion

To conclude, CA was a very useful procedure in which a linguist is concerned with the comparison of two languages' systems. The first is that of the MT of learners, while the second is of the TL. This type of analysis was revised and developed by Corder due to the revealed shortcomings. Consequently, EA came to the surface as an effective substitute. This, however, did not prevent scholars from falling into the controversy of distinguishing errors from mistakes and/or lapses.

Chapter Two. Teaching Methods: English, Paragraph's Writing and Spelling

Introduction

Teaching methods and approaches are endemic in forming learners' knowledge of language and its uses. It is true that the number of methods is equal to that of the teachers. This claim is based on the fact that every approach is manipulated in some way –by the teacher- to fit the immediate circumstances and learners. In this chapter, we will have an overview of different English' Teaching Methods, moving gradually to how writing a paragraph is taught, then focusing more on spelling, that is our major concern.

1. Approach, Method and Technique in Language Teaching

Having a clear cut among: an approach, a method and a technique is essential before embarking deeply within the topic. The American Applied Linguist Anthony E. M. (1963) has provided us with the best known conceptualization so far (cited in Grenfell and Harris (2002)). Clearly, it is unfair to exclusively refer to one view; nonetheless, Anthony's view was, and still very comprehensive. Put simply, he organised them hierarchically as follow: approach, method then technique.

To start with, *an approach* is the co-related assumptions of what language teaching and learning are. It is the top-level of the classification that is purely theoretical. First, it discusses the nature of language based on various linguistics theories, and psychological views on language learning. Second, in Anthony's words, it is axiomatic by nature, i.e. taken for granted. Its ultimate aim is to provide a detailed explanation and description to the subject matter being taught. Certainly, an approach encompasses one or more method.

A method occupies the second rank in Anthony's hierarchy. Unlike the theoretical nature of an approach, the method is procedural. It is the realization of theoretical knowledge –that of an approach- into practical implementations. In other words, a method is the overall plan, the set of procedures that governs the teaching-learning' process. Following the same gradation, several techniques can be labelled under any selected method.

The third level of this model is more accurate which takes place inside the classroom. Primarily, any stratagem, trick, contrivance, idea used and/or developed by the teacher to accomplish an immediate objective is referred to as *a technique*. Consequently, it is implementational –in respect to its method-. Certainly, any selected technique, method or approach should be in harmony, yet consistent in relation to each other.

Regardless to advantages attributed to this model, certain drawbacks are clearly present. Primarily, what a method is still ambiguous. For instance: the expected role(s) of teacher and learners is not demonstrated. This concerns not only individuals, but also the instructional material used. In addition, it has not accounted for how an approach is realized into a method. Accordingly, much explanation of the method-technique(s)' relation needs to be provided. Consequently, Anthony's model reveals several disadvantages.

2. A Method: Approach, Design and Procedure

This model was later revised and extended by Richards and Rodgers (1995). They conserved Anthony's trilogy; however, certain changes on the gradation, functions and terminology were made. They refer to the overall *method* as the umbrella that consists: *an approach, a design* and *a procedure*. The term "approach" is retained, yet refers to the same notion. That is to say: a linguistic theory of the language' nature, and psychological theory of language' learning. Furthermore, cognitive processes and the overall conditions of a successful learning environment are discussed. Nonetheless, a method – in Anthony's model – is referred to as: a *design*.

A design is suggested to rectify the above mentioned weaknesses of a method. First, it discusses the general objectives of the selected method. Hence, it deals with the syllabus' building, and categories of teaching and learning' activities. For example: the selection and organization of the subject matter to be taught, and different tasks that will take place inside the classroom. Moreover, the roles of: the teacher, the learners and the instructional materials are clearly determined. This refers to: how influential the teacher is, whether the learner is a purely information' processor, a problem solver -and the like-, and the materials' forms (e.g. textbook, audio-visual), among others.

Richards and Rodgers (1995) have renamed the implementational phase –that of Anthony's– with a more comprehensive term: *a procedure*. While approach and design are theoretical, procedure accounts for what takes place inside the classroom. This refers to different classroom techniques observed while applying the selected method, tactics and strategies used by both teachers and learners, and resources allocated in terms of time, space, and equipment used by the teacher, and the like. A better understanding of this model can be achieved from the following figure (*figure 2.1*). All in all, this model proves its comprehensibility. Consequently, basically for its actuality, it will be followed in this research.
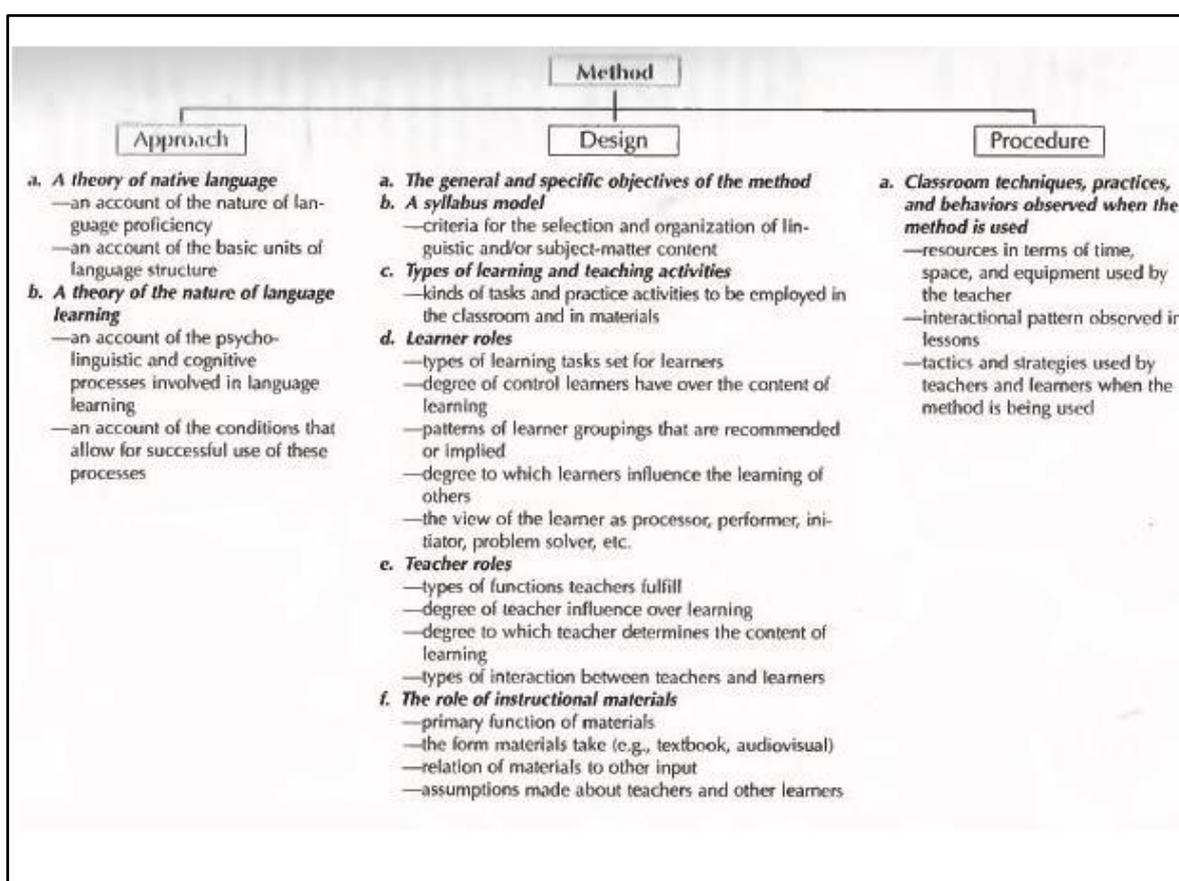
Figure.2.1. Summary of elements and subelements that constitute a method (Richards & Rodgers, 1995:28).

3. A Brief Overview of English Language Teaching' History

English Language Teaching has been through many changes and reforms across history. This is mainly attributed to: English' ascending universality shifts in language' studies (and English itself), and development in Psychology in relation to Education

(precisely: languages). In this account, only Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, Audio-lingual Method and Competency-Based Education will be briefly discussed. This may, unfairly, exclude many other representative contributions; however, those methods are believed to have a significant impact on learners' spelling ability. Hence, contributory elements in flaws in performance' occurrence.

3.1. The Grammar-Translation Method

The Grammar-Translation Method is believed to be the initiative attempt in teaching foreign languages. *Latin* and *Greek* were the dominant languages back in the 16th Century. Accordingly, GTM was established to help learners, of other linguistic backgrounds, master those languages. Later in the Renaissance, *Latin*' existence started to collapse, which paved the way to other substitutes like: *French*, *Italian* and *English*. Its ultimate aims were: mastering TL' grammar, reading TL' literature, boosting learners' reading and writing' abilities and translating expressions from MT to TL (and vice versa).

To accomplish that, several procedures were followed. First, English' Grammar rules were deductively taught. It is worth noting that learners' MT was used in class. According to Kelly (1976:25) "Nineteenth-century teachers, in general, saw translation as the only sure method of transmitting meaning". Language ability was evaluated in respect to the ability to conjugate. Accordingly, Palmer (1917:99) believed that translated patterns are useful mistakes' preventatives. However, he added that the teacher's responsibility exceeds a mere demonstration of the equivalent words –and instructing learners to memorize- to warning them of faulty associations.

The first major critique to the GTM was about its superficiality. Kelly (1976:99) refers to Rouse's (1925) description of GTM as "a process of knowing about the language than the language itself". This is attributed to the extensive emphasis on teaching grammar' rules. Learners, however, failed –in most cases- to make sense of what they were producing. This caused an excessive decline in their motivational level. As Grenfell and Harris (2002:11) state: "classes were dull for all". They add that the emphasis on written skills over the oral ones that were believed to be secondary aims. All in all, depending on learners' MT may lead them to certain faulty transfer' attempts. These can be classified as interlingual errors.

3.2. The Direct Method

The Direct Method is one representative phase in languages' teaching. Stern (1991) claims that it was characterised by the exclusive use of the TL –over the MT- as an instructional and communicational mean. Unlike the focus of GTM on literary language, it aimed at using everyday language as the object of early instruction. A typical procedure would be in the following sequence:

(a) Presenting a short-simplified text in the TL.

(b) Paraphrasing, synonyms, context and demonstration are used to *explain* difficult expressions

(c) Learners read loudly the text, and occasionally *answer* teacher's rising questions to elucidate the text's meaning.

Regardless to the advantages of the Direct Method such: familiarizing learners with TL, building a new non-translational approach to language' teaching and reconsidering oral skills, some questionable aspects persist. In fact, two major inevitable questions were raised. Stern (1991) questions the aspect as how to apply this method beyond elementary phases of language' learning. The other raised issue is how to safeguard the meaning without having to translate it (use of MT). This latter came to be noticed due to some false pairing of language' pattern(s) and its meaning(s). Those misunderstandings can be labelled as intralingual errors.

3.3. The Audio-lingual Method

The Audio-lingual finds its roots to English' Teaching as opposing to GTM' dependence on learners' MT. Harmer (2001:79-80) asserts that it owed its existence to the Behaviouristic Approach to learning (as explained in *Chapter1*). *Stimulus-Response-Reinforcement'* Model was used to drill learners to repeat good habits (that of language' patterns). Following how the structutalists viewed language, substitutions were made on some patterns of the sentence being drilled. Harmer (ïbid) provided a good example of an Audio-lingual' Procedure as follows:

```
Teacher: There's a cup on the table … repeat
Students: There's a cup on the table.
Teacher: Spoon
Students: There's a spoon on the table.
Teacher: Book
Students: There's a book on the table
Teacher: On the chair.
Students: There's a book on the chair
etc.
```

The above example reveals how this method reconsidered the learners' oral skills. However, some drawbacks were revealed. First, the focus on oral skills was exaggerated, so that the balance of written-oral skills had not been maintained. Learners demonstrated a lower level of written productions compared to oral one. For instance: many English words are not spelt as they are pronounced. Second, the language was de-contextualised, yet carries less –or no- meaning, with a remarkable loss of language' communicative functionality. Third, the attempt to prevent learners from committing mistakes, using Harmer's term, is believed to be a counter-common-belief" paradigm. Certainly, errors are believed to be a non-separable part of language acquisition.

3.4. The Competency-Based Education

The Competency-Based Education (CBE) marks heavily its presence in languages' education recently. It is believed to be a learner-centred method that focuses, in contrast to many other methods, on the outcome. This method's fundamental perspective is teaching the language as hierarchical-isolated sub-skills, one at a time. For instance: teaching EFL' learners paragraph's writing will go through: words' spellings and meanings, parts of speech, types of sentences, cohesion and coherence and other paragraph-related sub-skill. It is the result of the criticism against *Behaviourism*, advancement in *Cognitive Psychology* and emergence of *Constructivism*. In addition, the updated view of language as a mean of communication.

3.4.1. The Origins of Competency-Based Education

First, drilling learners to a limited number of stimuli had exposed certain shortcomings. Primarily, Schuman (1996) believes that learners may encounter situations where the appropriate stimulus for a correct response does not occur. In that instance, the learners would fail to respond. To illustrate: a learner will not be able to produce a paragraph if an anomaly happens to any sub-element of triggering writing a paragraph, such as: absence of instruction to accurate spelling. This latter, eventually, would lead to a spelling' non-accuracy due to the absence of the stimulus (instruction). In respect of this, some reforms were suggested.

Unlike the mere view of Behaviourists to the individual as behaviours' performer, Cognitivists perceive him as a processor of information. The former believed in the existence of processes nevertheless, it was believed to be behaviours. Piaget (1957), later adjusted and supported by Vygotsky (1978), argues that an individual processes cognitively the information gained from environment. This paved the way to Competency Based Language Teaching (CBLT) to exist in schools, mainly in the United States. Auerbach (1986) accounts for the implementation of CBE in socializing USA' new arriving immigrants.

Similarly to Communicative Language Teaching, CBLT seeks to develop learners' functional communicative skills. This was due to the improvement in sociolinguistics. Accordingly, Richards (2006) claims that the focus shifts from having learners to know about the language to how they can use it effectively. This change was supported by the belief that grammatical competence should not be all what learners must learn, but also communicative competence. This includes: *what*, *how*, *where*, *when* and *why* to say a chunk of language effectively in a particular situation.

3.4.2. Competency-Based Language Teaching

As it has been mentioned above, CBE started as a survival resort for immigrants in a variety of fields. Implementations into languages' teaching have flourished in the 1990s. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), CBLT is the application of CBE in languages' education. In spite of that, no unique model has been established. The classroom procedures differ remarkably. This is due to many contributing factors: authorities,

schools' standards, and teachers-learners' differences, among others. CBLT is usual introduced at an elementary level; nonetheless, some middle and high schools are adopting it –mainly instructed by their funders.

3.4.3. The Competency-Based Approach in Algeria

Regardless on the common belief on the actuality of CBE, it has been used since the mid-nineteenth century. In an attempt to enhance the quality of teaching, Algeria, consequently, adopted it in schools in 2002. Many reforms have been made, mainly on course books and curricula. Teaching foreign languages becomes based on competencies. i.e. how learners will use language in real-life situations. Nevertheless, foreign language teachers (English) were not effectively trained to implement CBLT, or use its resources. As a result, the typical question of what method is being actually used is raised. Hence, learners' level has been questioned due to low achievement.

4. Teaching Paragraph's Writing

Paragraph's writing has been always a central element of language teachers' interest. Smith (1982), meanwhile, distinguishes between *composition* and *transcription*. The former stands for the mental efforts of generating ideas and supporting them. The latter, as the name suggests, can be referred to as the physical realization of those thoughts into written words. Thus, composing happens at the deep level of the piece; however, transcribing is believed to be at the surface level. Andrews (2001:41) explains it using the following table (*table 2.1*):

Composition	Transcription
Getting ideas	Physical efforts of writing or typing
Shaping and rearranging ideas	Paragraphs or other sub-units of text
Grammar/Style	Punctuation
Selecting words	*Spelling*
	Capitalization, etc.
	Legibility

Table.2.1. The relationship between Composition and Transcription. Andrews (2001:41).

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In light of this, there had been many attempts to enhance EFL learners' paragraph writing. This resulted in many approaches such as: the product approach, the process approach, the genre approach, the creative approach, and the cooperative approach, among others. Each one of those had its advantages, and certainly some drawbacks that encouraged other scholars to develop a new approach. Nowadays, most teachers believe in the necessity of having an eclectic approach rather than being a slave to just one.

4.1. The Product Approach

To start with, Pincas (1982a) introduced "The Product Approach" as a very significant approach in teaching writing. First, as the name suggests, the focus is more on the final outcome. That is to say: the learners must, by the end, possess enough linguistic knowledge, with intensive regard to spelling, grammar, syntax and cohesion. She gives much attention to "assisted writing". This approach consists of 4 main stages:

a) Familiarization: making learners aware of the features of a particular text formula.
b) Controlled Writing: Introducing learners to writing, in regard to a particular text' constraints.
c) Guided Writing: Enabling learners to write more freely, with less constraints and feedback from the teacher/instructor.
d) Free Writing: Promote more space for learners to start their own writing procedures.

However, this approach received some criticism, especially in regard to learners' autonomy, creativity and motivation. In addition, writing became only a matter of imitating a previously-made text. Finally, the product approach was a remarkable initiation in the field of teaching writing, but not the only one.

4.2. The Process Approach

The Process Approach is worthwhile in teaching writing. It came as a reaction to the product approach in the mid-seventies. First, the emphasis is more on *how* to write rather than *what* the final product is. The learners are supposed to possess the linguistic knowledge, and other writing skills (brainstorming, drafting, planning, writing, revising

and editing). Certainly, it was teacher-learner assisted approach, in which instructors provide instant feedbacks and guidance to learners during the process of writing. Nevertheless, this was criticised because it was mainly time' consuming. Harmer (2007:326-327) adds that: constant correction, inability to monitor each learner's process individually by the teacher, and its negative results are serious drawbacks of this approach. To conclude, the process approach ameliorated our understanding of how writing' procedures should be, not only the final product.

4.3. The Genre Approach

The Genre Approach is another representative approach to teach writing. First, it was proposed by Cope and Kalantzis (1993). It is quite similar to the product approach in regard to the emphasis on the final draft; however, it focuses also on the writing' procedures and linguistic knowledge, similarly to the process approach. To demonstrate, the genre approach consists of 3 main stages:

a) *Modelling*: Exposing learners to a well-structured model of the target text, with rigid teachers' guidance to help learners understand the form, aim, intended audience of the target text.
b) *The construction*: Having learners start writing a similar text, while teachers' guidance remains present.
c) *Independent writing*: Having learners start writing their own text, that is similar to the model.

In addition, this approach focuses on learners' knowledge and awareness of texts' types and features in order to produce a similar one. Regardless to that, there are some shortcomings in respect to learners' autonomy, motivation and creativity. The learners are almost passive and only imitating a pre-formulated text. A non-well-selected model, especially by non-native language' teachers, may lead learners to faulty imitations. Finally, the genre approach paved the way to create the process-genre approach.

5. How is Spelling Taught and Learnt?

Up to these lines, spelling has not received much emphasis it deserves. In fact, teaching spelling can be grouped into 2 main phases: *building* and *remedial*. At an early level of learning, knowing how to spell –each newly learnt word- is more dominant. Once the leaner advances, the focus is more on how to fix any anomaly, might be caused by the accumulation of similar words and rules. To attain that, a number of activities is implemented. Unlike the majority of other language' skills, such as: reading comprehension, grammatical rules, among others, that were taught inductively –during twentieth century- then gradually moved to be deductively taught –the recent trend-, *spelling* might be an exception.

5.1. A Deductive Procedure

One distinctive procedure to *build* learners' vocabularies (with accurate spelling) is by exposing them to it, and permitting them to deduce the governing rule themselves. As explained earlier, this is basically at an elementary level. To strengthen this, Kesselman-Turkel and Peterson (1983:3) denote: "Rules are better remembered if they're discovered instead of preached." Next, learners will be asked to spell several words, from those already been exposed to. For the ingrained spelling habits that have to be re-learnt, new habits are drilled to replace them. A typical example of this can be drawn as follow (Kesselman-Turkel and Peterson (1983:5)):

EXERCISE

Do the following for each word in the list:
1. Look hard at the word.
2. Look away and slowly say it aloud, listening to it.
3. Write it down as you hear yourself saying it.
4. Proofread to check what you've written.

<div align="center">

pot
wig
mud
hen
dab

</div>

What pattern does the above list of words follow? Complete this sentence to show the pattern for writing sounds:
Each sound _____.

It is worth mentioning that the teacher might provide aid to learners to deduce the rule. For the above example, Kesselman-Turkel and Peterson (1983:5-6) add:

> Did you write something like this: "Each sound is represented by one letter."? If not, do it now. Later we'll modify this rule, but it's a good one to start with.

5.2. An Inductive Procedure

Another path of improving learners' spelling is the "correct/incorrect spelling activity". This inductive activity starts with a demonstration of the rule governing one aspect of English' Spelling. Furthermore, exceptions –to that rule- are discussed. Hence, a list of words, governed by the presented rule, is suggested. The learners are instructed to determine which among those words are accurate/non-accurate. Dinsmore (2008) uses this procedure to teach the spelling of the combination of *i* and *e*(*figure 2.2*).

PRACTICE LAP

Mark whether each of the following words is spelled correctly or incorrectly.

Word	Correct	Incorrect
1. sliegh		
2. receive		
3. acheive		
4. grief		
5. frieght		

Check your answers at the end of the chapter. How did you do?

Figure.2.2. A Typical Procedure of an Inductive Procedure to Teach Spelling (Dinsmore, 2008:14).

After presenting the rule (*i* before *e*), and the exceptions (except after *c*, only when the combination is for /i:/), a set of words is suggested with an instruction to spot the correct ones.

5.3. Spelling Learning Styles

Keefe (1979:4) define learning styles as: "cognitive, affective, and physiological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment". cited in Brown (2007:120). In learning spelling, Barson and Strawson (1976) distinguish between two main types: *Phoenicians* and *Chinese*. The first category tends to establish a logical relation between the letters and the sounds they represent. By contrast, the other relies on visualising the word and storing it. Those two categories can b labelled under two broad types of learners: auditory and visual. Consequently, those major differences have a great impact on learners' orthographic competence.

Conclusion

All in all, teaching a foreign language has been always controversial. English came to be the language of globalisation. Replacing Latin and Greek, it was taught following several methods. The inherited GTM, The Audiolingual Method, The Direct Method, and the modified CBE (CBLT), among others, were used to teach English to non-natives. This includes teaching paragraph's writing that –in its turn- becomes a major focus of scholars. The Product Approach, The Process Approach, and The Genre Approach are typical examples of procedures of how writing is taught. Spelling, thoroughly, received certain emphasis. This, however, have not prevented learners from committing numerous errors, mainly misspellings.

Chapter Three. Potential Sources of Errors

Introduction

So far, CA and EA, in respect to certain teaching methods, teaching writing' approaches and spelling instructional procedures, were briefly discussed. Meanwhile, in this chapter, a bird's-eye view on the sources of errors in learners' outcomes will be provided. This, certainly, will be supported by several accounts of aphasiologists, neuro-linguists and psycholinguists on how language exists in the brain, and how multiple linguistic systems might affect each other.

1. The Language and the Brain

Dealing with English as a subsequent language implies many unrevealed questions. First, assuming that language is located on the individual's tongue or lips proves its superficiality. Deaf and mute persons are equally able to possess a form of language (comprehension, production of written forms and the like). For that reason, it has been the centre of neuro-linguists' interest how two –or more- languages' systems are related in the brain. Many have attempted to claim their concern about the topic, that of bilingualism. Weinreich (1953) provided his typology: coordinate-compound-subordinate. Later, Ervin and Osgood (1954) revised it to become: coordinate-compound' dichotomy (cited in Appel and Muysken (2005)).

1.1. The Coordinate-Compound-Subordinate' Typology

Weinreich (ïbid) distinguishes among three forms of bilingualism: coordinate (A), compound (B) and subordinate (C). For the first type, the two linguistic systems exist in parallel, i.e. one system independent from the other. Meanwhile, the two linguistic systems are unified in the second form, compound. Subordinate form is when one system (dominant) is used intensively and the other (non-dominant) supports it (repair failures or breakdowns). To illustrate, an English learner of Russian knows –at least- the word *"Книга: kníga /kniga/"* (*book*). The three form of bilingualism can be represented in the following scheme (*figure 3.1*):
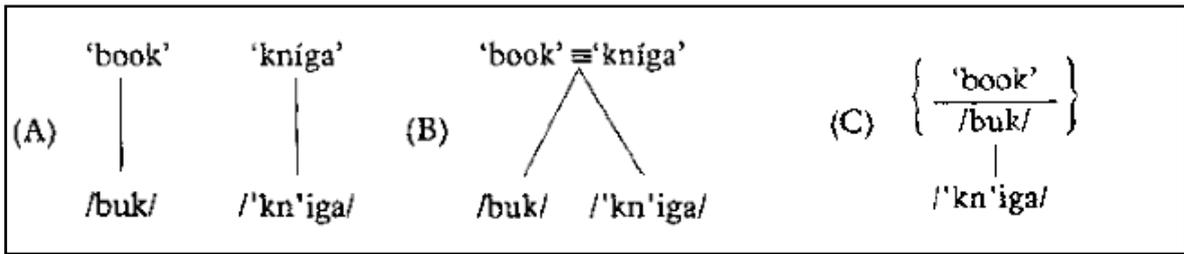
Figure.3.1. An Illustrative Scheme of Weinreich Typology of Bilingualism (Appel and Muysken, 2005:75).

1.2. The Coordinate-Compound' Dichotomy

Weinreich's Typology of Bilingualism (1953) (localisation of the linguistic systems in the brain) did not last for so long before receiving a review. Ervin and Osgood (1954) distinguish solely between two bilingualism' forms: *coordinate* and *compound*. They denied the existence of a subordinated form. Hence, it was labelled within the compound one. This classification, according to Ervin and Osgood (1954) cited in Appel and Muysken (2005), is attributed to the way those two languages were acquired. On the one hand, an individual who acquires two linguistic systems in two separate contexts will develop a coordinated-bilingual' brain. On the other, the compound form is generated when the two languages are acquired and used within the same setting. To sum up, knowing how two –or more- languages are located in, acquired and used by the brain is essential to predict certain errors' origins in the TL' outcomes.

2. The Brain's Disorders

It is of a great importance to educators to enrich their understanding of the human brain and its functionality. The main reason for this necessity is helping learners progress effectively –and rapidly if possible- to accomplish a remarkable successfulness. For instance: boosting learners' memory (storage, retrieval, among others) by scientifically knowing how it works. Moreover, understanding the brain's areas functionality and its impact on language' performance. In regard to this, Landau and Jackendoff (1993) hypothesized that there –at least- two brain's systems, namely: *what* and *where*. The former is used to express *objects*, while the latter stands for *places*. Accordingly, Neuroplasticity is identified as the brain's ability to shape, develop and change the function

of each area within it. Loritz (1999). These occur simultaneously with the individual's improvement of knowledge: learning new items. In linguistics and languages' education, there have been several attempts to implicate some findings into teaching languages.

2.1. Broca's Aphasia

After a series of consultation on patient Tan, who suffered from several speech anomalies, Broca (1861) believes that the human's speech is located in the brain's third left frontal convolution (cited in Berker et al. (1986)). This patient was named after the only word he could utter. After his death, Broca performed an autopsy on his brain, and discovered damage of the above mentioned area. Nowadays, any lesion applied on this area is believed to cause *Broca's Aphasia* (also known as: *Non-Fluent Aphasia*). Patients have difficulties in the production of speech: making meaningless sentences that lacks grammar and coherence. This equally covers both: spoken and written discourse. It occurs at different levels of seriousness, yet hardly diagnosed or cured. In the case being investigated, some errors might be caused by Broca's Aphasia; however, it is difficult –if not impossible- to confidently attribute any –or some- misspelling(s) to Broca's Aphasia.

2.2. Wernicke's Aphasia

Another form of aphasia is the one that affects the brain's receptionist area. The German aphasiologist Carl Wernicke (1874) receives the credit for the discovery and identification of this area (cited in Eling (1994)). According to him, the sensory language centre is responsible for processing the incoming language' input. Any injury or inborn' deformity would result in a deficit in language reception and understanding. Thus, patients, suffering from Wernicke's aphasia, are more likely to lack language' comprehension. According to Eling (1994:66):

> "Subcortical sensory aphasia" was the term used by Wernicke to describe the consequence of a lesion in the connections between the primary acoustic cortex and the surrounding association cortex. Often this type of disturbance is also called "pure word deafness". The patient may hear the sounds but is unable to interpret the sounds as language expressions. A lesion in the association itself was called "cortical sensory aphasia" and

resulted in the well-known symptoms of auditory comprehension impairment, fluent paraphasic aphasia with word finding difficulty.

In addition to that, Eling (1994) believes that this type of aphasia is accompanied by the presence of *agraphia*: absence of connection between the written response and its corresponding concept. This form of aphasia is diagnosed at different levels of seriousness. In light of these, the existence of learners, possessing Wernicke's Aphasia, within an EFL' classroom may result in a course's delivery failure. Yet, those learners will fail to apply the presented rules appropriately because they had not been receiving it completely. It is worth mentioning that –along with Broca's Aphasia's- Wernicke's Aphasia's diagnosis, especially within the sample being studied, is difficult, if not impossible. Nevertheless, certain systematic errors might be attributed to Wernicke's Aphasia.

Apart from some mental disorders such as: dyslexia or aphasia, EFL learners commit many errors in all language' aspects. Among these: misidentification/mispronunciation of several sounds or words in a listening/speaking' activity, or even false decoding of written pieces of language. Most importantly, errors in writing are a serious issue that encounter both learners and teachers of English. This covers: grammatical mistakes, misuse of prepositions or punctuation's marks, and misspellings, including typographic ones.

3. Contrastive Errors

Aside from the biological disorders, mentioned earlier, and their role in the occurrence of faulty usages of language by learners, many other sources of errors can be sorted. In order to reveal this ambiguity, an understanding of learners' cognitive processes must be provided. In the mid-twentieth century, language acquisition process received an ascending interest by psychologists –more precisely: psycholinguists-. Following this, Selinker (1972) identifies the *interlanguage*. He coined this term to represent the psychological structure made by an adult in the process of learning a second language. It consists of two main linguistics systems: MT' and TL'. In light of this, the reader might consider the role of the learners' MT as a source of errors.

According to Taylor (1976), certain errors are attributed to, or activated by, a previously-learnt linguistic system. This latter is usually the learners' MT. He labelled this type of errors as *non-contrastive*. This claim is supported by Richards (1971, 1974), as will be explained later. A representative example of an interlingual error can be demonstrated as follows (*table 3.1*):

(a) German construction	(b) English construction
Seit zwei Wochen bin ich hier	Since two weeks I am here.

Table.3.1. Geraman versus English Structures : A comparison of A German Learner of English.

It is clear that this German learner of English is making a faulty association –at the structural level- between German (a), his MT, and English (b), the TL. This claim was supported by Corder, with a change at the level of terminology. He asserts: "The evidence for this [learners' interlanguage] was the large number of errors which could be ascribed to the process of *transfer*." Corder (1981:2). To support this, in a study of *problem-solving* in physics, McCloskey (1983) recognizes the importation of some misconceptions into a new domain as a critical source of failures in the subject.

4. Non-Contrastive Errors

The belief of MT' unique responsibility of learners' errors must be extremely exclusionary. Hence, Taylor (1976) suggests another vague category of errors' source: *non-contrastive*. This latter includes: general muscular ability, psychological states, teaching methods, styles of course materials, and introduction of written language. Certainly, each of these will be separately addressed; however, it is crucial to note that two –or more- factors may overlap. For instance: physical and psychological states, and the like.

4.1. The Physical State

It is clearly determined that the use of a language (either spoken of written) demands a certain level of physical force. Although this almost goes unnoticed by the

individual himself, or even his fellows, it cannot be neglected. For instance, the articulation of phonemes requires a certain level of air' inhalation and exhalation by the lung, along with the speech organs (tongue, lips, among others). Similarly, handwriting must not be an exception. All in all, fatigue may affect the learner and makes errors occur. Corder (1981) identifies a low physical state as a main source for non-systematic errors. Put simply, physiological fatigue plays a major role in errors' occurrence, but it is not the only reason.

4.2. The Psychological State

As a second or foreign language learner, any individual is a subject to several psychological stressors that affect his/her performance in the TL. Hill and Wigfield (1984:106) claim "Test anxiety is one of the most important aspects of negative motivation and has debilitating effect on school performance."Following this claim, Griffin and Tyrrell (2007) add that high emotional arousal (anger, panic, or love, and the like) would result in a shortage of thinking straight. Many scholars believe in the crucial impact of the learner's emotional state and achievement in the TL. Consequently, a low emotional state, especially the test's accompanying stressor(s), may result in some non-systematic errors by learners.

A related study has been conducted to reveal the impact of anxiety on students' achievement. Abderrezzag (2010). 15 teachers, teaching various modules range from: Oral Expression, Educational Psychology, among others, at the department of foreign languages, University of Constantine, were questioned. In response to the question: "Do you think that anxiety facilitates or inhibits learning?", up to 66% of teachers believe that a high level of anxiety would prevent the students' learning progress. Learners, 20% out of 30 questioned one, assert that nervousness always hinders them from doing well in exams. To conclude, emotional state(s), individual characteristics (extroversion, introversion, and the like) have an important role in learners' success.

4.3. The Cognitive Processes

It is very crucial to account for the role of cognitive processes in the errors' occurrence. Richards (1971) insists on the existence of two main sources of errors:

developmental, *interlingual* and *intralingual*. First, any error resulting from the learners' attempts to build hypotheses about the target language, based on their limited experience, is a classified as developmental. Second, interlingual errors are those caused by a previously learned language, such as MT. Third, intralingual errors are caused by some faulty generalizations or incomplete application of rules, and such. Hence, he subdivided this latter in 4 subclasses: (1) overgeneralization, (2) ignorance of rule restriction, (3) incomplete application of rules, (4) false hypothesis. This was later revised by Richards (1974). Consequently, only two types were noted: interlingual, intralingual and developmental.

If the potential sources of errors are to be identified, the way the learner processes language cannot be left unrevealed. Taylor (1976) identifies *overgeneralisation* as the process through which the infant extends one learnt rule to govern other unknown aspect of language. Corder (1981) refers to this source of errors as *analogical*. As described earlier, this self-hypothesis-testing process may result in flaws in performance. For instance: adding *ed* to the stem to form the past, as in: *He goed*. Unlike the process of importing misconceptions, suggested by McCloskey (1983), Anderson (2008) believes in the existence –and importance- of *within-domain-misconceptions*. In his view, those errors occur because of the prior knowledge of the learner of the domain being studied (be it language).

Regardless, Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977) had shown some reservation on the topic. They claim that the mere distinction between those two sources of errors is very difficult and vague. In light of this, only interlingual interference, both of French, Arabic and possibly Shawi, will be provided, if possible. Other interlingual errors will be classified as *overgeneralization*. Although referring to the two terms interchangeably seems unfair, it will be the case to facilitate the global explanation of misspellings. This is based on the fact that Richards' distinction (1974) is hardly realized when a corpus is analyzed. All in all, the way an individual uses language may lead to some faulty usages, but this is not the only reason.

4.4. Learning and Memory

Memory is considered to be the heart of any cognitive process. Learning, including producing a TL, is strongly related to how human's memory operates. Certainly, most of other sources of errors are –in a way or another- related to memory. Atkinson and Shiffrin (1971) presented the most popular model of memory: The Multi-Store Model. Dividing the memory into two main elements: *short-term* and *long-term*, they believed in the specifications of each part. Short-term Memory (STM), also known as *temporary working memory*, is capacity-limited, and the initial phase of process the incoming environmental and recalled information. Long-term Memory (LTM) functions as the storage of the encoded data. To demonstrate, the following figure (*figure 3.*2) can be very fruitful:
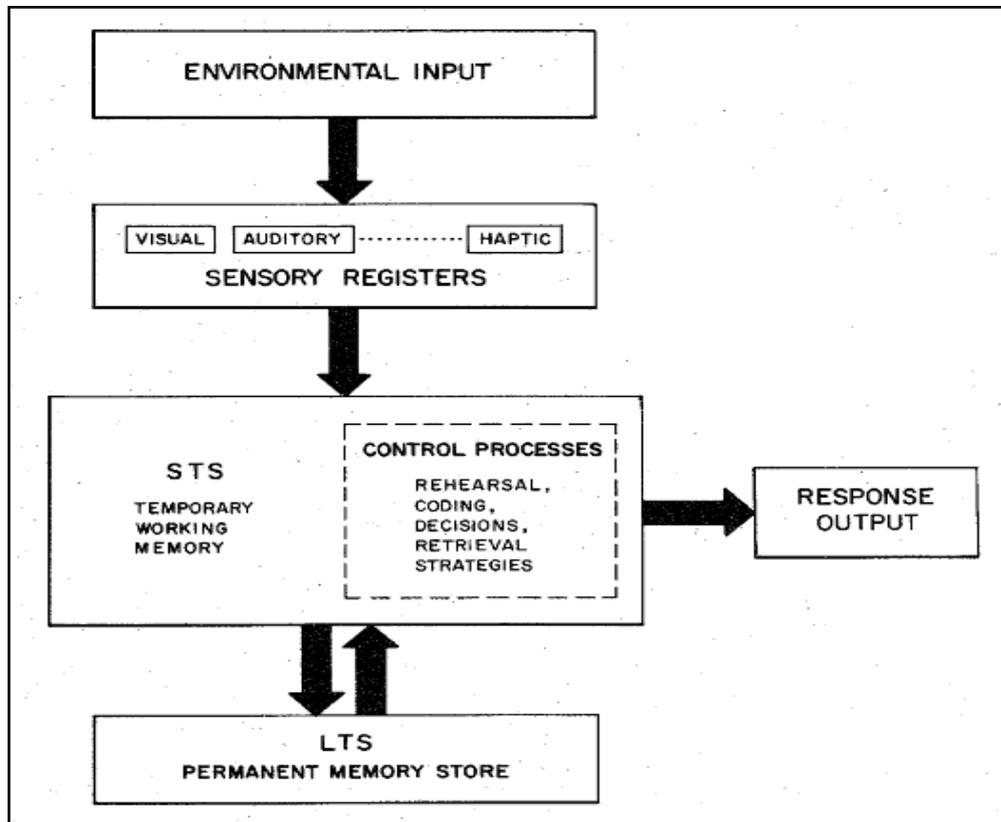
**Figure.3.2. The Multi-Store Model of Memory (Atkinson and Shiffrin, 1971:5).**

Following this model, Long *et al*. (2011) characterize the LTM by: *(a)* very large capacity (typically up to 40,000 words plus associated facts). *(b)* loss (forgetting) mainly by interference. As explained previously, any anomaly affecting: STM, LTM, or even storing/retrieving information may result in several non-systematic errors. As most of

errors' sources determination, the challenge for an analyser is determining which error to be caused by memory's lapse.

4.5. Teaching' Shortcomings and Learning' Deficiencies

Foreign languages' teachers nowadays, especially English' teachers, teach different learners with no less than two linguistic backgrounds in best cases. This leaves them alerted towards many signs of progress within their classes. In many cases, English teachers themselves are not natives, and may/may not share the same MT or SL with their learners. It is of a great importance to note that these differences are endemic in the learning process. Therefore, it should give a clearer view of learners' errors and weaknesses, and help have a better understanding of their needs to adjust further teaching techniques.

Accordingly, Taylor (1976) accounts for the role of teachers in presenting the language. *Ostensive ambiguity*is the term used to indicate the source of errors when the teacher demonstrates a disability of synchronizing and correlating language's patterns. Furthermore, considering the materials used, he prefers a random exposure to language –to the structured presentations. This is due to the frequency-maintained' exposure to language' elements in a random selection. Certainly, materials should not be abstract in full when presented to learners. Under this, Harmer (2007) believes that handwriting might be a challenge for many teachers, consequently learners. Moreover, the uncertainty spreading among teachers, especially at the Algerian universities, upon the selection of using either British or American English, including spelling, might confuse learners. In sum, an explanation of how teaching' methods may affect learners' performance, mostly negatively, has been presented earlier.

4.6. The English-Arabic Distance

Lado (1957) believes in the importance of distance of MT, and its culture, from the TL and its impact on learning' success. Applying it on the case of Arabic learners of English, many ambiguities are revealed. Arabic, in respect to its controversial origins and history, is considered to be distant from English –in regard to other Germanic or Latin

languages. Arabic uses different alphabetical system, right to left, phonological system, and sentence structure varies deeply (Arabic: Verb + Subject + Object / English: Subject +Verb + Object). Regardless to the fact that the learners, sample being studied, were taught French, closer to English, at an early age, Arabic distance from English causes many difficulties to both learning and using English. Simply put, "many students whose native language orthography is very different from English have difficulty forming English letters …" Harmer (2007:324).

5. Errors in Spelling

In addition to the general sources of errors, mainly in writing, mentioned earlier, there still other specific issues that result exclusively in non-accuracy in spelling. "English spelling is, unfortunately, full of traps and snares, such as silent letters, double letters and different spellings for the same sound." Davidson (2005:preface). To start with, one cannot neglect the complex nature of English' spelling. This can historically traced back to the reform on English, especially its spelling. For instance: doubling letters, silent letters, intrusive letters, and grammatical category among others. In addition to that, the learners' ignorance of spelling patterns, i.e. rules, is strongly believed to be crucial source of errors. Most importantly, the spelling-pronunciation non-correspondence must be addressed.

5.1. The History of English Spelling

Knowing English' History, mainly spelling, would explain much of its complexity. Professor Kemmer, Rice University, presents a very comprehensible course of linguistics in which a sketch of different periods that English has been through. Kemmer (2015) traces back English to the Roman raids on British Isles and Romanization of Britons. After the Roman' Empire's collapse in the 5th Century, many German tribes started to migrate to the west and south. The following table (*table 3.2*) summarizes the following periods:

Period	Duration	Characteristics
The Pre-English Period	400-600	Germanic dialects, borrowed words from Latin.

The Old English: The Anglo-Saxon English	600-1100	•Emergence of written English due to the Christianisation of British Isles (among Anglo-Saxons) by the Roman missionary St. Augustine and his fellows. •Beowulf is the greatest work of this period: an epic poem. •840s to 870s knew vague raids of Vikings on England. •England was divided into two regions: one governed by the Anglo-Saxon, the other by the Scandinavian. •Danes and English became ultimately undistinguishable. •English borrowed many words, such as: *they*, *them*, *their*. • William the Conqueror won The Battle of Hastings.
The Middle English Period	1100-1500	•English became the language of lower classes (peasants and slaves). •Norman French becomes the language of court and propertied classes. •Bilingualism became more common, especially among those who deal with various classes. • English had many loan words. • French orthographic standards were used. '*Quick*' was spelt '*cuic*'. • 1300s: increasing feeling towards the belonging to English, not French. • Nobility started to educate their children in English. • French was taught as foreign language. • 1339: Hundred Years' War: France versus England. • English shifted to substitute French in the court. • 1474: Process of standardizing English Spelling started with the publication of the first book in England by William Caxton.
The Modern English Period	1500-Present	▪ *1500-1650: The Early Modern English Period:* • 16th Century: The Great Vowel Shift. • Publication of King James' Bible (much influential till the present day). • Shakespeare works: a genius combination of English and borrowed words. ▪ *1650-presnt day English Period:* • Classical period of English literature. • Emergence of various sciences: coining words using *Latin* and *Greek* morphemes. • 17th to 19th Century: British Imperialism, borrowing from many languages around the world. • 19th and 20th Century: Scientific and Industrial Revolution, English becoming a lingua franca. • World War Two: American political, economic and military supremacy. • Invention of new communication channels: internet, texting, and the like. • The use of abbreviations and contracted forms (violating spelling standards).

		• English continue to borrow new words: arrival of immigrants, mainly to the US, GB.

Table.3.2. A chronology of English language.

This historical overview reveals how today's English is influenced by other languages, especially Dutch and French. Spelling standards, in its turn, has been through many changes. This explains the nowadays spelling' complexity, and learning' difficulties. In light of this, Davidson (2005:19) asserts:

> If William the Conqueror had lost the Battle of Hastings,
> English today might be a language not unlike Dutch, and
> English spelling would almost certainly be a lot easier than
> it is.

5.2. The Cut Spelling Approach

The Cut Spelling Approach (CS) is a new linguistic movement introduced by the Simplified Spelling Society back in the 1990s. As the name suggests, it aims at eliminating unnecessary (redundant) letters. The ultimate aim for this is making writing faster, using less space, and facilitating teaching and learning processes. Proponents of this approach attribute their trend of economizing language to the individuals' need of spending less effort on a task (writing). There are three main aspects of *elimination* to be addressed. These are: letters irrelevant to pronunciation (*honest>onest*), unstressed vowels (*system>systm*), and simplifying doubled letters (*staff>staf*). Substitution, certainly, is concerned, and the main focus is on the different resemblance of /f/: *laugh>laf* and *philosophy>filosofy*. Simply put, the CS project is a natural approach that confirms the complexity of orthography in English.

5.3.The Complex Nature of English Spelling

English spelling is as complex as to the extent that even native speakers struggle to avoid errors in their written productions. One important reason is the different representations of the same sound, and various realizations of some letters, especially when combined together. English is, generally, made of *26* letters of the Roman and Latin Alphabet, but when these are put into words, they form about *44* sounds either singly or

combined together. For example: /i:/ can be spelt 'ee', 'ie', 'ei' or'ea' as in: 'keen', 'piece' 'receive' and 'peace'. Similarly, the letter 'C' is considered to be one of the trickiest letters for many learners. It is pronounced /k/ as in 'car', but it is an /s/ as in 'race'. In the same row, we must mention the effect of word's grammatical class on the learners' orthographic competency. To illustrate, "advice" and "advise" are often confused by learners due to that minute difference. To confirm, minimal homographs are considered to be a solid proof the English' spelling complexity. One well-know set of words that explain this is: *through*, *tough*, *thorough*, *thought*, and *though*.

5.4. The Spelling-Pronunciation' Non-Correspondence

"A number of errors can quite easily be classified in terms of transfer from written to spoken mode and *vice versa*." Taylor (1976:192). English consists of many words where –at least- one letter is doubled. For instance: *pill, class* and *staff.* This should not be considered as a dilemma unless we realize that there is no clear sign of doubling the final letter when such words are pronounced or dictated. Moreover, *write, knife* and *walk* are examples of how tricky the silent letters can be to several learners. Moreover, rare cases where some intrusive sound(s) is(are) added, such as: lieutenant /lef'tenənt/, should be regarded as essential in EFL classes as to the fact that they confuse learners from possessing the orthographic competency. As a conclusion, the mismatch of English' spelling-pronunciation frequently results in spelling' errors.

Conclusion

This chapter discussed thoroughly the potential sources of errors committed by EFL learners. Certain contributory factors were addressed. This was approached from various perspectives. These were: neurological, physical, psychological, cognitive, educational, historical and structural, among others. The brain's structure, and difficulty accompanying diagnosing it, results in certain ambiguities concerning the localisation of language within it, yet its learning and practicing. Psychological and physical factors are believed to be overlapping, not only dually, but with other elements such as teaching and learning procedures, and accompanying surroundings (learning situation (s)).

Chapter Four. Practice: Corpus Analysis

Introduction

This final chapter will be dedicated for the study of the corpus. To accomplish this, a pilot study (5 answers' sheets) had been conducted. Therefore, several difficulties were revealed, which in turn demanded some changes on the procedure. Next, an error analysis of the main sample is performed. This includes: the identification, description, and explanation of the orthographical errors. Finally, certain general conclusions are provided.

1. The Population

The sample selected for this study is third year students of English, academic year 2014-2015, Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages, Mohamed Khider University of Biskra. Mainly, it had been chosen thanks to its easy-accessibility. Third year students have been through intensive paragraph's writing teaching sessions, one hour and a half, twice a week for six semesters. Third year in the LMD system first cycle (License) is the initiative of essay's writing, which means learners are –or at least supposed to be- mastering writing single isolated paragraphs. Essay's writing, at elementary phases, requires students to complete some unfinished essays (write an introduction, a conclusion, and the like). In addition, WE is a core form-based module: the student's overall grade may heavily depend on its grade. Therefore, students' high motivational level is guaranteed. Exams' anxiety, frustration, and accompanying consequences are believed to be reduced due to students' familiarity with it (five similar exams have been already taken, and mostly passed).

It is worth mentioning that students came from different high schools' study streams, which are: letters, foreign languages, or scientific branches. Furthermore, MKUB, thanks to its location, is commonly known to be a melting-pot, more precisely: a cross-linguistic university. Many students speak Shawi, a regional dialect of Tamazight. Not only this, all students were taught French at an early age (10, fourth class of primary schools). The 2015' graduating class had a total number of 372 students, subdivided into 10 groups (40 per each: ranges from 35 to 45). Teachers, unfortunately, do not have real opportunities to individually interact with each student. They practically rely on lecturing

in delivering instructions. A set of homework, periodical graded test, and in-class activities are used to monitor students' progress

2. The Procedure of Analysis

As far as this study is set to understand a dichotomous variable (i.e. a spelling error may/may not occur), a quantitative method should fulfil the purpose. The sample should be as small as possible, but also representative. Document analysis will be used as a data collection tool. Primarily, answer sheets of Written Expression' final exams, a core module in third year' programme, will be withdrawn from the department' stockroom. Thus, the needed part of each copy will be duplicated, i.e. paragraph. The average estimation for paragraph's length is eight lines, as most instructions demand, that confront us with about eighty words per each paragraph.

Next, a prototype of a worksheet, containing the most anticipated errors so far, will be established. The worksheet formula will be as follow: 'TNW' stands for the total number of words, 'GB' for a British spelled copy, 'AM' for an American spelled copy, 'K' for any spelling error, 'D' for doubling, 'ND' for non-doubling, 'I' for intrusive letter(s), 'M' for missing letter(s), 'DO' for disordered letter(s), 'MX' for mixing, and 'NonEN' for any word that contains more than 3 errors (non-English construction). Then, each paragraph will be scanned intensively, and the corresponding heading in the worksheet will be ticked/filled. The worksheet remains flexible for any additional headings. Each word will be examined in regard to its position in the sentence. Certain words might be spelled correctly, but misspelled in respect to its function. For instance: 'advise' and 'advice'.

More to mention, students are instructed to use the British spelling by most teachers; however, some other teachers show no concern of this issue. Each paragraph will be examined regarding to the British spelling. Nevertheless, American spelling will be the criterion to which we consider errors if it is used consistently. Consequently, the copy that contains a combination of both spellings will be examined in regard to the British spelling. By then, any word spelled correctly, following American spelling, will be considered as an error (Mixing) if it does not match the British spelling.

3. The Pilot Study

This pilot study was conducted to examine the effectiveness of the proposed analysis' procedure. 5 answers' sheets of Written Expression (WE), third year License final exam 2015, were randomly withdrawn from the department. The needed part (paragraph) was duplicated and kept, while the original copy was returned to the stockroom. To do this, an authorized demand, for accessing the department' stockroom, had been gained from the Head. Next, a prototype of a worksheet was prepared (*figure 4.1*).

Error Analysis: Misspellings in Paragraphs

(*Worksheet*)

Sample N°: .....

Category	TNW	K	D	ND	I	M	DO	MX	NonEN

Figure.4.1. Pilot Study: Prototype of the Worksheet.

The first column (*Category*) stands for the type of spelling' standards considered. As explained earlier, American Spelling (abbreviated *AM*) will be the criterion to which errors are counted only, and only if, used consistently. Otherwise, British (abbreviated *GB*) will be considered, and any American spelled word, that does not match British spelling' standards will be referred to as an error (mixture: *MX*). The remaining acronyms used are interpreted as follow (*table 4.1*):

TNW	K	D	ND	I	M	DO	NonEN
Total number of words for each copy	Total number of spotted errors	Doubled letter	Non-doubled letter	Intrusive (inserted) letter	Missing letter	Disordered letters	A meaningless word (more than 3 errors at once)

Table.4.1. Pilot Study: List of Acronyms Used in the Worksheet.

3.1. Description of the Exam

The final exam generally takes place in an amphitheatre, first two weeks of May. The WE exam duration is 1.5 hour. There were different questions such as:

(a) Write a topic statement for a given idea (importance of visiting a foreign country).

(b) Questions for a general understanding (elements of an essay, its types, and the like).

Mainly, the question whose answers were studied, was as follow:

"Write an introductory paragraph for one of the following thesis statement:

1. *Transportation technology has led to an increase in pollution of global air, water, and food resources.*

2. *Most people get their style, attitude, and behaviors from those around them, media and society"*

The first remark to make here is that the examiner (teacher) follows the American spelling standards (2nd question: *behaviors*).

3.2. Identification and Explanation of Errors (Misspellings)

The first step is to identify errors. First, each copy was scanned intensively. Hence, both: the variety of spelling standards was determined, and the TNW was counted. The following table (*table 4.2*) demonstrates the results:

| N° of Sample	Category	Total Number of Words	
1	GB	60	
2	GB	150	
3	GB	159	
4	GB	112	
5	GB	73	
5	/	554	Total
/	/	110.8	The mean (average)
/	/	1574.16	The Variance
/	/	39.68	The Standard Deviation

Table.4.2. Pilot Study: Category of English spelling for each copy, and Total Number of Words

From the obtained results, the smallest number of words per each paragraph is 60; however, the largest one is 159. Consequently, the average for this sample is 111 words per each paragraph. We note that all copies were following British Spelling' Standards. The next step is to identify errors within this sample; the following table (*table 4.3*) exhibits the obtained results, in addition to the percentage of errors –inrespect to the total number of words:

N°	TNW	K	K to TNW %	
1	60	3	5	
2	150	2	1.33	
3	159	12	7.55	
4	112	11	9.82	
5	73	2	2.7	
5	554	30	5.42	Total
/	110.8	6	5.42	The Mean

Table.4.3. Pilot Study: Identification and Quantification of Errors.

This table shows that the average number of errors (misspellings) per each paragraph is 5. This ranges from 2 (smallest) to 12 (largest). The following graphs (*figure 4.2*and*4.3*) summarize it:
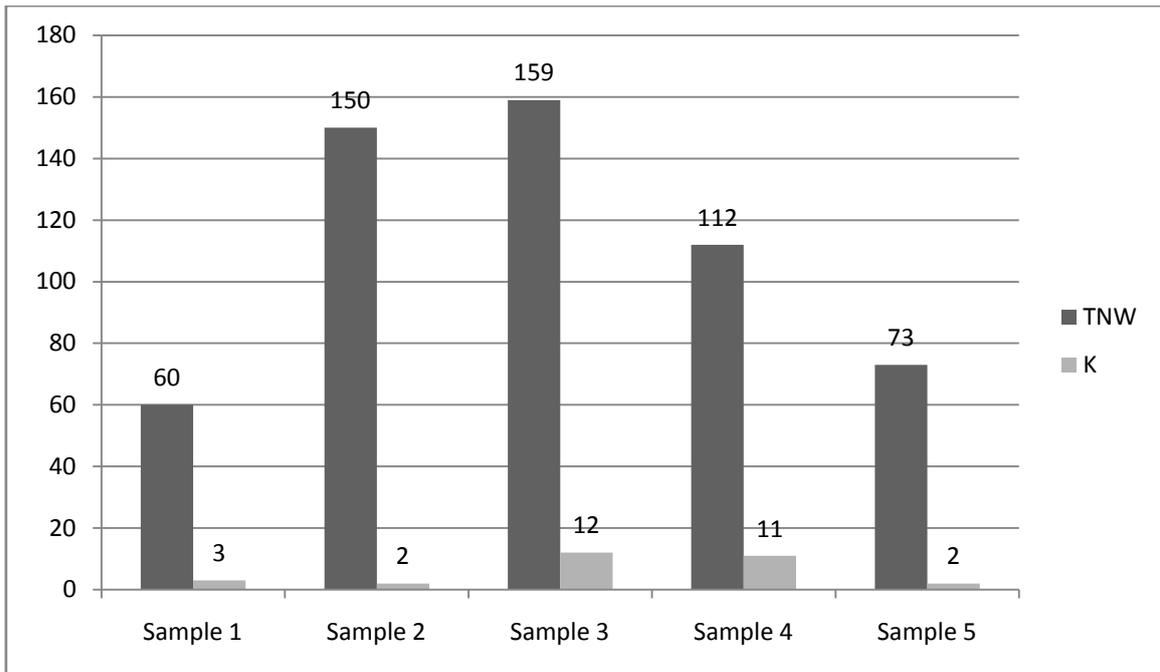
Figure.4.2. Pilot Study: Identification, Quantification and Description of Errors For Each Paragraph.
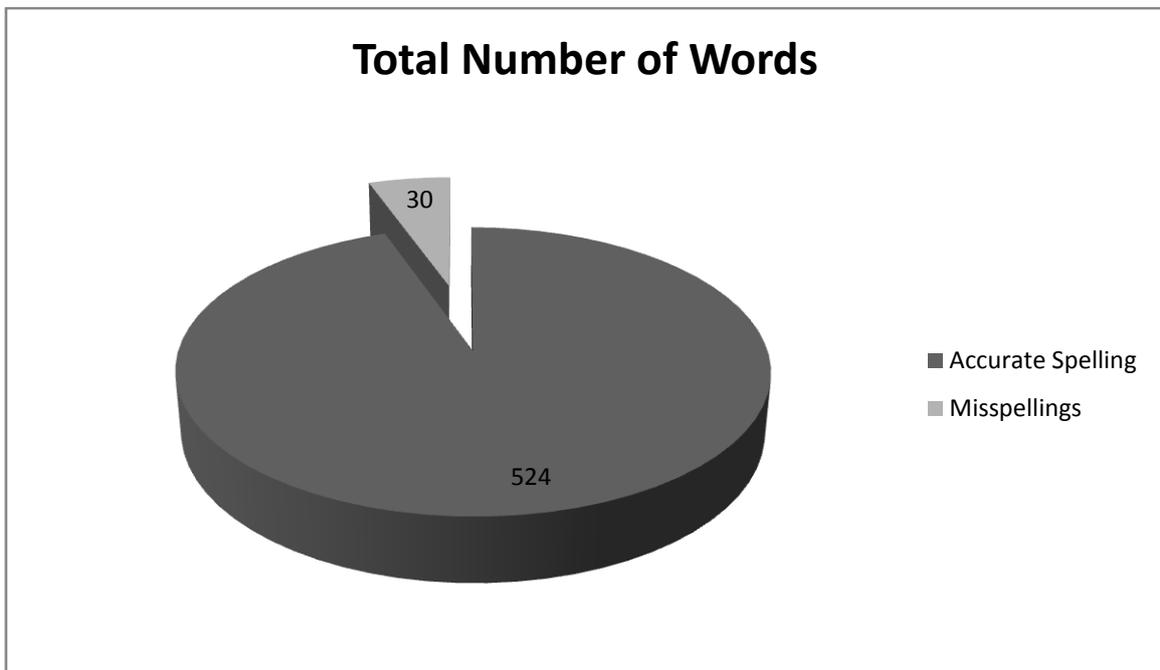
Figure.4.3. Pilot Study: Identification, Quantification and Description of Errors for the Whole Sample.

The denoted errors were classified according to their type (as mentioned in the worksheet), the following table (*table 4.4*) and graph (*figure 4.4*) displays the findings:

N°	D	ND	I	M	DO	MX	NonEN	
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	
2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	
3	1	2	0	1	2	1	3	
4	1	0	0	3	1	0	4	
5	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	
5	3	2	2	5	3	1	9	Total

Table.4.4. Pilot Study: A Detailed Quantification and Classification of Errors.
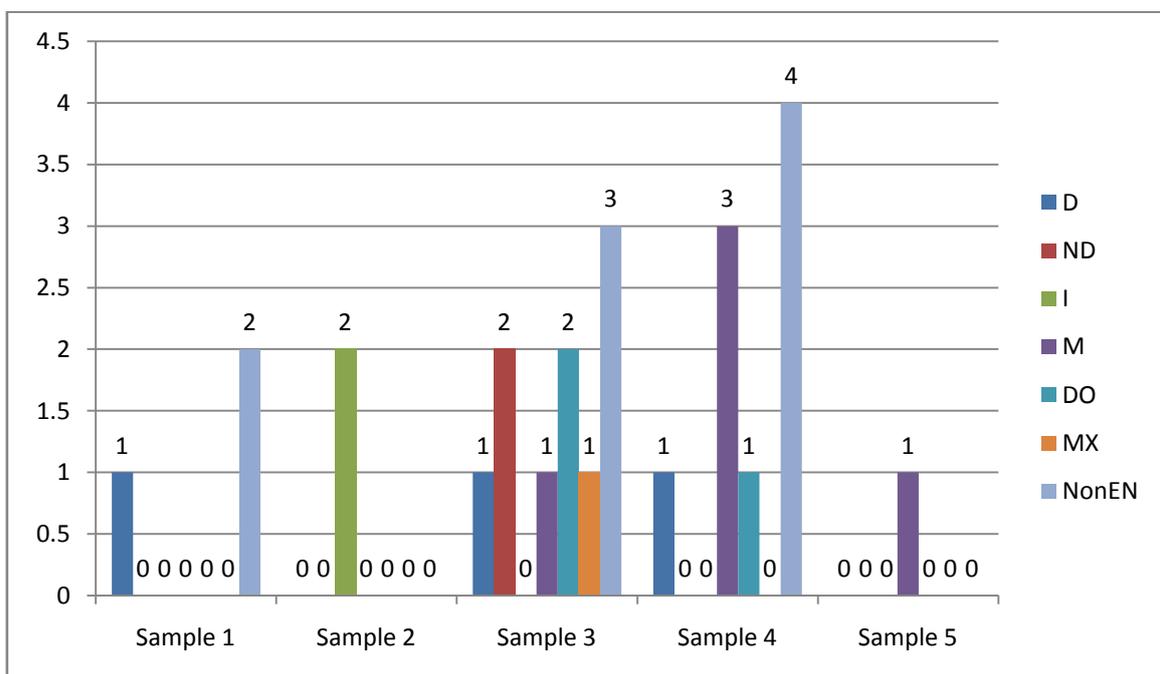
Figure.4.4. Pilot Study: A detailed Quantification of Errors.

Substitution, replacing one letter by another, was identified as another type of errors in spelling, which is the most fruitful benefit of this pilot study. It was abbreviated as 'Sub', and added to the worksheet's prototype. In light of this, the following table (*table 4.5*) demonstrates the number of misspellings in which one letter was wrongly substituted by another:

N° of Sample	Sub	
1	0	
2	0	
3	2	
4	2	
5	1	
5	5	Total

Table.4.5. Pilot Study: Quantification of Misspellings (Substitution).

By adding *substitution* to the list of errors' types, a final quantification, of the different types of misspellings, and their percentage from the total number of errors, can be summarized in the following table (*table 4.6*):

Types of Misspellings	Quantity	Percentage to K %	
D	3	10	
ND	2	6.67	
I	2	6.67	
M	5	16.76	
DO	3	10	
MX	1	3.33	
NonEN	9	30	
Sub	5	16.76	
K	30	100	Total

Table.4.6. Pilot Study: Quantification and Categorization of Errors and its Percentages.
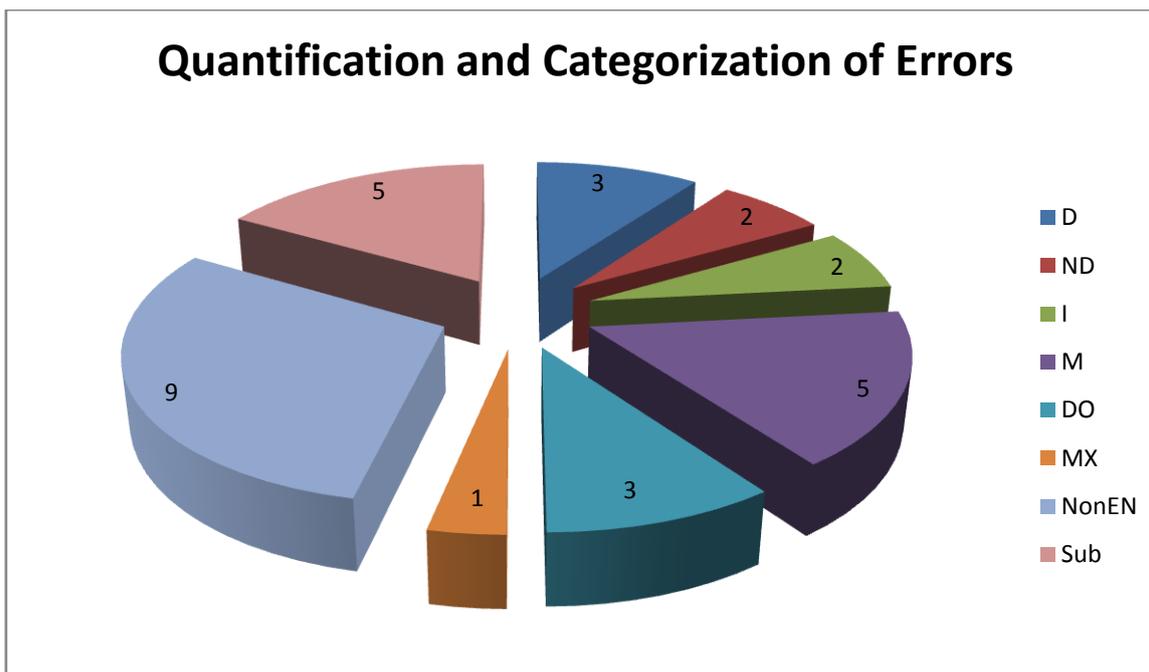
Figure.4.5. Pilot Study: Representation of Quantification and Categorization of Errors.

Results show that *sample 4* contains the largest number of errors (11); however, *Sample 5* and *2* are the ones with the fewest number of errors (2). The mean of errors per each paragraph is *5*. On the one hand, the most frequently committed error is 'NonEN': giving a non-English word. It is assumed that students have incomplete knowledge of the spelling' standards, which may be caused by instructional deficit. On the other hand, mixing occurs only once, and the misspelled word was '*behavior*'. This is probably caused by the second question's usage of American spelling' standards.

Misspelling	Diffrent	Thier	Peopl's	visite
Number of Repetition	2	3	2	1

Table.4.7. Pilot Study: Frequently Misspelled Words.

The above table (*table 4.7*) represents the most frequently misspelled words. It reveals that there is a negative transfer from French to English.

   (a) Visite: adding *e* at the end (very common in French nouns' orthography).

   (b) Peopl's: removing *e* (vowel) after adding an apostrophic *s* (removing the final vowel and replace it by an apostrophe).

Other source could be the spelling-pronunciation non-correspondence: Different: /dɪfrənt/ > diffrent. The students relied on their ears, and transcribed the word. Furthermore, the word *their* was wrongly spelled 3 times as *thier*. In fact, there might be many explanation of this error. First, it can be attributed to a memory's lapse, or the frustration of exam and time's constraints. Nonetheless, it can be traced back to be a learners' incomplete knowledge of the combination *i* and *e*.

This pilot study had benefited the whole research in several ways. First, adding: *substitution* (SUB) and *handwriting* (HDW) as two additional headings on the worksheet. These two types of errors were identified during the analysis of the pilot study' sample. In sum, the pilot study was very helpful in having a general idea of the corpus, and the procedure of analysis.

4.The Main Study

After having conducting a pilot study, the main analysis takes place. In light of the earlier findings, certain modifications on the worksheet were made. In addition to 'sub' as a new errors' category, 'HDW' was –similarly- added to represent a non-accurate handwriting that results in an ambiguity at the orthographic level. This will be explained in details whenever encountered. The worksheet's final version will be as follow (*figure 4.6*):

Error Analysis: Misspellings in Paragraphs

(*Worksheet*)

Sample N°: .....

Category	TNW	K	D	ND	I	M	DO	MX	NonEN	Sub	HDW

Figure.4.6. The Worksheet's Final Version.

This worksheet is used to examine 40 exam's answers sheets (10% of the whole population). Same procedure, that of the pilot study, is followed.

4.1. Description of the Exam

The final exam and its conditions and circumstances are the same. Despite of this, the question is different. It is noted that grading system is different from one group to another. For some, the question was out of 6 points (06/20); however, for others it is 8 points (08/20). No instruction for accuracy is provided, including accurate spelling. In many cases, the teacher provides oral explanation of some ambiguities. In this case, it was not at our disposal to confirm/refuse this. The question, whose answers will be diagnosed, is as follow:

ACTIVITY ONE (06pts):write a conclusion for the following introduction

The introduction

> For many high schools students, sports play an important part in their lives. For some, sports offer an opportunity to be a part of a team and to be accepted by their peers. To others, sports teach sportsmanship, discipline, and cooperation. For me, playing baseball on our high school team has been an important part of my life. It helps me to keep in shape, it has taught me the importance of practice and hard work, and it makes me popular with the girls.

4.2. Identification of Misspellings

The copies were thoroughly scanned. First, each copy was numbered consecutively from 1 to 40. Second, the total number of words per each paragraph had been counted then registered. Next, the category (British or American) of spelling was determined. Finally, errors were identified, counted then recorded. The following table (*table4.8*) expresses the results:

§	Category	TNW	K
1	GB	84	0
2	GB	72	2
3	GB	30	0

4	GB	69	4	
5	GB	58	2	
6	GB	55	1	
7	GB	54	1	
8	GB	57	2	
9	GB	34	1	
10	GB	50	1	
11	GB	65	3	
12	GB	66	10	
13	GB	50	2	
14	GB	73	3	
15	GB	89	3	
16	GB	101	1	
17	GB	49	6	
18	GB	40	1	
19	GB	36	1	
20	GB	81	3	
21	GB	54	6	
22	GB	64	1	
23	GB	60	0	
24	GB	56	0	
25	GB	46	2	
26	GB	54	7	
27	GB	60	3	
28	GB	31	0	
29	GB	97	1	
30	GB	54	2	
31	GB	58	0	
32	GB	98	9	
33	GB	64	1	
34	GB	37	3	
35	GB	60	10	
36	GB	85	1	
37	GB	78	8	
38	GB	73	3	
39	GB	56	1	
40	GB	54	1	
40	/	2398	105	**Total**
/	/	59.95	2.63	**The Mean**
/	/	316.83	7.59	**The Variance**
/	/	17.8	2.75	**The Standard Deviation**

Table.4.8. Identification of Misspellings.
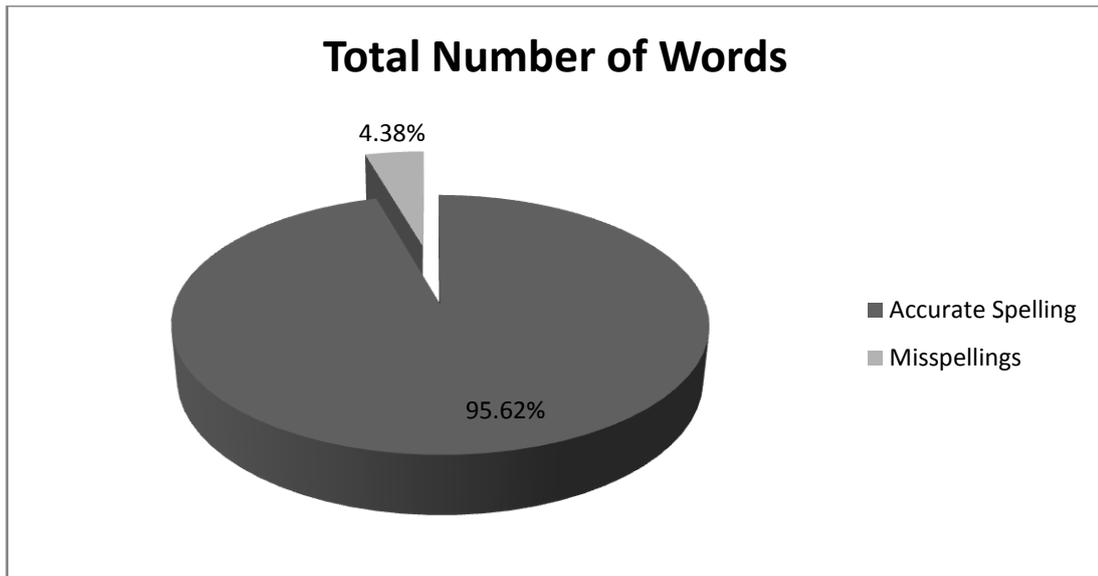
Figure.4.7. Comparison of Accurate Spellings and Misspellings.

This table (*table 4.8*) shows that the TNW ranges from 30 to 101 words per each copy (paragraph). The mean is 60 words. 21 copies have less than 60 words; however, the rest have at least 60 or more (*figure 4.8*). The Copy *§16* has the largest number of words (101); while copy *§3* has the fewest (30 words only). Misspellings, meanwhile, range from 0 to 10 per each. 15 copies hold 3 or more errors; by contrast, 25 copies enclose 1, 2 or no error at all (*figure 4.9*). Accordingly, 6 copies have no misspelling. The copies *§12* and *§35* contain the largest number of errors (10). The remark to be made here is that some learners' handwriting caused certain ambiguities, yet difficulties spotting the misspellings. Other aspect is the unique use of British Spelling Standards for the whole sample.
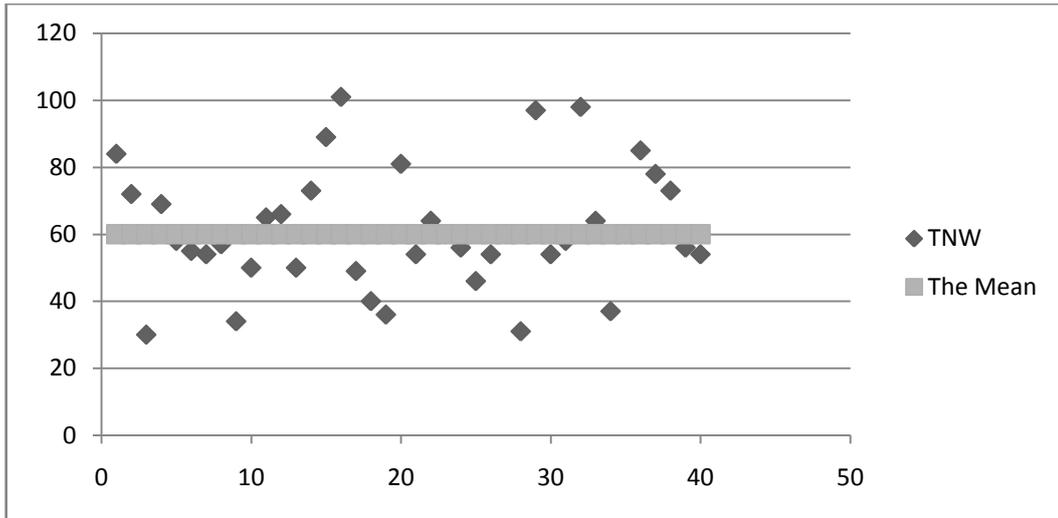
Figure.4.8. Representation of TNW in Relation to its Mean.
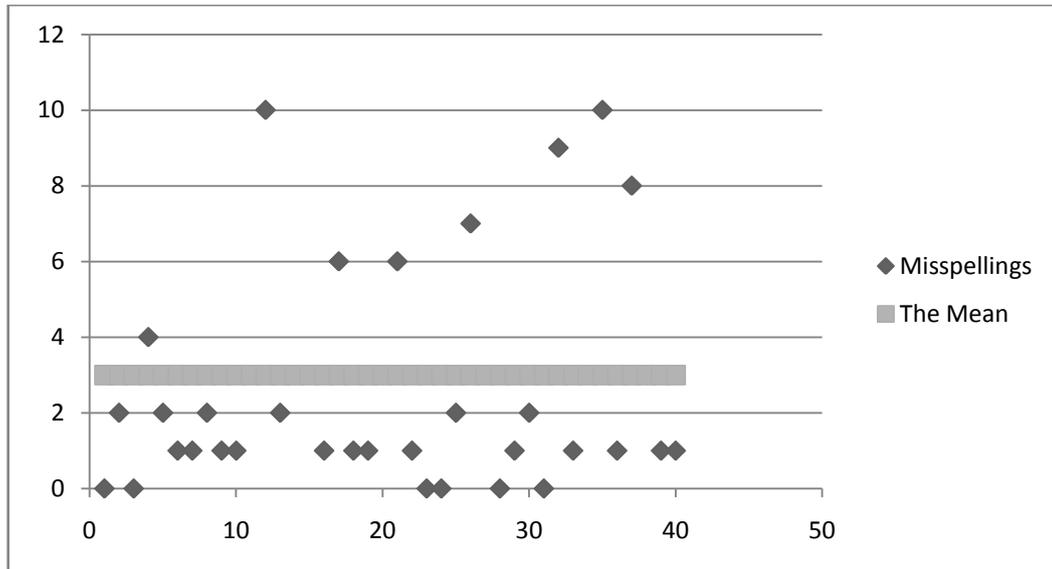
Figure.4.9. Representation of Errors in Relation to its Mean.

4.3. Description of Misspellings

The next step is to categorize the misspellings. The following table (*table 4.9*) illustrates the quantity of each type of misspelling for each paragraph.

§	D	ND	I	M	DO	MX	NonEN	SUB	HDW
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

	D	ND	I	M	DO	MX	NonEN	Sub	HDW	
4	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	1	0	
5	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	
6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	
8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	
9	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	
10	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	
11	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	
12	0	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	0	
13	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	
14	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	
15	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	
16	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	
17	1	2	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	
18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	
19	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	
20	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	
21	0	1	0	1	2	0	1	0	0	
22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	
23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
25	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	
26	0	3	0	1	0	0	1	2	0	
27	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	
28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
29	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	
30	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	
31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
32	0	0	1	2	0	0	1	5	0	
33	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	
34	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	
35	0	0	1	1	2	1	0	5	0	
36	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	
37	0	0	3	1	0	0	2	2	0	
38	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	
39	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	
40	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	
40	2	11	12	15	8	3	18	33	3	**Total**

Table.4.9. Categorization and Quantification of Misspellings.

Category (X)	D	ND	I	M	DO	MX	NonEN	Sub	HDW
X to K %	1.90	10.48	11.29	14.29	7.62	2.89	17.14	31.43	2.89

Table.4.10. Percentage of Misspelling' Categories to the Overall Misspellings.
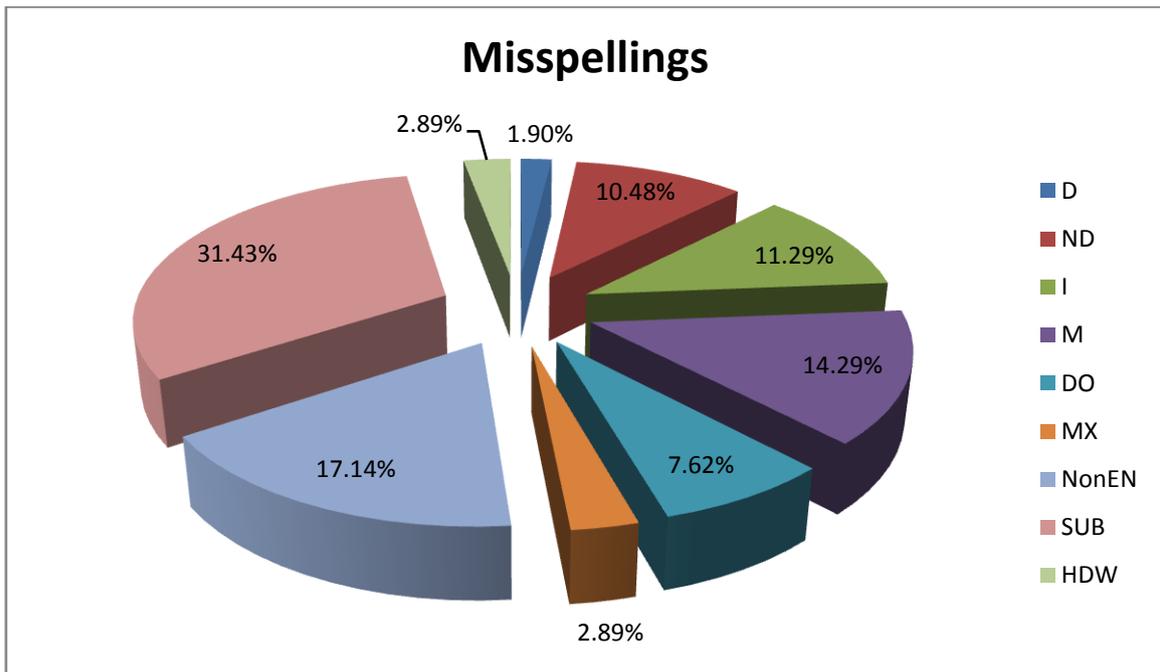
Figure.4.10. Percentage of Misspelling' Categories to the Overall Misspellings.

To offer a more detailed quantification of the copies, and their misspellings, the following exemplification is suggested. First, 6 copies have no orthographical error at all. The following figure (*figure 4.11*) shows the relation among those copies and the overall number of paragraphs:
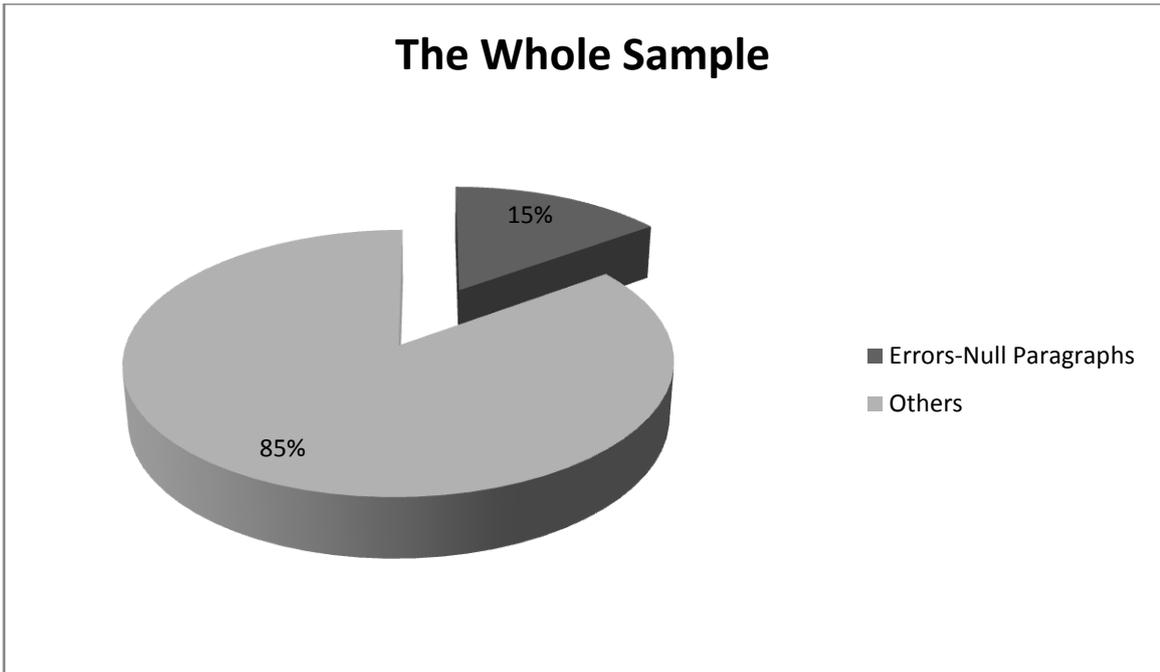
Figure.4.11. Percentage of Errors-Null Paragraph in The Overall Sample.

The copies *12*, *26*, *32*, *35* and *37* are the ones that contain the largest number of errors. The following figures (*figure 4.12*, *figure 4.14*, *figure 4.16*, *figure 4.18*, and *figure 4.20*) show the percentage or errors, supported instantly by figures (*figure4.13*, *figure 4.15*, *figure 4.17*, *figure 4.19*, and *figure 4.21*) that display in details the misspellings in these copies:
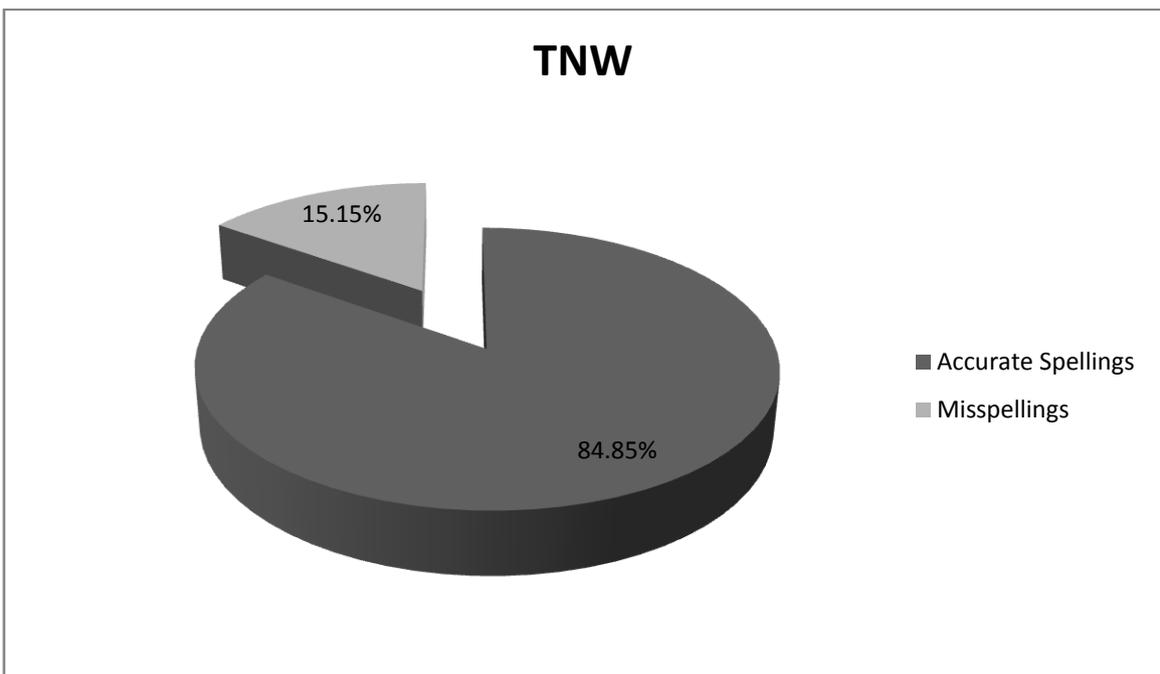
Figure.4.12. The Percentage of Misspellings to TNW in Copy §12.
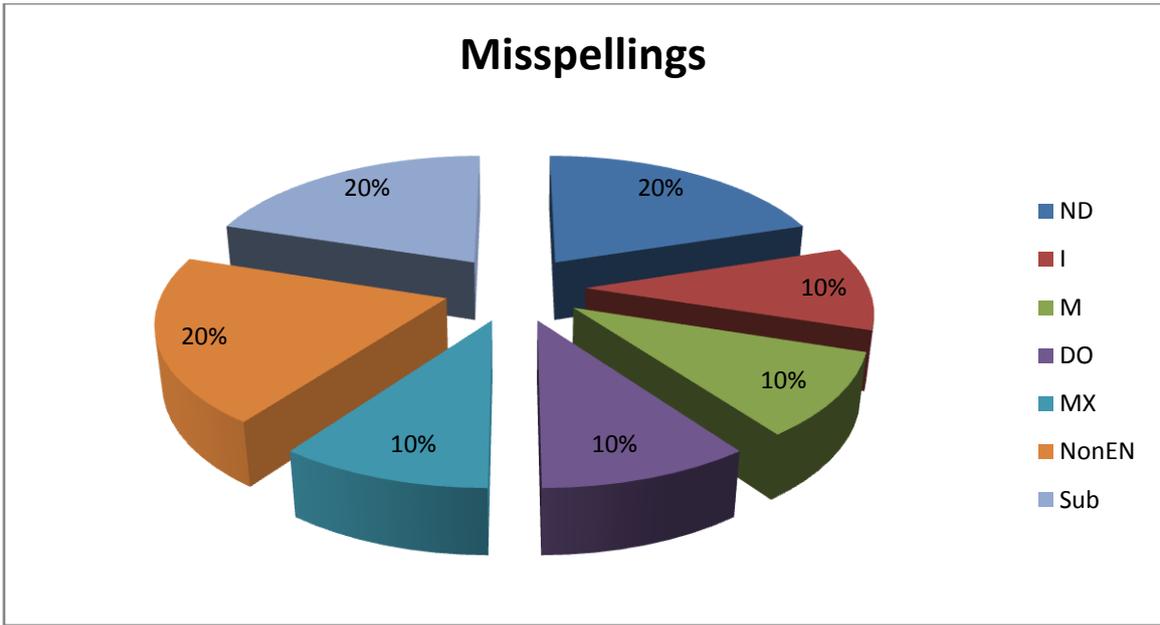
Figure.4.13. The Detailed Percentages of Misspellings in Copy §12.
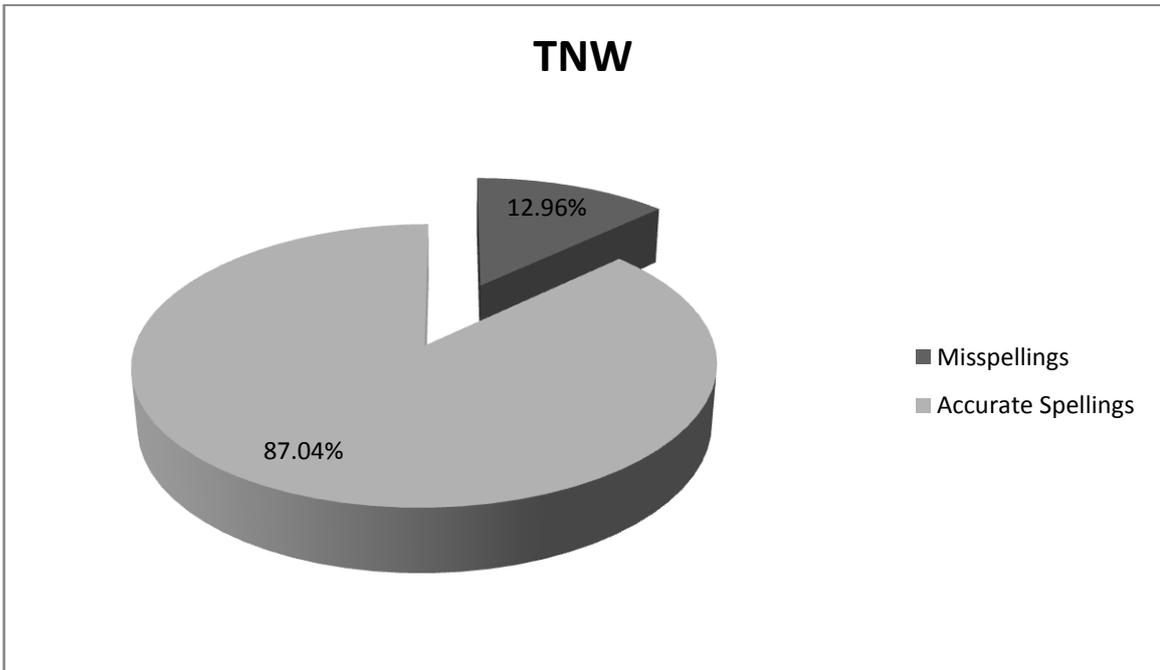
Figure.4.14. The Percentage of Misspellings to TNW in Copy §26.
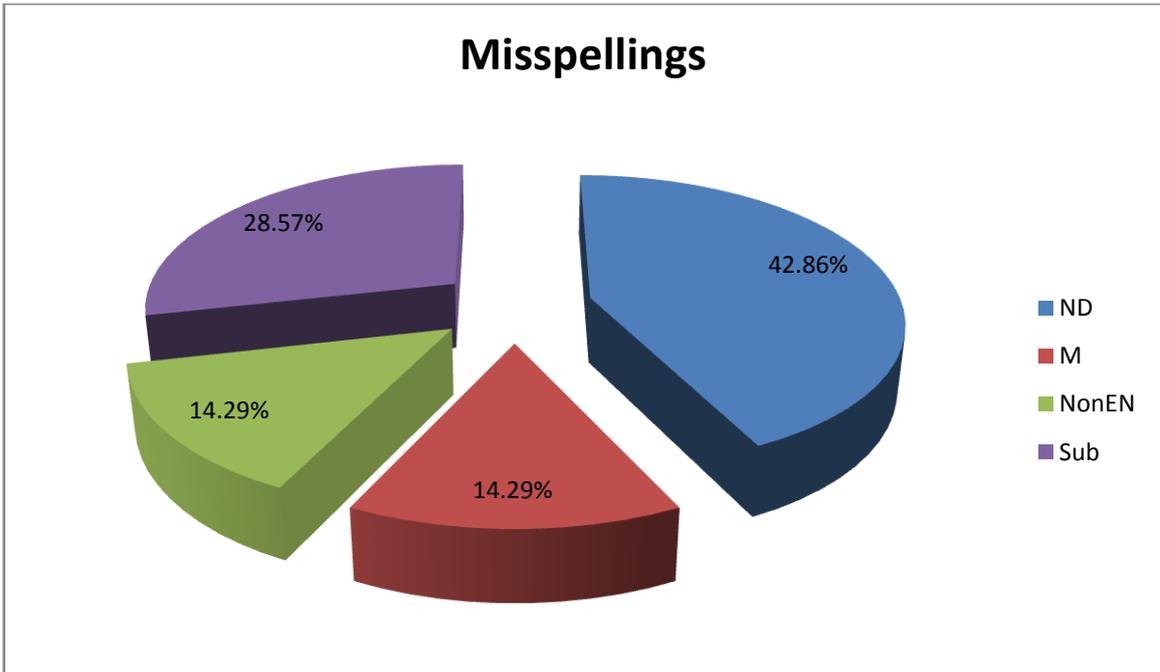
Figure.4.15. The Detailed Percentages of Misspellings in Copy §26.
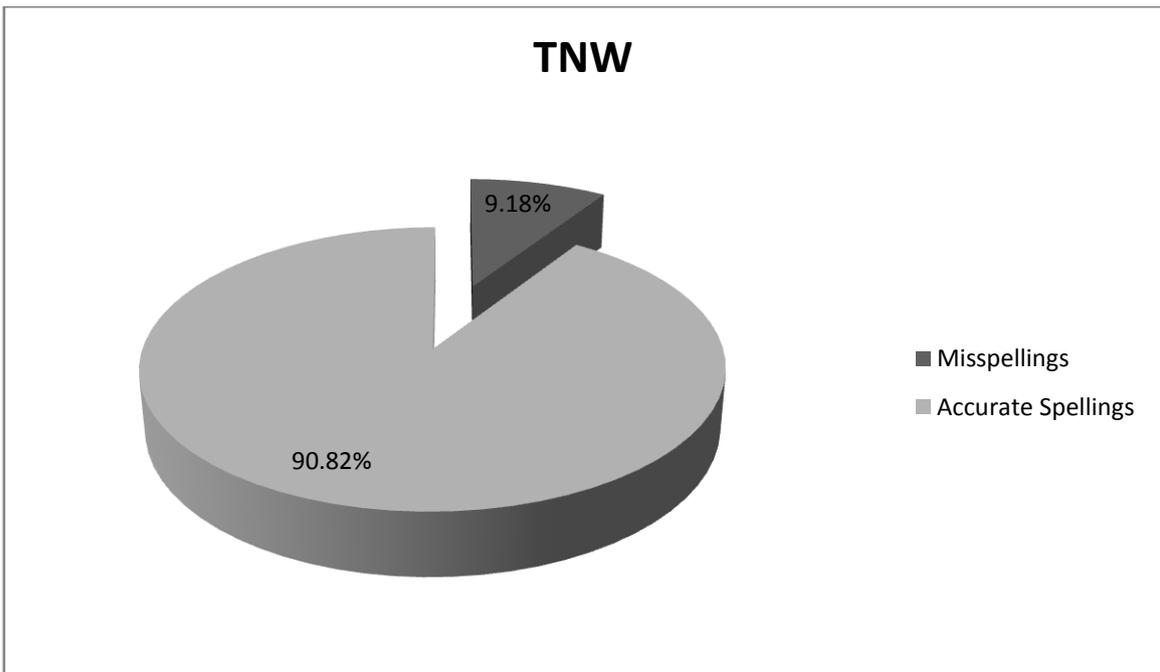
Figure.4.16. The Percentage of Misspellings to TNW in Copy §32.
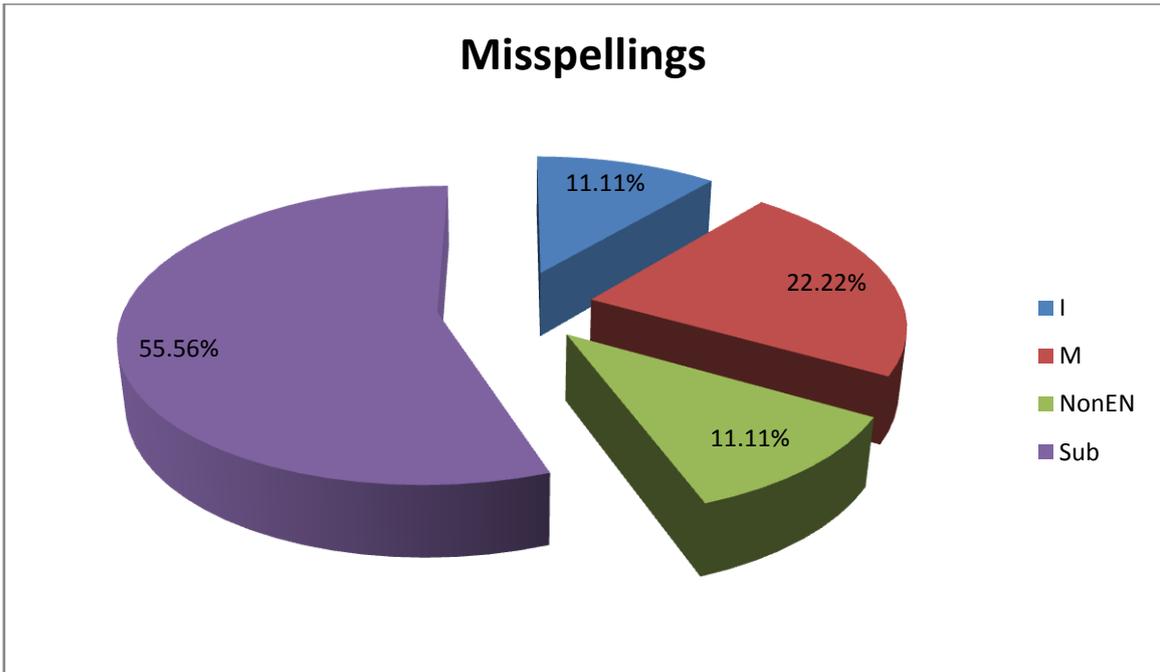
Figure.4.17. The Detailed Percentages of Misspellings in Copy §32.
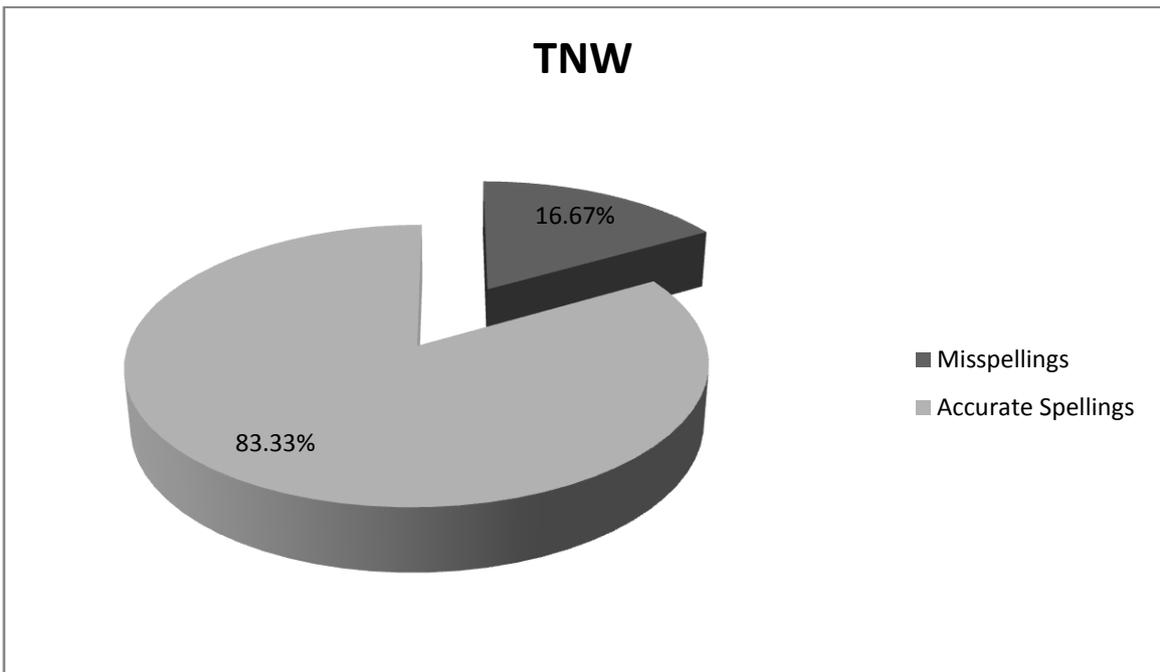
Figure.4.18. The Percentage of Misspellings to TNW in Copy §35.
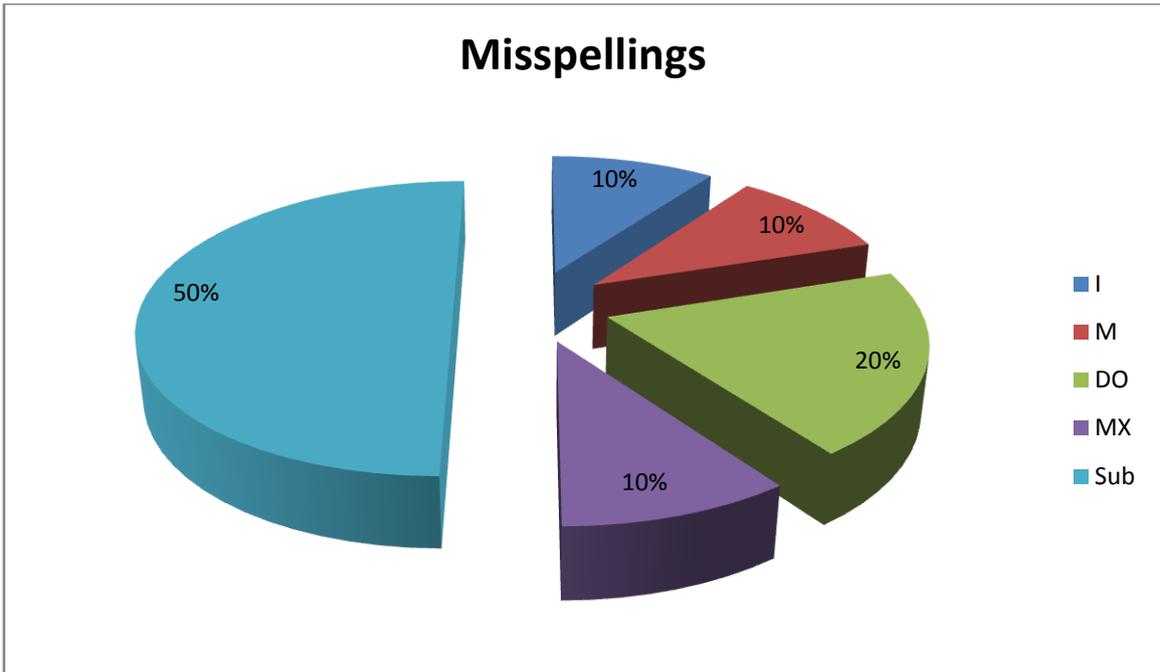
Figure.4.19. The Detailed Percentages of Misspellings in Copy §35.
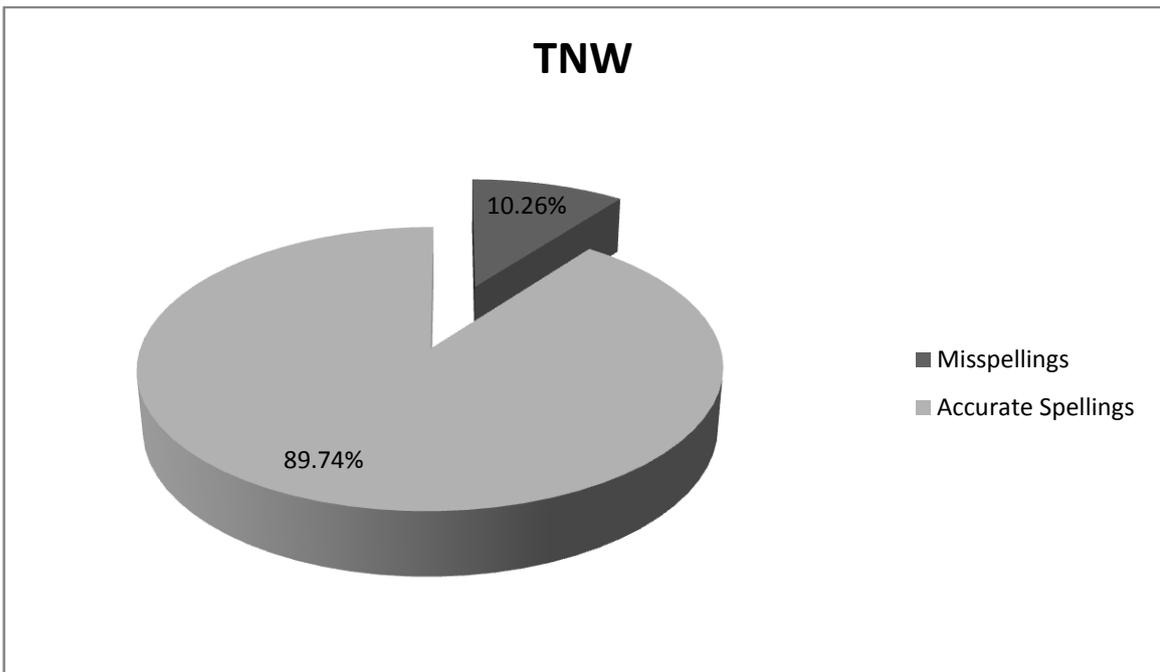
Figure.4.20. The Percentage of Misspellings to TNW in Copy §37.
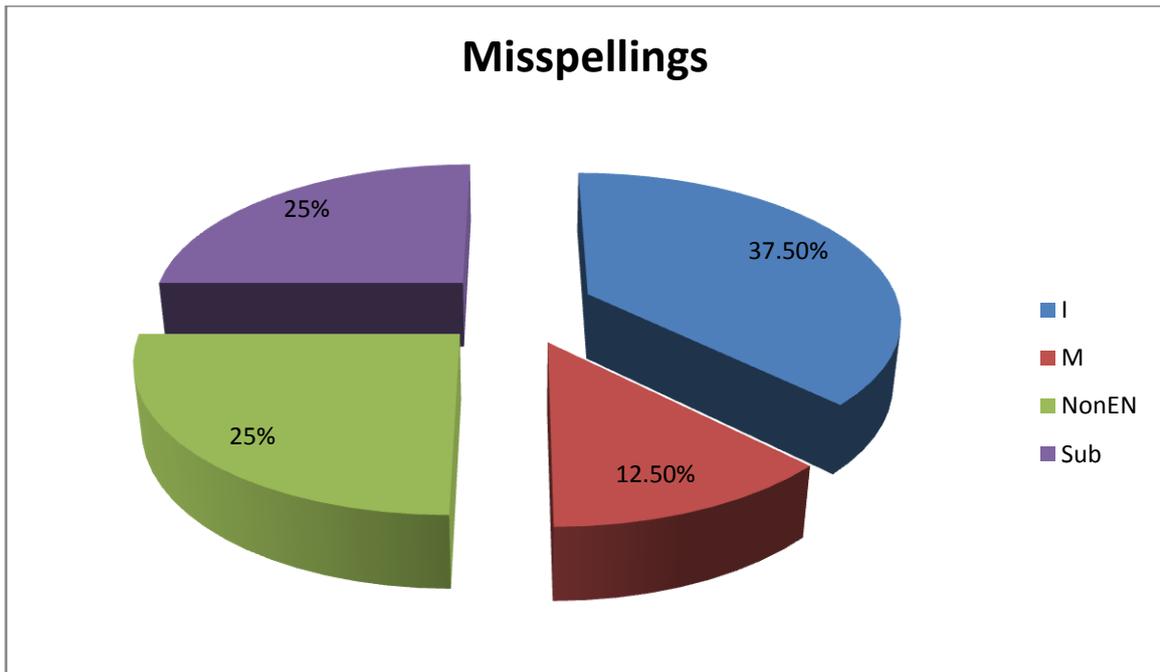
Figure.4.21. The Detailed Percentages of Misspellings in Copy §37.

In these 5 copies, that contain the largest number of non-accurate spellings, certain remarks are made. The following table (*table 4.11*) offers an isolated and detailed quantification of TNW, and the orthographic errors in those paragraphs:

§	TNW	K	D	ND	I	M	DO	MX	NonEN	Sub	HDW	
12	66	10	0	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	0	
26	54	7	0	3	0	1	0	0	1	2	0	
32	98	9	0	0	1	2	0	0	1	5	0	
35	60	10	0	0	1	1	2	1	0	5	0	
37	78	8	0	0	3	1	0	0	2	2	0	
5	356	44	0	5	6	6	3	2	6	16	0	Total
/	/	/	0	11.36	13.63	13.63	6.82	4.55	13.63	36.36	0	% to K
/	71.2	8.8	0	1	1.2	1.2	0.6	0.4	1.2	3.2	0	The Mean

Table.4.11. A detailed Quantification of Errors: Top 5 Copies.
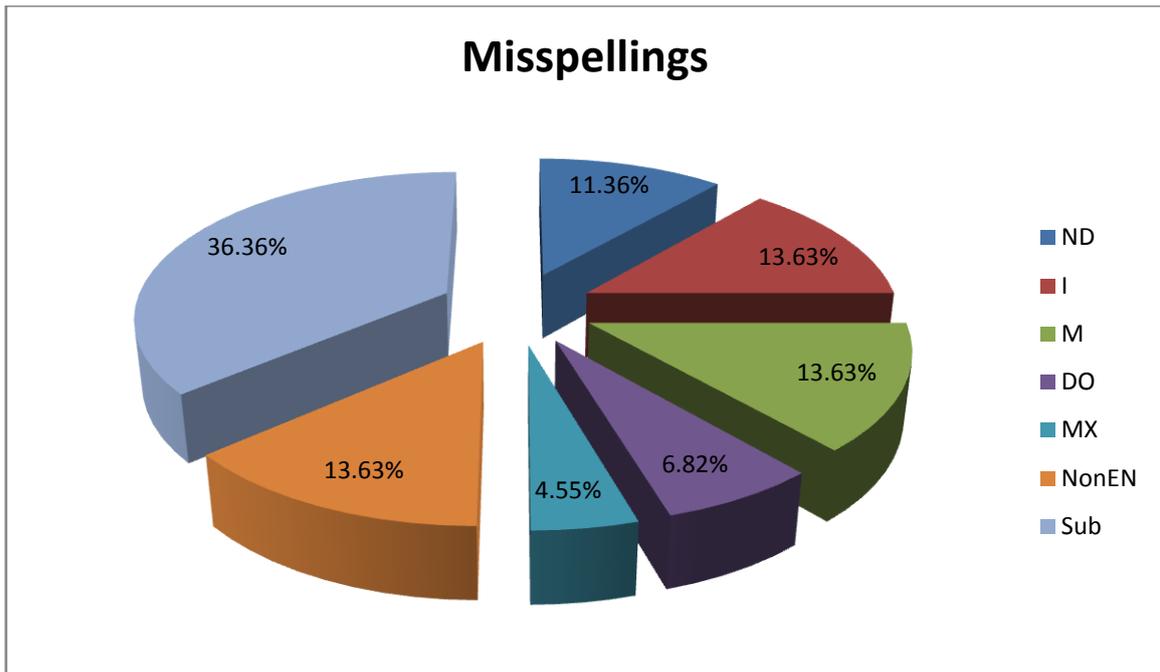
Figure.4.22. Percentages of Various Misspellings: Top 5 Copies.

The above figure (*figure 4.22*) represents the percentages of the different spelling's errors in the top-five copies that contain the largest number of errors. Substitution is the most frequent occurring error. Non-doubling, intrusive letter, missing a letter and non-English words are fairly taking place. While disordering letters or mixing between British and American spelling standards are the fewest errors occurring, wrongly doubling a letter, or having a non-accurate handwriting show no presence. Regardless to this specified focus on these 5 paragraphs, the overall results (for the whole sample) reveal that the most committed orthographic error is *substitution*. *Adding*, *omitting*, and *non-doubling* and *non-English* words are fairly occurring. Similarly to *mixing* and *doubling*, *handwriting* resulted in the fewest number of misspellings.

4.4. Explanation of Errors

The following step in the procedure of error analysis is to provide certain explanation to these errors. As it has been stated earlier, this phase is mainly psychological. Any attribution, of any kind, of these misspellings to the different prospective sources is based on no more than several solid assumptions derived from the literature. The analyzer's task –at this level- is to exclusively, yet reasonably associate the two: the error

and its potential source. To make it clear that there will be no confusion between the *description* of errors and their *explanations*, those two phases of error analysis are closely overlapping. As a result, these explanations will simultaneously sustained by some descriptions of the concerned sub-category.

4.4.1. Substitution

As demonstrated above, substituting one letter by another, which results in a non-accurate spelling, is the largest orthographical error that occurred. *Figure 4.23* displays the percentage of this category to the overall non-accurate misspellings.
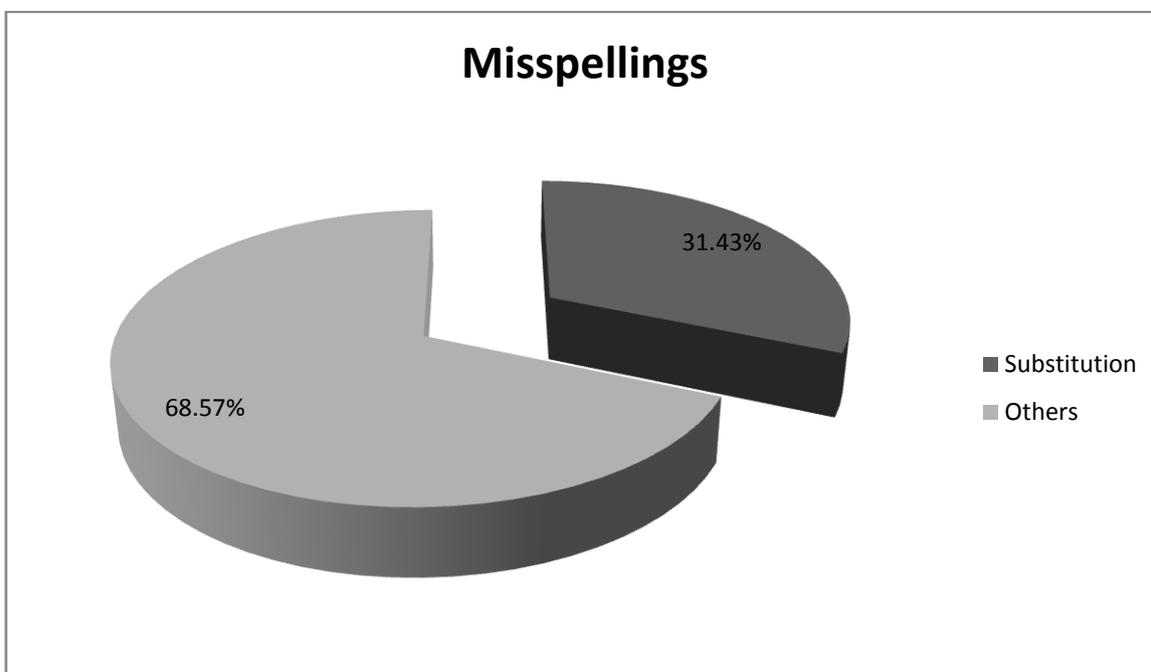
Figure.4.23. Percentage of Substitutions to the Total Misspellings.

21 paragraphs do not contain substitution as a sub-category of misspelling; however, 19 ones contained several errors of this kind. The observation to be declared here is the sample is almost equally separated between the two case: containing substitution, and having none of it. The following figure (*figure 4.24*) offers a more comprehensive comparison:
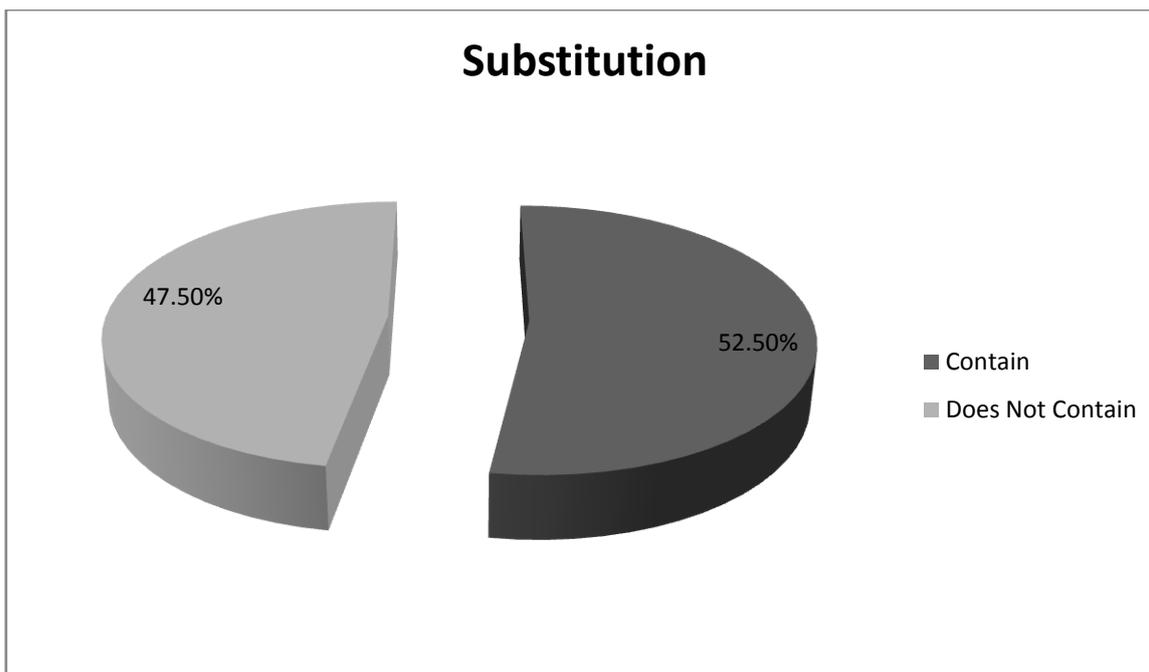
Figure.4.24. Percentage of the Paragraphs That Contain Substitution and Its Opposing Counterpart.

The following table (*table 4.12*) offers a detailed quantification of the most misspelled words categorized as caused by a wrongful substitution:

The Misspelled Word	Number of Repetition
Ben*i*fit	6
D*e*fferent	4
Ph*i*sical	3
D*e*scipline	2

Table.4.12. Quantification of the Most Misspelled Words (Substitution).

The statistics show that both letters *i* and *e* are the centre of the wrongly substituted letters. In fact, certain explanation can be drawn here. These can be as follow:

(a) *French Interference*:

Considering the learners' second language, French, taught at an early age, before English, some of these misspellings can be traced back to a negative transfer from French. This interlingual process' occurrence might be attributed to the phonological similarity between *i* (pronounced /i/ in French), and *e* (transcribed /i/ as well in English).

(b) *Pronunciation-Spelling non-correspondence*:

Regardless to direct French' interference, it is the English phonological system's complexity, and its mismatch with spelling. For example: difficult, benefit, and physical phonologically transcribed as: /difikəlt/, /benifit/, and /fizikl/ would certainly confuse some students as to which letters to be used to represent the morpheme /i/, whether *e* or *i*.

(c) *Physical and emotional state*:

To second the second anticipated source of errors *(b)*, other misspellings, of the same category, can be added. These are: *emphesize*, *espicially*, *powerfoll*, *mumbers*, *instence*, *relationsheep*. Although these are obviously pronunciation-spelling' mismatches, they can caused by an immediate low physical and mental states that some students encountered during the examination.

4.4.2. Adding

Forming up to 12% of the total identified misspellings, adding letters is one of the common learners' errors. The following figure (*figure 4.25*) represents the percentage of this type of misspellings to the total numbers of non-accurate spellings:
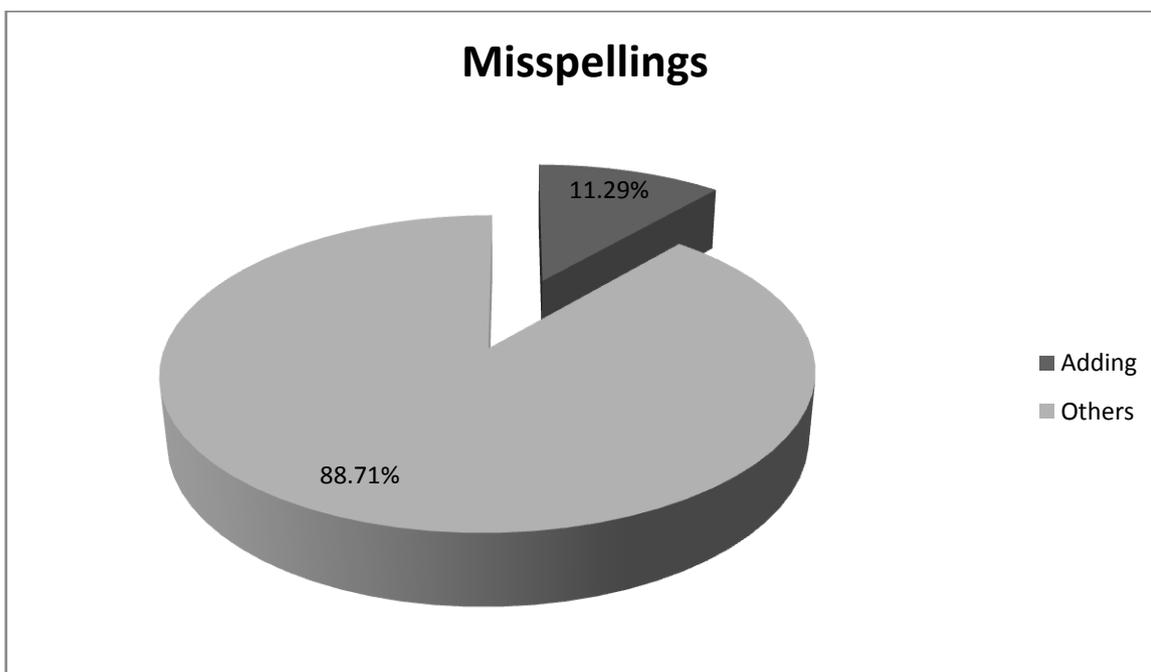
Figure.4.25. Percentage of Adding to the Total Misspellings.

9 copies were identified as having the sub-category intrusive; nevertheless, the rest of copies were not. Although intrusive is a very common misspellings' sub-category, the mere remark her is that the majority of paragraphs does not contain it. The following figure (*figure 4.26*) shows the accurate comparison:
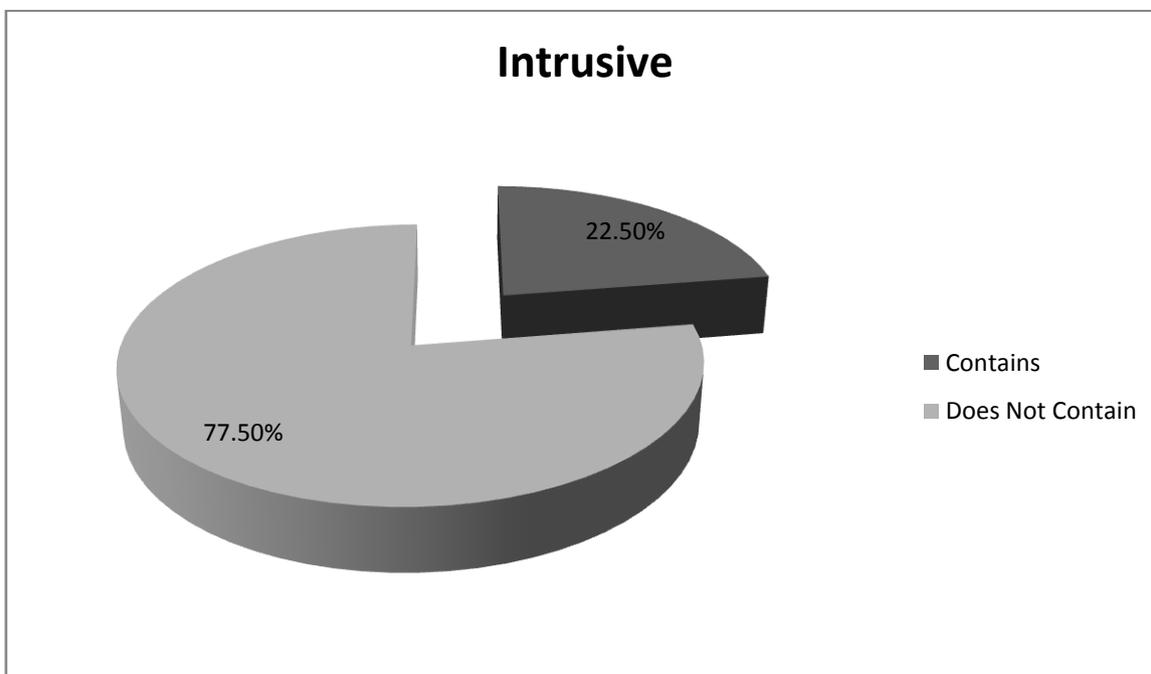
Figure.4.26. Percentage of the Paragraphs That Contain Intrusive and Its Opposing Counterpart.

Out of 12 misspelled words, labelled as incorrect intrusive letters, 10 words were wrongly finalized with an additional *e*. These words are as follow: calm*e*, famous*e*, group*e*, proverb*e*, hour*e*s, them*e*, and person*e*, consecutively misspelled for: calm, famous, group, proverb, hours, them, and person. The other two misspelled words are: *hearth* (to mean: *health*), and *humain*. The results prove that *final e* is the major wrongly added letter. To explain this, certain assumption can be provided:

(a) *French Interference:*

It is clear that learners' second language is heavily provoking them to wrongly add this *final e*. A vital remark to be made here is that many French words end in *e*. Considering those errors as a result of false friends might be odd, because the meaning is almost the same, with a slight difference at the level of grammatical categorization. The

following table (*table 4.13*) represents the misspelled words, and its matching words in English:

Misspelled Word (French)	Counterpart in English
Calme	calm (adjective), calmness (noun)
Humain	human (adjective)
Groupe	group (noun)
Proverbe	proverb (noun)

Table.4.13. Intrusive Letters: Misspelled Words and Their Counterparts.

(b) *Pronunciation-Spelling Non-Correspondence*:

Regardless to the fact that French interference is resulting in many intrusive letters, the mismatch between some English words and its spellings is causing some of them. This can be shown via the misspelled word: *humain*. Referring to the words '*humane*' that is phonetically transcribed as /hjumein/, certain facts are revealed.

(c) *Learning Deficit*:

The above explanation leads the reader to draw more focus on the learners' abilities. Not knowing the difference between among *human* and *humane* denotes that the learner does not have a complete understanding of the vocabularies, and accordingly its spellings.

4.4.3. Omitting

On the opposing positing, some misspellings were due not to adding a letter, but removing one that results in a spelling's non-accuracy.15 errors, about 15% of the total misspelled words, were attributed to missing a letter (*figure 4.27*).

Misspellings

14.29%

85.71%

■ Missing Letters
■ Others
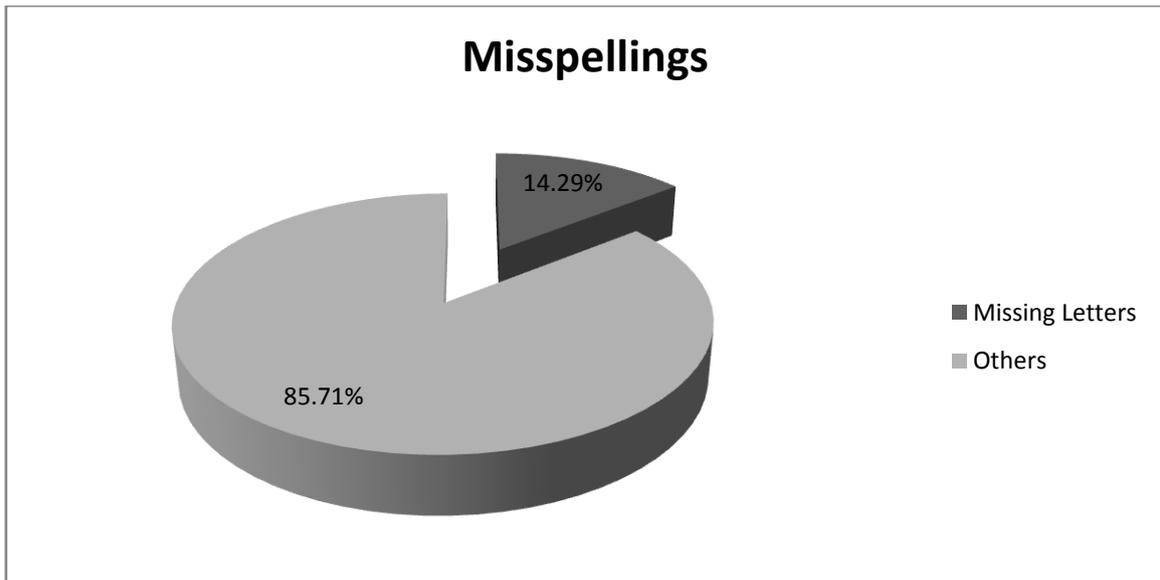
Figure.4.27. Percentage of Missing Letters to the Total Misspellings.

After the examination of the whole sample, 25 copies contained no misspelling of this sub-category; on the other side, 15 copies were diagnosed with this type of orthographical errors. It is noted that up to 2/3 of the sample contains the misspelling where one letter is missed. The assumption drawn from this finding can be the fact that the majority of learners have difficulties establishing the needed letters for the accurate spelling. The forthcoming figure (*figure 4.28*) displays this difference in percentages:

Missing

37.50%

62.50%

■ Contains
■ Does Not Contain
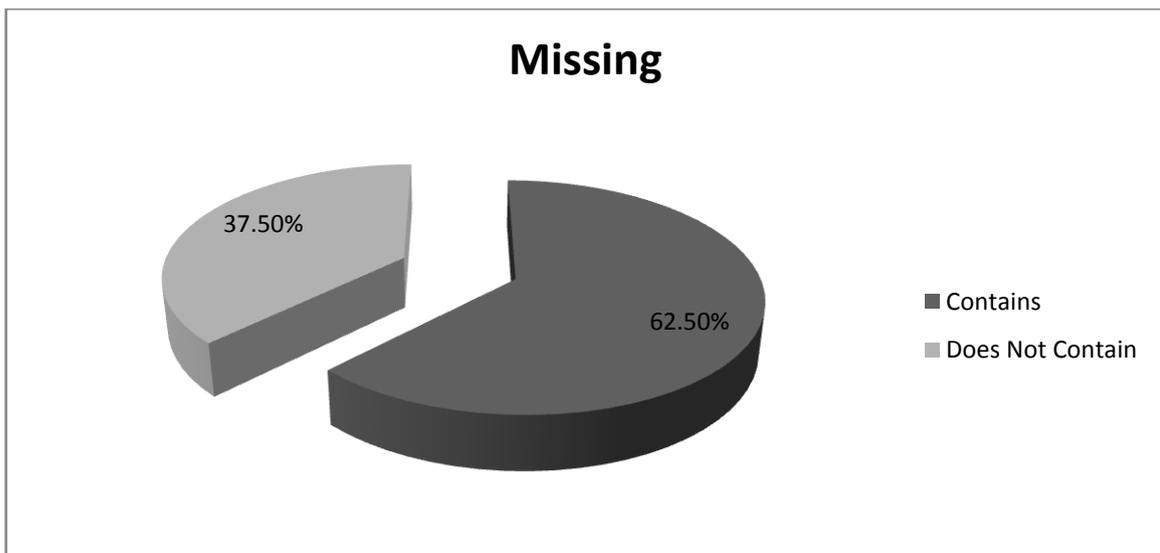
Figure.4.28. Percentage of the Paragraphs That Contain Missing and Its Opposing Counterpart.

The upcoming table (*table 4.14*) displays the most two wrongly added letters, and the corresponding words:

Nature of the added letter	Examples
Final *e*	-Breath (used as verb, not noun). -Favourit. -Practis.
Silent *h*	-Wether. -Wich. - scools.

Table.4.14. Missing Letters: Grouping and Exemplification.

Certainly, *Kriket*, and *belive* are other misspelled words, grouped as *missing,* to consecutively resemble: *Cricket*, and *believe*. An explanation of these errors can be drawn as follow:

(a) *Overgeneralization:*

It is assumed that learners are overusing a learnt rule. English words, in fact, differ from French ones, as to the fact that the final *e*does not exist in the final position in some borrowed words. A good example of this was presented earlier in *table 14.* Nonetheless, this does not prevent the existence of exceptions. Learners might have omitted the final *e* as a matter of an intralingual error.

(b) *Teaching Deficit:*

The above anticipated source of errors leads to another one. Although blaming the teachers for not completely deliver the rules seems to be unfair, it cannot be ignored. These misspellings might be credited to teachers' instructions. For instance, not warning learners of exceptions, to the above stated rule, might result in errors where the final *e* is wrongly omitted.

(c) *Pronunciation-Spelling Non-Correspondence*:

The misspelled words where the silent *h*is incorrectly removed proves this claim. Spelling the words: whether /weðə(r)/, school /sku:l/, and which /witʃ/, incorrectly as: wether, scool, and wich support this assertion. It is clear that those learners are *Phoenicians*. Relying, solely, on their ears resulted in the denoted errors.

4.4.4. Non-Doubling

One other aspect of the hypothesised, yet denoted misspellings is *non-doubling*. It stands for the instance where the learner does not duplicate a letter when necessary – following spellings' standards. In light of this, out of the 105 identified errors, 11 ones were clustered as a non-applied necessary letter's doubling. The following figure (*figure 4.29*) expresses this percentage:

Misspellings

10.48%

89.52%

■ Non-Doublings
■ Others
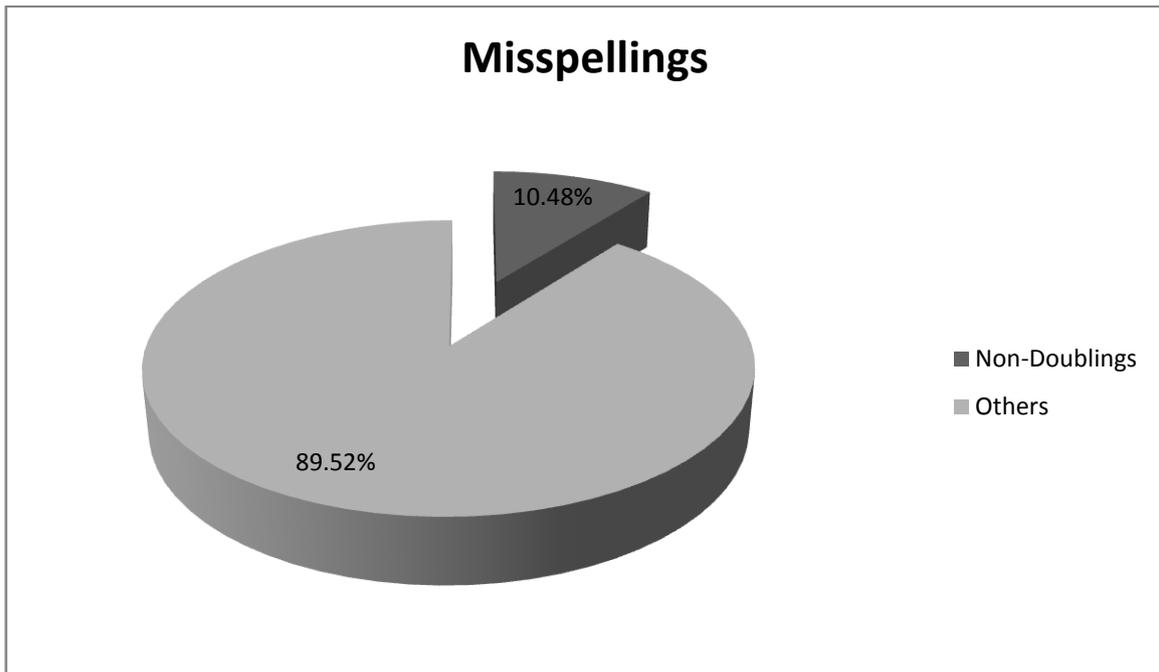
Figure.4.29. Percentage of Non-Doublings to the Total Misspellings.

Only 7 copies of the sample have this sub-category: non-doubling. On the opposing position, 33 copies are non-doubling-null paragraphs. Being the majority, non-doubling is fairly caused by some immediate circumstance surrounding the exam. Most of learners control this aspect of the British Spelling Standards. The upcoming figure (*figure 4.30*) displays this vague diversity in percentages:
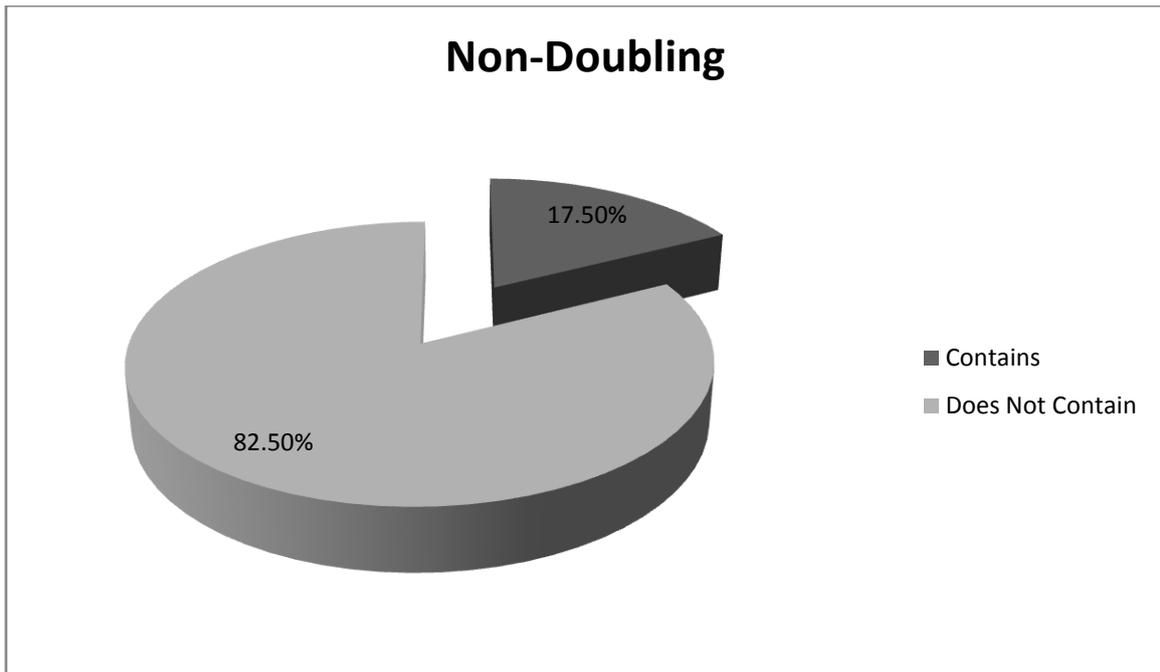
Figure.4.30. Percentage of the Paragraphs That Contain Non-Doubling and Its Opposing Counterpart.

The next segment will be a detailed quantification of the different types of the non-doubled letters. It is worth mentioning that only one misspelling concerns the non-doubling of *s* in the middle of the word *possibility*. Nonetheless, the rest happen at the level of the final *l*, after adding the suffix *ly*. The following table (*table 4.15*) represents a detailed quantification of the misspelled words grouped as non-doubling:

Misspelled Word	Number of Repetition
Finaly	3
generaly	2
especialy	2
Socialy	1
physicaly	1
moraly	1
posibility	1

Table.4.15. A detailed Quantification of Non-Doubled Misspellings.

In respect of these findings, certain assumptions on the potential sources of these errors are drawn. These can be as follow:

(a) Learning Deficit:

The first, and mainly direct, potential source of this type of misspellings is the learners' incomplete knowledge. The ignorance of the correct spelling of these adverbs might be attributed to uncertainty associated with forming them starting from its adjectives. Forming an adverb using the suffix *ly* is generally associated with the doubling of the final consonant *ly* –more like preserving it.

(b) *Pronunciation-Spelling Non-Correspondence*:

One other, remotely-estimated, source of this category of error can be the mismatch of these words with its pronunciations. In many, if not all English words, there is no sign, at the phonological level, of doubling the concerned letter(s). This certainly could have consequences on the learners' spelling abilities, yet prevent them from correctly spelling those words, and similar ones.

(c) *Arabic Interference:*

Those orthographic errors can be traced back to Arabic, learners' MT. In fact, unlike English, there is no instance of doubling a letter in the Arabic words. All Arabic words contain no letter consecutively written twice. As a matter of an interlingual error, not doubling the necessary letter may be accredited to Arabic.

(d) *Teaching Deficit:*

Regarding the learners' learning process, English spelling-pronunciation' relation and learners' MT, we may assume the teachers' responsibility for these flaws. Although the large number of learners would not allow it, it is the teachers' responsibility to ensure the smooth, yet efficient learning process. Any wrongful spelling should have been examined and corrected. Accordingly, learners should have been warned of the absence of any relation between the doubled letters and its written representations.

4.4.5. Non-English Words

This sub-category of misspellings to giving a non-English word: containing immediately more than 3 errors of the other sub-categories. This selection is based on the message's delivery failure associated with the existence of this number of errors in one words. As far as the English reader might not be able to decipher the word, it has been classified as non-English. In the sample under investigation, from the 105 denoted orthographical errors, 18 were labelled as non-English. The following figure (*figure 4.31*) exhibits the finding:
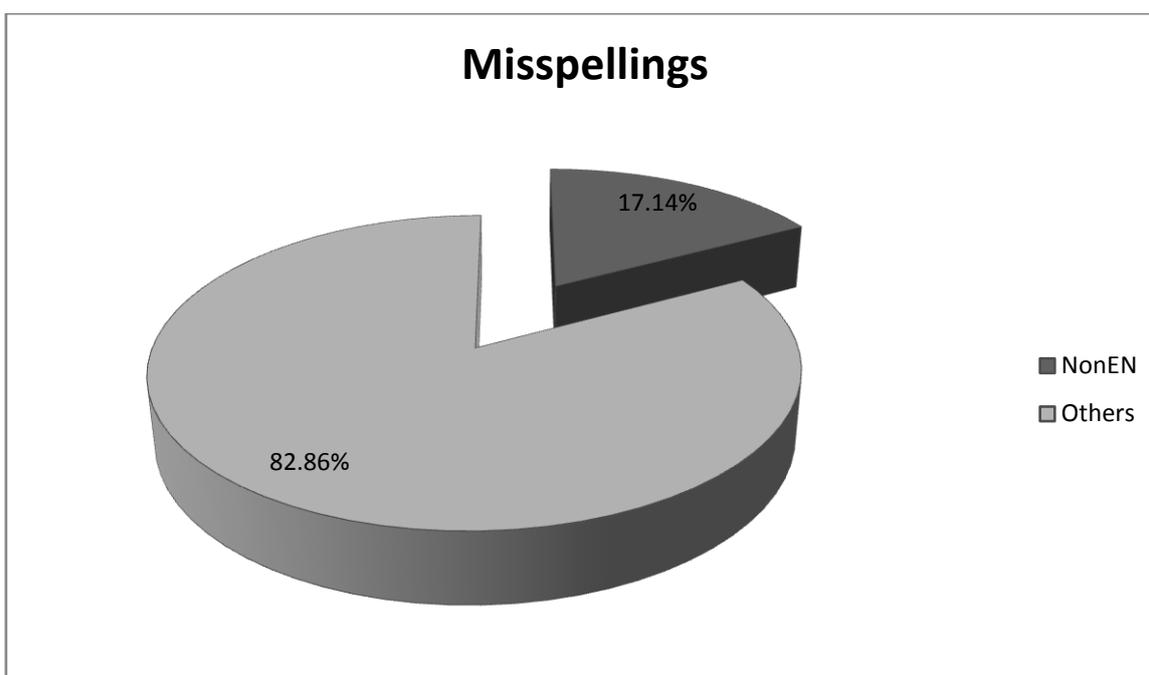
Figure.4.31. Percentage of Non-English to the Total Misspellings.

It is worth mentioning that 27 copies do not contain non-English words; in spite of this, the rest were examined as containing no error of this category. Certainly, 2/3 of learners managed to avoid producing such constructions. Those who did not are – comparably- few. The deduction to be inferred, accordingly, is that the majority of learners have enough knowledge of the British English Spelling Standards, while the rest failed to demonstrate this. The following figure (*figure 4.32*) presents the distinction:
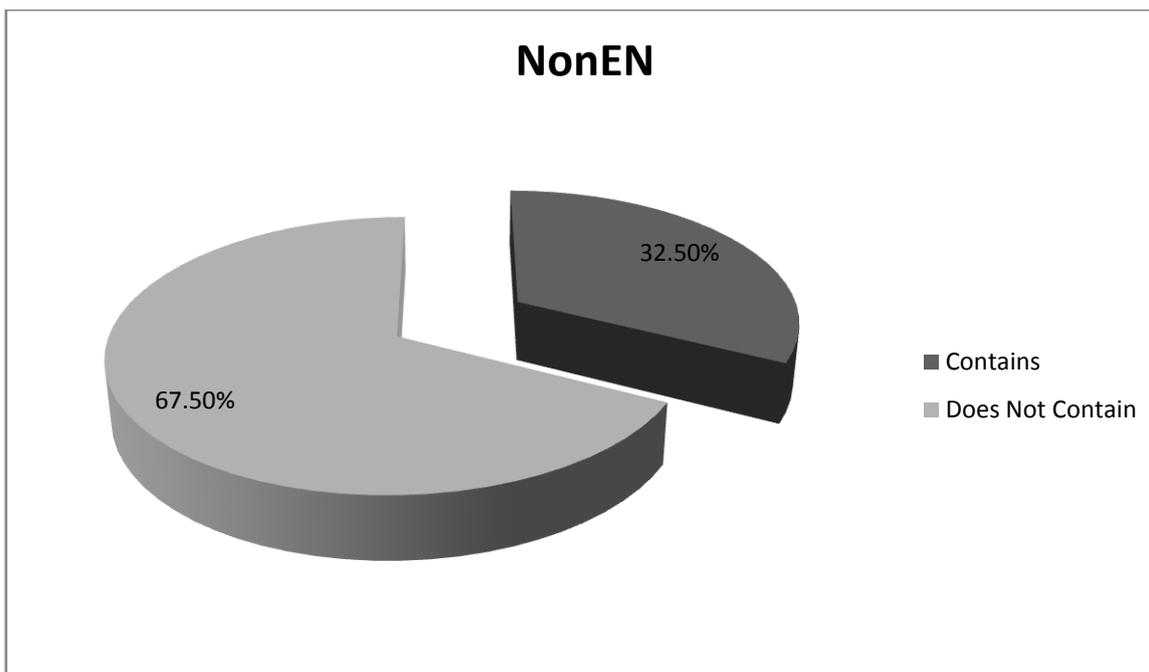
Figure.4.32. Percentage of the Paragraphs That Contain Non-English and Its Opposing Counterpart.

On the topic of clarifying these misspellings, the following explanations are provided:

(a) *Learning Deficit:*

These non-English words prove that some learners are randomly combining certain letters to compile the phonemes' combinations they already know. Looking at some of those errors explains that the lexical item fits in the sentence, but it does not meet the orthographical standards. It is a sign that those learners ignore completely the governing rules (spelling standards) of the misspelled words, and maybe others.

(b) *Physical and Emotional States:*

It is assumed that general circumstances, in which the exam was taken, had an impact on the learners' outcomes, especially at the accuracy level: spelling. The rush against time's constraints, and probably thinking of the other activities may have led them to wrongly transcribe the denoted misspellings.

4.4.6. Mixing

One sort, among the three-less-occurring sub-categories of misspellings, is *mixing*. Although there was no instruction on the exam's sheet that demands the use of a specific English spelling standard, the consistency is a must. As it has been denoted earlier, there was no copy that regularly follows the American one. On this basis, any word, spelled accordingly, was classified as mixing. The following figure (*figure 4.33*) demonstrates the occurrence' percentage of this sub-category among the others
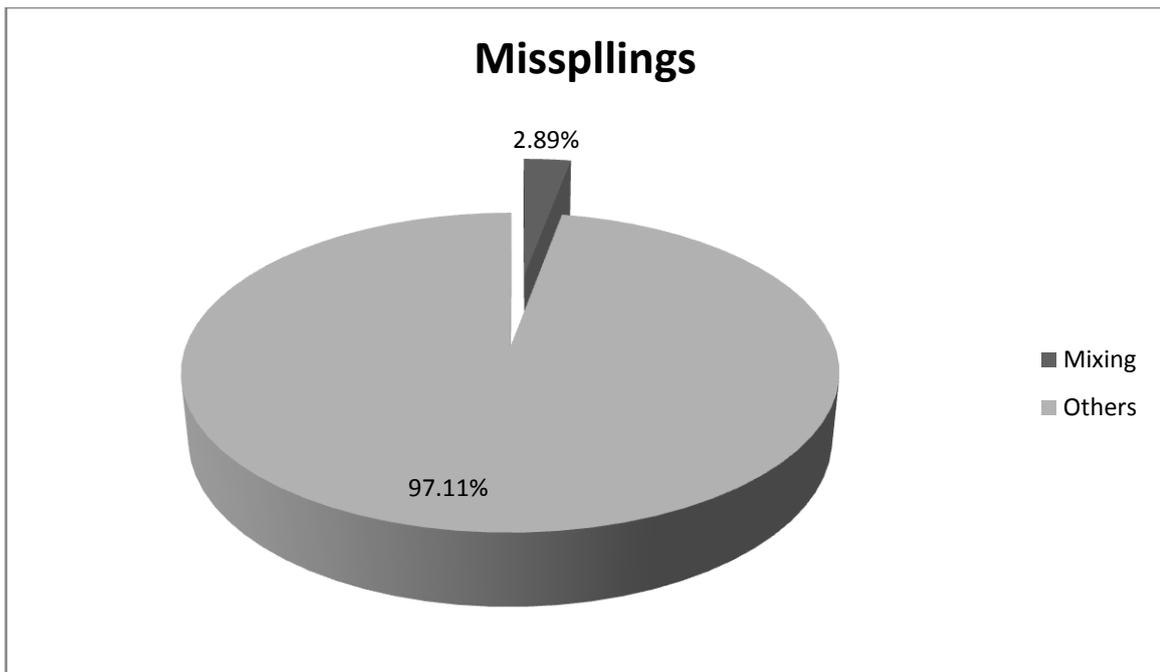
Figure.4.33. Percentage of Mixing to the Total Misspellings.

One other detail description to be made here is the number of copies that contain this kind of orthographical error, and those that do not. The following figure (*figure 4.34*) pronounces this in percentages:
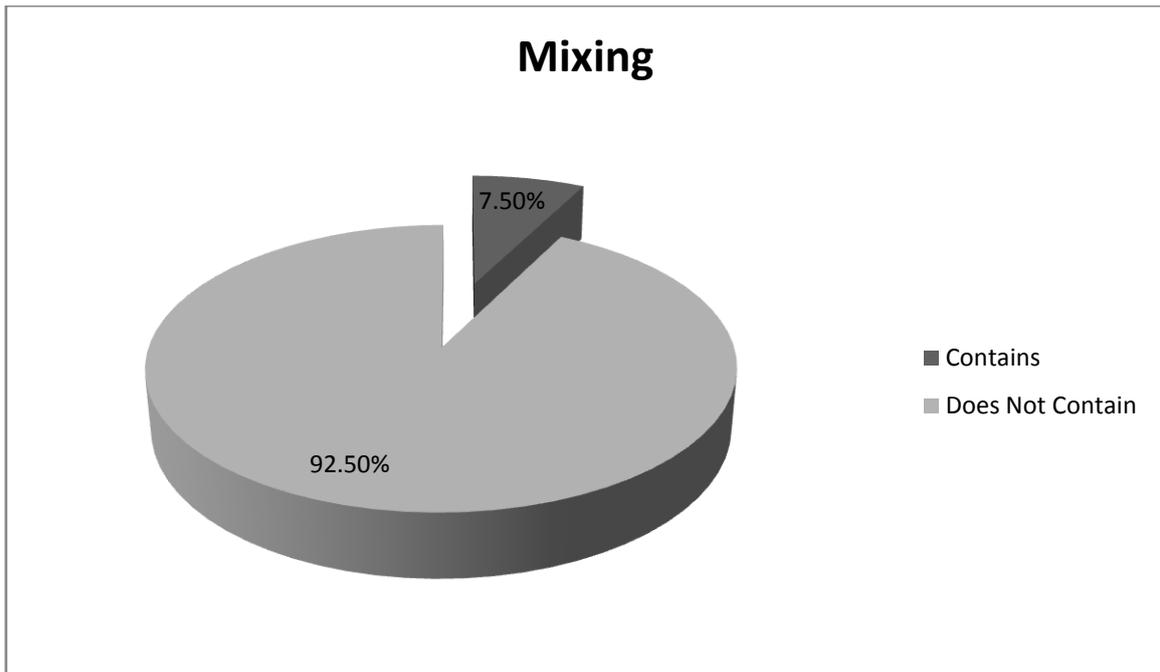
Figure.4.34. Percentage of the Paragraphs That Contain Mixing and Its Opposing Counterpart.

The findings prove that up to 37 learners have consistently used British Spelling Standards as rules for transcribing words. Despite of that, only 3 used some American-spelled words in their written outcomes. These 3 words are: *favorite*, *favor*, and *behavior*. In light of these findings, a set of explanations can be given to trace back the potential origins of these misspellings.

(a) *Learning Deficit*:

Although this slight difference between British and American spelling would not be a huge obstacle for readers to perceive the message, it cannot be abandoned. First, it proves that learners ignore the difference between the two. Second, learners are –in some way- using one spellings system that is, obviously, a random mixture of the two.

(b) *Teaching Deficit:*

Teacher might have contributed in some way to this situation. They might have used some materials that include American Spelling, intentionally or not, for building vocabularies, and its spellings. Moreover, some teachers at MKU of Biskra show no concern of which variety to be compelled. This latter may lead to certain level of freedom towards the selection among the two.

4.4.7. Doubling

Aside from mixing the two most common varieties of English Spellings, British and American, few misspellings were classified as being *doubling*. Unlike dropping the doubling presented previously, this sub-category stands for the unnecessary doubling of a letter, which produces a non-accurate spelling. The next figure (*figure 4.35*) reveals that this kind of the orthographical errors is among the fewest diagnosed in this sample:
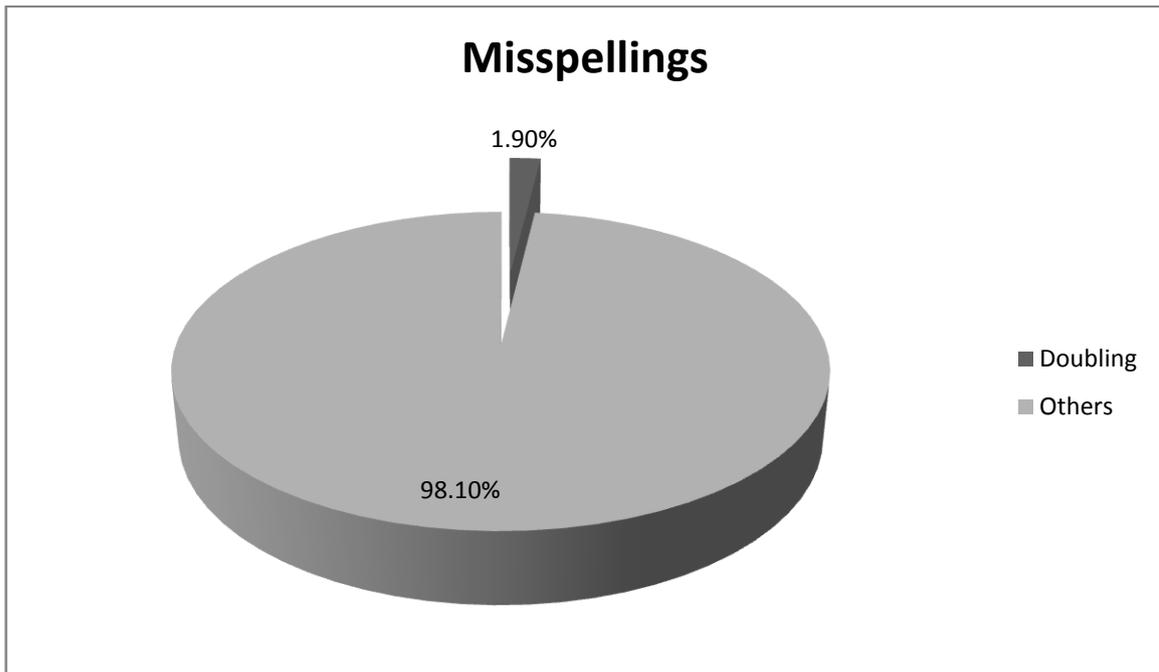
Figure.4.35. Percentage of Doubling to the Total Misspellings.

To consolidate this, the below figure (*figure 4.36*) differentiates, in percentages, among copies that contain this type of misspellings, and the others that do not. The remark is that the majority of learners managed to successfully decipher their out coming written words without falling into a non-obligatory doubling.

Doubling

5%

95%

■ Contains
■ Does Not Contain
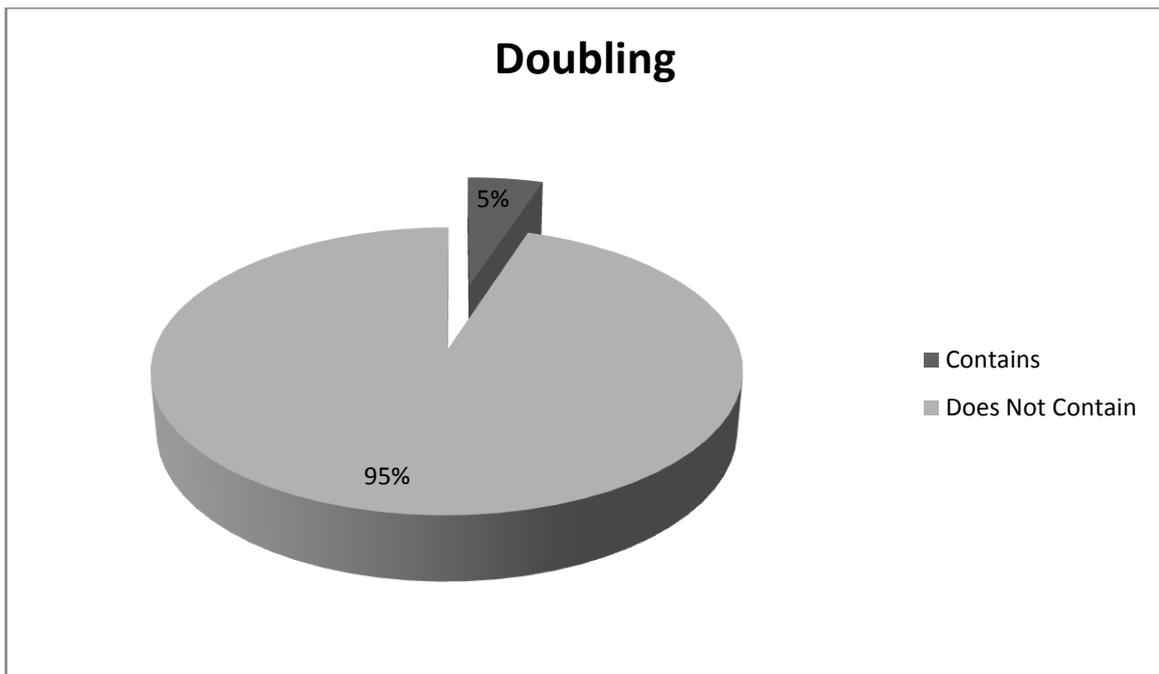
Figure.4.36. Percentage of the Paragraphs That Contain Doubling and Its Opposing Counterpart.

The only two words that were classified under this heading are: *habbit* and *powerfull*. Clearly, examining only 2 items must be insufficient; however, certain explanation might be given, yet extended –carefully- to other similar, or even dissimilar, words:

(a) *Overgeneralization:*

The first strong assumption is that the misspelled word *habbit* is wrongly confused with another word: *rabbit*. The learner might have automatically extended his/her orthographical knowledge of the word *rabbit* to write *habit*. The assumption is supported by the fact that both words are minimal pairs.

(b) *Learning Deficit*

The misspelling of the adjective *powerful* as *powerfull* shows that the learner does not fully master the word-building process. Forming an adjective by adding the suffix *ful* must have of a challenge to many students, including this one.

(c) *Physical and Emotional States*:

One other potential source of this type of error is the tiredness associated with the general conditions. Confusing the suffix *ful* with the adjective *full*, or *rabbit* with *habbit* is one possible consequence.

4.4.8. Handwriting

Although this sub-category was added only after the pilot study, there have been few instances where it occurs. Regardless to the general agreement upon what an accurate transcription of words, using physical pens, is, it is up to the reader, be it a peer, a teacher or an error analyzer, to determine to what extent the handwriting is readable. In this study, only the very confusing handwritings were regarded. Certainly, this does not deny the existence of other words that may be of a challenge for other readers. Simply put, the following figure (*figure 4.37*) exhibits the percentage of this kind of misspellings to the overall number of errors:
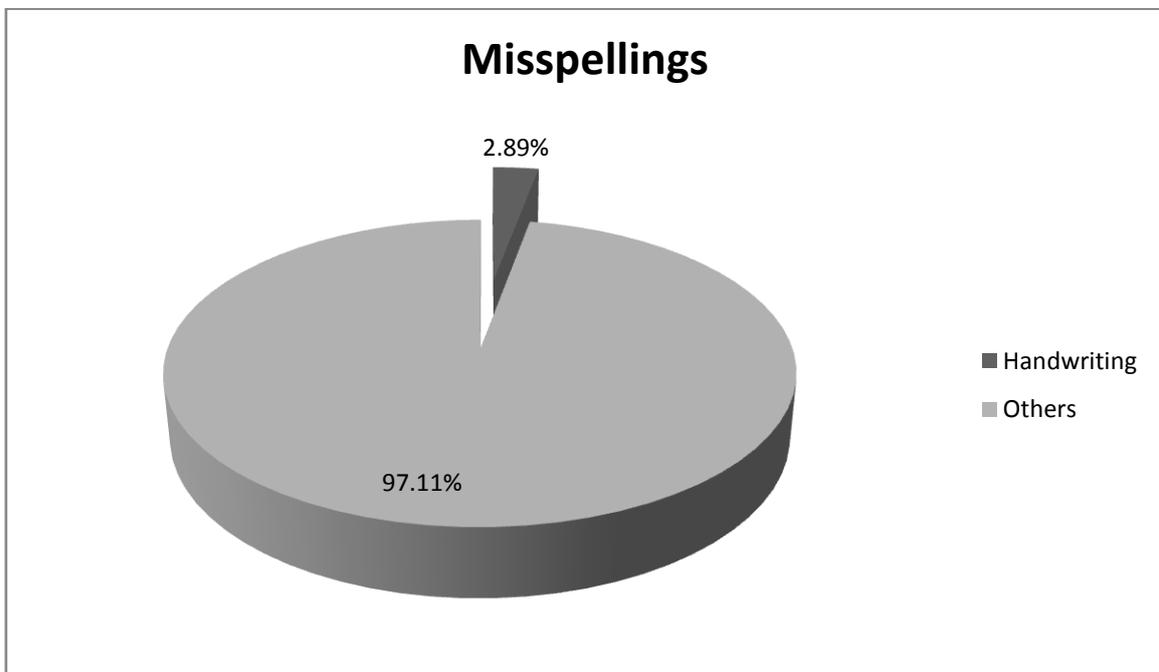
Figure.4.37. Percentage of Handwriting to the Total Misspellings.

It is crucial, after this detailed quantification, to focus on the copies which contain unreadable handwriting. The forthcoming figure (*figure 4.38*) presents this distinction among the two collections in percentages:

Handwriting

5%

95%

■ Contains
■ Does Not Contain
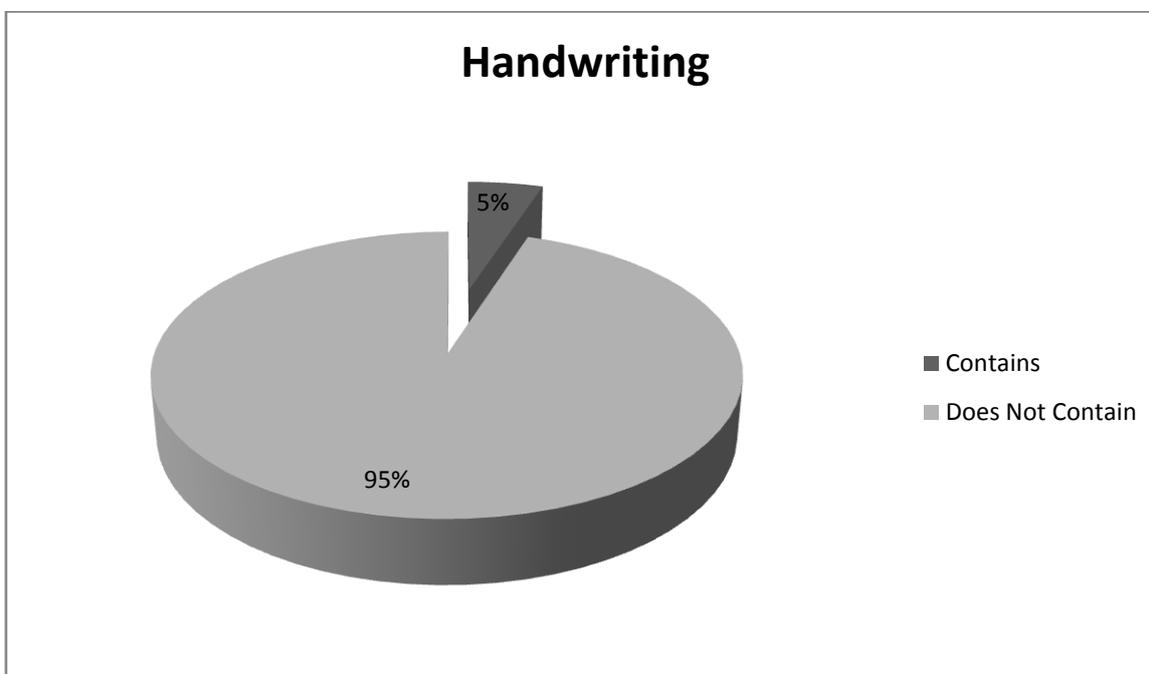
Figure.4.38.Percentage of the Paragraphs That Contain Handwriting and Its Opposing Counterpart.

The results uncover the fact that only 3 errors concern handwriting. Moreover, 1 learner committed 2 of these, while the rest of learners have –at the analyzer's horizon- accurate and readable handwriting. To formulate an explanation for the above mentioned misspellings, the following statements are made:

(a) *Physical and Emotional States*:

The more likely related reason for the unreadable handwriting is the dissatisfaction accompanying learners during exams. Certainly, it leads to a focus-loss, which in turn drives the individual to quickly transcribe the words. This rush is believed to result in a less accurate handwriting for many readers.

(b) French Interference:

The learners, as they have been described, learned French before English. This includes the *French Cursive Font*. Despite of the introduction of this font to English, it

resembles many obstacles. Attached letters are by no mean subject to confusion, especially with fast transcription. This fact is fairly believed to be highly affecting third year students of English.

(c) *Teaching Deficit*:

Part of this learners handwritings' low-accuracy is accredited to teachers. Regardless to the mitigating circumstances in many cases, teachers have to monitor learners' handwritings starting from the elementary level. Learners who demonstrate a low-accurate handwriting should have been treated immediately.

(d) *Arabic Interference:*

It is clear to the readers that the English-Arabic distance plays a major role of students' handwritings. The transcriptional system of English differs hugely from its counterpart in Arabic. This is believed to have caused certain difficulties writing with a readable handwriting.

To sum up the analyzer's explanations of these misspelling, a final quantification of the assumed sources of errors is provided. Along with this final phase of error analysis: overgeneralization, learning deficit, teaching deficit, physical and emotional states, French interference, and Arabic interference have been interpreted as potential causes of those orthographical errors. The following table (*table 4.16*) represents each misspelling's sub-category assumed sources of errors:

Sub-category of Misspellings	Potential Sources of Errors
Substitution	French Interference. Pronunciation-Spelling Non-Correspondence. Physical and Emotional States.
Adding	French Interference. Pronunciation-Spelling Non-Correspondence. Learning Deficit.
Missing	Overgeneralization. Teaching Deficit. Pronunciation-Spelling Non-Correspondence.
Non-Doubling	Learning Deficit.

Non-Doubling	Pronunciation-Spelling Non-Correspondence.
	Arabic Interference.
	Teaching Deficit.
Non-English	Learning Deficit.
	Physical and Emotional States.
Mixing	Learning Deficit.
	Teaching Deficit.
Doubling	Overgeneralization
	Learning Deficit.
	Physical and Emotional States.
Handwriting	Physical and Emotional States.
	French Interference.
	Teaching Deficit.
	Arabic Interference.

Table.4.16. Potential Sources of Errors for Each Subcategory of Misspellings.

Potential Source	Number of Attribution	Percentage
Pronunciation-Spelling Non-Correspondence.	4	16%
Learning Deficit.	5	20%
Teaching Deficit.	4	16%
Overgeneralization.	2	8%
Physical and Emotional States.	5	20%
French Interference.	3	12%
Arabic Interference.	2	8%
Total	25	100%

Table.4.17. Quantification and Percentages of Potential Sources of Misspellings.
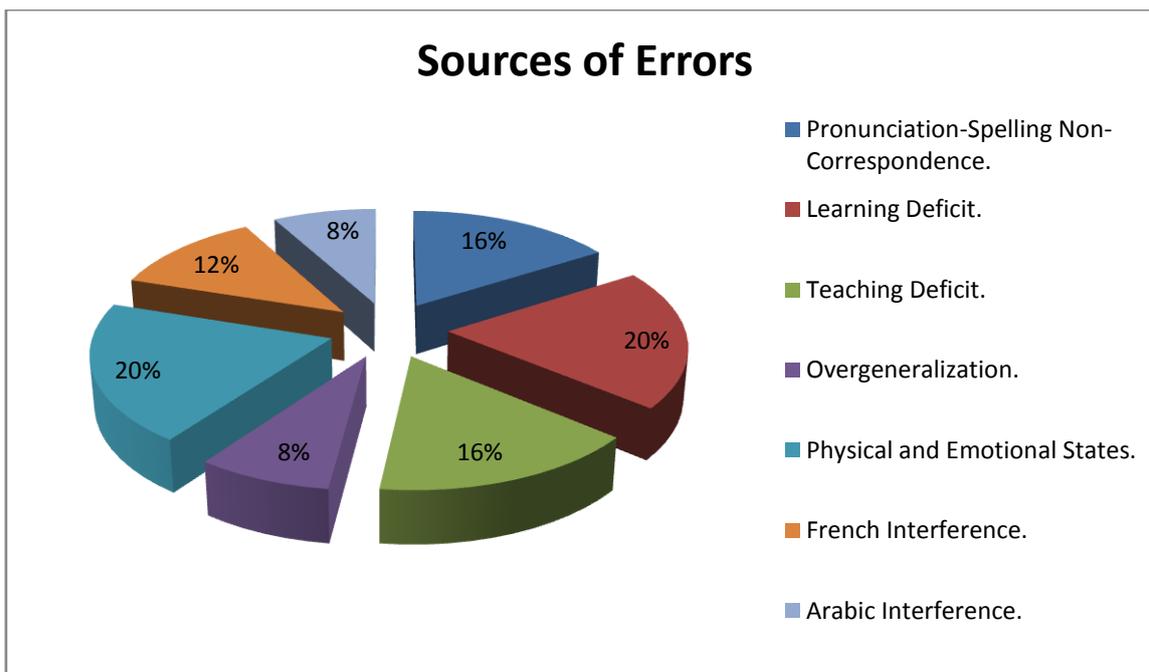
Figure.4.39. Percentage of Potential Sources of Misspellings.

On the one hand, it is apparent from this quantification that both learning deficits, including many aspects, and the physical and emotional states of learners are the most reasons why those misspellings have happened. Negative interferences, from both: Arabic and French, on the other hand, are equally resulting in certain orthographical errors. This should not drop the role of other potential sources such as: pronunciation-Spelling non-correspondence, overgeneralization, and teaching deficit. All in all, the explanatory phase has clearly contributed in a better understanding of learners' misspellings.

5. Verifying the Hypothesis

In regard to these finding, the next step is to verify the hypothesis provided in the introduction. To restate, it has been stated as follows:

"There are several spelling errors committed by third year learners of English at MKUB. This include: (1) Doubling/Non-Doubling of some letters, (2) Missing letters, (3) Intrusive letters, (4) Disordered letters, (5) Non-English Words, and (6) Mixing."

In light of the findings, the confirmation of this hypothesis can be –confidently- declared. Moreover, *substitution* and *handwriting* are added to the list of misspellings committed by third year students of English at MKU of Biskra, Algeria.

6. Limitations of the Study

Primarily, there might be other sources that were not –at the analyzer's disposal- to discuss; however, it is crucial to refer cautiously to them. Among those: biological anomalies (different types of aphasia). Certainly, all those potential sources, along with those not discussed, are overlapping. As any language-related issue, none of those can be detached from the other; nor proven to be exclusively causing some sole sub-category of misspellings. Finally, those explanations remain theoretical, based on the related literature, and the analyzer's interpretations. Every explanation remains a subject for reviewing, evaluation and rational criticism.

Conclusion

In this field-work chapter, many issues have been addressed. First, a thorough description of the population being investigated, and procedure of analysis were provided. This included: the sampling method, and different phases of error analysis. First, the collection of the corpus to be examined. Second, the identification of orthographical errors within the collected documents. Third, descriptions and categorization of misspellings. This was followed by some detailed explanations of this type of errors in written outcomes. In light of the results found, the hypothesis was verified and confirmed, with some extensions. The chapter was concluded by certain limitations and obstacles faced during the analysis. To conclude, the field-work chapter was very fruitful to this study.

General Conclusion

Languages have been through many changes across history. The well-known great shift is the invention of a written form that symbolizes the spoken one –dominant at first. The challenge has been always teaching a language to speakers of other languages. Speaking of which, English, regarded as lingua franca, is one typical example. Mainly, the written form has attracted the attention of many researchers. On the one hand, how to – effectively- teach it. On the other hand, how can the progress, including its drawbacks and negative outcomes, is monitored. To sum up, this research had been established to diagnose the written outcomes' errors –at the orthographical level- of third year students of English MKU of Biskra. Error Analysis was used to identify, describe, then explain spelling' errors. The results were largely believed to help other scholars at different levels.

The theoretical basis of the actual study was initiated by an overview of CA, EA, and then a reasonable distinction among: errors, mistakes, and lapses. First, CA was defined as a bidirectional procedure in which two different languages, or language' varieties, are compared. This assessment was believed to facilitate teachers' delivery of lessons. Next, EA, introduced by Corder (1967) revolutionized the world of teaching English, and similarly other languages. Instead of comparing two languages, the comparison is made between the learners' productions, and the correct form of the TL. This analysis is very fruitful in understanding learners' error, predict their potential sources, yet highly eradicate their occurrence. Certainly, it was very important to have a clear cut among: errors, mistakes, and lapses. Along the research, the analyzer's selection was made upon the use of "*error*" as an umbrella for any flaw in the performance.

The upcoming step was presenting the various English's teaching methods. This had been preceded by an exemplification of what a method is, and followed by a thorough focus on teaching spelling, the research' ultimate variable. Primarily, teaching methods are directly affected by the improvements in both: psychology and linguistics. Following this claim, certain methods were briefly presented. These were: The Grammar-Translation Method, The Direct Method, The Audio-lingual Method, and The Competency-Based Method. Spelling did receive its share of focus through the demonstration of both: inductive and deductive techniques of teaching. This was later supported by a distinction of spelling's learners: Phoenicians and Chinese. Simply put, this section has clearly revealed many ambiguities on the topic.

Knowing the potential sources of errors is very crucial in understanding them. The ultimate phase in EA is the explanations of errors; however, this cannot be achieved unless those are known. To accomplish this, the literature had been systematically reviewed. In light of this, brain's anomalies, memory's functioning, learning' deficiencies and teaching shortcomings, learning environment, and the nature of English itself were believed to cause errors, especially misspellings. Certainly, none of these was dismissively presented; nonetheless, it was supported by many related-studies and theories.

Finally, studying the corpus is the literature-practice' cross-stage. In this step, the corpus was intensively diagnosed. Following EA theoretical basis, the description of errors is essentials. The results demonstrated that misspellings were occurring in many forms. More frequently: *substitution*. *Adding*, *omitting*, and *non-doubling* and *non-English* words were less likely; however, *mixing*, *doubling*, and *handwriting* were the less-frequently identified misspellings. Hence, in light of the analyzer's interpretations, low physical and emotional states and learning deficits were classified as the top sources of orthographical errors. While teaching deficits and the complex nature of English, mainly its spelling, are fairly attributed. The less common ones were as follow: intralingual (overgeneralization) and interlingual (French and/or Arabic negative transfer). Simply put, the results are believed to have –heavily- contributed in the betterment of students' orthographical competence, their written outcomes, yet their overall proficiency level.

Recommendations and Pedagogical Implications

Although it becomes a cliché to conclude any research, book, or article by suggesting further studies, it is vital, in this instance, to propose some supplementary studies. First, other aspects of learners' written outcomes have to be analyzed. These can be: grammar, lexis, cohesion, coherence, and the like. Not only this, but also the spoken aspect, which is greatly, if not fully, not addressed. Regardless to the actual cross-sectional study, and its limitations, there is an enormous necessity to conduct certain longitudinal studies on learners' productions, both written and spoken.

Second, other levels of education, especially at university, have to be considered, starting from first year to master two students. Certainly, this should be applied on a larger number of subjects than the one studied. In addition, some other neighbouring universities, or even remotely-located ones, must be included, not only MKU of Biskra. It is crucial to establish a coordination among those, especially at the level of examination, to ensure –to a high level- the credibility of results. Finally, the results must have provided the literature with profitable insights of the nature of third year' orthographical errors.

The denoted results might be of a great importance to educators. Primarily, several adjustments on the spelling and vocabularies' building procedures have to be made. Teachers no longer have to solely rely on dictation, or oral instructions, when teaching words' spellings. Certainly, considering them the meeting point of the teaching-learning' process, it is mainly the teachers' duties to ensure the effective application and successfulness of these adjustments. This is –by no means- a mutual responsibility among all intervening parts, including primary education.

Another aspect of this situation is the mutual –but sometimes hostile- existence of several languages, and some dialects, within the same location. Teachers' trainings must be greatly focused on this uniqueness of those learners. Not only they have to teach English as a sole language detached from any other linguistics systems, but ensuring that no faulty importations, precisely from French, are made is what teacher ought to do. Mainly, educational authorities have to consider the possibility of teaching English at an earlier age of the actual one.

In light of this, students must be aware of the spelling-pronunciation' mismatches, and the negative results on their spelling abilities if they do not realize that. Next, it will be

fruitful to raise learners' awareness of spellings' standards, yet their restrictions and/or exceptions. Furthermore, the learners' MT or SL has to be considered. Learners must be alerted of faulty associations between English and Arabic and/or French. Similarly, learners' handwritings must be paid more attention and monitoring for its betterment. All in all, the curricula will be greatly enhanced if the misspellings are considered in building, or modifying it.

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Appendices

SECOND TERM EXAMINATION

ACTIVITY ONE (06pts): write a conclusion for the following introduction

The introduction:

> For many high school students, sports play an important part in their lives. For some, sports offer an opportunity to be a part of a team and to be accepted by their peers. To others, sports teach sportsmanship, discipline, and cooperation. For me, playing baseball on our high school team has been an important part of my life. It helps me to keep in shape, it has taught me the importance of practice and hard work, and it makes me popular with the girls.

YOUR conclusion:

finaly I think that the base ball on our high school wich is my favor[ite] become one important part in my life and I can't stop it. generaly the sport is necessery in our daialy life such as morality or physical body this in the health of the human for that Mohamed said that we should teach our childrer many and defferent sports play

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SECOND TERM EXAMINATION

ACTIVITY ONE (06pts): write a conclusion for the following introduction

The introduction:

> For many high school students, sports play an important part in their lives. For some, sports offer an opportunity to be a part of a team and to be accepted by their peers. To others, sports teach sportsmanship, discipline, and cooperation. For me, playing baseball on our high school team has been an important part of my life. It helps me to keep in shape, it has taught me the importance of practice and hard work, and it makes me popular with the girls.

YOUR conclusion:

Finaly, we belive that we can't eqnore the benifits of sports in our lives because sports helps us in many ways socially, physicaly and psycologicaly. Thus sports it's very important and has a big part to play in human's life. each one of us is in need to do sports time to time.

(04)

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SECOND TERM EXAMINATION

ACTIVITY ONE: write a conclusion for the following introduction (8pts)

The introduction:

> For many high school students, sports play an important part in their lives. For some, sports offer an opportunity to be a part of a team and to be accepted by their peers. To others, sports teach sportsmanship, discipline, and cooperation. For me, playing baseball on our high school team has been an important part of my life. It helps me to keep in shape, it has taught me the importance of practice and hard work, and it makes me popular with the girls.

YOUR conclusion:

In conclusion, for me sports it is very important for the high school students because it has many benifits for their health. The first thing is to keep their faddive outside and it is important for the students making and playing different sports specially sports of accuracy because it can help then minds to think and imagine briefly. For example; tennis, sketch, karate, Boxing, and so on. In the other hand, playing sport in group on our high school students has been an important way to communicate and make some relationship like playing football, hand Ball, Swiming and so on.

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SECOND TERM EXAMINATION

ACTIVITY ONE: write a conclusion for the following introduction (8pts)

The introduction:

> For many high school students, sports play an important part in their lives. For some, sports offer an opportunity to be a part of a team and to be accepted by their peers. To others, sports teach sportsmanship, discipline, and cooperation. For me, playing baseball on our high school team has been an important part of my life. It helps me to keep in shape, it has taught me the importance of practise and hard work, and it makes me popular with the girls.

YOUR conclusion:

To sumpup. Practice deffrent types of sport in high school resulted a great benifits for the students in their life, for example it teach them the respect, descipline and cooperation, especially those who playing baseball it consequence a diffrent advantages, for instence: playing baseball keep them in their shape and they became popular with girls and another deffrent moral behavior.

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SECOND TERM EXAMINATION

ACTIVITY ONE: write a conclusion for the following introduction (8pts)

The introduction:

> For many high school students, sports play an important part in their lives. For some, sports offer an opportunity to be a part of a team and to be accepted by their peers. To others, sports teach sportsmanship, discipline, and cooperation. For me, playing baseball on our high school team has been an important part of my life. It helps me to keep in shape, it has taught me the importance of practice and hard work, and it makes me popular with the girls.

YOUR conclusion:

In conclusion, all the sport important part in life such as the water, also it neccey for the younger and children both them, we should be particse all the type of sport not just baskt ball or hand ball, because all of them has many benifits and adventagesi for physical and mental of Human toking all the souity, and we should adrened all the persone to particy ld sport not just in one place or li ke the Children in stalle.

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Mech 0/D.A

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