

***A Corpus-based Error Analysis of High
School Students' Written English:
A Reflection on Noticing and Recasting***

By

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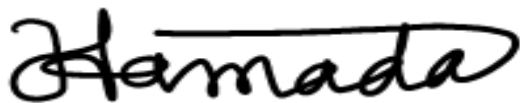
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A Corpus-based Error Analysis of High School Students' Written English: A reflection on Noticing and Recasting

Abstract

Students' errors need not be considered as symptoms of poor performance; on the contrary they should be treated as indicative healthy signs of an active learning process. This study was conducted to investigate whether high school students in the UAE were able to notice the grammatical and lexical errors in their writings. If so, how they were able to recast them taking the correctness of recasts into consideration. In addition, the most common unnoticed errors and the role of intralingual and interlingual transfer were other investigated areas. An analysis of a written corpus, which is a part of BALC (BUiD Arab Learner Corpus), of one hundred high school students' written paragraphs and essays was thoroughly analyzed. The results showed that students were able to notice 371 errors in their writings. These errors were reflected in their various methods of recast: deletions, insertions, and overwriting. Out of these errors, the students were able to correctly recast 272 (73%). Moreover the most common unnoticed grammatical and lexical errors were subject-verb agreement, negation, the use of modal verbs (can), and confusion of some words like 'there- their', 'its-it is', and 'see-sea'. Some of these errors were attributed to the negative transfer of the mother tongue like negation and some were attributed to the negative transfer from the target language like adding –s to verbs and nouns.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my deceased parents (May Allah accept them in the Paradise), my wife, my son, Ahmed and my daughter, Rana. I appreciate their everlasting love, patience, encouragement and support and without them, it would have been very difficult to accomplish my Master dissertation.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Errors are often seen as a part of the language learning process. Students' errors need not be necessarily considered as signs of poor performance; on the contrary, they should be treated as healthy signs indicating that a learning process is active. Therefore, these errors and mistakes can be considered as useful tools that can be utilized by both teachers and learners. For learners, being able to notice these errors and think of other correct forms can assist them in improving their language level and in being better language users. Teachers, on the other hand, can also utilize these errors to plan their classes for remedial actions in order to recast them.

In that respect, Mckeating (1994) said that a knowledge of the difficulties in learning a foreign language and a consideration of the possible causes of errors should lead the teacher to develop an attitude which is sympathetic and helpful. This attitude will encourage the students not to worry about error avoidance during the course of their speech.

Corder (1967) held errors to be the evidence of the learner's internal syllabus and the imminent difference between input and intake. Where input refers to what is being taught, intake refers to what is being learned. Corder's distinction between an error and a mistake is similar to that of Chomsky's which will be dealt with later. Errors, to Corder, reflect the learner's competence in the second language (Chomsky's I- Language), whereas mistakes are the self correctable and reflect performance (Chomsky's E- Language).

From the psycholinguistic's point of view, Chomsky (1972) stated that through the study of language, we could understand human cognition. As a consequence of this, the language acquisition device (LAD), which is hard-wired in the brain, processes language. This device works on a series of principals and parameters. In reference to Corder's distinction between an error and a mistake, Chomsky said that speakers have an underlying abstract knowledge of langue ('competence') which is separate from the actual language produced ('performance'). The language competence enables the

learners to produce and understand the infinite number of sentences. This competence refers to an idealized internal, and mental representation which Chomsky refers to as the 'I-Language' of a set of generative rules which can be used to construct the actual language produced which Chomsky refers to as 'E-Language' (Chomsky cited in Randall, 2007a:9).

Furthermore, does noticing a particular linguistic form promote second language acquisition? To answer this question, second language acquisition researchers such as Doughty and Williams, 1998; Skehan, 1998; Schmidt, 1994, 1995; Dekeyser, 2000; Long & Robinson, 1998 stated that noticing plays a vital role in second language acquisition studies. Apparently, there seems to be a connection between noticing of forms in the input and successful learning. Many researchers therefore have tried to examine how to make the input more salient for second language learners because attracting the learner's attention to the input through detecting the given structures of the linguistic form is a key factor to enable second language learners sort out this input. Thus the learner's attention to the target form first before they process it is a fundamental part of the learning process.

In addition to noticing, recasting is one of the techniques that many researchers (Doughty and Varela, 1998; Mackey & Philip, 1998; Lightbown, 1993; and Long & Robinson, 1998) advocate to draw learner's attention to the linguistic forms without impeding the flow of communicative discourse in the classroom.

It is noticing that triggers the cognitive process of second language acquisition. A process which has been referred to as 'cognitive comparison' because the learners are supposed to be able to compare the form he/she has produced to the form provided in the recast (Doughty & Williams, 1998). In other words, the learner awareness of the feedback he/she receives is central in the relationship between focus on form, noticing and learning.

Furthermore, Swain and Nabei (2002) suggested that recasting is a complex verbal behavior influenced by the teaching environment, the interaction context, and the learner's cognitive orientation. The effect of recasts

is influenced by not only the linguistic elements of the feedback, but also by the paralinguistic elements and the learner's autonomous utilization of the learning opportunities provided by the feedback.

The current study was conducted to investigate whether high school students were able to notice the grammatical and lexical errors in their own writing. If so, how they reacted these errors. Specifically the current study addresses the following research questions;

1. To what extent do high school students notice the grammatical and lexical errors in their writing?
2. How do high school students respond to these errors?
 - 2.1 How many errors were they able to recast correctly?
 - 2.2 How many errors were wrongly recasted?
3. What are the most common lexico-grammatical types of errors in their writings?
4. What are the most common sources of these errors?

Chapter Two: Background

2.1 Corpus Analysis for Data Driven Learning (DDL)

The term 'corpus' is the Latin for 'body'; hence, a corpus may be defined as a body of texts. But when this term is used in the context of modern linguistics, it tends most frequently to have more specific connotations than this simple definition provides for. These connotations can be summed up in four categories as McEnery and Wilson (1996) stated: sampling and representativeness, finite size, machine readable form, and a standard reference. Therefore, a corpus is a collection of texts; written, spoken, or mix, which is stored in a computer. Because it is stored in a computer, it allows for very large amounts of texts to be amassed and analyzed using especially designed software (O'Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter, 2007). These texts stored in a computer data base are available for analysis by researchers, educators, and even text book writers.

In language teaching, corpus linguistics has been less influential. Perhaps its most notable product so far has been a lively debate, begun 10 years ago and continuing today, over what role corpora should play in ELT. Meanwhile, changes arising from corpus linguistics appear to be creeping into ELT slowly over time, in contrast to the "revolution" which overtook EFL lexicography Ranalli (2003).

As there is no corpus to suit all purposes, the current one, which is a part of the *BUiD Arab Learner Corpus* (BALC), was built to suit the research purposes. Some high school texts of their English language exams were entered on the computer. These texts were then tagged using <x> </x>, <o> </o>, and <i> </i>. For example, <x> symbolizes the beginning of deletions and </x> marks the end of the deletion. Similarly, <o> </o> mark the beginning and the end of typing over, and <i> </i> mark the beginning and the end of insertions. These codes represent the students' different ways of recasting the written errors in their paragraphs.

Moreover, concordancing is an essential tool in corpus linguistics which means using a software to find the occurrence and the frequency of a particular word or a phrase. The searched word or phrase is displayed as the 'node' in concordance lines. The word or phrase usually appears in the center of the line with a few words before and after the node. This is referred to as the Key- Word- In- Context (KWIC). Concordance lines challenge the reader to read in an entirely different method, vertically, or even from the center outwards in both directions. The current research made use of Anthony's Laurence 'Antconc' concordance software to analyze the current corpus (Laurence, 2008).

The results of language corpora can be used as a basis for data driven learning (DDL). In other words, the data from the language corpus through utilizing the 'AntConc' concordance are used to provide insights on the high school students' ability to notice the errors in their writings and how they recast them taking into consideration the correctness of the recast. Therefore, the results can be useful for both teachers and textbook writers as well.

2.2 Arabic Language

Another important area, when considering language learning in general or error analysis in particular in an EFL or ESL contexts, is the effect of the mother tongue on second language acquisition. Thus, it is necessary to introduce some aspects of the Arabic language in order to compare and contrast the two languages; Arabic (as the mother tongue) and English (as the target language). In doing so, it will be easy to trace the effect of both the interlingual transfer and the intralingual transfer. The following paragraphs illustrate some of the differences between Arabic and English as Smith, 2001; Wickens, 1980; and Nayef & Hajjaji, 1997 presented them.

Arabic is essentially a formal written language and the term "Arabic" refers only to the formal language – a language that can be , and is, uttered vocally by those who are educated to do so, but one most often employed in

written form. As such, it is the standard language of the whole Arab world from Arabia to Morocco. The Arab would employ one of several related tongues that might be called, taking only the main groups, Iraqi, Arabian, Syro-Palestinian, Egyptian- Sudanese, North African, and North West African (Wickens, 1980). The differences from country to country are more marked than, say, differences between UK, USA, and Australian English (Smith, 2001). Moreover, Arabic is the language of the holy Quran and therefore all Muslims of whatever nationality are somehow familiar with it, and can even recite in it.

With regard to phonology, the Arabic and English phonological systems are very different, not only on the range of sounds used, but in the emphasis on vowels and consonants in expressing meanings. While English has 22 vowels and diphthongs to 24 consonants, Arabic has only 8 vowels and diphthongs (three short, three long, and two diphthongs) to 28 consonants. In figure 1, the shaded phonemes have equivalents or near equivalents in Arabic and therefore should be articulated without great difficulty. Unshaded phonemes may cause problems.

Vowels							
i:	ɪ	e	æ	eɪ	aɪ	ɔɪ	
ɑ:	ɒ	ɔ:	ʊ	aʊ	əʊ	ɪə	
u:	ʌ	ɜ:	ə	eə	ʊə	aɪə	aʊə

Consonants							
p	b	f	v	θ	ð	t	d
s	z	ʃ	ʒ	tʃ	dʒ	k	g
m	n	ŋ	l	r	j	w	h

Figure 1: Vowels and consonants. From Smith, 2001:126-127.

Another aspect is orthography and punctuation. Arabic orthography is a cursive system, running from right to left. Only consonants and long vowels are written. There is no upper or lower case distinction, nor can the isolated forms of letters normally be juxtaposed to form words. With regard to punctuation, Arabic punctuation is similar to the western style of punctuation, though some symbols are reversed.

The Arabic grammatical structure is different from that of Indo-European languages. There is no verb to 'be' in Arabic as well as the auxiliary 'do' which causes problems for second language learners. Negatives, for, examples, are formed by adding (laa, maa, or lan).

* Ahmed teacher	أحمد مدرس	/ahmed modares/
* The paper with me.	الورقة معي	/al-wqrqa mai/
* You like tea	أحب الشاي	/hal toheb al-shai /
* Ali not like cooking.	علي لا يحب الطبخ.	/ali laa yoheb al tabkh/

Also, in Arabic, there is no indefinite article, and the definite article has a wide range of use different from English. The indefinite article causes many troubles as it is commonly omitted. The most common problems of definite article arises from interference from Arabic genitive construction. All of this is illustrated in the following examples:

* This is book.	هذا كتاب	/Hatha kitab/
* I need a sugar.	أحتاج سكر	/Ahtaj soqar/
* Book Ahmed	كتاب احمد	/kitab ahmed/

Pronouns and nouns are also problematic. Many times personal pronouns are often added to the sentence (double subject). In other words, Arabic verb forms incorporate the personal pronouns, subject and object as prefixes and suffixes.

* Ahmed he goes to school.

Modal verbs are not found in Arabic. Their function is performed by normal verbs, often impersonal, or preposition followed by a subjunctive (present) tense.

I can go * I can that I go .

* From the possible that I go .

Adjectives follow their nouns in Arabic and agree in gender and number. Adverbs, on other hand, are used less commonly in Arabic than in English.

There is a frequent confusion between the adjective and the adverb forms in English, and the adjective form is usually overused.

In addition, Arabic has a wealth of fixed preposition and particles, used with both verbs and adjectives. Many of these do not coincide with direct English translation. Phrasal verbs are not found in Arabic and this area is one of the great difficulties for Arabic speakers.

She is jealous from me	تغار منى	Tgahro meni
I look the key.	ابحث	Abahath al'a almouftah

Question tags are in common use in all Arabic dialects, usually some unchanging from along the lines of 'Is that not so?' (أليس كذلك؟)

In addition to what has been previously mentioned, there has recently been a flood of words, scientific, technical and otherwise, that are used mostly with a slight change in pronunciation, but almost always with the same meaning. Examples of these words are;

(باسبور / motor / سيجارة / asphalt / سفلت / passport / موتور / سيجارة / asphalt / سفلت)

Chapter Three: Literature Review

In this chapter, I provide a general overview of both error analysis and contrastive analysis. Then, a distinction between an error and a mistake, the significance of errors, and the various sources of these errors will be highlighted. After that, various perspectives on noticing in second language acquisition will be overviewed. Related to noticing are two important paradigms; focus of form and focus on forms, and explicit and implicit ways of introducing the materials. Besides, Skehan's model of noticing will be illustrated. In addition to this, the role of the working memory and noticing is dealt with. And finally, the relationship between recasting and memory will also be discussed.

3.1: Error Analysis versus Contrastive Analysis

The study of second language acquisition can be said to have passed through a series of phases defined by the modes of inquiry researchers have utilized in their work: contrastive analysis, error analysis, performance analysis and discourse analysis (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991). In order to gain better insight into how error analysis became more popular among second language acquisition researchers, it is important to review contrastive analysis.

Behaviorism which was dominant from 1940's to 1960's is closely associated with contrastive analysis (CA) that had a great impact not only on the field of second language acquisition but also on the field of second language teaching. According to a behaviorist, learning is advanced by establishing a stimulus - response condition, by creating new habits, by means of reinforcement and practice of the established links between the stimulus and response. Researchers at that time were motivated by the prospect of being able to identify points of similarity and difference between native languages (L1) and target languages (TL). Intuitively the contrastive analysis hypothesis has appeal in that we commonly observe in second language learners a plethora of errors attributable to the negative transfer of the native language to the target language (Brown, 2007). There was a strong belief that a more effective pedagogy would result when these were taken into consideration.

Some of the key points in behaviorism are 'linguistic interference' and 'observed difficulties'. It is believed that the occurrence of observed difficulties in the learner's performance initiate a comparison of linguistic features between the learner's two language systems; the target language and L1. It is assumed that this type of analysis would result in providing indications of the difficulties that the second language learner would have with learning the target language and this would provide the framework for the syllabus for teaching the second language. The underlying notion involved was that of 'interference'; the surface structural properties of the L1 would interfere with the learning of the L2 through the transfer of L1 habits on to the TL. (Randall, 2007b).

The goal of the contrastive analysis was to develop teaching materials that would prevent the learners from acquiring wrong habits, in other words making errors. Because making errors was regarded as a 'sin' (Brooks, 1964 cited in Marysia, 2004), they were to be avoided at all costs. Furthermore, it was seen that the failure of the learner to acquire new habits as either the learner's inability to imitate the language pattern introduced or as the teacher's inability to assist the learner in the form of the right comparison between the two language systems.

On the other hand, in error analysis, and in contrast to contrastive analysis, the learner's errors were sought not in the learner's native language but in the target language. The learner's errors were not regarded as sins that need to be avoided at all cost, they are treated differently. They are seen as signs of learning. Eventually two versions of contrastive analysis emerged: the strong version of contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) which is predictive in nature and the weak version of CAH which is explanatory in nature. Marysia (2004) summed up the differences between contrastive analysis and error analysis in the following figure.

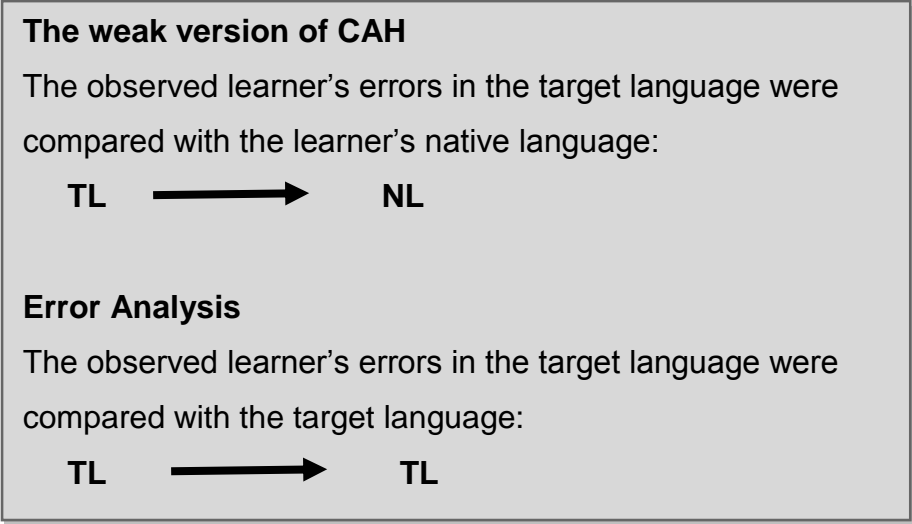


Figure 2: A methodological difference between the weak Version of the CHA and error analysis. From Marysia, 2004: 25

To sum up, while contrastive analysis focuses on the pedagogical implications, input, practice, transfer and inductive learning, error analysis focuses on the linguistic and cognitive processes and multiple types of errors. Despite the inadequacies of the EA in description and explanation of errors which are due to misconceptions about the learning process, EA, unlike CA, does take into account the learner and the manner of presentation. In view of this, the current paper focuses on the use of error analysis not contrastive analysis.

3.1.1: Errors versus Mistakes

It is important at the beginning to construct a definition of errors and to clarify how errors differ from mistakes or slips. A mistake, to begin with, was referred to by Brown (2000) as a performance error that is either a random guess or a 'slip', in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly. Brown went even further to show that a native speaker could make a mistake in his/her native language which they are able to recognize and are able to correct themselves. Errors, on the other hand, are noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of the native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner (Brown, 2000). "Interlanguage" is the key term in Brown's definition. As someone who learns a foreign language, the errors

learners make indicate the level of their proficiency because the errors of the beginners differ from those of the advanced.

Another distinction between errors and mistakes was provided by James (1998) who stressed the idea of 'intentionality'. An error is defined as being an instance of language that is unintentionally deviant and is self-correctible by the author. A mistake is also defined as either intentionally or unintentionally deviant and is self-correctible.

Mistakes can only be corrected by their agent if their deviant is pointed out to him or her...Errors cannot be self corrected until further relevant (to that error) input (implicit or explicit) has been provided and converted into intake by the learner. In other words, errors require further relevant learning to take place before they can be self corrected. (James, 1998: 83)

Amongst these definitions, Edge (1998) offered a simpler one to clarify this distinction for language teachers. Edge defined an error as what the learner cannot self correct whereas, a 'slip' is what the learner can self correct.

Corder (1967) who was committed to the objective of informing and improving second language pedagogy argued that errors were neither random nor best explained in terms of L1; errors were indications of learners' attempts to figure out an underlying rule-governed system. To Corder mistakes are slips of the tongue and not systematic, whereas errors are indication of an as yet non-native like, but nevertheless, systematic rule-based grammar. This distinction is easily seen in Chomesky's distinction between performance and competence.

All in all, it seems that the notion of self correction is the key element in the distinction between an error and a mistake or a slip. However, before the process of self-correction, there is another one that precedes it which is being able to notice the gaps. Being able to notice the gap and pay attention to these errors stimulates other alternatives in learner's schemata from which the learner chooses the ones that he/she thinks are to be correct. Thus, 'attention' and 'noticing' are deemed important aspects in the process. Randall (2007a) shed the light on these two aspects when he said that attention had turned to

the process by which interaction could turn into learning, particularly in the instructed second language classroom. Within the notion of 'noticing' important aspects of the language, attention turned the way that this noticing of form takes place in the learning process (Randall, 2007a). The role of attention is emphasized most in cognitive accounts of L2 development, especially those that are strongly psycholinguistic in approach, within which attention to input is seen as essential for storage and a necessary precursor to hypothesis formation and testing. The construct of attention appears necessary for understanding nearly every aspect of second and foreign language learning (Schmidt, 2001).

3.1.2: Significance of Errors

No longer are the learners' errors considered sins that need to be avoided at all costs. The learners' errors are now seen as indicators that a learning process is going on therefore they deserve to be analyzed. James (1998) stated that errors are significant in three respects: they inform the teacher about what should be taught; they inform the researcher about the course of learning; and they are an outcome of the learners' L2 testing hypothesis. In addition to this, analyzing the language errors can help predict the learners' type of errors that will be useful for developing teaching materials and selecting teaching methodology. The results of these studies may also be used for researching second language acquisition and the learners' strategies in language learning. In addition to its potential contribution to EFL pedagogy, error study can provide data for wider linguistic enquiry (Salem, 2007). Norish (1982) see errors as positive aids to learning he even went on to say that errors themselves may actually be a necessary part of language learning. Furthermore, Brown (2007) explained that the fact learners do make errors, and that these errors can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learner, led to a surge of study of learners' errors, called error analysis.

All in all, if errors in 1960's were regarded as sins and had to be avoided at all costs, nowadays, they are viewed as an integral part of language learning process.

3.1.3: Sources of errors

By trying to identify the source of errors, we can take another step towards understanding how the learners' cognitive and affective processes relate to the linguistic system and to formulate an integrated understanding of the process of second language acquisition (Brown, 2007). There is much to be gained from a consideration of the possible causes of errors. These sources can be summarized in three causes (Brown, 2007 and MacKeating, 1981). Interlingual transfer (also known as the mother tongue or external interference) which gave rise to the Contrastive Analysis is the first source. The second source is intralingual transfer (within the target language itself). And finally other sources such as the learner's carelessness, and errors encouraged by teaching.

As early as 1966, Kaplan stated that speakers of Arabic transfer rhetorical patterns from their mother tongue into their English writing (Kaplan, 1966 as cited in Khuwaileh and Al Shoumail, 2000). Moreover, Kharma & Hajjaj (1997) stated that the Arab learners of English start learning it years after they have already started learning formally, and acquiring informally, their mother tongue. In another attempt to study the student errors, Eadie et al. (1998) stated that the learners utilize a range of different mental processes, including borrowing patterns from the mother tongue. This kind of transfer has undoubtedly a negative impact on the acquisition of the target language. Thus, many of the fossilized errors could be the result of the transfer from the Arabic language, or from the developmental processes common to all learners (Johannsen, 1996). Following are some examples of the interlanguage transfer as appeared in a sample of students' written and spoken English. In figure 3 Hamada (2006) provided a few examples taken from the nursing students' writings which show this type of transfer.

- **Drinking [Smoking] cigarettes causes cancer.**
- **She asked from me the nursing logs.**
- **Close [switch/turn off] your phone in this area, please.**
- **I will give elpresentaion [the presentation] next week.**

Figure 3: Interlanguage transfer as shown on a sample of students written and spoken English (From Hamada, 2006: unpublished paper)

Khuwaileh and Al Shoumail (2000) conducted a study to examine the writing weaknesses of students in both Arabic and English by investigating their written products and to establish any association or connection between the two types of weaknesses in both languages. The researchers found that there were many similarities in the participants' performance in Arabic and English.

Thus, some Interlanguage errors reflect students' problems within their first language. In other words, students confused two similar words in Arabic and that confusion was reflected in English (Mahmoud, 2005). In another study conducted to determine Jordanian undergraduate EFL students' errors in the use of the indefinite article, Bataineh (2005) attributed the large number of errors to more than one source, the most obvious of which may be the native language transfer. Hourani (2008) conducted a study to investigate the common grammatical errors in the English writing of the third secondary school boys in the eastern region, United Arab Emirates. He concluded that the total number of interlingual transfer errors was about 38%.

A second source of errors is identified as the "Intralinguage transfer". By studying intralingual transfer and the development of errors within the framework of a theory of second language learning, and through examining typical cases of the teaching of the forms from which they are derived, it may be possible to see the way towards teaching procedures that take into account the learner's strategy for acquiring a second language (Richards, 1974). Hourani (2008) also stated that errors due to intralingual transfer constituted 62% of the total number of errors.

Students may commit several types of errors with regards to the intralingual transfer. They make use of what they have learned before and apply these rules in a new situation. Basically these errors are due to the faulty-rule learning of the target language that they have acquired before. Most of these errors fall under the categories that Richard (1971) presented. These categories are the errors related to over-generalization, ignorance of rule restriction, incomplete application of rules, and false concepts hypothesized. In the following figure, Hamada (2008) presented a sample of these errors as appeared in the student's assignments.

Over-generalization	* Wafaa come from Oman. * We goed to the Emirates mall in Dubai.
Ignorance of rule restrictions	* The doctor whom I saw him in the hospital is live in KhorFakan
Incomplete application of rules	* My sisters cooking chicken Beriani (an Indian Meal).
False concepts hypothesized	* I will make my best to study hard.

Figure 4: A sample of the student nurses errors as shown in their assignments. (From Hamada, 2006: unpublished paper)

In short, it can be said that the early stages of language learning are characterized by the predominance of interference that is the interlingual transfer. Once the learners have begun to acquire parts of the new system, more and more intralingual transfer is manifested (Brown, 1994).

In addition to the previously mentioned expected sources of errors, errors that are encouraged by the teacher are considered another source (McKeating, 1981). Under this category, McKeating introduced two types: hyper-correction which sometimes results from over-emphasis on items that may present or presents difficulty, and the faulty rules given by teachers.

Based on the above mentioned sources of errors, the categories of the errors as stated by Brown (1994) can be four: the ones of addition, omission, substitution, and ordering at either the sentence or discourse level. Different

levels of language can be considered within these categories like: phonology, lexicon, grammar, and discourse.

Kharmā and Hajjaj (1997) stated that there was no real need to use English outside the school because the medium of communication, for practical reasons, is in Arabic. As a result, the exposure to the English language outside the school is still very limited and not always of very great help. Building on my personal background, the lack of exposure to (authentic) English may cause errors as the students tend to quickly forget what has been taught if they do not find an opportunity to use their language outside the classroom.

To conclude, many researches and studies have been conducted to analyze the student's errors in different countries (Lott, 1983; Sheorey, 1986). There are also some studies conducted in the Arab world (Farooq, 1998; Kharmā & Hajjaj, 1991; Khuwaileh & Al-Shoumali, 2000; Mahmoud, 2005; and Bataineh, 2005).

3.2: Noticing

Many second language acquisition researchers agree that some sort of focus on form instruction is necessary for stimulating the learner's attention to the formal aspects of the target language. Recently many researchers have investigated whether noticing a particular linguistic form may promote the acquisition of that form (Shimidit 1990, 1994, 1995; Van Patten 1996, 2000). It is deemed necessary at this stage to provide a definition of noticing. Schmidt (1990) defined noticing as a conscious attention to the input. In other words, it is the registration of the occurrence of a stimulus event in conscious awareness and subsequent storage in long term memory. Schmidt's definition of noticing highlighted the importance of the long term memory as an important condition for the conversion of the input to an intake. In other words, according to Schmidt (1995), the noticing hypothesis states that what learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning. Schmidt also states that whether a learner deliberately attends to a linguistic form in the input or it is noticed

purely unintentionally, if it is noticed it becomes intake; and that noticing is a necessary condition for L2 acquisition.

Furthermore, Schmidt distinguished between two levels of awareness: awareness at the level of noticing and awareness at the level of understanding. Awareness at the level of noticing to Schmidt focuses on conscious registration of an event, whereas awareness at the level of understanding implies recognition of a general rule or pattern. Therefore, as mentioned earlier, Schmidt believes that awareness at the level of noticing is important to language learning because language learners must consciously notice linguistic input so that the input becomes an intake. This may eventually lead to the restructuring of the learners' interlanguage. Therefore, awareness at the level of understanding may be seen as a catalyst, but not necessary for second language acquisition. In order to clarify Schmidt's hypothesis and the place of noticing in L2 acquisition, Ellis (1997) proposed the following model (Figure 5).

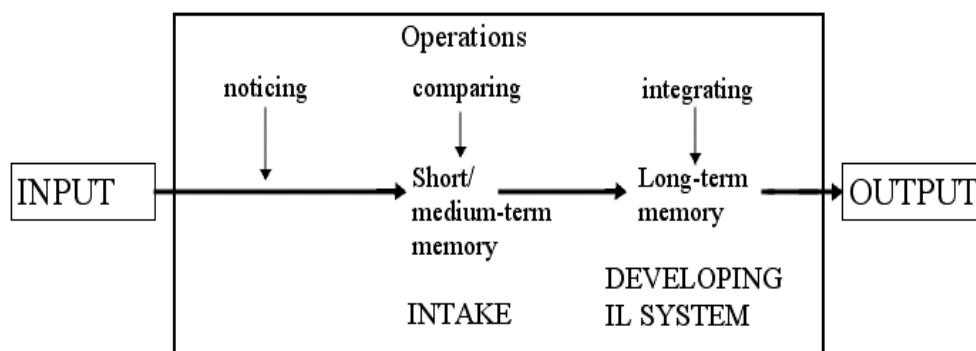


Figure 5: The process of learning implicit knowledge. From Ellis, 1997:119

Ellis' model, illustrated in figure 5, involves two stages through which the process of input becomes implicit knowledge. The first stage involves learners noticing language features input, absorbing them into their short term memory and comparing the features produced as output. So, in this stage the input becomes an intake. Similarly, in the second stage the intake is absorbed into the learner's interlanguage system. Only when the language features become part of the long term memory, changes on the interlanguage system occurs.

In that respect, Leow (1997) distinguished two forms of noticing: simple noticing and noticing with metalingustics awareness. Whereas the first form of noticing may be represented in a registration with awareness indicated by a report or repletion, the later can be exemplified in cases in which a structure is noticed and put into question or discussion. Therefore, Leow's study revealed that those who showed higher levels of awareness learned more than those who merely attended and noticed.

In addition to the different forms presented earlier, Swain (1998) pointed out several levels of noticing. For example, because of the salience or frequency of a structure form, learners may notice a particular structure in the target language. Learners may also notice that the target language form is different from their own interlanguage.

On the other hand, unlike what has been presented earlier, Schmidt's viewpoints have been questioned and debated recently. Tomlin and Villa (1994), for example, see noticing as detection within selective attention that does not necessarily require awareness. To them, detection is the most salient aspect of language acquisition. They highlighted three functions involved in attention: alertness, orientation, and detection. Alertness refers to readiness to deal with the incoming stimulus or data, whereas orientation directs the attentional resources to a particular bit of information. The third one is detection which is the process that selects a particular bit of information and is the minimal necessary aspects of acquisition through which particular exemplars are stored in the memory.

All in all, consciousness raising is an important aspect when dealing with L2 errors because it will assist the learners to notice the linguistic features and give them time to reflect. Another aspect that needs to be clarified along with consciousness raising is language awareness. James (1998) clarified the difference between the two aspects by stating that consciousness raising refers to what the learner does not know, whereas language awareness is related to making explicit what the learners may already know implicitly.

3.2.1: Focus on form Vs Focus on forms

Arising from the earlier discussion are two important questions: Is it a matter of focus on form (FoF) or focus on forms (FoFs)? Related to this question is another one which is- Is it a matter of explicit or implicit learning of the verbal materials? The subsequent paragraphs cover the answer to these questions.

First, focus on form refers to the shift of focus from the linguistic form to a meaning focused lesson, whereas Focus on Forms denotes the importance of organizing materials around linguistic forms. To Long and Robinson (1998), consciousness raising and language awareness are seen as a part of the language rule tradition, and as such are seen as FoFs bound. On the other hand, Allan (1999) stated that language awareness is strongly related to an inductive learning that goes beyond boundaries of grammar in a traditional sense. Therefore, she defines language awareness as one's sensitivity to the nature of the language and its role in the human life.

Doughty and Varela (1998) see the quintessential element of the theoretical construct of focus on form is its dual requirement that the focus must occur in conjunction with, but must not interrupt the communicative interaction. Accordingly, implicit focus on form techniques are effective since the aim is to add attention to a communicative task rather than to depart from an already a communicative goal in order to discuss a linguistic feature. Additionally, one of the arguments proposed by Lightbown (1998) was that focus on form causes later noticing in the input that facilitates the internalization of the input. Based on what has been mentioned so far, Long (1991) suggested three basic teaching options:

1. Teaching can be based on meaning by providing a rich corpus of appropriate language material and the students acquire the language through using such materials (Focus on meaning);
2. Teaching can be based on studying formal aspects of the language such as grammar in isolation (Focus on Forms);

3. Teaching can be based on student output, using this output to provide examples of language form which will help students to communicate more effectively in the future, thus integrating meaning and form (Focus on form), (Long cited in Randall, 2007a).

3.2.2: Implicit Vs Explicit Learning

The second question sheds light on the process by which the learners operate upon needs to be considered. Therefore, the major debate in that respect is the contrast between explicit and implicit learning of the given materials. Schmidt (1995) clarifies this by saying:

... implicit learning is incidental, does not involve selective attention to features of input that feeds into the learning process, involves unconscious induction resulting in the establishment of abstract rules and representation, is the sole basis for spontaneous performance, is unaffected by instruction (Schmidt, 1995: 172).

In contrast, it can be said that explicit learning involves attention to the rule and conscious induction of the abstract rules which have a great influence upon performance. Both implicit and explicit learning surely exist, and they probably interact. Implicit learning –learning without awareness- is shown by numerous demonstrations that the result of allocating attention to input results in more learning than can be reported verbally by the learners. Explicit learning- learning with awareness-, on the other hand, is also common. Probably many learners have learned some other cognitively demanding skill and can verify that learners commonly form conscious hypotheses about the target of their learning and modify those hypotheses as they encounter more information (Schmidt, 2001). Research on implicit learning and implicit memory suggests that at least some of the relevant associations can be acquired from the input without the learner being consciously aware of the contingency, although the relevant aspects of the input must be attended for processing.

Another area which is related to these two concepts; implicit and explicit learning, is the inductive and deductive ways of learning. Dekeyser (2003)

stressed the importance of distinguishing implicit learning from two concepts: inductive learning and implicit memory. Inductive learning (going from the particulars to the general, from the examples to the rules) and implicit learning (learning without awareness) are two orthogonal concepts. The relationship between these concepts is illustrated in figure 6. Via traditional rule of teaching, learning is deductive and explicit. Dekeyser said;

...when students are encouraged to find rules for themselves by studying examples in a text, learning is inductive and explicit. When children acquire linguistic competence of their native language without thinking about its structure, the learning is inductive and implicit (Dekeyser, 2003:314)

	Deductive	Inductive
Explicit	Traditional Teaching	Rule Discovery
Implicit	Using parameters	Learning L1 from input

Figure 6: The inductive /deductive and explicit/implicit dimensions. From Dekeyser, 2003: 314.

To sum up, one cannot agree more with what Randall (2007a) said. He sums this debate up by saying that although these categories are useful, it is clear that the actual classroom contains examples of more than one approach and some activities carried out in the classroom may not fit neatly into one or other of the categories. He went on to say that what is really important is that there would appear to be a consensus on the need to raise awareness of language features for effective learning to take place (Randall, 2007a).

3.2.3: Skehan's model

Attention is generally regarded a necessary precondition for successful learning. While Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990; 1995) conceptualizes conscious attention as indispensable for turning input into intake, Tomlin & Villa (1994) break down the construct of attention. On the basis of psychological theories of perception they distinguish between alertness, orientation, and

detection, and claim that detection in SLA may occur without awareness or even without alertness and orientation. Robinson (1995) points out that the relationship between attention and awareness in both approaches is still a critical issue. Skehan has summed up the influences and implications of the working memory and long term memory.

The concept of noticing occupied a central position in Skehan's model. According to Skehan (1998), various influences affect noticing, such as the frequency and saliency of the input, task demands, classroom instructions, individual differences between learners in the processing ability, and readiness to pay attention to certain linguistic forms. The model emphasizes input processing and the effects of input features through noticing.

The components of Skehan's model are presented in figure 7. These components can be characterized as follows:

- Input qualities: the more frequent and prominent a form, the more likely it is to be noticed in the input and becomes an established part of the learner's lexical store.
- Focused input: noticing is influenced by instruction and tasks as they may make certain language forms more salient. In the case of second language learners, the noticing will be heavily influenced by the structured nature of the classroom (Randall, 2007a).
- Task demands on processing resources: the cognitive complexity of a language task influences noticing in terms of making it more or less likely to occur.
- Internal factors: readiness to pay attention to certain linguistic forms and individual differences and processing ability may also have an impact on noticing.
- Working memory and long term memory: working memory is activated by various influences operating upon noticing such as language processing and consciousness enhanced processing. The result of noticing then becomes available in the long term memory for modification.

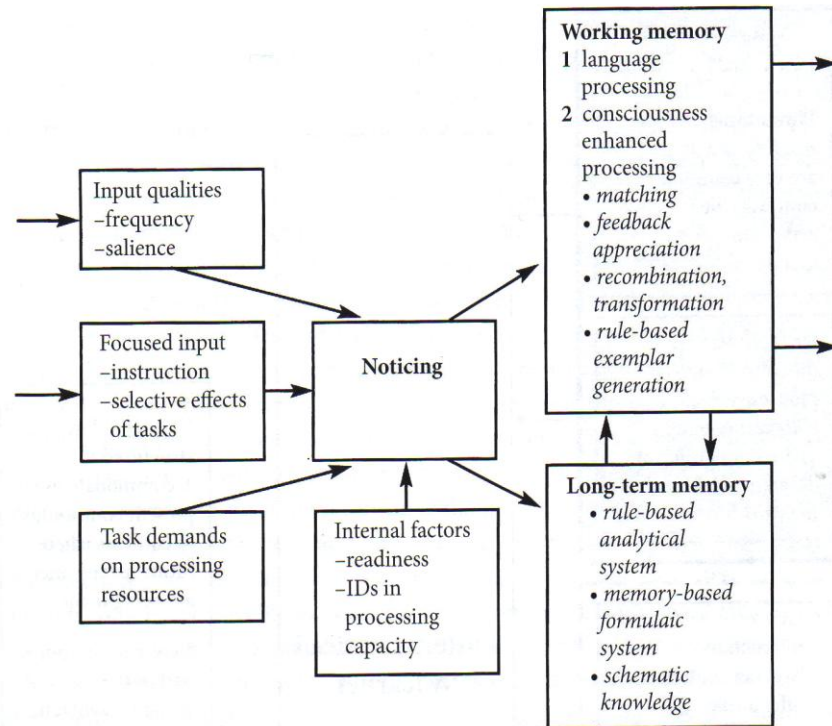


Figure 7: Influences on noticing and components of working memory and long term memory. From Skehan, 1998: 57

In other words, Randall described the model by saying that the model shows how frequently encountered linguistic items are passed on the long term memory. He stressed the importance of frequency by saying;

... The frequency of an item is an important feature of the input. The more frequently a word or a phrase is encountered, the more it is noticed and thus becomes an established part of the learner's lexical store. This, in turn, would get fed back to the noticing system as an individual difference in terms of what features to attend to in relation to the individual's language level (the more exposure the learner has had to forms, the higher the level the language and the more features that particular individual will notice). The frequency of items in the input trains the mental lexicon or the grammatical module in the long term memory to notice these items. This results in an expanded lexicon or an expanded /re-structured language system. This expanded/developed interlanguage produces a readiness in the learner to notice certain language features...The model also indicates the importance of focused input such as instruction and tasks on the ability to notice language features...noticing will be heavily influenced by the structured nature of the classroom environment (Ranall,2007a:158).

3.2.4: Working memory and Noticing

In the field of cognitive psychology, the term working memory refers to the memory process immediately involved in the simultaneous storing and processing of information in real time (McLaughlin & Heredia, 1996). Therefore, in order to process an L2, a learner first stores the syntactic, semantic, phonological, and pragmatic information that has been encoded from the input of an immediate interlocutor, and then, when planning and executing utterances activate this information or retrieve it from the long term memory.

In that respect, Anderson (1983) ACT (Adaptive Control of Thought) model illustrated in figure 8 provides an explanation for the way that immediate experience may be converted into automatic long term memory routines which are the purpose of repletion in the working memory.

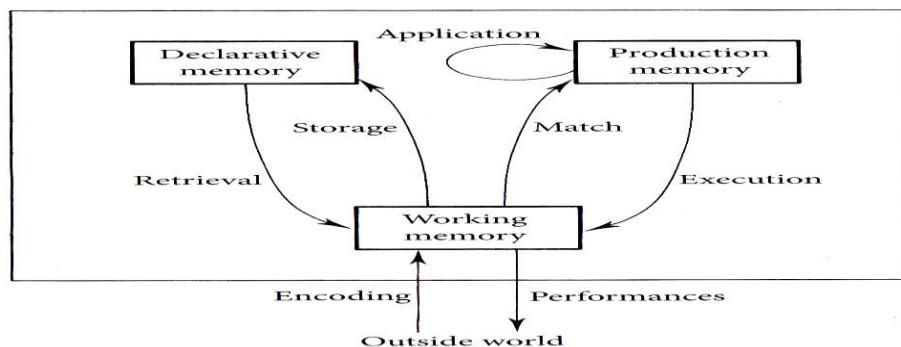


Figure 8: A schematic diagram of the major components and interlinking process in Anderson's (1983, 1993) ACT model. Cited in Randall, 2007:133

Anderson distinguishes the three types of memory structures: declarative, procedural and working memory. Declarative memory takes the form of a semantic net linking propositions, images, and sequences by associations. Procedural memory (also long-term) represents information in the form of productions; each production has a set of conditions and actions based in declarative memory. The nodes of long-term memory all have some degree of activation and working memory is that part of the long term memory that is most highly activated.

This model provides, as Randall (2007a) explained, an explanation of learning in terms of ‘higher order’ analytical skills and to degree ‘lower order’ motor-neural skills as well. It also provides an explanation of the way that the (SAS) Supervisory Attentional System (which will be discussed later) may operate and a theoretical framework for the way that procedures for second language learning involve more than simple repetition.

One area of working memory which deserves much more consideration is the role of attention in language learning. Attention, as the Supervisory Attentional System, is the most central element of Ellis (2001) working memory model presented in figure 4.

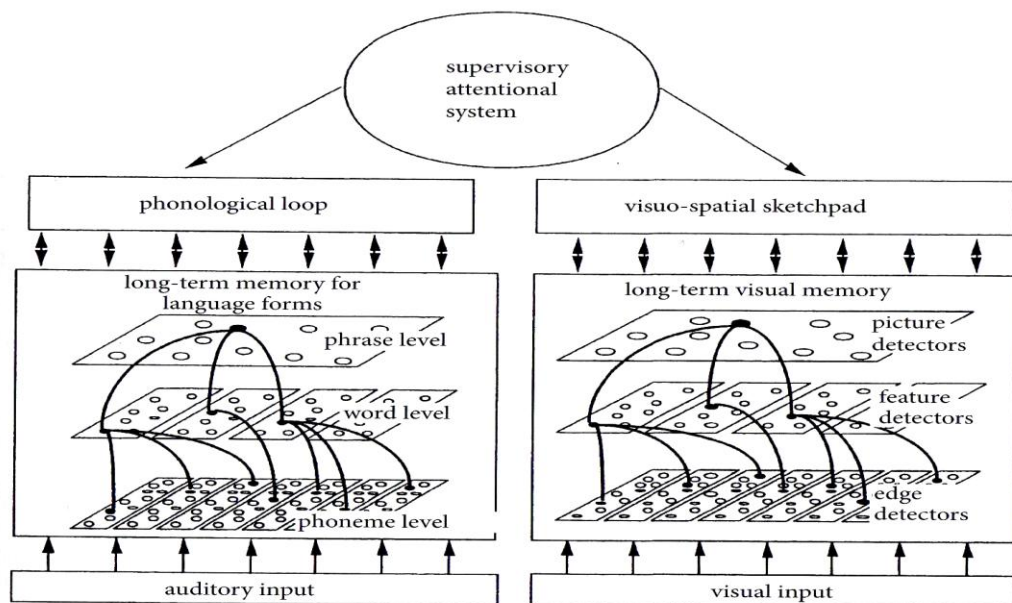


Figure 9: The model of working memory for language acquisition. From Ellis, 2001:36

The essence of the Working Memory model is that we have specialist systems for perceiving and representing, both temporarily and in the long term, visual and auditory information, along with a limited recourse attentional system. Therefore, the model acknowledges the intimate connections and mutual influences of the long term phonological memory and the phonological loops, and of long term visual memory and the visuo-spatial sketchpad. The kind of interactions which Dekeyser (2001) said underpin the development of automaticity and fluency.

Many researches on conscious and attention (e.g., Ellis, 1990; Doughty, 2001; Doughty, 2003; Hulstign, 2001; Robinson, 2003; and Schmidt, 2001). Robinson (2003) said that before the newly detected information could be encoded in the long term memory, the information must first enter the area of focal attention and, therefore, short term working memory, where rehearsal processes operate. He believed that noticing and higher level of awareness were made possible by those rehearsal mechanisms which send information from short term memory to long term memory. It was the rehearsal processes that constrained what could be verbalized.

Thus, it is thought that the limit capacity and duration of the working memory is a constraint to the development of complex cognitive tasks. The capacity of the working memory varies based on individual differences among learners when they process various tasks. In order for a complex task to be carried out, a greater amount of controlled and automatic processing needed than the less complex one. Thus the familiarity of the relevant structures and the linguistic representations are related to the working memory which affects the learner's developmental levels.

All in all, the relationship of attention as effort to attention as capacity was presented in many models, some of them were introduced earlier, (Skehan, 1996, 1998; and Van Patten, 1996). These models assumed that sustaining attention to tasks which were high in their capacity demands was more effortful than sustaining attention to tasks which were low in their capacity demands (Robinson, 2003). It is also important to mention that the working memory is currently among the most intensively researched and controversial areas of research in first language processing which is reflected in the number of edited volumes as well as the numerous articles in journals (Dekeyser and Juffs, 2005).

In order to conclude this section about noticing and second language acquisition, and noticing and working memory, one can refer to Schmidt's own reflection on his own attempt to learn Portuguese. Schmidt (1991) concluded that those who notice most, learn most, and it may be that those who notice most are those who pay attention most.

3.3 Recast and noticing

As discussed earlier, noticing appears to play a crucial role in second language acquisition. Many researchers believe that there is a connection between learners's noticing of linguistic forms in the input for successful learning (Robinson, 1995; Schmidt, 1990, 2001; Skhean, 1998. However, the role of the output and its influence on noticing has also been studied. Swain's (1998, 2005) output hypothesis claims that the output may sometimes be, from the learner's perspective, a 'trial run' reflecting their hypothesis of how to say or write their intent. Swain indicated that the output may influence noticing and promote second language acquisition in a number of ways. First, learners may use their output to try out new language forms and structures. They may also use their output to see what works and what does not. This role is attributed to interaction.

However, many researchers (Gass &Varonis, 1994) said that before interaction could affect the learner's interlanguage, learners ought to first notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language.

Recasting is one of the techniques that can be used to bridge this gap. Through recast, learners' attention might be drawn to the linguistic forms without impeding the flow of discourse in the communicative target language classroom (Long, 1996). Recasts are an appealing focus on form techniques because of the relative unconstructiveness of the this type of pedagogical intervention into the communicative activity (Long and Robinson, 1998) in other words, Long and Robinson concluded that acquisition benefits most when second language learners focus not on linguistic form alone , or on communicative meaning alone, but on both form and meaning .

A recast is defined as a reformulation of a previous erroneous utterance into a more target –like form while preserving the original meaning (Nabei & Swain, 2002). That is to say that a reformulation of the all or a part of the learner's immediately after the utterances replacing the none target like items with the more like target items with both interlocutors focused on meaning. Thus, Long argues that recasts provide the opportunity for 'cognitive

comparison' because the learners compare their own deviant production with the correct ones.

Such things could be seen in a variety of classroom activities that include the interlocutors providing either implicit or explicit corrective feedback. Figure 10 below illustrates types of oral feedback which can be summarized in three: positive feedback to reinforce the correct form of the provided utterance, negative feedback when the teacher comments on the learner' utterance explicitly providing the correct linguistic and/or the lexical form, and recast (the implicit negative corrective feedback) where the correct form is provided implicitly. Note that in the teacher's recast of Ali's incorrect utterance, there was no explicit indication (like the one of the negative feedback) that an error has been made. Thus the teacher corrected the erroneous verb without telling the learner the original form of the verb was wrong.

<u>Positive Feedback</u>	<u>Negative Feedback</u>	<u>Recast</u>
<p>Teacher: Where did you go yesterday, Ali?</p> <p>Ali: I went to Dubai.</p> <p>Teacher: Great, Thanks.</p>	<p>Teacher: Where did you go yesterday, Ali?</p> <p>Ali: I went to Dubai.</p> <p>Teacher: That is wrong. You should say; "I went to Dubai."</p>	<p>Teacher: Where did you go yesterday, Ali?</p> <p>Ali: I went to Dubai.</p> <p>Teacher: Oh! You went to Dubai.</p>

Figure10: The three types of oral feedback

Nabei and Swain (2002) outlined the findings of the various researches which help us directly or indirectly to understand the effect of recasts under two headings: (1) description of recasts, and (2) evaluation of the effectiveness of recasts in observational classroom studies and in experimental laboratory studies. In that respect, Nabei and Swain (2002) presented a case study on a 19 year- old Japanese college girl (Shoko) learning EFL. They examined how recasts were provided and the relationship between the student's awareness of recast feedback and her L2 learning. They concluded that recasting is a complex verbal behavior influenced by the teaching environment, the interaction context, and the learner's cognitive orientation. They said that recasts are influenced not only by its linguistic elements, but also by

paralinguistic elements, as well as by the learner's autonomous use of the learning opportunities provided by the feedback.

In another study to investigate the effectiveness of oral recasts in an EFL classroom, Perdomo (2008) concluded that students in the recast condition did better than the students in the control group. The results also indicated that the students perform better when they receive negative feedback recast. Also, Mackey et al. (2000) studied the relationship between feedback and learner perception. They concluded that the errors corrected by the interviewers were morphosyntactic (47%) or phonological (41.5%), with limited lexical feedback (10.5%). However, the study also found that the recasts of morpho-syntactic errors were less accurately perceived by the learners than the recasts of lexical and phonological errors, despite the fact that the recasts of morpho-syntactic errors constituted the most frequent type of feedback provided. Mackey et al. concluded that the learners were relatively accurate in their perceptions of lexical and phonological feedback, but not so in the case of morpho-syntactic feedback. The researchers further concluded that the lack of learner uptake was caused by the learners' inaccurate perceptions.

Similarly, Philp (2003) conducted a laboratory study designed to determine whether learners notice native speakers' reformulations of IL grammar in the context of dyadic interactions. Working on oral communication tasks with 33 adult ESL learners, Philp tried to prompt accurate immediate recall by knocking twice on the table to draw attention to each recast. According to this study, higher proficiency learners are more likely to notice recasts than lower proficiency learners, and short recasts, especially those involving changes in morphology rather than in syntax, are more easily noticed.

Moreover, Vickers & Ene (2006) conducted a study to explore advanced ESL learners' ability to make improvements in grammatical accuracy by autonomously noticing and correcting their own grammatical errors. It was clear from the results that the learners were able to self correct their use of the past hypothetical conditional by crossing through the error and writing above it the correct form.

More studies are called for in second language acquisition to explore the causal relationship between FoF, noticing, and learning. The results of recast studies are controversial; hence, a need for more research on recast and the elements involved in the interaction that can affect its effectiveness is evident.

Many researchers (Long and Robinson, 1998; Nabie and Swain, 2002; and Ellis, 2008) called for more studies in this area. However, it appears that the studies on recasts only investigated oral utterances of the learners, and none of which focused on the written products of the second language learners. Also the role of the interlocutor is vital in providing the correct form of the target language. In that respect the current paper is different. The current paper is intended to investigate how second language learners recast the errors in their written paragraphs. The one who attempts to provide the correct form of the target language is the learner himself/herself based on ,of course, his/her prior knowledge. In other words, the learners themselves attempt to close the gap which they noticed between their interlanguage and the target language. Whether or not the learners were able to provide the correct form of the target language as a recast to this gap is another aspect to be investigated in this paper.

Chapter Four: Methodology

4.1: Operational Definitions

In order to be able to answer the research questions, it is essential to have precise operational definitions of errors, noticing, and recasting.

For the purpose of the research, an error is considered an error if it fulfills the following:

1. Overextension of analogy: The learner misuses a lexical item because it shares features. Whether phonological, semantic, or syntactic, with an item in the native language.
2. Interlingual and Intralingual error: The learner makes a grammatical or a lexical error because the grammatical or the lexical distinction does not exist in the native language or is overgeneralized because of the target language.

Noticing is the learner's ability to recognize a problem (an error/ a gap) in his/her writing without being referred to this particular problem (error/ gap). Identifying this gap is reflected in the learner's recast of this particular error/gap.

Recasting is the learner's way of providing what he/she thinks is the correct grammatical or lexical form of the noticed errors based on his prior knowledge. Examples of recast are insertion of a word or a phrase, deletion of a word or a phrase, and typing over. The interlocutor in this case is the learner himself/herself.

4.2: Participants

The subjects of this study were 100 high school students, all of whom were between 16 and 20 years of age. Those students studied in various schools in Dubai. Therefore, the data consist of 100 paragraphs of approximately 150-200 words each. The participants (males and females) wrote these paragraphs as part of their midterm final exams in their

classrooms. The participants were grade 10, 11, and 12 students. It is important to mention that all the school subjects are taught in Arabic except English. The participants had studied English for about 10 years. They study six sessions of English of 45 minutes each per week. The native language of the participants is Arabic. The subjects were homogenous in terms of their linguistic and socioeconomic background, and educational system.

The topics of the paragraphs vary from one grade to another. Each grade students was given two topics and asked to choose the one he/she feels most comfortable writing about.

4.3: Corpus Building

The researcher encoded the written paragraphs so that it they could be read electronically and could be easily fed into the computer forming a language corpus. The data was then tagged so that it could be analyzed electronically using a concordance. The coded parts symbolize the learners' error recast reflecting their ability to notice the problem. Following are what these symbols represent:

1. **<x> </x> = words cut off (Deletions)**
2. **<i> </i> = words added (Insertions)**
3. **<o> </o> = overwritten words (Typing over)**

Whereas <x>, <i>, or <o> mark the beginning of deletions, insertions, or typing over, </x>, </i>, and </o> mark the end of either deletions, insertions, or deletions. Some examples from the concordance will be provided during the discussion of the findings. In addition to that, spelling mistakes will be also be shed the light on.

4.4: Procedures

1. The corpus of written paragraphs was analyzed using the AntConc software.
2. All the individual hits under each category of the previously mentioned recasts were calculated and were analyzed to determine the correctness of the used recast. In other words,

how many of these errors were correctly recasted and how many of them were wrongly recasted?

3. A soft copy of the concordance results was given to a second marker for analysis to validate the researcher' results.
4. Both the second marker and the researcher met to discuss the results of each.
5. The most common unnoticed errors were categorized systematically into grammatical and lexical errors.
6. An account of these errors was kept so that at the end of the analysis the researcher could calculate the proportion of errors the learners made.
7. A discussion about each type of the lexico-grammatical errors was made clarifying the frequency and the most common source of each of them (eg. over extinction, structure transfer, interlingual and intralingual)
8. Throughout the discussion stage, snap shots of the concordance results were used to illustrate each type of the recasts.

4.5: Limitations of the study

The fact that this is considered as a small corpus of one hundred texts has contributed to the limitations of the results of the current study. Also all the written paragraphs were taken from three governmental high schools in Dubai which limit the generalization of results to such types of schools in the United Arab Emirates. In other words, the findings of this study may not be generalized to other private language schools in Dubai or in the other emirates as well. Therefore, it is deemed necessary to conduct further researches on a bigger size corpus on governmental high schools. It is also important to conduct similar studies to investigate the area of noticing and recasting them in private school contexts.

Chapter Five: Findings and Discussions

As was mentioned earlier, the current study aims at investigating whether high school students were able to notice the grammatical as well as the lexical errors in their writings. Not only was the focus on noticing but also on how they managed to recast these errors. Whether or not the students' recasts were correct or incorrect was also another area that this study attempted to explore. The most common unnoticed grammatical and lexical problems and the most common sources of these errors were also areas to be explored in the current study as well.

With regards to the students' ability to notice errors in their writings, the results of the corpus analysis showed that the students were able to recognize 371 errors in their paragraphs. These errors were reflected in the students' various ways of recast which included deletion, insertion, and overwriting regardless of whether these recasts were correct or not. Out of the 371 errors, as shown in figure 11, 251 deletions (68% of the total recasts), 26 insertions (7% of the total recasts), and 94 (25% of the total recasts) over written.

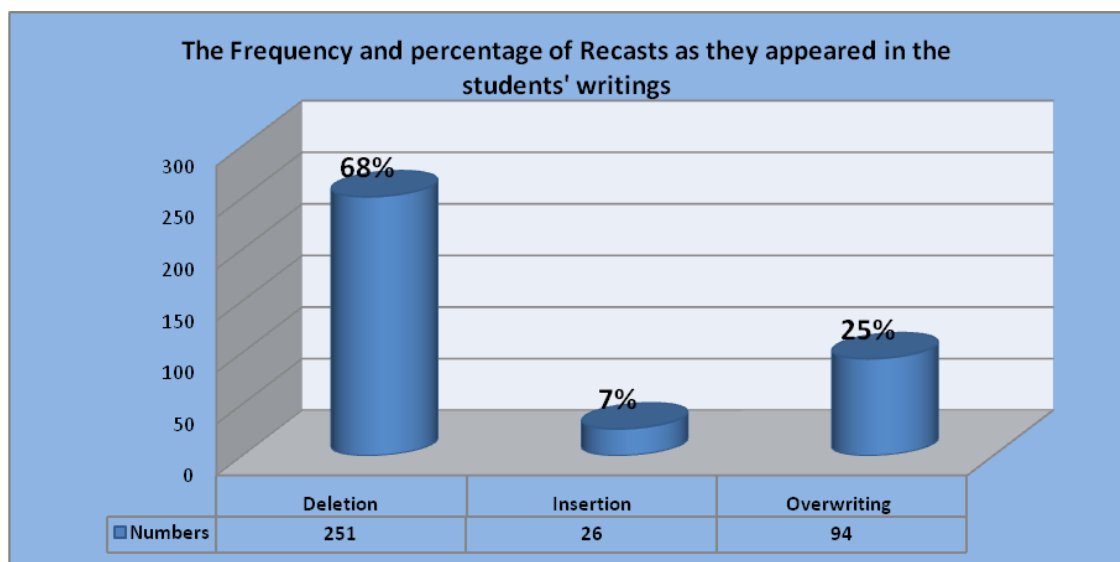


Figure 11: The frequency of recasts as shown in the students' writings.

These 371 errors, all of the individual hits from the corpus, were further investigated in order to explore how many of these errors were correctly recasted and how many of them were incorrectly recasted.

The results in figure 12 reveal that the students were able to correctly recast 272 errors of the total recasts either by deletion, insertion, or overwriting. It is also clear that they got 42 wrongly recasted. During the analysis stage, it was found that 57 errors were not clear or could not be read. It is important, however, to mention that what made the correct number of correctly recasted errors bigger was the inclusion of the 94 overwritten recasts which most of them were at the level of individual letters in order to make them clearer for the reader. This of course does not mean the correctly recasted errors would be fewer in number if the overwritten ones (94) were disregarded. On the contrary, they still constitute the largest; 178 out of 277.

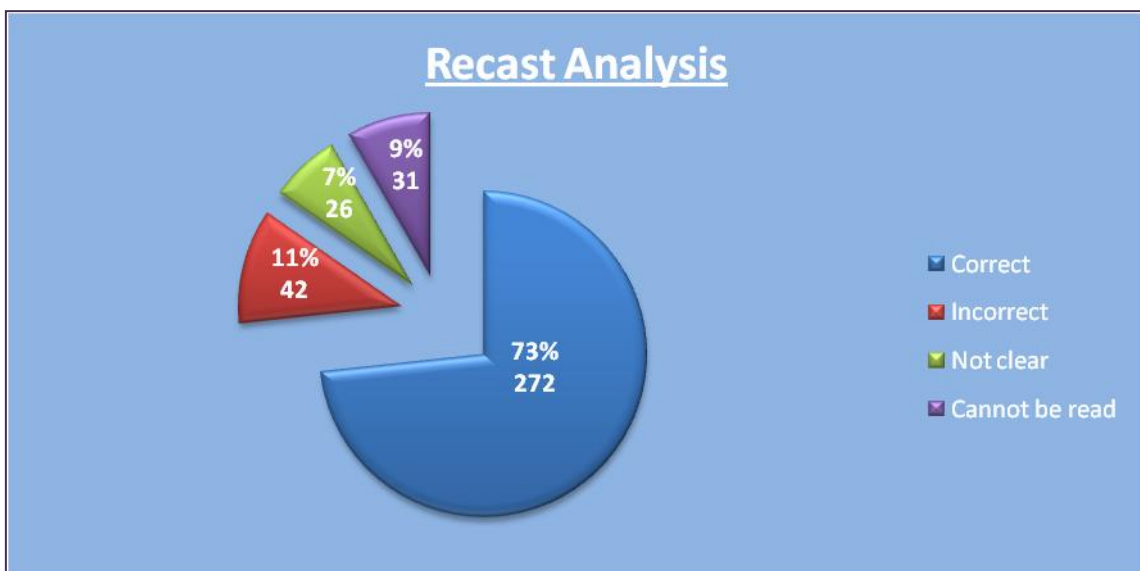


Figure 12: Recast analysis: The correctness of students' recasts

With regard to the results, they were dealt with holistically regardless of the type of recast. Following are the details of the results of each type of the three recasts; deletion, insertion, and overwriting. For each of these recasts, a thorough analysis will be made to clarify the correctness of each of these recasts as well as their frequency in the given corpus.

5.1.1- Deletion as one way of recasting errors

Deletion as one way of recasting errors was the most prominently used amongst the three types of recasting. Students resorted to this type to recast their errors 251 times which is about 68% of the total recasts used to correct the noticed problems or gaps. Figure 13 summarizes the results of the deletions students used while writing.

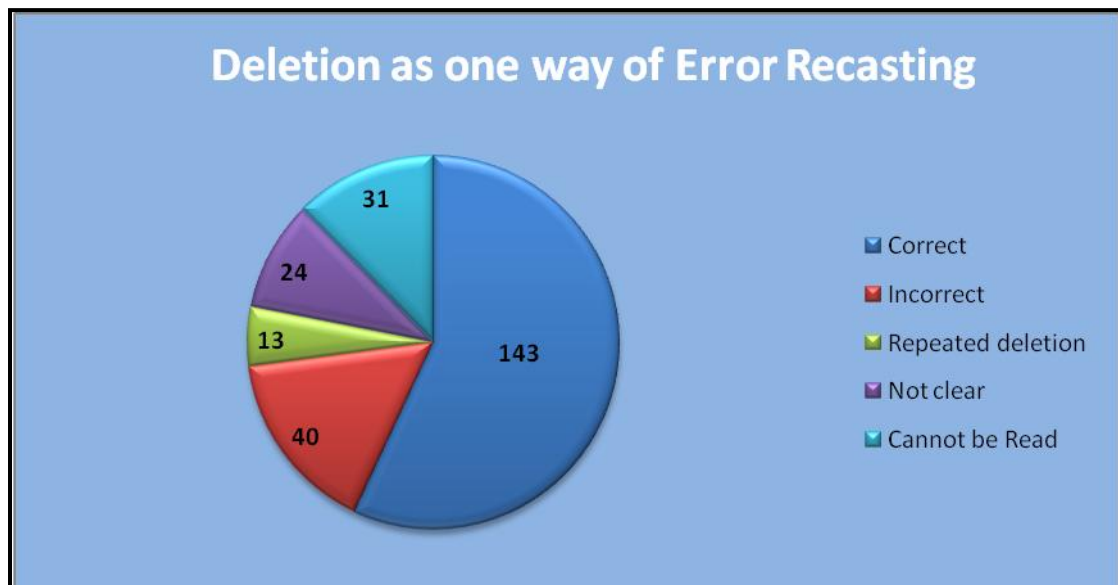


Figure 13: Deletion details as a way of recasting errors.

The results presented in figure 13 show the different categories of dealing with errors in terms of recasting them through deletion. The results revealed that the students were able to correctly use deletions to recast their errors 143 times. In other words, 57% of the deletions found in the students' writings were correct. Deletions ranged from simple letters, as illustrated in figure 14, like 'M' and 'op' to short phrases such as 'All in all'. Sometimes students deleted a letter or groups of letters in order to write something else to make the meaning of the sentence clear. The following figure shows examples of students' deletions as they appeared in the corpus. From figure 14, it is clear that the students deleted the letter 'M' and 'op' and 'po' in order to correctly write them 'Many', 'orphan', and 'people'. Similarly, students deleted 'ther', 'comp', and 'goo' in order to write 'their', 'take', and 'good'. Moreover, they also

deleted 'All and on', 'help' and 'thy' so that they could write 'All that' and 'and they'. Moreover, it was clear that the phrase 'the fi because they' was deleted and replaced by 'because they eat very much'.

<x> M </x> Many people says that **<x> op </x>** orphan children are useless **<x>**and they are bad there is many great persons in the life was **<x> op </x>** orp<o> han</o> s, but the were great leaders a /o> s, but the were great leaders and **<x> goo </x>** very good **<x> po </x>** people. Usually o<o> r<reat leaders and **<x> goo </x>** very good **<x> po </x>** people. Usually o<o> r</o>phans are weak and hem with basic needs, such as food **<x> and </x>**, clothes, and place to live in and we sh encourage them to study hard and to **<x> comp </x>** take care of **<x> ther</x>** thier education. > ther</x> thier education. **<x> All and on </x>** All that will lead them to success in thier them fr<o om > </o> becoming crimenals **<x> a </x>** or bad persons, and thatâ€s every bodyâ and they feed them **<x> and help</x>** and **<x> thy </x>** they teach us the basic needs of liveng.

Figure 14: Examples of Deletions taken from the Concordance.

In addition to this, the results also revealed that there were 13 repeated deletions, which represent 5% of the total deletions found in the concordance. That is to say the students deleted them and then wrote the same word or phrase that was previously deleted. This indicates that the students first perceived these deletions as wrong forms that needed to be corrected, but when these forms were reconsidered, they were seen as correct forms. It is clear in figure 15 that the students deleted 'help', 'you', 'and and' and 'it'. Then they realized that these forms were the correct ones; therefore, these forms were reused except for 'and and' which was replaced with 'and'.

because all that **<x> help </x>** help them to be good
 before you go shopping **<x> you </x>** you must x eat, becace
 important cities Dubai **<x> and and </x>** and Sharj<x>h </x> ah.
 Also **<x> it </x>** it has a long xxx cntne g<o>u </o>lf of

Figure 15: Examples of Repeated Deletions taken from the Concordance.

All in all, the discussion of the use of deletions and the repeated deletions so far focused on the correct use of deletions as a means towards recasting errors. Both of which constitute 165 of the total recast through deletions. That is to say; they both represent 62% of the total deletions found in the concordance. Thus, it can be said that the outcome of this process was mostly correct. However, not all deletions were correctly recasting errors; the analysis also revealed that many deletions were wrongly used to recast errors. This will be highlighted in the subsequent paragraphs.

Unlike the previous discussion of the correct use of deletions as one way of recasting errors, following are some examples of the incorrect use of deletions. The concordance results showed that there were 40 wrongly used deletions. In essence, those 40 represent 16% of the total deletions found in the concordance. Figure 16 displays the wrongly used deletions in order to recast errors. It is clear that the students deleted 'resons', 'how', 'want', and 'wh whith' and replaced them with other wrong forms of the deleted ones. In doing so, the students appear to have problems with these forms.

</o> and father. for this <x> resons </x> resouns you mus
 dvantages like is x children <x> how </x> whoes make problems
 this is cause <x> want </x> w<o> h</o>y I choice this job.
 ery dangerour <x> about t </x> <o> w </o> hith the past in the past
 much and eat foo<o> d </o> <x> wh whith </x> whith wathin T.V

Figure 16: Examples of the wrongly Repeated Deletions

Likewise, analyzing the concordance also revealed that 24, (10%) of the total deletions, were not clear. Thus it was difficult to interpret. Also 31 deletions, about 12 % of the total deletions, revealed through the concordance analysis, were found completely unreadable. This led to not interpreting these deletions as well. Examples showing both of them are found in figure 17.

ill eat more in the next meal **<x> at xxxxx of E </x>** when you eat fat you mus
 complain from them and to passionet **<x> weith</x>** withem, wer they grow u
 wat hemtel the game uses login **<x> to </x>** conec nf ration and patience
 sugar or you will fe<o>e </o> I **xxx** tired and not abile to do an
<x> After that we xxx some </x> <o> A</o>fter this meal we have a lunc
 because you will buy abar of chocolates and **<x> xxx food </x>** junks eat something before you

Figure 17: Examples of the unclear and unreadable Deletions

To sum up, it can be said that deletions, as one way of recasting errors, was the method mostly used by the students. It was also found that most deletions were used correctly to recast the errors in their writings. Deletions were sometimes made at the letter, word, or phrase levels. There were also some deletions that were either unclear or unreadable, which made interpreting them a hard task. (See appendix 1 for more examples of deletion as a way of error recasting)

5.1.2- Insertion as one way of recasting errors

Another strategy that students used in order to recast or bridge a noticed gap was through the use of insertion. That is inserting a word or a phrase in the sentences or among them to clarify the meaning. In doing so, and through insertion, they rectified the meaning so that the message was clear for the reader. (See appendix 2 for more examples of insertions as a way of error recasting)

Through analyzing the corpus, it was revealed that the students had 26 insertions when writing their paragraphs. When these insertions were thoroughly studied, it was found that 84% of the total insertions were correctly placed and therefore helped to convey the meaning of the sentence. It was also found that 8% of those insertions were wrongly used. Similarly 8% of the insertions were not clear enough to be analyzed. These results are illustrated in figure 18.

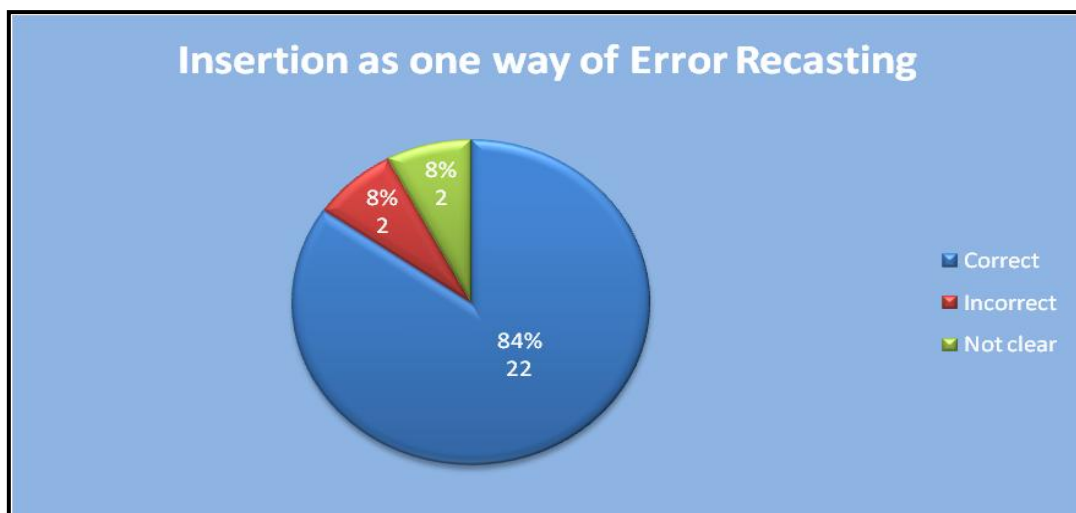


Figure 18: Insertion details as they appear in the Concordance.

Some examples taken from the concordance showing students' use of insertion as a recast are displayed in figure 19. It was clear that the student wrote 'You must your whole bad eating habits' then came back to it as he/she discovered the meaning was not completely clear. Therefore, he/she inserted the word 'change' in order to convey the meaning in a correct manner. The second example shows that the pronoun 'they' was missing and so, to complete the meaning, the pronoun 'they' was inserted. Similarly, the verb to be 'are' was deemed necessary to complete the meaning of the sentence. It was sometimes found that a student used two recasts at the same time. This was clear for example, when insertion and deletion were used in the fifth hit in figure 19. The student inserted 'I would', then discovered it was a misspelled word. Thus, the phrase was deleted and replaced by the correct one 'I would like'.

However, in a very few occasions some insertions were not correctly used nor could they be clearly understood. Sometimes two forms of the same verb were used consecutively as in the example in the fifth hit shown in the figure 19. A student used two forms of the same verb (may and might).

To sum up, it was found that the students were able to insert 22 insertions in the paragraphs correctly to get the meaning of the sentence clear. Those insertions represented 88% of the total insertions. However, and in a

very few instances, they were not correctly used or could not be read. These few instances represent 16% of the total insertions investigated in the students' writings.

want to get thin, You must **<i> change</i>** your <o> w</o>hole bad eating
 less fat food and eat more friuts becace xxx **<i> they </i>** countains x lots of vitimens
 Some of the bad things **<i> are </i>** not doing exerisicing for your body
 food befor going Shopping because you might **<i> may </i>** eat some choclate or nuts or fast food
 scike ill the doctor in the job future </x> **<i><x> I wouldd </i> </x>** I would like to
 like a members of <x> the </x> air society **<i> not </i>** like alines.

Figure 19: Examples of some insertions as they appear in the Concordance.

5.1.3- Overwriting as one way of error recasting

The third type of recast, which is the second most used type of recast, was overwriting. The analysis of the concordance revealed that this type of recast was used 94 times in the students' writings. All the 94 hits found in the concordance were written in a separate sheet and then were analyzed. Mainly, all of them were related to spelling problems or making the letter clearer for the readers. As students wrote a word, they discovered a spelling problem and so they wrote over the given letter in order to write the word correctly. This way was seen at the level of individual letters and words. This type was used mainly to make a word or a letter look readable. Overwriting was placed in different positions in the words; at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of a word. Some examples showing this type of recast are presented in figure 20.

if you are Fat and **<o>y</o>** ou want to get thin, You must <i> change</i>
 go shopping, so starving yourself **i<o> s </o>** not a good ha<o> <b/o> it.
 the United Areb xxxx **E<o>m </o><x>a </x>irates.** It is involed in the
 and go shopping **<o> after meals </o>.** **an<o> d </o>** The very less fats.
 being doctor **<o> I </o>** well be **<o> a </o> famous** and I have a good

Figure 20: Examples of overwriting a way of recasting as they appear in the Concordance.

It is clear from the first hit in figure 20 that the student made 'y' clearer as well as the letter 's' in the second hit. As shown earlier, students resorted to more than one type of recast in their writings. This is clearly shown in the third hit when the student wrote over the letter 'm' in the word 'Emirates' but realized that the 'a' was not correct in that position, thus deleted the 'a' in order to make the word correct.

Not only was overwriting noticed at the word level, it was also noticed at the phrase level. For example, in the fourth hit the student had to make the phrase 'after the meals' clearer so he used overwriting. (See appendix 3 for more examples of over writing as a way of error recasting)

To sum up, the previous discussion obviously dealt with the students' ability to notice a gap in their own writing and, in order to bridge this gap, they resorted to one or even more of the three recasts: deletion, insertion, and overwriting. Not only did the previous discussion show the frequency of each type of recasts in the writing corpus but it also delved deep into investigating whether these recasts were correct or not. All in all it was found that the three types of recast were correctly used in many instances.

Although there was a high percentage of correct usage of recasts in the students' writings, there were instances when they were wrongly used. These points were illustrated in figure 12. Then a detailed analysis of each type was individually made to shed the light on percentages of the correct and incorrect use of each and every type of recast. All of this was supported and clarified through the use of examples of the students' writings derived from the corpus as shown in the concordance.

To conclude, it can be said that the learners were able to notice the language features of the input of the process, absorbed them into the short term memory, and were able to compare the produced features as output. As such the input became an intake (Ellis, 1997) which led to changes into the learners' interlanguage system. Therefore, the output of the process, as reflected in the learners' correct use of recasts, has changed correctly.

5.2: The most common lexico-grammatical problems found in the students' writings and their sources.

5.2.1: The grammatical Errors

In addition to the previously discussed points, the analysis of the corpus revealed the most common unnoticed types of the lexico-grammatical errors found in the students' writings. The problematic areas found were the use of articles, prepositions, the use of modal verbs (can-could), negation, the use of 'many', and subject verb agreement. Also, other problems were noticed especially those related to the use of (their –there), (its-it's), (now –know), (sea-see), and spelling problems. The following discussion is geared towards shedding the light on these areas as well as the most common sources of these errors. Examples as shown in the concordance will be given to illustrate these areas of difficulty.

5.2.1.1: Negation (-not)

The analysis of the current corpus revealed the problem of negation in the students' writings. The concordance showed 47 hits related to 'not'. Out of these hits 40% (19), as illustrated in figure 20, were correctly used. In other words, an auxiliary was used before the 'not' such as (is not, are not etc...). Yet, about 60 % (28) of these hits missed the auxiliary that precedes the 'not'. Some examples from the concordance, which will be explained, are presented in figure 21.



Figure 20: The percentage of correct and incorrect negation.

It is clear from the examples given in figure 23 that the auxiliary verbs are missing in all of the provided examples which appear to express warning. The auxiliary verb 'do' is missing in the first two examples. Also, verb to 'be'

present; 'are' and 'am' are missing in the following ones. More examples are found in appendix 4.

not set tomuch in the TV and **not** eet toomuch food uhthe see TV
not playing too much video games. and meking any
people **not** s<x>e </x> ick and they are not mor fat
I **not** <x> el </x> eating in The eating in front of TV

Figure 21: Missing auxiliaries to form negation

It is quite clear that negation patterns in English and Arabic are different. Negation in English is made by adding the negative particle 'not' to auxiliary or modal verbs. Like (Nancy is not performing today.). Of course, in the case of statements containing one finite verb other than the verb to be, negation is made by inserting the auxiliary verb 'do', taking into consideration the tense markers, like (David does not smoke) or (Ali did not play tennis yesterday.) Another case with the verb 'to be' which is always negated with the particle 'not' is like (Sarah is not ready for the final exams.).

In Arabic, however, the negative particle is placed in front of the verb whether or not this sentence is nominal or verbal. The negation particle is also placed before the subject or predicate in nominal verbless sentences. It is important to know that there are several counterparts for the negation particle 'not' in English. These are [ma (ما), la (لا), lam (لم), lan (لن), laysa (ليس)]. It is essential to know that 'do' has no counterpart in Arabic.

Kharma and Hajjaj (1997) also mentioned that the particle 'Laysa' is only employed in nominal sentences, whereas 'ma' and 'la' can be used for both types of sentences. On the other hand, 'lam' and 'lan' negate only the verb and also indicate the time-reference. Therefore, although the negated verbs in the following two examples are in the form of present (Arabic مضارع 'mudari'), the time reference in the former is the past, and the latter is the future.

اكل احمد برتقالة /akala aḥmadu burtuqālatan/
 (Ahmad ate an orange.)
 لم يأكل احمد برتقالة /lam yaʔkul aḥmadu burtuqālatan/
 (Lit: *Not (+ past) eat Ahmad an orange.)
 سيأكل احمد برتقالة /sayyaʔkulu aḥmadu burtuqālatan/
 (Ahmad will eat an orange.)
 لن يأكل أحمد برتقالة /lan yaʔkula aḥmadu burtuqālatan/
 (Lit: *Not (+ future) eat Ahmad an orange.)

Figure22: Negation in Arabic and time reference. Taken from Kharma and Hajjaj, 1997: 103.

To sum up, both Arabic and English have different patterns of negation as discussed previously. Even though Arabic is not thought to have a great impact on the process of learning English negation by Arab students, it is significant that Arabic interference was responsible for the previously mentioned errors.

5.2.1.2: Subject-verb agreement

The analysis revealed that the subject verb agreement is an area of difficulty in the students' writings. Both the subject and the verb must agree in number and person: both must be singular, or both must be plural. Problems occur in the present tense because one must add an **-s** or **-es** at the end of the verb when the subject or the entity performing the action is a singular third person: **he**, **she**, **it**, or words for which these pronouns could be substituted.

The analysis of the corpus showed that there were about 120 attempts to use the third singular person of which 43 (about 36%) were wrong. Figure 23 shows examples of these wrong attempts. Students did not use the third singular **-s** or **-es** at the end of the verb, writing ' he do' ' she look' ,and ' it has' instead of using the correct form of the verb to agree with the given subject [he does], [she looks], and [it has]. (For more examples, see appendix 5.)

and **he do** all things good to save o<o>t </o>her
 if **he need** his mother kiss, **he scream** (MOM).
 also **she look** after me to dont make any mistakes.
 When I did any mistake **she advise** me and show me what I should do
 sudoku as I siad befor **it appear** in mesca.
 because **it have** many proten <x> wen </x> if you went

Figure 23: Problems with subject verb agreement as they appear in the concordance.

It is commonly known that the subject must agree with the verb in Arabic. In other words, if the subject is feminine, the verb must agree with it and vice versa. Therefore, it can be said that this type of errors is attributed to overgeneralization. Because the students over generalize the rule, they sometimes add the (-s) in the plural and the (-s) in the third singular. The reason behind overgeneralization in this case is that the students found a rule which appears to work well for them and therefore they are not inclined to go looking for exceptions which complicate matters. This has the effect of simplifying or regularizing the language. It is suggested that this strategy of ignoring exceptions in the interest of simplification may account for the common omission of the third person singular, present simple tense(-s) (McKeating, 1981 and Yule ,2005).

5.2.1.3: The use of articles.

The analysis of the corpus revealed that the students face difficulties when they use articles especially the indefinite article 'an' and definite article 'the'. The English article system actually presents problems to students whose native language may either have no articles or may use articles in a different way. Arab students always make errors in their writing because they cannot actually recognize the different aspects of the use of the English articles, the/ a (an) or zero article especially with mass or abstract or non-countable nouns. It has been proved that the use of English definite/ indefinite articles is a serious source of difficulty to Arab-speaking students (Khurma 1981).

It was noticed that the students have problems with the use of articles. Figure 20 presents some of the problems spotted in the use of articles. It is clear that the students misused the article 'an' before the nouns 'chken' [chicken], 'disaesse' [disease], and the adjectival phrase 'fresh food'. Not only was the wrong use of the indefinite article 'an' noticed but the misuse of the definite article 'the' was also noticed. The students excessively used 'the' wrongly in many instances (the people, the sugar...). More examples of the misuse of articles (an, the) are found in appendix 6.

always eat fresh food like fish, meat and <o> **an** </o> chken,
You must take carfull a bout **an** <x> desi </x> <o> disaesse </o>.
The nutrients is very got. eating tha salad **an** fresh food.
The life style is vere emporting to my bodey. **the life** style too much emportant
Many of **the people** like cook and Like eat a frouit in home and we go
I can eating **The sugar** is very fat.

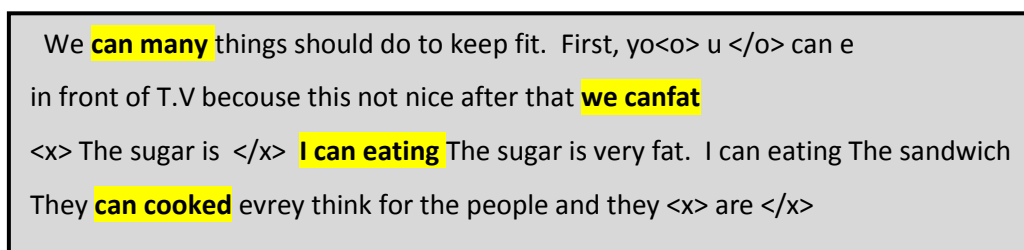
Figure 24: The wrong use of the indefinite article 'an' and the definite article 'the' as they appear in the Concordance.

Errors in the use of the English articles are caused by mother tongue interference because Arabic has only two articles i.e. the indefinite article zero and the definite article 'the'. In fact, it does not have an indefinite article like the 'a (an)' of English. In other words, Arabic employs a different system for indicating definiteness and indefiniteness as the Arabic definite article is marked by 'al' at the beginning of the word and 'zero article' forms the undefined form of the noun. It is commonly agreed that the source of the misuse of articles for Arabic speaking students is the interference of the mother tongue (Kharama, 1981, Kharama and Hajjaj, 1997, Bataineh, 2005, El Samaty, 2007, and Hourani,2008).

5.2.1.4: The use of modals (can).

Modals are special verbs which behave differently from normal verbs. Modality both in form and meaning is a very intricate system. In form the modals are quite irregular in conjunction and quite different from all the other ordinary verbs. As regards the meaning, these verbs are among the most neglected elements (Kharma and Hajjaj, 1997).

The analysis of the corpus revealed that the students have a few problems when it comes to using the modal verb 'can'. There were 61 hits in the concordance showing the use of 'can'. Analyzing these hits thoroughly, it was discovered that 38% of them were wrongly used. The following examples were taken from the concordance to show this. It is apparent in these examples that the students have difficulty in using the main verb that comes after the modal verb 'can'. 'I can eating.' Instead of [I can eat] and 'we can many things' instead of [we can do many things], and 'we can fat' instead of [we can be fat]. More examples of the wrong use of modal verb 'can' are found in appendix 7.



We **can many** things should do to keep fit. First, yo<o> u </o> can e
in front of T.V because this not nice after that **we canfat**
<x> The sugar is </x> **I can eating** The sugar is very fat. I can eating The sandwich
They **can cooked** evrey think for the people and they <x> are </x>

Figure 25: Problems of using 'can' as a modal verb

Although most English modals find counterparts in Arabic, these do not constitute a well –defined and clear cut special group as is the case in English. Kharma and Hajjaj (1997) stated that the difficulty in making a comparative study between modality in English and Modern Standard Arabic lies in the fact that modality is most obvious in the spoken form of the language, particularly dialogues, debates, and the like. But neither classical nor modern Standard Arabic is actually being used in spoken everyday Arabic. Therefore, making any comparative study of the sort is going to be extremely difficult.

5.2.2- Some Lexical confusion

Following are some examples of some word confusions that appeared in the students' writings. The analysis of the concordance revealed some problematic areas that the students did not notice. Examples of these areas are:

- Using the possessive adjective 'its' instead of 'it is';
- Using the pronoun 'there' instead of the possessive adjective 'their';
- Using 'think' to mean 'thing';
- Using 'now' & 'Know';
- Using 'sea' instead of 'see'; and
- Spelling mistakes.

The following section highlights these problematic areas and sheds light on their common sources. Examples from the concordance are going to be used to show these problems. (For more examples, see appendix 8).

5.2.2.1: Using possessive adjective 'Its' to mean 'It is'

The analysis revealed that the students used possessive adjective 'its' 13 times. All of them were incorrectly used. The following examples in figure 25 show that the possessive adjective 'Its' was wrongly used to mean 'It is'. It is evident that the students in all the given examples used 'its' to mean 'it is'. For example, ' its like a big world', ' its so buiteful' instead of ' it is like' and ' it is buiteful'. Surprisingly, the analysis of the entry ' it is' also showed that the students used 'it is' 11 times in their writings and that all of them were correctly used.

I went to ther and **its** like a big world tome, **its** in the to p piont
I went to ther and its like a big world tome, **its** in the to p piont of the world
quite, They built there houses with ice, **its** like a big ice to me,
to me, They bot every thing in thier and **its** so buiteful to me that I can

Figure 25: Usage of 'its' to mean 'it is' as they appear in the concordance

The reason behind this wrong usage of 'its' in order to mean 'it is' is due to overgeneralization in the target language. In other words, because both 'its' and the short form of 'it is' are pronounced the same, students confuse them.

5.2.2.2: Using the pronoun 'there' instead of the possessive adjective 'their'

The analysis also showed that the students have another problem, which is using the pronoun 'there' instead of using the possessive adjective 'their'. As illustrated in figure 26, the analysis revealed that the students used the pronoun 'there' 31 times. Out of these 26% were wrongly used to refer to the possessive adjective 'their'. For instance, the students used (to look after there children), (They built there houses with ice.) instead of (to look after their children) and (They built their houses with ice.).

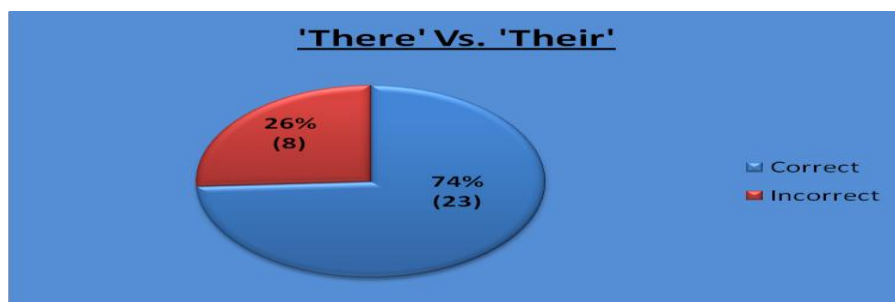


Figure 26: Using 'There' instead of 'Their'

Similar to its and it's, it is thought that due to the same pronunciation of both the pronoun 'there' and the possessive adjective 'their', students are likely to confuse both of them when they write.

5.2.2.3: Using 'think' to mean 'thing'

Another area of difficulty revealed was the wrong usage of the verb 'think' in order to mean the noun 'thing'. The analysis showed that the students used 'think' in the corpus 23 times. Out of the 23, seven were wrongly used to mean either 'thing' or 'things'. The following examples, presented in figure 27, show the wrong usage of 'think' as 'thing'.

she sacrifice in Many **think** to make me happy.
 They can cooked evrey **think** for the people
 me to make a good **thinks**

Figure 27: Examples of the wrong usage of ‘think’ to mean ‘thing’.

5.2.2.4: Using ‘now’ & ‘Know’

Similarly, there was confusion when it came to using either ‘now’ or ‘know’. Each of them was used 12 times in the corpus. The analysis of the concordance revealed that ‘now’ was correctly used 5 times and it was wrongly used seven times. When it came to ‘know’, it was correctly used 7 times and wrongly used 5 times. Apparently, the confusion is due to overgeneralization as students know that the “k” in ‘know’ is not pronounced, they generalized the rule of pronouncing ‘now’ because these were the remaining letters of the word ‘know’. Some examples are presented in figure 28 to show this confusion.

The wrong usage of ‘Now’	The wrong usage of ‘Know’
i now some of this animals its call	But know adays only some people do exercises
You now that the sound mine is in the sound body	know I want to tell you How we have a Modern lifestyle
After we now about the modern life style.	but know more of people have an overweight

Figure 28: Confusing both “now; and ‘know’.

5.2.2.5: Using ‘sea’ instead of ‘see’

Likewise, the students confused the words ‘sea’ and ‘see’. They wrongly used the word ‘sea’ in order to mean ‘see’. The analysis revealed that the students used the word ‘sea’ five times. All of them were wrongly used to mean ‘see’ but one. The following examples presented in figure 29 were taken from the corpus to show how the students used the word ‘sea’ to convey the meaning of the word ‘see’. For example, the student instead of writing “you see blood” and “see TV”, wrote “you sea blood” and “sea TV”. Again, this is due to the same pronunciation of both words (Homophones) which led to students confusing them when they write.

Using 'sea' instead of 'see'

to study and this job vry tired and you sea a blood
 ftermeals and the after we camen with home we can sea TV
 sea TV and eating in front of the home we can sea a TV an

Figure 29: Confusing 'sea' with 'see'.

5.2.2.6: Spelling problems

In addition to the previously mentioned problems, spelling was another major concern. A word list has been made utilizing the concordance (see appendix 9). The concordance word list does not highlight the spelling mistakes but it shows the number of words typed. Therefore, a copy of the word list was taken and pasted into a word file and then analyzed. The analysis of the word list showed that spelling is a major area that needs to be taken into account. The following table shows a few examples of the students' spelling problems. Students have different ways of writing the words 'beautiful, because, important ...etc.' Particularly the word 'lemon' because it is similar in pronunciation to its Arabic equivalent.

* Wrong spelling	Correct spelling
beautiful / buiteful/ butiful	Beautiful
Becose /becoues /because /becus /becuse	Because
desesis / desi/ desidet / desises /deiseses	Disease / diseases
dangerour /dangerous /dangiours/ dangresdangoures /dangrose /dangrous	Danger(s) / dangerous/
exercises / exercise / exercise / exerisicing / exerisics / exersase	Exercise / exercises / exercising
Reasonable / resons / resouns	Reasons / reasonable
Lamens / lame / lamons	lemon
Important /emporting	important
Healt / healthe / healty	Health/ healthy

Figure 30: A sample of the spelling mistakes in students' writings

To rationalize this, it is important to know that both the sound and the orthographic systems in English are different. Not only are they different within English but they are also different from those of Arabic. The Arabic spelling is regular whereas the English spelling is irregular. Also it is known that the

written English is not always a reliable guide to pronunciation. In other words, one phoneme might be represented in writing with different letters. For example /f/ can be found in **feel**, **suffer**, **cough**, philosophy ...etc. All in all it can be said that not only is the difference between the two spelling systems (Arabic and English) responsible for the spelling problems but also the different spelling patterns within the English language.

In conclusion, this section showed some examples of the confusing words as found in the concordance. The most common source of these areas was overgeneralization which is an example of the interlingual transfer. McKeating (1981) explained this type of transfer by stating that the learner searches for patterns and regularity in the target language in an effort to reduce the learning load by formulating rules. But the learner may over-generalize these rules and fail to take exceptions into account because exposure to the language is limited and there is insufficient data from which more complex rules can be formed. He went on to say that, having found a rule which appears to work well, the learner is not inclined to go looking for exceptions which complicate matters. This by all means is a feature of the language of young children learning their mother tongue. Moreover the spelling problems were also dealt with bearing in mind the differences between the spelling systems of the both Arabic and English and the different patterns in the English language.

Chapter six: Recommendations

The results of the current study showed that students were able to notice 371 errors and they were able to recast 271 either by deletion, insertion, or overwriting. Therefore, it is important to guide students during the course of the learning process in order to help them notice the problematic areas and think of possible recasts. This is the responsibility of both teachers and textbook writers. Following are some recommendations to both of them.

Teachers, on the one hand, during their daily encounters with students in the classroom, should use various ways of providing reinforcement and feedback. Implicit negative feedback is one of the ways. Through implicit negative feedback teachers direct students' attention towards their errors and implicitly provide the appropriate recast. In doing so, students will be able to avoid committing the same mistake again to a good extent.

Another benefit is that the students will be alert to these mistakes should they appear in further activities. Another way to increase the students' attention to errors is through explicit negative feedback. Teachers may resort to this type if students continuously commit the same mistakes after being consistently directed to them before

Not only should teachers expand the students' attention through either implicit or explicit feedback, but their methods of teaching also play a role here. They should vary their teaching methodology when they teach students, especially grammar. Three terms can be highlighted here: focus on form and focus on forms, explicit and implicit teaching, and inductive and deductive teaching. These terms are used interchangeably.

Teachers should pay attention to focus on forms when they introduce new grammar points. That is to say, introducing the grammar rule will be through contexts to the students which will help them acquire the rule. In that respect, focus on forms is similar to the implicit way of teaching. In addition to this, it is also similar to the deductive of teaching grammar in which students

are not first taught the rules of grammar. They work out the rules for themselves by using the language.

Furthermore, teachers should not see the implicit, deductive focus on forms approaches the only way to teach. They also should use the explicit, inductive focus on form approach where they explicitly introduce the grammar rule and then provide examples to show the use and usage of this rule to the students. Student will then use this rule in the practice stage and be given the opportunity to make the best use of it in the production stage. This approach is also similar to the deductive way of teaching grammar in which students are first taught the rules and given all the information they need about the language. Then they use these rules in language activities.

When teachers better their ways of teaching, they reach the majority of the students and cater for individual differences in class. It is known, based on the researcher's experience, that the students are distributed heterogeneously in classes. As such, some of them may acquire the rule through contexts while other may need to be explicitly informed about this rule. Thus varying the methodologies helps cater for individual differences.

In addition to this, teachers should decide which errors to deal with and when because they should not pounce on every mistake as it occurs. This will prohibit students from using the language freely. Therefore it is important to know that errors can be divided into four categories according to whether they are to be

1. dealt with immediately;
2. tackled at the next convenient point in the lesson;
3. left to a later session; or
4. ignored altogether at this stage. (McKeating, 1981).

Before deciding upon which ones to work on immediately, teachers should be aware that the errors of those students who may be worried by immediate correction will be included in the second category, as they can be tackled after they finish speaking. Also in category two are other errors which

can be dealt with later in order to not to distract attention from something important or in order not to spoil the fun. Those errors which need intensive consideration are the ones in category three as well. The most frequent errors and the ones that prohibit communication are the ones that need to be dealt with immediately

Thus, it can be said that the frequency of these errors is another factor to determine which ones to deal with first and when. Teachers during the course of interacting with the students should take notes of the errors the students commit as they occur. It is easier to do this when it is related to writing because it is easy to spot the frequency of errors in the performance of the individual students or a group of them when teachers correct their written works. In that respect it is highly recommended that teachers should use a user friendly concordance to be able to electronically spot the most frequent errors in the students' writings. In other words, trying to design a corpus of students' works to be utilized in order to spot the most frequent problems and think of the appropriate remedy.

Moreover, teachers should clarify and deal with negative transfer pitfalls between both Arabic and English. Teachers should explicitly discuss the areas of negative transfer of the mother tongue because this discussion will reveal misconceptions and confusions. Because the majority of teachers working for the Ministry of Education are Arabs, they are more capable of understanding the issues related to negative language transfer from the students' mother tongue which is Arabic. For example, a teacher may say to his/her student: "I understand that in Arabic we say "She is afraid from the cats", but in English we do not say it this way." He /she can even proceed to provide the recast by saying: "we should say, she is afraid of cats." Thus, by giving examples of non-native like productions, teachers aim at raising the awareness of the students about some transfer problems. This is something that El Samaty (2007) also stressed. She even went further to say that teachers might want to pinpoint, where applicable, cases of positive transfer between the L1 and L2.

With regard to lexical and spelling problems, teachers, especially those whose mother tongue is Arabic, should brief the students, when applicable, on the similarities and differences between the two languages. Moreover, explicit teaching of some forms like 'their and there' can help students choose the correct word form. It is also important to focus on exposing the students to the correct forms of words in various contexts as the frequency of exposure may lead to its correct usage.

Second language textbook writers also play an important role as well as teachers. Textbook writers should base their textbooks on an understanding of the target students who will use them. Most of the EFL and ESL textbooks are directed to ESL learners studying in foreign countries like the UK, the USA, and Canada. Even those which are specifically written for the Middle East might not take into consideration the problems Arab students face when it comes to second language learning. Therefore, a comprehensive corpus analysis of the Arabic speaking students should be made, and based on its results; textbook writers gear some of the materials towards the remedy of these problems.

Besides that, the content of many of these textbooks is what Kharma and Hajjaj (1997) call 'beyond the sentence' which, in most cases is limited to non realistic forms of expression, such as description, general topics, and themes like 'money, health, accidents,...etc'. These themes do not motivate the students to communicate ideas other than those satisfying the requirements of an examination. Therefore, other types should be introduced in the textbooks such as writing a letter, a report, taking notes, filling forms, writing a summary, writing invitations, and any other forms that help students communicate with the language.

Taking this further, activities that increase the students' ability to notice the problems and find out the corrections of these problems should be introduced in the textbooks. In these activities, learners spot seven mistakes, for example, in a written paragraph and then correct them. (Some suggested activities are found in appendix 10.)

Similarly, spelling activities should be introduced in the textbooks to improve the students' spelling patterns. In other words, teachers should start teaching the spelling of the phonics. That is to say they should go from sound to writing. They also should highlight the different spellings of the sound and introduce them to the students. A complete list (See appendix 11) of the various spellings of vowels and consonants based on (Brown, 2005) is also given. Based on this list, various activities (See appendix 12) can be designed to improve the students' spelling.

Finally, the findings of the current study provide plenty of scope for future researches in several areas. One of these areas is about noticing and recasting students' errors of both written and spoken English. Another area of great interest is the use of corpus analysis and its implications on the field of English language teaching.

Conclusion

This research provided an answer, through the use of corpus analysis and concordance, to whether or not students could notice errors in their writings. Not only was noticing the errors the focus of this thesis but also it explored the students' ability to recast these errors. Following this further, a thorough investigation was made to investigate the correctness of these recasts; how many of them were correct and how many of them were incorrect. Furthermore, the most common unnoticed grammatical and lexical problems and the most common sources of these errors was another area that this thesis investigated. In short, the current thesis dealt with noticed and unnoticed errors, the students' ways of recasting the noticed errors: through deletion, insertion, or overwriting, the correctness of recasts, and the most common sources of these errors. The symbols of the three ways of recasting these errors as they appear in the concordance respectively are: <x>, <i>, and <o>.

It was found that the students were able to spot 371 gaps (errors) in their writings. Out of these errors, 68% were recasted through deletions, 7% were recasted through insertion, and 25% of them were recasted through overwriting. It was also found that the students were able to correctly recast 272 errors out of the total number of the noticed errors 272. Of these errors, 42 were wrongly recasted, and 57 of them were not clear.

Besides this, the analysis of the corpus revealed the most common types of the lexico-grammatical errors found in the students' writings. The problematic areas found were the use of articles, prepositions, the use of modal verbs (can-could), negation, the use of 'many', and subject verb agreement. Also other problems were noticed, especially those related to the use of (their –there), (its-it's), (now –know), (sea-see), and spelling problems.

Therefore, it is thought that understanding students' errors is essential for both teachers and textbooks writers in order to tackle these errors. It is also thought that teachers should be oriented to the use of concordances to analyze the students' errors. This can be done through highlighting the most frequent errors to be dealt with. In addition to this, It is believed that designing

activities to enhance students' ability to notice errors and provide them with the required background (through different ways of feedback) to help recast these errors is a corner stone in dealing with these errors. An understanding of the role of mother tongue and its effect, either positively or negatively, and the target language will assist teachers in the teaching learning process.

Finally, proponents of classroom research suggest that "...claims made by SLA researchers outside the classroom can be settled only by validating studies inside the classroom." (Nunan, 1991; Ellis and Hedge, 1993; and Ellis, 1997). The current study was one of these studies that were based on the analysis of a corpus of high school students' writings.

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Appendixes

Appendix 1: Examples of deletions as one of way of recasting errors

ing Habbits, cause if you <x> eat </x> <i> ate </i> <x> act </x> in a
<x> eat </x> <i> ate </i> <x> act </x> in a he <o> a</o> lthy way you
s </o> Fresh Fruits, Vegetables <x> a </x> <o> A</o>nd <x> fre </x> Fresh Dairy
tables <x> a </x> <o> A</o>nd <x> fre </x> Fresh Dairy product. <x> A </x> t
e </x> Fresh Dairy product. <x> A </x> to reach to your purpose you must
inl ane ubber I forgot to say <x> and </x> and one anplayit individuls or group
lAl KhaleejGradeGrade 11 <x> M </x> Many people says that <x> op </x> orp
> M </x> Many people says that <x> op </x> orphan children are useless <x>and t
> y great persons in the life was<x> op </x> orp<o> han</o> s, but the were grea
the were great leaders and <x> goo </x> very good <x> po </x> people. Usua
s and <x> goo </x> very good <x> po </x> people. Usually o<o> r</o>phans a
asic needs, such as food <x> and </x>, clothes, and place to live in
ppiness because all that <x> help </x> help them to be good persons :
them to study hard and to <x> comp </x> take care of <x> ther</x> thier
thier education. <x> All and on </x> All that will lead them to succ
om > </o> becoming crimenals <x> a </x> or bad persons, and thatâs every
thatâs every bodyâs <x> respons </x> responsibility.
ed them <x> and help</x> and <x> thy </x> they teach us the basic needs of liv
eneth the l<o> </o>eags of ower <x> l </x> mothers.
0 Food is an important <x> ii </x> element in humen liv<o> e </o> âs
that we got energy from <x> and </x> so people xxxx started xxxx ye
extr<o> a </o> sugar causes <x> les </x> illness but that donât meen to
because it makes you confused <x> and </x> so you may not chow you food corre<
diff<o> e</o> rent nutrients. <x> T </x> When <x> someone </x> everyone wor
Mothers are the gift <x> from </x> which God gave to every person in t
he biggest effects <x> an children </x> and too much effects on childrens.
<o> A</o>lso she forgives <x> them </x> their mistakes and provides them
se one of them while she is <x> breal </x> still breathing. She is symbols of
d good and respected <x> because of </x> to pay her back for what she did
xx his mother because she <x> is </x> leads us to the paradise.
KhaleejGradeGrade 12 The <x> l </x> mother<o> s </o> are all of life. I
in my home. My mothe<o> r </o> <x> l </x> is beutiful woman be<o> o</o> cuse
utiful woman be<o> o</o> cuse <x> she </x> her bite me to make a good th
ot forg<o> g</o> eten a poit <x> w </x> he was said a mother is <x> .
he was said a mother is <x> la </x> same a school w<o> h</o>en you
when they are seck. Besides, <x> M </x> mothers educate x their chil<o
to explan<o> e </o> all <x> thing </x> mistakes we di<o> d </o> . Fina
lost <i> their </i> <x> re pe the </x> father and mother because of many <
pass their problems <x> such asit </x>. They lost <o> t</o>hier father
ves and exedants. <x To fell good > </x> Our relegion told us to tereat
build shelters to save them <x> from </x>. We should forgive them when they
akes. If we want to be <x> the most </x> in a good situation we should learn
s by let them to play<x> and the imp </x> and have their time in fun. Finally
ally we must <x> see save them fromen </x>. look after them becace they will
<o> e </o> <o>s </o> ome <x> people </x> children h<o>a </o>ve moucher <x
dren h<o>a </o>ve moucher <x> ayet </x> and <o> f</o> ather but The orph<
> and father. for this <x> resons </x> resouns you mus <x erry > </x> ev
ons </x> resouns you mus <x erry > </x> everybodyây help <o> orphan </o> .

or 7 years <x> the good in be </x> when Iâm being doctor <o> I </o>
 es job <x> ett </x>the long <x> y </x> time to study and this job vry
 lcen doctor disa<o> b</o>lydit <x> I </x> think this job very important
 </o> is very dangerour <x> about t </x> <o> w </o> hith the past in the
 have diseases x and many <x> t </x> people not s<x>e </x> ick and they
 many <x> t </x> people not s<x>e </x> ick and they are not mor fat
 they are not mor fat <x> beac </x> because they eat fresh food and
 i and fresh meat <x> and eh d </x> and they <x> v </x> every day worl
 t> and eh d </x> and they <x> v </x> every day working to give <o> m</o>
 ing to give <o> m</o> any. <x> an </x> <x> t</x> They not sei<o>c </o>k
 >y ma<o>n </o>y people sick <x>p </x><o> b</o>ecause the food is not
 good and th<o>e </o>y many <x> be </x> people get <x> beging </x> being
 <x> be </x> people get <x> beging </x> being overweight <x> the fi be
 rweight <x> the fi because they </x> because they eat very much food
 : they eat very much food <x> t </x> <o>d </o>nd eating fast food and
 id eat foo<o> d </o> <x> wh which </x> which wathin T.V and play<o> in
 id x va<o>n </o>ning to <x> loses </x> loss waight.
 is live in their, so I <x> have </x> had a good time in thi<o> r
 iiGrade12 Boch xx are <x> left </x> unusual deserts life there is hard
 : dry However the Tundra <x> is </x> is <x> ani </x> always cold people
 the Tundra <x> is </x> is <x> ani </x> always cold people use slsds fur
 ly out xxxx side in USA <x> une </x> uneversite. whe should study :
 id like English language. <x> this </x> I think itâs very important to
 smeHardan EbeedGrade10 <x> ww </x> wild wright was born in 1867 in :
 ature </x> <i><x> I wouldd </i> </x> I would like to h<o>a </o> ve :
 <o> a</o> yoana ant is the <x> th </x> titshar it so Maglaz ins is n
 lo<o>w </o>ed smoking and <x> d </x> be cause is adengres healthy. We
 p, breakfast is milk, tea, <x> breiad </x> bread and egg. <x> After that we x:
 and egg. <x> After that we xxx some </x> <o> A</o>fter this meal we have a :
 and </o>fish. <x> nd In the after a </x> At 5 pm we have a snacks. In this
 eat the dinner. <x> The dinner </x> Itâs pasta, <x> or </x> pizza and
 dinner </x> Itâs pasta, <x> or </x> pizza and s<x>l </x>alad. We must :
 tween each meal like penuts<x>(,then) </x> because itâs <i>healthy </i> good
 raeing and blay sport. I go <x> s </x> shopping after meals. <x> I </x> I
 > s </x> shopping after meals. <x> I </x> I go shopping and gev me tomato, p:
 salad x, tomato, carrot, <x> lamens </x> and lamons. I eating The <x> ri </:
 ri </x>rais and fsih. I not <x> el </x> eating in The eating in front of T
 ot eting the sugar. <x> The sugar is </x> I can eating The sugar is very fat
 sandwich, cheese and slad. <x> alwas </x> allwas I can eating The fresh food
 because it have many proten <x> wen </x> if you went a good healthy you eat
 make your bady healthy you <x> shoud </x> should eating habits. First you :
 its. First you should drink <x> wat </x> water 5 glass in the day. Then make
 or meat and a bowl of salad. <x> at </x> After that you can eat fruits. Ther
 an the lunch and dinner you can <x> t </x> takes apice of cake and a glass of :
 the dinner <x> you can eat a healthy </x> you should eat healthy food like sa:
 likes a drink water in The <x> Hom </x> home and at the school and we go sh:
 think for the people and they <x> are </x> are people help you in The cookeni:
 lp you in The cookening in <x> cacen </x> (ketcen. Less fats de for not eati:

Appendix 2: Examples of insertions as one of way of recasting errors

ou want to get thin, You must *<i> change</i>* your *<o> w</o>*hole bad
abbits, cause if you *<x> eat </x>* *<i> ate </i>* *<x> act </x>* in a he *<*
food and eat more friuts becace xxx *<i> they </i>* countains x lots of vit
nd comfort to their shelter. If you *<i> will </i>* *<x> whild </x>* need to *<x>*
Grade 11 Many people lost *<i> their </i>* *<x> re pe the </x>* fath
life style. Some of the bad things *<i> are </i>* not doing exerisicing for you
ages and dis advant~~o~~ a~~o~~ ges *<i> like </i>* the job of *<x> of the <x>* t
all Doctor is *<x> afamous </x>* *<i> important </i>* job, that I lock fo
/o> because Iâd like to help sick *<i> xxx </i>* people and cuar children.
the doctor in the job future *<x>* *<i><x> I wouldd </i>* *</x>* I would like
t! we must eat healthy food to give *<i> an </i>* energy to our bodies. We need
we eat a little things like biscuit, *<i> fruits </i>* and br*<x> i</x>*ead. Final
od and delious, Then for a good *<i> habit </i>* drint at least two cup
in front of T.V becasethat is *<i> not </i>* good to let you to eat m
=for going Shopping because you might *<i> may </i>* eat some choclate or nuts or
dvices to have a healthy body. First *<i> of all </i>* you must eat *<i> food wit*
First *<i> of all </i>* you must eat *<i> food with </i>* less fats. Never mis
Grade 10 - 4 â*<x> Heaven </x>* *<i> Paradise </i>* is under the feet of mothers
food and clothes, build more shelters *<i> for them </i>*, take care *<x> with </x>*
members of *<x> the </x>* air society *<i> not </i>* like alines. xx *<x> and </x>*
ot *</i>* like alines. xx *<x> and </x>* *<i> we </i>* can support their education
gs or some of it that will be a great *<i> thing </i>* to do for them and for us.
</x> meat or fish. You have to drink *<i> at </i>* least two glasses of water aft
yourself, eat snacks between meals *<i> when </i>* you starve yourself you will e

Appendix 3: Examples of overwritings as one of way of recasting errors

hin, You must <1> change</1> your <0> w</o>hole bad eating Habbits, caus
> ate </i> <x> act </x> in a he <0> a</o> lthy way you we<0> ll</o> ch
> Fresh Fruits, Vegetables <x> a </x> <0> A</o>nd <x> fre </x> Fresh Dairy pr
must stop eating snacks Between <0> m</o>eals, <o>A</o>lso there is <x>
er to make them good people in <0> s</o> ociety we should encourage
t always eat fresh food so you <0> m</o>ind and your body stay fresh. }
ys eat fresh food like fish, meat and <0> an </o> chken, <x> amd </x> and do e
<x> into </x> xxx on to sugar from <0> H</o> er father in the snacks, ç
e the most kind people in the world. <0> T</o>hey are symbol<o> s </o>of love,
e childre<o> n</o>s sad or unhappye. <0> W</o>hen we were babies <o> t</o>hey
nhappye. <o> W</o>hen we were babies <0> t</o>hey used to feed us by there owr
wh<o>a </o>t not to do. After that <0> t </o>hey started pushing us for<o>w
</o> they alwase provide <x> a</x><0> u</o> s, treat us kindly and respect
e what the<x> p </x> Pro<o> p</o>het <0> M</o>hammed Sayed. ((The p<o>ar </c
> because they an o<o> r</o> phan. <0> A</o>nd you must g<o>i </o>ve him th
d. Proph<o>e </o> t Mohamemed is <0> a</o> n orp<o> h</o> aned man, but
this world. <x> She forgives</x> <0> A</o>lso she forgives <x> them </x> t
di<o> d </o> . Finally, Prophet <0> M</o>hammed told us a very sho
> father and mother because of many <0> r</o> easons and become orphan. They
ems <x> such asit </x>. They lost <0> t</o>hier father and mother for mar
ty beca<o> u</o>se They doesânt <0> ha</o>ve anything like all peopl<o>
a </o>ve moucher <x> ayet </x> and <0> f</o> ather but The orph<o>a </o> r
s <x>erry > </x> everybodyâ help <0> orphan </o> . The people have some wa
e some way to help orphn. You can <0> g</o> ive him <x> eating and </x>
rice, ch<x>e </x>icken, meat, salad <0> and </o>fish. <x> nd In the after a
ise if you are hungry there you will <0> b</o>uy meals from the restau<x> l</x>
more fruits. every<o> day </o> eat <0> f</o>ruits. and eat The fisih is vrey
eat The fisih is vrey Good different <0> n</o>utrients. Donât eating <o> in
<o> n</o>utrients. Donât eating <0> in </o> fr<o> o </o>nt of TV drink
it is The very Good. and go shopping <0> after meals </o>. an<o> d </o> The ve
4 Mothers are symbolols of love<o> m</o>ercy ahd hope. Mothers you eat the b
<o> a</o>ney. There are many things <0> w</o>e should do for them first thing
morning smile in all my day. Thanks <0> G</o>od for giving us a motherâ;
urney through the life a <x> mo </x> <0> m</o> other : A woman <x> first </x>
<0> could te<o> ll </o> you. When the <0> child </o> is small she feeds <o> h</o>
e <0> child </o> is small she feeds <0> h</o>im and keeps him with her always
always. As he <x> gets </x> grows <0> o</o>lder, she must start teaching hi
> She </x> It is the motherâs duty <0> to </o> make sure <o> h</o>er child is
>therâs duty <o> to </o> make sure <0> h</o>er child is <o> ed</o>ucated, and
</o> make sure <o> h</o>er child is <0> ed</o>ucated, and she should help him
>spect her, treat her kindly and not <0> complain </o>. <x> The mothe </x>
>h the mother an<o> d </o> the child <0> s</o>hould forgive <x> eachother </x>
>uld forgive <x> eachother </x> each <0> o</o>ther for the mistakes they make,
> phrase : âMothers are symbols of <0> love </o>, mercy and hopeâ
>bility. we can do many things to <0> b</o>e a helping <x> had </x> hand fo
>cessful on my life she push forward <0> a</o>nd support me. when I was child
>hers. Paradise is down fee<x>d </x><0> t </o> mothers.
>y (with all thankf<o> u</o>lness to <0> our </o> beloved God) should not have

Appendix 4: Examples of the problems of negation

deserife it of putting unmbersis not mat nemfice. The game uses logie con
nd</x> One of these habits is not to dri<o>n </o> k water while ea
will fe<o>e </o> l xxx tired and not abile to do any thing. One of
t habit that we should work by it is not to eat in front of T<o> V </o> becas
you confused <x> and </x> so you may not chow you food corre<o> ct</o> ly. To
case it is good for your stamac and not eat to much food <x> thcin </x> th
> there you will become fat, it xxx not good to be fat becuse you may have s
you eat one apple every day you will not to any doctor and before you go shopp
, the way of putting unmbers is not wat hemtel the game uses login
so starving yourself i<o> s </o> not a good ha<o> <b/o> it. The seco
what t<o> o </o> do and wh<o>a </o>t not to do. After that <o> t </o>hey star
good thinks. I m<o> u</o> st now not forg<o> g</o> eten a poit <x> w </:
cose his geve me ok badey and naves. not set tomuch in the TV and not eet too
naves. not set tomuch in the TV and not eet toomuch food uhthe see TV becose
much food uhthe see TV becose gev you not good baday and he gev you samdeses.
y and he gev you samdeses. I saggest not sat and wathing too much TV, x <x pl
hing too much TV, x <x playing video not playing too much playing > </x> no
ot playing too much playing > </x> not playing too much video games. and m
es. and making any exersase bat not xx too much exersase. becose his not
not xx too much exersase. becose his not good for may badey. I <x> saggest </:
Some of the bad things <i> are </i> not doing exerisicing for your body, sit
lifestyl and I think no one can not be lifestyle After this good habits.
Can you is nice healty? Itâs not allo<o>w </o>ed smoking and <x> d <
ses x and many <x> t </x> people not s<x>e </x> ick and they are not
onât drink water and eat this not good and donât eat potato everytime and
acen </x> (ketcen. Less fats de for not eating any think a more fruitrs. Mar
r, respect her, treat her kindly and not <o> complain </o>. <x> The mothe <
rs of <x> the </x> air society <i> not </i> like alines. xx <x> and </x> <i:
know with out my mother may be Iâm not her or not successful on my life she pus
at my mother may be Iâm not her or not successful on my life she push forward

Appendix 5: Examples of the SVA problems

g and weshould remember her took when He said me and the person who carry the c
e <x> ma </x> mather. <x> had </x> he cooked feed. I am stady principle<o>
the new born baby say if is (MOM), if he feel hungry, if he feel afraid, if he
ay if is (MOM), if he feel hungry, if he feel afraid, if he feel afraid, if he
he feel hungry, if he feel afraid, if he feel afraid, if he need his mother kis
he feel afraid, if he feel afraid, if he need his mother kiss, he scream (MOM).
l afraid, if he need his mother kiss, he scream (MOM).. The kids need helping
im and keeps him with her always. As he <x> gets </x> grows <o> o</o>lder, sh
he should help him with anything that he finds difficult o<o> r </o> con<o> fu
ould support him i<o> n </o> anything he wishes to do, as long as it is good.
case they will be in the futur the men who will save our familiees and societ
s covered with snow and ice. people who live there <x> will </x> we call th
that I help other peo<o> p</o>le who is in a dengerous state. dis<o> a
rld i think, I meet some people who lives thier, They call eskimos
er took when He said me and the person who carry the orphan like 2 fingeres f
f love, mercy & hope. She is to one who help me when I need. She <x> gave
ide, and this guid ofcourse the worman who carries a big kind heart and the w
rult o<o> r </o> con<o> fu</o>sing. She <x> shul </x> should support him i<o>
<o> her or not successful on my life she push forward <o> a</o>nd support me. wh
earn me also help me in studing also she look after me to donât make any mistal
mistakes. When I did any mistake she advise me and show me what I should do.
Now when I do any falles or mistake she blame me after that she<x> give me </
<o> or mistake she blame me after that she<x> give me </x> forgive me. we shou
ne old. And if we x deed all this tlings to them we will go to pardi
<x> someone </x> everyone work by this habits<x> I </x> im sure that eve
> which God gave to every person in this world. She has the biggest effect
em from everything dangiours in this world. <x> She forgives</x> <o>
outhe<o> r </o> and father. for this <x> resons </x> resouns you mus <
f exercises three time in the week. This is some nice and gc
no one can not be lifestyle After this good habits.
> <x> shool </x> school. I think this job is the best choice bec<o>
jobs an<o> d </o> everything in this time and now a days xx like <x>
> jobs want th<o> ex </o> maths this is cause <x> want </x> w<o> h</c
<x> want </x> w<o> h</o>y I choice this job.
ig <x > y </x> time to study and this job vry tired and you sea a
sea a blood at alot. I think this job is a good choise because itâs i
sa<o> b</o>lydit <x> I </x> think this job very important job.
that I can mack some one of this houses, and I see animals in
> d its so quit, i now some of this animals its call polar pear s

Appendix 6: Examples of the problems of using articles (an & the)

fresh food like fish, meat and <o> an </o> chicken, <x> and </x> and do enjoy going to the market to you about a tag an cap ped in 1970 in New York market mistakes they always forgive us. An<o> d </o> they always provide <x> comfort. <x> and </x> because they an o<o> r</o>phan. <o> A</o>nd you r She has the biggest effects <x> an children </x> and too much effects of the technique of math in the world <o> an </o>and I will study in U.A.E. in the future and best people an<o> d </o> many advantages. Disadvantages of all world, and, jobs an<o> d </o> everything in this time. You must take carefull about an <x> desi </x> <o> disease </o>. First we must have a balanced diet an d eat reasonable amount of food. See other people. That I will be an important person in the country trying to give <o> m</o>any. <x> an </x> <x> t</x> They not sei<o>c </o>thy, but know more of people have an overweight, because know a days people it's very important to be an English teacher because we don't must eat healthy food to give <i> an </i> energy to our bodies. We need nutrients is very good. eating the salad an fresh food. not drink water and eat everybody help <o> orphan </o> . The people have some way to help orphan. You can because it is very wonderful and help the people. I can I can we can for now long you can about healthy eating. I went help the people, programme for healthy eating named bank. They can cooked every think for the people and they <x> are </x> are people who can any think a more fruits. Many of the people like cook and Like eat a fruit in house because there is many great persons in the life was <x> op </x> orphan <o> han</o> s, but it's <o> H</o> Name Zenab Shaaban Gradel2 The life style is very important to my body. the life style is very important to my body. the life style too much important in my life modern life style have led to obesity. The life style is different from people to another 4 Mothers are symbols of love, and the life blood of her babies, so we should obey want to take you on a journey through the life a <x> mo </x> <o> m</o> other : A w

Appendix 7: Examples of the problems of using 'can'

is very wonderful and help the people. I can I can we can for now long you will be very wonderful and help the people. I can I can we can for now long you will </x> wonderful and help the people. I can I can we can for now long you will </x> will be in the future The job future a doctor, you can help people because science is very wonderful and help the people we can for now long will study the stages of the job future a doctor you can help people because science is <o> H</o> Health is Precious to us. We can many things should do to keep fit. we should do to keep fit. First, you <o> u </o> can eat a <x> r </x> earnable a mountain make exercise keep fit <o> h </o> healthy. We can read programmes a news of healthy. We can read programmes a news of healthy. Can you is nice healthy? It's not all </x> because is dangerous healthy. We can sleep and eat food. every body can . We can sleep and eat food. every body can keep fit of health <o> t </o>y. you can very important thing in our life, no body can live without food or without eating eating the sugar. <x> The sugar is </x> I can eating The sugar is very fat. I can <x> I can eating The sugar is very fat. I can eating The sandwich, cheese and salad cheese and salad. <x> always </x> allow I can eating The fresh food of T.V because this not nice after that we canfat, 2 : don't shopping after me

Appendix 8: Some Examples of the lexical errors

by way to eat, And I'll tell its simple first you can Drink A lot of water. This problem must be stopped because its really bad for Human body. Please kindly and never shirk on its to their face. Then, we will see.

Now am talking about a cold desert, its so cold That you should wear a coat. I should wear a coat, I went to there and its like a big world to me, its in the middle to there and its like a big world to me, its in the top part of the world. They built their houses with ice, its like a big ice to me, They bought every thing in there and its so beautiful to me that I can't see animals in there. I don't see its so quiet, I know some of this animals. I don't see its call polar bear and he is beautiful, you should go to this place, its the most famous to me, its the most famous to me, its so quiet. Their education and make them aware that its very important. So that they can learn an important habit that we should work by it is not to eat in front of TV. I should drink because it is good for your stomach and not eat the fruit and vegetable because it is good for your health and I am going to talk about my country. It is in the south of the gulf. My country is the south west of Asia. It is in the south of the gulf. My country is a big country. We should understand their passions, and we should be forgiving, they look after their children and they feed them and if they are hungry you will buy a fast food there, always eat fresh food like fish, meat and vegetables. Also they never make their children sad or unhappy. They used to feed us by their own. They looked after us every day. In addition to that she respects their children, treat them kindly and she is different than our life. There are two kind of deserts cold desert with snow and ice. People who live there will be called Eskimos or Inuits. The shape of their houses will look square. They feed into melts the animals that live there are caribou, seals and big bears.

Name: Mariam Jasim Gradell There is no about the every body there keep our good habits and get it. There are many good habits for example we should drink water. On the other hand there are many bad things for your life started by Saudi Arabia. There are mountains in the east. Deserts cover 90% of the country. There are no rivers. It has a long coastline. Name: Khadid Gradell We think there are many things think to do to keep it and keep away from diseases. There are many things we should do to keep it. They are so quiet, They built their houses with ice, its like a big world to me we can see TV and eating every thing. They can cook every thing for the people and they are happy. Less fats for not eating any fats. Many of the people look after me. She sacrifice in many things to make me happy. She gave me the best child. I don't think I'll try to describe how she feels at the moment.

that every body want to be lifestyle, know I want to tell you How we have a Mod
 . eat any kind of Food we must know what incaid th<x>e</x>is Food. w
 mes For a long time. After that we know How we can be lifestyle and I think n
 NameAbdallah MohamedGrade12 know adays life are too deff<x>i </x>
 o> e </o> past are more butiful than know adays, because all people in the pas
 althy, active and do exercises. But know adays only some people do exercises,
 in the past had a good healthy, but know more of people have an overweight,
 people have an overweight, because know a days people donât do exercising an
 > o</o> king a<o> f</o>ter us untill now. When we grown up they educates us :
 a good thinks. I m<o> u</o> st now not forg<o> g</o> eten a poit <x> t
 from people to another people. You now that the sound mine is in the sound bc
 as you will get overweight. After we now about the modern life style. In my of
 /o> everything in this time and now a days xx like <x> jo </x> jobs war
 : </o>k to eat fresh food. but now ad<o> a</o>y ma<o>n </o>y people :
 i»Now am talking about a cold desert, its sc
 ther g<o>u </o> d its so quit, i now some of this animals its call p
 the people. I can I can we can for now long you will </x> will stud<o> y </
 id help the people we can for now long will study the <o> ad </o> :
 I love eat a borger and potato but now I went donât eat more. and Iâm very ha
 : and show me what I should do. But Now when I do any falles or mistake she b
 get over our problems, they are like sea o<o> f</o> <x> loving</x> forgiv
 nd this job vry tired and you sea a blood at alot. I think this j
 the after we camen with home we can sea TV and eating in front of the home we
 d eating in front of the home we can sea a TV and eating in front of The home
 eating in front of The home we can sea TV and eating evrey think. They can

Appendix 9: Word list with spelling problems

Abdallah	Abdullah	Abdulrahman	abile
About	absence	abt	Abu
Abul	act	active	Actood
Ad	aday	adays	addition
adengres	adise	adoctor	advant
advantages	advantagess	advatage	advatages
Advice	advices	advise	afamous
Afford	affordable	Afoos	afraid
Aft	after	After	agam
Ago	agree	ahd	Ahmed
Air	ait	Al	Alaa
Alad	Ali	alines	Aljafrawi
All	All	Allah	allo
Allwas	alon	alongtime	alot
Als	Alshal	also	Also
Alth	although	altogether	alwas
alwase	always	Always	always
Alwys	am	Amani	ambi
ambitions	amd	ameal	Amena
Amjad	Amna	amount	an
An	and	And	andice
Ane	aned	Anha	ani
Animal	animals	animmal	another
anplayit	anployit	ant	antgetrit
Any	anything	anythings	apice
appear	apple	ar	Arab
Arabia	Arabian	ard	are
Areb	Aref	aright	ars

As	As	Asia	Asin
Asit	ask	asked	Asma
Asmaa	ast	at	At
Ate	ather	athy	attempt
Au	Audi	ause	avery
Await	aware	away	awayâ
Awer	Ayad	ayet	babies
Baby	back	bad	baday
Badey	bady	Bait	Baker
balanced	balencd	bancl	basic
Bat	be	beac	bead
Bears	beautiful	bec	beca
becase	becase	becasue	becaus
because	beco	become	becomes
becoming	becose	becoues	becouse
Becus	becuse	befat	befor
Before	beging	beginning	behaviors
Being	beloved	beneth	Besides
Best	better	between	Between
beutiful	bicycles	big	biggest
Birth	biscuit	bit	bite
Blame	blay	blihthe	blint
Blood	Bloshi	boat	Boch
Bodey	bodies	body	body
Bon	bordered	borger	born
Bot	bot	both	Both
Bou	bout	bowl	boy
Boys	bread	breakfast	Breakfast
Breal	breathing	breckfast	breiad
brekfast	bright	brohers	Brosek

brothers	build	building	built
buiteful	Burger	but	But
Butiful	buy	by	cacen
Caer	caft	cake	call
Came	camen	can	Can
Canadian	cannels	canfat	cap
Capiat	capital	carbohydrates	Carbohydrates
Care	cared	carfull	caribou
Carot	carries	carry	cause
causes	cazai	cevis	change
changed	check	cheese	chew
Chid	chiken	chil	child
Children	children	childrens	chken
choclote	chocolates	choice	choise
choises	choose	Choose	chose
Chow	cigarattes	cities	clean
clothes	club	clus	cntne
coasline	coat	cold	coldness
Com	come	comfort	community
Comp	complain	complishe	computer
conditions	conec	conect	confused
Consis	consisn	consist	contry
Cook	cooked	cookening	coptt
Corre	correct	could	count
countain	countains	country	county
Couse	cover	covered	covering
crimenals	cruelty	cuar	cup
Cure	cuse	cut	Dairy
Dairy	damge	dangerour	dangerous
dangjours	dangoures	dangres	dangrose

dangrous	dantowry	day	days
decome	deed	deferent	deff
deffenseless	Deinl	deiseses	delious
dengerous	deny	departed	derss
describe	desent	desents	deserife
Desert	Desert	deserts	desesis
Desi	desidet	desises	destroy
Dhabi	Dhadei	did	die
Diet	diff	difffalt	different
differente	difficult	dinner	dis
Dis	disa	disaesse	diseases
divided	do	Do	Do
dobloma	docto	doctor	Doctor
doctore	does	doesnâ	doing
donate	done	dont	double
Down	draw	dre	dreams
Drink	Drink	drinks	drint
Drug	dry	Dubai	duli
Dutes	duty	dvantages	dvise
Dwadat	each	each	ead
Eags	eals	ealth	ealthy
eapped	earnable	earth	easily
easons	East	east	easy
Eat	Eat	eating	Eating
Eats	eawpth	Ebeed	Ebeeid
ecaund	ecaus	ecause	economic
educate	educates	education	eEnglish
Eevrey	effects	efforts	egg
Eid	element	Eman	embroye
emiirates	eminrts	emiraten	Emirates

emportant	emporting	empty	Empty
encourage	end	endless	energy
Englis	English	environment	enytthing
Eople	Equar	Equator	Equet
Ercy	erent	Esa	eskimos
Eskimos	Esmail	eten	eting
Ett	etween	even	every
everybod	everybodâ	everyday	everyone
everyones	everything	everytime	evipe
Every	examble	example	Example
excludes	exedants	exercieses	exercise
exercises	exercising	exercisise	exercise
exerisicing	exerisics	exersase	exhausted
expect	expenses	explan	exrcise
Exrsis	extr	face	Fainlly
Faith	falles	familiees	family
famous	famu	fan	fast
Fat	Fat	father	Fatima
Fats	Fats	fature	fee
Feed	feeds	feel	feels
Feet	fell	felt	fi
Fill	finalh	Finally	finally
Find	finding	finds	fingeres
First	First	firt	fish
Fisih	fit	fizeats	foling
follwing	foo	food	Food
Foods	Foods	foot	for
For	fore	forg	forgive
forgivens	forgives	forgot	forward
Foun	foundaitions	four	freash

Freeze	fresh	Fresh	fridal
friends	frish	frit	friuts
From	From	fromen	front
Frouit	frozen	Fruit	fruit
Fruitrs	fruits	Fruits	fsih
Fter	fture	fulf	fulfill
fulfilled	full	fun	fur
Future	future	game	games
Garboo	gave	generosity	generous
Ges	get	gets	Getting
Gev	geve	geving	gift
Girl	give	given	gives
Giving	glass	glasses	go
God	going	Goma	goo
Good	Good	got	Grade
Grate	great	greeting	grid
groups	grow	grown	grows
Guid	guide	gulf	Gulf
habbits	Habbits	habby	habit
Habits	had	half	Hallow
Hameed	han	Hanawi	hand
Hands	hapee	happiness	happinessâ
Happy	harajah	hard	Hardan
Harm	has	Hashim	Hassan
Hav	have	havin	having
Having	he	He	heal
Healt	health	Health	healthe
healthier	healthy	healty	hear
Heard	heart	Heaven	heaven
Heer	help	helping	Helping

Helps	helthy	hemtel	hen
Hend	her	Hes	hes
Het	hey	hibtes	hier
High	High	him	his
Hith	hof	hold	hole
Hom	hom	home	hope
Hopeâ	hoping	Hosam	Hosani
Hot	Hot	hotel	hould
Hours	houses	How	how
However	Human	human	humen
Hunadi	hungry	Ibrahim	Ibrhaim
Ice	ick	icken	idea
If	If	igloos	ill
Illing	illness	imp	imporlant
important	Important	improve	in
In	incaid	Indian	individuals
individuls	indness	infront	inside
Insure	intar	into	invloed
Is	Islam	Islamic	it
It	its	Jasim	job
Job	jobs	journey	juice
Junck	junk	junks	Just
Kab	Kahdija	kaind	keep
Keeps	kep	ketcen	key
Khadid	Khaleej	Khamis	Khlood
Kholod	kids	kind	kindly
Kindly	kindness	kinds	king
Kiss	know	known	kyghid
Ladder	lamens	lamme	lamons
Land	language	languge	last

Later	Latifa	latitude	layer
Lder	lead	leaders	leads
Learn	learns	least	led
Lee	leed	left	leg
Legs	les	less	Less
Let	lf	lif	life
Life	lifestyl	lifestyle	lifestyles
Lifrle	light	lik	like
Like	likes	lil	litter
Little	liv	live	liveed
Lively	liveng	lives	Iness
Loated	located	locathed	lock
Logie	login	lonesome	long
Long	longitud	longtitu	longtrhery
Lonl	look	looked	looks
Lose	loses	loss	lost
Lot	lot	lot	love
Love	love	loving	low
Lunch	lunuit	mack	magazim
magazine	Magd	Maglaz	Mahmood
Main	maintain	make	Make
Makes	making	Mal	man
manners	many	Many	Mariam
marvelous	Masood	mastik	math
mather	mathers	maths	may
Maytha	me	meal	meals
Meals	mean	means	meat
medical	medicen	meet	meking
Melts	members	men	mercy
Mesca	Middle	midical	midie

Might	milk	mind	mine
minerals	miserable	miss	mistake
mistakes	mnuntains	Moalem	model
modern	Modern	Mohamed	Mohamemed
Mohammed	MOM	moment	money
Month	mor	more	More
Moreover	morning	morninig	most
Mothe	mother	Mother	mother
mothers	Mothers	mothers	mounts
Mousa	moutens	mouthe	mouther
Moved	Mubarak	much	much
Murcy	musnt	must	must
Must	my	My	mybe
Nagla	Name	Naser	nayes
Need	needed	needs	nemder
nemfice	never	Never	new
News	Newyork	next	Neyork
Nice	night	nights	No
Noof	Noor	Nora	norh
normal	north	not	noumber
Nouth	Novhand	now	Now
numbers	nutrient	nutrients	nutrit
Nuts	obesity	obey	observe
ofcourse	off	offer	Ohio
Oih	On	once	one
One	ones	only	opinion
orange	order	orphan	Orphan
orphaned	orphans	orplaan	Orvllle
Osama	other	other	Our
Out	over	overweight	overwight

Ower	own	pain	painful
palanced	paradis	paradise	Paradise
paragraf	paragraph	pardise	parents
pargraph	part	pasint	pass
passion	passionet	passions	past
Pasta	patience	pay	peace
Pear	ped	penil	penuts
People	people	person	persons
physical	pice	piont	pizza
Place	plane	play	playing
Playing	point	points	poit
Polar	pole	poor	popular
Por	potato	practical	practicing
precious	Precious	prevention	principle
principles	priorities	problem	problems
product	products	programme	programmes
prophet	Prophet	proplem	protects
proteins	proten	Protiens	proud
proverb	provid	provide	provides
providing	psychological	purpose	push
pushing	put	putting	puzzle
qawpment	Quarter	quarter	quit
Quite	quot	Quran	raeing
Rain	rais	raise	raising
Rants	rare	Rashid	rask
Ration	reach	read	really
reasons	Reda	region	regularly
relationship	relax	relegion	religons
Relly	rely	remember	remmember
renamed	renmed	rent	resonable

resons	resouns	respect	respected
respects	respons	responsibility	rest
Restau	restaurant	restore	return
Rgive	rice	right	rising
Rivers	role	rue	rules
Running	Sabri	sacrifice	sad
Saed	Saeed	saggest	said
Said	Saif	sail	salad
Salah	Saleh	Salem	Salen
samdeses	same	Samir	sand
sandwich	sarvel	sat	sauch
Saudi	save	saving	say
Sayed	says	School	school
schools	scike	Sconed	scream
Sea	seals	seck	second
Second	sed	see	seen
Salary	self	selves	sentence
Set	seven	several	Shaaban
Shafeen	Shahyari	shall	shape
Share	Sharj	Sharjah	she
She	Sheikh	shelter	shelters
Shierk	shilter	shold	shool
Shop	shopping	Shopping	short
shorter	shoud	should	Should
Should	shouler	show	siad
Sial	sick	side	simplp
Simple	simpleâ	sing	sisters
Sit	sitution	situat	situated
situation	siuated	skies	skills
Slad	sle	sleep	sleeping

Sllds	small	smile	smoking
snacks	Snacks	snow	so
So	Sobeeh	society	society
Society	soft	solid	som
Some	Some	someone	something
Son	sosauty	soul	sound
Sour	south	spacious	sport
Sports	squane	square	stady
stamac	stand	start	started
Starve	starving	state	stay
Step	still	stop	strong
students	studing	studint	study
Style	success	successful	such
Such	sudoku	sudovy	suffer
suffered	sufficient	suffict	sugar
Suger	summaried	summer	sup
support	sure	swee	sweets
swinging	symblols	symbol	symbols
sympathise	tack	take	takes
Talk	talking	tasted	tea
Teach	teache	teacher	teaching
Tear	teche	tell	tempreture
Ter	tereat	terrible	Thaks
Than	thank	Thanks	that
That	that	That	Thay
The	The	their	them
themestitis	themselves	Then	then
Thene	Thenn	ther	there
There	thes	these	These
Theses	thesonthesout	they	They

Theyâ	thi	tier	thiev
Thig	thik	thin	thing
Things	Things	think	thinks
Thires	this	This	those
Three	through	throw	time
Times	tired	to	To
together	told	tomato	tome
tomuch	too	too	took
Tow	traveling	treat	treated
Trother	troubled	true	truly
Try	tuauin	Tundra	tundra
TV	two	UAE	uaudling
Umied	under	understan	uneversite
unhappy	unhealthy	United	University
university	unmbers	unmbersis	untill
unusual	up	upon	ups
Urself	USA	use	used
Useful	useless	uses	Usha
Using	Usually	values	vatamil
vatamnt	vatiana	vedio	vegetaball
vegetable	vegetables	Vegetables	vegtabal
vegtuble	vere	very	video
Video	vitament	vitami	vitamins
Vitamins	vitimens	vocationally	vrey
Vry	w	W	waching
Wafa	Waheebi	waight	waive
wakeup	Waleed	walk	walking
Wan	want	war	warms
Was	wat	watching	wate
Water	wathin	wathing	waves

Way	wayses	we	We
Weak	wealth	wealthy	wear
weather	week	weith	well
Went	were	weshould	west
What	when	When	which
Which	which	whild	while
Whith	whithout	who	whoes
Why	wich	wild	will
Win	wings	winter	wise
Wish	wishes	with	With
Withem	within	without	wolfs
woman	wonderful	wont	word
Words	work	working	world
World	worman	worries	would
Would	wright	write	wrong
wuthing	yang	year	years
Yoana	you	You	you
Youer	young	your	Your
yourself	Yousef	Zahna	Zakaria
Zakhbai	Zaubi	Zayed	Zenab

Appendix 10: Consonants and vowel sounds and spelling

Consonant Sounds based on (Brown, 2005)

Phoneme	Spelling	% of the time in connected speech	Examples words
/p/	p	95	people
	pp	5	copper
/b/	b	98	boy
	others	2	
/t/	t	96	train
	tt	3	pattern
	others	1	
/d/	d	98	dig
	dd	2	sudden
/k/	c	59	cat
	k	21	key
	ck	6	back
	others	14	
/g/	g	92	game
	gu	3	gun
	gg	2	ragged
	others	3	
/tʃ/	ch	65	chat
	tch	10	watch
	others	25	ritual question
/dʒ/	g, ge, dge	71	germ, page, judge
	j	29	jar
/f/	f	84	file
	ph	11	pharaoh
	ff	4	offer
	others	1	
/v/	v	100	van
/θ/	th	100	thin
/ð/	th	100	then
/s/	s,ss	79	set, kiss
	c	15	cent
	others	6	
/z/	s	93	rise
	z,zz	5	zebra, jazz
	others	2	
/ʃ/	sh	37	ship
	ch	1	chef
	others	55	Palatalisation dictation logician
	others	7	

/ʒ/	s	91	occasion
	g	4	beige
	others	5	
/h/	h	99	help
	wh	1	whole
/m/	m	96	man
	mm	3	summer
	others	1	
/n/	n	97	nail
	nn	1	tunnel
	others	2	
/ŋ/ Not including – ing inflection	ng	75	sing
	n	25	sink
/l/	l	75	light
	ll	18	follow
	le	8	castle
/r/	r	94	read
	rr	4	carry
	others	2	
/w/	w	64	win
	qu(=/kw/)	27	quiet
	wh	5	wheel
	u	4	language
	others	<1	
/j/	y	19	yet
	as part of /ju:/ reduction of an underlying / i:,ɪ/		use behavior

Vowel Sounds

/ɪ/	i	61	bit
	y	20	rhythm
	e	16	become
	a,aCe	2	spinach, image
	others	2	
/e/	e	84	ten
	ea	6	dead
	others	9	
/æ/	a	100	bad
/ʌ/	u	63	mud
	o	27	ton
	ou	8	touch
	others	2	

	o	92	not
	a	6	wash
/ɒ/	others	2	
	oo	64	foot
/ʊ/	u	32	put
	others	4	
	e,eCe,final ee	38	be, theme, agree
	non final ee	26	deep
	ea	25	leaf
/iː/	non final ie	5	chief
	i,iCe,ie	2	motif, police, laddie
	others	4	
	ar	60	park
/ɑː/	a	34	father
	others	6	
	a(+l)	29	halt
	or,ore,ar	25	cord, core, war
/ɔː/	au	9	author
	aw	9	jaw
	our	8	court
	ough	6	ought
	al('empty l')	5	talk
	others	9	
	oo	39	goose
	u, uCe, ue	27	flu, rule, blue
	o, oCe, oe	15	who, move, shoe
/uː/	ew	9	new
	ou	7	group
	others	3	
	er(r)	39	herb
	ir(r)	18	bird
/ɜː/	ur(r)	15	turn
	or(r)	17	word
	ear	8	heard
	others	3	
	a,aCe	65	labour, lake
/eɪ/	final ay	18	day
	ai	12	rail
	others	5	
	i, iCe, final ie, final	80	bicycle, like, lie, try
	y	13	high
/aɪ/	igh	2	rhyme
	non-final y	5	
	others		
/ɔɪ/	oi	61	boil
	oy	39	boy
	o, oCe, oe	75	go, hope, toe
	ow	18	grow
/əʊ/	oa	4	coat
	others	4	

/aʊ/	ou, final ow	93	Cloud
	pre- consonantal	6	Crowd
	ow	1	
	others		
/ɪə/	ear	28	dear
	ea	12	idea
	er, ere	12	hero, mere
	ia	10	media
	eer	4	deer
	others	34	
/eə/	ar,are	59	librarian, care
	air	28	hair
	ear	10	wear
	others	3	
/ʊə/	u+ə/ in suffix	No percentage given as many of them are pronounced /ɔː/ by many speakers	actual, fluent
	u+ə/ in stem		
	oor		cruel
	our		poor
	ure		tour sure

Appendix 11: Suggested activities for dealing with spelling problems

1- Read the following paragraph and try to correct the following mistakes:

- Three commas are missing
- Six spelling mistakes
- One incorrect use of articles

Their are three cars a taxi a man and a woman. The woman is geting out of the shop with meny bags in her hands. On the lift side came a boy on a bicycle. He was ridng it carelessly. The man who was sitting at a table having an cup of coffee shouted; "Watch out!" The woman could not here him and was hit. It was a dramatic scene!

2- Read the following paragraph about Khalfan. Try to correct the following mistakes:

- Three spelling mistakes
- Four capital letters are missing
- Two full stops are missing
- Six verbs have the wrong form

Khalfan is an English teacher at zayed University in dubai. He always gets up at five o'clock and eat his breakfast at six. He usually take a taxi to the university he starts his work their at eight and finish at four. He usually have a lunch break at one then he go back home at five. Sometimes he go shopping with his wiafe and two childrens.

3- There are three mistakes in each of the following sentences. Identify them then rewrite the correct ones in the lines provided.

1- Laila not visit canda last year

2- they can reading a story in there free time.

3- Its important to study hard to gets high grades.

4- Ali a teacher at mohammed Bin Hamad school in fujairah.

5- She not happy their because she move a lot.

*** 4- Read the following letter. It has eight errors. Find the errors and correct them. Then rewrite the correct letter.**

Dear Editor:

In my opinion, it is important for women with small childrens to work outside of the home. First of all, it to difficult to be with little kids all day. Womens needs a break from there kids. Also, a woman who has a career can offer her children mores, because it is the quality of time that mothers spend with their kids that are important.

* Adapted from 'Ready to write.' by Blanchard and Root (1994)

***Appendix 12: Suggested spelling activities.**

1- The long sound /i:/ as in (beat) can be represented in the following spellings: e, ee, ea, ie, i. Select the right one to complete each of the following words:

s__ _t agr__ _ l__ _f pol__ce d__ _p b__

2- The /tʃ/ sound as in (watch) can be represented in the following spellings: ch, tch. Select the right one to complete each of the following words:

Ca__ _ __ _at __ _ildren fe__ _

3- Can you give a word which sounds the same but is spell differently for each of the following words?

Son	_____	there	_____
Pole	_____	fair	_____
Plum	_____	our	_____
aisle	_____	waist	_____

4- Complete the following words with the missing vowels (a,e,i,o,u). then use them in sentences of your own.

m__rr__ _d s__ngl__ _ c__rr__ct
pl__y h__ _s__ l__ng__ _g__
t__l__v__s__ _n c__n__m__ l__ _rn__rs

* Some of these activities were adapted from Astel, C., and Metcalfe, J. First published by MCMXCV.

(Date unknown)

5- There are three homophones in each of these groups. Given the meanings, can supply the different spellings for each group?

- (a) 1- the eldest son 2- what we breathe 3- before
- (b) 1- to quote 2- what is seen 3- a position
- (c) 1- to come together 2- food 3- to measure
- (d) 1- to make marks 2- not wrong 3- a workman
- (e) 1- a fruit 2- two 4- a peel

6- Do you spell by the “look and the say” method? Try your hand at these words. Can you say without hesitation which is correct?

medicine - medecine	libary - library
aweful - awful	separate - seperate
pursued - persuade	radiance - radience

7- How many mistakes can you find in these spellings?

- 1- englesh 2- embarass 3- dissatisfied
- 4- profesional 5- succesful 6- emirates

8- Should the ‘i’ come before ‘e’? How many mistakes can you find?

teir weir relief wield sieze belief

Answer Key

1- (seat agree leaf police deep be)

2- (catch chat children fetch)

3-

Son	sun	there	their
Pole	poll	fair	fare
Plum	plumb	our	hour
aisle	isle	waist	waste

4-

married	single	correct
Play	house	language
television	cinema	learners

5-

(a) heir air ere

(b) cite sight site

(c) meet meat mete

(d) write right wright

(e) pear pair pare

6-

<u>medicine</u> - medecine	libary - <u>library</u>
aweful - <u>awful</u>	<u>separate</u> - seperate
pursued - <u>persuade</u>	<u>radiance</u> - radience

7-

1- English

2- embarrass

3- dissatisfied

4- professional

5- successful

6- emirates

8-

tier weir

relief

wield

seize

belief