

**NATIVE-SPEAKERS TEND TO STRESS COMMUNICATIVE FLUENCY  
WHILE NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS TEND TO STRESS LINGUISTIC  
ACCURACY IN ERROR TREATMENT**

**A classroom study conducted within the jurisdiction of the English  
Language Program in the Academic Division of Saudi Aramco Training  
Department**

A Dissertation Presented to the  
Graduate Faculty of the  
School of Education, Leicester University

In Partial Fulfillment of the Degree of  
Doctor of Education  
In Applied Linguistics – TESOL

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Leicester, United Kingdom  
December, 2003

## ABSTRACT

**ERROR TREATMENT: Native-speakers tend to stress communicative fluency while non-native speakers tend to stress linguistic accuracy.**

Within the context of communicative language Teaching, teachers have a tendency to stress communicative fluency rather than linguistic accuracy in error treatment. This study uses Aramco ESL teachers, students, and classes where teachers from different-educational backgrounds teach English to adult Saudi employees within its English language program, as an example to explore this tendency.

The study hypothesizes that native-speakers, given their different educational background, tend to stress communicative fluency while the non-native speakers tend to stress linguistic accuracy. Hence, the study attempts to present an account of how these teachers look at errors and how they treat them in class, to reach some findings about this hypothesis.

The study applies multiple methods in data collection including a teacher's questionnaire designed by the researcher, followed by classroom observations along with audio-recordings of those classes. The classroom observation scheme used is adapted from Spada and Frohlich's COLT observation Scheme-Part A- (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching). The students' preferences to error treatment were also explored by using a students' questionnaire designed by the researcher, to add dimensions to the findings.

To analyse elements in the research context, Likert Scale for coding responses to the questionnaires was used to provide numbers and percentages for analysis. Then, samples of classroom discourse collected from the audio-recorded observations were transcribed to analyse teachers' behavior toward errors in class.

To add further dimensions to the findings, the findings were discussed in view of Chaudron's illustration in his model: Features and Types of Corrective Reaction in the Model of Discourse. The findings were also discussed in view of Chaudron's Table: Rate of Error Production and Teacher Treatment, for the same reason.

By using Chaudron's model and table in the discussion, the study aims to provide a sound interpretation of the strategies that Aramco teachers use to treat errors and whether these strategies reflect principles of Communicative Language Teaching.

The study identifies several distinctive issues from the research context including opinions and beliefs of Aramco teachers and students about errors treatment. It also identifies types of strategies these teachers use in treating their students' errors in class, and provides conclusions that demonstrate that both NSs and NNSs have beliefs and strategies that promote both communicative fluency and linguistic accuracy although NNSs showed noticeable tendency for linguistic accuracy more than their native-speaking counterparts did.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I extend my deepest gratitude to Dr. Peter Martin for his knowledge, feedback and guidance in completing this thesis. I should also thank Dr. Dan Robertson for his assistance and guidance at the early stages of this study.

My heartfelt thanks go to my wife and children who have borne with me eight months of family separation due to my residency in Leicester. Without their patience and encouragement I would not have had the opportunity to complete this thesis.

My deep thanks go to my colleagues in the Training Department of Saudi Aramco who extended all the assistance I needed to conduct important parts of this study. My special thanks go to the friends in Leicester who assisted me in my work. I also would like to thank the researchers and authors whose hard work and insight made writing this dissertation possible.

Finally, Suzanne Dakin in Leicester who typed the major part of this study also deserves my appreciation for showing cooperation and patience in implementing my frequent requests for amendments.

## DEDICATION

To My Late Mother

To My Late Father

To My Wife and Children



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**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

BEP	Basic English Program
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
COLT	Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching
COS	Classroom Observation Scheme
CPC	College Preparatory Center
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
ITC	Industrial Training Center
L1	First language, mother tongue
L2	Second language, learned tongue
NS	Native speaker
NNS	Non Native speaker
SPQ	Students’ Preferences Questionnaire
TAQ	Teacher’s Attitude Questionnaire
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
VELT	Vocational English Language Teaching

# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY**

This study is based in Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia is an Arab country with a population of around sixteen million people. Saudi Aramco where this study was conducted is the country's oil and gas producing company. Saudi Aramco, a renowned world class oil and gas company, runs a huge training program for its Saudi employees through its Training and Career Development Department. Part of this department is the Academic Training Division. This division, among other training programs, runs the English Language Program. This study was carried out within the jurisdiction of this program. Subjects of the study were Aramco ESL teachers and students. ESL teachers are hired by Aramco from different parts of the world to teach English and other subjects to Aramco Saudi-employees. The teaching staff includes teachers from Britain, Canada, Ireland and the United States, in addition to teachers from different Arab countries like Jordan, Lebanon, the Sudan and Egypt. Students are all Saudi nationals employed by the company. The company selects competent young Saudi men and women to go through intensive training programs including the ESL program

to qualify for jobs or for scholarships abroad. One of these ESL programs is the Apprenticeship Program from which subjects for this study were selected.

The Academic Training Division in Saudi Aramco has always endeavored to upgrade and improve the ESL program by introducing the latest theories and practices into its curriculum and teaching methodologies. The history of the Aramco ESL program dates back to the period after the Second World War in the 1940s. It is useful to provide a brief overview of the major developments in the history of the Aramco ESL program to give the reader an idea about the important changes in Saudi Aramco's ESL curriculum design and teaching methodology starting with the Direct Method in the 1940's and ending with the Communicative Approach in the 1990's.

A research report released by Saudi Aramco in 1998 under the title of *Saudi Aramco and its People - A History of Training*, sheds more light on the development of the Aramco ESL program. According to this report, the communicative approach was introduced into the ESL program by the late 1970's. Prior to that Aramco experimented with the most popular ESL teaching methods and approaches at the time; from the Direct Method in the 1940's, to the Structural Method in the 1960's to the ESP approach and Audio Lingual Method in the 1980's.



The Communicative Approach was introduced into the Aramco ESL program in the late 1970's. Candlin, who was an advocate of the Communicative Approach, acted as a consultant to Aramco. He was asked to evaluate the Aramco ESL program to prepare for introducing communicative principles into the program. Candlin, the report points out, criticized Aramco ESL teachers. He criticized Aramco NNS teachers and reported that they carry over into classrooms the traditional patterns of teaching English in the Arab world which is heavily centered around structures and choral responses with the teacher in focus most if not all of the time. These remarks by Candlin were in fact what inspired the researcher to explore this area in teaching in Aramco ESL classrooms. His words about NNSs using traditional patterns of teaching in the Arab world helped to formulate the hypothesis of this research that will be discussed later in this chapter.

Candlin, the report adds, recommended a number of changes in the English language program. The changes included a recommendation that an immediate needs analysis should be carried out.

Based on Candlin's recommendations, the Test Development Unit in Aramco Academic Training Department which was also handling Curriculum Design, produced in-house

textbooks blending the Communicative Approach with the Structural Approach to English teaching. In 1979 Aramco introduced a new program called *Intercom*, short for English for International Communication. It consisted of a series of six books intended for secondary and adult ESL students. The series was written by a team of six language experts, from the centre of TESL at Concordia University in Montreal, Canada. Upon further review of the *Intercom*, it was found that it needed more vocational orientation. A contract for creation of a new vocationally-orientated English program was awarded in June 1980 to Pacific American Institute (PAI) of Corte Madera, California, San Francisco. The PAI team produced the English language program called Vocational English Language Teaching which was known for short as VELT. This program combined the two most popular ESL teaching approaches of the time, the Communicative Language Teaching and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). VELT students learned to understand simple instructions, ask and answer questions and read sentences and messages related to work. They learned to read warning signs and notices such as 'danger' and 'no smoking', 'wear your safety hat,' and to complete simple forms and checklists related to the job. As students advanced in the program, they were supposed to be able to understand lectures, films and slide shows; receive

and give instructions and requests; read manuals and read and write messages. A VELT classroom could be easily distinguished from other classrooms by the abundance of teaching aids it contained: a slide projector, a projector table, a projection screen, flash cards, wall charts, samples of many other pieces of equipment and tools used at work. The teaching materials included hundreds of transparencies and flashcards, picture cards, a cassette recorder and audiocassettes. However, after two years, although VELT students showed some fluency in speaking and listening skills compared to the students of the regular track where accuracy of performance was a major requirement, the tests showed that VELT students were less developed in reading, writing and syntactic skills. Their grammatical competency was found to be lower than that of the other students. VELT graduates, therefore, were not able to change jobs or transfer across organization lines without further language training, particularly in grammar. VELT students, in order to develop performance accuracy skills had to be enrolled in the ESL Regular Program. Hence, the VELT had to be revised. A new syllabus was devised. It was called *Basic English Program* known as BEP for short. This is the program currently used in Aramco ESL classrooms for the beginners and intermediate levels.



In this program, structure is introduced and mixed with communicative skills. It is primarily structural in the first levels, gradually becoming more communicative until the communicative aspects become more dominant in the final level. This new program devotes about 30 percent of the time in Level One to grammatical structure. Speaking and listening skills dominate Levels Two and Three, while reading and writing are emphasized in Level Four; the final level. This program has continued to go through further revisions since 1998. According to the program objectives, the BEP graduate would be proficient enough in spoken and written English, make himself understood by his supervisor, fellow workers, visitors and friends. He would be able to follow conversations between native speakers. He would read company publications, training manuals, maintenance and operating manuals, memos, maps, directories and inventories. He would be capable of writing short, informal memos of 25 to 35 words; completing forms, making simple log entries; and making lists in alphabetical or numerical order. In other words, the program aims to provide students with the basic communicative skills students need in order to communicate appropriately both at work and in some real life situations. Hence, it is within this ESL teaching atmosphere that this study was conducted.



## **1.2 SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

Teachers come to ESL classrooms with a variety of teaching styles and methods. The variation in teachers' styles and educational backgrounds allows for speculation about how they think of pedagogy as a theory or a combination of theories and how they behave in classrooms. The fact that Aramco ESL teachers come from different cultural and educational backgrounds allows for even more speculation that could lead to some enquiry in this regard. It has been noticed that teachers who are native-speakers of the target language, given their different background, demonstrate beliefs and behaviour in classroom teaching that could be different from the beliefs and behavior of their counterparts; the non-native speakers of the target language. To be more precise, NSs, as I noticed when I observed classes as a senior teacher in Aramco, tend to treat students' errors with emphasis on communicative fluency while their NNSs counterparts tend to treat students' errors with emphasis on linguistic accuracy. Therefore, I decided to investigate these two tendencies. I found that two instruments need to be used: a questionnaire to explore the teachers' opinions in this regard, and a classroom observation scheme to see if these two tendencies exist in the classroom.

Learners too, bring to learning their own beliefs, views and attitudes, which in turn influence how they approach their learning. Therefore, it was decided to explore their beliefs about teaching and learning to see how they like their errors to be treated.

Richards and Lockhart (1994) pointed out that learners' beliefs are influenced by the social context of learning and can influence both their attitude toward the language itself as well as toward language learning in general. It was decided that this study should investigate students' beliefs and attitudes about how they like their errors to be treated. The findings of this part of the study will help provide some understanding of how Aramco ESL students prefer their errors to be treated. This understanding will allow us to look at error treatment from a different perspective.

In fact, the introduction of different Communicative Language Teaching techniques created new dimensions of looking at classroom interaction between the teacher and his students as a main and important source for collecting data about the teacher's teaching and the students' learning. Moreover, the area of error treatment in classroom interaction, as will be seen in Chapter III, has gained more and more emphasis both in theory and research. Therefore, this area will

also be investigated within the Communicative Language Teaching perspective, which is the framework that embraces this study.

Since the mid-1970s, Richards and Rodgers (2001) point out, the scope of Communicative Language Teaching has expanded. Both its American and British proponents see it as an approach that aims to make communicative fluency rather than linguistic accuracy the goal of language teaching.

In addition, teachers according to this view tend to become more like facilitators in class rather than transmitters of knowledge in class (Medgyes, 1986). They use different communicative techniques to treat students' errors because errors have now become an acknowledged part of the teaching learning process. Therefore, teachers nowadays employ different strategies in treating errors rather than rejecting those errors, or trying to prevent them from happening as was the case with the methods that preceded the communicative language teaching approaches. (This point will be discussed further in the literature review of this study).

Chaudron (1988), for example, observed teachers in classrooms and recorded moves and acts that teachers use in treating students' errors. They do this, Chaudron points out, attempting to push them forward into communication, rather



than inhibit them from learning by preventing them from making errors as was the case with Structuralism and Audiolingualism in the 1950s and 1960s. Hence, the focal objective of the study is to investigate whether Aramco ESL teaching strategies reflect the new changes in ESL teaching that advocate communicative fluency or whether they are still tied to those teaching methods which advocate linguistic accuracy that prevailed in ESL teaching not only in Aramco but also in many parts of the world.

### **1.3 AIMS OF THE STUDY**

This study aims to accomplish the following:

1.3.1 To investigate teachers' beliefs about error treatment in a CLT context. Beliefs of both NS and NNS Aramco ESL teachers will be explored by using an attitude questionnaire. Differences and similarities in their responses to the survey questions (that were designed by the researcher for this purpose) will be compared and contrasted to see whether the two groups of teachers hold different beliefs and opinions that promote communicative language teaching, or hold beliefs and opinions that promote linguistic accuracy.

1.3.2 To investigate Aramco ESL teachers' behavior in the classroom to see what error treatment strategies each of the two groups of teachers uses in treating students' errors. These strategies will then be compared and contrasted to the beliefs



and attitudes that each group shows in the questionnaire. The purpose of this comparison is to see what similarities and differences they may have in attitude and behavior towards error treatment. This knowledge will eventually enable us to see which of the two groups whether in attitude or behavior, or in both tends to treat students errors with emphasis on communicative fluency, and which tends to treat students errors with emphasis on linguistic accuracy. The findings of these instruments should enable us to see what the two groups of teachers' beliefs to error treatment are and also to see how they practice those beliefs in class.

1.3.3 To investigate students' preferences about how they would like their teachers to treat their errors. Beliefs of Aramco ESL students from different ESL levels will be explored. Their beliefs will be investigated through a Students' Preferences Questionnaire, designed by the researcher. Their responses will then be compared and contrasted with their teachers' responses to find out whether students' views are similar to those of their teachers. This is in order to be able to make some recommendations for improving error treatment in the Aramco ESL program based on views and opinions consolidated from the findings of both the teachers' questionnaire and the students' Questionnaire.

1.3.4 A final aim of the study is to explore possible applications and implications of error treatment in the teaching of English within the Aramco ESL program. I think the area of error treatment in communicative teaching needs more exploration. There is more that needs to be investigated in error treatment and what best possible techniques can be implemented in classroom interaction to improve the teaching learning process. Moreover, there has to be some guidelines on how students' errors should be treated so that students are not confused or frustrated when their teachers treat their errors in a way that could inhibit them from learning the language.

#### **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This study will address the following two major questions:

1. Do Aramco NSs treat students' errors with emphasis on communicative fluency while NNSs treat students' errors with emphasis on linguistic accuracy?
2. How do Aramco teachers treat students' errors in an ESL classroom?
3. How do Aramco ESL students like their errors to be treated?

In order to address these questions, it will be necessary first to cover certain areas in the literature. Therefore, I will

critically evaluate the following areas in the literature review of the study:

- i. Views that educators hold about errors and their significance in learning.
- ii. Types of errors students make in the classroom.
- iii. Types of strategies that teachers use to treat students' errors in classroom.
- iv. The pedagogical implications and applications teachers and students get from this study.

### **1.5 SUBJECTS OF THE STUDY**

As pointed out earlier, the data for this study was collected from 88 Aramco ESL teachers and 180 Aramco ESL students. NS teachers come from different Western countries such as the United States, Britain, Ireland and Canada. NNS teachers come from Arab countries such as Jordan, Lebanon, Sudan, Syria, Egypt and Saudi Arabia. These teachers were selected to investigate their beliefs and attitudes about error treatment. The 88 teachers comprise all Aramco ESL teaching staff in the five ITCs that will be involved in the study.



Then, 18 teachers: 9 NS teachers and 9 NNS teachers were selected for the classroom observations. The classroom teaching of this group was observed and recorded to investigate their error treatment strategies in the classroom.

Finally, 180 Aramco ESL students were selected from different ESL levels to investigate their beliefs about how they would like their errors to be treated. Students were selected as groups with homogeneous ages, instructional methods and material. These students receive ESL teaching in five Aramco institutions known as ITCs, through an Apprenticeship Program.

### **Limitations of this Study:**

A limitation of this study is that this study explored opinions and beliefs that represent only the beliefs and opinions of Aramco ESL teachers and students who function within a special ESL program designed for adult company workers and employees whose ages range between 18 and 40 years. Moreover, this program has its own teaching policies, methods and instructional material which are a combination of different ESL teaching methods. Therefore, the instruments used here were designed to suit the program. If they are applied in an ESL program that has different teaching contexts from this program, they may not yield findings similar to the findings of this study.

Another limitation is relevant to the content of the instruments of the study. As can be seen, the instruments include items that investigate communicative language teaching, like: using group teaching, drama and audio-visual aids. This is because at the early stages of the research, the plan was to explore these areas in Aramco classrooms. However, later at the analysis stage, it was found that such an investigation will take the research away from its focus which is error treatment. Therefore, I decided to exclude this part from the study and focus on the part this investigates error treatment.

## **1.7 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS**

This thesis is comprised of seven chapters. Following the present introductory chapter is Chapter II. Chapter II critically reviews the literature on a number of inter-related issues in the area of error treatment in two main approaches to language teaching: the form-based method and the communicative language teaching approach. Chapter III, which is part of the literature review, focuses on error treatment in classroom oral interaction. It briefly reviews the main pedagogical issues on error treatment with emphasis on its communicative context. Chapter IV provides the methods that were used in data collection. It first discusses the design and application of the Teachers' Questionnaire, then the design and application of the

Students' Preferences Questionnaire and finally, the design and application of the classroom observation.

For the convenience of reading through the study data, it was found that it would be better to discuss the data collected through these three tools in two separate chapters; chapter V for discussing the findings of the questionnaires and chapter VI for discussing the findings of the classroom observation:

In chapter V, responses of NSs and NNSs to the questionnaire are compared and contrasted to see if there are any similarities or differences between the responses of both groups of teachers in their attitude to error treatment. Then students' responses to their questionnaire are analyzed to see how they prefer their errors to be treated and whether students have views that can be different or similar to those of their teachers.

In chapter VI classroom observation data is analyzed and discussed in two ways: First, the count of the types of errors and the count of the types of teachers' responses to those errors investigated will be discussed and analyzed to see what types of errors both groups of teachers emphasize. Counting of error types and error treatment types was found by many educators (as will be discussed later) to be an indicator of a teacher's tendency in error treatment.

Second, the discourse of the lessons observed will be transcribed and analyzed to obtain data from the classroom discourse.

This analysis will shed more light on the behavior of both groups of teachers towards errors by identifying practical examples from the teachers' behavior towards errors in classroom and discussing them.

In Chapter VII, the final chapter of the thesis, the findings of the study are summarized. The chapter concludes with some pedagogical implications for Aramco teachers of English and suggestions for improving Aramco English Language Program in terms of classroom teaching and error treatment.



## **Chapter II**

### **DEVELOPMENT IN LANGUAGE TEACHING: FROM EMPHASIS ON FORM TO EMPHASIS ON MEANING**

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Language before the emergence of the communicative approach to language teaching was taught with emphasis on correct form. Accuracy of form in students' production was highly emphasized and students were required to memorise grammar rules and vocabulary lists and repeat structure patterns of the target language after the teacher to master or memorize them. However, with the emergence of the communicative approach emphasis was laid more on meaning and developing students' communicative abilities which became the target of language teaching. This chapter will discuss these developments in language teaching because of their relevance to the goals of this study.

This chapter is in two parts: the first part discusses the circumstances that made emphasis on accuracy the most dominant aspect of language teaching before the emergence of the communicative approaches in teaching. The second part

discusses how Hymes' (1972) theory of communicative competence paved the way for some important changes in ESL teaching towards a communicative teaching approach. This second part will give a brief discussion of the main aspects of Communicative Teaching in terms of its background and principles, instructional material, classroom applications and the role of the teacher. The purpose of this is to familiarize the reader with the Communicative Language Teaching approach, and to provide some background for the discussion of error treatment from a communicative perspective in the next chapter.

Discussion will be taken further in the next chapter (Chapter III), which looks at a number of issues in error treatment. The information in this chapter and the next chapter (Chapter III) provides a background for the discussion that involves investigating and analyzing Aramco ESL teachers' attitudes and behaviour in classroom in respect to emphasis on linguistic accuracy and emphasis on communicative fluency.

## **2.1 ACCURACY OF PERFORMANCE AND LANGUAGE TEACHING**

This part of the chapter is a brief review of the developments in language teaching that preceded the communicative approach. It touches on the main historical

developments in language teaching that maintained accuracy of performance as a major aspect of language teaching until the emergence of CLT that has brought a lot of changes to many aspects of language teaching.

However, before proceeding into the circumstances that gradually shifted the focus from emphasis on accuracy to emphasis on fluency, I think it is necessary to try to give some sound definitions of these terms in language teaching.

In fact, the literature that was reviewed for this study does not give any specific definitions of these two terms.

Yet, from what I could gather from the discussions around these two terms in this literature is that accuracy can be described as the mastery of the forms and structures of a language and the ability to manipulate these forms and structures accurately as they occur in that language. The speaker in this case can select items and patterns through which he can communicate his messages without difficulty or inhibition on his side or on the side of his interlocutor.

Fluency, on the other hand is the ability of the speaker of a foreign language to communicate with the language in a way that makes him understood by his interlocutors whether they are native-speakers or not. In such situations, some of the rules of the target language, like some grammatical rules or



pronunciation norms may be condoned by his interlocutor for the sake of communication as long as his messages are understood.

Looking back at the history of teaching languages, it can be noted that modern language teaching began to enter European schools in the 18th century. Languages were taught then using the same basic procedures that were used for teaching Latin grammar. Kelly (1969) points out that Latin grammar was taught within a context of logic, and therefore, it was taught as abstract rules. Following the patterns of logic, grammar books consisted of statements of abstract grammar, while vocabulary and sentences were used mainly for translation. Therefore, learning the language as a speaking skill was not the goal of its learners. By the 19th century, this approach based on the study of Latin grammar had become the standard way of teaching foreign languages in schools. A typical textbook in the 19th century would consist of chapters of lessons organized around grammar rules or points. Each grammar rule was listed and rules were explained, usually in the student's mother tongue. The speaking skill was treated at a minimal level. This approach was known as the Grammar-Translation Method (Howatt, 1984).

The Grammar-Translation method dominated foreign language teaching until the mid 19th century and it continued to



be widely used in different modified forms in many parts of the world. It was widely used in the United States of America. Reading and writing were its main focus because studying a foreign language was in order to learn to read its literature and, therefore, no systematic attention was paid to speaking or listening skills. Vocabulary and reading comprehension were mainly based on reading the text, translating its word lists by using the dictionary and memorizing the meanings of these words. This created a tendency for emphasizing accuracy in grammar and reading comprehension skills. Students accordingly were expected to attain a high standard in translation and grammar in order to pass formal written examinations (Kelly, 1969).

Towards the end of the 19th century, new factors emerged and contributed to the questioning and rejection of the Grammar- Translation method. There was a reform in teaching that based its new ideas about language teaching on child language learning as a model for language teaching. This reform was led by Gouin (Richards and Rogers 2001). He emphasized the importance of meaning in learning a foreign language. Gouin developed an approach in teaching a foreign language based on his observations of a child's use of language. He even established schools to teach according to his method. Thus, the

need for speaking the language, or communicating with the language was gradually recognized. Soon this new trend in foreign language teaching created a market for conversation books and books intended for private study or communication with other cultures (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

Interest in how children learn their mother-tongue prompted more attempts in Europe and the United States to develop teaching principles from observation of child language learning to pedagogical reforms. These reforms paved the way for a new language teaching method. This method was known as the Direct Method. In this method, more emphasis was laid on communication skills and grammar was taught inductively rather than directly, as was the case with the grammar-based approach. Both speech and listening comprehension were taught but with emphasis on correct grammar and correct pronunciation (Titone, 1968).

Thus, speaking and listening skills began to have more emphasis. In the 1920's and 1930's, British linguists developed a basis for an oral approach to teaching English. In the United States there were similar movements. The US Government during World War II commissioned universities to develop special

language programs for the military personnel to attain conversational proficiency in a variety of languages. The army method later led to the emergence of the audio-lingual approach by the mid-fifties (Hockett, 1959). This approach employed dialogues and drilling of structures. Dialogues were used for repetition and memorization while accuracy in pronunciation and intonation was given emphasis. The main objective of this approach was attaining oral proficiency (Brooks, 1964). By the 1960s, American audio-lingualism began to retreat because its major emphasis was on accuracy of form like accurate pronunciation and use of accurate grammatical patterns with much less emphasis on the communicative effectiveness which was beginning to have more and more advocates.

## **2.2 THE EMERGENCE OF COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH TO LANGUAGE TEACHING**

This part of the chapter discusses the main aspects of Communicative Language Teaching: its background, principles, instructional material and the role of the teacher in a communicative classroom.



### **2.2.1 BACKGROUND**

The theory of communicative competence, which was originally devised by Hymes (1972), resulted in some important changes in ESL teaching, in terms of teaching materials design and teaching methodology. It is useful, before discussing these changes, to shed some light on how the idea of communicative competence originated in the early 1970s and eventually brought these changes to ESL teaching. Chomsky (1965) introduced the terms 'competence' and 'performance' in modern linguistics (Canale and Swain, 1980). Chomsky's claim was that 'competence' refers to the linguistic system or (grammar) that an ideal native speaker of a given language has internalized, whereas 'performance' mainly concerns the psychological factors that are involved in the perception and production of speech. Hymes pointed out that the competence–performance description devised by Chomsky did not provide for considering the appropriateness of the socio-cultural significance of an utterance in the situational and verbal context in which it is used.

Hymes asserts that there are rules of use that have to be known along with knowledge of grammar rules. Without these



rules of use, Hymes points out that knowledge of grammatical rules would not be sufficient within the social context of the language spoken. Therefore, Hymes proposed a broader notion or conception of competence. This notion includes not only grammatical knowledge, but also contextual or socio-linguistic competence. He also distinguished between Chomsky's 'performance' and his 'communicative competence'. According to Hymes, 'performance' based on the knowledge of grammatical rules does not necessarily result in appropriate performance. As he states, "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (Hymes 1972:278). These rules of use, Hymes refers to as 'communicative competence' (ibid) . Hymes set out to specify what he meant by rules of use. He pointed out that those rules are the knowledge of the rules of socio-cultural communication with others; how, what, where, when and in what manner language is spoken in a given society or culture. Therefore, one can say that according to Chomsky can be described as the knowledge of the grammatical and speech rules of a language and the ability to use these rules in a manner that does not deviate from the way the native-speaker produces the language. Hymes, however looked at this definition as inappropriate and suggested that effective performance is not the result of linguistic competence as Chomsky suggested but by

knowledge of the rules of the socio-cultural communication too, and hence communicative competence is really what leads to effective performance.

Hymes' theory was well accepted and inspired many syllabus writers to adopt his views on communicative competence. Canale and Swain, for example, proposed models for classroom teaching based on Hymes' views. Van Ek and Alexander (1975), and Wilkins (1976) introduced what is known as the Notional Syllabus. This syllabus is distinguished by its attention to functions and notions as applications of Hymes' views.

Curriculum writers like Widdowson (1978,1979), Munby (1978), Breen and Candlin (1980), Littlewood (1981), Brumfit and Johnson (1983), Yalden (1983) Johnson, and many others adopted Hymes' views and devised communicative teaching materials based on these views (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

Since Hymes illustrated his views in the 1970s, the scope of CLT has expanded. It has become regarded as an approach to language teaching that makes communicative competence the goal of language teaching, where the four skills of language learning are integrated appropriately, comprehensively and communicatively. This makes it different from the other

language teaching methods in the sense that it involves the students, the teacher and the teaching material in teamwork that eventually aims at using the language as one unit and not in isolated patterns.

### **2.2.2 DEVELOPMENTS IN CLT SYLLABUS CONTENT**

One of the first models of CLT syllabuses which was described as a notional syllabus was written by Wilkins (1976). In this syllabus, Wilkins specified semantic and grammatical categories or notions like frequency, motion, location, and the categories of communicative functions that students need in order to express those notions. Notions are actually conceptions of the language that are put into practice through creating functional situations in order for students to communicate. Buying a ticket at the bus-station for instance is a notion that is practiced by creating functions or contexts for that notion through devising a dialogue for instance composed of communicative patterns.

A good example of this practice is Shrum and Glisan's (1994) Teachers' Handbook. This book provides teachers, especially beginning and foreign language teachers with techniques to apply theory through designing, teaching and reflecting on their teaching. The Council of Europe then expanded this syllabus and developed it into a syllabus that



included foreign language courses for European adults. This included situations where students might need to speak the language, like personal identification and shopping for example. The functions they needed to use the language for, such as requesting something, expressing agreement or disagreement; the notions made use of in communication such as time frequency and duration in addition to lists of the vocabulary and grammatical structures needed for this purpose (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). The result of this was the publication of *Threshold Level English* by Van Ek and Alexander in 1975. This syllabus was an attempt to specify what was needed in order to be able to achieve a reasonable degree of communicative fluency in a foreign language. However, Wilkins' notional syllabus model was soon criticized by British applied linguists. Widdowson (1979) argued that Wilkins' syllabus was merely replacing one kind of list (e.g. list of grammar items) with another (e.g. list of notions and functions). This encouraged more writers to develop several proposals and models for what a communicative syllabus might look like.

Yalden (1983) described the content and structure of the major communicative syllabus types that appeared between 1975 and 1983. He points out that the development of these models shows that within a short period of time more and more



communicative elements were introduced into their content and structure. This, he adds, is evident for example in Widdowson (1979) where more emphasis was given to classroom interaction and variation of communicative tasks. Moreover, there were further attempts to write books that accommodated more communicative tasks and activities. One of these attempts was a book by Littlewood (1981). In this book, he introduces two types of communicative activities: functional communication activities and social interaction activities. Functional communication activities include tasks like those that involve comparing and contrasting two objects in terms of their similarities and differences, or discovering missing features in a map or a picture. Social interaction activities include conversations, dialogues and role plays, simulations, skits, improvisation and debate. Therefore, textbooks written for CLT, as has been noted, are distinguished from traditional textbooks by their attention to tasks. These are activities that are prepared to support a CLT class like: exercise books, cue cards and pair-communication practice material to promote students interaction practice (Shrum and Glisan 1994).. This practice involves in addition to the textbook, the teacher and the students. Hence, textbooks are written in a way that involves a variety of activities, tasks and procedures that promote learning through communication

between the three elements: the text, the students and the teacher. Some of these books are distinguished by incorporating task-based materials that involve games, role-plays and simulations. Another feature of CLT textbooks is that they introduce and use authentic materials from real-life to be used in classrooms. For example, these textbooks may include language-based realia. Realia is the use of material from real-life resources in the classroom. These could be language-based resources such as magazines, signs, advertisements, newspapers, or graphic and audio-visual resources around which communicative activities can be created and built up, such as maps, pictures and charts. Audio-visual resources can be video-taped or audio-taped materials taken from real-life situations like films or taped dialogues (Richard and Rodgers 2001).

Application of such activities in the classroom requires two important considerations: These considerations involve mainly the role of teacher and the role of the text because these two elements according to CLT have roles that are to a great extent different from their roles in the traditional classroom.

### **2.2.3 THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER IN CLT**

Medgyes (1986:107) suggests that the "communicative classroom requires a teacher of extra-ordinary abilities". This

teacher, according to Medgyes, should be learner-centered in the first place. Medgyes sets out to point out that a communicative teacher should not impose his own views on his students. Instead, he should gain detailed knowledge of who the learners are and what they bring to the class, why they have chosen the course and what they expect from this course. Once this has been established, he has to cater for his students' needs as a group. In addition to fostering motivation in his group, he needs to give attention to the individual aspirations of his students, because the group he is teaching consists of individuals with different backgrounds. Therefore, personal or individual differences between students have to be considered. Such differences like the differences in age, motivation, intelligence, linguistic levels have to be coped with by the communicative teacher.

Medgyes (*ibid*) in addition to stressing the need for a communicative teacher to cater for his students' psychological and learning needs, stresses the importance of reconciling form and meaning in class. He notes that a communicative teacher should pay attention to form and meaning simultaneously. He has to reconcile two opposing elements of linguistic practice, form and meaning, unlike the audio-lingual teacher, for



instance, who had only the production of the correct structure to consider. Another important task for the communicative teacher is to create favorable conditions for the student to need to communicate. He has to initiate and stimulate activities where the students can participate and communicate with each other or with the teacher. Littlewood (1984) suggests that the teacher should assume the role of a facilitator in class. In other words, he should be less dominant in class than the traditional teacher, though he should not be a passive observer in class. He should offer advice and resolve the students' differences but he should stay out of focus as much as possible.

The role of the communicative teacher is different from that of the 'traditional' one in the sense that he is not the 'know-it-all', who transmits knowledge in a lecturing manner to a group of silent passive, inhibited students. A communicative teacher, once he sets tasks or activities and explains their procedures, steps aside and makes sure that the learning is taking place. He may offer help and solve problems if they arise (Harmer, 1983). Withdrawal of the teacher from activities carried out by the students in the classroom is essential to learning. Success of learning is largely dependent on the teacher's "ability to withdraw" (Medgyes, 1986:109). However, a communicative teacher, though he might retreat, should not relinquish control



over the class because if he does so, he jeopardizes the students' feeling of security.

#### **2.2.4 The Role of the Text in CLT :**

The role of the text and not necessarily the textbook in CLT is different from its role in traditional approaches to language teaching. The textbook in the traditional approaches is in the center of the teaching-learning process. Both the students and the teacher are attached to it, controlled and directed by its instructions and content. It usually restricts activity to language presentation and predominantly controlled practice. In the CLT classroom, there are many alternatives to the textbook. There is a wide range of authentic (i.e. material taken from real-life resources) and flexible material to choose from (Richared and Rodgers 2001). Thompson (1996) describes the communicative approach to teaching as an opportunity for teachers “to change their practices” (Thompson 1996:14). He points out that there are many texts now that provide very practical CLT guidelines and activities which a ‘communicative’ teacher may need to use in his teaching .

#### **2.2.5 Conclusion:**

This chapter touched upon the main developments in language teaching including the communicative language

teaching approach. The purpose of this discussion was to point out that methods and approaches before the emergence of the communicative approach taught the language with emphasis on accuracy of form, while the communicative approach laid more emphasis on meaning and communicative fluency. The discussion was necessary to try to find out how accuracy of form and communicative fluency came about to characterize two major trends in ESL teaching nowadays.

The next chapter will discuss a number of views in error treatment which are important to the course of this study. This discussion will focus on error treatment in classroom within the framework of changes in pedagogy that CLT has brought to classroom teaching. It will look at the significance of errors and, their types, in addition to the strategies that teachers use and educators suggest for treating those errors within the communicative context of language teaching.

Furthermore, the views on error treatment discussed in the next chapter will be used to formulate the actual statements of the surveys that will be used to explore the teachers' and students' beliefs and opinions about how these errors should be treated. This knowledge will help to see whether or not Aramco ESL teachers hold similar views about error treatment to those

explored in the literature review in the next chapter. Also, these views will be used as guidelines for observing and reflecting on Aramco ESL teachers' behavior in class to see how they treat students' errors and whether this treatment is carried out within the communicative context of language teaching.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **ERROR TREATMENT IN ESL CLASSROOMS**

The last chapter gave an overview of the main developments in English language teaching.

The present chapter will provide a discussion of error treatment within the framework of the changes that CLT has brought to classroom teaching. It will discuss errors in terms of their nature, significance, types and the treatment strategies that teachers use in classroom.

#### **3.1 Error Treatment Rather than Error Correction:**

It is useful at the outset, to explain briefly why the term ‘error treatment’ rather than ‘error correction’ is used in this study. Chaudron (1977) for example, preferred to use the term ‘treatment of error’ rather than ‘error correction’. He noted that ‘treatment of error’ appears to be the most widely employed meaning to refer to any teaching behavior following any error that attempts to inform the student who made the error about the fact that he made an error. This treatment may not involve correction that will result in the student changing the error from its erroneous form to a correct one. For instance, it could be argued that raising an eyebrow at the error by the teacher and



the students correcting himself simply by noticing that movement that he detected an error in his utterance can be regarded as a kind of treatment, not correction because the teacher does not provide feedback on the error. Also, it could be argued that when a teacher elicits a correct form or a comprehensible response from the student who made the error, correction does not necessarily result from feedback from the teacher. The correct form here is provided by the student who is correcting himself through the teacher's elicitation process which can be described as a treatment process, rather than a correction process. Furthermore, if we take (interruption) (ie-stopping the student who made the error by saying: (a'a'a') for instance as an act of feedback from the teacher, the teacher himself cannot claim that he has corrected the error. What the teacher did was signal the occurrence of the error in order for the student to deal with the error and not correct the error to prevent it from recurring. This example from Fanselow (1977 p588) helps to explain the last point:

1.    **T**        : It's blue
2.    **S1**      : It blue
3.    **T**        : It's blue
4.    **S2**      : It's blue
5.    **T**        : It is blue

6. **S1** : It blue
7. **T** : It's blue
8. **S1** : It blue

Here, the teacher provides immediate correction for the student who made the error (Lines 3,5 and 7). The result was that the student failed to correct the error despite the teacher's repeated attempts to have the student correct himself. Correction actually failed, although the treatment of the error was there.

Long (1977) also did not accept error correction as an appropriate term used to describe a teacher's feedback on an error. He introduced what he called 'error detection' or 'knowledge of Result' (KR) rather than error correction. He states "we are interested in error detection, i.e. KR rather than the narrower error correction alone" (Long, 1977:279). He speaks of 'error detection' as a step that precedes feedback on the error from the teacher. Therefore, we can think here of 'error detection' as a first step in 'error treatment'. Detection signals the presence of the error, but neither corrects nor treats the error. Some form of feedback has to follow from the teacher.

Therefore, 'error treatment', I would suggest, seems to be a more suitable term to use in this study to describe teacher's

treatment of errors in classroom interaction and the strategies, acts and moves they employ to achieve that purpose.

### **3.2 NATURE OF ERRORS**

ESL students make different types of errors during the process of learning the language. Contrastive analysts attributed errors to the effect of the student's mother-tongue on the learning of the target language. They pointed out that students tend to transfer to their target language utterances that have some features of their mother tongue. Lado (1957) pointed out that "individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture" (Lado, 1957:2). Error analysts, however, recognized other causes of error, i.e. apart from transfer from L1. Corder (1967) focussed attention on errors as a result of language processing. He pointed out that the mother tongue of the language learner has a partial effect on language learning, and that language learners have their own 'curriculum' when they are in the process of learning the language. That is they have their own individual learning habits that make them reproduce the language, apart from the effect of their mother tongue, in a way that demonstrates wrong or immediate interpretations and consequently wrong usages of the target language utterance.



This development in dealing with students' errors allowed for attempts to explain and define errors further. Chan et al (1982) defined an error on the basis of the linguistic fluency of its user. They defined an error as "the use of a linguistic item in a way, which according to fluent users of the language, indicated faulty or incomplete learning (Chan et al, 1982: 538).

Lennon (1991) introduced a more flexible definition of error. He described an error as a linguistic form that is not usually produced by the native speaker. He defines an error as 'a linguistic form or combination of forms which in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would in all likelihood, not be produced by the speaker's native speaker counterparts' (Lennon, 1991:182). Allright and Bailey also introduced similar definitions based on the native speakers form. They define an error as the production of a linguistic form which deviates from the correct form. The correct form is often defined as the way native speakers typically produce the form which is the native speaker's form (Allwright and Bailey, 1991).

In fact, such definitions which describe the error on the basis of the linguistic fluency of its user or its native-speaker as a basic standard are not really very accurate or useful. James (1998), for instance, points out that native-speakers' linguistic



fluency cannot be taken as a measurement or standard for error-free language. Native-speakers have proved very often not to speak or judge their mother-tongue appropriately. James points out that in a study conducted by James himself in (1977) that NSs could not agree on the deviance or non-deviance of certain features of students' spoken and written English. Not only this but also NSs judges could not reach consensus on the ideal correction of errors made by learners. Therefore, one cannot agree with the previous argument that errors can be defined on the basis of the linguistic fluency of the native-speaker of the language, and as James pointed out, this area of defining errors remains a problem in error analysis that needs to be explored in depth. However, one can say that errors signal the need for a teacher to help the learner put things right, it should be up to the teacher in class who can decide what the error is like and how it can be handled.

### **3.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF ERRORS**

What is an error? I here present a brief description which I summed up from several discussions by prominent educators (e.g Corder (1967). Hendrickson (1978) James (1998) Burt and Kiparsky (1972), Selinker (1972) Allwright (1975). First, I think it is crucial to make a distinction between mistakes and errors which are technically two different phenomena. A mistake refers

to a performance error. That is either a random guess or a 'slip' of tongue. It is a failure to utilize a known system correctly. All people make mistakes, both native and non-native. However, native-speakers are normally capable of recognizing and correcting such 'lapses' or mistakes which are not a result of deficiency in competence but the result of some sort of breakdown or imperfection in the process of producing a speech. These visitations or slips of the tongue, random ungrammaticalities, and other performance lapses in a native speaker production occur also in second language speech. But they are still regarded as mistakes and not errors in the speech of a learner of a foreign language.

Errors, however, are committed only by learners of a target language and not its native-speakers. Allwright (1975) points out that typical definitions of error include the production of a linguistic form which deviates from the correct form. The correct form is often identified as the way native-speakers typically produce the form. This is called the native-speaker's norm. Other educators define an error on the basis of its communicative function (e.g. Corder 1967.) Hendrickson (1978), Hanzeli (1975). They argue that an error is signaled when communication between the speaker and his interlocutor is blocked; a breakdown in communication that made the message in the

speaker's speech not get through either because of wrong pronunciation or wrong tense or using the wrong word (s), and here correction has to take place. Another important question that needs to be addressed is why learners make errors. Errors occur because of lack of command of the target language. (Corder 1971). Selinker (1972) speaks of fossilized errors from an idiosyncratic perspective and gives reasons for this fossilization (This is discussed later in this chapter).

Errors in CLT have significance in the sense that they provide the teacher with information about how the learner is learning the language and how much he is learning. Moreover, error-free production of language is no longer an essential prerequisite for learning a foreign language as was the case with audio-lingualism. As Chastain wrote in 1971 "more important than error-free speech is the creation of an atmosphere in which the students want to talk" (Chastain, 1971:249). Language teaching and learning have become more natural and more communicative. James (1998) points out that this attitude to errors seems to have been based on evidence that error prevention as was the case with audio-lingualism does not work. It does not work with children when acquiring their mother-tongue, referring to the fact that children everywhere produce errors while acquiring their first language. Such errors parents



expect and accept as a natural and necessary part of a child's linguistic development. Errors now have a recognised significance. Corder noted that errors could be significant in three ways: 1) they provide the teacher with information about how much the learner had learned; 2) they provide the researcher with evidence of how language was learned; and 3) they serve as devices by which the learners discover the rules of the target language (Corder, 1982). Corder noted that errors also are indispensable to the learner himself because "we regard the making of an error as a device the learner uses in order to learn. It is a way the learner has for testing his hypothesis about the nature of the language that he is learning" (Corder 1982: 11). Therefore, authors like, Allwright (1975) and Chaudron (1987) developed models for teachers in order to analyze their own corrective techniques and decide which of these techniques are most effective in their error treatment strategies.

Also advocates of the natural acquisition of languages maintain a similar attitude to errors and their treatment. Ellis (1990) argued that errors have become recognized as part of the learning process. They are inevitable and provide evidence that language acquisition is actually taking place. He points out that it is pointless to attempt to prevent errors which are the result of the learner's attempt to struggle to communicate with the



language beyond his limited resources while he is still in the process of learning the language. He adds that errors have become recognised and accepted by the language teacher and used by him as a measure by which he measures his teaching method and adjusts it according to his needs.

Within this new understanding of the significance of learners' errors, more emphasis was laid on communicative fluency in classroom, and formal accuracy has been given less and less emphasis. This change, according to Chaudron (1986), has created changes in pedagogy. More emphasis is now laid on developing students' abilities to speak the language. It has now become accepted that it is normal for the student's speech not to be error-free and that the teacher has to deal with the error in a way that helps the student to accomplish his communicative goals in the first place.

### **3.4 Classification of errors**

In addition to describing errors, there have been attempts to classify errors based on: a) their degree of deviation from the native speaker's form; b) or the clarity of the message in their utterance; c) or their frequency in the learners' spoken language:

Prabhu (1987), for example, divides errors on the basis of their treatment rather than their nature for instance. He divides

errors into 'systematic errors' and 'incidental errors'. He distinguishes systematic errors as the kind of errors that deviate from the native speaker's form and involve long interruptions and linguistic explanation and exemplification from the teacher to correct the student's error or to help the student correct himself. This can be observed for instance, when the teacher explains to a student, for instance, why he has to use the progressive form, not the perfect form of the verb in a given situation. Incidental errors, on the other hand, Prabhu points out, are the kind of errors that do not require linguistic explanation or exemplification from the teacher, such as when the teacher corrects a pronunciation error made by a student, or simply when he raises his eyebrows to draw the student's attention to the error.

Valdman (1975) presented a wider and more inclusive classification of errors. He defines a global error as a communicative error that causes a proficient speaker of a foreign language either to misinterpret the message in the utterance or statement of the speaker or writer, or to consider that message incomprehensible with the textual context, while a local error is a linguistic error that makes a form or structure in a sentence appear awkward, but nevertheless, causes a proficient speaker

of a language little or no difficulty in understanding the intended meaning of a sentence, given its contextual framework. It can be concluded that a communicative error occurs, according to Valdman, when communication between the teacher and the student is blocked and the student in this case has either to correct himself or the teacher has to require correction from the student. In the case of the local error, communication between the teacher and the student is not blocked and it is up to the teacher to require correction of the error, or let the error pass.

Hammerley (1991) made similar distinctions to Valdman's in terms of what he called 'surface errors' and 'deep errors'. Surface errors according to Hammerly need minor corrections. He points out that these errors do not require correction with explanation and mere editing of the error or simply putting it right with no explanation would be enough. While deep errors, he adds, require explanation of why the error was made and what the correct form is.

Hendrickson (1978) added a third type of error that students make in classroom interaction. He divides errors into three main types. The first type is errors that block communication. The second type is errors that have highly stigmatizing effect on the listener or reader but do not block communication. The third type that Hendrickson added is errors



that can be described as lapses that students usually have in their utterances. Such errors are quite common in the speaker's utterances yet they hardly block communication between the speaker and his interlocutor.

Other educators, on the other hand, like Allwright (1975) think that errors should be treated on the basis of their frequency, rather than on their classification. They think of errors on the basis of their occurrence in classroom interaction. Therefore, errors of high frequency should be given more attention and emphasis than errors of low frequency. Correction, therefore, should be focused on errors that recur in students' speech.

### **3.5 VIEWS ON ERROR TREATMENT**

As the focus on classroom instruction has shifted from emphasis on accuracy of performance to communicative fluency, a great deal of literature on error treatment in classroom interaction has appeared. For example, Oller and Richards (1973), Richards (1974), Hatch (1978), Long (1988), James (1977, 1998), Lightbown and Spada (1993), Spada and Frohlich (1995), Ellis (1990b, 2000).

In the discussion below, I critically evaluate some of these studies:

An important view that appears in this literature is the issue of fluency and accuracy, and which should be given preference. Allwright, (1975), For example, noted that teachers who teach communicative English are more concerned with the teachers' ability to convey their ideas and get information more than with the students' ability to produce grammatically accurate sentences. They feel that it is more important for their students to communicate successfully than it is for their sentences to have formal correction. Similarly, Naiman et al. (1978) have reported that students they studied emphasized fluency rather than accuracy.

Correcting only errors that block communication is a view that was argued by people like Corder (1973), Powell (1973), Hanzeli (1975), Valdman (1975), Burt and Kiparsky (1972), Hendrickson (1978), Prabhu (1987), and Hammerley (1991).

Burt and Kiparsky (1976), for instance, stated that limiting correction to errors that block communication allows students to increase their motivation and self-confidence towards learning the target language. He described these errors as errors that prevent the hearer from understanding some aspect of the message in the speaker's utterance. For example, if a speaker said: 'well, it's a big hurry around', this utterance may be unintelligible and almost difficult to interpret, and hence

communication between the speaker and the hearer is blocked. Therefore, the hearer has to ask the speaker to interpret his utterance in clear English. In other words, correction has to take place. While if a speaker for example, said: "I need a scissors", this utterance has an error that does not block communication and therefore it doesn't need correction in order for the message in the speakers' utterance to be understood.

In similar vein, Prabhu(1987), as discussed earlier in this chapter, thought that only deep errors need correction because they pose a problem of communication between the speaker and his interlocutor. Powell (1973), Valdman (1975), Hanzeli (1975), and Hendrickson (1978), also presented similar ideas. They are of the opinion that errors that block communication have to be corrected.

The arguments of Corder and Hendrickson are worth pursuing further at this stage. Corder provided a model for identifying erroneous utterances. He distinguished between two types of error that block communication: overt errors and covert errors. Overtly erroneous utterances, Corder argues, are unquestionably ungrammatical at the sentence level. For example, "Does John can sing?" is ungrammatical but may be accepted and its content can be understood.



Covert errors, on the other hand, Corder points out, are grammatically correct and well formed at the sentence level but unacceptable within the context of communication. For example, "By bus" is a grammatically correct utterance but is not acceptable as an answer to the question: "How are you doing?". Hendrickson pointed out that three types of errors have to be corrected as was discussed earlier in this chapter. The most important of these three is an error that blocks communication significantly. The other two types may not necessarily block communication but they may have a stigmatizing effect on the listener.

On the other hand, the Naturalists view maintains a totally different attitude to errors. They stress that errors should be totally ignored because learning will eventually take place whether or not errors are corrected. This view maintains that no matter how much the teacher does to correct the student, the latter will still attempt to follow a sequence of learning determined by his own natural process of learning. Thus, the student will keep making errors until he has reached the natural level of acquisition. This view was introduced by Krashen (1982) in the Natural Approach to language acquisition. Krashen states that all that students need for successful second language acquisition is comprehensible input, and that correction will only

raise the level of student's anxiety and inhibit him from trying to process this input naturally. Similarly, George (1972) suggested that ignoring errors encourages students to communicate since they will be less inclined to focus on what is correct and what is wrong in their speech as they communicate.

Another view states that delaying correction is necessary to give the students enough time to internalize the language. George (1972) argues that students should not be required to produce the target language before they have had maximum receptive experience. Fotos (1993) noticed that "formal instruction appears to lead to acquisition only indirectly and after delay" (Fotos, 1993:381).

Wait- time and self- correction are issues that also have received emphasis in the literature. Studies have shown that the teacher should give the student enough time to correct himself or to receive correction from his peers (i.e. peer correction), and that the teacher should use elicitation moves and acts to encourage the student who made the error to correct himself and that the teacher should not jump in to correct the student immediately. Wait- time was first studied by Rowe (1969) with native- speaking English children studying science. She found that as teachers increased their wait- time, the quality and quantity of students' responses increased. Also, Hernquist et al

(1993) pointed out that students have the ability to correct themselves. If they are given cues or hints, like elicitation acts or moves, their linguistic ability is activated more efficiently.

Holley and King (1974) in a study on wait-time in error correction found that when teachers did not correct errors immediately and allowed a few seconds for students to correct themselves, students corrected fifty percent of their errors. They reported that in small scale intervention in which they asked teachers of German to wait five to ten seconds if a learner made an error or hesitated in answering a question, in over fifty percent of the cases they video-taped, no correction effort from the teacher was needed. The students themselves were able to respond correctly given this brief additional pause. Waltz (1982) claimed that students in one lesson could correct between fifty and ninety percent of their errors when they were given enough time. This is in line with Corder (1973) who stated that once students are made aware of their errors they may learn more from correcting themselves than by having their teachers correct them.

A different view from those discussed above is that correction should be focused on grammatical errors. Fathman and Whalley (1990) reported that correcting grammar in classroom performance led to significant improvement in the



content of students' feedback. Chaudron (1988) thinks that correction should be more confined to grammar practice, leaving communication activities free of focus on correction of other errors. Cathcart and Olsen (1976) recorded that in a group of 188 college students who were asked which errors they thought were the most important to correct, students of all levels of proficiency agreed that pronunciation and grammar errors ranked highest among the errors they wanted to be corrected. Leki (1992) reported that students expected their teachers to correct their errors in grammar first, then spelling, then vocabulary and pronunciation. He added that 70% of the one hundred students that he investigated expected all their errors to be corrected.

An important view that has developed lately that can be also viewed within the context of error treatment is that the strong calls for encouraging fluent communication should not mislead us by de-emphasizing the basic structures of the language. This view has gained more and more advocates recently although it was Littlewood who called the attention to this issue as early as 1981, while other strong advocates of this view like Spada and Frohlich (1995), for instance, came to this conclusion more recently.

Littlewood (1981) argued that structure is not to be sacrificed for the sake of communication. Both structure and meaning have to go together. Similarly, Lightbown and Spada (1990), Nunan (1989), Spada and Frohlich (1995), point out that focusing on structure can increase the learners' level of communicative attainment .

Lightbown and Spada (1993) later pointed out that when focus on form is provided within the context of communicative instruction, it is more beneficial to learning than instruction with exclusive focus on meaning. Inclusive focus on meaning it can be concluded, is not enough to bring language learners to a sufficiently high level of performance. In a later study, Spada and Frohlich (1995) confirmed this view. They pointed out that a combination of form and meaning is a predictor of better learning and that some classroom research showed that attention to form within a communicative framework is beneficial. Nunan (1989) in his argument about the status of grammar in communicative teaching states that "some CLT linguists maintained previously that it was not necessary to teach grammar...in recent years this view has come under serious challenge, and it now seems to be widely accepted that there is value in classroom tasks which require learners to focus on form" (Nunan, 1989:13). Hence, focusing on structure

should, in my view, involve some kind of error treatment that is indispensable to an ESL classroom.

Errors have also been interpreted from an inter-language perspective (Selinker 1972, 1979). Selinker points out that it is important to distinguish between a teaching perspective and a learning one. He sees that a learner of a language may attempt to express meanings which he may already have, in a language which he is in the process of learning. This learner's language, which he calls inter-language, is not identical to the target language, when used because it is still in the process of being acquired, which results in the learner using the language in the 'erroneous' linguistic forms which may fossilize in the learner's interlanguage. Selinker adds that fossilization is when certain erroneous linguistic terms, rules or subsystems like erroneous pronunciation or an erroneous question form for example, fossilize in the interlanguage of the learner of a foreign language and he tends to keep these forms in his interlanguage and these forms keep showing themselves when the learner speaks the foreign language he is learning. These erroneous forms according to Selinker, persist no matter what the age of the learner is or what amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the target language.



Selinker adds that these fossilized forms or structures tend to remain as a potential performance, re-emerging in the productive performance of an interlanguage even when seemingly eradicated. For example, many of these forms and structures reappear in inter-language performance when the learner's attention is focused upon a new and difficult intellectual subject matter, or when the speaker is in a state of anxiety or other excitement, and strangely enough, some times, when he is in a state of extreme relaxation. Moreover, the reappearance of such behavior is not restricted to fossilized erroneous pronunciation which is quite common among Arab learners including Aramco learners for example. It also extends to other forms of the learnt language like, for example, the use of the adjective form after the word it modifies, which is an effect of the native language system.

Fossilization according to Selinker can be attributed to the effect of five factors:

The first factor is the effect of the linguistic system of the native-language, or the mother-tongue on the utterances that a learner produces in the target language, such as the regular appearance of 'that' in inter-language performance for sentential complements in 'Indian English' (Selinker 1972).

The second factor is the effect of wrong teaching or training which results in some identifiable errors in the learner's utterances. Such erroneous forms, I have noticed, usually happen when a NNS teaches wrong pronunciation of certain words in English to his students because he himself has not mastered pronunciation of the target language. Such erroneous pronunciation forms become part of the students' inter-language and keep re-appearing in the students' utterances no matter how fluent in English these students would be.

A third factor that results in fossilization of errors is the effect of the strategies that students adopt in their learning a foreign language. To give an example from my teaching experience, if the learner has adopted the strategy that all present form verbs take the third person singular 's' with the pronouns 'he', 'she' and 'it', then he may use this strategy with the verb 'to have' for instance to become 'He haves', 'she haves' and 'It haves'.

A fourth factor that results in fossilization deals with the strategies that learners use to communicate with the language. Selinker points out that many second language learners usually assume that they have learnt enough of the target language and at a certain point of learning the language, they stop learning assuming that they have learnt enough in order to

communicate. Yet, what happens later is that they find themselves in need of learning more vocabulary items, for instance. So, they try to learn these items in isolation from their communicative context, and this eventually leads them to invent their own syntactic context to use those words which may not be the appropriate context for such items.

The final factor that results in fossilization according to Selinker is overgeneralization of the rules of the target language. For example, learners may extend the use of the (-ed) past form morpheme of the regular verb in English to apply it to the irregular form of the English verb, and hence (drived), for instance, would be the past tense of 'drive', and (teached) the past tense of 'teach' and so on.

This discussion should also lead us to what Corder (1971) pointed out about the importance of understanding idiosyncrasy as a basic step in understanding students' fossilized errors, and consequently dealing with them. Corder points out that the learner carries over the habits of the mother-language into the second language in what he calls 'interference'(p.158), and the implication of this term is that the habits of this mother-tongue prevent the learner in some way from acquiring the habits of the second language. This can be described as a habit formation phenomena in learning a second language as evidence that the



correct automatic habits of the target language had not yet been acquired. That, Corder says, should make us show a particular interest in the idiosyncrasies of the learners of the second language because, as he suggests, every sentence is to be regarded as idiosyncratic until shown to be otherwise. What is interesting here is that Corder thinks that idiosyncrasies which are a form of fossilization can be eradicated through intensive drilling in the correct forms. Such a view has proved not to be workable in several studies as will be discussed later in this chapter.

To take Corder's view further, Corder points out that a learner's sentence may be superficially 'well-formed' and yet be idiosyncratic. This type of sentence he calls covertly idiosyncratic. A sentence may also be overtly idiosyncratic in that it is superficially 'ill-formed' in terms of the target language, or they (the sentences) may, of course, be neither.

If the normal interpretation is acceptable in context, then the sentence is not for immediate purposes idiosyncratic. If a learner, for example, asks this question: "Do you see the film last night?", the utterance here is ill-formed on the surface-level but acceptable and can be interpreted normally within its social context, while if a learner is asked this question: "Who are you?", and he responds by saying: 'Fine. Thank you', Then his response

is well-formed on the surface level for being a correct and appropriate response if it were used as a response to 'How are you?' as a question, but this utterance although superficially well-formed in terms of rules of the target language, it cannot be interpreted normally within its context. We then have what Corder calls a 'reconstructed sentence' (Ibid p.155) to compare with the original. A reconstructed sentence, Corder points out, is roughly speaking what a native speaker of the target language would have said to express that meaning in that sentence.

What can be understood from Corder's explanation here is that it is the social communicative context that decides whether a sentence or an utterance is either well-formed, or ill-formed.

This again will require further investigation to reach some kind of agreement on what it is exactly that a native speaker would say in that given social situation.

My assessment is that as there is no one way of saying something, there are several ways through which a native speaker may express a meaning in a social situation. So, as there is no standard utterance to express a meaning, a sentence, or an utterance cannot be judged by being well-formed or 'ill-formed' if we isolate the utterance from its social context. For example, 'me no pizza', may be judged ill-formed if produced by a learner in a second language classroom, yet, it is definitely an

acceptable utterance if produced by a native-speaker in his social setting. Therefore, I think an utterance, in order to be judged by being ill-formed or well-formed is not to be judged by who said it but rather by in what social or communicative context it was said.

Yet, the question is if fossilized errors can be or should be treated, In fact, some educators claim that fossilized errors cannot be corrected. They base their claim on the evidence that correction does not work with errors that fossilize with children acquiring their mother-tongue, nor with those errors that develop in social acquisition of the target language (James 1998). On the other hand, there are those who advocate immediate error correction to avoid fossilization. They claim that immediate correction produces better results. Carroll, et al. (1992), for example, claim that when they taught French nominal endings to two groups, one experimental and the other control, they found that the group that had received correction, which was the experimental group did considerably better and that students in this group learnt the correct forms and abandoned the wrong fossilized forms.

Another view argued error correction from the perspective of motivation to learning. Some educators argue that error correction affects motivation negatively and disrupts the flow of



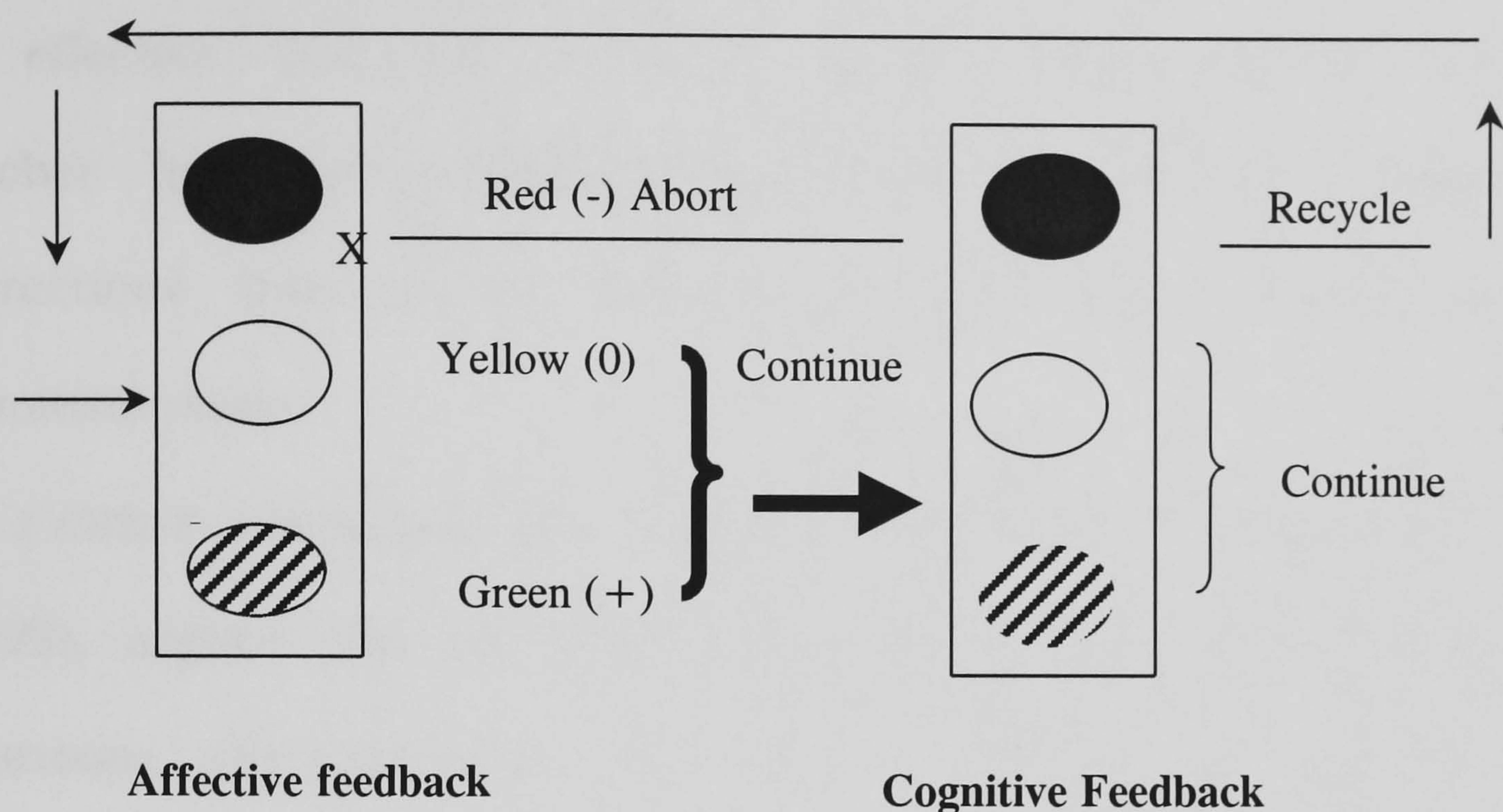
communication in class (e.g. Holley and King 1974, Krashen 1982, Vigil and Oller 1976). Holley and King pointed out that teachers should avoid using correction strategies that might embarrass students, frustrate them and prevent them from communicating. This view is also reflected in Krashen's (1982) Affective Filter Hypothesis, where he suggests that error correction can raise the students' level of anxiety and that this could impede their learning the language.

Vigil and Oller (1976) argue that error correction frustrates students. They suggest that the teacher should be careful to keep the flow of communication going in class and that he should correct only when communication is blocked or when the error alters the meaning in the learner's message. This view was reflected in Corder (1967) when he pointed out that one of the most important tasks of the teacher is to decide when correction is necessary, and to do it in a way that helps the students to acquire the language in its correct form within an appropriate communicative context.

Vigil and Oller present what they call an 'affective and cognitive feedback model' (ibid). This model, shown in Figure 3.1, they claim, allows for effective communication without sacrificing correction. This model is distinguished by using the three colors of a traffic light to represent the three feedback modes that



would allow messages of communication between the teacher and his students to get across.



**-Figure 3.1- Vigil and Oller's Affective and Cognitive Feedback Model**

The green light of the Affective Feedback Model allows the sender of a message (the teacher, the student, or students) to continue attempting to get a message across, a red light causes the sender to stop such attempts. This is when correction takes place. The red light symbolizes corrective feedback. This corrective feedback could be carried out by the teacher or by the sender or by one of his peers where the sender has to make some alteration to his message to put it right. The yellow light could represent those messages that fall between the red and green lights causing the sender to introduce minor alterations or



to adjust his utterance that did not block communication to go through. Vigil and Oller point out that it is important that what they call cognitive feedback by the teacher in the case of an error be effective and that too much negative feedback from the teacher (too many red lights) like frequent interruptions or over-corrections may cause students to shut off attempts of communication.

Other educators like, Cathcart and Olsen (1976) and Leki (1992), argued that all form errors should be corrected. (e.g. grammar, pronunciation, and word choice) in the student's spoken language by the teacher. This view was based mainly on students' opinions of the types of errors they would like their teachers to correct, while, on the other hand, some other educators like Long (1977), Corder (1981), Chaudron (1985) and James (1998) argued that errors should be recognized and tolerated as part of the teaching- learning process.

These educators maintain that tolerance of errors is an accepted practice in classrooms today. Yet, not all errors should go without correction and that acceptance of errors depends on their gravity or the degree of deviance of the utterance produced by the student from the standard form.

However, my view is that focus on meaning in communicative teaching should not mislead us by ignoring or



neglecting the basics of the structural systems of the language. As Littlewood (1981) pointed out, a communicative approach to the content of a course need not involve abandoning the use of the structural criteria because the structural system is still the basic requirement for using language to communicate one's meaning. Another thing is that one would agree with Powell and Hanzeli (1975) that as long as intelligibility of a message in the speaker's utterance is understood and as long as the basics of the structural system of the language are not tampered with, errors may be ignored to encourage communication. As Allwright and Bailey (1991) noted, not all errors should be accepted willy-nilly in the interest of communication, nor must teachers necessarily abandon their standards of minimum acceptable performance.

Within this understanding of errors, the feedback model suggested by Vigil and Oller would help to maintain a balanced strategy in treating errors, where accuracy is not sacrificed for the sake of fluency, nor fluency is sacrificed for the sake of accuracy.

Moreover, delaying correction may send the wrong message to the learner and he may assume that his utterance was correct. Therefore, delaying correction may on one side help encourage the students to communicate, but it still has a

potential danger in the sense that it sends the wrong message to the learner who made the error and was not corrected.

Yet, my assumption is that correction is a decision that is made and executed by the teacher. He is the one who knows best when to correct the error and when to let it pass.

Finally, an issue that can also be related to error treatment which is using students' mother-tongue in error treatment is gaining emphasis. Atkinson (1987) argues that L1 can be used in class for what he called limited purposes. He argued that L1 could be used to explain difficult grammar items or concepts, or one can add, to discuss an error and how it can be treated. Since error treatment is an indispensable part of teaching. Danchev (1982) suggests that L1 can be used with beginners when teaching them a foreign language to reduce their anxiety. Lado (1957) suggested comparing and contrasting L1 and L2 to help students learn the target language better by describing the patterns that will cause difficulty and those that will not. Of course, this kind of comparison will include treating errors in syntax, pronunciation, grammar and other aspects of the target language.

### **3.6 STRATEGIES TEACHRS USE TO CORRECT ERRORS**

The literature suggests that teachers use various strategies to help students correct their errors.

In this section, I explore these strategies because exploring such strategies will contribute further to the discussion of error treatment. Moreover, it will help provide data that should help in designing an important part of the statements of the questionnaires.

Furthermore, exploring these strategies will help provide some background knowledge about teacher's behavior in classroom that should help in discussing Aramco teachers' behavior as will be concluded from the observations.

One of the strategies that the literature suggests is that teachers treat student's errors mainly when errors pertain to the pedagogical focus of the lesson or when errors significantly inhibit communication. For example, Chaudron (1987) noticed that when instructional focus was on form, correction of form occurred more frequently. He observed that when three grade seven and eight French immersion teachers were observed and their corrections in Maths, Science, Geography and French classes were counted, the three teachers demonstrated a priority for correcting errors of subject- matter content in all classes



(from 75% to 100% of such errors were corrected) while French grammar errors were corrected most in French classes (77% on average), but not in the other subjects. A few months later, it was recorded that the rate of correction of grammatical errors in French classes was lower (66%) compared to early in the year (95%), indicating a gradual acceptance of deviant forms in the students' production.

Another strategy that was noted was that teachers do not provide feedback on all errors.

Long (1977) reported that teachers were found not to provide feedback on all errors that are committed in class and pointed out that they did that for a variety of reasons. One of those reasons is that the teacher may decide to ignore the error because it is not important, or not directly pertinent to the focus of the lesson. Teachers, for example, may ignore pronunciation errors in grammar lessons, or grammatical errors in communicative activities that focus on improving students' speaking skills.

A second reason for ignoring errors that Long adds is that the teacher may decide to postpone or delay the treatment of the error to motivate students to participate in the lesson or until students are more familiar with the content of the lesson. A final

reason could be simply because the teacher did not notice the error.

In the process of correcting the error however, teachers were observed to use different responses.

Long reported that error treatment by the teacher was found to involve three responses: a) immediate response to error involving interruption and correction; b) treatment of error after the completion of the error or; c) treating the error at some future time.

Furthermore, James (1998) explains three corrective moves involved in treating an error which I find useful to show how teachers provide feedback moves in class to help students correct themselves, as follows:

i) The first move is informing the person who made the error that there is an error in his utterance or understanding. This move can simply be carried out by disrupting the speaker and saying 'no' for example, or by raising an eyebrow at the speaker to let him realise that there is an error and discover it and correct it by himself. James calls this move 'feedback' (James 1998:236).

ii) The second move is providing treatment or information that leads to the revision or correction of the error without aiming to prevent it from recurring later. In addition to pointing out that

the present attempt is wrong the teacher can specify how and where and suggest alternatives by giving a hint. To give an example from my teaching experience to explain this move, if a student for instance, said 'I am live in a city', the teacher here may offer alternatives for the student to choose from. He may offer this alternative 'Do we say I am live... or I live...?'. This move, James calls the 'correction proper', indicating that it involves some corrective movement from the teacher to help the student correct himself. (*Ibid*).

iii) The third movement that James introduces is providing the student who made the error with information that allows him to revise or reject the wrong rule he was operating with when he produced the error. The result of this move is that the student who made the error is induced to revise his mental representation of the rule so that his error does not recur.

To give an example from my teaching experience to explain this move, if a student said 'While I was drive, I saw a traffic accident'. The teacher here may interfere by reminding the student who made that grammatical error of some information on the 'progressive' form and the necessity to add 'ing' to the base form of the verb 'drive' in this sentence. This could make the student revise the wrong form he was operating with and try



to replace it with some correct form by adding '-ing' to the verb 'drive'. This movement, James calls the 'remediation'. (Ibid).

Studies also recorded that teachers were found to use a set of feedback acts and moves in treating students' errors (Allwright, 1975b, Fanselow, 1977, Chaudron 1988). They were found to use pedagogical or conversational acts to correct errors. For example, they were found to use confirmation checks, clarification checks, clarification requests, repetition, modeling, explanation and many other moves to indicate feedback options for the student to correct himself (Chaudron, 1988). Allright recorded the following nine feedback moves that teachers use in classroom interaction to treat an error:

1. Fact of error indicated
  2. Blame indicated
  3. Location indicated
  4. Model provided
  5. Error type indicated
  6. Remedy indicated
  7. Improvement indicated
  8. Praise indicated
  9. Opportunity for new attempt given (Allwright 1975: 104)
- These nine acts can be categorized into three corrective measures:

1) Acts 1,3 and 5 provide cognitive feedback regarding the fact that there is an error, the location of the error and the nature of error, while 2) acts 2, 7,8 and 9 provide motivational feedback to the person who made the error either by blaming him to make him take action towards the error, or by indicating the area(s) of improvement in his responses or simply by praising him because he could locate the error and correct it. 3) In acts 4 and 7, interference that involves linguistic explanation of the error takes place. This interference usually involves some feedback correction from the teacher as when the teacher provides a model for the student to follow to correct his error or when the teacher gets involved in some explanation of the error either by direct explanation or elicitation.

Feedback as an error correction strategy has been widely discussed in the literature. It is known that the primary role of language teachers is often considered to be the provision of both error correction or acceptance of learners' production. Providing feedback for the sake of error correction or treatment is an important constituent of classroom interaction, for no matter what the teacher does, learners derive information about their behavior from the teacher's reaction, or lack of reaction, to this behavior.

The audio-lingual approach to language teaching for example, took this view with positive feedback usually being considered either positive praise; .e.g. 'Very good'- or repetition of the student's positive response. For negative feedback, however, the traditional approach relied on grammar translations and modeling of the correct response, usually assuming the ability of learners to recognize the difference between the model and their errors while in the cognitive approach, however, this type of positive feedback is inadequate and hence the function of feedback according to this view is not only to provide feedback but also to provide information which learners can use actively in modifying their behavior (Zamel 1981), and that this information should become part of the learner's inter-language development. Vigil and Oller (1976), however, pointed out that the effect of feedback consists not only of the positive or negative information about target language forms, but of the further continuum of positive, neutral or negative affective support present in conversation which can interact with cognitive information factors and influence learners' efforts to attempt revision of their production.

Finally, advocates of natural learning spoke of feedback from a different perspective. Krashen (1981) for example, has



argued that learners must be effectively positive in order for what he called 'natural' learning to function. Acceptance of learners' errors in the process of communicative learning and teaching has led to the view that teachers must either interrupt communication for the sake of formal correctness or linguistic accuracy, or let errors pass untreated by ignoring them, in order to enhance communication in classroom interaction. Chaudron, (1977) on the other hand, illustrated feedback acts as error correction strategies in his model: "A descriptive model of discourse in the corrective treatment of learners' errors"(p.p.146-148). In this model, he illustrated the features and types of corrective reactions carried out by teachers. He introduced feedback corrective reactions that teachers use to help students correct themselves, Like: interruption, providing clues, prompts, repetition, explanation, expansion and verification.

Some of these corrective feedback reactions were found to be useful to the interpretation of the classroom discourse part of the study. I here present Chaudron's descriptions of these reactions. Examples of these reactions from Aramco ESL classes will be presented and discussed later in Chapter VI.

**Interruption:**

'Interruption' according to Chaudron is when the teacher interrupts the student's utterance following the error or before the student has completed his utterance.

**Providing:**

Providing is described in Chaudron's as when the teacher provides the correct answer when the student is unable to provide an appropriate response or when no response is offered.

**Prompts:**

Prompts are described in Chaudron's as when the teacher uses lead-in cues to get the student to repeat the utterance, possibly at point of error, possibly with a slight rising intonation.

**Expansion:**

Expansions as illustrated in Chaudron's model were found to be used by both NSs and NNSs.

Chaudron describes expansions as adding more linguistic material to the student's utterance possibly to make it more complete.

**Verification:**

Chaudron describes verification as when the teacher attempts to ensure that student corrected understood the correction provided by presenting another elicitation of an appropriate response to help student get message through.

**Repetition:**

Repetition in Chaudron's model is shown in different types: one of these types which is quite common in ESL classrooms is when the teacher repeats the student's utterance without change.

**Ignoring:**

Chaudron describes ignoring as a reaction taken by the teacher towards the erroneous utterance which can be explained as no-reaction and letting the error pass either because the error was minor or because the teacher did not want to interrupt the flow of communication with the student.

**3.7 Conclusion**

To sum up, this chapter discussed several issues related to error treatment in classroom. The purpose of this discussion was to critically evaluate the literature on how teachers correct



students' errors and whether they correct these errors within a communicative teaching context.

To achieve this purpose, the chapter looked at errors in terms of their significance and their nature. In order to see how educators look at errors, and specifically how advocates of communicative teaching look at errors, the chapter discussed how educators classified errors and how these errors are treated. It also presented a brief discussion of the strategies that teachers use in classroom to correct or treat students' errors. The purpose of this was to identify several distinctive issues about error treatment derived from the literature review for this study. This knowledge will enable us to compare and contrast Aramco ESL teachers' treatment of the students' errors to how advocates of communicative teaching look at error treatment in the classroom. This comparison will eventually help to achieve two objectives that are central to the hypothesis of the study:

First, it will help to see whether or not Aramco ESL teachers treat students' errors within the communicative context of error treatment that has been discussed in this chapter; and second, the findings in this comparison will help us to see whether either of the two groups of Aramco ESL teachers, ie, the NSs or the NNSs, treats students' errors within the

Communicative Language Teaching Context. That is, we will eventually be able to see whether either of the two groups, if any, emphasizes linguistic accuracy or communicative fluency in their treatment of the students' errors.

The next chapter will look at the research design and methodology that were used in collecting data for this study.

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **Research Design and Methodology**

#### **Introduction:**

This study employs three instruments for collecting data. These are: a teachers' attitude questionnaire, classroom observation and a students' preferences questionnaire.

The teachers' attitude questionnaire is used to explore teachers' opinions and beliefs about error treatment. This instrument is then followed by class observations to see if what teachers do in class toward error treatment reflects what they believe. Data collected through these two instruments will enable the researcher to see which of the two groups of teachers holds beliefs that can be explained within a communicative context and which holds beliefs that can be explained within a linguistic accuracy context. To add dimension to the study, students' opinions about errors treatment are also explored to see how they prefer their errors to be treated. In the following pages I present an account of why these three instruments were used. Then I discuss how these instruments were designed and carried out.



## **First, Exploring Teachers' Beliefs and Behavior in Classroom**

### Methodological Considerations:

In order to understand how teachers deal with dimensions of teaching, it is necessary to examine the beliefs and thinking processes which underlie teachers' classroom interaction. This view of teaching involves both attitudinal and behavioral dimensions. Richards and Lockhart (1994) point out that this view is based on the assumption that what teachers do in class is a reflection of what they know and believe, and teacher-knowledge and teacher-thinking provide the underlying framework or schemata which guides the teacher's classroom actions.

Therefore, it is the teacher's subjective school-related knowledge which determines for the most part what happens in the classroom; whether the teacher can articulate his knowledge or not.

Richards and Lockhart (1994) add that 'teachers' beliefs are founded on the goals, values and beliefs teachers hold in relation to the content and process of teaching and their understanding of the systems in which they work and their roles within it. These beliefs and values serve as the background to

much of the teacher's decision making and hence constitute what has been termed as 'culture of teaching' (p.30).

Research on teachers' belief systems suggests that these beliefs are derived from a number of different sources. Teachers' experience is the primary source of beliefs about teaching. A teacher may have found that some teaching strategies work well and some do not. Also, within a school or an institution certain teaching styles or practices may be preferred. To be more specific, some teachers, for instance may have a personal preference for a particular teaching strategy, pattern or arrangement or activity because it matches their personality or their teaching experience. Some teachers also may prefer to apply educationally-based or research-based principles in their teaching. Furthermore, teachers may prefer to draw on their understanding of a learning principle in second language acquisition or communicative learning principles, for example, to apply that in classroom. Brindly (1984) draws attention to the fact that teachers, bring experience to the classroom that influences their perceptions in different ways: Teachers' beliefs about learning, for example, may be based on their training teaching experience.

These beliefs represent answers to questions about what kind of teaching and learning styles strategies they use to encourage students to learn. Like Richards and Lockhart (1994), Brindly (1984) believes that individual teachers bring to teaching different and varied beliefs and assumptions about what constitutes effective teaching. Furthermore, teachers hold different beliefs about teaching based on their perception of the different theories of language teaching and, therefore, their classroom practices are closely linked to their views about teaching. Johnson (1992) notes that teachers teach in accordance with their theoretical beliefs and that difference in theoretical beliefs may result in differences in the nature of their teaching.

### **Exploring Teachers' Beliefs about the Program:**

Part of the statements of the teachers' attitude questionnaire was written to explore teachers' opinion about Aramco ESL program. In fact, teachers have their beliefs about the program and the curriculum they teach. Any language teaching program reflects both the culture of the institution as well as the collective opinions and beliefs of the individual teachers about that program. Some institutions may have a distinct philosophy in teaching (Such as Aramco Training Department where this



study was conducted). Teachers themselves have specific beliefs about the program they work in. They also have specific problem with the program they work in and they may raise concerns about these problems once they are given the opportunity to do so (as will be seen later in this study).

## **Second: Exploring Students' Beliefs:**

### Methodological Considerations:

Many models of second language learning attribute a central role to students' beliefs. Bialystock (1978), Naiman et al (1978) and many others draw attention to this role. Tumposky (1992) points out that students' beliefs are influenced by the social context of learning, and can influence both their attitude toward the language itself as well as toward language learning in general. He adds that students' belief systems cover a wide range of issues and can influence students' motivation to learn their expectation about what is easy or difficult about a language, as well as the kind of learning strategies they prefer.

In fact, just as teachers' beliefs systems influence how they go about teaching, so students' beliefs systems influence how students conceptualize learning and the way they interpret learning within the classroom context. Bondy (1990) reported

that teachers supported their students' views on reading, for instance, by the way they interacted with students during teaching. For example, she found that teachers changed their strategies in teaching reading to beginners by providing them with more vocabulary as they suggested, and that with the more advanced groups, teachers responded to the students' preferences by focusing more on meaning and information-sharing.

### **Third, Using Class Observation to Investigate Teacher's Behavior:**

#### Methodological Considerations.

Class observation is suggested as a way of gathering information about teaching. Borg (1987) points out that educational researchers have increasingly turned to direct observation in the classroom as a method of collecting data. Long (1977), Naiman et al (1978), Fanselow (1987), Chaudron (1988), Allwright et.al (1991), Spada and Frohlich (1995), and many others conducted observations for different purposes. Many of these researchers like: Long, Fanselow, and Chaudron for example, developed observation systems for observing, coding and recording classroom behavior.

This study employs observation as an instrument for collecting data about teachers' behavior toward errors. It employs an adapted form of the COLT as pointed out earlier. The observation is intended to collect data about how teachers treat three types of errors; specifically: grammar, pronunciation and word-choice errors. The study also employs lesson-audio-recording for further data collection. Audio-recording has the advantage of allowing choice of focus in the analysis. An additional advantage of audio-recording is that the recording can be played and examined many times, and many details of the lesson that cannot be observed by other means (like mere coding of events on a log-sheet for instance), such as the actual language used by the teacher or the students during a lesson.

Schratz (1992:89) comments that 'audio-visual recordings are powerful instruments in the development of a teaching competence, and that they give an objective view of what goes on in class. Moreover, class recordings which are kept for later use can give a valuable insight of the teacher's teaching'.

Furthermore, this study employs lesson transcriptions which are processed from the lesson audio-recordings. These transcriptions help to look more carefully into the class talk to see how teachers actually treat errors, and what strategies they



use to treat those errors. Brown and Yule (1983) Point out that the discourse analyst works with a tape-recording of an event from which he makes a written transcription, annotated according to his interests on a particular occasion.

In the following pages, I discuss how I set out to design and use these instruments:

#### **4.1 The Teachers' Attitude Questionnaire (TAQ)**

##### **4.1.1 Designing the Teachers' Attitude Questionnaire:**

The content of the statements of this questionnaire was based on the views and opinions about error treatment within Communicative Language Teaching that were collected from the literature review. Issues that were widely discussed in the literature were selected to be the basis for designing the statements in this survey. When designing the statements of this questionnaire, the wording of the statements was selected carefully to avoid bias and ambiguity. Selltiz's et al (1976) guide for the construction of a questionnaire provided a good guideline that helped to design statements that are free of bias of content. In addition, in planning the stages for the development and use of the questionnaire, Davidson's (1970) flowchart was adapted and used beginning with deciding what information to be

investigated and ending with the tabulation and analysis of the data collected for the study.

The TAQ was designed to contain four parts: the covering letter, the profile page, the actual statements of the questionnaire and the open-ended page. The covering letter was written by the researcher and addressed to the respondent – teachers. In this letter, teachers were addressed as “colleagues”. The content of the letter was brief and presented in an appealing manner (Cohen and Manion 1996). To encourage respondents to give as accurate responses as possible to the statements, the letter assured complete confidentiality of the information the teachers would provide to the survey. Moreover, they were assured that their feedback would only be used for research purposes. The profile page was intended for the respondents to fill out with information about their point-of-origin, education and experience in ESL teaching. This information was collected in case that was necessary to provide further data that might be needed in the study.

The third part was the actual statements of the survey. The first version of the questionnaire included 58 statements (Appendix A). These statements centered around 12 issues that were widely discussed in the literature review about error

treatment and communicative language teaching. In addition, the TAQ included statements that investigated teachers' opinions of the Aramco ESL program. Statements about the Aramco ESL program were based on comments and concerns made by Aramco ESL teachers about the program. These concerns have been raised in in-house training sessions, observation discussions and panel-discussions or meetings (that used to be held) to discuss areas of concern, like teaching methodologies and curriculum design. Moreover, the TAQ included statements that investigated Aramco teachers' opinions about CLT principles and classroom activities.

The twelve issues below synthesized from the literature review were used in designing the statements that investigated the error treatment part:

- 1-It is better to encourage learners to develop fluency before accuracy.
- 2- A lot of language learning will develop naturally out of the language use without focusing on error.
- 3-Errors should be tolerated in order to encourage learners to take risks to communicate.



4-Excessive error correction can have a negative effect on motivation.

5-Error correction makes the learner focus on form rather than meaning which inhibits communication.

6-A learner should be given enough wait-time to help him correct himself.

7-The teacher should correct form errors in all activities of language.

8-Grammatical errors should be corrected only in grammar lessons.

9-Error correction should be limited to errors that block communication.

10-Allowing too much freedom for errors to go without correction will lead to fossilization of errors with learners.

11-Using Limited Arabic in teaching can be helpful.

12- The teacher is only a facilitator in class.

Five areas relating to Aramco ESL program were also investigated: These areas are:

13.focusing on linguistic accuracy.

14. focusing on communicative fluency.

15. Aramco observers and evaluators' emphasis on linguistic accuracy.

16.Lack of focus on oral skills.

17. focusing on accuracy in communicative activities.

The fourth and last part of the TAQ was the open-ended question. A whole page at the end of the questionnaire was left blank for the respondents to express their views freely. The purpose of this was to give the teachers more space to express their views and beliefs that the statements may not address.

In order to encourage teachers to give reliable input into the study, it was decided that their identity be kept anonymous at all stages of the questionnaire.

To determine the respondents' choices, it was found that the Likert attitude scale consisting of: Strongly Agree, Agree, Don't know, Disagree and Strongly Disagree, is suitable for this survey. This is because this scale is distinguished by its relative ease of construction and its simple use of statistical

assumptions. Moser and Kalton (1977) recommend this scale because it combines the answers given by the respondent to the various questions into a measurement of the extremity and intensity of his overall attitude, and this is, in my opinion, where such a measurement scale can be needed.

#### **4.1.2 Piloting the Teachers' Attitude Questionnaire:**

The first version of the TAQ was piloted locally at Al-Hasa ITC where the researcher was operating, to determine its reliability. The survey was distributed to 13 teachers; both NSS and NNSs. They were asked to complete the questionnaire, and their responses were analyzed to determine items of bias, ambiguity or vagueness. Participants were then encouraged to take part in a debate about the content and objectives of the survey prior to its final design. They provided some good suggestions that were incorporated into the content of the survey. For example, they suggested that the questionnaire include items about oral communication in addition to the emphasis on linguistic accuracy in some parts of Aramco ESL program.



#### **4.1.3 Subjects of the TAQ.**

This questionnaire involved all Aramco 88 ESL teachers who were operating at Aramco ITCS at the time of the study. 42 NSs and 46 NNSs participated in this survey. These teachers are highly educated and highly experienced in ESL teaching, which gives their views about ESL teaching great credibility. (Table 4 in Appendix E shows these teachers' qualifications and years of experience in ESL teaching). They teach English to Aramco ESL students at five major Aramco ESL institutes known as Industrial Training Centers (ITCS). These are: Dhahran CPC, Hasa ITC, Abqaiq ITC, Riyadh ITC and Udhailiyah ITC. These ITCs were selected because of their accessibility to the researcher.

#### **4.1.4 Administering the Teachers' Attitude Questionnaire:**

Upon receiving the approval letter (Appendix B) from the superintendent of the Southern Area Academic Training Division (SAATD) to conduct the survey, packages of questionnaires were sent to participant teachers in their locations.

The superintendent in his letter explained the content and purpose of the survey. He urged other area superintendents to extend all possible effort to ensure that all questionnaires were

completed by the teachers concerned and returned on time. Principals and senior teachers in those locations were also urged to cooperate in making sure that questionnaires were all completed and returned in time. All 88 questionnaires were completed and returned in time.

#### **4.1.5 Processing the TAQ Data:**

The percentage of the TAQ returns was 100%. Due to Aramco's strict instructions and the cooperation that the participating teachers showed in completing this survey, the completed questionnaires were received on time. Then, they were shuffled and given serial numbers from 1-88 for reference. They were checked for completeness, accuracy and uniformity: a check was made to make sure that there was an answer to every question, and that all components of the questionnaire were completed. One questionnaire copy was found to be incomplete. Therefore, it was decided to delete this copy from the study. This left 87 questionnaires for analysis. (At this stage, I realized that processing statements that investigated CLT principles and classroom activities, for analysis; like statements that investigate using groups, or drama in class for instance, would take the study away from its focus. Therefore, I decided to exclude these statements from the analysis and keep error treatment as my focus). To determine the content validity of the statements, 10

NSs and 10 NNSs from the accessible population that participated in the questionnaire were asked to select which of the 58 statements best represent the 17 variables investigated. This was done by giving each participant a copy of the questionnaire (Appendix A) and a list of the 17 variables investigated. Statements that received responses by 70% or more were then tallied and calculated, and their numbers and percentages were presented in two separate tables: one for the 41 NSs (Appendix C, and another for the 46 NNSs (Appendix D).

To determine the reliability of this choice, the internal consistency co-efficient was used according to Krombach Alpha.

The computations showed that the reliability co-efficient was 0.98, which indicates a very high reliability. Data from the profile page about the teachers' educational background was worked out and tabulated (Appendix E). Finally, responses to the open-ended question were scanned for information that may help in discussing the content of the survey. At this stage, data collected from the TAQ was ready for subsequent analysis and discussion of its findings.

#### **4.2 The Classroom Observation;**

The reason why it was decided to observe Aramco ESL teachers in class was because although questionnaires provide



some understanding of how these teachers think of errors and their treatment, they do not provide the researcher with information about how teachers deal with errors in practice.

Teachers may have beliefs and opinions that they may or may not be able to use in class for a variety of reasons: As was discussed earlier in this chapter, ESL programs, like Aramco ESL program for example, have an organizational culture that involves policies and procedures that may discourage or prevent teachers from putting their beliefs about a certain educational topic into practice. Therefore, it was decided that Aramco teachers' behavior should be observed and analyzed. The data collected from this procedure will help the researcher formulate a better idea about how errors are treated in addition to providing knowledge about what errors are treated and what strategies are used to treat those errors in class. Moreover, the findings from this procedure will show what issues of error treatment and communicative teaching are addressed in Aramco ESL classrooms, which will help to foster the answer to the first question of the study.

#### **4.2.1 Designing The Classroom Observation Scheme:**

it was decided to design a classroom observation scheme to be used to observe the teachers' behavior toward errors; specifically three types of errors (ie. Grammar, pronunciation and word-choice) in addition to three types of error treatment (i.e. immediate correction, providing feedback and ignoring). These types of errors and treatment strategies were found to have been widely investigated in classroom research within the communicative language teaching context (as will be seen in chapter VI). Investigating these errors and error treatment types or strategies will help provide data about how Aramco teachers treat errors and whether they treat these errors within the communicative context.

The classroom observation scheme was an adaptation of part A of the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT). This scheme was found to provide good framework for observation by providing particular aspects and features of lessons that may be needed for further analysis. However, it was found that this part of the COLT did not include specific features that may describe errors and how the teachers treat them. Therefore, it was found necessary to add three columns to

accommodate the three types of form errors to be investigated and another three columns to accommodate the three types of error treatment that will be investigated. It was also found necessary to design a profile-page to be attached to the scheme to collect data about the participants and the lessons they teach. The classroom observation instrument is shown in Appendix F. (it should be indicated here that, as with the other instruments, the COLT scheme was initially adapted to investigate other aspects of CLT, in addition to error treatment, which I decided to exclude from the study to focus on error treatment).

#### **4.2.2 Piloting the Classroom Observation:**

This scheme was piloted in 3 NSs and 3 NNSs classes. After observing the classes, the content of the scheme was discussed with the teachers who were observed. Some teachers made remarks about the profile-page. Their remarks were incorporated and that resulted in the profile-page as shown in Appendix F.

#### **4.2.3 Subjects Of The Classroom Observations):**

The classroom observation was carried out at 18 classes: 9 NSs and 9 NNSs of the 88 teachers who responded to the Teachers' Attitude Questionnaire (TAQ) were observed. These



teachers were selected because of their availability during work hours and their agreement to be observed.

#### **4.2.4 Administering the Observations:**

The 18 teachers were observed by the researcher in 18 lessons. Lessons were observed according to a time-schedule prepared in coordination with the principals, the senior teachers and the participating teachers. Appendix G is a sample of these schedules (that also includes specified times for administering the students' questionnaire). All participants were made aware of the purpose of the observation and its procedure ahead of time. Content of the lessons to be taught in addition to their teaching times and dates were all negotiated with the participating teachers before the observations took place. All teachers involved agreed to be observed.

One of the limitations at this stage is the lack of a co-observer for second-rating. Having a co-observer could have helped in reaching better accuracy of the findings of the classroom observations in observing and tracing the frequencies of the grammar, pronunciation, and word-choice errors, and their three treatment types investigated, and then independently recording these occurrences on an observation form that he

would have had with him. This second-rating could have helped in obtaining more reliable data during this stage. It could have been determined by computing the correlational co-efficient between the scores of the two observers, (i.e. the researcher and the co-observer), or by determining the percentage or number of occurrences of the errors and their treatment. In this case the percentage of agreement as Borg (1987) pointed out is usually over 85%, or the correlation co-efficient is above 75.

### **Procedure of Observing:**

Ideally, presence of the observer should not be known to the subjects, but in practice this is almost impossible. To reduce the effect of tension on the teacher and the students, the observer did not record any part of the lesson the first 3-5 minutes. Of course, it would have been better if the observer made several visits to the classrooms before students become used to his presence and behave as if he were not present, but apart from the observations that were piloted, that was extremely difficult due to time constraints.

Lessons were observed in a non-participant manner. The observer did not comment or participate in any way in the

ongoing activities, nor did he make any non-verbal responses to the situation, such as shaking a head or smiling, for instance.

The observer used a mini tape-recorder and a copy of the classroom observation scheme . The recorder was placed on the teacher's desk. The microphone was of high sensitivity and recording was found to be clear and audible with the exception of a few utterances. While the teacher was taking the students' attendance, I used the profile-page to fill out with information about the lesson. As the teaching started I began to trace errors in the students' utterance and record that on the long-sheet which I had with me. I exercised my own judgement as an experienced teacher, senior teacher and teacher-trainer to decide when an error in the student's utterance was made and recorded a check-mark in the column under the type of error made. For example, if an error that was in my judgement a pronunciation error I placed a check-mark in the pronunciation column and so on. I followed the same pattern in recording the teacher's type of treatment of the error that was made by the student. For example, if the teacher corrected the error immediately as it occurred without elicitation of the appropriate form from the student. I recorded a check-make under 'immediate correction'. If the teacher ignored the error, or did not correct the error, I



placed a check-mark under Ignored', and so on. After each observation, data collected on the scheme was scrutinized and lesson audio – recordings were examined for clarity.

### **Processing the Classroom Observation Data:**

#### **Transcribing the Lessons:**

Six of the 18 lessons that were observed were transcribed (Appendix H is a sample of a transcribed lesson). The transcription conventions and symbols that were used in this transcription are adapted from Alexander (2000). These conventions are margin conventions and text conventions as illustrated in Table 4.1. While Table 4.2 shows a list of the lessons and their objectives, as found in the objectives sections of the textbooks that included these lessons. The first three lessons (1-3) were taught by NSs while the other three (4-6) were taught by NNSs:

**Table 4.1**

**Margin and Text Conventions Used  
in Transcription of Lessons**

Text convention	Description
Capital letters	Utterance or part to utterance given particular emphasis by teacher (e.g. YES, - S).
...	String of dots to indicate interrupted or unfinished utterance, or explicit cueing for next turn.
....?	String of dots and a question mark indicate teacher providing prompt for student to elicit a response.
[     ]	Square brackets for phonetic transcription (where necessary)
(     )	Single brackets to indicate teacher's and students' paralinguistic behavior.
(inaudible)	Utterance not clear

**Table 4.2**

**Lessons Transcribed and  
Their Objectives**

<u>Lesson Transcription Number</u>	<u>Lesson Objective</u>
Transcript (1)	Using nouns as adjectives
Transcript (2)	Learning and using new words
Transcript (3)	Using adjectives followed by infinitives
Transcript (4)	Using count/non-count nouns
Transcript (5)	Asking for permission/advice
Transcript (6)	Learning and using new words

**Counting Frequencies of Form Errors and their  
Treatment Types:**

Data collected on the 18 observation schemes were scanned for check-marks under form errors (ie; grammar, pronunciation and word-choice errors), and chek-marks under the frequencies of three types of error treatment (ie: immediate correction, providing feedback for self-repair, and ignoring errors) were counted.



To recheck the count, the recordings of the 18 lessons were scanned. This was done by listening to the tapes by detecting and counting the frequencies through the use of a transcription machine for this purpose. The foot-pedal mechanism of this machine allowed for making the necessary pauses, forwarding and rewindings whenever that was needed to detect an error or a treatment. The re-count showed that the marks on the schemes needed to be scrutinized. Then the marks were counted and the final figures were tabulated (as shown in Table 4.3) to be ready for subsequent analysis.

**Table 4.3 Error Frequency and Treatment Type**  
**Count in Discourse of 18 Lessons**

Type of Treatment														
Type of error	No. of Errors Treated		Immediate correction				Providing self-repair Feedback				Ignoring Errors			
Investigated	Ns	NNs	Ns		NNs		Ns		NNs		Ns		NNs	
			No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %				
Grammar	61	59	7	11	27	46	40	66	27	46	14	23	5	8
Pronunciation	69	91	21	30	62	68	14	20	27	30	34	49	2	2
Word Choice	14	11	1	9	0	0	11	78	10	82	2	14	1	9

**Interpreting the classroom discourse:**

The next step was to collect qualitative data about how teachers behave toward errors. This was done by a close examination of the discourse of the six transcribed lessons.

Examination of teachers' behavior was carried out in view of several illustrations in Chaudron's Model of Teachers' Corrective Feedback Reaction (as will be shown later in Chapter 6), to see if teachers behavior can be interpreted within a communicative teaching context.

### **4.3 The Students' Preferences Questionnaire (SPQ):**

#### **4.3.1 Designing The Students' Questionnaire:**

Many researchers in second language teaching and learning give a central role to the students' beliefs about how they would like to learn the language they are learning. Bialystok (1978) and Naiman et al. (1978) note that students' beliefs are essential to developing pedagogic strategies, and that they can influence their attitudes towards language learning as well as the teachers' attitude toward his teaching. They can influence students' motivation and the kind of learning and consequently teaching strategies they prefer.

Moreover, language teaching has often been discussed from the point-of-view of the teacher. However, if learning is the goal of teaching, then the learners' opinions and beliefs about how they would like or prefer to learn the language should be investigated. This is because learners, too, bring to learning their own beliefs

and attitudes which in turn can influence how certain classroom activities can be approached by the teacher. Learners have very focused perceptions about how they like their errors to be treated because error treatment is a very important psycho-linguistic reality of language learning as well. My experience suggests that some students think of error correction as a reaction by the teacher that inhibits them from communicating. Other students think of error correction as a favorable teaching-learning technique and even want their teachers to correct every error they make in class. Hence, to add dimension to the study, it was decided to investigate Aramco ESL students' opinions about error treatment to see whether they prefer to be corrected or not and to see in what context they would like their errors corrected: Is it within the communicative fluency context or within the linguistic accuracy context as this will help in finding an answer to the second question of the study.

The Students' Preferences Questionnaire contained 24 statements based on the content of the teachers' questionnaire. This was necessary to maintain uniformity of data explored in both questionnaires. This questionnaire included a brief letter addressed to the students to encourage them to respond freely and enthusiastically to the statements.



A profile-page was also designed and attached to the questions to be filled out with information about the educational background of the respondent students. (Appendix I) shows the students' preferences questionnaire.

#### **4.3.2 Piloting the Students' Preferences Questionnaire :**

The first version of the SPQ was administered to 40 Aramco ESL students at Al- Hasa ITC by the researcher. Students were asked to give comments and suggestions that may improve the clarity of the questions. Based on their feedback, some of the items were modified. For example, in the area of the use of Arabic in classroom, there was only one straight statement in the first version, (e.g. using Arabic in class is helpful in learning English). Students had some suggestions about the quantity of Arabic to be used in class. Therefore, the statement about using Arabic was separated into four statements. Below are the new statements with their serial numbers as they appear in the SPQ:

- 10- Using a lot of Arabic in class is very helpful in learning English.
- 11 - Using little Arabic in class is very helpful in learning English.
- 12- Using Arabic in class only when very necessary is helpful in learning English.
- 13- Arabic should not be used in class at all.

#### **4.3.3 Subjects of the SPQ:**

The target population was 600 ESL students. The accessible was 180 students who participated in this questionnaire. They were Saudi High school and college graduates hired by Aramco as apprentice-students. They were targeted by Aramco Training Department to go through an intensive English proficiency program known in Aramco by the Apprenticeship Program. The purpose of this program is to provide these students with a high standard of language proficiency that should enable them to pass the TOEFL exam in order to qualify for university education. Participants were selected as groups from different ESL levels in five ITCs.

#### **4.3.4 Administering the Students' Preferences Questionnaire:**

This questionnaire was administered to 180 ESL students in five Aramco Training Centers, by bi-lingual teachers selected by the researcher for this purpose. The researcher explained to the senior teachers either by face-to-face discussion or by telephone conversation the full administration procedure of the survey while the researcher administered the questionnaire to participants at two of the five training centers that participated in the study; i.e. Hasa ITC and Udhaihiyah ITC. The completed questionnaires were then mailed back to the researcher.

#### **4. 1. 2 Processing the Students' Preferences Questionnaire**

##### **Data:**

The 180 questionnaires completed by the students were returned to the researcher by mail. As they were scrutinized for completeness of responses, it was discovered that 21 of these questionnaires were incomplete. They had one or more unattempted questions. Therefore, it was decided to exclude them from the study. This left 159 questionnaires for analysis. To determine the content validity of the statements against the variables investigated the same sample of 20 teachers that participated in the teachers' questionnaire was asked to select which of the 24 statements of this questionnaire best represent the 17 variables investigated. Teachers selected 9 of the 24 statements. The reliability of this choice was then determined by following the same procedure that was followed with the teachers' questionnaire (co-efficient was 0.98). To know how students think of using L1 in class, I added statements 10-13 to the table. Then responses were tallied and calculated. The statements and their numbers and percentages were presented in a table; (Appendix J).

This chapter has described how the three research tools were designed, carried out and processed. The next chapter will present an analysis and discussion of the findings of the questionnaires while the classroom observation data will be handled in a separate chapter (Chapter VI) to avoid collating the data of the three instruments in one long chapter.



## **CHAPTER V**

### **Analysis and Discussion of the Results of the Two Questionnaires (TAQ and SPQ).**

#### **Analysis and Discussion**

The foregoing chapter discussed the research design and methodology. This chapter presents an analysis and discussion of the results of the two questionnaires that were used in this study. Results of the observations will be analyzed and discussed in the next chapter (Chapter 6).

In the discussion below, responses of NSs and NNSs to the questionnaire will be analyzed and discussed to find out what similarities or differences teachers have over the 17 statements on error treatment and Aramco ESL program that were investigated: Also, students responses to ten of the issues investigated will be analyzed and discussed: (Table 5.1 shows a summary of the percentages of these responses to the statements of the questionnaires):

**Table 5.1 Summary of all Participants Responses (in %) to the  
17 Issues investigated in the questionnaires**

Statement #	Topic of statement investigated	Responses of NSs (in %) c	Responses of NNSs (in %) c	Responses of Students (in %) c
<b>Statements Investigating Opinions about Error Treatment</b>				
1	Fluency not accuracy	69	80	63
2	Natural acquisition of language	90	78	- (a)
3	Toleration of errors	90	92	-
4	Effect on motivation	98	93	42
5	Effect on communication	81	93	81
6	Self-correction	90	98	68
7	Treating from errors in all activities	27	6	86
8	Treating only grammar errors	14	30	18
9	Treating only errors that block communication	56	72	55
10	Immediate correction	46	74	82
11	Using (L1)	80	59	24,57,61,24,(b)
12	The teacher as a facilitator	49	76	80
<b>Statements Investigating Opinions about Aramco ESL Program</b>				
13	Focus on linguistic accuracy	78	77	-
14	Aramco imposed techniques	80	72	-
15	Emphasis on accuracy by evaluators	71	80	-
16	Lack of focus on oral skills	73	83	-
17	Stressing linguistic accuracy in communicative activities	80	72	-

a): (-) Students' opinions were not investigated on these statements.

b): Students gave 4 responses to 4 statements on this issue, while teachers were investigated on one statement.

c) Figures represent the total of the percentages of responses of those who strongly agreed or agreed with the statement.

5. 1 The first statement that was investigated was “It is better to encourage learners to develop fluency before accuracy”. The results here reveal that the three groups investigated thought of fluency as having priority over accuracy. 69% of the NSs and 80% of the NNSs Strongly agreed or agreed that fluency should come first. Students’ responses to the statements in their questionnaire that corresponds to this statement, which states: ‘Fluency is much more important than accuracy of form,’ reveal although at a lower percentage (63%), that students also give priority to fluency over accuracy. The students’ attitude here is in line with what Naiman et al (1978), for example, reported when they claimed that students they studied emphasized fluency over accuracy.

5.2 The second statement states: “A lot of the language learning will develop naturally out of the language use without focusing on errors”. This statement emerges from Krashen’s (1982) theory of Natural Learning . The figures reveal that a great majority of the NSs (90%) and a majority of the NNSs (78%) strongly agreed or agreed with this statement which indicates that both groups of teachers are in favor of letting students learn the language in a natural way without error correction.



Students' opinions about this statement were not investigated because , as pointed out earlier , teachers were worried that students might not give reliable responses to this statement being more of a teaching rather than a learning strategy which students may not be very well aware of.

5.3 The third statement investigated in this survey was 'Errors should be tolerated in order to encourage learners to take risks to communicate in English'. Both NSs and NNS responded favorably to this statement with 90% of the NSs and 92% of the NNSs, giving positive responses. Students opinions on this statement, as pointed out earlier, were not sought because teachers were worried students might give inaccurate responses to this statement being more of a teaching strategy students may not be well aware of.

5.4 The fourth statement that was investigated was: 'Excessive error correction can have a negative effect on motivation'. The results reveal that the overwhelming majority of both NSs and NNSs strongly agreed or agreed to this statement with 98% of the NSs and 93% of the NNSs giving positive responses to this statement.

Students, in their responses to the statement that corresponds to this statement, which states: ' A lot of error correction can have a negative effect on my motivation', however , were divided

over this statement. Only 42% of them strongly agreed or agreed with this statement. This may show that students do not think of error correction as an obstacle to motivation which is in line with the opinions of people like Holley and King (1971), George (1972), Vigil and Oller (1976), and Krashen (1985).

5.5 The fifth statement that was investigated was that 'Excessive error correction makes the learner focus on form rather than meaning which inhibits communication'. The results here show that the overwhelming majority of both NSs and NNSs gave positive responses to this statement with 81% of the NSs and 93% of the NNSs strongly agreeing or agreeing with this statement.

Students, in their responses to the statement that corresponds to this statement, which states: 'A lot of error correction can negatively affect my speaking skills', however, showed that the majority of them strongly agreed or agreed with this statement: 81% of them thought of error correction as inhibiting to communication .

This finding about students' opinion is in line with what many educators pointed out that students do not think of error correction as an obstacle or a disrupter to communication in classroom as long as correction is not excessive.

5.6 A sixth important issue in communicative language teaching that also was investigated was that 'A learner should be given enough time to correct himself '.

The results here show that 90% of the NSs and 98% of the NNSs strongly agreed or agreed with this statement which shows that both NSs and NNSs are in favor of giving students enough time to correct themselves. Students in their response to the statement that best corresponds to this statement that states: 'Teacher should help me to correct my self ', were in favor of this statement as well : 68% of them thought that the teacher should give them enough time to correct themselves and not interrupt them to correct their errors while they are trying to communicate.

5.7 A seventh statement that was investigated was that 'The teacher should correct form errors in all activities of language'. Results here show though with some variation, that both groups of teachers were against the statement with 27% of the NSs and only 6% of the NNSs in favor. Students' in their responses to the statement that corresponds to this statement, which states: ' Teacher should always correct my form errors ', were noticeably different from their teachers. 86% of the students responded favorably to this statement which again shows



students' quest for accuracy of their spoken English as a priority.

5.8 The eighth statement that was investigated was that 'grammatical errors should be corrected only in grammar lessons'. Results show that 14% of the NSs and 30% of the NNSs do not approve of this statement. This indicates that the majority of the NSs and the great majority of NNSs want to correct grammar errors not only in grammar lessons but also outside grammar lessons, like in reading comprehension and listening comprehension lessons for example. This attitude to grammar errors expressed by both NSs and NNSs does not seem to be in line with the attitudes they expressed earlier when they favored fluency to accuracy. Teachers who want to correct grammar errors in all classroom activities apparently give accuracy a major emphasis in their teaching. Students in their responses to the statement that corresponds to this statement, which states: 'Correcting grammar errors should only be in grammar lesson', also showed a similar attitude to their teachers' with 18% of them expressing their belief that grammatical errors should not be corrected only in grammar lessons. This shows that students like their teachers want their grammar errors to be corrected also outside grammar lessons.

5.9 In response to the statement that states: 'Error correction should be limited to errors that block communication', NSs were divided over this statement with 56 % in favor. The NNSs attitude, however, was noticeably more in favor of the statement, with 72% strongly agreeing or agreeing with this statement. It can be concluded from the NSs' attitude that they do not want to restrict their treatment only to errors that block communication but they also want to extend that to the errors that do not block communication which adds more support to the responses to the previous statement. Students, however, were divided over this statement. 55% of them disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that corresponds to this statement which states that: 'Teacher should only correct my errors that make comprehension difficult'.

5.10 The tenth statement that was investigated was that 'Allowing too much freedom for errors to go without correction will lead to fossilization of errors with learners'. The findings in this area reveal differences between the three groups investigated: While NSs were divided over this issue; 46% agreed or strongly agreed, the majority of NNSs (74%) strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, which shows that NNSs are more concerned than the NSs with fossilization as a problem in language learning than the NSs.

Students responses to this statement were very high. 82% of them strongly agreed or agreed with the statement which indicates that students in their questionnaire statement, that best matches this statement, which states: 'Teacher should immediately correct my errors to avoid fossilization', look at fossilization as a serious problem that might develop if their errors are not treated before they fossilize in their spoken English . I think this area of fossilization of errors needs to be investigated further and with more depth to see why fossilization of errors poses a problem for both teachers and students.

5.11 The survey also investigated the use of student's mother-tongue in classroom. The statement that was investigated was: ' The teacher can use L1 to correct students' errors '.

Results here show that NSs responded favorably to this statement with 80% of them in favor of this statement while NNSs were rather divided with 59% in favor of the statement. Students' responses, however, showed that they were concerned with the quantity of the mother-tongue that can be used in classroom: Students here gave four different responses to four different questions. For example, in their response to the statement that states: ' Using a lot of Arabic in class helps me to learn language better', only 24% of them strongly agreed or



agreed with this statement. An exact percentage appears in their response to the statement that states: 'Arabic should not be used in class at all', 24% of them strongly agreed or agreed with this statement. However, in their responses to the other two statements, their attitude was different. For example, in their responses to the statement that states: 'Using a little Arabic in class is very helpful in learning a language', 57% of them strongly agreed or agreed with this statement. Also, their responses to the statement that states: 'Using Arabic in class only when very necessary is helpful', shows a similar attitude. 61% of them strongly agreed or agreed with this statement. What can be concluded here is that students prefer their mother-tongue to be used only when needed to be used and provided that usage is limited. The overall attitude to using students' mother-tongue in classroom seems to be in line with what Atkinson (1987), for example, suggested in the sense that students would like their teachers to use their mother-tongue in an ESL classroom for limited purposes. However, this area in error treatment needs further investigation to get to some understanding of how students like their mother-tongue to be used in teaching ESL to them. Further investigation needs to be made to see why students gave different responses to the quantity of the mother-tongue to be used for example. This will

help put this area in focus in Aramco to be discussed further within Aramco English Program.

5.12 The last statement that was investigated was the role of the teacher in classroom. The statement was : “The teacher is only a facilitator in class”.

Results reveal that NSs gave different responses to this statement. They were divided with only 49 % of them agreeing or disagreeing with the statement. A much higher percentage was expected from the NSs because NSs according to the hypothesis of this study stress communicative teaching where the teacher is to maintain the role of a facilitator in class and stay out of focus in classroom .What was surprising here was the attitude of the NNSs . 76% of them strongly agreed or agreed with this statement while it was expected that the NNSs show preference for a dominant role for the teacher in class. The students in their response to the statement that corresponds to this statement which states: ‘I would like the teacher to give me work to do on my own in class (i.e. the teacher as a facilitator)’, were very close to the responses of their NNS teachers, with 80% of them strongly agreeing or agreeing with this statement.

## **How Aramco ESL Teachers View Aramco ESL Program**

As can be seen from the teachers' questionnaire, statements 13,14,15,16 and 17 investigated how Aramco teachers view the Aramco ESL Program.

The figures reveal that both NSs and NNSs showed dissatisfaction with the five areas that were investigated in the questionnaire. For example, in their responses to statement 13 that states that 'there is a lot of focus on linguistic accuracy in Aramco ESL program, 78% of the NSs and 77% of the NNSs thought that the program stresses linguistic accuracy.

Also, teachers complained that they were unable to focus on communicative fluency. In response to statement 14 that states:

'I am unable to focus on communicative fluency because of Aramco imposed ESL teaching techniques' 80 % of the NSs and 72% of the NNSs strongly agreed or agreed with this statement.

Moreover, the figures reveal that Aramco trainers concentrate on linguistic accuracy in their discussion of teacher's performance in class. In their responses to statement 15 that states: 'Aramco teacher trainers usually concentrate on linguistic accuracy in their classroom observation discussions', 71% of the NSs and 80% of the NNSs strongly agreed or agreed with this statement.

In the area of oral communication, the responses to the statement that states that 'there is not enough focus on oral



communication in Aramco ESL program', 73% of the NSs and 83% of the NNSs strongly agreed or agreed with this statement. Finally, both groups of teachers showed a noticeable concern for the fact that they are required to concentrate on linguistic accuracy with communicative activities.

The responses of both groups of teachers to statement 17 which states that: 'Aramco teachers are required to concentrate on linguistic accuracy even with activities that should be taught in a communicative way', 80% of the NSs and 72% of the NNSs strongly agreed or agreed with this statement.

This in fact, could explain why both groups of teachers demonstrated a noticeable tendency for stressing accuracy in classroom as will be seen in the interpretation of the lessons discourse in chapter 6. It is evident that teachers are exercising some kind of compromise between what they believe in and what they have to do in classroom, and they seem to show serious concerns that they have to stress accuracy even in activities that should be taught in a communicative way where accuracy should be less regarded for the sake of communication. The test guidelines in the, BEP 'Instructional Packages' issued by Aramco in 1998 may explain this tendency. For example, the weight given to structure, ranges from 14-20% of the total grade which

when compared to the weight given to a communicative skill like to listening comprehension (8%) is relatively very high.

Therefore, I think in order to promote communicative language teaching, as the announced objective has been, the program needs to go through basic changes in terms of its curriculum design and testing by introducing tangible communicative tasks and activities to the syllabus and giving more weight to these activities in testing.

To determine the significance of the responses of both groups of teachers to the statements, I turned to an experienced statistician to work out a T-test for independent samples of the statistics of the three groups investigated shown in Appendix K). The figures in the tables reveal a similarity between the results of the T-test and the description of the percentages as shown in the previous discussion. The significance figures show that at the level of .05 or less both groups of teachers gave positive responses to 13 of the 17 statements investigated and differed over 4 of these statements. These are statements: 7,9,10 and 11, and their significance was: .005, .116, .006 and .002 respectively. This result is in line with the result that the percentages showed. The same thing can be said when the responses of the students are compared to the responses of their teachers as shown in the same appendix. Teachers and students

are shown to have differed over two of the statements that the students' questionnaire shared with the teachers' questionnaires: These two are statements 9 and 10 in the teachers' questionnaire. The significance figures of these two statements are: .2110 and .404 respectively. This result is also similar to the results that the percentages showed.

## **5.2 Conclusions:**

There are a number of important conclusions that can be drawn from these findings:

The results show that both NSs and NNSs strongly agreed or agreed with nine of the twelve statements on error treatment investigated as follows:

- 1) Both NSs and NNSs were found to prefer communicative fluency to linguistic accuracy in error treatment .
- 2) Both groups were also found to prefer acquiring language naturally without error correction .
- 3) Both groups agreed to tolerate students errors as part of the teaching-learning process.
- 4) They both thought of error correction as an obstacle to motivation.



- 5) They both thought of correction as obstacle to communication.
- 6) They also agreed that students should be given enough time to correct themselves.
- 7) Both groups also thought that a teacher should not correct all form errors in all activities in class.
- 8) Both groups were in favor of using the students' mother-tongue in class.
- 9) They both rejected the statement that says that grammar errors should be corrected only in grammar lessons.

However, both groups were found to have differences over three issues investigated in this study. For example:

a. The responses show that NSs were divided over the statement that states: 'Error correction should be limited to errors that block communication' while NNSs were noticeably in favor of this statement. This result could mean that NSs want to correct more errors. Such a finding may not contribute to the supposition that NSs are less concerned about correction of errors that do not block communication.

b) NSs were also divided over the statement that states: 'Allowing too much freedom for errors to go without correction

will lead to fossilization of errors with learners'. Such a finding, is in line with the literature of the study because almost half of the NSs do not think of immediate error correction as a workable strategy for minimizing fossilization, while NNSs were more concerned with the problem of fossilization. Students, however, probably think of immediate correction as a solution to this problem since the majority of them have shown that they want to be corrected.

c) Finally, differences were also shown in their attitude to the statement that states: 'The teacher is only a facilitator in class'. The NSs' responses show that 49% agreed to have the role of a facilitator in class while the NNSs' responses show that the majority of them (82%), agreed with this statement. The response of both NSs and NNSs seem to be unexpected here because assuming the role of a facilitator by the teacher in class means giving more role to students by making activities more learner-centered and giving less role to the teacher, according to the principles of communicative teaching. Such an attitude does not seem to be in line with the supposition that NNSs want to have more role and have more control in class while NSs be more of facilitators in class, which is not in line with the hypothesis of the study. Therefore, this attitude, I think, needs to be investigated further to see why NNSs have a stronger

attitude to this statement than NSs: Is it because NNSs, have started to employ more communicative principles in their teaching? Or is it probably because both groups of teachers interpreted the term; 'facilitator' in different ways? Or is it because of some unanticipated reason? I think this area needs to be investigated further.

Students' responses, however, showed that they have strong differences with their teachers over the following:

- a) While teachers thought error correction affects motivation, students were divided over this statement which indicates that quite a large number of them do not think of error correction as an obstacle to communication.
- b) Students were also found to have a different attitude to communication. A significant number of them, unlike their teachers, thought that error correction does not disrupt communication.
- c) Students were found to have a different attitude from their teachers to correcting all form errors. A high percentage of them thought that all their form errors should be corrected.

However, students were found to share with their teacher the following:

- a) Students shared with their NS teachers the attitude to correcting errors that block communication. Like NS teachers,



they thought that error correction should not be restricted only to errors that block communication

b) Finally, students, like their NNSs teachers, showed more concern with fossilization of errors than the NSs teachers did.

A very high percentage of them thought that immediate correction was necessary to avoid fossilization of errors. The overall attitude here strongly indicates that students want their errors to be corrected.

The next chapter (Chapter VI ) will analyze and discuss the data collected about teachers behavior in classroom through the third instrument used in this survey which is the classroom observation. Then the findings of this present chapter and the next chapter will be compared and contrasted to get to final conclusions about the similarities and differences between both groups of teachers in terms of attitude and behavior toward errors to see if the final conclusion proves or disproves the hypothesis of this study .

## **Chapter VI**

### **Analysis and Discussion of Results of Classroom Observation**

The foregoing chapter presented an analysis and discussion of the findings of the two questionnaires that were used in this study. This present chapter will present an analysis and discussion of the findings of the classroom observations.

This discussion involves a count of the frequencies of the three types of form errors (i.e. grammar, pronunciation, and word-choice) in addition to a count of the three types of error treatment (immediate correction, providing feedback for self-repair, and ignoring errors) that appeared in the discourse of the 18 lessons that were observed. Then extracts from the discourse that relate to error treatment will be interpreted and discussed to see if teachers demonstrated communicative strategies in their behavior toward errors.

#### **6.1 Analysis and discussion of the count of errors and error treatment.**

The following pages will provide a discussion and analysis of the findings as shown in Table 4.3 and presented in this

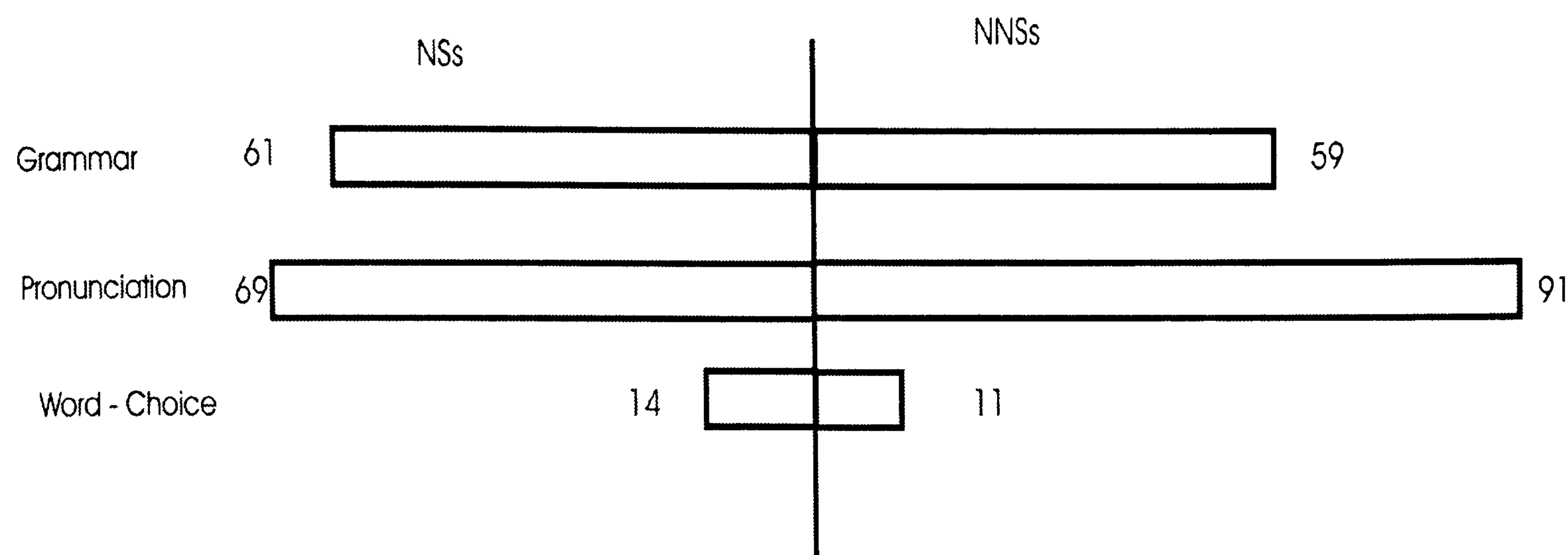
Chapter in bar-graph 6.1. This bar-graph provides the count of the frequencies of errors and their treatment types in the discourse of the 18 lessons as follows:

The upper graph shows the distribution of the total number of each of the three types of form errors treated by NSs and NNSs on both sides of the graph. The lower graph shows the distribution of the percentages of the three types of error treatment provided by NSs and NNSs on both sides of the graph.

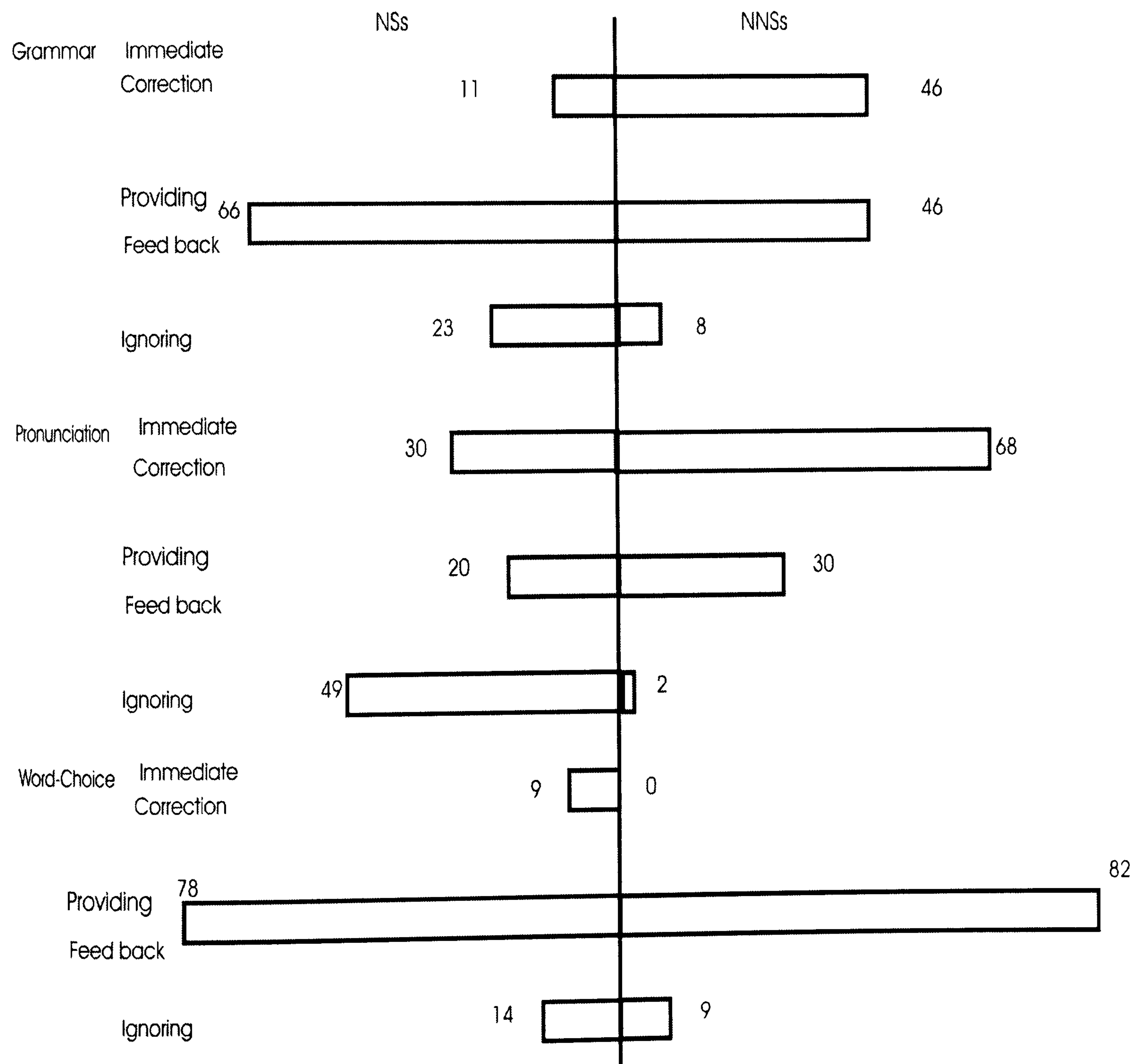
As can be seen in the graph, in the area of grammar errors, out of the 61 grammar errors that the NSs treated, they made immediate correction to only 7 errors, and that represents 11% of the total grammar errors they treated. NNSs, on the other hand, made immediate correction to 27 out of the 59 grammar errors that they treated and that represents 46% of the total which is 59. This shows that NSs showed more tolerance of grammar errors than their NNSs counterparts did. This finding here corresponds to what both groups of teachers expressed in their questionnaire when NNSs showed concern for immediate correction to avoid fossilization of errors while NSs were much less concerned with grammar errors.



Graph 5.1 Distribution of form errors treated in 18 lessons (in nos.)



Distribution of three types of error treatment in 18 lessons (in %)



In the area of providing feedback for self-repair, NSs provided feedback in 40 grammar errors which comprises 66% of the total while NNSs provided feedback in 27 of the grammar errors which comprises 46% of the grammar errors they treated. NSs here are shown to have more concern for correcting through providing feedback in order to help the student correct himself.

This behavior of NSs towards errors positively reflects the attitude they expressed in the questionnaire when they disagreed with immediate correction of errors and agreed with providing feedback for self-repair.

Furthermore, NSs ignored more grammar errors than their NNSs counterparts did. The figures show that they ignored 14 grammar errors which represents 23% of the total while NNSs ignored only 5 out of the 59 grammar errors which represents a very low percentage; 8%.

Again, NSs here are shown to have more tolerance of grammar errors which explains a tendency by NSs to tolerate grammar errors and NNSs not to tolerate as much grammar errors as NSs did which denotes their tendency to stress accuracy of grammar more than their NSs counterparts did .

In the area of pronunciation errors, there is also a noticeable difference in the treatment of this type of error between the two groups. NSs made immediate correction to 21

out of the 69 pronunciation errors that were made. This represents 30% of the total number of errors. NNSs, however, made immediate correction to considerably more pronunciation errors. They immediately corrected 62 out of the 91 pronunciation errors. This represents 68% of the total.

This shows another noticeable tendency with the NNSs to correct more pronunciation errors immediately as they occur than the NSs did.

Both groups provided little feedback for correction of pronunciation in 27 errors which represents 30% of the total and NSs provided feedback for correction of pronunciation in 14 errors which represents 20 % of the total of pronunciation errors they treated. This shows that both NSs and NNSs were unexpectedly less tolerant with pronunciation errors.

A different thing can be said of the number of pronunciation errors ignored. NSs ignored 34 pronunciation errors which represents 49% of the total while NNSs ignored only 2 pronunciation errors which represent only 2% of the total. This is a clear evidence that NNSs have a strong tendency for stressing accuracy of pronunciation far more than their NS counterparts did here.

Finally, in the area of word-choice errors which was the third and last area to be investigated, the findings were



noticeably different from those in the grammar and pronunciation errors.

The figures show that in this area, the numbers and percentages of both groups were not only very close but almost similar.

The figures under: 'immediate correction' show that teachers did not provide immediate correction to this type of error.

What the figures show is that they showed noticeable concern for providing feedback for the students to repair most of their word-choice errors. Out of the 14 word-choice errors that the NSs treated, they provided feedback for 11 which represents 78% of the word-choice errors they treated.

The same thing can be said of the NNSs, for out of 11 word-choice errors they treated, they provided feedback for 10 of these errors, which represents 82% of the total of word-choice errors.

Similarity in treatment of this type of errors between the two groups was also found in the areas of ignoring errors. The errors that both groups ignored here are negligible. NSs ignored two errors and NNSs ignored one error only which makes the difference in this area insignificant and indicates that both

groups of teachers give the highest priority in correction of form errors to word-choice errors more than any other form error.

These findings inspired me to see if Aramco ESL teachers have things in common in this area to share with other ESL teachers outside Aramco. Chaudron's (1988) table was found to suit this purpose. In the following pages I compare these findings to some of the findings in Chaudron's table (Table 6.2):

## **6.2 Comparison of these findings to findings of other studies.**

Chaudron's (Table 6.2) provided data similar to the data of this study summarized from several studies which reported relative proportion of types of error and amount of teacher correction of those types.

The data was collected from five studies as shown in the table, conducted by: Salica (1981), Lucas (1975), Chaudron (1986a), Fanselow (1977), Courchene (1980), and illustrated by Chaudron. Chaudron points out that Salica (1981) conducted his study in adult ESL classes in the United States. Lucas (1975) contrasted NSs to NNSs teachers teaching English as a second language in Israel. Chaudron in his study counted classroom error corrections in 12 lessons where grade 8 and 9 students were taught French. Fanselow (1977) also conducted a study in adults ESL classes to investigate teachers' tendencies for treating

or ignoring errors while Courchene (1980) observed ten teachers in pre-university levels teaching ESL courses to adult students in Canada and Salica (1981) conducted his study also in Canada.

**TABLE 6.2. RATE OF ERROR PRODUCTION AND TEACHER TREATMENT (IN %) (Chaudron 1988)**

Type of error	Salica (1981) <sup>a</sup>	Courchêne (1980)	Chaudron (1986 a) <sup>b</sup>	Fanselow c (1977 b)	Lucas (1975)		Median
					NS	NNS	
Phonologica total Errors	— <sup>d</sup>	32	29	28	28	32	29
% of treated	—	41	54	17	67	61	54
Grammatical total Errors	75	56	42	53	63	55	56
% of treated	51	46	50	76	36	47	49
Lexical % of total Errors	11	11	3	12	9	13	11
% treated	67	97	75	94	97	92	93
Content % of total Errors	6	3	19	—	—	—	6
% treated	85	100	90	—	—	—	90
Discourse % of total Errors	9	—	8	7	—	—	8
% treated	94	—	61	95	—	—	94

a Does not include phonological errors.

b Collapsed across both observation times.

c Separated by teacher type because significant difference found.

d Dashes indicate that the category was not evaluated; percentage (% of total errors) thus total 100 for each column.

The figures that these studies reveal in the areas of grammar, pronunciation, and word choice errors as shown in the table under: phonological, grammatical, and Lexical errors are of interest to this part of the study because there appears to be some similar trends (that emerged from those studies illustrated by Chaudron) to the trends that emerged from this study. They



all demonstrate that NS teachers ignore more grammar and pronunciation errors than NNSs do. An interesting aspect in these studies is the trend that emerged from Lucas's study when she contrasted NSs to NNSs, and showed that NSs ignored 64% of the form errors compared to NNSs who ignored less form errors (53%). This trend in Lucas's study is very much similar to the trend in this study.

Another important trend that this table shows is that teachers in those studies give high priority for treating word-choice errors. Such a trend is also shown in this study:

For example, Chaudrons' table shows that teachers corrected 93 % of the word-choice errors. This percentage is very much close to the percentages in this study. In this study NSs treated 86% and NNSs treated 91%.

This finding about word-choice errors can be attributed to the supposition that word-choice errors tend to block communication between the teacher and his students and hence they have to be treated in order to sustain communication.

It would appear that this area needs further investigation to find out why it seems teachers in different parts of the world, including Aramco, give such an importance to treating word-choice errors.

### **6.3 Exploring Teachers' Behavior Towards Errors**

Exploring teachers' behavior towards errors will help add some pragmatic explanation to the findings of the error count part of the study. It will help show more qualitative evidence that may support the data collected from the instruments used in the study. Eventually, this will help to formulate some understanding of whether both groups of teachers treat errors within a communicative language context. Hence, the findings of this part of the study will not be treated in isolation from the findings of the other instruments but rather as complementary information that may help us to reach some sound conclusions about the attitude and behavior of both groups of teachers towards errors.

Therefore, to see if Aramco teachers teach within a communicative context, it was found suitable to see how these teachers treat errors in view of Chaudron's (1972) illustrations in his Model: "Features and Types of Corrective Reactions in the Model of Discourse", which I discussed earlier in Chapter III.

### 6.3.1 Interruption:

When investigating interruption in the teacher's behavior in the lesson discourse, it was observed that both NSs and NNSs used interruption to treat errors. This behavior was found to be used in Aramco ESL classes when a form error (grammar, pronunciation or word choice) was made, and in situations when this error was not relevant to the lesson objectives whether the teacher was a NS or a NNS.

Examples of this behavior from the lessons of both NSs and NNSs are many. In Transcript 3, for example, where the lesson was given by a NS, the teacher spent a considerable amount of time on teaching the correct pronunciation of the word 'work', although the lesson was on teaching adjectives followed by infinitives.

#### **Extract 1: (T3: 127-128)**

Lines 127-128 from this transcript may clarify this point:

127 **S:** *work (wrong pronunciation; student pronounces [werk] as [wo:rk]).*

128 **T:** *(interrupting) [werk] you are saying [wo:rk] Think of it like:-er, [werk][werk], homework.*



Another example from a lesson given by a NNS is in these Lines 78-80 from Transcript 4 from a lesson on teaching how to ask for permission or advice:

**Extract 2: (T4: 78-80)**

78 **S:** *No, I am employee new.*

79 **T:** *(interrupting) New, New employee.*

80 **S:** *Yes.. Yes*

Further examples of interruption to correct form errors are shown in the following examples:

A NNS corrects the insertion of 'is' in a lesson which was on teaching new vocabulary; from transcript 6. Lines 64-65:

**Extract 3: (T6: 64-65)**

64 **S:** *when the weather windy....*

65 **T:** *(interrupts) Yes, when the weather (IS) windy... You can see...?*

In another situation a NS was observed to jump in to correct the pronunciation of 'Thursday' and the plural of 'beach' although these two words were not on his teaching list and the errors did not pose difficulty in understanding the messages of the sentences where these two words were used :

Lines 195-196 from **Transcript 6** show this situations:

**Extract 4: (T6: 195-196)**

195 **S:** *[therde] (wrong pronunciation of (Thursday)*

196 **T:** *(interrupts ) what . ? Thursday (correcting the student's pronunciation).*

In another situation from the same transcript in lines 328-329, the teacher interrupts to correct the plural form of the word 'beach'

**Extract 5: (T6: 328-329)**

328 **S:** *There are some fine beach on the Arabian Gulf.*

329 **T :** *(interrupts) beachES ( providing plural form of the word ; beach).*

**Providing:**

Both groups of teachers were found to provide feedback to the student who made the error to correct himself.

Two examples from two lessons one given by a NS and another by a NNS are provided below: **Transcript 1**. Lines 137-140, from a NS's lesson:

**Extract 6: (T1: 137-140)**

137: **S:** *If you have a [hi: tstork] (meaning 'heatstroke')...*

138:**T**: *If you have sun.. (waiting for student to carry on).*

139: **S**: *Stork stork stork*

140: **T**: *Sunstroke (correcting).*

Here, the teacher provided the correct answer himself. He then gave prompts to encourage the student to correct himself and only after the student failed to correct himself, the teacher came in to provide the correction. In another example taken from another lesson, the NNS teacher followed a similar technique with the student who made the error.

**Extract 7** from **Transcript 3** may clarify this point:

**Extract 7: (T3: 144-154)**

144 T: *If you say 'to ask us', to what ?*

145 S: *to encourage*

146 T: *to encourage us ?*

147 S: *to help*

148 T: *to help us ?*

149 S: *to teach*

150 T: *to teach us?*

151 S: *to learn*

152 T: *No .You learn .What does the teacher do ?*

*A teacher teaches , student....?*



153 **S:** *learn*

154 **T:** *learns . A student learnS.....(stressing the third person singular 's')*

Again in this situation, the teacher did not provide any immediate correction when the student made the error. He assisted the student to find the proper word, (learn) to use giving him enough time to correct himself, and eventually the student was able to do that.

### **Prompts:**

Both NSs and NNSs were observed to use this move.

An example is provided in Extract 8 from a lesson given by a NS:

#### **Extract 8: (T3: 227-229)**

227 : **S:** *I were...*

228 : **T:** *I..? (with rising intonation at point of error i.e. the need to provide verb to 'be')*

229 : **S:** *(correcting himself) I was relieved to know...*

The same move was used by a NNS teacher. Lines 116-117, Extract 9 from Transcript 3 may clarify this point:

#### **Extract 9: (T3: 116-117)**

116 **T:** *I need..? I need? (with high rising intonation)*

117 **S:** *I need- I need you push my car (student manages to correct part of the error by providing the object pronoun; 'you').*

**Expansion:**

Extract 3 from a lesson by a NS shows this move where the teacher expands on the student's response to help him get his message through:

**Extract 10: (T3: 10-13)**

10 : **S:** *A number*

11: **T:** *Not quite*

12: **S:** *A separate number*

13: **T:** *Right. It is a number or identification.. number for identification .*

Similarly, in situations where a NNS explains the meaning of 'free books,' he adds more information to explain free books to clarify the meaning for the students.

Extract 11 from a lesson by a NNs. may clarify this point:

**Extract 11: (T6: 202-204)**

202 **T:** *No, so what do we call the books then?*

203 **S:** *They are free.. free books.*

204 **T:** *Free books. So, The books are free. You don't have to pay for them*

### **Verification:**

Both groups of teachers were found to use verification for self-correction.

Extract 12 from a lesson given by a NS may clarify this point:

### **Extract 12: (T6: 364-368)**

364 **S:** *If you [lif] (mispronunciation of 'leave')..*

365 **T:** *(interrupting) so what do we say: 'lif ' or 'leave' ?*

366 **S:** *leave.*

367 **T:** *What do we say: 'Car' or 'Care'*

368 **S:** *'Care'*

NSs were found to use verification to provide clues for self-

### **correction:**

Lines 21-26 from Transcript 3 may clarify this situation:



**Extract 13: (T3: 21-26)**

21 T : *Okay. Where do we put the adjective?*

22 S : *Before..*

23 T : *Before What?*

24 S : *Noun*

25 T : *Noun. Is that before or after the noun?*

26 S : *Before, yes, before.*

**Repetition:**

Both groups of teachers were found to use repetition with students to correct themselves.

The following example extracted from a NNS' lesson shows this type of repetition:

**Extract 14: (T6: 187-190)**

187 **T:** *What are you doing now?*

188 **S:** *Study.*

189 **T:** *Study? He said: 'Study'. Is it right?*

190 **S:** *Studying (correcting himself).*

In a lesson given by a NS, the teacher also uses a repetition move with change and emphasis to stress location of error.

Extract 15 from a lesson given by a Ns may explain this point:

### **Extract 15: (T3: 104-109)**

104 **S:** *You are lucky to stay alive after the accident.*

105 **T:** *To stay alive? (with rising intonation)*

106 **S:** *to stayed.*

107 **T:** *What's the better verb? To stay to...*

*(waiting for student to continue)*

108 **S:** *be*

109 **T:** *to BE alive. To stay means move to be in place. They stay in your seat.*

Here, the teacher repeated the student's utterance with a change using rising intonation (L109) to indicate location of error. He then provided the correct formulation by adding the verb 'be' to help clarify the meaning in the student's utterance.

### **Ignoring:**

From studying the lesson transcripts, the following findings about ignoring errors can be concluded:

1. Both groups were found not to ignore form errors, In fact, they were found either to correct errors immediately or treat errors by providing feedback whether these errors blocked communication or not.

2. They were also found to correct or treat all form errors whether or not they pertained to the pedagogic objective of the lesson. In a lesson on using adverbs, for example, the error count showed that a NNS corrected 25 out of 25 pronunciation errors immediately as they occurred. Similarly, a NS corrected 12 out of 12 grammatical errors in a lesson on how to ask for permission, immediately as the error occurred.

3. Finally, both groups of teachers were found to provide immediate correction almost every time a form error was made although the error did not pertain to the lesson objectives; while if the form error pertained to the lesson objective, it was treated with wait-time and feedback.

#### **6.4 Conclusions:**

To sum up this part of the study, as far as the three types of teacher behavior towards form error investigated are concerned (ie. Immediate correction, providing feedback for self-repair and ignoring error), the following conclusions can be made from the interpretation of the 6 lesson transcripts:

1. Both groups of teachers were found to treat all types of form errors whether these errors blocked communication or not.



2. They were found to correct form errors in all activities and whether these errors pertained to the lesson objectives or not.
3. Both groups of teachers used a variety of feedback moves to help students correct their errors mainly in errors that pertained to the lesson objectives.
4. The investigation of the discourse of 6 lessons shows that both groups of teachers hardly ignored errors, although the frequency count of errors and their types of treatment in the 18 lessons that were observed as shown earlier indicates that NSs noticeably ignored more pronunciation and grammar errors than NNSs did.

Based on these findings, we may conclude that both groups of teachers showed a noticeable tendency for linguistic accuracy in their behavior towards errors. However, their overall behavior shows that, nevertheless, they both used communicative strategies in treating students' errors.

This chapter looked at several communicative strategies that teachers use in class to treat errors, and provided conclusions about these strategies. The next chapter which is the final chapter of this study provides a summary of the

findings of all the instruments that were used in this study. This summary will involve a comparison of all the findings about both NSs and NNSs from which a final conclusion that may support or disconfirm the hypothesis of the study can be reached. Based on the final conclusions, the study will put forth some recommendations and implications for classroom teaching and for further research.

## **CHAPTER VII**

### **Summary of Findings and Conclusion**

The last chapter presented an analysis and discussion of teachers, behavior toward errors in view of Chaudron's model. This final chapter will present conclusions of the findings of the study. It will also present some recommendations and implications for teaching in Aramco ESL classes in addition to some suggestions for further research in the area of error treatment in class.

#### **7.1 Conclusions of Findings:**

1- Basically, the first question of the study centered around whether there is evidence to support the supposition that Aramco NSs treat students' errors with emphasis on communicative fluency while NNSs treat students' errors with emphasis on linguistic accuracy. Looking at the findings of the teachers' questionnaire, we can conclude that both NSs and NNSs showed a strong tendency for treating students' errors within the communicative fluency context. This is evident in responding positively to nine out of the twelve statements about communicative teaching issues in ESL teaching. However, their responses to the other three statements did not show that. For example, NSs were divided over the statement that investigated



their views of errors that block communication, while NNSs. Strongly agreed or agreed with this statement. Such a division could indicate that a considerable number of the NSs want to correct only errors that block communication while another equal number maintains a different attitude. By the same token, NNSs' opinion of this statement was unexpected because the majority of them think that errors that do not block communication should not be corrected. Such differences in attitudes do not seem to contribute to the hypothesis of the study.

2- NSs were also divided over the statement that says errors if not corrected will fossilize with the students. Almost half of the NSs do not think of immediate correction as a workable strategy for minimizing fossilized errors. The majority of NNSs, on the other hand, showed more concern for fossilization of errors which could indicate that they think of immediate correction as a solution to this problem. The conclusion in this part is that fossilization remains as an issue that both groups showed differences over.

4. The majority of NSs thought that a teacher isn't just a facilitator in class. The attitudes of both groups do not

contribute positively to the hypothesis of the study because according to the hypothesis, it is the NNSs who were expected not to choose to assume the role of a facilitator in class. This is because NNSs due to their tradition in teaching (as the study hypothesizes) stress accuracy and that means more correction and hence more focus on their role in class. Yet, their attitude did not show this tendency NSs, however, could not decide on this statement as it was evident from their division over the statement. While what was expected according to the hypothesis was to see the NSs support the teacher's role as a facilitator. This expectation did not seem to materialize.

5. The classroom behavior on the other hand, showed noticeable differences. It revealed findings that are not in line with the findings of the teachers' questionnaire. While the findings of the teachers' questionnaire showed that both groups responded favorably to statements that call for communicative fluency, the qualitative data that was collected from the interpretation of the class discourse reveal that both groups of teachers have a strong tendency for accuracy of form as discussed earlier. The error treatment count, however, showed that NSs have a stronger tendency for communicative fluency while NNSs showed a tendency for linguistic accuracy. The conclusion that can be drawn here is that there is evident

discrepancy between the teachers' attitudes on one side and their behavior in class on the other. This discrepancy, I think, can be interpreted in two ways:

The first interpretation is that it could be that Aramco teachers, both NSs and NNSs, are unable to use the communicative strategies that they favored in their questionnaire. In fact very much of this was reflected in their responses to the statements that investigated their opinions of Aramco ESL teaching in addition to the concerns that they have raised about the program in the open-ended page of the questionnaire. The general attitude that they expressed was that Aramco ESL teaching policy does not allow them to use techniques and activities that promote communicative fluency in class. They also showed criticism of Aramco ESL curriculum denoting the fact that this program still stresses linguistic accuracy as a major objective both in teaching and in testing.

The second interpretation could be that both groups of teachers would like to have their students attain both communicative fluency and linguistic accuracy. This can be concluded from the questionnaire, when they both noticeably favored communicative fluency. Yet, the behavior of both groups in class although reflecting a tendency for communicative



fluency on the one hand, it showed a tendency for accuracy on the other.

This interpretation can be explained in view of Littlewood's (1995) argument that a communicative approach to the content of course need not involve abandoning the use of structural criteria and that the mastery of the structural system is still the basic requirement for using language to communicate one's own meaning. Also, Spada's (1997) findings may support this interpretation. In her study she found that instruction which focuses primarily on meaning (ie. communication-based), but allows for a focus on form within meaningful contexts works best.

Yet, the question is whether these conclusions provide a clear answer to the first question of the study whether NSs treat students' errors with emphasis on communicative fluency while NNSs treat students' errors with emphasis on linguistic accuracy. I think the answer as the findings show is that there is no clearcut evidence to prove this hypothesis: While the findings of the questionnaire show that both groups are in favor of communicative fluency, classroom behavior in the errors treatment count reveals that NSs showed a tendency for stressing communicative fluency while NNSs showed a tendency for stressing linguistic accuracy. The interpretation of the discourse that focused on the strategies that teachers used to

treat errors showed that both groups treated errors within a communicative context. Therefore, the overall conclusion in my assessment is that the beliefs and behavior of both NSs and NNSs demonstrate a tendency for using communicative teaching despite the fact that NNSs were shown to stress accuracy more than their NS counterparts did.

The second question of the study was on how Aramco ESL students like their errors to be treated. The study reveals that students' preferences were in line with what previous studies have shown, in the sense that students want to be corrected and that they do not think of error correction as an obstacle to learning, similar to the studies of Cathcart and Olsen (1976), Fathman and Whalley (1990), and Leki (1991). This finding indicates that Aramco students want to be corrected because they want to speak correct English. Therefore, it can be said that opposition to error correction, as several educators suggested and was discussed previously in this study, does not seem to be reflected in the students' opinions. Students want their errors to be corrected.

## **7.2 Implications for classroom teaching.**

Based on the findings of this study, it is my assessment that both Aramco NSs and NNSs need to address the following suggestions in their classes:

1. Errors need to be treated within more communicative practices by:

a) avoiding correcting errors that do not result in breakdown in communication to encourage students to communicate freely without the feeling of being inhibited, and b) giving more role to students in class by making the students, not the teacher, the focus of the classroom activities.

2. Although teachers quite often provided feedback as a treatment of errors, immediate correction of errors was excessively used by both groups of teachers. I suggest that both groups to avoid immediate over-correction by giving students more feedback and more time to encourage self-correction.

Actually, this over-correction seems to be a habit with teachers that probably goes unnoticed by them.

For example, a NNS was stunned when he was told that he corrected 25 out of the 25 pronunciation errors that were made in his class although most of these errors did not cause any kind



of communication breakdown between the students and their teacher.

3) I also suggest that Aramco teachers examine their behavior in class by audio-recording their classes, for instance, and reflecting on that behavior. I think reflection on behavior in class will help in self-evaluation and ultimately self-direction and error treatment is one aspect of the teacher's behavior that can be recorded and reflected on.

4. Clinical supervision (Vygotsky 1978) can be a helpful support strategy to the teacher. According to this practice, the teacher to be observed and the observer can get together before the observation and exchange views on how best the lesson can be taught. Then after the lesson is observed, they can sit together and discuss the observation. This procedure promotes cooperation between the teacher and his observer. It helps to provide guidance and support and allows for using new ideas and skills. It will also help to provide the teacher with the ability to make decisions about his teaching and address areas that need to be improved in a positive atmosphere.

5. The element of threat that lies in the policy that governs evaluating teachers in Aramco should be reviewed. Teachers expressed concerns that they usually feel threatened by

observers because observers are usually evaluators. They evaluate teachers although these evaluators themselves may not be well-informed on what they are evaluating. For example, some of these evaluators may count the form errors that the teacher did not correct (regardless of the lesson content) and hence 'accuse' the teacher of lacking the appropriate knowledge of the subject-matter he is teaching. Therefore, it happens so often that teachers, specifically NNSs, over-correct, just to 'impress' the observer. Therefore, I think, such observers need to be oriented on how to evaluate teachers' treatment of errors and that this evaluation should be based on well-developed understanding of communicative teaching.

6. Students' views of the teaching operation and the curricula they are taught should be sought. Students' views and their preferences as to what they would like to learn and how they prefer to be taught should be investigated and their responses should be taken into consideration. In fact, I venture to suggest that the students' questionnaire used in this study is the first questionnaire ever used in Aramco ESL program to investigate students' opinions about how they like to be taught.

7. I think, there is an urgent need to look into the criteria through which teaching the new syllabus is evaluated. As

Lawton (1989) points out, pedagogical practices should not be subject to a rigid educational theory. Observers and evaluators in Aramco ESL program need to look at teaching from communicative perspectives and not judge what teachers do in class simply by judging how much of an imposed rigid theory in education the teacher uses in class. Innovative teachers should be encouraged and given the chance to show their potential. The open-ended page revealed that NS teachers could not apply new teaching ideas in class, or they could not concentrate on a certain area of weakness in the students' performance because of regulations and time restrictions imposed on them by the pacing schedules that they have to follow period by period and page by page, with little regard to whether there is learning going on in class or not. Another NS complained that assessment instruments (ie. tests) used in Aramco do not match the communicative teaching context that he is trying to implement. Also there were complaints about Aramco placement tests. Teachers complained that Aramco students are not properly placed in the most appropriate classes.

Teachers also complained about giving little credit to oral skills. To clarify this point, I here present a brief account of the listening comprehension domain, for example, as illustrated in the 'Instructional Packages' that usually accompanies the



textbooks used in classroom: Under the title: 'Domains, Objectives and Activities' of the Basic English Program (BEP) from levels one to four (BEP 1A- 4B 97/98/10), the instructions point out that the weight of listening on the students' final exam is 8 out of 100 points. I think assigning only 8% of the grade to listening comprehension is discouraging to students to practice oral communication. Furthermore, surprisingly enough, listening comprehension totally loses credit in the syllabus as one goes higher through the levels. For example, in the Basic English 6A level (which is the terminal level), the English 6A Instructional Package, (1998) shows that listening activities are not credited at all in the exams. The package shows that listening comprehension is not given any credit in the final test. I think this minimal concern for oral activities by being given the least weight of grade on the exams is one of the shortcomings of this syllabus and hence, substantial credit should be given to listening activities if this syllabus is to undergo further revisions because oral communication is extremely important for communicative language teaching.

### **7.3 Suggestion for further research:**

I think five of the findings of this study need to be investigated further:

The first finding is the discrepancy between attitude and behavior that the teachers showed. This discrepancy needs to be verified to see why certain aspects of what they did in class did not reflect what they know and believe.

Another finding that needs to be investigated is the over-correction that both groups of teachers used in class. I think an in-depth investigation is needed to see why they over-corrected.

The anticipation, as was discussed earlier, involves more than one explanation for this behavior: It could be that NNSs do have the tendency to over-correct. It also could be that they over-correct to 'impress' the observer, due to certain inherited standards in Aramco ESL program. Or, it could be because of some unanticipated reason or reasons. This finding really needs to be investigated to reach some satisfactory explanation for this behavior.

An important finding that needs to be investigated further is the attitude that NSs showed in the questionnaire towards treating errors that block communication. NSs were divided over this issue. Exploring this finding further should show why NSs

differed over this communicative issue. I think finding an answer to this question will help to see what specific concerns or complaints they have about errors.

'The teacher as a facilitator' was a point of disagreement between NSs and NNSs. NSs were shown divided over this issue while NNSs showed strong support to this issue. It would be useful to see why NSs were divided over this 'communicative' issue while NNSs supported it noticeably.

A final finding that I think needs to be investigated is the students' responses to the use of their mother-tongue in class.

Students were careful to show that although they approved of using mother-tongue in class, they showed a distinguished concern for the amount of mother-tongue to be used. This variation in attitude needs to be investigated to see why they showed such an attitude to the use of mother-tongue in class.



# Appendix A

## TEACHER'S ATTITUDE TO ERROR CORRECTION IN SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOM INTERACTION

Dear Colleague,

Please write a cross-mark in the box that best suits your choice:

S/No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.	It's better to encourage learners to develop fluency before accuracy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	Error should be tolerated as part of the language learning process.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	It's not necessary to correct every error made by the learner in classroom teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	A lot of the language learning will develop naturally out of the language use without focusing on errors.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	Excessive error correction can have a strong negative effect on motivation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	Errors should be tolerated in order to encourage learners to take risks to communicate in English.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	Linguistic error should be de-emphasized and only content errors should corrected.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	It is better not to correct every linguistic error in tasks that call for communication.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9.	Error correction should be limited to errors that block communication.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.	Excessive error correction makes the learner focus on form rather than meaning which inhibits communication.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11.	Error correction should not be frequent because it can stand in the way of the way successful learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13.	Error correction should be minimized because it can raise the learner's level of anxiety and this can impede learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

S/No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
14.	A learner should be given enough time to correct himself. (self-correction).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15.	Grammatical errors should be corrected only in grammar lessons.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16.	Learners should be working on their own in class (with the teacher out of focus) as much as possible.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17.	The teacher is only a facilitator in class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18.	The teacher should use selected outside material to support his teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19.	The teacher should use pairs and sub-groups in his classroom teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20.	The teacher should use competitions in his classroom teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21.	The teacher should use audio-visual aids in his classroom teaching in conjunction with other array of aids.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22.	The teacher should use drama in his classroom teaching when appropriate.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23.	The teacher can use (L1) to correct learners' errors.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24.	The teacher should correct from errors in all activities of language.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25.	Frequent error correction should be avoided because it consumes a lot of class-time.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26.	The learner should be given enough time to internalize the new information before the teacher corrects him.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27.	Frequent error correction can raise the learner's level of anxiety and this impedes learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

S/No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
28.	Only errors that block comprehension in learner's composition writing should be corrected.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29.	Correction should be mainly concentrated on content errors in learners' composition writing.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30.	Pronunciation errors should be tolerated and let pass as long as comprehension is not blocked.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31.	Correction adversely affects learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32.	Only correct forms and appropriate content of the learner's production should be accepted in class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33.	Immediate correction by the teacher should occur every time an error is made.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34.	Allowing too much freedom for errors to go without correction and explicit instruction will lead to early fossilization of errors with learners.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35.	If a learner hesitates to produce a response, the teacher should immediately jump in to complete it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36.	It is important to correct every single error that occurs in class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37.	Any utterance that deviates from the accurate form (e.g. grammar, pronunciation, spelling) should be immediately corrected.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38.	The teacher should be strict on all types of errors with all levels; i.e. beginners, intermediate and advanced.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39.	Accuracy of form should be stressed when the teaching situation calls for that.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40.	Correction should be mainly concentrated on grammatical errors.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



S/No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
41.	From errors (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation & spelling) must be corrected in all activities of classroom teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42.	The textbook should be the main focus of the teacher in class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43.	The teacher should have full control of the classroom work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
44.	Grammar is the most important part of language learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
45.	There are teaching restrictions in Aramco ESL program that do not let me use my own way of teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
46.	There is a conflict between how I prefer to teach and how Aramco wants me to teach.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
47.	There is a lot of focus on linguistic accuracy in Aramco ESL program.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
48.	I am forced to concentrate on linguistic accuracy errors to prepare learners for the tests	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
49.	The textbooks that I use in class do not help me to focus on communicative fluency.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
50.	I am unable to focus on communicative fluency because of Aramco imposed ESL teaching techniques.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
51.	Aramco teacher trainers (i.e. senior teachers and principals) usually concentrate on linguistic accuracy in their classroom observation discussions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
52.	Using a lot of Arabic in class can impede communicative learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
53.	There isn't enough focus on oral communication in Aramco ESL programs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

S/No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
54.	Aramco teachers who concentrate on grammatical accuracy do not feel confident about their communicative fluency in classroom teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
55.	Using limited Arabic (L1) in teaching can be helpful.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
56.	It is necessary sometimes to use Arabic to clarify a teaching point.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
57.	Aramco would like learners' to be handled with emphasis on grammatical accuracy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
58.	Aramco teachers are required to concentrate on linguistic accuracy even with activities that should be taught in a communicative way.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Dear Colleague:

This page is for you to air out your concerns, suggestions or comments. Please feel free to do that and be sure whatever you write in this page and in all the other parts of this questionnaire will be treated with top confidentiality and will be used only for statistical purposes.

Thank you.

This image shows a full page of blank, lined paper. It features approximately 20 horizontal black lines spaced evenly across the page, typical of notebook paper. The lines are thin and consistent in thickness. There is no handwriting or other markings on the page.



## **Letter of SAATD Superintendent**

### **Appendix B**

#### **SOUTHERN AREA ACADEMIC TRAINING DIVISION**

Box 5280, Abqaiq  
Tel 572-6026; Fax 572-3940  
January 14, 2001

#### **ERROR CORRECTION QUESTIONNAIRE**

##### **ATD DIVISION HEADS**

Hasa ITC Senior teacher, N. H. Shahin is collecting data for his doctorate research on 'Error correction in ESL classrooms'. The attached questionnaire on 'Teacher's Attitude to Error correction in Second Language Classroom Interaction' is of crucial importance for his research. Your assistance to encourage teachers in your divisions to complete this questionnaire and return the package to the researcher before March 15, 2001, will be highly appreciated; N. H. Shahin can be contacted at his address: Hasa ITC, Box 6260, Telephone No. 577-1868.

**FAISAL A. AL-SHARIF,**  
Superintendent  
Southern Area Academic  
Training Division

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cc: Asst. Supt. (A), H/UATS  
Unit Heads, SAATD  
File

Tabulation of Responses of NSs to Teachers' Questionnaire

No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		#	#	#	#	#
1.	It's better to encourage learners to develop fluency before accuracy.	11	20	5	4	1
2.	A lot of the language learning will develop naturally out of the language use without focusing on errors.	11	26	1	3	0
3.	Errors should be tolerated in order to encourage learners to take risks to communicate in English	19	18	0	4	0
4.	Excessive error correction can have a strong negative effect on motivation.	16	24	1	0	0
5.	Excessive error correction makes the learner focus on form rather than meaning which inhibits communication.	8	25	6	2	0
6.	A learner should be given enough time to correct himself. (self-correction).	12	25	2	2	0
7.	The teacher should correct form errors in all activities of language.	0	11	2	23	6
8.	Grammatical errors should be corrected only in grammar lessons.	1	5	2	28	4
9.	Error correction should be limited to errors that block communication.	5	18	6	12	0
10.	Allowing too much freedom for errors to go without correction will lead to fossilization of errors with learners.	2	17	6	12	4
11.	The teacher can use L1 to correct learners' errors	17	16	4	3	1
12.	The teacher is only a facilitator in class.	5	15	4	15	2

No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		#	#	#	#	#
13.	There is a lot of focus on linguistic accuracy in Aramco ESL program.	6	26	2	3	4
14.	I am unable to focus on communicative fluency because of Aramco imposed ESL teaching techniques.	10	23	7	1	0
15.	Aramco teacher trainers (i.e. senior teachers and principals) usually concentrate on linguistic accuracy in their classroom observation discussions.	8	21	6	3	3
16.	There isn't enough focus on oral communication in Aramco ESL programs.	13	17	4	4	3
17.	Aramco teachers are required to concentrate on linguistic accuracy even with activities that should be taught in a communicative way.	12	21	3	3	2



**Appendix C**  
**(Part 2: %)**

**Tabulation of Percentages of Responses of NSs to Teachers' Questionnaire**  
**(All Percentages are rounded)**

No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		%	%	%	%	%
1.	It's better to encourage learners to develop fluency before accuracy.	27	42	12	10	2
2.	A lot of the language learning will develop naturally out of the language use without focusing on errors.	27	63	2	7	0
3.	Errors should be tolerated in order to encourage learners to take risks to communicate in English	46	44	0	10	0
4.	Excessive error correction can have a strong negative effect on motivation.	39	59	2	0	0
5.	Excessive error correction makes the learner focus on form rather than meaning which inhibits communication.	20	61	15	5	0
6.	A learner should be given enough time to correct himself. (self-correction).	29	61	5	5	0
7.	The teacher should correct form errors in all activities of language.	0	27	5	56	12
8.	Grammatical errors should be corrected only in grammar lessons.	2	12	5	68	10
9.	Error correction should be limited to errors that block communication.	12	44	15	29	0
10.	Allowing too much freedom for errors to go without correction will lead to fossilization of errors with learners.	5	41	15	29	10
11.	The teacher can use L1 to correct learners' errors	41	39	10	7	3
12.	The teacher is only a facilitator in class.	12	37	10	37	5

No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		%	%	%	%	%
13.	There is a lot of focus on linguistic accuracy in Aramco ESL program.	15	63	5	7	10
14.	I am unable to focus on communicative fluency because of Aramco imposed ESL teaching techniques.	24	56	17	3	0
15.	Aramco teacher trainers (i.e. senior teachers and principals) usually concentrate on linguistic accuracy in their classroom observation discussions.	20	51	15	7	7
16.	There isn't enough focus on oral communication in Aramco ESL programs.	32	41	10	10	7
17.	Aramco teachers are required to concentrate on linguistic accuracy even with activities that should be taught in a communicative way.	29	51	8	8	5

Tabulation of Responses of NNSs to Teachers' Questionnaire

No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		#	#	#	#	#
1.	It's better to encourage learners to develop fluency before accuracy.	17	20	0	8	1
2.	A lot of the language learning will develop naturally out of the language use without focusing on errors.	11	25	1	9	0
3.	Errors should be tolerated in order to encourage learners to take risks to communicate in English	15	27	1	2	1
4.	Excessive error correction can have a strong negative effect on motivation.	20	23	0	2	1
5.	Excessive error correction makes the learner focus on form rather than meaning which inhibits communication.	20	23	0	2	1
6.	A learner should be given enough time to correct himself. (self-correction).	23	22	1	0	0
7.	The teacher should correct form errors in all activities of language.	1	2	0	34	10
8.	Grammatical errors should be corrected only in grammar lessons.	0	14	1	26	6
9.	Error correction should be limited to errors that block communication.	12	21	2	10	1
10.	Allowing too much freedom for errors to go without correction will lead to fossilization of errors with learners.	11	23	4	6	2
11.	The teacher can use L1 to correct learners' errors	9	18	3	10	6
12.	The teacher is only a facilitator in class.	8	18	3	17	0



No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		#	#	#	#	#
13.	There is a lot of focus on linguistic accuracy in Aramco ESL program.	11	24	0	6	4
14.	I am unable to focus on communicative fluency because of Aramco imposed ESL teaching techniques.	12	21	2	10	1
15.	Aramco teacher trainers (i.e. senior teachers and principals) usually concentrate on linguistic accuracy in their classroom observation discussions.	9	28	0	4	5
16.	There isn't enough focus on oral communication in Aramco ESL programs.	10	28	0	4	4
17.	Aramco teachers are required to concentrate on linguistic accuracy even with activities that should be taught in a communicative way.	10	23	4	6	3

**Appendix D**  
**(Part 2: %)**

**Tabulation of percentages of Responses of NNSs to Teachers' Questionnaire**  
**(All percentages are rounded)**

No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		%	%	%	%	%
1.	It's better to encourage learners to develop fluency before accuracy.	37	43	0	17	2
2.	A lot of the language learning will develop naturally out of the language use without focusing on errors.	24	54	2	20	0
3.	Errors should be tolerated in order to encourage learners to take risks to communicate in English	33	59	2	4	2
4.	Excessive error correction can have a strong negative effect on motivation.	43	50	0	4	2
5.	Excessive error correction makes the learner focus on form rather than meaning which inhibits communication.	43	50	0	4	2
6.	A learner should be given enough time to correct himself. (self-correction).	50	48	2	0	0
7.	The teacher should correct form errors in all activities of language.	2	4	0	73	21
8.	Grammatical errors should be corrected only in grammar lessons.	0	30	2	56	12
9.	Error correction should be limited to errors that block communication.	26	46	4	22	2
10.	Allowing too much freedom for errors to go without correction will lead to fossilization of errors with learners.	24	50	9	13	2
11.	The teacher can use L1 to correct learners' errors	20	39	7	22	13
12.	The teacher is only a facilitator in class.	17	59	7	37	0

No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		%	%	%	%	%
13.	There is a lot of focus on linguistic accuracy in Aramco ESL program.	25	52	0	13	9
14.	I am unable to focus on communicative fluency because of Aramco imposed ESL teaching techniques.	26	46	4	22	2
15.	Aramco teacher trainers (i.e. senior teachers and principals) usually concentrate on linguistic accuracy in their classroom observation discussions.	20	60	0	9	10
16.	There isn't enough focus on oral communication in Aramco ESL programs.	22	61	0	9	9
17.	Aramco teachers are required to concentrate on linguistic accuracy even with activities that should be taught in a communicative way.	22	50	9	13	7



Appendix E

Educational Background of  
Participating Teachers

Questionnaire Number	Graduate Degree	Major	Post-graduate Degree	ESL Teaching Experience in Years	NS / NNS	Nationality
1	BA	Politics	Masters	8	NS	UK
2	BA	English		13	NNS	Jordanian
3	BA	English	Diploma	27	NNS	Sudanese
4	BA	English	MA	9	NS	UK
5	BA	English	Masters	26	NS	US
6	BA	English	Masters	17	NS	US
7	BA	Education	MA	25	NS	Canadian
8	BA	Arts	MS	18	NS	UK
9	BA	Chemistry	RSA	13	NS	UK
10	BA	English	MA	13	NS	US
11	BA	TEFL	MA	23	NS	US
12	BA	Education	MA	24	NS	Irish
13	BA	Education	MA	24	NS	US
14	BA	English	Diploma	17	NNS	Jordanian
15	BA	English	Diploma	11	NNS	Jordanian
16	BA	English	Masters	25	NNS	Jordanian
17	BA	Education	Masters	28	NNS	Lebanese
18	BA	Arts	Masters	7	NS	US
19	BA	English	TEFL	17	NNS	Iraq
20	BA	English	Diploma	27	NNS	Jordanian
21	BA	English	MA	21	NS	US
22	BA	English	MA	39	NS	US
23	BA	English		23	NS	US
24	BA	English	MA	32	NS	UK
25	BA	Arts	Diploma	26	NNS	Jordanian
26	BA	English		26	NNS	Jordanian
27	BA	English		6	NNS	Saudi
28	BA	English	Masters	30	NNS	Sudanese
29	BA	English		15	NNS	Jordanian
30	BA	Education	MA	24	NS	Irish
31	BA	English		20	NS	US
32	BA	English		23	NNS	Jordanian
33	BA	English		16	NNS	Jordanian
34	BSC	Science		16	NNS	Jordanian
35	BA	English	MA	30	NNS	Egyptian
36	BA	English	MA	24	NS	Canadian
37	BA	English		24	NNS	Sudanese
38	BA	English	Diploma	20	NNS	Jordanian
39	BA	English		25	NNS	Jordanian
40	BA	English		24	NS	UK
41	BA	English			NS	UK
42	BA	English	Diploma	34	NNS	Sudanese
43	BA	English		16	NS	UK
44	BA	English		17	NNS	Sudanese
45	BA	Science		16	NS	UK

Questionnaire Number	Graduate Degree	Major	Post-graduate Degree	ESL Teaching Experience in Years	NS / NNS	Nationality
46	BA	English	Diploma	29	NNS	Jordanian
47	BA	English	MA	12	NS	US
48	BA	Education	MA	21	NNS	Jordanian
49	BA	Politics	_____	15	NS	UK
50	BA	Journalism	Diploma	16	NS	Canadian
51	BA	English	Masters	24	NNS	Jordanian
52	BA	Education	_____	26	NNS	Jordanian
53	BA	Education	_____	26	NNS	Sudanese
54	BA	Education	_____	22	NNS	Sudanese
55	BSC	Education	_____	11	NS	US
56	BA	Education	_____	47	NNS	Sudanese
57	BA	English	_____	24	NNS	Jordanian
58	BA	TEFL	MA	_____	NS	Canadian
59	BA	English	_____	10	NS	US
60	BA	English	MA	22	NS	US
61	BA	Education	_____	21	NS	US
62	BA	English	Masters	28	NNS	Jordanian
63	BA	English	Masters	29	NNS	Jordanian
64	BA	English	_____	8	NNS	Jordanian
65	BA	Education	Diploma	29	NNS	Jordanian
66	BA	Education	_____	24	NNS	Turkish
67	BA	English	_____	25	NNS	Jordanian
68	BA	English	_____	31	NNS	Jordanian
S69	BA	English	_____	21	NNS	Sudanese
70	BA	English	_____	33	NNS	Sudanese
71	BA	English	_____	26	NNS	Sudanese
72	BA	General	_____	21	NS	UK
73	BA	English	_____	30	NS	UK
74	BA	English	_____	25	NNS	Jordanian
75	BA	Politic	_____	22	NNS	Sudanese
76	BA	Education	Diploma	37	NNS	Sudanese
77	BA	Latin American Studies	_____	14	NS	UK
78	BA	English	MA	4	NS	US
79	BA	English	_____	11	NNS	Egyptian
80	BA	English	_____	10	NS	US
81	BA	Education	MA	13	NS	US
82	BA	Education	Masters	33	NNS	Sudanese
83	BA	English	_____	5	NNS	Sudanese
84	BA	English	Masters	18	NS	Irish
85	BA	English	MA	7	NS	US
86	BA		Masters	10	NS	UK
87	BA	English	MA	17	NS	Canadian

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION SCHEME

**TEACHER’S ERROR CORRECTION BEHAVIOR IN SECOND LANGUAGE  
CLASSROOM INTERACTION**

**PARTICIPANT’S ORGANIZATION: ARAMCO TRANING DEPARTMENT  
ACADEMIC SECTION, ESL PROGRAM**

ITC Name: \_\_\_\_\_

ESL Course Level: \_\_\_\_\_

ESL Activity/modality being taught: \_\_\_\_\_

Date/Time: \_\_\_\_\_

Observer: \_\_\_\_\_

Visit # \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher’s country origin: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher’s Data of Birth: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher holds a degree in ESL/EFL teaching ☐ Yes ☐ No

Years of ESL teaching:

Before Aramco: \_\_\_\_\_

With Aramco: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher’s qualifications:

☐ Graduate Degree ☐ Post Graduate Degree ☐ Other Specify:

- Courses/Conferences  
Gatherings on ESL/EFL  
Teaching attended.
1. \_\_\_\_\_  
2. \_\_\_\_\_  
3. \_\_\_\_\_  
4. \_\_\_\_\_  
5. \_\_\_\_\_  
6. \_\_\_\_\_





Appendix G

Sample Letter of Class Observation Requests

AL-HASA INDUSTRIAL TRAINING CENTER

January 23.2001

NJY

I need to go into some classes to collect data for my research per the following schedule:

SL.#	TEACHER	DATES REVISED	PD.	TIME	LEVEL	RM	DATA TO BE COLLECTED	DURATION/ MNS.
1.	A. Ferguson	01/23	7	1:30	E5MG	A 109	Lesson audio- recording	50
2.	E.A. ElHarith	01/30	2	8:30	X2JA	C 110	Learner's Preferences (A questionnaire)	15
3.	S. Bamford	01/24	2	8:30	E3MB	A 103	Lesson audio- recording	15
4.	A. Ghariri	01/27	7	1:30	X2JA	C 110	Learner's preferences (A questionnaire)	50
5.	A. Ghariri	01/27	2	8:30	E5LF	A 105	Learner's preferences (A questionnaire)	15
6.	K. Matt	01/31	2	8:30	E5ME	A11 2	Learner's preferences (A questionnaire)	15
7.	M. Obaidallah	01/29	2	8:30	E3MA	A 104		15

Your cooperation is appreciated.

N.H. SHAHIN, Senior Teacher  
Al-Hasa Industrial Training Center

cc. Principal  
File

## Appendix H

### **2 Samples of Lesson Transcription**



# Transcript 1

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Teacher:	BM-- NS
Student's ESL level:	E4A (Intermediate)
Institution:	Hasa ITC
Date of observation:	02/25/2001
Lesson Specific objectives:	Making Suggestions and Giving Advice
Text:	Internal (Locally prepared BEP)
Duration:	48mns
Observer:	NH Shahin
Time of observation:	11:00-12:00

1. T: (Writes on the board)
2. T: Right okay. This lesson we're going to look at different ways of making suggestions and giving advice. What I'd like you to do first of all if you can just have a look at these vocabulary items. Okay, if you look at me and just tell me what the matter is. First of all what's my problem?  
(Teacher pretends to be sick and have a headache).  
(Teacher pretends: Oh my god...!)
3. S: (murmurs with unclear words)
4. T: Sorry, Fahad, Oh no, that's okay. I thought you said something. Um.  
What's the problem now?
5. S: Toothache
6. Tr: I've got a toothache. What about here?  
(Teacher points at his stomach)
7. S: Stomach
8. Tr: Stomachache, can you just repeat it after me?
9. T: Stomachache
10. Ss: (repeat) Stomachache
11. Tr: Okay. Um...next problem?  
(Teacher pretends to have a backache)
12. Ss: Backache
13. T: I've got a backache...aha...I feel I am going to be sick. I am going to vomit...
14. Ss: Nausia...
15. T: Nausia (correcting ss's pronunciation) Hashim, what is the ...? Can you remember the adjective from nausia?

16. S: Nau, nausiaons?!
17. T: (confirms and corrects) Nausious
18. T: Repeat after me...nausious
19. Ss: Nausious
20. T: Okay, the next problem is my head is spinning around. I feel unbalanced. I am...
21. Ss: Dizzy
22. T: I am dizzy. Rami, what is the noun from 'dizzy'?
23. S: Dizziness
24. Tr: (confirming) Dizziness. I'll just write it here. (Tr writes 'dizziness' on the board) Um. What am I doing now? (Tr. Snores)
25. S<sub>1</sub>: Snore
26. S<sub>2</sub>: Snore?
27. T: And what am I doing now. I am standing and I am...(Tr snores.)
28. S: Snore
29. T: Wadee (turning to a student for an appropriate response)
30. S: Snoring
31. T: (Confirming) I am snoring. I am snoring. (confirming the progressive form of 'snore')
32. T: Okay. I want you to give me some (a student interrupts: what about a rise in temperature?)
33. T: If I have a rise in temperature. If I feel very very hot. Can anyone tell me what the ...the problem is? If I have a high temperature?
34. S: Heatstroke?
35. T: Um...heatstroke you can have a high temperature, but....
36. S: Fever
37. T: I have a fever. Goodman, correct...a fever.  
(T writes 'fever' on the board)
38. T: Ok, I'd like somebody to give me some advice or a suggestion. Rami, I got a big problem. I got a terrible headache. I've got very very bad headache. Can you give me an advice or any suggestion at all?



39. S: I think you should take some aspirin.
40. T: Yeah. That's a good idea. I will. I'll take some aspirin. Um. Fahad, I've got another problem. I'm very very sick today. I feel nauseous. I think I'm going to vomit. I had something bad last night. I think I'm going to be sick. Can you give me any advice or make any suggestion.
41. S: I think you should a a...vomit a... to become better.
42. T: ah...you think I should vomit, but I can't vomit.
43. S: Put your finger...
44. T: Majed...(teacher turning to another student for a proper response)
45. S: Put your finger in your mouth.
46. T: Um. Put my finger...that's a good idea, good suggestion...a a...will I feel better?
47. S: Yes.
48. T: Okay, good suggestion. I will do it in a moment. (Smiling)
49. S: Do like this... (S. puts his finger in his mouth)
50. T: Okay. You don't need to show me.
51. T: Um. Hashim, I feel very very dizzy. Could you give me some advice? Could you give me any advice or make a suggestion?
52. S: If I were you, I would a... get some relax or go to the hospital.
53. T: Um. Can we say that again please?
54. S: If I were you, I would get some relax or ask somebody to take me to the hospital.
55. T: Okay. If I were you, I would. I would...
56. S: I'd... (S. correcting himself)
57. T: I'd (writes on the board) relax. Here, we're looking at the verb. The simple form of the verb. If I were you, I would.. I'd... So can you say that again. Hashim, I feel very dizzy. Give me some advice.
58. S: If I were you, I'd relax.
59. T: Okay, that's good idea. Hum hum
60. T: I've another problem. Um I snore too much. Ahmad...and my family are complaining, and driving them mad. They don't know what to do.

They want to throw me out of the house. I snore too much. Could you give me a suggestion or some advice?

61. S: Why don't um...why don't you go to a bed. (S. pronounces bed in an unclear way; [bid])
62. T: Excuse me?
63. S: Why don't you go to a bed?
64. T: Go to bed??
65. T: Um...okay, let's write it here. (T. writes)
66. T: I sleep. When I sleep I (T. snores) snore...and it's a problem for everyone. What should I do? Can anyone make a suggestion?
67. S: How about going to the hospital.
68. T: (not getting the message clear from student) Um. Sorry, I can't hear. I am very deaf. Could you speak up, please? (smiling)
69. S: How about going to the hospital?
70. T: (repeating student's sentence) How about going to the hospital..but that's not a good suggestion. I'll just write it down.  
(T. writes student's suggestion on the board)
71. T: How about going to the hospital. Um. I think you should...Who can fill in the blank here? I think you should...Wadee? (asking a student)
72. S: go to the hospital  
(Teacher writes suggestion on the board)
73. T: Okay, um. My last problem is. I've got a backache. I've got a backache... Okay... It's very very sore. Majid, could you give me some advice or make a suggestion?
74. S: If I were you, I would relax.
75. T: Okay. If I were you...
76. S: I... I would...
77. T: I would... let's contract it ...let's make a short form. I would (turning to students to provide the short form.)
78. S: I'd
79. T: (confirms) I'd. Give me the suggestion again.

80. S: u... If I were you, I would ...u... I'd  
(Teacher writes student's sentence)
81. T: um...I would... I'd... can you just repeat it after me? I would... I'd.
82. S: I would... I'd.
83. T: Okay, I've got a backache, can you give me some advice please.
84. S: u... I'd...
85. T: (correcting) If I were you...(waiting for student to complete)
86. S: If I were you, I'd relax.
87. T: Relax... Okay, that's a good suggestion... good idea.
88. T: My last problem is as you know I am a teacher and I've problems in my classroom, in the morning and the last thing during the day, some of my students, some of my trainees, they always sleep. They can't stay awake. Could any one give me a suggestion? I got very sleepy students. Fahad, you got your hand up...
89. S: If I were you, I'd send him to the supervisor and I write what is the problem.
90. T: Um, that's a good suggestion. That's a good idea. Any other ideas or suggestions? We've got a volunteer here. (T points at one student to answer)
91. S: I think you should...you should give them extra material.
92. T: Good idea, extra homework like punishment. Any more suggestion? Ahmad (T calls on another student)
93. S: I think you should go to the toilet and wash your face. (S. pronounces 'toilet' incorrectly)
94. T: (astonished) me?!
95. S: and wash my...
96. T: Think about it again and do you want me to send the student out...
97. S: and ... and chak chalk...
98. T: wash. (providing the correct verb)
99. S: wash his face
100. T: wash his face...good man



101. T: Last one. (calling on another student.) Hashim...
102. S: I think you should explain the lesson by funny way... (unclear word from student)
103. T: You think I should explain the lesson...
104. S: (interrupting) and you do that...
105. T: Okay, okay, good advice. I'll try to remember. Okay, that's fine. Thank you for the good advice. Right, okay, I am going to give you a handout. I'll just hand it out first (T. distributes handouts.)
106. T: (Calls on a student.) Fahad, if I were you, I'd listen carefully. How about listening? If you look here (T points at handout) we've got a dialogue between... who of the two people? (addressing question to students)
107. Ss: John... Allen
108. T: (Repeating students response) John and Allen. Okay, two gentlemen John and Allen. If you look at the word box here, (point at the handout) I'd like you to take one word from the box to try and complete the dialogue. So, let's just look at John. John says: 'what's the something...Allen?'
109. S: The matter...
110. T: The matter. What's the matter? What's the problem? I'll let you work through this quietly. I'll give you about two or three minutes to complete it.
- (Ss start working on their handouts)
- (Tr. Moves around checking on Ss's work)
- (Five minutes have passed)
111. T: (Calling on one of the students) Ahmad, have you finished? Okay...Okay, gentlemen, I'd like two volunteers. We've got volunteers here. John and Allen. Okay John and Allen, I'd like you (points at one student) to be him, please. If everyone listens, then you speak... speak up clearly, then we'll hear what the answers are. Okay, you can begin...
112. S<sub>1</sub>: (John) what's the mater, Allen?

113. S<sub>2</sub>: (Allen) Oh. Things are bad. John, first I have [troable] headache. (S. pronounced [terrible] as [trouble]) (Teacher does not correct)
114. S<sub>1</sub>: (John) If I were you, I'd take a panadol.
115. S<sub>2</sub>: (Allen) Thanks, but I also have a really bad toothache... (Student pronounces toothache as [tothik]).(Teacher does not correct)
116. S<sub>1</sub>: Why don't you go to the dentist?
117. S<sub>2</sub>: What should I do about my leg? I hurt it playing football...
118. S<sub>1</sub>: If you want my advice, you shouldn't go on playing. You should go home and rest.
119. S<sub>2</sub>: [a] good idea... but I left my case in my car and can't open it.
120. S<sub>1</sub>: I've got a good suggestion.
121. S<sub>2</sub>: oh, yeah?
122. S<sub>1</sub>: How about going to the hospital.
123. S<sub>2</sub>: The hospital? Why?
124. S<sub>1</sub>: to see if you can get a new face...  
(dialogue finished)
125. T: Okay, thank you gentlemen, well read, gentlemen. Okay, if we move on, you're going to listen to ... this is actually page 108. page a hundred and eight... in your working within which groups. And in this exercise we're going to hear a conversation. You listen to the conversation twice, don't panic... don't ask anything, just listen the second time...before we listen, I'd like you just to read through the questions to see that you understand them. So, if you just... I give you a minute to quietly read through the questions. Page one hundred and eight. Page a hundred and eight.
- (Ss read through the exercise)
- (Teacher plays the tape-recorder to run the listening exercise assigned to accompany the lesson)
- (Tape-recorder starts:
- Basic English Program.
- Working with English

Book one. Unit 5

Lesson 4. Exercise 2)

126. T: (teacher interrupts and stops tape-recorder) Okay, just before we listen, um... Ahmad, could you read number one please. Just read the question.
127. S: (reads) why did Ahmad drink some salty water?
128. T: Okay, salty? Salty water? What is it?
129. Ss: have salt...have salt.
130. T: Okay, will you still... at a time... any volunteers. (Calling on a student) any hands? Fahad...
131. S: opposite of fresh water.
132. T: (repeats student's response) opposite of fresh water.
133. S: You can drink it.
134. T: (Corrects confirming the negative form of 'can') You can't drink it. It's water and in the adjective salty.
135. S: It contains salt.
136. T: It contains salt (confirming student's response.) Correct, exactly Majed. The water contains salt. Why... why did you think you would drink salty water? Any ideas? Any suggestions?
137. S: If you have a heat sun (stork) (meaning sun or heat stroke)
138. T: If you have sun... (waiting for student to correct himself)
139. S: Stork...stork...stork...
140. T: Sun...stroke... (correcting student's response) You would drink salty water.
141. S<sub>1</sub>: [heetegzost], [heetegzost]
142. S<sub>2</sub>: Heat-exhasion (pronounces it correctly)
143. T: Excuse me... heat...(waiting for student to correct himself) exhaustion (confirming the correct pronunciation.) If you have heat-exhaustion... you need to get more salt into your body because...what happens to salt when you have heat-exhaustion? (addressing question to students.)
144. S: The salt?



145. T: Yes, what do you do? Remember this word...
146. S: (a student interrupts) we'll [sweet] a lot of [sweet].
147. T: Good, we [sweat] (correcting pronunciation of the word [sweat])... we lose the water... we lose the water and salt.
148. S: Because help you... help you vomit.
149. T: It could help you vomit...salty water?
150. S: Yes, sometimes.
151. T: (confirming) sometimes, Okay, we're not sure, we don't know what Ahmad's problem is. We can guess. Let's have a listen and see what his problem is. I'd like you just to write short answers. Okay? I don't want full sentences... short answer is fine. So, for example, why did Ahmad drink some salty water? Um...because he was nauseous. That's enough. Or he was naustions. Short answer. Okay, we'll begin.
152. S: Because he a heat-stroke...
153. T: Um, that could be an answer... shall we listen? Let's listen and see what his problem is.
- (T. plays the tape-recorder again)
- (Tape-recorder continues:
- Read the question, then listen to the tape. Write short answers to the questions.
- You'll hear the dialogues twice.
- Dialogue one:
- Hi, Ahmad, did you finish working in the garden?
  - Yes, I did, Sami. But it was very hot outside and now I feel dizzy
  - Why don't you drink some water with salt?
  - I've already have some.
  - You know, Ahmad, I really think you should see the doctor. I'll call him right now.
  - Okay, thanks Sami.
- (Students listen and write down answers from the dialogue they have listened to, to the questions they have in their textbook exercise that is compatible with the listening exercise.)

Dialogue two: (tape-recorder continues)

- I can't decide where to go on vacation, what do you suggest, Rashid?
- Well, Omar, how about going to Egypt? You can see the Pyramids.
- I was there two years ago. It was great, but I really think I'd like to try somewhere now. Maybe I will go to Northern Europe.
- If I were you, Omar, I'd go to Southern Spain. It's warmer there.
- That sounds like a good idea, Rashid.

Dialogue three:

- Saleh, I just did looking at the record you wrote. It's not very clear. If I were you, I'd do some work on it.
- But, Ali, you know how busy I am. I have to write four more letters this morning.
- I know, but this report is more important. I need it for the meeting tomorrow.
- If you want my advice, re-write the report now, and do the letters later.

Now, listen to the dialogue again.

(Tape-recorder repeats some dialogues for students to double-check their responses).

154. T: Okay, I'll give you a minute, some of you are still writing (noticing students still checking their answers.)

155. T: Right okay, Majid, could I ask you to read number one for me? Give me the answer if you got it.

156. S: because he is dizzy.

157. T: Could you possibly read the question please?

158. S: (reads) Why did Ahmad drink some salty water?

159. T: And the answer?

160. S: because he is ... he is dizzy.

161. T: Okay, he is dizzy. He's dizzy.

162. T: (turns to another student) Hashim, number two please.

163. S: (reads question #2) what is Sami going to do now? He's going to call a doctor.

164. T: (teacher writes answer on the board) Goodman, he's going to call...
165. S: the doctor or a doctor...
166. T: He's going to call the doctor, correct...
167. T: (T. turns to another student) Omar, number one, this is B
168. S: (reads) which place did Rahid first suggest for Omar to visit? Going to Egypt.
169. T: Okay, so, short answer...we can have one word written with a short answer.
170. S: Egypt.
171. T: (confirming) Egypt.
172. T: How do I spell Egypt? (Turning to the same student Omar) can you tell me?
173. S: Spelling?
174. T: How do I spell 'Egypt'?
175. S: E - y
176. T: (writes on board) E - y -
177. S: g - g
178. T: g
179. S: e
180. T: e
181. S: p - t
182. S: without 'e'
183. T: Okay
184. S: without 'e', drop it
185. T: Okay, let's drop 'e', you suggest?
186. S: change the 'ge' into 'gy'
187. T: (calls on a student) Rami, can you help me out here, I am confused from the beginning.
188. S: E - g - y - p - t
189. T: (writes) E - g - i - p - t
190. S: (corrects) E - g - y - p - t



191. T: Okay, let's come back to this. Your homework...what I give you for homework...I want you to check the spelling of 'Egypt'. I don't have any...Oh. I've forgotten to bring my dictionary, otherwise, I'll let you check. I'll let you get the answer, we'll move on anyway. Ahmad, you're checking, Okay. You come back to me in a minute. Let's move on. Number two. (T. turns to a student for an answer) Majid, number two please.
192. S: Why did Rashid suggest for Omar to go to Spain? Because the warm place.
193. T: (writes answer on the board) Yes, Goodman. It's a warm place.
194. T: Ahmad, can you tell me? Is it the correct spelling?  
(T. is checking on the correct spelling of the word 'Egypt'. Student checks it in the dictionary and tells him right)
195. T: It's the correct spelling. It is... Okay...thank you... So just spell it for me again. Ahmad.
196. S: e - g - y - p - t
197. T: Thank you
198. T: Okay, if we go to 'C', and the first are (turning to a student) Wadee, I'll ask you... Number one.
199. S: (reads) what was the wrong with the report? (Teacher ignored error i.e. using 'the' with adj)
200. T: (confirming) It wasn't very clear.  
(T. writes the answer on the board)
201. T: and the last one. Have we any volunteers? Any volunteers to do the last one.  
(turns to a students), Hashim, yes.
202. S: (reads question and answers) what advice did Ali give to Saleh?  
Re-writing the report, or re-write the report.
203. T: to re-write the report. (T. writes)
204. T: And what about the letters?
205. S: Do it later

206. T: Do the letters... later. (T. writes)
207. T: Okay, fine, well done. Okay, I'd like you just to listen carefully. This next exercise is just a speaking exercise. I am going to imagine that this isn't a classroom. It's a doctor's surgery. Okay, we're at the clinic. And we have student 'A' and student 'B'. Student 'A' is going to be as the doctor and student 'B' as the problem. They have a complaint or an illness or a sickness. What do we call people who have illnesses or sicknesses. They go to the clinic.
208. S: Patient
209. T: (confirming) Patient. So, doctors and patients. So, what we need to do is just an example. First of all let's imagine... this is my clinic and...
210. S: (a student interrupts) a nurse?
211. T: Sorry, I am a doctor. Let me just... you want a nurse. Let's just write my name here. (T. writes his name on a piece of paper and sticks it to his desk.) This is my surgery. In a second, I am going to give you out... I am going to get a patient. So patient (picking students as patients) patient... patient... patient. Doctor Majiad, Dr. Hashim, Dr. Ahmad, Dr. Rami, Dr. Fahad. So remember patients and doctors. Okay, just an example. Rami, would you please come up here. I know you're a doctor but you're going to imagine you're a patient.
212. T: I want you to read your problem and you are going to visit all the doctors in the classroom and the doctor is going to give you some advice. You need to listen to the doctor's advice and write it down. When you finish, you're going to go to the next doctor. Let's imagine I am the doctor, okay?
213. T: So, (T. assumes the role of a doctor, a student comes to his desk assuming the role of a patient) good morning, please have a seat. All right, yes, sir, let me see. I just need my form here. Yes, can I have your name first of all please.
214. S: (patient-student): my name is Rami
215. T: (as a doctor) Rami, could you spell that?

216. S: R - a - m - i,
217. T: R - e.
218. S: R - a.
219. T: R - a, 'a' for 'apple'?
220. T: Okay, yes, Mr. Rami, How can I help you?
221. S: Yes, doctor, I feel tired all the time. (reading from his index card)
222. T: you feel tired all the time. Um, okay, let me think. Have you been working hard of work?
223. S: No.
224. T: You haven't been working. Okay, what I need to do. Um... do you feel under stress at all? (Tr. Paraphrasing) Do you feel stress, under pressure?
225. S: Sometimes.
226. T: Sometimes. What I am going to do. I'll just send you to the nurse. She will check your blood pressure, but I think you should, actually, I think you should get permission from your supervisor for two weeks vacation... two weeks off duty. And if I were you, I would take two weeks off duty. How does that sound?
227. S: Very good.
228. T: Good idea, okay, I will show you to the nurse, and you will come back to me when you finish. Thank you. Okay, that's just the example. So, what we need to do... we need to organize the classroom. So, there's a doctor surgery. Where are all the doctors? I like all the doctors to stand up.
- (doctor-students stand up)
- (Teacher changes seating of classroom to create doctor's office for five doctors by the teacher)
229. T: (shouts) Patient, hands up patients. Patients, okay, I am going to give you the problem is on the card. What you need to do is to go to each of the doctors and the doctor is going to give you some advice. How many doctors?



230. Ss: Five

231. T: (confirming) five.

232. T: Okay, so patients, I'd like you to stand up.

(Tr. Advices patient-students of what to do and say)

(Tr. Walks around, monitors and gives advice)

(Tr. Explains roles to students)

(Students play the roles of doctors and patients)

(Buzzer goes off. Class-time is over)

## Transcript 2

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Teacher:	JC-- NS
Student's ESL level:	E4A (Intermediate)
Institution:	Abqaiq ITC
Date of observation:	05/27/2001
Lesson Specific objectives:	Vocabulary
Text: Internal	(Locally prepared BEP)
Duration:	47mns
Observer:	NH Shahin
Time of observation:	08:00-09:00

[Teacher checks students' attendance list]

1. T: Okay. Today we're on Unit #7... number one, and this will be on page number one hundred and forty-one. Okay, but first this is the senior teacher from Al-Hasa and I'm sorry I can't remember your name. (Sr. teacher's voice: Shahin) and he's just coming in here to watch the class today. All right, so let's go on and let's look at this vocabulary, and we'll have to be careful and know facts. I think these words are easy for you, but again if you have a problem with them, make sure you tell me because we are going fast. All right, the first word that we have up here... repeat this with me for pronunciation, repeat...  
(Teacher points at the word 'badge' on the board, pronounces the word and asks students to repeat after him. Students repeat 'badge' three times after the teacher)
2. T: Okay, now 'a badge', now listen to this, you have an ID card. Now, the ID card, you keep it in your pocket, but a badge is outside identification. A badge is something you wear outside. So everyone can see it, all right? Let's go ahead and read this quickly, okay. (Teacher turning to a student)  
Saeed, would you like to describe the word 'badge' please?
3. S: (reads from text) 'badge' something that you wear on your clothes to show people who you are, what you are or what company you work for. You are not allowed to enter into the computer building without your badge.
4. T: Okay, Jamal (turning to another student), with the badge, I keep the badge in my pocket or I wear it outside?
5. S: No, wear it outside...
6. T: Right, you wear it outside. Outside identification. Okay, let's go on to the next word over here. Repeat it with me.  
(Teacher pronounces the word 'code'. Students repeat three times)



7. T: Okay, Jamal, I know you know what 'code' is... tell me...
8. S: A 'code' it's mean... (student doesn't know)
9. T: Okay, no problem, no problem. It's like you would say a 'badge number'. 'A code' is ... right not a symbol, not a symbol.
10. S: A number
11. T: Not quite
12. S: A separate number of...
13. T: Right, it is number or identification numbers for identification, and Abdul-Aziz (turning to a student to apologize) I am sorry I didn't understand your word.
14. S: [sambol] (wrong pronunciation of 'symbol')
15. T: (correcting) [symbol], okay, that word is 'symbol'. Now I don't have time to explain this, right now but I will come back to you with this word 'symbol'. Okay, good, try 'obeid' but the code like 'Turky' said it is what? (addressing Turky; a student)
16. S: letters or numbers...
17. T: Okay, letters or numbers for identification. Okay, let's go ahead and read on that one. So, Faisal, (addressing a student) please take 'code'.
18. S<sub>1</sub>: (reads) 'code'... numbers or letters that are written that stand for a (inaudible) or department
19. S<sub>2</sub>: ..... (inaudible)
20. T: Right, for identification. That's it. Numbers or letters like Abdul-Aziz (a student) said that tells you something, and like Turky (another student) says for identification.
21. T: Okay, let's go on down to the next word over here (pointing at a word on the board) be careful with this above... (turning to a student to read the word)
22. S: (reads) community
23. T: Here you go, you got it... thank you... hold one second. Thank you...
24. T: Repeat the word with me...

(teacher pronounces the word three times and students repeat.)

Okay, let's go ahead and read on 'community'.

25. T: (calling on two students to read) Majid and Hussein (students) please...
26. S<sub>1</sub>: (reads) 'community', noun, people living in an area.
27. S<sub>2</sub>: (inaudible)
28. T: Right, so a community just means a place where people are living, no problems? Okay, let's go on down to the next word over here. This is going to be a little problem. Repeat it with me 'design' (student repeat three times)  
All right, now, 'design' you learned this in Book Three, but what you learnt in Book Three was the verb 'design'.
29. S: to [plain] (wrong pronunciation of [plæn] meaning to plan)
30. T: Okay, what is it?
31. S: [pla:n]
32. T: [pla:n], (not correcting pronunciation) okay, good, so design is the plan.  
It's your idea for doing something all right? So, give me a sentence with that...
33. S: Ali like...
34. T: Okay, wait a minute. Let's try with 'design'. Okay the verb. Give me the subject. Okay, no problem, stick with me on this, now... 'design' is the verb.  
So what we need here is: subject-verb and object.
35. S: The drawer designed...
36. T: Okay, you are good on that. You are good on that...um, now, on this one; just to make it easy. Give me: I, you, he, she, we, they...
37. S: He
38. T: He... Okay good, 'He' and the verb?
39. S: design
40. T: Good, (eliciting more information from student) good one with the 's' (meaning third person singular 's') Okay, looks good Tareg (name of student attempting the sentence) What...?
41. S: ...my room.

42. T: Okay, "He designs my room." (Tr. Writes student's sentence on the board.) Okay, excellent. So that means: 'He makes the plan', 'He has an idea', 'He makes the plan'. All right, now let's try to start here with the noun 'design'... okay, let's go ahead and read on 'design'. So, (turning to two students) Tariq and Bader please take 'design'.
43. S<sub>1</sub>: (reads) drawing idea etc. from which something can be made.
44. S<sub>2</sub>: (reads) Ali liked the design of the new book.
45. T: Okay, so, on this one over here, (pointing at the word 'design' on the board) when you say design, design... just to make this easy... a picture... it is a picture of a thing you want to make, all right? So, now watch this in order: First, I have an idea in my mind. I have an idea. Second, I make a design. I make a picture.  
(Tr. Draws a picture on the board)
46. T: Okay? So, a design is just a picture of my idea. You can't see my mind. You can't see inside my mind, but you can see my picture. You can see the design. So, a design is just a picture of my idea.  
(Teacher writes on the board)
47. T: no problem? Okay, I want to make a design of something. I have an idea. I make a picture of the thing I want to build. No problems? 'design' verb and noun. No problems? Okay, let's go ahead with the next one over here. Easy word, but keep this with me. It has three sounds.  
(Teacher pronounces a new word written on the board): facility  
(Students repeat three times)
48. T: All right, let's see what 'facility' is and see if we have any problems. Okay?  
(turning to two students)  
Abdul-Azizi and Turkey, please
49. S<sub>1</sub>: (Reads from text) facility, something or a place that is built for... (inaudible)...Saudi Aramco has provided the employees with many sport facilities.



50. T: Right, now, a facility, a facility that is just a room or a building where you can do special work. Okay, so... (turning to a student) Yousof, this school... is it a facility?
51. S: For study... for studying
52. T: Right... for study and for...?
53. S: for teaching
54. T: And we have a computer lab. Right?
55. S: Yes
56. T: Okay, so here we're doing English, Math and Computer. So, this is a ... (turning to student to provide information)
57. S: facility for...
58. T: Great, okay it is a facility.
59. S: (inaudible)
60. T: Oh, yes, yes, you're right on that okay, okay, right. This school ... It has ... two what's the word for important, Yousof?  
(Addressing the same student)
61. S: major (unclear)
62. T: sorry?
63. S: major (louder)
64. T: major, okay, good. So this school has two...
65. S: major
66. T: major facilities in it. Okay, it has the classroom for study, and it has the computer lab for practicing the computer. Okay, so those are two major facilities in the building. Now, facility, facility can be the building or the rooms in the building. No problem? Okay, so let's go again with the next one over here. Okay, on the next page. Okay, let me practice my Arabic on you. This next word over here is 'busma' (the Arabic word for finger print). Okay, let's go ahead and see what 'busma' is in English. Ali, please let's go ahead with that.
67. S: (reads from text) a fingerprint: what your finger makes when it touches

the surface of something. Some companies require employees to have their fingerprints taken.

68. T: Now, okay, let's try this side over here. Now, Ahmad, look at this, I am ...what's the verb? (T. touches the wall-clock)
69. S: touch
70. T: what's the verb?
71. S: touch
72. T: touch... I am touching... what? I am touching the clock. Now, watch this... I okay, I re-... I am not touching... I re-... (T. moves his hand from clock)
73. S: remove
74. T: I remove. There you go. I remove my finger. Right? Okay, now Ahmad, what is on the clock?
75. S: your fingerprint
76. T: Okay, my fingerprint is on the glass. No problem? Okay, so let's go ahead with the next word over here. Now repeat this with me:  
(Teacher pronounce the word 'organization' and students repeat three times)
77. T: All right, I know you know this. All right, (turning to a student) Ali, let's go ahead, Ali and Hibib (another student) please.
78. S<sub>1</sub>: (reads from text) organization: a group of people, countries etc. who are working together or (inaudible)...
79. S<sub>2</sub>: 'OPEC' stands for Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries.
80. T: That's it. Okay, so organization a group of people working together. That's all what it is. All right, let's go down to the next one over here, and we'll have to be careful, as this is a noun and a verb. Repeat it with me.  
(Teacher pronounces the word 'pin', and students repeat it three times after the teacher)  
Okay, let's go ahead and read what 'pin' means. (tuning to a student) Saeed...
81. S: (reads from text) Ali pinned the bottom of his short when it come off.

82. T: came off (correcting pronunciation)
83. T: Okay, now let's hold on with the noun. I have this paper. I must put this paper on the wall. I put it on the wall.  
(teacher pins the paper to the wall)  
What am I doing?
84. S: pin
85. T: You pin. I pin. What am I doing?
86. S: you pin...
87. T: You pin, right. You pin. You pin what?
88. S: the paper
89. T: where
90. S: the board
91. T: On the board. You pin the paper on the board. All right, you can fasten it attach it. Watch these two words here.  
(teacher writes: 'attach', 'fasten' on the board)  
Those three words are exactly the same, exactly the same. Watch this over here. Take the first word over here. I attach the paper to the wall. Okay, now, I...
92. S: fasten
93. T: ... fasten the paper to the wall. Okay, and (turning to a student) Jamal, I....
94. S: pinning
95. T: I pin the paper to the wall. Excellent. They are exactly the same thing: 'attach', 'fasten' and 'pin'. Now, let's go to the noun. Let's go the noun. Let's see, Okay, here's my (inaudible) in Arabic.  
(pointing at a pin in his hand and turning to a student for a response)  
Musa...
96. S: 'dabbous' (the Arabic word for 'pin')
97. T: Dabbous. Okay, okay, so give me some help Habib (turning to another student) what is this in Arabic?



98. S: 'dabbous'
99. T: 'dabbous', and in English it's a pin. Alright, thank you. Let's go again with the noun. Go ahead please.
100. S: (reads from text) I put the new papers of my work together with some office pins.
101. T: Great, okay, so I will do the same thing. I put the memo on the wall with a pin.
- (T. fixes a memo paper to the wall with a paper pin)
- Okay, let's try again the subject and the verb.  
(turning to a student) Ahmad, Let's try this Ahmad:  
(teacher writes: subject – verb –) okay, give me the subject...
102. S: I...
103. T: Okay, good... 'I...'
104. S: I pin...
105. T: So, 'I pin... I pin...' what?
106. S: the paper on the wall.
107. T: (writes student's sentence on the board) I pin the paper on the wall.
108. S: with a ... pin.
109. T: (writes) with a pin. Okay, there you have it. 'pin' is the verb, 'pin' is the noun. No problems? Okay, good enough. Let's go on to the next one. This is an easy one...easy one... Alright, repeat this with me...  
(Teacher pronounces the word 'valid' and students repeat three times after the teacher.)  
Alright, Ahmad, please read the meaning.
110. S: (reads from text) that can be accepted or used.
111. T: Okay, now 'valid'. This isn't exactly clear on this. When you say valid, valid what do you do to meaning to make it a little more clear. First word for valid.  
(Teacher writes: it is true)  
we can say it is true, alright? For example, watch this sentence over here.

Let's see...

(turning to a student) Faisal, give me a sentence about something that is true, or just give me true information...true information. No problem, no problem, give me information about it here.

112. S: The chair...

113. T: Okay, the chair is ... comfortable. Good. And what color is it?

114. S: ...and yellow.

115. T: Good, the chair is comfortable and yellow. (T. writes the full sentence on the board) Okay, let me sit down. Let me try that out. (T. sits on the chair to try it out) Yes, Faisal (student) you are right. This is a comfortable chair. Okay, and yes. You're correct. It's yellow. It is yellow. Okay, so, yes, it is comfortable. Yes it is yellow. Okay, Faisal, your sentence is valid. Your information is valid. It is true. It is true, alright? Now, let's try the second meaning for valid. That would be for the ID card, the ID card. Now, watch the ..... (unclear) here. Say, I have this card. We'll only put down the meaning (writes on the board) okay... correct date. Alright, now, let's take two identification cards. We have this one over here. (T. draws sketches of two identification cards on the board). Okay on the dates. On this, one over here. Let's look at the dates. If the date has got to go from let's say may 20<sup>th</sup> 2008. Alright, now, I am using this ID card and look at the dates May 20<sup>th</sup> 01, May 20<sup>th</sup> 08, Majid (turning to a student)

116. S: Valid for seven years.

117. T: Okay, it is valid for seven years. Alright, it's the correct dates. I can use it. I can use it. Now, let's look at this other ID card. Okay, now we'll say this goes over here from May 20<sup>th</sup> 97 and finishes May 20<sup>th</sup> 01. Now, look at this over here. On this one Majid...May 20<sup>th</sup> 97 to May 20<sup>th</sup> 01. This is a good card or not a good card?

118. S: Not good.

119. T: right. It's not good...why?
120. S: This is it not valid.
121. T: Okay, it's not valid. Here it finishes.
122. S: not use it.
123. T: Right, you can't use it. May 20<sup>th</sup> 01... Look at this it's May 27<sup>th</sup>. So this one is not valid. The date is not correct. It's finished. Right? So, here it's valid. Here the days are correct. It's not finished. Alright, let's go down to the last word here. Please repeat with me.
- (Teacher pronounces the last word on the list: blood type, students repeat three times after the teacher.)
- Okay, now with the word 'type'. Okay, (turning to a student) Hussein, what is another word for type?
124. S: Kind (low voice)
125. T: I'm sorry, I think you are correct, but I didn't hear you.
126. S: Kind (louder)
127. T: Kind. Right, blood type or the kind of blood. Alright, let's go ahead and read on that one. (turning to two students) So, Majid and Hussein, please take the blood type.
128. S: (reads) (inaudible)... if you want to know blood type, it is written on your ID card.
129. T: Great, okay, now, let me show you something a little bit extra. Okay, look at this meaning. It says any of several classes of blood. e.g. alright, wherever you see that word 'e.g.'
130. Ss: for example
131. T: There you go. e.g. just means 'for example', 'for example', okay, you know that already. Let's go on over to exercises one and two. Exercises one and two together, and then exercise number three a test by yourself, but first: Do you have any problems, any questions on the words?
132. Ss: No.
133. T: No problems, no questions. Okay, we'll start over here and let me see.



Let's do this part two. (turning to a student) Okay, Tariq, go ahead and read the sentence, (turning to another student) and then Bader, you give me the answer. Alright, just one second till we erase this board.

(T. erases and writes: Exercise number one on the board)

Okay, Tariq and Bader, please number one.

134. S: Code or organization number.

135. T: That's it. The organization code or the organization number, same thing, okay? Number one is the code. Let's go on to the next one. (turning to another two students) Abdil-Aziz and Turkey, number two...

136. S<sub>1</sub>: The shirts were all the same design, but the different colors.

137. T: Perfect. Okay? With the same design. Okay, good one... let's go down to the next one and we'll try number three, and Yousef, please number three.

138. S<sub>1</sub>: Jamal lives in the same community as his parents but at ... (unclear) he's away.

139. T: Now remember, be careful of this, be careful... I heard some say 'facility'. Facility is a place for what? (turning to a student) Yousof?

140. S: facility?

141. T: Aha, what am I doing?

142. S: ... anything for study or work.

143. T: Right, it's more for working, right? A facility is for work or like you say a special reason. Okay, Ahmad (turning to another student) a community. What is a community?

144. S: Group...group of people.

145. T: Well, wait a minute, now, a community is a place for living, just to make it easy.

146. S: a camp... like a camp?

147. T: Right, like a camp, is a community, a place for living? And this school, (turning to a student) Anwar, what is this school?

148. S: in Abqaiq.

149. T: I am sorry?

150. S: in Abqaiq
151. T: No problem, no problem, now, let's look at this. I'll put this up for you.  
(T. writes 'facility' and 'community' on the board) Okay, now a facility, a facility is what?
152. S: a place for living.
153. T: a place for living? No problem, just take a little while. Don't worry.  
(turning to a student) Habib, what is facility?
154. S: Facility is a building that have a facility with it.
155. T: Okay, you're close on this. You're close. Now let's break it down and organize this and make it easy. Now, first, a facility is a building. You know. That's the important thing to remember with a facility. It's a building and it's a building for work. Okay? It's a building usually for doing something special like the school facility, the hospital facility. Now watch this with community. The community is not a building. It is an area of land for what?
156. S: fro living
157. T: for living. Okay, it's an area for living. So, that's the main difference. Remember, a facility is going to be a building for working and a community is what? (turning to a student) Yousef...
158. S: any outplace for living
159. T: for living. That's right. Now, just think to make this one easy, the facility for working, community for living. That's an easy message to remember. Everybody, everybody uses these two. Facility working, community living. Okay, let's go ahead and try number three again. Yousof and Allan, let's go again.
160. T: (hearing noises) Hay, hay, excuse me, excuse me, hold it, hold it, start it again.
161. S: (reads from text) Jamal lives in the same community as his parents but a few streets away.
162. T: Okay, good enough. Now, the important word here is lives. So, that is lives. Let's go again to number four. (turning to two students) Ali and

Habib, let's do number four.

163. S: the facility is ... (unclear)

164. T: (interrupting) okay, now, tell you what, Ali, just read the sentence. Alright? You don't fill the correct word. Habib will give me the correct word.

165. S: The (space) in Los Angeles ... (unclear) costs many millions of dollars.

166. T: Right. The facility because this is for the Olympic Games. Alright, special place for people are working or playing games. Okay, so that is what is going to be facility. When you circle number three and four, make sure you check number three and four please. Okay. Now, let's go to number five. (turning to two students) Saeed and Jalal please.

167. S: Security employees in Aramco gates wear badge.

168. T: Right, because it's the employees. So that is 'badges'; the outside identification. Let's go on to the next one. Number six. (turning to two students) Anwar and Faisal please.

169. S: I bought a home for a good price in a nice community.

170. T: okay, now, community (turning to Faisal) watch here. Which one is for living?

171. S: community.

172. T: right, community, the one for living, the one for living. So, you buy the house in a community. Okay, that's number six... 'community' again. Let's go on to the next exercise (turning to two students) Majid and Hussein, number one.

173. S: (inaudible)

174. T: Now, put it in the past form.

175. S: (inaudible) pinned...

176. T: Okay, this is the verb in the past. This is how you do it in the past. 'pinned' 'attach' or 'attached'. Okay, let's go now to number, okay Tariq and Bader, please number two.

177. S<sub>1</sub>: ... you must carry a (space) passport



178. S<sub>2</sub>: valid
179. T: Right, okay, that one is valid. It has the correct information and the correct date. Okay, let's go now to number three. (turning to two students) Abdul-Aziz and Turkey, please.
180. S: (inaudible)
181. T: perfect. Okay, the important thing there is the word 'blood type'. Okay number four.  
(turning to two students) Yousof and Ahmad.
182. S: the thief left fingerprints on the wall when he touched it because his hands were dirty.
183. T: Okay, good. That is 'fingerprints', fingerprints. Let's go down to number five. (turning to two students) Ali and Fahad.
184. S: organization for geologists ...
185. T: Right, an organization for geologists. Okay, organization... a group of people working together. Let's go to number six. (turning to a student) Saeed, please number six.
186. S: (unclear)
187. T: Okay, good. Is that gong to be king or kings?
188. S: Kings
189. T: okay, that's good. Alright... let's go on down to number seven. (turning to a student) Faisal, number seven.
190. S<sub>1</sub>: Your driver license (student pronounces 'license as [listen]) has information about your --- in case you are injured in an accident. (T. does not correct pronunciation)
191. S<sub>2</sub>: blood type. (student pronounces blood type as [bludtype] (T. again does not correct pronunciation)
192. T: Okay, so number seven is 'blood type'. Okay, we only had one problem with these words. That was 'facility' and 'community'. Okay, so, Abdul-Aziz, what is a facility?
193. S: a building for working.

194. T: Okay, good enough. What is a community?
195. S: community is a place or area for living.
196. T: There you go. So facility is for working, community is for living. So, I don't believe we have any more problems on this. Now, what's up?
197. S: Number six.
198. T: Okay, number six. Now, let's say over here... the pants are too long. Alright, my pants are too long. I want them to make it short. Okay...so if I pick them up to here. Okay, now, look at that. They just fall again. So I must... I must fasten the pants. I must attach the pants with something. So, I pull the pants up to about here. Okay, and I must keep the pants in this place. What do I use?
199. S: the pins
200. T: the pins. I just put the pins through the pants and that will hold the pants.
201. S: Okay, I mean: he marked the correct length with a finger length.
202. T: (enquiring) okay. He worked the length with fingerprints?
203. S: No, finger length...
204. T: Right. He measured. Now that's what it is. Well, what you're doing when you say: 'marked' it's you can do it in two ways.
205. S: measure the correct length with a finger.
206. T: let's watch this, let's take this step by step. If I want to mark the pants, let's say I want to bring them up to here. Now, I can use this chalk, and then, right there, I mark, but now I know where to raise the pants. Let's say I don't have chalk, I'll just use a pin, move it up to here, then we just put the pin in the pants, and now, I know, I know where they should be. No problem?
207. S: No problem.
208. T: Now, there is a difference. If I measure first I measure... and I say worldwide up to here.
209. S: He makes it taller by one finger.
210. T: Okay, so he measures with the finger with the finger, he measures but

then with the chalk or the pin, he marks. No problem on that?

(turning to a student)

Sorry, I didn't follow you on that. The clerk? The clerk is a man who works in a store, to buy or sell anything. Faisal,

(turning to a sleeping student)

I need you to wake up. If you're tired, don't sleep in class. Alright, now the clerk is ...the clerk is a man who is working in a store, selling you something. The teller is the man who is working in the bank. Okay, no problem on that? Any other one that you have problem with? So, Abdul-Aziz, we're clear with 'measure' and 'mark'?

211. S: Yes

212. T: Okay, and Jalal, are well clear with 'clerk'?

213. S: Yes, okay.

214. T: Okay, so let's go with this next one over here. To exercise number three and on exercise number three, we have twelve sentences. So go ahead and work on those, if you have any problems, I'll come around and check. Okay?

215. S: Can I go to bathroom?

216. T: It is a little too late for that. It's the last ten minutes. I can't let you go.

217. S: I am finished, teacher.

218. T: Okay, I'll come and check.

(Students were still working individually on their assignment when the buzzer went off announcing end of class time)



## Appendix I

**Dear Student,**

This survey is meant to collect information about your learning preferences in English. The information you put into this survey will be confidential, as it will be used only for statistical purposes in an effort to improve our methods of teaching English to you.

Please write a cross mark in the box that best suits your choice:

S/No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.	Teacher should not correct me before I have enough time to internalize the lesson.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	A lot of error correction can have a negative effect on my motivation for learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	A lot of error correction makes me focus on correct form rather than meaning, which discourages me from speaking in English.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	Using audio-visual aids in class helps me to learn the language better.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	I would like the teacher to let me do some work on my own in class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	Teacher should correct only my errors that make comprehension very difficult.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	Dialogue and turn-taking lessons help me to learn the language better.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	Teacher should not correct every error I make in class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9.	Speaking the language is much more important than caring for accuracy of form (Grammar, pronunciation, spelling and vocabulary choice).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

S/No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
10.	Teaching small groups in class helps me to learn the language better.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11.	Teacher should take the time to get the correct response from me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12.	Teacher should correct only errors that make my writing very difficult to understand.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13.	Accuracy of form in my written English is extremely important. (grammar, spelling, and word choice).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14.	Correct grammar is the most important part in learning English for me .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15.	Speaking correct English is much more important than communicative fluency to me .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16.	Teacher should correct every error I make when I speak in English.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17.	Teacher should not let us work on our own in class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18.	Teacher should correct all types of errors that I make in my writing .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19.	Teacher should immediately correct my error in order to avoid fossilization .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20.	Teacher should always correct my form errors. (grammar, pronunciation ,spelling and word choice)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21.	Using a lot of (Arabic)in class is very helpful in learning English .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22.	Using little (Arabic) in class is very helpful in learning English.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23.	Using (Arabic) in class only when very necessary is helpful in learning English .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24.	(Arabic) should not be used in class at all.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Appendix J**  
**Part 1: Nos.**

**Tabulation of Students Responses to Questionnaire**

No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		#	#	#	#	#
1.	Fluency is much more important than accuracy of form.	56	45	5	40	13
2.	A lot of error correction can have a negative effect on my motivation.	22	45	7	56	29
3.	Teacher should immediately correct my errors to avoid fossilization.	53	77	12	11	6
4.	I would like the teacher to give me work to do on my own in class. (ie. The teacher as a facilitator).	65	71	6	14	3
5.	A lot of error correction can negatively affect my speaking skills.	22	61	14	45	17
6.	Teacher should help me to correct my self	52	56	6	32	13
7.	Teacher should always correct my form errors.	57	79	11	10	2
8.	Correctting grammar errors should be only in grammar lessons.	3	26	18	67	45
9.	Teacher should only correct my errors that make comperhension difficult.	53	35	14	44	13
10.	Using a lot of Arabic in class helps me to learn the language better.	16	22	9	57	55
11.	Using a little Arabic in class is very helpful in learning a language.	43	58	11	34	22
12.	Using Arabic in class only when very necessary is helpful.	54	43	18	30	14
13.	Arabic should not be used in class at all.	22	16	19	76	26



Tabulation of precentages of Students  
Responses to Questionnaire

(All precentages are rounded)

No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		%	%	%	%	%
1.	Fluency is much more important than accuracy of form.	35	28	3	25	8
2.	A lot of error correction can have a negative effect on my motivation.	14	28	4	35	18
3.	Teacher should immediately correct my errors to avoid fossilization.	33	48	8	7	4
4.	I would like the teacher to give me work to do on my own in class. (ie. The teacher as a facilitator).	41	45	4	8	2
5.	A lot of error correction can negatively affect my speaking skills.	14	38	8	28	11
6.	Teacher should help me to correct my self	33	35	4	20	8
7.	Teacher should always correct my form errors.	36	50	7	6	1
8.	Correctting grammar errors should be only in grammar lessons.	2	16	11	42	28
9.	Teacher should only correct my errors that make comperhension difficult.	22	33	8	28	8
10.	Using a lot of Arabic in class helps me to learn the language better.	10	14	6	36	35
11.	Using a little Arabic in class is very helpful in learning a language.	21	36	7	21	41
12.	Using Arabic in class only when very necessary is helpful.	34	27	11	19	8
13.	Arabic should not be used in class at all.	14	10	12	48	16

Group Statistics

Statement		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
St.1	NSs	41	3.8780	1.0049
	NNSs	46	3.9565	1.1344
Sr.2	NSs	41	4.0976	.7683
	NNSs	46	3.8261	1.0177
St.3	NSs	41	4.3659	.6617
	NNSs	46	4.1522	.8424
St.4	NSs	41	4.3659	.5365
	NNSs	46	4.2826	.8606
St.5	NSs	41	3.9512	.7400
	NNSs	46	4.2826	.8606
St.6	NSs	41	4.1707	.7383
	NNSs	46	4.4783	.5473
St.7	NSs	41	2.4390	1.0500
	NNSs	46	1.8913	.7064
St.7	NSs	41	2.2683	.8951
	NNSs	46	2.5000	1.0698
St.9	NSs	41	3.3902	1.0459
	NNSs	46	3.7609	1.1192
St.10	NSs	41	3.0244	1.1508
	NNSs	46	3.7174	1.1287
St.11	NSs	41	4.0976	1.0199
	NNSs	46	3.2391	1.4013
St.12	NSs	41	3.1707	1.2228
	NNSs	46	3.4348	1.1672
St.13	NSs	41	3.6585	1.1316
	NNSs	46	3.5870	1.3429
St.14	NSs	41	4.0244	.7241
	NNSs	46	3.7174	1.1482
St.15	NSs	41	3.6829	1.1054
	NNSs	46	3.6957	1.2087
St.16	NSs	41	3.8049	1.2087
	NNSs	46	3.7826	1.1530
St.17	NSs	41	3.9268	1.0581
	NNSs	46	3.6957	1.1522



## Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means	
		t	Sig. (2-tailed)
St.1	Equal variances assumed	-.340	.735
St.2	Equal variances assumed	1.391	.168
St.3	Equal variances assumed	1.304	.196
St.4	Equal variances assumed	.534	.595
St.5	Equal variances assumed	-1.914	.059
St.6	Equal variances assumed	-2.222	.029
St.7	Equal variances assumed	2.882	.005
St.8	Equal variances assumed	-1.088	.280
St.9	Equal variances assumed	-1.590	.116
St.10	Equal variances assumed	-2.832	.006
St.11	Equal variances assumed	3.232	.002
St.12	Equal variances assumed	-1.030	.306
St.13	Equal variances assumed	.267	.790
St.14	Equal variances assumed	1.471	.145
St.15	Equal variances assumed	-.051	.959
St.16	Equal variances assumed	.088	.930
St.17	Equal variances assumed	.971	.334

### T-Test



### Group Statistics

RESPONSE		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
St.1	teacher	87	3.9195	1.0699
	student	159	3.5723	1.3983
St.2	teacher	87	4.3218	.7233
	student	159	2.8428	1.3804
St.3	teacher	87	3.3908	1.1848
	student	159	4.0063	1.0157
St.4	teacher	87	3.3103	1.1941
	student	159	4.1258	.9920
St.5	teacher	87	4.1264	.8185
	student	159	3.1698	1.2789
St.6	teacher	87	4.3333	.6589
	student	159	3.6352	1.3474
St.7	teacher	87	2.1494	.9217
	student	159	4.1258	.8841
St.8	teacher	87	2.3908	.9925
	student	159	2.2138	1.0871
St.9	teacher	87	3.5862	1.0949
	student	159	3.4403	1.4124

### Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means	
		T	Sig. (2-tailed)
St.1	Equal variances assumed	2.015	.045
St.2	Equal variances assumed	9.313	.000
St.3	Equal variances assumed	-4.280	.000
St.4	Equal variances assumed	-5.728	.000
St.5	Equal variances assumed	6.303	.000
St.6	Equal variances assumed	4.542	.000
St.7	Equal variances assumed	-16.513	.000
St.8	Equal variances assumed	1.258	.210
St.9	Equal variances assumed	.836	.404

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