

The treatment of oral errors in English second language
classrooms

by

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1	Statement of the problem.....	1
1.2	Purpose of this study.....	3
1.3	Method of research.....	4
1.4	Programme of study.....	5

CHAPTER 2: THE SIGNIFICANCE OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ORAL ERRORS

2.1	Introduction.....	7
2.2	Oral errors: First and second languages.....	8
2.3	Oral errors vs correct utterances.....	10
2.4	The system involved in second language learners' errors.....	11
2.5	Who is interested in second language learners' oral errors?.....	14
2.6	Conclusion.....	14

CHAPTER 3: THE NATURE AND CAUSES OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ERRORS

3.1	Introduction.....	16
3.2	The nature of second language learners' oral errors.....	16
3.2.1	Definitions of interlanguage.....	17
3.2.2	The dynamic nature of interlanguage.....	18
3.2.3	The permeable nature of interlanguage.....	19
3.2.4	The systematic nature of interlanguage.....	19
3.2.5	Chomsky's competence-performance distinction.....	20

3.2.6	The variability of second language learners' errors.....	21
3.2.7	Interlanguage may fossilize.....	24
3.3	The causes of second language learners' oral errors.....	26
3.3.1	The mother tongue and second language learners' errors.....	26
3.3.1.1	Transfer.....	26
3.3.1.2	Interference.....	28
3.3.1.3	Translation.....	31
3.3.2	Overgeneralization.....	31
3.3.3	Incomplete application of rules.....	34
3.3.4	Developmental processing.....	35
3.3.5	Naturalness factors.....	36
3.3.6	Difficulty.....	37
3.3.7	Material-induced errors.....	38
3.3.8	Error as a part of language creativity.....	39
3.3.9	Other causes of second language learners' errors.....	39
3.4	Conclusion.....	40

CHAPTER 4: THE TREATMENT OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ORAL ERRORS

4.1	Introduction.....	41
4.2	Terminology.....	42
4.2.1	Reaction.....	42
4.2.2	Cure/Correction.....	42
4.2.3	Repair.....	43
4.2.4	Feedback.....	44

4.2.5	Remedial work.....	44
4.2.6	Treatment.....	45
4.3	Issues in oral error treatment.....	45
4.3.1	What is considered to be an error?.....	45
4.3.2	Oral vs written errors.....	47
4.3.3	Should errors be treated?.....	49
4.3.4	The focus of error treatment: Accuracy vs fluency.....	52
4.3.5	Does error treatment help?.....	54
4.3.6	What are the aims of oral error treatment?..	58
4.3.7	When should oral errors be treated?.....	60
4.3.8	Who should treat oral errors?.....	62
4.3.9	How should oral errors be treated?.....	66
4.4	Conclusion.....	68

CHAPTER 5: THE TREATMENT OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ORAL ERRORS: A PROPOSED FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSIS

5.1	Introduction.....	70
5.2	Different frameworks for the classification of errors.....	70
5.2.1	Etherton (1977).....	71
5.2.2	Hudson (1971).....	73
5.2.3	Chun et al. (1982).....	75
5.2.4	A critique of the frameworks.....	77
5.3	Frameworks indicating the person who treats the error.....	80
5.3.1	Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977).....	80

5.3.2	Long's model of the decision-making process prior to the teacher feedback move (1977).....	82
5.3.3	A critique of the frameworks.....	83
5.4	Frameworks for the distinction of different types of error treatment.....	84
5.4.1	Bruton and Samuda (1980).....	84
5.4.2	Fanselow (1977).....	86
5.4.3	Chaudron (1977).....	88
5.4.4	A critique of the frameworks.....	93
5.5	A proposed framework.....	95
5.6	Summary.....	96
5.6.1	Category of error.....	97
5.6.2	By whom are errors treated?.....	98
5.6.3	Category of error treatment.....	98
5.7	An example.....	99
5.8	Conclusion.....	99

CHAPTER 6: THE METHOD OF RESEARCH

6.1	Introduction.....	101
6.2	Study population.....	101
6.3	Data collection procedures.....	102
6.4	Instrumentation.....	104
6.5	Analysis.....	104
6.6	Conclusion.....	105

CHAPTER 7: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

7.1 Introduction.....106

7.2 Results of the study.....106

 7.2.1 Categories of error.....107

 7.2.2 Error treatment.....109

 7.2.2.1 Categories of error treatment.....109

 7.2.2.2 Initiation and treatment.....112

 7.2.2.2.1 Initiation.....113

 7.2.2.2.2 Treatment.....113

7.3 Discussion.....114

 7.3.1 Categories of oral errors treated.....115

 7.3.2 Categories of oral errors untreated.....116

 7.3.3 Categories of error treatment used.....117

 7.3.3.1 Accuracy and fluency related to error treatment.....118

 7.3.3.2 By whom were errors initiated and treated?.....119

7.4 Conclusion.....120

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

8.1 Conclusion.....121

8.2 Recommendations for future research.....125

BIBLIOGRAPHY.....128

APPENDIX.....136

LIST OF DIAGRAMS

<u>DIAGRAM 1:</u>	The significance of learners' oral errors.....	13
<u>DIAGRAM 2:</u>	Interlanguage as a dialect of both L1 and L2.....	17
<u>DIAGRAM 3:</u>	Types of variability in language learner language.....	22
<u>DIAGRAM 4:</u>	The interlanguage continuum.....	23
<u>DIAGRAM 5:</u>	Error treatment by learners and its outcome...	65
<u>DIAGRAM 6:</u>	Long's model of the decision-making process prior to the teacher feedback move.....	69

LIST OF FIGURES

<u>FIGURE 1:</u>	An example of teaching materials which may induce errors.....	38
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LIST OF TABLES

<u>TABLE 1:</u>	The overregularization errors observed in the verbal production of L2 learners.....	33
<u>TABLE 2:</u>	Etherton's classification of errors based on the "pre-selected category" approach.....	72
<u>TABLE 3:</u>	Hudson's classification of errors based on the "error-determined category" approach.....	73
<u>TABLE 4:</u>	The treatment of overlapping deviations according to the "error-determined category" approach.....	75
<u>TABLE 5:</u>	Chun et al.'s (1982) categories of error.....	76
<u>TABLE 6:</u>	Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977).....	81
<u>TABLE 7:</u>	Bruton and Samuda's (1980) different types of error treatment.....	85

<u>TABLE 8:</u>	Fanselow's (1977) types of treatment of errors.....	86
<u>TABLE 9:</u>	Chaudron's (1977) features and types of corrective reactions in the model of discourse.....	89
<u>TABLE 10:</u>	Number of errors committed by the learners....	107
<u>TABLE 11:</u>	Number of corrective reactions.....	110
<u>TABLE 12:</u>	Categories of errors not treated.....	111
<u>TABLE 13:</u>	Delayed treatment.....	113
<u>TABLE 14:</u>	The number of times error treatment was initiated by teachers or pupils.....	113
<u>TABLE 15:</u>	The number of times errors were treated by teachers or pupils.....	114
<u>TABLE 16:</u>	The number of errors not treated.....	117
<u>TABLE 17:</u>	Accuracy and fluency in the analysed lessons.....	118
<u>TABLE 18:</u>	The number of errors in fluency- and accuracy- oriented lessons.....	119

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Van Els et al. (1984:262) state the following about the occurrence of errors in second language acquisition: "Like sin, error is to be avoided and its influence overcome, but its presence is to be expected".

This quotation reflects the problem of many an English teacher, seeing that errors cannot be avoided and the teacher has to deal with them. Such errors should not affect the process of oral communication, which is "a two-way process between speaker and listener (or listeners) involving the productive skill of speaking and the receptive skill of understanding (or listening with understanding)" (Dreyer, 1992:1). According to Dreyer (ibid.) the message conveyed by the speaker has to be in appropriate language, but it is often combined with prosaic features, incomplete and sometimes ungrammatical utterances as well as frequent false starts and repetition. These are oral errors which the teacher has to treat in order to increase comprehension on the part of the listener. However, the teacher doesn't always know when and how to do this and he or she is left with the problem of how to establish a balance between accuracy and fluency.

According to Bruton and Samuda (1980:50) the necessity for the correction of oral errors is due to the fact that "heavy communication demands may be made on the second language, forcing the learner to mould whatever he has of the second language into a means of saying what he wants to say or getting done what he wants to get done". Errors left untreated by the teacher may thus lead to misunderstanding in a situation where the target language is employed for communicative means and the error may become acceptable to the pupils purely because of its frequent incorrect repetition.

However, according to Allwright and Bailey (1991:99) some teachers do not treat all the errors that do occur in the classroom. Although there is a wide variety of techniques available for the treatment of errors, teachers fail to employ them.

Moreover, McArthur (1983:106) alleges that the teacher ought to guard against constantly stopping and checking spoken work. This attitude of error tolerance is also reflected by the supporters of the communicative approach. They maintain that a teacher employing this form of error treatment is strongly signalling to the learner that he or she is regarded as a failure. However, McArthur (ibid.) also states that constantly avoiding any criticism may lead to a too relaxed approach.

The latter may lead a learner to believe that anything put together is feasible as long as some sense emerges. According to Allwright and Bailey (1991:107) the ideal is to allow time and opportunity in classrooms for self-repair, whether it is self- or other-initiated.

The questions arising from Allwright and Bailey's conclusion (1991:99) are:

- Are all errors in second language acquisition corrected in a typical Afrikaans-medium school? If not, which errors do teachers correct?
- How do teachers correct the errors committed by learners?
- If teachers do not correct errors, are those errors left untreated or are they noticed and finally corrected by somebody other than the teacher?

1.2 PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

The aims of this study are:

- to determine whether oral errors in second language acquisition are corrected.
- to determine which type of oral errors are treated by teachers.
- to determine which techniques are most popular among teachers to treat the oral errors made by learners.

- to determine the degree to which errors are corrected by learners themselves or by fellow-learners.
- to make recommendations for the treatment of oral errors in class.

1.3 METHOD OF RESEARCH

Relevant literature on second language acquisition and classroom observation, with particular reference to error treatment and error analysis, will be consulted. The lessons of teachers and learners of ESL in Std. 7 at an Afrikaans-medium girls school on the East Rand will be analysed. Six classes, consisting of not more than thirty pupils per class, and two teachers will be involved. This survey will cover at least ten periods.

Examples of the speech produced by teachers and pupils will be collected by the researcher primarily by means of tape recordings and a paper-and-pen method. The focus of this research will be on the spoken discourse that occurs between the teacher and the pupils, as well as between the pupils.

A framework for analysis based on Chaudron's (1977) types and features of corrective reactions, the categories of errors distinguished by Etherton (1977) and Hudson (1971) and Schegloff et al.'s (1977) repair framework will be used. The analysis will be conducted by means of the frequency of the types of oral errors, the corrective reactions of the teachers, as well as the frequency of peer correction.

1.4 PROGRAMME OF STUDY

In chapter 2 the relationship between oral errors in the first and second languages is discussed in order to determine the significance of second language learners' oral errors. An explanation of why oral errors in the second language are more significant than correct utterances is considered and the parties who may benefit from a study of such errors are determined.

In chapter 3 the focus is on the nature and various causes of second language learners' errors. The term "interlanguage" is explained and major features of interlanguage are discussed. Various factors causing learners of a second language to commit oral errors are studied in this chapter.

In chapter 4 literature dealing with the different aspects concerning the treatment of second language learners' oral errors, for example, whether such errors ought to be treated or ignored, when treatment should commence or who should treat these errors, is reviewed.

In chapter 5 various frameworks that have been used to analyse oral errors are discussed and analysed. Following this, a framework is proposed for use in this study.

Chapter 6 deals with the method of research and explains how the the analysis will be conducted.

The results of the empirical investigation are discussed in chapter 7.

Chapter 8 contains a brief conclusion and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ERRORS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Although "their presence is to be expected" (Van Els et al, 1984:262), teachers often tend to dismiss oral errors committed by learners of English as a Second Language (ESL) as a matter of no particular importance (Corder, 1981:4). Many teachers regard an error as something to be avoided, with the result that error prevention has become a main objective in teaching ESL.

However, errors have a significant role in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), as they are an integral part of learning (Fanselow, 1977:591). This chapter will illuminate the fact that errors are not only inevitable in the process of acquiring both the first language (L1) and the second language (L2), but they are also useful in the ESL classroom. The function of second language learners' oral errors will therefore also be discussed.

A key issue in research on SLA has been the extent to which the acquisition of L1 and L2 involves similar or different processes (Ellis, 1985:5). Although the effect of the mother tongue as a probable cause of oral errors in ESL classrooms will be discussed in chapter 3, the significance of concurrences between oral errors in L1 and L2 will be dealt with in this chapter.

2.2 ORAL ERRORS: FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGES

Investigations into the L2 = L1 hypothesis have resulted in the conclusion that language-learner language contains errors, regardless of whether the learner is attempting to acquire L1 or L2 (Ellis, 1985:9). In order to determine the significance of oral errors in L2, their significance in L1 must be highlighted.

Corder (1981:8) states that the following utterance produced by a two-year old child is rarely regarded as an error: "This mummy chair". Instead of regarding it as incorrect or faulty, it is treated as "normal childlike communication which provides evidence of the state of his linguistic development at that moment" (Corder, *ibid.*). In other words, this utterance, which does not adhere to the grammatical rules of that particular language and is therefore "incorrect", is an error which indicates that this child is in the process of acquiring his

or her mother tongue. The significance of such an error is that it reflects the child's knowledge of the target language and his or her particular point of development. In other words, the errors of a L2 learner may not only provide teachers and researchers with evidence of the learner's progress towards L2 proficiency, but also give an indication of what remains to be learnt.

Keeping this function of oral errors in mind, the teacher may distinguish between "good" and "bad" errors (Kilfoil and Van der Walt, 1989:31), for example, I **putted** the books away. Although obviously grammatically incorrect, such an utterance indicates that the learner has mastered the rule for the most common formation of the past tense, which is the suffix **-ed** added to the end of most verbs. A teacher ignoring this when uttered by a beginner, has acknowledged a "good error", while, coming from a more advanced pupil, such an utterance will be regarded as a "bad" error and will subsequently have to be corrected (Kilfoil and Van der Walt, *ibid.*).

However, the following question may be raised: Shouldn't one look out for correct utterances instead of oral errors to determine the child's knowledge at that particular point in its development? This question is dealt with next.

2.3 ORAL ERRORS VS CORRECT UTTERANCES

According to Brown and Frazer (1964:24) the occurrence of errors in the child's utterances provides evidence that the child possesses construction rules of that particular language. Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1989:62) explain this by means of the same example used in the previous section: I **putted** the books away. This utterance proves that the learner knows how to form the past tense using the most common rule to do so.

Although a grammatically correct utterance, I **put** the books away, may also demonstrate that the learner has acquired a rule successfully, Corder (1981:8) points out that grammatically correct utterances can be the result of repeated input, exactly as it was heard by the child. As the researcher can seldom determine precisely the input to which the child has been exposed, the possibility of repetition cannot be ruled out.

Corder (1981:8) hypothesizes that the learner has to reduce the input to a simpler system in order to facilitate SLA. Mere repetition of input has no purpose. The learner has to analyse it and then use it to build up knowledge of the target language (cf. section 3.3.2 and section 3.3.4).

2.4 THE SYSTEM INVOLVED IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ERRORS

An important aspect of the significance of a learner's oral errors concerns the system mentioned in the previous paragraph. The errors made by the learner sustain evidence that he or she is applying his or her own system of rules, the "built-in syllabus of the language learner" (Stern, 1983:354), which is not the adult system of the target language and therefore not yet the correct system (cf. section 3.2.4). According to Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1989:31) this system of rules is "fairly arbitrary and rough", but nevertheless a system in its own right (Selinker, 1972:219), which, by means of continuous contact with the target language, undergoes refinement until it corresponds with the real, native system of the target language. Selinker (ibid.) refers to the system of developing learner language as "interlanguage", a concept to be discussed in section 3.2.1, when the nature of second language learners' errors will be investigated.

Up to now this chapter has been devoted to the fact that oral L2 errors are important, as committing errors is a sign of learning. Howatt (1984:285) describes the study of such errors as a justifiable, indispensable preliminary in order to formulate a theory of SLA. Since oral errors carry information concerning the acquisition of the L2, one may now ask to whom this information is important. Who is interested in the significance of L2 learners' errors?

2.5 WHO IS INTERESTED IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ORAL ERRORS?

One may illustrate the significance of learners' oral L2 errors by means of the triangle in Diagram 1, of which all three corners are indispensable. Each corner represents a person for whom such errors bear significance, seeing that these errors provide answers to certain questions.

According to the information in Diagram 1, it is evident that learners' errors do not only provide the teacher and researcher with information about SLA, but also the learner himself. SLA could thus be enhanced if the learner himself became more aware of the "success in elevating the status of errors from undesirability to that of a guide to the inner workings of the language learning process" (Ellis, 1985:53).

Diagram 1 leads one to conclude that oral L2 learners' errors do in fact offer the ESL teacher an aid which can be applied to improve SLA, but the question whether error correction enables the teacher to achieve that goal, is discussed in chapter 4.

2.6 CONCLUSION

An attempt was made in this chapter to underline the significance of second language learners' oral errors within the process of SLA and to identify those who may benefit from a study of such errors.

Oral errors occur not only during the acquisition of the mother tongue, but also during the process of SLA. These errors indicate stages in the process of learning, a purpose which correct utterances cannot fulfil. The occurrence of oral errors is also proof that L2 learners employ construction rules and systems created by themselves for themselves, not only enabling researchers and teachers to determine the devices used as aids in the process of SLA, but also informing learners about the validity of their assumptions concerning the target language.

Rather than seeing errors as forms to be avoided and prevented at all costs, Brumfit (1980:115) views them as useful and he concludes by saying that his words don't reflect a wish for the persistence of learners' errors. Instead, he wishes to promote

sensitive teaching strategies and adaptable methodology, seeing that it is of cardinal importance that teachers of English as a L2 should be aware of how to employ their learners' errors positively as an instrument and aid in SLA.

CHAPTER 3

THE NATURE AND CAUSES OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ERRORS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter emphasized the fact that teachers of ESL ought to realize the significance of oral errors and, instead of concentrating on error prevention, rather focus on the utilization of such errors as a means to reach L2 proficiency or near-proficiency. In order to be able to utilize the learners' errors in the process of SLA, a basic knowledge of error analysis is necessary. Therefore, the teacher should be familiar with the nature of those oral errors, while knowledge of what causes learners to commit oral errors when using the L2 will also assist the teacher in accomplishing this feat. The nature and causes of second language learners' oral errors will be discussed in this chapter.

3.2 THE NATURE OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ORAL ERRORS

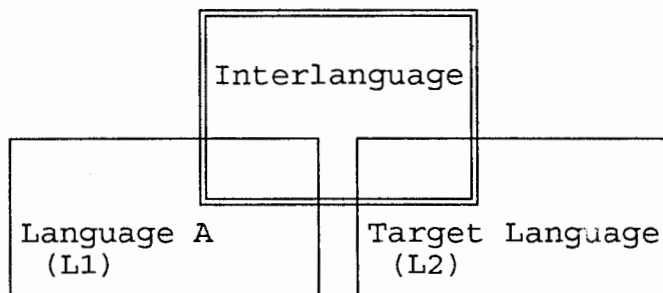
In the past, teachers often regarded the L2 learners' usage of English as "wrong" or "bad" English owing to the number of errors they committed. Therefore, errors had to be avoided and eliminated. Teachers didn't bother to pay any attention to the characteristics of learner languages (Stern, 1983:125).

However, this attitude has changed and many researchers have constructed theories about the nature of interlanguage, a term which will be defined and explained, after which a discussion of the various characteristics of the L2 learners' language will follow.

3.2.1 DEFINITIONS OF INTERLANGUAGE

The father of the term 'interlanguage' is Selinker (1972:219). Corder (1981:17) defines interlanguage as a "dialect whose rules share characteristics of two social dialects of languages, whether these languages themselves share rules or not". Ellis (1985:299) describes interlanguage as "the series of interlocking systems which characterize acquisition". Diagram 2 illustrates both Corder's and Ellis's definition of interlanguage.

DIAGRAM 2: INTERLANGUAGE AS A DIALECT OF BOTH L1 AND L2



(Corder, 1981:17)

According to Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1989:242) interlanguage is the learner's version of the L2. It is characterized by systematic errors, poor vocabulary and hesitant speech, which can be seen as characteristic of certain stages of the language-learning process (Roos, 1990:21). Stern (1983:399) describes interlanguage as the learner's best interpretation of L2.

3.2.2 THE DYNAMIC NATURE OF INTERLANGUAGE

As the learner is constantly exposed to new rules and structures of the L2, his interlanguage is constantly changing (Ellis, 1985:50). This constant exposure and gradual change, instead of immediate processing of data, is the basis of Corder's (1981:27) explanation of learners' language and its dynamic nature. He stresses that it is impossible to feed all the data into the learner simultaneously and expect him to process it immediately. It is a gradual process and this explains why interlanguage is not static.

Ellis (ibid.) uses an example to explain the "spreading" of a new rule as it gradually covers a whole range of linguistic contexts. Early WH questions are not inverted and even after the subject-inversion rule has been acquired, it is not applied to all WH questions immediately. Initially the learner only applies the rule to a limited number of verbs and particular WH

pronouns. Later he extends the application to more verbs and other WH pronouns and interrogative adverbs. Ellis (ibid.) refers to this process of constant revision and extension as "inherent instability" and a "built-in propensity for change".

3.2.3 THE PERMEABLE NATURE OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ERRORS

The rules featured in the L2 learner's knowledge of the target language are never fixed, but always "open to amendment" (Ellis, 1985:50). According to Ellis (1990:51) the learners' grammar is incomplete and can always be penetrated by new linguistic forms and rules. This feature is also found in natural languages and an example of such permeability is the standard negative construction in Chaucer's English compared to present-day English which has a totally different form. According to Ellis (1985:50) all language systems are permeable, but interlanguage is different as far as the degree of permeability is concerned. If the idea of fossilization is accepted, the loss of permeability may prevent the L2 learner from achieving native-speaker competence.

3.2.4 THE SYSTEMATIC NATURE OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ERRORS

The errors made by the learner are evidence that he is applying a certain system at each point of his development, which is not the adult system of the target language and therefore not yet the system applied by mother tongue speakers of the target

language. Howatt (1984:285) points out that what was formerly referred to as "bad English" is now regarded as a communication system in its own right. Oral errors are thus systematic (Corder, 1981:10).

Tarone (1988:8) regards learner language as systematic, because it has its own rules. The significance of the systematic nature of interlanguage is that it is possible to detect the rules the learner has acquired at any stage of his development, as he relies on his existing rule system when the L2 is employed for communication purposes (Ellis, 1985:51).

However, it is also possible that the learner may commit non-systematic errors, which adult, native speakers of the target language also commit continually.

3.2.5 CHOMSKY'S COMPETENCE-PERFORMANCE DISTINCTION

Chomsky (1959:28) drew a distinction between performance, the acts of verbal behaviour, and competence, which refers to the learners' actual knowledge of the language or the underlying system of rules that has been mastered by the learner.

The type of non-systematic oral error referred to in the previous section is the result of factors such as memory lapses, physical states such as tiredness, and psychological conditions such as any strong emotion. Corder (1981:10) refers to these

errors as "adventitious artefacts of linguistic performance" that do not reflect the speaker's knowledge of the language, in other words, his competence. Allwright and Bailey (1991:88) give an example of such a performance error. The words **inhibition** and **intuition** are similarly shaped with the prefix **in-** and end with the suffix **-tion**. Because of this parallel they may be used incorrectly in speech owing to a slip of the tongue. It is therefore of cardinal importance that the researcher distinguishes between these unsystematic errors of performance and systematic errors of competence. For the purposes of this study, systematic errors will be referred to as errors, while non-systematic errors will be called mistakes. Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1989:62) note that an error is a consistent "mistake".

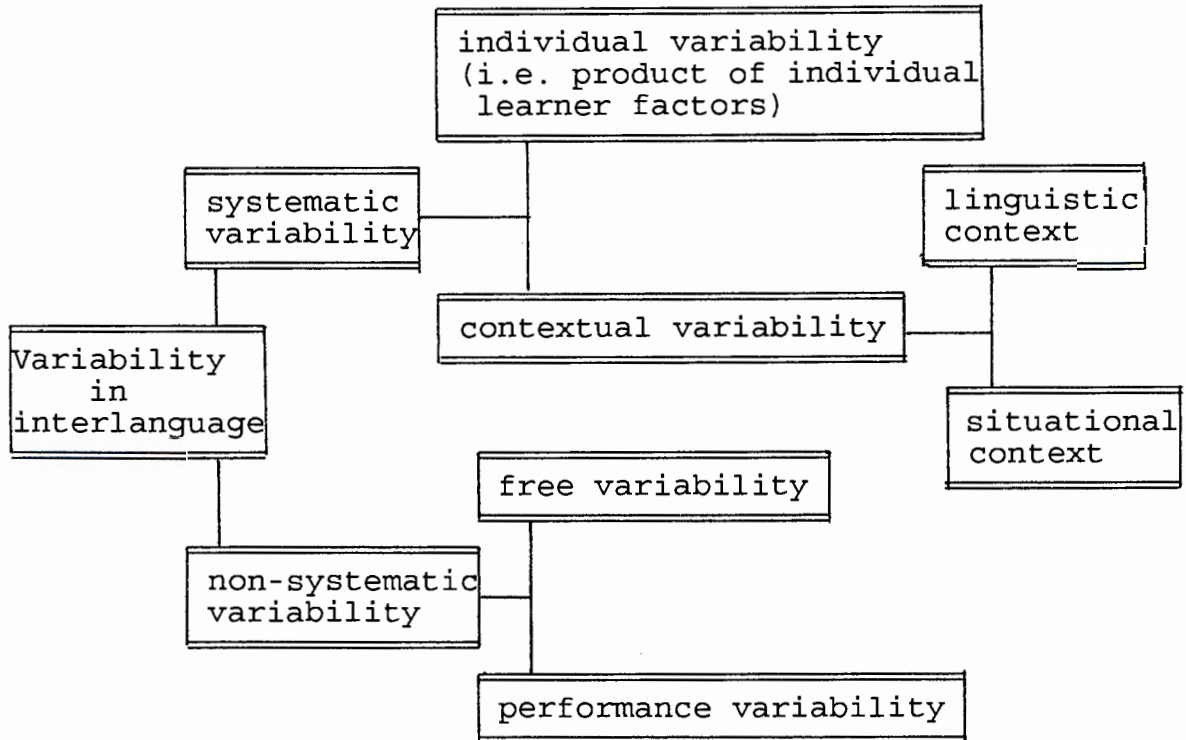
Another prominent characteristic of interlanguage is the fact that its system is variable, regardless of the systematic development of each learner's interlanguage (Stern, 1983:355).

3.2.6 THE VARIABILITY OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ERRORS

As mentioned in the previous section, it is evident that the learner's interlanguage contains a number of rules, which may be observed at any given stage of the learner's development. Furthermore, the interlanguage system contains linguistic forms

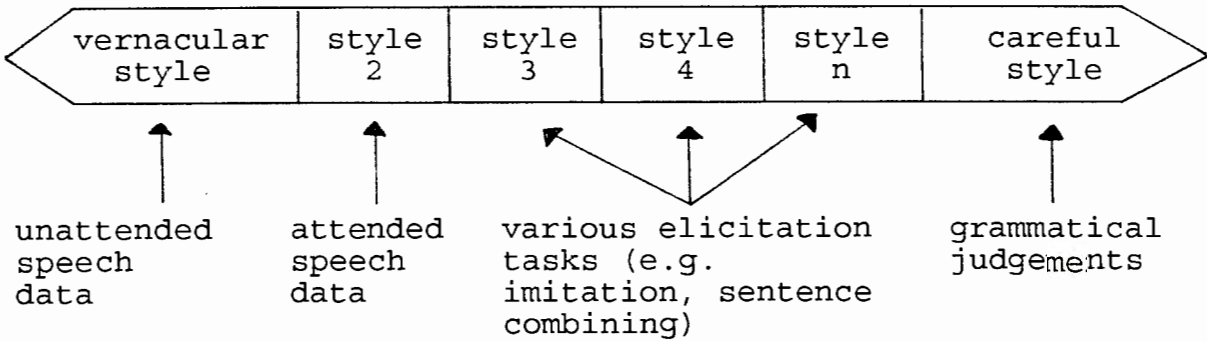
that are in free variation. Ellis (1985:75) observes that these forms are neither guided by rules nor systematic. Various types of variability are distinguished. Diagram 3 illustrates these.

DIAGRAM 3: TYPES OF VARIABILITY IN LANGUAGE-LEARNER LANGUAGE



(Ellis, 1985:76)

Within the situational context, a continuum of interlanguage styles is distinguished, ranging from vernacular style at one end where the learner does not attend to his speech, to careful style at the opposite end, where the learner attends to his speech carefully (Ellis, 1985:83). Diagram 4 illustrates these styles.

DIAGRAM 4: THE INTERLANGUAGE CONTINUUM

(Ellis, 1985:83)

According to Tarone (1988:59) studies on interlanguage variation have provided evidence for four general causes of this phenomenon. Firstly, the linguistic context, in other words, the immediate adjacent linguistic forms, can affect variation in interlanguage forms. Secondly, psychological processing factors, such as attention to form instead of content, may lead to variation, while, thirdly, social causes such as the interlocutor, the topic of discourse and the social norms activated in the speech situation are also true causes of variability in interlanguage. Fourthly, the fact that language is used for various purposes, to serve various functions, causes variation in the learners' language.

The extent to which a learner monitors his own language together with the nature of the linguistic environment will determine the pattern of variation. Non-systematic or free variability occurs in early SLA throughout the course of development when the learner uses two or more forms to express the same range of functions (Ellis, 1985:97).

Tarone (1988:135) states that in spite of many studies carried out on interlanguage variation, there is still a lot to be learnt about this phenomenon.

3.2.7 INTERLANGUAGE MAY FOSSILIZE

It often happens that the learner's L2 proficiency stops developing and fails to improve. Ellis (1990:52) describes this phenomenon as "a plateau beyond which they do not progress".

Several reasons for this tendency are posed. Ellis (ibid.) says it is possible that the learner regards his knowledge of the L2 as sufficient for communicative purposes. Secondly, full competence in a L2 is neurolinguistically impossible for most learners. Selinker and Lakshamanan (1992:212) ascribe fossilization to the following: restricted input, language transfer and the fact that certain interlanguage phenomena change over time, while others don't. The age of the L2 learner

and the amount of exposure to explanation of or instruction in the target language do not influence fossilization (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:60). According to Ellis (1990:52) this is a unique characteristic of interlanguage.

Understanding the nature of oral errors in SLA may shed light on the causes of errors. Although researchers have succeeded in isolating several factors which may be regarded as causes of errors, Ellis (1985:35) considers it naive to blame a single factor for a particular error. He stresses the fact that one particular error may be caused by one factor on one occasion, but by another factor in another instance; therefore, he concludes that there is "no logic or psycholinguistic reason why a given error should have a single, invariable cause".

Roos (1990:22) also warns researchers to take care when ascribing causes to errors. Ambiguity with the labelling of errors may lead to confusion.

Norrish (1983:12) states that whatever the teacher teaches is not always what is learnt by the learner. Although this may be attributed to the fact that learners simply do not pay attention, oral errors may be due to other factors as well.

3.3 THE CAUSES OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ORAL ERRORS

According to various sources (e.g. Marton, 1988:112; Tarone, 1988:8; Kilfoil and Van der Walt, 1989:31; Ellis, 1994:47) interference of the mother tongue is a major cause of oral errors in SLA. Therefore, the relation between the L1 and second language learners' errors will be discussed firstly, after which a discussion of other causes, such as translation, overgeneralization, incomplete application of rules, developmental processing, naturalness factors, difficulty and material-induced errors will follow.

3.3.1 THE MOTHER TONGUE AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ERRORS

Learning to speak his or her mother tongue is the child's primary experience of language acquisition. Any language to be acquired after that has to be based on the foundation of the L1. Researchers believe this to be an influential factor.

3.3.1.1 TRANSFER

In an attempt to acquire the L2, the learner tends to compare corresponding areas in his L1 and L2. Any degree of similarity causes the learner to rely on his knowledge of his mother tongue (Marton, 1988:112), as structures of the L2 then seem simpler and therefore easier to learn. If the learner's

comparison is correct and there are resemblances between his L1 and the L2, the mother tongue could aid the learner. This process, "the automatic, uncontrolled, and subconscious use of past learned behaviours in the attempt to produce new responses", is referred to as transfer (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982:101).

However, Gundel and Tarone (1992:87) regard the term "language transfer" as misleading as it implies the transfer of only L1 surface "patterns" to the L2, while it actually involves a complex interaction between the two language systems. Kellerman (1995:130) confirms this by stating that the influence of the mother tongue is more complicated than structural relatedness.

Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1989:31) distinguish two types of transfer. The construction of hypothetical rules for L2 after the transfer of L1 knowledge onto the developing L2 is referred to as positive transfer. This will only happen when a L1 pattern is identical with a target-language pattern (Ellis, 1985:305). Positive transfer will lead to correct performance, seeing that there is no difference between the old and new behaviour (Dulay et al., 1982:101).

However, the learner's hypothesis may be incorrect, which leads to the transfer of wrong elements from the mother tongue, referred to as negative transfer (Kilfoil and Van der Walt, 1989:31). According to Odlin (1989:26) negative transfer is the

cause of transfer errors and he calls the phenomenon of negative transfer interference from the L1. Kellerman (1995:125) confirms that interference from the L1 can be seen as a direct cause of erroneous performance.

3.3.1.2 INTERFERENCE

Marton (1988:112) defines interference as the "automatic retrieval of planning procedures of the native language" after a L2 learner has been forced to premature production of the target language, before he or she has succeeded in processing operations related to the L2. In other words, the patterns of the L1 interfere with those of the L2, forcing the L2 learner to commit errors (Corder, 1981:4). Ellis (1985:22) alleges that interference is the result of "proactive inhibition" which refers to the way previous learning, in this case learning of the mother tongue, prevents or inhibits the learning of new patterns, in this case the L2. The result is errors in the learners' utterances. These errors are directly traceable to the L1 (Ellis, 1990:24). According to Weinreich (1953:106) such a phenomenon is an inevitable result of languages in contact and will occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language, while Odlin (1989:133) states that less proficient learners will tend to rely more on transfer than the more advanced learners.

Although the mother tongue is regarded as the culprit causing oral errors when L2 learners employ the target language, some researchers disagree. According to Odlin (1989:18) some errors seem to arise not from language transfer, but from other sources such as transfer of training, in other words, the influences that arise from the way a learner is taught. This statement does not mean Odlin (*ibid.*) regards teaching of the L2 as harmful, as he certainly does not doubt the benefit of some teaching influences. However, Odlin (*ibid.*) maintains that some teaching influences can induce errors that might not otherwise occur.

Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982:96) also tend to disagree with blaming the L1 as the major cause of errors in the L2. Based on the examination of available empirical data, they maintain that L2 learners commit grammar errors in areas where there are similar structures in their mother tongue, which proves that positive transfer has not taken place. They also point out that the majority of grammatical errors in the L2 performance of learners does not reflect their L1, while the judgement of the grammatical correctness of L2 sentences cast by L2 learners is more related to L2 sentence types than to the structure of their own L1. Ellis (1990:46) confirms this by stating that error-analysis studies have empirically proven that the majority of the L2 learners' errors are intralingual; i.e., they are caused by the structure of the L2 itself. This implies that the minority of the L2 learners' errors, according

to Dulay and Burt (1974:93) only 3 per cent of the errors produced by their subjects, are interlingual; therefore, they do not result from L1 transfer. However, Flick (1980) found the proportion of transfer errors to be much higher and Ellis (1994:61) states that a large number of L2 learners' errors, and in some cases most of these errors, are intralingual in origin rather than transfer, but the exact proportion of the kinds of error varies considerably from study to study.

According to Ellis (*ibid.*) the proportion of transfer and intralingual errors varies owing to diverse factors, such as the level. Learners at the elementary level produce more transfer errors than learners at a more advanced level. The task employed to elicit samples of interlanguage may also influence the degree to which transfer errors occur, as translation exercises (*cf.* section 3.3.1.3) result in more transfer than intralingual errors. Transfer errors also occur more commonly in phonological and lexical levels of language than in the grammatical level, while adult learners are responsible for more transfer errors than child learners. Therefore, one has to consider various factors before deciding whether the oral errors in L2 learners' language are due to the mother tongue or the L2 itself.

3.3.1.3 TRANSLATION

Norrish (1983:26) notes that direct translation of idiomatic expressions in the L1 is the most common cause of oral errors in the learners' use of L2. A popular example is **Mag ek jou boek leen?** translated as **May I lend your book?**

Possible reasons why the learner employs translation when using his L2 are stated by Norrish (1983:27). Firstly, when the learner has to communicate by means of his L2 and he realizes that he does not know the appropriate structure or expression or isn't even clear whether an appropriate one exists, he falls back on the familiar language system, as his prime concern is to communicate his ideas. Secondly, when the learner reaches a stage where the message he wants to express is the focus of his concentration, the code or language used becomes less important. According to Norrish (ibid.) this type of error may occur more frequently if translation is employed in class as a teaching or learning activity.

3.3.2 OVERGENERALIZATION

Allwright and Bailey (1991:87) claim that the process of acquiring the L2 depends on "gradual accumulation of both data and rules". L2 learners don't simply memorize sentences from the input they are exposed to or rely on adults to correct their erroneous utterances, but instead, they process new language in

their minds, producing rules for its production, based on what they know where they experience a lack of appropriate data. Therefore, learners often produce utterances which are never heard uttered by native speakers of the target language (Moyo, 1994:62).

After acquiring a certain grammar rule, the learner sometimes tends to apply that rule in an utterance where it is not applicable (Ellis, 1985:301). The utterance I **putted** the books away, mentioned in the previous chapter, is an example of overgeneralization, where the learner knows that the past tense verb is mostly formed by means of the suffix **-ed** at the end of an infinitive verb. However, the learner, probably unaware of the irregular verbs and their inflectional morphology such as **cut** and **put** (Huddleston, 1988:39), applies this rule to them and believes the past tense of **put** to be **putted**. According to Odlin (1989:18) overgeneralizations often appear because of inappropriate application of a target language rule and Ellis (1990:197) appropriately refers to such errors as "examples of oblitative subsumption". The L2 learner either ignores or doesn't realize the existence of rules, or the boundaries of such rules (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:58), prohibiting utterances such as the example mentioned above. Ellis (1994:59) states that overgeneralization errors

are generally the result of the L2 learner's creation of one deviant structure in place of two target language structures, for example, He can sings where English allows He can sing and He sings.

Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982:157) state that the term "overgeneralization" refers to almost all developmental errors and they prefer the use of the term "regularization". This is the application of a rule for producing a regular form, e.g. adding an -s to a singular noun to form its plural, to an irregular form, e.g. mouse becomes mouses instead of mice. In other words, the L2 learner fails to apply the exception to the rule. Dulay et al. (ibid.) distinguish three types of regularization errors of which the above-mentioned example is one. These three types are listed in Table 1.

TABLE 1: THE OVERREGULARIZATION ERRORS OBSERVED IN THE VERBAL PRODUCTION OF L2 LEARNERS

Linguistic Item Misformed	Example
Reflexive pronoun	hisself (himself)
Regular past	I falled (fell)
Plural	gooses (geese)

(Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982:159)

Possible factors giving rise to overgeneralization are the manner or order in which the teacher presents language items, as well as the actual exercises the learner is expected to do, for example, she goes (must) may lead to a response such as she must

goes. Norrish (1983:32) cautions the teacher never to "teach together what can be confused". If he sings and he is singing are taught within a relatively short span of time, the result may be he is sings.

3.3.3 INCOMPLETE APPLICATION OF RULES

In contrast to overgeneralization, where a certain rule is applied excessively, learners of the L2 also often fail to apply a rule consistently. That is why Norrish (1983:32) regards this particular cause of errors as "the reverse side of the coin". Ellis (1994:59) refers to this phenomenon as "a failure to fully develop a structure".

Two possible reasons why L2 learners fail to apply the rules of the target language consistently are suggested. Firstly, questions are often used in the classroom and the learner is expected to repeat the question or part of it in the answer.

An example is:

T: Ask her where she lives.
L: Where you (she) live (s)?

Secondly, learners may discover that deviant forms do not necessarily hamper communication, as they can communicate perfectly adequately in spite of incorrect application of the target language rules (Norrish, 1983:32).

3.3.4 DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESSING

When acquiring a L2 naturalistically, in other words, without classroom instruction, the learner has to move along a continuum, with the one pole being L1 and the opposite pole being L2 (Allwright and Bailey, 1991:91). Learners appear to construct their own rules about the target language on the basis of limited experience (Ellis, 1994:58), independent of both their mother tongue and the target language (Ellis, 1990:9). Along this continuum different stages are distinguished, for example, the stages in learning the negation system of English:

- i. **no + verb** e.g. I **no** understand
- ii. **don't + verb** e.g. He **don't** like it
- iii. correct negation of the auxiliary verb e.g. **You can't** tell her
- iv. disappearance of **no + verb** and increasingly regular use of analysed **don't** e.g. he **doesn't** spin

According to Allwright and Bailey (ibid.) these stages are recognised through the learners' types of errors, seeing that these errors are similar to those made by children learning the target language as their first language (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982:165).

3.3.5 NATURALNESS FACTORS

A L2 learner's notion and understanding of a particular feature of the target language or his idea of the relationship between a given form and its meaning, is referred to as a naturalness factor. The L2 learner's confusion regarding the modal auxiliaries *can* and *may* is an example of a naturalness factor causing oral errors. According to Adey, Orr and Swemmer (1989:53) *can* is used to express general ability. In other words, strictly speaking, the sentence *Dad, can I use the car tonight?* means *Dad, am I physically able to use the car tonight?* However, the L2 learner will use such a sentence to ask permission, not to determine his general ability. Therefore, as L2 learners are either not aware of the meaning of this particular form or they do not understand its meaning fully, they often don't realize that they should rather say *Dad, may I use the car tonight?* This factor is proposed by Ellis (1985:35) as a determinant of SLA and a possible cause of L2 learners' errors. According to Hatch (1983:23) naturalness factors together with L1 interference, as seen in the example where auxiliary verbs *can* and *may* are related to Afrikaans *kan* and *mag*, may lead to errors in phonology, morphology as well as in higher levels of language such as syntax and discourse.

3.3.6 DIFFICULTY

Norrish (1983:30) claims that the "General Order of Difficulty Theory", supported by researchers such as Richards (1974) and Carol Chomsky (1969), may prove that certain structures or sounds of the English language are considered difficult, and thus be a cause of oral errors in the L2 of learners.

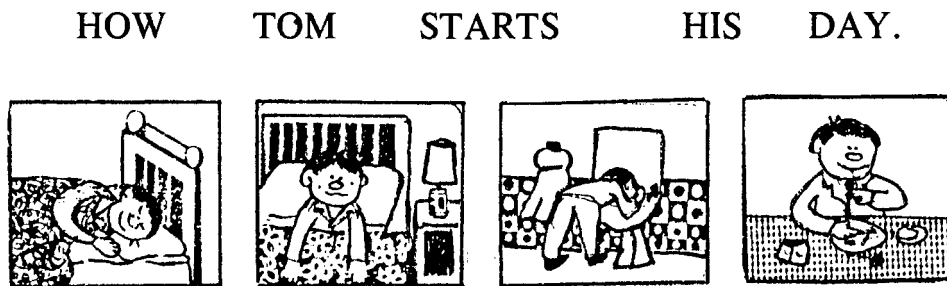
Examples of such difficult English sounds are [v] and [ð], and [f] and [θ] (Norrish, *ibid.*). It is believed that a characteristic order of learning the L2 (Ellis, 1985:8), together with this hierarchy of difficulty, may explain some of the learners' errors in English.

Contrary to the earlier belief that difficulty could be a possible cause of L2 learners' errors, Ellis (1985:31) believes that there is no necessary relationship between difficulty and error. In fact, research has indicated that a sentence may contain numerous errors, regardless of the fact that the structures employed in that particular sentence are considerably easy, while the opposite is also true. A well-formed sentence with relatively difficult structures can be produced.

3.3.7 MATERIAL-INDUCED ERRORS

Teaching materials induce errors either by promoting false concepts or by fostering ignorance of rule restrictions (Norrish, 1983:33). An example of this is the series of pictures in Figure 1, illustrating a sequence of actions, with the caption in the present indefinite tense. However, the introductory sentence is in the present continuous tense. The present indefinite tense would be more appropriate, because the title creates the context of this person's habits every morning. As learners use the data presented to them as a basis for their hypotheses about the target language, it is vital that teachers give learners an indication of the context within which to apply the data sensibly.

FIGURE 1: AN EXAMPLE OF TEACHING MATERIALS WHICH MAY INDUCE ERRORS



Tom is still sleeping.....

According to Ellis (1990:74) teachers can actually elicit errors by the way a question or grammatical rule is explained. The teacher may, for instance, say that *any* is used in negative constructions. The L2 learner may understand that he has to substitute the negative marker *no* with *any*. The following utterance may be the result: In this class there are *any* speakers of German.

3.3.8 ERROR AS A PART OF LANGUAGE CREATIVITY

Learners of the L2 often need to create new utterances. In an attempt to create these utterances, they commit errors owing to their limited experience of the target language (Norrish, 1983:34). Examples of such errors are frequently found in ESL classrooms when learners experience difficulty in forming nouns from adjectives or fail to understand that most nouns have related adjectives, for example, the noun *poverty* related to the adjective *poor*.

3.3.9 OTHER CAUSES OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ERRORS

Apart from the factors mentioned above, Nunan (1988:144) contends that there are many other possible causes of second language learners' errors, such as inefficient learning strategies; poor attention in class; irregular attendance; particular macro-skill problems; difficulty with discrete language points; faulty teaching techniques; objectives,

materials or learning activities inappropriate for learners; inappropriate learning arrangement or learners' personal (non-language) problems, including physical disability. Chick (1979:57) lists the following personal factors which may influence the quality of language used by the learner and may lead to oral L2 errors: motivation, attitude, maturity, intelligence, personality and formal knowledge of the learner. According to Norrish (1983:21) carelessness on the side of the learner because of a lack of motivation is another possible cause of errors. Inappropriate teaching materials or styles of presentation may be blamed for learners' carelessness.

3.4 CONCLUSION

An aim of this chapter was to explain the nature of learner-language. Knowledge of these features ought to promote L2 teachers' understanding of how to utilize their learners' errors in order to promote SLA. This chapter was also an attempt to discuss the multiple causes of second language learners' oral errors, of which the influence of the mother tongue is regarded as the most prominent one (Kilfoil and Van der Walt, 1989:31).

CHAPTER 4

THE TREATMENT OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ERRORS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter 3 it became clear what the nature and causes of L2 learners' errors are, according to various researchers. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss issues concerning the treatment of oral errors. Researchers have varying opinions on this. It is vital to be aware of all these issues before an empirical investigation is conducted into the treatment of oral errors in the lessons to be analysed.

According to The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English (1976:1236) the word "treatment" means "dealing with or behaving towards a person or thing". This study is concerned with the ways L2 learners' oral errors are "dealt with" or "behaved towards" by the teacher. Therefore, the term "error treatment" will be used for the purposes of this study.

Researchers tend to use different terms for "error treatment" such as "reaction" (Bellack et al., 1966:46), "cure and correction" (Allwright and Bailey, 1991:99), "repair" (Van Lier, 1988:183), "feedback" (Ellis, 1985:296) or "remedial work" (Marton, 1988:101). These terms cannot be regarded as synonyms for error treatment. A brief discussion of these terms will now follow.

4.2 TERMINOLOGY

4.2.1 REACTION

Bellack et al. (1966:46) distinguish "reaction" as one of four pedagogical moves. The other three preceding moves are structuring, soliciting and responding. The word "reaction" implies that the teacher offers some sort of evaluative comment, expressing either acceptance or rejection of a learner's utterance. This study occupies itself with how teachers deal with erroneous utterances, not their acceptance of learners' utterances.

4.2.2 CURE/CORRECTION

According to Allwright and Bailey (1991:99) "treatment" and "cure" or "correction" are not synonymous. To be treated for an illness does not necessarily imply cure. Although the teacher tries to convince learners to use the correct form

instead of the repeated error, only the learner can do the essential learning which will ensure correction of that error. Therefore, "correction" by the teacher is misleading, as it implies a "cure" (Allwright and Bailey, 1991:99).

However, Chaudron (1977:31) regards the term "correction" as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to or demands improvement of the learner's utterance". According to Chun et al. (1982:538) correction indicates that the native speaker supplies an appropriate item in response to an error. As it is not yet clear whether error correction really transforms and improves L2 learners' utterances (Ellis, 1990:138), and as errors can be treated in ways other than merely supplying the correct item (Chaudron, 1977:38), the term "correction" is not suitable for the purposes of this study.

4.2.3 REPAIR

Van Lier (1988:183) prefers the word "repair" to "correction". He motivates his preference by stating that "repair" is a much wider, more general concept, which includes "correction" as a type of "repair". Definitions of "repair" are thus "the actual fixing of an error" (Allwright and Bailey, 1991:89) and "the treatment of trouble occurring in interactive language use"

(Van Lier, *ibid.*). This definition leads to the question whether "trouble" refers to problems other than L2 learners' oral errors, such as lack of confidence etc., an issue causing the word "repair" to appear too wide and too general.

4.2.4 FEEDBACK

A response to the learners' efforts to use the L2 for communication purposes is called feedback (Ellis, 1985:296), It involves functions such as correction, acknowledgement or positive feedback (Dulay et al., 1982:34), expansion and requests for clarification. Furthermore, Krashen and Seliger (1975:180) point out that "feedback" also relates to the number of errors corrected by the teacher, to such an extent that one may define "feedback" as "errors corrected vs errors ignored".

4.2.5 REMEDIAL WORK

Marton (1988:101), Corder (1981:45) and Brumfit (1980:32) mention "remedial teaching", a special pedagogical procedure aimed towards error eradication. The reason why it is regarded as special is the fact that it is only applied to persistent errors which are unaffected by normal corrective

measures. Remedial work involves a teaching method different from the initial one, as the previous attempt to teach that particular structure has failed. The learner is thus allowed to approach the problem in a different way (Norrish, 1983:43).

4.2.6 TREATMENT

As stated above (cf. 4.2.2), treatment does not necessarily result in cure. During the analysis of lessons for the empirical investigation in this study, it became clear that an error committed by a learner often had to be treated several times before it was actually corrected, unless the teacher simply supplied the correct item after identifying the error (Chaudron, 1977:38). The term "error treatment" is thus preferable, as it includes any action on the side of the teacher or a pupil which serves to make the learner, who has committed an error, aware of the nature of an error in order to correct it eventually.

4.3 ISSUES IN ORAL ERROR TREATMENT

4.3.1 WHAT IS CONSIDERED TO BE AN ERROR?

According to various researchers (e.g. Lennon, 1991b:181; Ellis, 1994:50) it is difficult to define an error unambiguously.

Moyo (1994:61) regards second language learners' oral errors as "the instability in the characteristics of his [the L2 learner's] language in the form of strange expressions different from standard usage". Chun et al. (1982:538) define the oral errors of second language learners as "the use of a linguistic item in a way which, according to fluent users of the language, indicates faulty or incomplete learning". According to Lennon (1991b:181) both these definitions are ambiguous.

Although it seems simple to identify an error on face value, Corder (1981:31) proves the opposite. He asserts that an utterance may be both well-formed and appropriate, yet still be erroneous. There are two possible explanations for such an occurrence, one being the effect of repeated input, as explained in chapter 2. The other possibility is that the learner might have used the rules of his L1 to produce an utterance in the target language and succeeded by chance. The implication of this phenomenon is that all learners' utterances ought to be regarded as potentially erroneous, regardless of their surface structure or appropriateness.

Lennon (1991a:32) employs what he calls "a more cautious definition of an error" in his study. He defines an error as a linguistic form, combination of forms, or utterance, which in the same context, and under similar conditions of production, would not be produced by any native speaker.

For the purposes of this study "any deviation from the selected norm of language performance, no matter what the characteristics or causes of deviation may be" (Dulay et al., 1982:139) is treated as an error.

Although the different types of errors dealt with in this study will be discussed in the next chapter, it is important to note the distinction between oral and written errors.

4.3.2 ORAL VS WRITTEN ERRORS

According to Edmunds (1991:68), "speaking clearly is the first and the most important way of learning grammar. Setting out to write is the second most obvious way of learning the skills of grammar".

Although most native speakers' ideas of correctness are based on the written language (Lennon, 1991b:182), it is the spoken language which reflects the L2 learners' proficiency. In real life the learner is likely to be required to speak English far more often than write it (Kuhn and Meiring, 1984:8). Employing the target language in a conversation leaves the speaker with little or no time to "monitor" whether a particular structure is in fact grammatically correct or whether a certain item of vocabulary really says what he

wants to say. Spoken language offers the L2 learner a bigger challenge (Dryer, 1992:11). Therefore, L2 proficiency depends more on the spoken than the written language. That is why this study deals with oral and not written errors.

Written language is often more correct than spoken language as the writer can actually re-read what he has written and change whatever he considers inappropriate. Colloquial speech allows many forms of telegraphic syntax and omission of morphemes which will be treated as errors in written language (Lennon, *ibid.*). Slips of the tongue or "performance errors" (Allwright and Bailey, 1991:88) are more likely to occur in spoken than in written language (Lennon, 1991b:182).

Lennon *op cit* states that it is more difficult to identify oral errors than written errors. Factors such as false starts, incomplete clauses, repetition, attempts at self-correction etc. impede the identification of oral errors. As it is easier for researchers to identify and classify written errors, detailed transcriptions of recorded speech are often made.

Some types of errors are universal. In other words, a concord error may occur in both spoken and written language, while other types of errors are exclusively oral, for example pronunciation and stress. Punctuation belongs exclusively with written language.

According to Roos (1990:24) there are diverse opinions about the need for error treatment. The following section is a discussion on the necessity of error treatment in SLA.

4.3.3 SHOULD ERRORS BE TREATED?

Lennox-Short (1973:41) is strongly in favour of errors being treated. He bases his argument on the level of L2 proficiency of first-year students at the University of Cape Town.

According to Lennox-Short (ibid.) "their English sometimes crawls". He points out that their English produces evidence of errors similar to those of high-school pupils. He regards the root of the evil to be the fact that "in language, wrong can become right and right wrong" (Lennox-Short, ibid.). The L2 learners are thus unable to distinguish between correct and erroneous utterances, as their errors were left untreated in the past.

Roos (1990:25) alleges that it often happens that L2 learners are aware of errors in their language use, but they fail to eliminate them, because of too much error tolerance by teachers. The result is that L2 learners believe that errors do not matter at all. However, Ellis (1990:73) maintains that error treatment puts the L2 learners on the defensive and encourages them to avoid difficult structures. SLA will therefore be impeded, instead of improved.

According to Hughes (1982:8) teachers should consider encouraging communication from the very beginning, ignoring errors. He argues that errors fall away naturally under certain conditions and learners are capable of making "their own orderly progress". If this is the case, why should teachers then be concerned about error treatment?

Andrews (1982:135) appeals for a differential approach to the question whether L2 learners' oral errors should be treated. This differential treatment depends on the objective of the teaching process and, in practice, the particular lesson in which the error occurs. Accuracy as objective implies treatment of errors, while fluency, on the other hand, does not call for error treatment, although errors may be noted for future reference. Immediate treatment of the latter will only impede communication. Accuracy and fluency as opposing objectives of error treatment will be discussed later in this chapter.

Allwright and Bailey (1991:100) maintain that many factors determine the answer to the question whether or not to treat an error. Firstly, the teacher must ascertain whether the learners have been exposed to the correct form of the error before. Secondly, a non-native teacher cannot be expected to treat an error he or she hasn't recognized. Thirdly, the teacher has to be convinced that the place of the error in question on the interlanguage continuum is within grasp of the

learner's ability. Fourthly, an error should only be treated if the teacher is positively sure that SLA will benefit from the treatment. Lastly, teachers have to bear in mind that the output of any learner in the classroom serves as input to any other learner, and erroneous output will therefore also be erroneous input, with possibly detrimental effects.

Looking at the issue from another angle, one may consider the attitudes and preferences of the learner. Does he want his oral errors to be treated? In a study conducted by Nunan and Willing (1988:91) teachers and pupils were given a questionnaire in which they had to rate certain learning activities on a four-point scale according to their degree of importance. The results indicated that learners rated error treatment very high, while teachers regarded error treatment as redundant.

Chenoweth et al. (1983:87) state that a survey of 418 ESL students' attitudes towards and preferences for the treatment of spoken errors by native speaker friends has revealed a generally positive attitude. It is reported that students would prefer even more treatment of errors, as they regard treatment as not only useful, but also indispensable to the improvement of their oral English proficiency.

Although form and function are both important in effective communication (Roos, 1990:22), there are researchers (e.g. Smit, 1971:45; Norrish, 1983:3) who maintain that either accuracy or fluency ought to be considered more important in spoken language. This issue determines the degree to which the L2 learners' oral errors will be treated (Brumfit, 1979:97).

4.3.4 THE FOCUS OF ERROR TREATMENT: ACCURACY VS FLUENCY

The terms accuracy and fluency were introduced by Brumfit (1979:97). The distinction between accuracy and fluency emphasizes the dual aim of teaching ESL (Andrews, 1982:135). Some approaches consider accuracy to be the main aim, while others regard fluency to be more important. Whichever aspect is focused on, the degree and type of error treatment are thus determined.

Norrish (1983:3) stresses his support for a focus on fluency by saying that the language learner will find that he is more successful in getting his message across in L2 if he speaks reasonably quickly and commits some errors rather than hesitating before every word he is uncertain about. This point is proven by means of the following example: A man, walking in the street, is approached by a lost foreigner, looking for the station. The foreigner asks: "**Excuse, where is station?**". The

listener's reply will not be: "You should have said, 'Excuse me,' and 'Where is the station?'. In spite of a few grammatical errors, the meaning of the question is clear enough (Norrish, 1983:98).

On the other hand, some researchers regard accuracy as the essence of SLA. Smit (1971:45) considers accuracy of expression to be extremely important because language is a major means of communication and loss of accuracy leads to less effective language. Learners are often unaware of the negative social consequences of their erroneous language use, and grammatical accuracy is essential for successful communication, especially in academic, professional and sophisticated social circles (Roos, 1990:22). By using language, the speaker wants to convey what he means, and if this is not done according to a generally accepted convention, the speaker's message may be affected and communication becomes impossible. Failure to promote accuracy "has caused many a teacher to encourage, and many students to acquire, pidgin-speech" (Howatt, 1984:241).

Allen et al. (1990:76) state that although error treatment can interrupt the flow of communication, a lack of treatment of errors may reduce opportunities to make crucial links between the form and function of the structures taught. They suggest that learners ought to be motivated to use the target language accurately, coherently and appropriately.

In conclusion, Brumfit (1980:126) recommends a balance between accuracy and fluency. Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1989:50) confirm the equal importance of both accuracy and fluency by stating that "communicative competence in its fullest sense can only be acquired when pupils learn the language through both accuracy and fluency activities". This view is supported by Kuhn and Meiring (1984:108). They believe that marks for oral examinations ought not be determined by correct use of vocabulary and knowledge of the idiom only. Both fluency and accuracy ought to be taken into account when awarding an oral mark.

Error treatment in the L2 classroom is provided to help learners identify problematic areas and eventually to speak the target language more accurately. However, according to Gainer (1989:45), error treatment often seems to "frustrate rather than enlighten". The next section will deal with the question of whether the treatment of the L2 learners' oral errors really improves accuracy.

4.3.5 DOES ERROR TREATMENT HELP?

The value of error treatment in the L2 classroom has been questioned by SLA theorists and researchers (Gainer, 1989:45). Some researchers (e.g. Lennox-Short, 1973:41; Chaudron, 1977: 428; Hendrickson, 1987:363) have pointed out that error treatment has positive effects, while other researchers (e.g.

Hughes, 1982:8; Dulay et al., 1982:5; Van der Walt et al., 1994:14) maintain that error treatment serves little or no purpose in SLA.

An investigation into the usefulness and consistency of error treatment, done by Allen et al. (1982:67), showed that the errors identified in the transcriptions of lessons concerned "frequently used grammatical features". In other words, errors occurred mainly in the structures which form an integral part of the target language, as they are frequently used when the L2 is employed for communicative purposes. Therefore, one may safely deduce that the samples of L2 learners' language in this study contained many errors and the communicative competence of these subjects must have been questionable. Moreover, only 19 percent of those errors were treated, but in a very confusing, unsystematic manner. According to Allen et al. (ibid.) this particular approach to error treatment did not in any way direct learners towards more coherent, accurate use of the target language. Furthermore, the lack of consistent and unambiguous error treatment "is likely to have a detrimental effect on learning" (Allen et al., 1982:67).

Hughes (1982:12) studied the learning of English through conversation in Barcelona. The subject was a Spanish adult. He never told her that any of her utterances were erroneous, and errors were treated without deliberate emphasis on the

erroneous element. Yet, his student's proficiency improved until she was able to use English to communicate. This study proved that immediate error treatment is not necessarily an essential ingredient of "natural" SLA.

Dulay et al. (1982:5) claim that treatment of learners' grammatical errors doesn't produce any real improvement. There appears to be no relationship between the systematic corrective treatment of errors and their correct use by ESL students. Van der Walt et al. (1994:14) confirm that "extensive correction is not a practically significant option for language teachers". Although they conclude that treatment is not a very reliable tool in helping students overcome errors, Dulay et al. (1982:36) point out that it does not imply that error treatment has no function in SLA, as further research may uncover situations where it is effective. This point is seconded by Chun et al. (1982:545) who state that the effect of error treatment on the L2 process should be investigated further.

As it seems to be impossible for a L2 teacher to determine whether treatment of oral errors really serves a purpose, one has to try to determine what will make a difference as far as the success of oral error treatment is concerned.

In other words, what causes oral error treatment to be either successful or unsuccessful? According to Ellis (1990:181) a number of criteria have to be met before error treatment can be effective in eliminating L2 learners' oral errors. Firstly, the learner must have a desire or need to eradicate the error. Secondly, the learner must be able to internalize the correct form. Thirdly, he must be aware of his erroneous performance. Fourthly, he must have the opportunity to employ his L2 skills in real conditions. Fulfilling these four conditions will guarantee effective L2 oral error treatment.

An important question would, therefore, be: Why do teachers treat the L2 learners' oral errors? The inevitable answer is likely to be: To make sure L2 learners' language is without any oral errors. The following section looks at the aims of oral error treatment.

4.3.6 WHAT ARE THE AIMS OF ORAL ERROR TREATMENT?

One of the most eminent dangers of failure to treat L2 learners' errors is the internalization of wrong usage (Kilfoil and Van der Walt, 1989:49). Teachers who are not very competent users of L2 themselves do not pick up their

learners' errors, therefore depriving them of contradictions of wrong rules, as well as internalization of correct rules. According to Allwright and Bailey (1991:94) the internalization of incorrect rules follows the same processes as that of correct forms, with the difference that the latter is called "learning", while the former is referred to as fossilization. Marton (1988:50) defines fossilized items as "those ungrammatical or incorrect items in the speech of a learner which gain positive feedback, reinforcing an incorrect form of language".

One may thus conclude that error treatment aims at preventing fossilization. Lightbown (1990:90) states that research has proven that the language of L2 learners whose oral errors remained untreated, fossilize. They consequently fail to reach mastery of the target language. There is no evidence that those L2 learners whose errors are treated, do reach mastery.

Marton (1988:77) describes error treatment as the ESL teacher's main duty as far as the development of learners' accuracy is concerned. Chick (1979:58) contends that people no longer find it necessary to extend their

communicative competence. A greater incidence of communicative incompetence, therefore, calls for "purposeful intervention". Oral error treatment has much to offer in this regard.

To sum up, the aims of error treatment are the prevention of fossilization, development of accuracy and the improvement of communicative competence.

The next compelling issue concerning error treatment is whether an error ought to be corrected immediately or at a later stage.

4.3.7 WHEN SHOULD ORAL ERRORS BE TREATED?

Roos (1990:24) states that there is little agreement on when oral errors should be treated and when ignored, and also whether to treat errors immediately or to delay treatment.

As stated previously in this chapter, the objective of the particular lesson in which the error occurs will determine when an oral error ought to be treated. According to Gower and Walters (1983:147) a lesson in which learners

practise forms presented by the teacher, focuses on accuracy as objective. In this case errors should be treated immediately as they occur. However, when the teacher wants the learner to "produce a lot of language quickly and fluently, rather than a small amount accurately", error treatment should be delayed.

Similarly, Long (1977:289) distinguishes between immediate and delayed treatment, provided that the latter is within the boundaries of the same lesson in which it occurred. Treating an error outside the context of the lesson in which it occurred, is referred to as postponed treatment (Long, *ibid.*). Gower and Walters (1983:148) propose three methods of delayed and postponed treatment. They suggest employing a tape or video of the interaction, notes of errors made with instructions on how to correct them or providing the class with remedial sessions on errors common to the majority.

However, although oral errors shared by a group of learners may form the starting point of a future lesson, research has shown that treatment will be less effective as the time between when the error was committed and eventually corrected, increases (Long, 1977:290).

According to Allwright and Bailey (1991:103) immediate treatment has a disadvantage. Treating an error immediately can be disruptive and eventually affect the learners' confidence to speak in class. However, Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1989:95) believe that learners ought to know as soon as possible whether their responses are correct. Therefore they prefer immediate error treatment.

Apart from immediate, delayed and postponed correction discussed above, Bruton and Samuda (1980:51) also distinguish "correction by permeation". They define this type of error treatment as the gradual treatment of errors through peer influence. The difference between correction by permeation and the other types of error treatment is that it is impossible to determine when, why and how correction takes place. As an example Bruton and Samuda (ibid.) mention a learner referring to a picture as a "design". However, after his fellow learners have used the word "picture" for a while, he starts using it as well.

In conclusion, responding to the question when errors should be treated, the teacher ought to use the focus of the lesson, accuracy or fluency, as guideline, while keeping in mind that it is essential for learners to be made aware of errors as soon

as possible (Kilfoil and Van der Walt, 1989:95), in other words, the teacher should not allow too much time to pass before the error is treated.

Most teachers assume that they are the only persons with the authority and knowledge to treat the L2 learners' oral errors (Roos, 1990:25). The next section will explain that this assumption does not hold water.

4.3.8 WHO SHOULD TREAT ORAL ERRORS?

Previously it was mainly teachers who dealt with oral error treatment. Learners were not allowed to discover and correct their own errors (Ellis, 1990:25). Although error treatment in today's modern ESL classrooms is still the teachers' responsibility, research has indicated that L2 learners gain linguistically from peer correction (Roos, 1990:25). Van der Walt et al. (1994:14) agree that teachers should not correct all the errors that are made by learners without giving them a chance to evaluate their own performance.

Allwright and Bailey (1991:107) argue that corrective tasks undertaken by learners themselves may lead to more learning. Two varieties of learner correction are distinguished. They are self-correction, when a learner corrects his own error, and peer correction, when the error is corrected by another learner in the classroom.

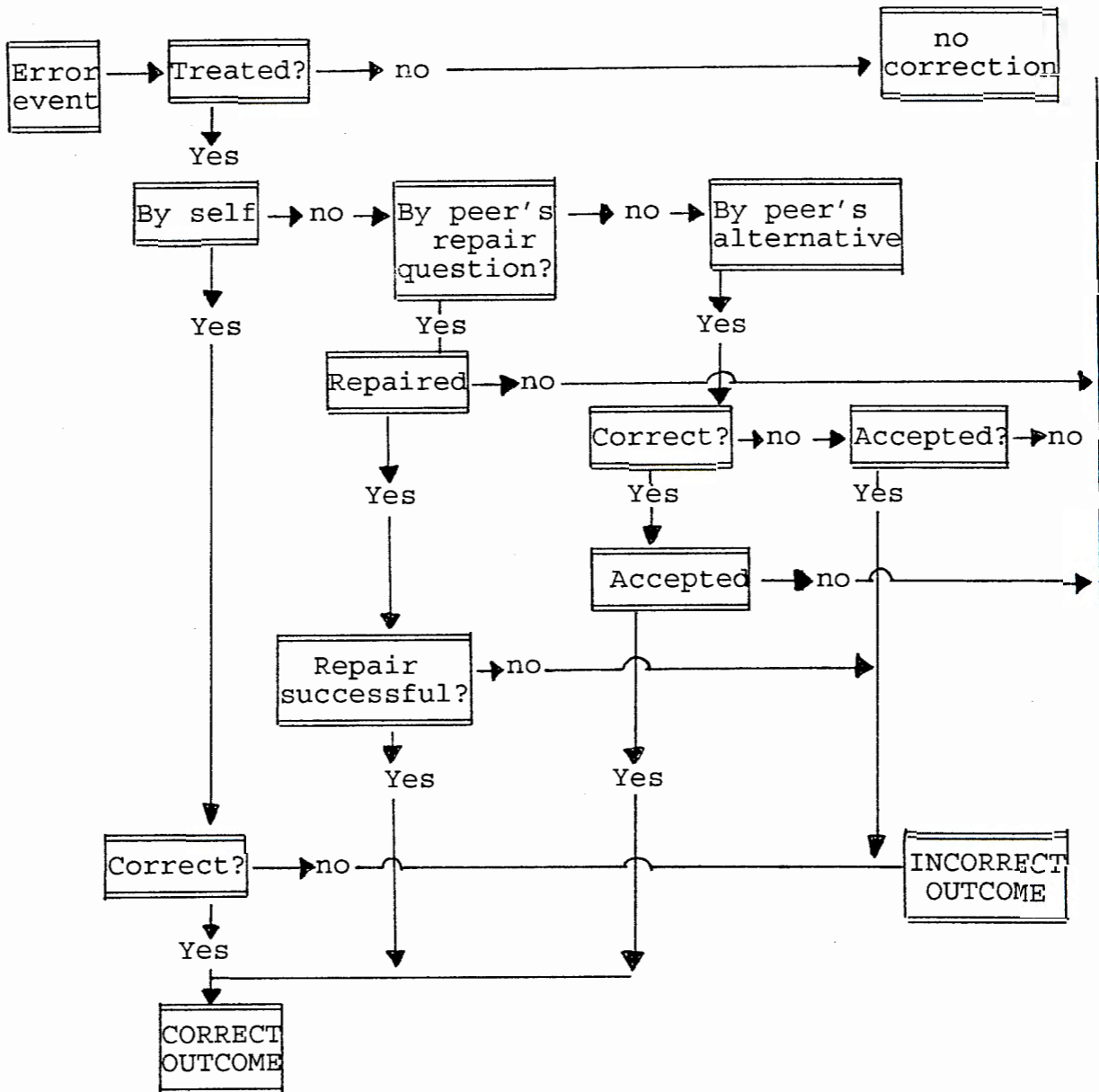
According to Dulay et al. (1988:59) every learner of a L2 has a monitor as part of his internal system, which is responsible for conscious linguistic processing. They allege that the linguistic knowledge gained through application of this monitor can be employed in the conscious formulation of sentences as well as the treatment of errors in one's own speech and writing. This theory is commonly referred to as Krashen's Monitor Model of second language development (Krashen and Pon, 1975:126). However, Krashen (1982:60) points out that the monitor only functions under certain conditions. Firstly, the focus must be on form, in other words, accuracy, and not on communication of meaning. Secondly, the learner must be allowed adequate time to process the output in order to initiate any errors to be treated. Thirdly, he must know the rule involved.

Peer correction, according to Allwright and Bailey (1991:108), implies that a learner other than the one who committed the error, treats the error by saying what the other speaker should have said. In other words, one learner simply gives the correct

form without any explanation as to why that particular form is correct or how he figured the correct answer out, thus making peer treatment slightly different in nature from the teacher's feedback.

Gower and Walters (1983:149) contend that the involvement of learners in the treatment of oral errors has definite advantages. All the learners are part of the correction process, therefore learning is generally more co-operative. Learners also depend less on teachers' models of the target language, while they learn to listen to one another and also have something to do.

Bruton and Samuda (1980:52) explain that treatment of an error by learners may not be as simple as it seems. The error may be ignored or treated by the learner himself. The result may be correct or a further error. Secondly, a learner may pose a repair question, which, if responded to, may lead to correction or not. Thirdly, the learner may offer a straight alternative, correctly or incorrectly, thus leaving the possibility that the original error is still standing. Diagram 5 illustrates this process.

DIAGRAM 5: ERROR TREATMENT BY LEARNERS AND ITS OUTCOME

(Bruton and Samuda, 1980:52)

An important aspect concerning peer treatment is the fact that teachers are responsible for establishing an atmosphere of mutual support as foundation. Learners may easily confuse error treatment by their peers with criticism (Allwright and Bailey, 1991:108).

In the next section attention will be given to the method involved in oral error treatment.

4.3.9 HOW SHOULD ORAL ERRORS BE TREATED?

According to Gower and Walters (1983:149) an error of a less serious nature, for instance, a content or pronunciation error, may be corrected by the teacher after which the learner repeats it. This method demands no serious thinking from the learner. It should thus not be employed in the treatment of more serious errors.

Gower and Walters (ibid.) also discuss another method of error treatment by the teacher. They stipulate three conditions which have to be met before the process of error treatment can be kicked off: the learner must know that there is an error, where the error is, and what kind of error it is. Once the learner has this information, he or she must try again, perhaps with some clues. Should the learner be unable to respond, the other learners are involved, to give them the opportunity to try to treat the error.

Should the other learners be unable to correct the error, the teacher may assume that they don't know the rule and it will have to be presented and practised from scratch. However, if

the item is clear, the teacher may simply say it and request learners to repeat it, as the actual saying of the correct version is the vital part of error treatment.

Of absolute importance is the fact that the teacher should maintain a co-operative atmosphere in the classroom.

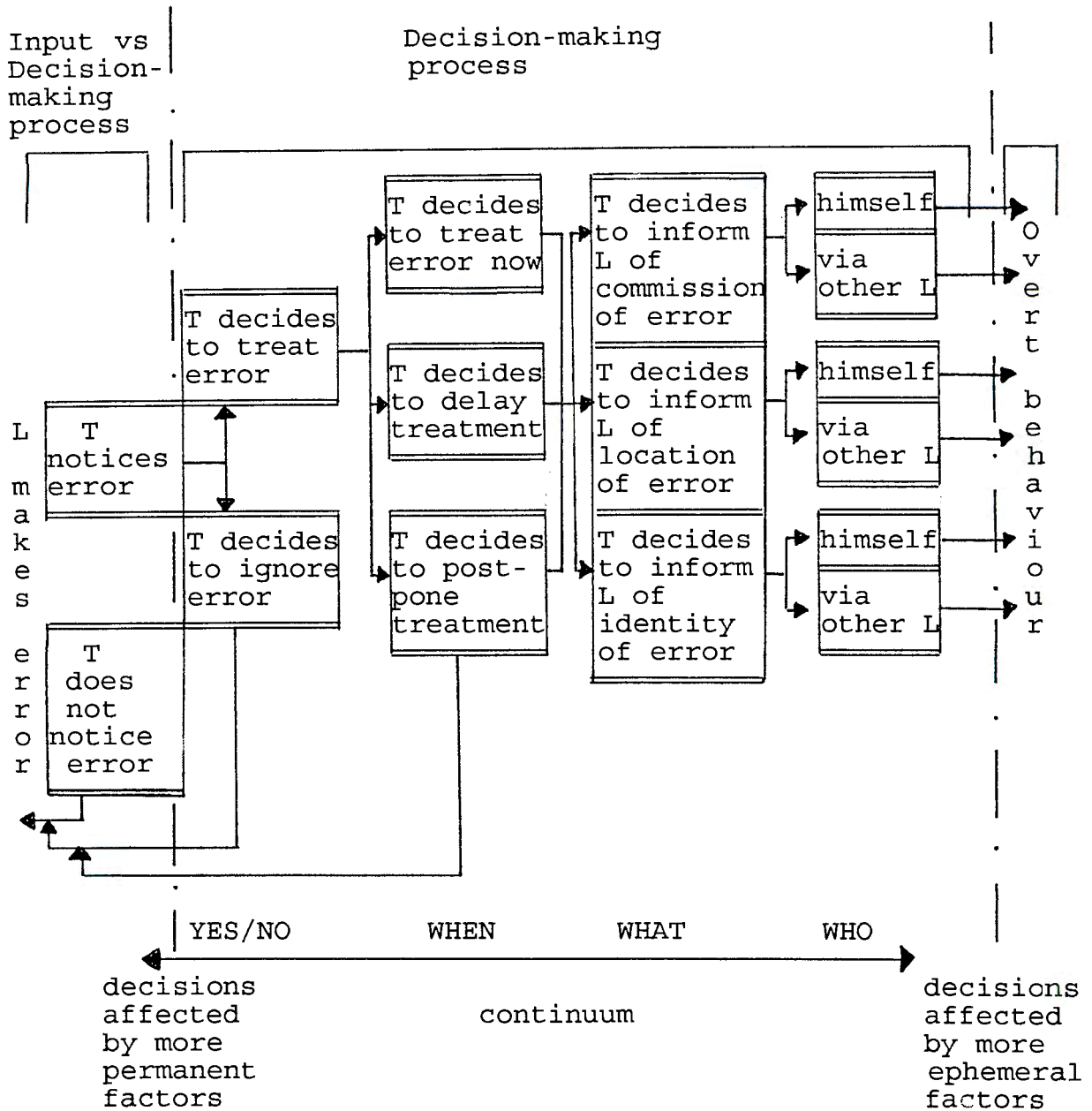
Correction done badly is regarded by the learner as a threat and will achieve no success. Errors should not be "echoed", not even in a mocking way. According to Gower and Walters (1983:151) this may inhibit the learner's ability to work things out for himself. The L2 learner needs confidence to promote fluency. The teacher's attitude towards hesitations and minor grammar errors will determine the learners' courage to achieve fluent use of the L2 (Norrish, 1983:50). According to Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1989:35) the learner will only be put on the defensive and he will concentrate on form instead of meaning, resulting in inhibited communication and stammering. Therefore, they suggest sensitivity and patience, instead of an authoritarian teacher with a threatening attitude.

4.4 CONCLUSION

Two points can be deduced from this chapter. Firstly, it has become clear that different researchers have different opinions on key issues regarding L2 oral error treatment. Secondly, whenever a learner of a L2 commits an oral error, its treatment is preceded by a process of decision-making by the teacher in the form of questions to be answered. Long (1977:289) points out that these decisions, which will determine whether the teacher treats learners' errors appropriately, are very complex. Diagram 6 illustrates the teacher's options between the moment when an oral error occurs and the feedback that follows.

The research reported in diagram 6 has provided some valuable insights into the treatment of the L2 learners' oral errors. If presented correctly, oral error treatment can be a "useful diagnostic tool in language learning and teaching" (Roos, 1990:21). After all, "you can't learn without goofing" (Dulay and Burt, 1974:95).

DIAGRAM 6: LONG'S MODEL OF THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS PRIOR TO THE TEACHER FEEDBACK MOVE



(Long, 1977:289)

CHAPTER 5:

THE TREATMENT OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ORAL ERRORS: A PROPOSED FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSIS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

A number of frameworks have been produced by various researchers which can be applied to the analysis of classroom interaction and, more particularly, the treatment of second language learners' oral errors. For the purposes of developing a framework for the analysis of the errors occurring in the ESL classroom, three types of frameworks will be discussed in this chapter. The first type deals with the various categories of errors. Secondly, frameworks based on by whom the error is noted and treated are reviewed. The third type of framework to be examined deals with the various types of corrective treatment.

Following this, a framework will be proposed for the analysis of the treatment of oral errors in an ESL classroom in this study.

5.2 DIFFERENT FRAMEWORKS FOR THE CLASSIFICATION OF ERRORS

Although the classification of errors is "clearly a difficult process" (Chaudron, 1986:69), a number of researchers have established frameworks for categorizing L2 learners' oral errors.

According to Norrish (1983:80) there are two approaches to setting up a framework for categorizing errors. Firstly, one can determine the categories by means of a set of preconceptions about the learners' most common errors. In other words, before the lessons are analysed, the researcher makes a list of the errors that he anticipates to find in the lessons. Secondly, the researcher can complete the entire analysis, after which he groups the resulting errors together in particular grammatical and semantic problem areas.

An example of a framework based on the first approach, Etherton's (1977:69) framework, will be presented in the next section. This will be followed by two examples of frameworks compiled according to the second approach, namely Hudson's (1971) and Chun et al.'s (1982). The section will conclude with a critique of these frameworks.

5.2.1 ETHERTON (1977)

According to Etherton (1977:69) one can anticipate the errors a L2 learner will commit. This is known as the "pre-selected category" approach. A list of such errors is provided in in Table 2.

**TABLE 2: ETHERTON'S CLASSIFICATION OF ERRORS BASED ON THE
"PRE-SELECTED CATEGORY APPROACH"**

LIST OF HEADINGS:

Abbreviations	ed / ing	Prepositions: *unnecessary, but inserted *omitted
Adjectives	Full stop	Vocabulary
Adverbials	Future Perfect	Present Perfect
Age	Gerund	Punctuation
Agreement	have	Question tags
American English (ie not wrong)	Hyphen	Reflexive pronouns
Apostrophe	Indirect question	s' not needed
Articles: *a / an *omitted *unnecessary, but inserted *wrong one used	Indirect speech	Sequence of tenses
as	Infinitive	Simple Future
be	Inverted commas	Simple Past
can	make	Simple Past, passive
Capital letters	must	Slang
Comma	Nouns (countable / uncountable)	Spelling: *pronunciation *L1 interfere *metathesis
Comparison	nt / nc	There is / are
Conditionals	numbers	Time
Conjunctions	one word or two	Unclassified verbs (past not known)
could	Passive	Present Participle
Days and date	Past Continuous	
Direct questions	Past Participle	
do	Past Perfect	
	Personal pronouns	
	Plural problems	
	Possessive adjectives	

5.2.2 HUDSON (1971)

Norrish (1983:83) explains that the list of error types arrived at by Hudson (1971) was compiled by writing each error onto a separate card and then grouping the cards together in smaller and smaller groups until every error is classified in a category, together with other similar errors. Such a list of errors is shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3: HUDSON'S CLASSIFICATION OF ERRORS BASED ON THE "ERROR-DETERMINED CATEGORY" APPROACH

CATEGORY:	EXAMPLE:
Tense	Simple past instead of simple present active: A brother has more strength to help me whenever I fought.
Agreement	Subject-verb agreement: ... things which makes me happy.
Determiners	Omission of the definite article: Before United States...
Word order	Adverbs: They might have also some reason...
Subordinate clauses	Relative clauses: The only boy what my mother has.
Ungrammatical redundancy	Redundant adverbs: We returned back to Addis Ababa...
Fragments	When he sat down....
Possessive and attributive structures	of-construction instead of 's: The only son of my mother...
Incomplete structures	Obligatory object omitted: One can enjoy with a brother.

Comparative constructions	She sings beautifuller than her sister.
Superlative constructions	She has the beautifullest voice
Reported Speech	Failure to make adjustments in pronouns and time words:
Negative Constructions	I not like ice cream.
Structural idioms	Infinitive instead of -ing after various verbs: They don't mind to accept it.
Participial phrases	I was left there being lonely and miserable.
Parallel structures	Present Participle with non-finite verb: ...seeing my family and went for a picnic.
Pronouns, infinitives and infinitive constructions	I bought me a new dress.
Non-referential There sentence	There were many men who were drinking...
Derivation	Noun derivation: ...the day of happy
Lexical selections	Prepositions: ...who lives at this world.
Capitalisation	I'll be there on saturday.
Punctuation	Are you tired
Handwriting	
Style	Then I got the letter. Then I opened it. Then I got good news.

An important point to bear in mind about this approach is that "overlapping deviations" (Norrish, 1983:85) occur frequently, for example, My sister and me are wanting brother. Table 4 illustrates how such an error will be dealt with.

TABLE 4: THE TREATMENT OF OVERLAPPING DEVIATIONS ACCORDING TO THE "ERROR-DETERMINED CATEGORY" APPROACH

CARD	INSCRIPTION ON CARD	CATEGORY OF ERROR
1	My sister and I want brother.	DETERMINER Omission of indefinite article 'a'
2	My sister and me want a brother.	PRONOUN It should be 'I'
3	My sister and I are wanting a brother.	TENSE Present Continuous instead of simple present.

5.2.3 CHUN ET AL. (1982)

Six different categories are distinguished by Chun et al. (1982:539) into which the errors of L2 learners can be classified. These categories are listed in Table 5

TABLE 5: CHUN ET AL.'S (1982) CATEGORIES OF ERROR

CATEGORY:		EXAMPLE:
Factual errors	Utterances reflecting erroneous factual knowledge or minimal truth value, not necessarily reflecting L's L2 competence.	L: the comet will will crash into Mars T: no, it won't, it will crash into Jupiter
Discourse errors	Inappropriate openings and closings of a conversation, inappropriate refusals, failure to respond or inadequate responses at the appropriate juncture in conversation, vague or inappropriate questions to which T and LL have difficulty responding.	T: I have told you about the comet which will crash into Jupiter? L: yes, I see many crashes in our street
Word choice errors	Incorrect choice or addition of a noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, question word or any other type of function word.	L: I am very exciting about the comet and Jupiter T: you mean you are excited L: ag, excited
Omissions	Incorrect omission of nouns, articles, verbs, auxiliaries, and any type of word required by rules of standard English grammar.	T: do you think you may watch television tonight? L: um-I think-uh maybe I watch-they show comet= T: =will watch if they show L: ja, I will watch if they show the comet

Syntactic errors	Common errors of syntax, such as tense agreement, morphology, word order etc.	L: Jupiter were hit by the comet last night T: was L: was hit
Pronunciation		L: miss, will we see the comet in South [ɛfrikə]? T: South [æfrikə]

5.2.4 A CRITIQUE OF THE FRAMEWORKS

According to Norrish (1983:81) anticipating errors may expose an imperfection in the framework. He points out that a framework based on this approach may bring about an element of circularity. The researcher decides on certain categories before the actual analysis, which may produce an error not anticipated in the categories. Although Norrish (ibid.) regards this as an imperfection, it may nevertheless be considered an advantage, because, should this happen, nothing prevents the researcher from adding one more category to his classification in order to accommodate all the errors reflected in the analysis.

Apart from this disguised advantage, Etherton's (1977:69) framework has four major advantages. Firstly, Etherton (1977:69) advises the researcher to use his list of headings as a mere starting point, and also not to hesitate to refine

the framework until it suits the material fed into the analysis. The second advantage of this framework is its simplicity and, as a result, it is quick to carry out. Thirdly, the headings are clear and familiar to the researcher, as they represent the actual structures taught by the teachers.

Lastly, the fact that this classification can be used for either spoken or written work proves its versatility, although mother tongue interference and pronunciation ought to be dealt with more extensively than they are.

As far as Hudson's (1971) framework is concerned, Norrish (1983:86) mentions two disadvantages as well as one advantage. He finds it too time-consuming and regrets the fact that the framework is only suitable for written English. However, he also mentions that the cards can be kept for later reference, which is an advantage.

Although Chun et al.'s (1982) framework deals with a wide variety of errors, including discourse and factual errors, it has one major disadvantage, which can be explained by means of an example. An utterance such as **He just finished the work** can be regarded as an omission error (Chun et al., 1982:540), as the catenative verb **has** (Huddleston, 1988:77) has been incorrectly omitted. Likewise, it can also be classified

as a syntax error as the tense agreement is erroneous. The time word *just* should agree with the verb, implying that the present perfect tense instead of the simple past tense should be used. An error analysis according to these categories of error is therefore very irksome and confusing. The main reason for this shortcoming is the lack of clear-cut boundaries separating one category from the next.

Lennon (1991b:189) regards Chun et al.'s (1982) framework as inadequate for the practical purposes of identifying errors. His main objection against this framework is its focus on only words and morphemes. No cognizance is taken of the fact that a language is organized hierarchically from the morpheme, word, phrase, clause and sentence to the larger discoursal units. As errors may occur at any rank or level of production, this framework will be unsuitable.

The discourse category may be useful in the measuring of fluency, since erroneous pauses in conversation are regarded as discourse errors. Whereas the first two frameworks focus more on accuracy than fluency (cf. Chapter 3), Chun et al. (1982) deal with both.

Although it cannot be denied that the teacher usually dominates classroom proceedings (Dreyer, 1990:25), oral error treatment is not only the teacher's responsibility (cf. Chapter 4). In the following section frameworks nominating the person who treats the oral errors of L2 learners, will be examined.

5.3 FRAMEWORKS INDICATING THE PERSON WHO TREATS ERRORS

As stated in Chapter 3, a key issue in the treatment of oral L2 errors is that the teacher is not the only person by whom an error can be treated. In fact, teachers are encouraged to allow learners to notice and treat their own as well as one another's errors (Allwright and Bailey, 1991:107). The following frameworks allow the analysis of this phenomenon to a large extent.

5.3.1 SCHEGLOFF, JEFFERSON AND SACKS (1977)

According to Schegloff et al. (1977:378) there are four possible combinations of initiation and repair, depending on the person involved in the process. Table 6 illustrates these combinations with an example of each.

TABLE 6: SCHEGLOFF, JEFFERSON AND SACK'S (1977) FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY OF REPAIR

		INITIATION OF TREATMENT	
		By self	By others
C O R R E C T I O N	By self	L1: which way the: e:r...is the bus station	L1: may I lend your= L2: =borrow= L1: =borrow your pen
	By others	L1: money are:... no.not are= T: =is= L1: a:h. money is important	L1: he die in 1982 T: uhuh. not die L1: e:r...e:r L2: died L1: he died in 1982

According to Allwright and Bailey (1991:90) the treatment of errors applied in ESL classrooms is typically other-initiated other-repair, as teachers generally tell learners that there is an error and also what the correct form is. They suggest that teachers should examine the possibility of employing the other combinations, as stated above, as well.

In a discussion of Schegloff et al.'s framework, Van Lier (1988:192) states that four trajectories of repair procedures are suggested, based on the sequential positions in which self- and other-initiation and self- and other-repair occur. These trajectories are same turn, same turn transition-space, next turn and third turn. One single repair procedure occurs within a sequence of at least one

turn and maximally three turns. As this study is not concerned with the time between initiation of error treatment and its correction, these trajectories will not be discussed in detail.

5.3.2 LONG'S MODEL OF THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS PRIOR TO THE TEACHER FEEDBACK MOVE

Long's (1977) entire model has been included in chapter 4 (cf. Diagram 6). However, only the part dealing with who initiates and treats the error is of importance in this section. In Long's model "himself" refers to the teacher informing the learner about the commission, location or identity of the error made. A prominent characteristic of this framework is the fact that only the teacher notices the error and initiates its correction, although it does provide the learner with an opportunity to correct, but only after the teacher has identified the error and initiated its correction. Allwright and Bailey (1991:90) observe teachers' tendency to identify and correct their pupils's errors as if they were "the only authority on the target language in the teaching situation" (Roos, 1990:25). This framework is thus suitable for many existing ESL classrooms.

5.3.3 A CRITIQUE OF THE FRAMEWORKS

As far as the framework of Schegloff et al. (1977) is concerned, Van Lier (1988:192) describes it as "seriously premature", because more information about the events in an ESL classroom than what this framework can accommodate, is necessary. However, the framework distinguishes between repair by the pupil himself, by another pupil and by both, without excluding a third party, who can easily be accommodated in this framework, as seen in the example of other-initiated other-repair (cf. Table 6). All the parties possibly involved in error treatment can thus be indicated by means of Schegloff et al.'s framework, while Long's model fails to fulfil this function.

As stated in the previous section, Long's model only allows the teacher to notice an error, while learners are equally capable and likely to do it. Allwright and Bailey (1991:107) comment on this feature of Long's model by stating that the model does not allow the learner an opportunity to try to self-correct without any further help from the teacher.

The long-term aim of L2 teaching is to enable learners to "repair their own communication breakdowns and produce the target language accurately and fluently without guidance from us, and that the correct forms will be internalised" (Allwright and Bailey, 1991:107). Therefore, both time and opportunity

ought to be allowed in second language classrooms for self-repair which could be initiated by either the learner himself or by another learner.

Frameworks in which different types of error treatment are differentiated will now be examined.

5.4 FRAMEWORKS FOR THE DISTINCTION OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF ERROR TREATMENT

A large number of empirical studies of error treatment in ESL classrooms have been primarily concerned with the forms of the teacher's feedback and various frameworks for the analysis of error treatment have been proposed.

5.4.1 BRUTON AND SAMUDA (1980)

Bruton and Samuda's (1980) framework deals primarily with immediate treatment types which are categorized under five headings. It is important to note that the first four types are examples of peer correction, while the fifth type involves treatment by the same person who committed the error, as indicated in table 7.

According to Bruton and Samuda (1980:54) there are definite similarities between the correction procedures followed by learners and those employed by teachers in the ESL classroom.

TABLE 7: BRUTON AND SAMUDA'S (1980) DIFFERENT TYPES OF ERROR TREATMENT

TYPE:	EXPLANATION:	EXAMPLE:
Straight alternative by peer.	A peer offers a direct correction to learner who committed error.	L1: well, he take it L2: takes L1: yes, he takes it
Offered possibilities by peer.	A peer offered a possible insertion, often in pause, or pause plus gesture situation. It also occur when a word from the L1 is used.	L1: the chair have three pieces of er.... L2: stick? L1: yeah
Repair question by peer.	A peer asks a question in the form "What?" or "I don't understand".	L1: I cannot get more than two [rʊlɪz] L2: only L1: hmmm L3: two what? L4: two rules L1: rules? L3: rules L1: rules... [rʊlɪz]... huh huh (laughs at original error)
Rejection by peer.	A peer asks an acceptance of the error. It may be followed by an alternative.	L1: quickly. he goes L2: no, not goes, you can say...ehm escapes
Correction by self.	The learner corrects his own error.	L1: the men is here... no, the man is here

5.4.2 FANSELOW (1977)

The aim of Fanselow's (1977:583) investigation was to determine how experienced ESL teachers treated errors in their classrooms. Analyses of the data led not only to a description of eleven teachers' error treatment, but also to ideas on error prevention. These types of error treatment are listed in Table 8.

TABLE 8: FANSELOW'S (1977) TYPES OF TREATMENT OF ERRORS

TYPE OF TREATMENT:	EXAMPLE:
No treatment: Sets another unrelated task.	L: they was here T: where?
Acceptance of response containing error.	T: yes, OK, (shakes head)
Sets task again with no new information.	T: again
Gives correct answer orally	L: this is mine book T: my book
Correct response given orally by another student:	L1: I saw you tonight L2: see
Gives part of correct response or established cue in a different medium.	L: he holding T: (points to 's' written on the blackboard) L: oh, he's holding
Gives information.	L: woolen black beret T: colour first
Presents alternatives.	L: where are you holding? T: where or what?
Repeats response with rising intonation.	L: leather grove T: leather what?

Gives indirect information.	L: gloves (pointing to one glove) T: how many?
Stops learner from continuing response.	L: I holding... T: (holds up hand like policeman)
Indicates no with a gesture.	Shakes head sideways, grimaces, or shakes finger
Says "no" or "uh uh".	
Gestures and says "no" or "uh uh".	
Repeats learner's incorrect response and says "no".	L: linen T: no, not linen
Miscellaneous: Learner stops in mid-response and corrects self; teacher simply waits, and learner starts again without error; teacher's reaction unintelligible	

According to Fanselow (1977:586) particular treatments were not used by some teachers at all, for example, some never said "no", presented alternatives, or gave information. However, all teachers presented the right answer or part of the answer after an error.

As far as error prevention is concerned, Fanselow (1977: 587) realizes that errors can have a learning value. However, he maintains that certain types of errors do not have any learning value; for example, asking a

student whether he knows what an object is called. The aim is to determine whether the learner knows the word and that can be done by asking yes/no and either/or questions about the object. Fanselow (1977:58) alleges that explicit directions as to what is expected, together with examples and a longer wait time before the response, may be helpful in the prevention of useless errors.

5.4.3 CHAUDRON (1977)

Chaudron (1988:134) explains that the function of feedback is both to reinforce correct responses, and to provide information which the learner can use to modify his behaviour. Table 9 is a list of Chaudron's (1977) corrective reactions.

TABLE 9: CHAUDRON'S (1977) FEATURES AND TYPES OF CORRECTIVE REACTIONS IN THE MODEL OF DISCOURSE

FEATURE/TYPE DESCRIPTION OF "ACT":	EXAMPLE:
Ignore Teacher (T) ignores error (E), goes on to other topic or shows acceptance of content.	L: ten cents are enough T: hand me my purse

Interrupt	T interrupts L utterance (U) following E, or before L has completed.	L: ten cents are= T: =is= L: =ten cents is enough
Delay	T waits for L to complete U before correcting.	L: ten cents are enough T: ten cents is
Acceptance	Simple approving or accepting word (usually as sign of reception of U), but T may immediately correct a linguistic error.	L: ten cents are enough T: yes, but ten cents takes singular
Attention	Attention-getter; probably quickly learned by Ls.	L: ten cents are enough T: Attention, everybody he said ten cents are enough
Negation	T shows rejection of part or all of U.	L: ten cents are enough T: no, no
Provide	T provides the correct answer when L has been unable or when no response is offered.	L: ten cents, uh ...= T: =is= L: =ten cents is enough
Reduction	T's U employs only a segment of L'U.	L: ten cents are enough T: ten cents...
Expansion	T adds more linguistic material to L's U, possibly making it more complete.	L: ten cents enough T: ten cents are enough
Emphasis	T uses iterative repetition, stress	L: ten cents are enough

<p>Repetition with no change (optional Exp. and Red.)</p>	<p>T repeats L's U with no change of E or omission of E.</p>	<p>L: ten cents are enough T: ten cents are enough</p>
<p>Repetition with no change and Emph. (optional Exp. and Red.)</p>	<p>T repeats L's U with no change of E, but emphasis locates or indicates fact of E.</p>	<p>L: ten cents are enough T: ten cents are enough</p>
<p>Repetition with change (optional Exp. and Red.)</p>	<p>Usually T simply adds correction and continues to other topics. Normally only when Emph. is added will correcting change become clear, or will T attempt to make it clear.</p>	<p>L: ten cents are enough T: ten cents is enough</p>
<p>Repetition with change and Emph. (optional Exp. and Red.)</p>	<p>T adds Emph. to stress location of E and its correct formulation.</p>	<p>L: ten cents are enough T: ten cents is enough</p>
<p>Explanation (optional Exp. and Red.)</p>	<p>T provides information as to cause or type of E.</p>	<p>L: ten cents are enough T: one may think cents are plural, but it is only one amount and therefore takes singular</p>
<p>Complex Explanation</p>	<p>Combination of Negation, Repetition, and/or Explanation.</p>	<p>L: ten cents are enough T: is, not are, ten cents is one amount, it is singular</p>

Repeat	requests L to repeat U with intent to have L self-correct.	L: ten cents are enough T: I beg your pardon?
Repeat (implicit)	Procedures are understood that by pointing or otherwise signalling, T can have L repeat.	
Loop	T honestly needs a replay of L's U, owing to lack of clarity or certainty of its form.	
Prompt	T uses a lead-in cue to get L to repeat U, possibly at point of E possible slight rising intonation.	L: ten cents are enough T: ten cents ...
Clue	T reaction provides L with isolation type of E or of the nature of its immediate correction, without providing correction.	L: ten cents are enough T: ten cents are? how many amounts?
Original question	T repeats the original question that led to response.	
Altered question	alters the original question syntactically, but not semantically.	T: ten cents, do you think it takes plural or singular? L: plural ten cents, is or are? L: ten cents is enough
Question (optional Red., Exp Emph.)	Numerous ways of asking for a new response, often with Clues, etc.	
Transfer	T asks another L or several, or class to provide correction.	L1: ten cents are enough T: Lindi, do you agree? L2: no, miss, ten cents is enough

*Acceptance	T shows approval of L's U.	L: ten cents are-no-is enough T: yes, that's it
*Repetitions	T attempts reinforcement of correct response.	L: ten cents are-no-is enough T: yes, ten cents is enough
*Explanation	T explains why response is correct.	L: ten cents are-no-is enough T: ten cents is one amount, that's why it takes singular
Return	T returns to original E-maker for another attempt, after transfer. A type of verification.	L1: ten cents are enough T: no, Sue, Lindi, what do you say? L2: ten cents is enough T: yes, do you know why? L1: ten cents should take is T: but do you know why?
Verification	T attempts to assure understanding of correction; a new elicitation is implicit or made more explicit.	L1: no, miss T: ten cents is one amount, that's why we use is with it
Exit	At any stage in the exchange T may drop correction of the E, though usually not after explicit Negation, Emph.,	

The treatment types marked with an asterisk indicate acts that occur as approving feedback, although they resemble the analogous correcting feedback acts (Chaudron, 1988:148)

5.4.4 A CRITIQUE OF THE FRAMEWORKS

Many researchers (e.g. Gower and Walters, 1983:149; Botha, 1987:17; Roos, 1990:25; Allwright and Bailey, 1991:107) allege that oral errors should also be treated by learners of the target language, not only by the teacher. Bruton and Samuda's (1980) framework allows treatment by the learners, but they leave no room for the teacher in the process of error treatment. As the L2 learners are still learning the target language, they are not competent to treat every single error made by their fellow-learners. The teacher still has a function in error treatment (Ellis, 1990:74).

Furthermore, according to Bruton and Samuda (1980:54) the fifth type, correction by self, leads to some difficulties, seeing that the researcher cannot always determine whether the original error is really an error, or a mere slip. Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1989:74) assert that it is of utmost importance that the teacher focuses on errors in error treatment, and not mistakes.

Fanselow's (1977) framework distinguishes a great variety of error treatment types. However, it allows little room for initiation of the error by learners and assumes teacher domination of the ESL classroom. Moreover, certain types of treatment involves non-verbal actions by

the teacher, which may not be noticed by the learners, seeing that they are looking at fellow learners to whom they have just posed questions or at the materials in their hands. Some of the error treatment will thus go unnoticed.

Another problematic point concerning Fanselow's framework is the treatment type where the teacher says "again". This is ambiguous, because it may be interpreted as "you committed an error", but also "I didn't hear you". Therefore, instead of correcting errors, treatment such as this may cause confusion.

Chaudron's framework distinguishes even more different types of error treatment than that of Fanselow (1977). Although it also provides opportunity for positive feedback and correction by the learners, Beretta (1989: 288) comments that not all the categories distinguished by Chaudron are used in a typical ESL classroom. Another point is the fact that the descriptions of the categories overlap and one treatment might thus be associated with more than one category, for example, seven types of repetition and three types of explanation.

5.5 A PROPOSED FRAMEWORK

For the purposes of this study the frameworks of Etherton (1977), Hudson (1971), Schegloff et al. (1977) and Chaudron (1977) have been combined. The reason for this is that a combination of these four frameworks as a basis for the empirical investigation will provide answers to the questions stated as the aims of this study.

As suggested by Etherton (1977:69), the list of headings will be refined in order to suit the material to be analysed, with Etherton's (1977) framework as starting point. Some of Etherton's categories will be omitted, such as those meant for written work, while others will be added from Hudson's (1971) framework. The latter has a few very useful categories of errors, not included in Etherton's (1977) framework, which may occur in the ESL classroom.

One of the aims of this study is to determine the degree to which errors are corrected by learners themselves or by fellow-learners. Therefore a framework for the identification of the person by whom the error is corrected has to be included in the proposed framework. Schegloff et al.'s (1977) framework has been chosen because of the various combinations of initiation

and repair and the fact that initiation and repair by the teacher can also be regarded as other-initiation and other-repair, thus making provision for treatment of errors by teachers as well as pupils.

Chaudron's (1977) framework will be used to determine which type or types of error treatment are the most popular among teachers. He distinguishes a variety of clearly defined types of error treatment.

The proposed framework for analysing second language learners' oral errors and their treatment in ESL classrooms is the following:

DISCOURSE	CATEGORY OF ERROR	WHO...		TYPE OF CORRECTIVE REACTION
		initiated error treatment?	corrected error?	

5.6 SUMMARY

By means of summary the main categories of Etherton's (1977) and Hudson's (1971) frameworks, as well as those of Schegloff's et al. and Chaudron's (1977) that are to be used in the empirical investigation, are briefly mentioned again to illustrate the use of the framework.

5.6.1 CATEGORY OF ERROR

Adjectives (adj)	Use of L1 (L1)	S not needed (-s)
Adverbials (adv)	many / much (m/m)	Sequence of tense (st)
Agreement (agr)	Negative (neg)	Supposition (sp)
Articles (art)	Passive (pss)	Conditionals (cond)
Auxiliary verbs (aux)	Tense (t)	There is/are (th)
Borrow / Lend (b/l)	Pronoun (pn)	Verbs - past not known (vp)
Comparison (comp)	Plural (pl)	Vocabulary (v)
Reported Speech (rs)	Preposition (prep)	Word choice (wc)
Conjunctions (conj)	Pronunciation (p)	Word order (wo)
Content (ct)	Question (?)	Past Participle (pp)
Derivations (der)	Question tags (?t)	Infinitive (inf)

The symbols in brackets will be used in the framework.

Whenever an error occurs in the discourse, it is underlined.

Pronunciation errors are indicated by means of phonetic transcription and square brackets, and they are also underlined.

e.g. L: miss, will we see the comet in South [ɛfrikə]?
 T: South [æfrikə]

For a more detailed explanation of this category consult sections 5.2.1 and 5.2.2.

5.6.2 BY WHOM ARE ERRORS TREATED?

WHO INITIATES THE TREATMENT?	Teacher (T) Pupil who committed error (PS) Another pupil (PO)
WHO TREATS THE ERROR?	Teacher (T) Pupil who committed error (PS) Another pupil (PO)

For a detailed discussion consult section 5.3.1

5.6.3 CATEGORY OF ERROR TREATMENT

Ignore (I)	Repetition with change (R+ch)	Transfer (T)
Interrupt (Ir)		*Acceptance (*Ac)
Delay (D)	Repetition with change and emphasis (R+ch+E)	*Repetition (*R)
Acceptance (Ac)	Explanation (Expl)	*Explanation (*Expl)
Attention (At)	Complex Explanation (CEExpl)	Return (Rt)
Negation (Neg)	Loop (L)	Verification (V)
Expansion (Exp)	Prompt (P)	Repeat (Ri) (implicit)
Emphasis (Emph)	Clue (C)	Provide (Pv)
Repetition no change (R-ch)	Original question (Oq)	Reduction (Red)
Repetition no change and Emphasis (R-ch+e)	Altered question (Aq)	Exit (Et)
	Question/s (Q)	

For a detailed explanation consult section 5.4.3.

5.7 AN EXAMPLE

A piece of classroom discourse has been transcribed and illustrates the use of the framework.

DISCOURSE:	CATEGORY OF ERROR:	WHO...		TYPE OF CORRECTIVE REACTION:
		initiated error treatment?	corrected error?	
L1: may I <u>lend</u> -uh-uh- may I borrow your black shoes for tonight's dance?	b/l	PS	PS	
L2: you may <u>lend</u> my shoes tonight= T: is that correct? LL: no, no T: Tanya what must it be? L3: borrow	b/l	T	PO	Q

5.8 CONCLUSION

In this chapter different frameworks that have been used to analyse different aspects of error treatment in second language classrooms were described. These frameworks were developed by various researchers because they wanted certain questions answered. By using a framework combining the categories of error distinguished by Etherton (1977) and Hudson (1971), Schegloff et al.'s (1977) repair framework and Chaudron's (1977) types and features of corrective reactions, various aims are reached.

Firstly, the types of errors teachers treat or do not treat are identified. Secondly, the degree to which teachers allow or enable learners to correct not only their own errors, but also those of their fellow-learners is established. Lastly, the techniques most popular among teachers to treat their pupils' errors are determined.

CHAPTER 6:

METHOD OF RESEARCH

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will be devoted to the method of research applied in the empirical investigation. The study population, data collection procedures, instrumentation and analysis will be discussed.

6.2 STUDY POPULATION

An Afrikaans girls' school where English is taught as a second language was selected for observation purposes. This secondary school is situated on the East Rand in a community where English is often used. There are about 900 girls in the school. The subjects for this study included the Standard 7 classes (n = 150) as well as the two teachers responsible for teaching these classes. Both teachers, one male and the other female, are non-native speakers of English.

6.3 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

A pilot study was undertaken beforehand to ensure that the proposed framework would be usable. No problems were experienced with regard to the application of the framework. However, a practical problem such as where to place the tape recorder was identified and solved.

The Standard 7 classes were observed and 10 lessons featuring spoken discourse between teachers and pupils, as well as between pupils, were recorded and analysed. The periods ranged from 30 to 40 minutes in length.

The ten collected lessons were then transcribed. Jefferson's (1978:241) transcription conventions, adapted slightly by Van Lier (1988:243), were used to ensure clarity and understanding on the part of the reader. These conventions are:

T	:	teacher
L1, L2, etc,	:	identified learner
L	:	unidentified learner
L3?	:	probably learner 3 (L3)
LL	:	several or all learners simultaneously
/yes/yah//ok// ///huh?///oh///	:	overlapping or simultaneous listening responses, brief comments, etc., by two, three, or an unspecified number of learners

- = : a) turn continues below, at the next identical symbol
b) if inserted by the end of one speaker's turn and the beginning of the next speaker's adjacent turn, it indicates that there is no gap at all between the two turns
-, etc. : pause; three periods approximately one second. These periods are separated from the preceding word by a space
- ? : rising intonation, not necessarily question
- ! : strong emphasis with falling intonation
- OK. now. well., well., etc. : a period unseparated from the preceding word indicates falling intonation, suggesting continuation
- so, the next thing : a comma indicates low-rising intonation, suggesting continuation
- e:r, the:::, etc. : one or more colons indicate lengthening of the preceding sound
- emphasis** : bold print indicates marked prominence through pitch or amplitude
- OK? so, next
[]
yes but- : onset and end of overlap or insertion of concurrent turn
-(radio) : single brackets indicate unclear or probable item
- ((unint)),
((coughs)) : double brackets indicate (a stretch of) unintelligible approximate length indicated), or comments about the transcript, including non-verbal actions

- no- : a hyphen indicates an abrupt cut-off, with level pitch
- yesterday Peter : capitals are only used for
went proper names, not to indicate beginnings of sentences
- [si:m] : square brackets indicate phonetic transcription

The phonetic alphabet used by Lewis (1972:1) will be employed in the phonetic transcription of pronunciation errors.

6.4 INSTRUMENTATION

A framework for the analysis of oral error treatment in ESL classrooms was devised (cf. Chapter 5).

The proposed framework for analysing oral error treatment in second language classrooms is:

DISCOURSE:	CATEGORY OF ERROR	WHO ..		TYPE OF CORRECTIVE REACTION
		initiated error treatment?	corrected error?	

6.5 ANALYSIS

After collecting and transcribing the data, the lessons were analysed by means of the proposed framework (cf. Appendix). The number of times every different category of oral error and every type of corrective action by the teacher or by a pupil occurred, was counted. The number of times a certain category of oral error was ignored, was also counted to determine whether teachers treated a certain type of oral error and left other types untreated. These frequencies are presented in frequency tables (cf. Chapter 7).

It is important to note that after noticing an error, the teacher often treated the error by means of an action (e.g. question or altered question) which was meant to evoke reaction from the learners to make them aware of the error. Such a reaction or answer from the learner was regarded as error treatment by the learner, unless the answer was erroneous. The reason for this limitation was to prevent the analysis from becoming too complicated.

6.6 CONCLUSION

The analysed data contained important information regarding oral error treatment in ESL classrooms. A discussion of the results and their implications follows in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 7

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will be devoted to the presentation and discussion of the results of the analysed data. In the discussion of the results an attempt will be made to establish whether oral errors are treated and which types of errors are treated. The techniques most popular among teachers when it comes to the treatment of their learners' oral errors will also be determined, as well as the degree to which these methods offer learners an opportunity to treat their own errors, or those of their peers (cf. 1.2).

7.2 RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The results will be presented in terms of the number and category of errors committed, by whom error treatment was initiated and corrected and also the number and type of the teachers' corrective reactions.

7.2.1 CATEGORIES OF ERRORS

A total number of 415 errors was observed (cf. Appendix).

Table 10 shows the number of errors made by the learners and how they are spread across the range of different categories (cf. 5.6.1). The categories in which most errors occurred, were 'Agreement', 'Pronunciation' and 'Tense' errors (cf. Table 10).

TABLE 10: NUMBER OF ERRORS COMMITTED BY THE LEARNERS

CATEGORY:	NUMBER:	PERCENTAGE:
Adjectives	2	0,48%
Adverbials	11	2,65%
Agreement	81	19,51%
Articles	15	3,61%
Auxiliary verbs	3	0,72%
Borrow / Lend	5	1,20%
Comparison	4	0,96%
Conditionals	0	
Conjunctions	0	
Content	16	3,85%
Derivations	1	0,24%
Infinitive	3	0,72%
Use of L1	26	6,26%
many / much	1	0,24%
Negative	1	0,24%
Passive	2	0,48%
Past participle	3	0,72%
Pronoun	37	8,91%
Plural	13	3,13%
Preposition	14	3,37%
Pronunciation	42	10,12%
Question	1	0,24%
Question tags	0	
Reported speech	29	6,98%
S not needed	5	1,20%
Sequence of tense	23	5,54%
Supposition	2	0,48%
Tense	38	9,15%
There is / are	5	1,20%
Verbs - past not known	1	0,24%
Vocabulary	10	2,40%
Word order	14	3,37%
Word choice	7	1,68%
TOTAL	415	

Some of the categories are closely related, for example, 'Sequence of tense' and 'Tense'. For the sake of clarity it is important to mention the following:

- (i) When a learner started a speech using the present tense and then, without due cause, changed the tense to the past, it was categorized as a 'Sequence of tense' error. After this, past tense was considered correct until the learner switched again to the present tense, which was then another 'Sequence of tense' error. Adding -ing unnecessarily and wrong use of time words were simply regarded as 'Tense' errors.
- (ii) When the verb didn't agree with the noun, for instance, **she put** (cf. Lesson 4), it was categorized as an 'Agreement' error, while **white shoes that matches** (cf. Lesson 1) was regarded as an 'S not needed' error. However, **this roses** (cf. Lesson 9) was a 'Plural' error.
- (iii) It is also possible that one error could be classified in 2 categories, for example, **prizes** (cf. Lesson 7), which could be either a 'Word choice' or a 'Pronunciation' error. Another example was **duisendpoot** (cf. Lesson 8) which was both a 'Vocabulary' error and a 'L1 interference' error.

Another interesting point, which may prove to be significant, is that often a certain category of error occurred frequently in one lesson, while it did not occur even once in another. For example, 'Reported speech' errors featured 16 times in Lesson 4

and not once in Lesson 1. The reason for the phenomenon was the fact that the focus of Lesson 4 was Reported speech, while Lesson 1 concentrated on 'Borrow/Lend'. However, it is significant that 'Agreement' errors represented by far the biggest portion (19,51%) of the total number of errors committed, followed by 'Pronunciation' (10,12%) and 'Tense' (9,15%), as none of the 10 analysed lessons focused specifically on agreement, pronunciation or tenses.

7.2.2 ERROR TREATMENT

7.2.2.1 CATEGORIES OF ERROR TREATMENT

According to Chaudron (1977), failure to respond to an oral error, in other words, to ignore an error, is one of the 31 corrective reactions employed by teachers in the ESL classroom. However, the corrective value of ignoring an oral error is debatable. Therefore, the number of errors ignored in the analysed lessons will not be included in Table 11, which indicates the number of corrective reactions, but will be indicated separately in Table 12.

Teachers ignored the learners' errors 288 times and used the remaining types of corrective reactions 248 times. Table 13 gives the number of times every category of error treatment was employed, excluding the errors left untreated.

TABLE 11: NUMBER OF CORRECTIVE REACTIONS

CATEGORY:	NUMBER:	PERCENTAGE:
Interrupt	2	0,36%
Delay	29	5,31%
Acceptance	6	1,09%
Attention	14	2,56%
Negation	18	3,29%
Expansion	0	
Emphasis	0	
Repetition no change	4	0,73%
Repetition no change and Emphasis	8	1,46%
Repetition with change	7	1,28%
Repetition with change and Emphasis	1	0,18%
Explanation	20	3,66%
Complex explanation	3	0,54%
Loop	5	0,91%
Prompt	3	0,54%
Clue	13	2,38%
Original question	0	
Altered question	20	3,66%
Question/s	42	7,69%
Transfer	21	3,84%
*Acceptance	18	3,29%
*Repetition	6	1,09%
*Explanation	4	0,73%
Return	0	
Verification	0	
Repeat	1	0,18%
Repeat (implicit)	0	
Provide	12	2,19%
Reduction	1	0,18%
Exit	0	
TOTAL	546	

One of the aims of this study is to establish whether certain types or categories of oral errors are ignored. Table 12 shows the percentage of categories of errors which were ignored. The fact that these errors went untreated, may be ascribed to the fact that the focus of these lessons was on fluency (cf. 7.3.2).

TABLE 12: CATEGORIES OF ERRORS NOT TREATED

CATEGORY OF ERROR	TOTAL NUMBER OF ERRORS	NUMBER OF ERRORS IGNORED	PERCENTAGE
Adjectives	2	1	50%
Adverbials	11	9	81,8%
Agreement	81	63	77,7%
Articles	15	13	86,6%
Auxiliary verbs	3	3	100%
Borrow / Lend	5	1	20%
Comparison	4	4	100%
Content	16	7	43,7%
Infinitive	3	2	66,6%
Use of L1	26	23	88,4%
Many / Much	1	1	100%
Negative	1	1	100%
Passive	2	2	100%
Past participle	3	3	100%
Pronoun	37	20	54%
Plural	13	5	38,4%
Preposition	14	12	85,7%
Pronunciation	42	33	78,5%
Question	1	1	100%
Reported Speech	29	4	13,7%
S not needed	5	3	60%
Sequence of tense	23	22	95,6%
Supposition	2	2	100%
Tense	38	28	73,6%
There is /are	5	4	80%
Verbs - past not known	1	1	100%
Vocabulary	10	3	30%
Word order	14	12	85,7%
Word choice	7	5	71,4%
TOTAL:	415	288	

One of the categories of oral error treatment distinguished by Chaudron (1988:134) is delayed treatment. It is usually applied when the pupil is delivering a speech and the teacher does not wish to interrupt the learner when he has committed an error.

Oral errors are then treated at a later stage, which may be directly after the speech or in another lesson all together. It is important to note that delayed treatment often results in rather vague correction, for example, **your content is good...you must just watch your language** (cf. Lesson 2) after no fewer than 8 oral errors. However, some delayed treatment results in definite, clear corrections, leaving learners with no doubt about the nature of their errors.

Delayed treatment was used 29 times in the analysed lessons and Table 13 distinguishes between vague and more definite delayed treatment.

TABLE 13: DELAYED TREATMENT

DELAY + vague remark by teacher after several errors.	DELAY + later definite treatment resulting in correction.	DELAY + correction by PO.	T O T A L
13 (44,82%)	14 (48,27%)	2 (6,89%)	29

7.2.2.2 INITIATION AND TREATMENT

As stated in chapter 5 (cf. 5.3.1), errors are treated in two stages: the initiation, in other words, when the error is noticed and attention is focused on it, and treatment, when the error is corrected. These two stages may occur in four possible combinations, depending on the person involved in the process

(cf. Table 6); for example, the teacher may notice the error and focus the learners' attention on it, but the pupil who committed the error may eventually correct it himself.

The number of times errors were initiated by teachers and pupils in the analysed lessons will be presented first, followed by the number of times errors were treated by teachers and pupils.

7.2.2.2.1 INITIATION

Of the 415 errors committed, 128 were noticed and subsequently treated. Table 14 gives the total number of error treatments initiated by either the teacher (T), the pupil who made the error (PS) or another pupil (PO) in the classroom (cf. Table 6).

TABLE 14: THE NUMBER OF TIMES ERROR TREATMENT WAS INITIATED BY TEACHERS OR PUPILS

BY TEACHER (T)	BY PUPIL WHO COMMITTED ERROR (PS)	BY ANOTHER PUPIL (PO)	TOTAL
100 (78,12%)	22 (17,18%)	6 (4,68%)	128

7.2.2.2.2 TREATMENT

As it is often necessary to treat one error by applying more than one type of corrective reaction, there cannot be any correlation between the number of errors committed and the number of times treatment is offered. However, treatment by the

teacher has to correlate with the number of times any of the types of corrective reactions are employed, as they are exclusively used by teachers (Chaudron, 1988:134). Table 15 shows the number of times errors were treated by the teacher (T), the pupil who committed the error (self-correction) (PS), or another pupil in the classroom (PO).

TABLE 15: NUMBER OF TIMES ERRORS WERE TREATED BY TEACHERS OR PUPILS

BY TEACHER (T)	BY PUPIL WHO COMMITTED ERROR (PS)	BY ANOTHER PUPIL (PO)	TOTAL
230 (72,1%)	48 (15,04%)	41 (12,85%)	319

7.3 DISCUSSION

In this section the results will be discussed in order to establish which types of errors were treated while other categories were left untreated. The corrective reactions used most frequently by teachers and whether these methods allowed learners to become involved in the treatment of their own errors, will also be discussed.

7.3.1 CATEGORIES OF ORAL ERRORS TREATED

As stated earlier (cf. section 7.2.2), the largest number of errors resulted from the L2 learners' inability to establish agreement between nouns and verbs in sentences. What is even more significant is the fact that of the 81 'Agreement' errors, 63 (77,7%) were ignored. The second largest number of errors was 'Pronunciation' errors (42), of which 33 (78,5%) were ignored, while the third biggest number of errors was 'Tense' errors (38), 28 (73,6%) of which were ignored. One may therefore assume that the oral errors which occurred more than others, might have been prevented if only they were treated and eventually corrected, instead of ignored to such a large extent.

The above-mentioned correlation between frequencies of categories of error and the teachers' subsequent failure to treat them, may confirm the opinions of Lennox-Short (1973:31) and Roos (1990:25), mentioned in section 4.3.2 in chapter 4. They point out that L2 learners fail to eradicate erroneous utterances as they believe errors do not matter at all. Too much error tolerance by teachers leads to this attitude.

According to Hughes (1982:8) (cf. 4.3.2), ignoring oral errors does not have a negative impact on SLA, as errors tend to fall away gradually and learners progress towards proficiency without active error treatment. If this is the case, the occurrence of 'Agreement' errors should not have been as high as was the case in this study.

A possible explanation for the high number of 'Agreement' errors is given by Bruton and Samuda (1980:50) (cf. chapter 1). They claim that a certain error may become acceptable to the learner simply because the incorrect form is repeated frequently without any action to eliminate the error. This view is shared by Allwright and Bailey (1991:100) (cf. 4.3.2). They warn teachers that the erroneous output of the L2 learner becomes erroneous input for the other learners in the classroom, which may promote oral errors.

7.3.2 CATEGORIES OF ORAL ERRORS UNTREATED

Of the 29 categories of error distinguished, 9 categories were ignored totally in treatment. They were auxiliary verbs, comparisons, many/much, negatives, passives, past participles, questions, suppositions and verbs of which the past tense was not known. These nine categories together represent only 18 (4,33%) of the 415 errors which occurred in the analysed lessons.

7.3.3 CATEGORIES OF ERROR TREATMENT USED

Chaudron's corrective reactions (1977) occurred 546 times in the analysed lessons. However, this includes the 288 times (52,74%) errors were left totally untreated, and not even mentioned or pointed out to the learners. This 'reaction', which can hardly be called a "corrective reaction" (Chaudron, 1977), occurred the most, followed by questions (7,69%), delay (5,31%), transfer (3,84%), altered questions (3,66%) and explanations (3,66%). Table 13 shows that of the 29 times treatment of an error was delayed, only 48,27% resulted in correction of the error after intensive treatment by the teacher, while 6,89% were corrected by another pupil (not the one who committed the error). The remaining 44,82% were only treated as errors in general and pupils probably did not benefit from the treatment offered by the teacher. Table 16 gives an indication of the number of errors not treated appropriately.

TABLE 16: NUMBER OF ERRORS NOT TREATED

NUMBER OF ERRORS IGNORED:	+	NUMBER OF ERRORS DELAYED WITH NO INTENSIVE TREATMENT:	=	TOTAL NUMBER OF CORRECTIVE REACTIONS	=	TOTAL NUMBER OF CORRECTIVE REACTIONS
288	+	13	=	301	=	546

7.3.3.1 ACCURACY AND FLUENCY RELATED TO ERROR TREATMENT

As stated in 7.2.2.1, the focus on fluency instead of accuracy may account for the high number of errors ignored. However, in the 10 lessons equal attention was paid to both these polarities in ELT methodology (cf. 4.3.3). In Table 17 the 10 lessons were categorized as either accuracy-oriented, when the aim of the lesson was on a particular grammatical feature such as reported speech, or fluency-oriented, when the learner was expected to use the target language for communicative purposes.

TABLE 17: ACCURACY AND FLUENCY IN THE ANALYSED LESSONS

ACCURACY:	FLUENCY:
Lesson 1: Borrow/Lend	Lesson 2: The strange star
Lesson 4: Reported Speech	Lesson 3: Pets
Lesson 6: Reported Speech	Lesson 5: Debate
Lesson 9: Concord	Lesson 7: Olympic Games
Lesson 10: A/An	Lesson 8: How things are done

Table 18 gives a picture of the distribution of errors which were ignored in lessons where the objective was fluency, compared to lessons where accuracy was promoted.

TABLE 18: NUMBER OF IGNORED ERRORS IN FLUENCY- AND ACCURACY-ORIENTED LESSONS

ACCURACY:	FLUENCY:	TOTAL:
39 (13,54%)	249 (86,45%)	288

These results may confirm Brumfit's (1979:97) view (cf. 4.3). He states that the objective of a lesson determines whether oral errors should be treated or ignored. The majority of errors were ignored (86,45%) as a result of the focus on fluency, while only (13,54%) were ignored in lessons where the attention was on accuracy. However, together with these results one has to consider the fact that all 10 lessons were not of equal length, which may lead to fewer errors in, for example, lesson 10 than in lesson 5.

7.3.3.2 BY WHOM WERE ERRORS INITIATED AND TREATED?

Apart from the errors ignored and those subjected to delayed treatment, (cf. 7.2.2.1), other corrective reactions used most frequently were questions (7,69%), transfer (3,84%), altered questions (3,66%) and explanations (3,66%). Of the 31 categories of error treatment distinguished by Chaudron (1977), only 8 may enable the teacher to allow the learner to treat and eventually correct his own error or those of his peers. These 8 categories of oral error treatment are transfer, attention, loop, prompt, clue, original questions, altered questions and questions. Three of these categories feature among the 3 most frequently used corrective reactions in the analysed lessons, excluding those errors ignored and delayed. In other words, teachers have a tendency to allow learners to treat their own oral errors, but this tendency needs to be developed to ensure a larger degree of peer correction.

The results seem to confirm Allwright and Bailey's findings, mentioned in section 1.3 in chapter 1. Teachers do not treat all the errors that occur in the classroom. They not only fail to employ the wide variety of methods available for the treatment of oral errors, but as a result also fail to lead learners to treat their own errors, which is the ultimate aim of oral error treatment, as explained in section 4.3.7 in chapter 4.

7.4 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the discussion has been descriptive as well as explanatory and also speculative. Some illustrative evidence has proven that those errors which occur more frequently are also those which teachers ignore most. Although teachers mostly ignore or delay oral error treatment, they do favour treatment types which promote peer correction. However, these categories of error treatment are not employed to their fullest potential, owing to the high number of ignored errors.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

8.1 CONCLUSION

The issue of oral error treatment in ESL classrooms is not only of obvious importance to the teacher and the L2 learner, but also a matter of concern to the researcher and the applied linguist (cf. section 2.5 in chapter 2).

A literary review was conducted in which the significance, the nature, causes and treatment of L2 oral errors were discussed. Researchers (e.g. Kilfoil and Van der Walt, 1989; Odlin, 1989; Ellis, 1990; Selinker and Lakshamanan, 1992) lodge contrasting opinions about the various factors causing oral errors in the process of SLA. Some researchers (e.g. Kilfoil and Van der Walt, 1989; Selinker and Lakshamanan, 1992) regard transfer and interference from the mother tongue as the main cause of oral errors, while others (e.g. Odlin, 1989; Ellis, 1990) disagree.

As far as the treatment of oral errors in the L2 learner's language is concerned, opinions also differ. Lennox-Short (1973:41) and Roos (1990:25) propagate error treatment, warning that too much error tolerance by teachers may lead L2 learners to believe that the difference between wrong and correct language is not important. However, Hughes (1982:8) and Ellis (1990:73) maintain that oral error treatment has more

disadvantages than advantages and therefore it will impede SLA, instead of promoting it. Another approach to oral error treatment is that L2 learners ought to be allowed to discover and correct their own errors (e.g. Roos, 1990; Allwright and Bailey, 1991; Van der Walt et al., 1994).

The purpose of this study of the treatment of oral errors in ESL classrooms has been to try to demonstrate that teachers ignore too many oral errors, leaving them unattended. From the results of the analysed data it seems as if the errors which occur more frequently are largely ignored. Therefore, L2 learners fail to eliminate oral errors because teachers do not focus their attention on them. L2 learners may thus host an attitude of "wrong can become right" (Lennox-Short, 1973:41). In the long run such a relaxed approach may lead L2 learners to believe that any use of the L2 is acceptable as long as it makes sense, regardless of how accurate their L2 usage is. However, in a society where discipline, rules and striving towards perfection are neglected to an increasingly large extent, the negative social consequences of grammatical inaccuracy can still impede communication, especially in academic, professional and more sophisticated social circles.

Another aim of this study has been to determine the degree to which teachers promote the treatment of oral errors by learners themselves. The results of the empirical investigation proved that, although the majority of oral errors were ignored,

teachers showed a preference for those categories of error treatment which, if employed correctly, could promote peer correction. The conclusion is thus that if teachers succeed in treating more errors intensively, in other words, ignore and delay oral error treatment to a lesser degree, more attention will be given to those categories which involve learners in the treatment of their own errors.

It has become clear that the largest number of errors was ignored when the lesson was aimed towards fluency (cf. 7.3.3.1), because the teacher did not want to interrupt the learner to make him aware of his errors. This implies that the teacher has to rely on delayed treatment, but there is a problem. How will he treat every oral error efficiently after the learner has completed his entire speech? A possible solution is to use a tape recorder while pupils are speaking. The next lesson may then be to listen to the recording and to allow the learners not only to identify oral errors, but also to treat them. Swart (1988:43) states that this method has definite advantages. Firstly, the learners' critical sense is developed as they are actively involved in the recognition of errors. Secondly, a peer audience has been established.

Gainer (1989:46) believes that the fact that treatment of oral errors is usually provided through the oral medium may lead to problems. In the case of treatment done orally, the student must first hear the teacher's response, then realize that the

response is corrective, find out what it is that the teacher is trying to correct and remember what the original utterance, which contained the error, was. Gainer (ibid.) regards these steps as very complex and anticipates failure at any point. Fanselow (1977:590) agrees with this by stating that oral error treatment in written form makes correction more explicit and increases redundancy. Furthermore, Gainer (1989:46) suggests that errors can be graphically located with blanks such as those used in cloze tests. By writing correctly-produced portions of an utterance on the blackboard and drawing cloze-type blanks at the trouble spots, the teacher can indicate the location of errors precisely to the learners.

This method has several advantages (Gainer, 1989:46). Firstly, pupils have more time to think. Secondly, the attention of the whole class is focussed on the error, thus prompting peer correction. Thirdly, learners also see which parts of their utterances were correct. They are thus assured that their attempts were not completely wrong. The technique therefore acknowledges the learners' present level of competence, while providing guidance towards more acceptable forms.

Another recommendation for oral error treatment is to make teachers more aware of methods involving learners in the treatment of their own errors. Teachers ought to make conscious attempts to treat oral errors by transferring, asking questions and employing other methods aimed towards promotion of peer correction (cf. 7.3.3.2).

According to Roos (1990:27) adequate exposure to correct and appropriate second language input could play an important role in the remediation of learners' errors. Such input ought to be relevant and communicative and may include carefully selected literary texts.

8.2 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The second language classroom has long been a focal point of research. The current interest in education together with South Africa's variety of languages will inevitably increase interest in and attention to the process of SLA, leading to more research in this field of study.

Error analysis, an essential component of research in SLA, is a field of study which is far from being exhausted. This study has been on oral error treatment in a secondary school. As the foundation for the acquisition of English as a L2 in a classroom environment is laid at primary school level, research

should also be done to determine the nature of oral error treatment and the degree of peer correction in primary schools. Future research should also cast light on the treatment of written errors in both primary and secondary schools, determining whether teachers are equally tolerant or strict when it comes to their pupils' written errors.

Another compelling issue regarding oral error treatment is whether L2 learners really benefit from it. This study has not focused on the success of eradicating those errors which were treated. Additional research should be done to establish whether the learners gain anything from intensive error treatment.

As far as the involvement of L2 learners in the treatment of their own errors is concerned, future research can determine the patterns of error treatment which occur in the ESL classroom. In other words, researchers can establish the degree to which teachers notice an oral error and allow the same pupil who has committed the error, or another pupil in the classroom, to correct it, or the number of times the teacher notices an error and corrects it himself, without involving learners in the treatment.

In conclusion, Dreyer (1990:152) refers to the reluctance of teachers to apply the results of SLA research to language teaching. This dilemma implies that future research into the training of teachers and the degree to which teachers are kept informed about recent developments and the findings of research are of utmost importance.

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APPENDIX
LESSON 1:

DISCOURSE	CATEGORY OF ERROR	BY WHOM IS ERROR INITIATED?	BY WHOM IS ERROR TREATED?	TYPE OF CORRECTIVE REACTION
<p>LL: ((unint)) T : right, your time is up. all of you close your textbooks and put them in your suitcases. when I call out your name you go and stand in front of the class. and remember you must use borrow and lend in your dialogue. right, the first one, Lucille Vermeulen, L1: Lucille, I am going swimming on Friday, may I please borrow your swimming suit? L2: only if you promise to return it on Saturday L1: thank you! I'll return it before Saturday evening L2: I'll lend you my goggles and flippers too, T : Steenkamp, Antoinette!, L3: Lindi! we are going to Margate this week-end, may I please borrow your flippers? L4: only if you promise to, um, bring <u>it</u> back after you <u>returned</u> L3: thank you very much, <u>I'll</u> promise I'll take good care and return <u>it</u> to you when we get back L4: I'll lend you my snorkel too ..., T : Yolandi Veale!, L5: hi Yolandi! I heard you want to <u>lend</u> my goggles L6: yes, <u>I</u> and my folks are going to the sea L5: you must just remember to wash off the sea water when you're done L6: I will, may I borrow your flippers too? L5: yes, but look after <u>it</u> very good L6: I will ..., T : Kruger Maria, L7: mom, I'm going hunting tonight, may I borrow your fire-arm? L8: only if you promise to ..., only if your promise to carry it in its case all the time L7: thank you, mom, I'll take good care of it L8: I'm going to lend you my ((unint)) too, you look beautiful in them. T : very good, ..., Elmarie! L9: I'm going swimming tomorrow morning, may I borrow your..., swimming cap</p>	<p>pn¹ t t pn b/1 wo pn</p>			<p>I² I I I I I I</p>

See p87. 2. See p88.

L17	L10: only if you promise to return it immediately afterwards			
L18	L9 : thanks, I'll bring it to you tomorrow night at the..., school function			
L18	L10: I'm going to lend you my..., goggles as well, you'll find them a great help...,			
L19	T : Marcia!.....,.....,			
L20	L11: Karen, m.[m i]	p		
L19	I use your radio..., in class tomorrow? <u>we are doing speech</u>	L1		
L19	L12: yes-			
L20	T : just a moment! I can't hear you, just say that again?			T
LL	L11: Karen, we are..., we are make..., <u>we are doing a speech...</u> ,	agr		
L20	about music..., music tomorrow, may I borrow your..., radio?			
T	L12: yes you may, but only if you bring it back to me in one piece			
L21	L11: I promise I'll bring it back to you safely			
L22	L12: I'll also bo..., le..., lend you a cassette to help you with your speech, you'll need it			
L21	T : what's your surname again?			
L22	L11: Van Schalkwyk			
T	T : Van Schalkwyk Mercia?..., Anna!			
L22	L13: mom, I'm swimming tonight, may I borrow your <u>evening bag</u> ?	ct		
L23	L14: only if you promise to take good care of it			
L24	L14: thanks mom, I'll look after <u>them</u> carefully	pn		
L23	L13: I'm going to lend you my..., flippers as well, you..., look beautiful wearing <u>it</u>	pn		
L24	T : just a moment?			
L23	LL: ((laughing))			
T	T : what function are you going to?			T ³
L25	L13: swimming			T
L26	T : you're taking her <u>evening bag</u> ?			
L26	LL : ((laughing))			
L25	T : be careful..., it must make sense!..., all right, you can sit down..., Marlise!.....,.....,,.....,			T
L25	L15: I'm invited to a birthday party, may I borrow your white dress and ((unint))			
L26	L16: yes, you may, but if you only promise to bring <u>it</u>	pn		
L27	back in one piece, it's okay			
L27	L15: thanks, I'll put <u>it</u> on your dressing table when I get home	pn		
L28	L16: I'll lend you my::, um, white shoes that <u>matches</u> the <u>[dres]</u> , you will look good.....,.....,.....,.....,	-s p		
L27	T: Steyn Jacoba			
L28	L17: Marlise, we are going on a fishing trip this coming holiday, may I please borrow your fishing rod?			
L27	L18: only if you promise to bring it back, um, that one is very expensive			

<p>T : just a moment, ..., did she use lend correctly?, just do it again please</p> <p>L28: may I lend your. uh.uh. may I borrow your black shoes for tonight's dance?</p> <p>L27: you may <u>lend</u> my black shoes tonight=</p> <p>T : is that correct?</p> <p>LL : no/uh.uh/</p> <p>T : Tanya, what must it be?</p> <p>L29: borrow</p> <p>T : <u>borrow</u>,..., you lend it to someone, you borrow <u>from</u> someone, ..., right?..., remember that, ..., go and sit down,, Michelle!</p> <p>L : which one, madam?</p> <p>T : Michelle van der Merwe,,</p> <p>L30: Chantal, we're going on a swimming trip this week-end, may I please borrow your red bikini?</p> <p>L31: only if you promise to bring it back to me on Monday, it was quite expensive</p> <p>L30: thank you very much, I promise to return it to you in perfect condition</p>	<p>b/1</p>	<p>T</p> <p>T</p> <p>T</p>	<p>T</p> <p>T PS</p> <p>T+T PO T PO T T</p>	<p>Q</p> <p>L</p> <p>T+Q</p> <p>Q</p> <p>*R *Expl</p>
<p>L31: you may also <u>lend</u> my flippers, they will be of great help to you</p> <p>T : is that lend correct? you may also <u>lend</u>, ...,, you say, I will also <u>lend</u> you my flippers, right? ..., then you give it to her, ..., Tanya Steyn!</p> <p>L32: mom, there's a dance at our school Friday night, may I <u>borrow please</u> your dress?</p> <p>L33: are you sure you're gonna bring it back the way I gave it to you?</p> <p>L32: sure, mom, how do you know me?</p> <p>L33: all right, I'll lend it to you, but take good care of it</p> <p>L32: thanks ,mom</p> <p>T : nothing wrong, that was good,... Natasha Smith!</p> <p>L34: mom, I'm going dancing=</p> <p>T : =wait a minute! quiet! ..., start over</p> <p>L34: mom, I'm going dancing next week, may I borrow your..., evening bag please</p> <p>L35: only if you promise to take good care of it</p> <p>L34: thanks, mom I'll take good care of it</p> <p>L35: I'm going to lend you my diamond necklace too, you look beautiful wearing it</p> <p>T: good!, Esta!, yes, start</p>	<p>b/1</p> <p>wo</p>	<p>T</p>	<p>T T T T</p>	<p>Q R-ch+e Pv T I</p>
<p>L36: hi, Michelle, may I borrow you [<u>bridl</u>] please?</p> <p>L37: sure, but then you must promise to look after it</p> <p>L36: thanks, I will</p> <p>L37: okay, and good luck for tomorrow!</p> <p>L36: thanks, I need it</p> <p>T : wait a minute, I couldn't hear, what do you want to borrow?</p> <p>L36: a [<u>brɪdl</u>]</p> <p>T : what's that?</p> <p>L36: um. it's a saddle.um=</p>	<p>p</p> <p>p</p>	<p>T</p> <p>T</p>	<p>T</p> <p>T PS</p>	<p>D</p> <p>L</p> <p>Q</p>

<p>L37: horseriding L36: =ja..., to, um= T : to do what? L37: to sit on LL : ((laughing)) L37: <u>you fasten the saddle to hold him on.... the horse</u> T : all right LL : ((laughing)) T : Chantal!.....,....., L32: mom, I'm going dancing tonight, may I borrow your evening dress please? L31: only if you promise to take good care of it L32: thanks, mom, I promise I'll take good care of it L31: I'll lend..., I'.. lend you my diamond bracelet too L32: thanks T : is Petro absent? L37: yes madam, she went- T : she went what? L37: she went ((unint)) T : what did you say, Michelle? L37: she's absent, she went home this morning T : did everyone have a chance? LL : yes, madam</p>	v	PO PS T PO	Q
		T	I
			Ac
	p		I

LESSON 2

DISCOURSE	CATEGORY OF ERROR	BY WHOM IS ERROR INITIATED?	BY WHOM IS ERROR TREATED?	TYPE OF CORRECTIVE REACTION
<p>T : Michelle, sit in front here..., ..., right, today you are going to discuss the characters of the first chapter, you must give the names of the characters, you must tell me who they are, what they are like and what happens to them,...., right, when I call out your name, you come and stand in front of the class please,...., without your paper,...., when you have finished speaking, you don't do anything else, you fold your arms and you listen to the person standing in front of the class, do you understand?....,...., Mariette Buys....,....,...., in front, quickly!..., tell me what you know</p>				
<p>L1 : madam, I just know that, um, Jack and <u>Tim's</u> matric boys who just, um, <u>finished</u> their exams,...., matric exams</p>	agr t			I I
<p>T : yes?..., and?..., L : that mister, um, professor Dorman is ((unint)) <u>he was sleeping at the station</u>, this man and he and Anne Dorman, um, professor Dorman thought about going to look how ((unint))</p>	ct			I
<p>T : is that all you know? L : yes miss T : right, you can't expect a very good mark for that....,...., go and sit..., Marlise I don't want to hear you, no whispering....,....,...., Nadine Louw!....,....,....,....,</p>				
<p>L2 : <u>in this stage</u> all the characters Tim Gordon, professor Dorman, Anne Dorman, and Jack Holloway..., Jack Holloway and Tim Gordon are in matric..., and <u>they're...</u>, <u>they are complete...</u>, <u>are being completed</u> [<u>ðeə</u>] matric exams. Anne is professor Dorman's daughter. professor Dorman is a scientist that <u>are being studying</u> the [<u>streindʒ</u>](unint)). he <u>want</u> to take Anne with him. Jack and Tim are on holiday with their motorbikes and they see the star land</p>	prep agr t p agr+t p agr			D D D I D I D
<p>T : right, your content is very good, you must just watch your language..., Adrie Visser..., L3 : the characters in the book <u>is</u></p>	agr	T	T	Ac I

<p>Anne Dorman, Tim Gordon, Jack Holloway, professor Dorman, Anne Dorman. Tim and Jack are in matric-</p> <p>T : just a moment. listen! I don't want you to sit and practise while someone is speaking. you distract her attention and it isn't good manners. so, you sit quiet! still! I don't want to hear anything..., yes?...,</p> <p>L3 : Jack and Tim are two matric boys who just <u>completed</u> <u>they</u>..., their matric exam. Anne Dorman is professor Dorman's daughter and professor Dorman is a scientist..., Tim and Jack are on holiday with their motorbikes and..., they saw the spaceship landing...,..., professor Dorman studied the strange star and wanted to see the star and he took his daughter with him...,</p>	t pn	PS	PS	I
<p>T : thank you, Marlise Nabel!...,...,...,</p> <p>L4 : there are four main characters in this story, Jack Holloway, Tim Gordon, professor Dorman and Anne Dorman. Jack Holloway and Tim Gordon are two matric boys who <u>just finished</u> their matric exams. Tim knows mechanical things, especially motor cycles and loves to make decisions. Tim, um, Jack loves to make decisions and loves mechanical things, especially motor cycles. Tim on the other hand, doesn't like to make decisions, he's the captain of the school rugby team, powerfully built and he also likes mechanical things especially motor cycles. professor Dorman wanted to see the ..., wanted to see the spaceship land. he wanted to, um, make sure they know that the spaceship is something <u>ordinary, something special</u>. he took his daughter with him. he's <u>thoroughly</u> and painstaking with his work, um, Jack and Tim went to mr Holloway's farm in the bushveld in the northern Transvaal. they went on a long <u>on</u> motorcycles</p>	t ct adv prep			I I I
<p>T : very good, Marlise..., Bibette Snyman!...,...,...,</p> <p>L5 : the characters <u>is</u> Jack Holloway, Tim Gordon, Anne Dorman and professor Dorman. Jack Holloway is a pupil of the ((unint)) high school and he <u>had just completed</u> his matric exam. he has a deep love for all mechanical things especially motorcycles. he likes to make the decisions and to see the spaceship land. Tim Gordon is Jack's friend and also a pupil of the ((unint)) high school and he has just completed his matric exams, he was captain of their school's rugby team. he also <u>like</u></p>	agr t agr			I I I

<p>mechanical things and motor cycles. he started to rebuild and he wanted to learn..., and he also saw the, um, the spaceship land on earth. Anne Dorman is professor Dorman's daughter that <u>takes care after him</u>. professor Dorman is the scientist studying the strange star. he works hard puts effort into his work. professor Dorman discovered that a strange star is being ((unint)), he decides to go and watch the spaceship landing on earth and to take Anne with</p>	L1			I
<p>T : Good!..., Charmain Strauss...,..., L6 : there are four characters in this story, Anne Dorman, professor Dorman, Tim Gordon and Jack Holloway. Tim and Jack <u>is</u> two matric boys and they are..., are..., just ((unint)). they like motor cycles and Tim..., Tim Gordon is..., is..., the captain of the rugby team and Jack Holloway <u>like</u> to make decisions. Anne Dorman is professor Dorman's daughter and professor Dorman <u>love</u>, um, studying the strange star</p>	agr			I
<p>T : are you finished? L6 : yes T : thank you..., left out a few things...,..., <u>Van Zyl!</u>..., L7 : madam, I didn't do it T : why not? L7 : I forgot about it T : you forgot about it?..., didn't you write it down?</p>	agr			I
<p>L7 : no madam T : right, you know what happens, you don't get a mark for that..., and you only have one mark so far L7 : yes madam T : Van Eck Magrietha</p>				
<p>L8 : The characters are Jack Holloway, Tim Gordon, Anne Dorman and professor Dorman. Jack Holloway <u>love</u> to work with mechanical things especially motor cycles. Tim Gordon was the captain of a rugby team. Anne Dorman was professor Dorman's daughter. professor Dorman's discovered..., <u>discover</u>..., that a strange star is being steered ((unint)) he decided to go and watch the spaceship land. he <u>take</u> Anne with him</p>	agr			I
<p>T : thank you..., Christa Visser!...,..., L9 : today I'm going to tell you more about <u>that</u> characters in the strange star.</p>	agr			I
<p><u>it</u> <u>is</u> Jack Holloway, Tim Gordon, Anne Dorman and professor Dorman, Anne Dorman is professor Dorman's daughter. Jack and Tim are matric</p>	pn agr			I I

boys who had just <u>write</u>	pp			I
their matric exams. Jack is..., Jack <u>love</u>	agr			I
mechanical things especially motor cycles. Tim				
is the school...,				
is the..., Tim is the school's..., is the				
team..., is the rugby team's captain and he also				
<u>like</u>	agr			I
mechanical things like motor cycles. Professor				
Dorman is..., <u>was thought</u>	t			I
that the strange light is steered intelligently.				
so he decided to go and have a look. Jack and				
Tim are very excited because they are going on				
holiday. they are on a trip <u>by motor cycles</u>	prep			I
and guess what they saw! this, the spaceship				
<u>land</u>	t			I
on earth, professor <u>Gordon</u>	ct			I
decided to go and look at the strange star to				
see the spaceship land and guess who <u>he taking</u>	t			I
with? Anne Dorman, his daughter to help him				
with the little things				
T : good try...,..., Sonja Slabbert!				
L10: the characters of the story are Jack Holloway,				
Tim Gordon, Anne Dorman and professor Dorman.				
Jack and Tim have both been ((unint)) professor				
Dorman was a [<u>skɔiɔntist</u>]	p			D
Anne Dorman was professor Dorman's				
daughter. Jack and Tim had a deep abiding love				
<u>for all things</u> ,	ct			I
especially for motor cycles.				
professor Dorman discovered that this..., <u>nee-</u>	L1			I
...,...				
T : yes?..., he discovered something, what?...,...				
L10: he discovered that the strange star was being				
steered, he decided to go and watch...,				
Jack and Tim are on holiday and they saw the				
strange star landing				
T : professor Dorman?..., who is he?		T	T	Q
L10: he's a [<u>skɔiɔntist</u>]	p			
T : a what?		T	T	L
L10: a [<u>skɔiɔntist</u>]	p			
T : [saintist]		T	T	R+ch+e
LL : ((laughing))				
T L that's good Sonja...,..., Maryke van der				
Westhuizen...,...,...				
L11: the strange star chapter one, there are four				
characters in the strange star, they are Jack				
Holloway, Tim Gordon, Anne Dorman and professor				
Dorman. Jack Holloway and Tim Gordon are two				
matric boys at Clifton High School. Anne Dorman				
is professor Dorman's daughter. professor				
Dorman is a scientist who studies the path of				
the strange star. Jack and Tim <u>is</u>	agr			I
on vacation and they <u>saw</u>	st			I
a falling star that was a spaceship. professor	t			
Dorman studies the part but nobody <u>would believe</u>	st			I
it is steered professionally, he goes to see				

the spaceship land and his daughter goes with him				
T : good!...,..., Reynecke Salomie				
L12: there are four characters in chapter 1 of the strange star, they are Jack Holloway, Tim Gordon, professor and Anne Dorman. Jack Holloway and Tim Gordon are both final year students at Clifton High School <u>which</u> have just completed their matric exams. they both have a deep and abiding love for mechanical things especially motor cycles. professor Dorman <u>was</u> a scientist who was studying the part of the strange star and he found out that it was actually a spaceship but none of the other scientists wanted to believe him, and Anne was a very <u>lovingly</u> and <u>helpfully</u>	pn st adv adv			I I I I
T : excellent..., Tarien Rheeder!...,				
L13: the characters of the book <u>is</u> Jack Holloway, Tim Gordon, professor Dorman and Anne Dorman, um, um, Jack and Tim had a..., are matric boys <u>just completed</u> their matric exam. they both <u>had</u> a deep abiding love for mechanical things, okay. um..., I think I lost something..., no, Jack <u>had made</u> the decisions but Tim did not like to make the..., de- the decisions, um..., <u>ag juffrou</u>	agr t st t L1			I I I I
T : Just stay calm, you're doing fine...,			T	Ac
L13: Anne Dorman was professor Dorman's daughter, a scientist studying the strange star. Jack and Tim were on a long trip <u>for holiday by motor cycle</u> when they saw the strange star land, okay, um, professor Dorman discovered that the strange star <u>is</u> being steered intelligibly. he, um, he..., <u>goes</u> to..., he went..., okay...,	prep prep rs st	PS	PS	I I I
T : he decides to do something				
L13: he decides to go and look..., okay..., he decides to go and see the spaceship land and take Anne with him				
T : yes, Jeanne-Marie!...,...,...,				
L14: there are four..., jis..., there are four characters they talk about in the book of the strange star and they are Anne Dorman, professor Dorman, Jack Holloway and Tim Gordon, Anne Dorman <u>was</u> professor Dorman's daughter. professor Dorman was studying..., was a scientist who was studying the strange star. Jack..., um, Jack Holloway loved..., Jack and Tim <u>was</u> students at the Clifton High School, they were <u>just finishing</u> their matric exams, Jack loved all [<u>mikenikal</u>]	st agr t p			I I I I

<p>motorcycle. professor Dorman <u>decides</u> to go and look where the spaceship <u>land</u> and he <u>take</u> Anne with him</p>	<p>st agr agr</p>			<p>I I I</p>
<p>T : Good!...,..., Bernadine!..., L17: there <u>was</u> four..., there are four..., [kære-]..., [kæro-]=</p>	<p>th p</p>	<p>PS PS</p>	<p>PS T</p>	<p>Ir</p>
<p>T : =[kæriktəz]= L17: =[kæriktəz] in chapter 1, Jack Holloway, Tim Gordon, professor Dorman and Anne Dorman, Jack and Tim <u>were</u> two matric students in Clifton High School. they both liked mechanical things. professor Dorman was the father of Anne Dorman and he was also a scientist studying the strange star. Jack <u>love</u> mechanical things..., and..., was the leader of Jack and Tim. Tim didn't like making decisions, he was powerfully built and he was captain of their rugby team. professor Dorman studied the strange star and he wanted to prove that the strange star <u>is</u> not an ordinary star and he took his..., Anne with him</p>	<p>st agr rs</p>			<p>I I I</p>
<p>T : thank you..., it was good...,..., Anneke!..., L18: I want to tell you a little bit more about the characters in the first chapter of the strange star. there are four characters in..., on..., of..., in the first chapter of the strange star. they are Jack Holloway, Tim Gordon, Anne Dorman and professor Dorman. Anne <u>are</u>..., is..., professor Dorman's daughter. professor Dorman is a scientist busy studying the strange star, Jack and Tim are matric boys who just <u>finished</u> their matric exams, professor Dorman is a..., [peinztikɪŋ] and..., thorough, um, with his work. Jack Holloway has a love for [mikenikəl] things especially motor cycles. he likes to make decisions. Tim Gordon is the captain of the school's rugby team. he, on the other side, <u>didn't</u> like to make decisions and he was powerfully built. professor Dor- no. they saw the spaceship land. professor Dorman decided to go and watch <u>him</u>. that's all I have to say about the characters in the first chapter of the spaceship</p>	<p>agr t p p st pn</p>	<p>PS PS</p>	<p>PS PS</p>	<p>I I I I I</p>
<p>T : thank you..., it was good..., ..., Charlene ...,..., L19: the four [<u>characters</u>] in this story <u>is</u> Tim Gordon, Jack Holloway, professor Dorman and Anne Dorman, Anne Dorman and professor Dorman <u>is</u> <u>daughter</u>..., father and daughter. professor Dorman <u>want</u> to go and see the spaceship landing. he <u>take</u></p>	<p>p agr agr wo agr agr</p>	<p>PS PS</p>	<p>PS PS</p>	<p>I I I I I</p>

<p>Anne with him. Jack and Tim are <u>twins</u>, they have just completed their matric exams, they love mechanical things but specially motor cycles. Jack <u>like</u> to make decisions but Tim <u>don't</u> like to make decisions.</p>	<p>ct agr agr</p>			<p>I I Red</p>
<p>T : Tim doesn't. right..., did you tell us about what they do or what happens to them?</p>		T	T	
<p>L19: professor Dorman is a scientist studying the strange star</p>				
<p>T : and then?..., after he has discovered something about that star, what has he discovered about that star?.....</p>				
<p>L19: um,....uh.....</p>				
<p>T : should learn that part!...,</p>				
<p>L19: yes madam</p>				
<p>T : right..., and where were the two boys going?</p>				
<p>L19: <u>go and watch</u>..., um..., the..., um..., strange star land.</p>	<p>t</p>			<p>I</p>
<p>T : no! you must go and make sure of that part of the story..., Michelle!</p>				
<p>L20: there are four main characters in the strange star namely Jack Holloway, Tim Gordon, Anne Dorman and professor Dorman, um..., Jack Holloway and Tim Gordon <u>just finished</u> the matric exams. Jack Holloway loves <u>mechanics</u> especially motor cycles, Tim Gordon was the school's..., captain of the rugby team. Anne Dorman is professor Dorman's daughter and professor Dorman <u>was</u> <u>the strange star</u>, <u>he founded</u> out that the strange star <u>is being</u> <u>manded</u> and he took Anne Dorman with him to see</p>	<p>t der st ct vp t+ps pp</p>			<p>I D I I I I</p>
<p>T : thank you=</p>				
<p>L : Madam</p>				
<p>T : =Anna de Jager</p>				
<p>L : does Jack really like mechanics?</p>		PO	PO	
<p>LL : ((laughing))</p>				
<p>T : when you're nervous you sometimes say something wrong. you don't concentrate on what you're saying. all right, the next person, Anna?</p>				
<p>L20: madam, I didn't do this</p>				
<p>T : why not?</p>				
<p>L20: I <u>write</u> a test.</p>	<p>t</p>			<p>I</p>
<p>T : and what about the others? they also had to learn their work for today's test, you had all the information, it was given to you, you just had to learn it, only..., one folio paper..., that's all, you don't really have an excuse, do you?</p>				
<p>L : she has madam</p>				
<p>T : why?</p>				
<p>L : um..., she ((unint))</p>				
<p>T : well, that's not the reason she gave me now, so you better come and see me afterwards because</p>				

<p>I'm giving you naught now. Anelda?..., L21: the characters in this story are Jack Holloway, Tim Gordon, professor Dorman and Anne Dorman. Jack and Time were-</p>				
<p>T : just a moment!..., Sonja..., you two, sit still L21: Jack and Tim were pupils at the Clifton High School and they have just passed their matric exams. professor Dorman <u>is</u> a scientist studying the strange star. Anne Dorman is his daughter. Jack and Tim love [<u>mikenikəl</u>] things like motor cycles. Jack <u>like</u> to make the decisions, but Tim <u>don't</u> like to make the decisions. Tim <u>was</u> built powerfully and was captain of the school's rugby team. professor Dorman <u>loves</u> his work. Jack and Tim..., Jack and Tim <u>were</u> on a motor cycle trip on holiday when they saw the spaceship land. professor Dorman <u>discovers</u> that the spaceship..., that the spaceship has been steered intelligently and he <u>decided</u> to go and watch the spaceship land. he <u>take</u> Anne with him</p>	<p>p agr agr st st st st st agr</p>			<p>I I I I I I I I I I I</p>
<p>T : very good..., Magrietha!....., L22: there are four main characters in the story, Tim Gordon, Jack Holloway, mister..., professor Dorman, Anne Dorman, Jack Holloway <u>were a pupil</u> at Clifton High School and he <u>just finished</u> his matric exam. he also <u>loves</u> mechanical things. Tim Gordon <u>were</u> also a pupil at Clifton High School and also <u>just finished</u> his matric. he <u>doesn't</u> like to make decisions. Anne Dorman was..., is professor Dorman's daughter. professor Dorman is a scientist studying the strange star, he <u>found</u> out that the strange star has been steered intelligently</p>	<p>agr+st t st agr+st t st st</p>			<p>I I I I I I I I</p>

DISCOURSE	CATEGORY OF ERROR	BY WHOM IS ERROR INITIATED?	BY WHOM IS ERROR TREATED?	TYPE OF CORRECTIVE REACTION
T : morning, girls				
LL : good morning madam				
T : today we are going to speak about our pets. everybody will have an opportunity to tell the class about your pet which you love so dearly. right..., the first one will be Lindi...,...				
L1 : At home I have a cat called Soekie, she is my favourite pet. we play games together and she <u>love</u>	agr			I
her bath. she <u>have</u> green eyes, a pink nose and a floppy tail like a squirrel. during the day she likes to play in the garden - and climb the trees. when she <u>attempt</u>	agr			I
to catch a bird I punish her by giving her a few slaps. when I pick her up she puts her legs around my neck as if she <u>want</u>	agr			I
to hug me, otherwise- she puts her paws on my cheek over my mouth	sp			I
T : very good. Nannette,.....,				
L2 : I want to tell you about my [<u>kəkətɪl</u>] his name is Popeye, he is almost a year [<u>ɔld</u>] now. he is grey with red cheeks and white spots on his back and tail. sometimes he's very funny like I-one day he was <u>fast asleep</u>	p			I
and he fell off his <u>stick-but</u>	p			I
he was still fast asleep. I have medicine to spray his feathers to keep him nice and beautiful and when I spray him he <u>close</u>	L1			I
his eyes then <u>lift</u>	L1			I
his right wing and then his left wing and sometimes even lies on his back-um-..., we have a good relationship. he also <u>come</u>	agr			I
<u>with</u>	agr			I
to the sea-and-I-clean-his-cage once a week. I love my pet-um-bird very much	L1+prep			I
T : thank you. Marina!.....,.....,you can start				
L3 : I have a little dog, his name is Toby. he is small and very naughty. he's brown and he has blue eyes. <u>everyday he is busy with my toes-but-um...</u> , he is very naughty-um-last week-end we <u>get</u>	agr			I
another one-his name is Sellisto. he is also very naughty but the two dogs together-they make me mad. I love my pets very much	agr			I
T : thank you. Natasha,.....,				
L4 : my pet's name is Sheba, she has-she is a	wc			I
	t			I

<p><u>grab</u> my mother's washing from the-um- washing.....,oh no=</p>	agr	PS		I
<p>T : =line=</p>	v		T	Pv
<p>L7 : =line and my brother and I always play with my dog. he has-he has very sharp teeth and can <u>bit</u> you.</p>	inf			I
<p>L8 : today I want to tell you about my 2 dogs. one is a Staffy, her name is Tessa and she is very naughty and also very lazy. her coat is black and she's <u>well-builted</u> the other dog is a (unint)=</p>	pp			I
<p>T : =(unint)=</p>				
<p>L8 : =dachshund. his name is Worsie-</p>				
<p>LL : ((laughing))</p>				
<p>L8 : -and he's very naughty-he's very-um- his body is long and his <u>feet</u> are very small-ag short</p>	v			I
<p>LL : ((laughing))</p>				
<p>((bell))</p>				
<p>T : that's it, we'll go on tomorrow, good day girls</p>				
<p>LL : good day madam</p>				
<p>T : have a nice day</p>				

DISCOURSE	CATEGORY OF ERROR	BY WHOM IS ERROR INITIATED?	BY WHOM IS ERROR TREATED?	TYPE OF CORRECTIVE REACTION
<p>T : all right, let's do revision on reported speech. I said if you want to report something immediately then you must do the sentence in reported speech present tense. then you start the sentence with he says. if it's a question- he asks or he wants to know. when you want to order someone you say he tells, so the verb will have a s after it-the introductory verb- the verb with which you introduce your sentence, will have a s after it and will show that you have to do it in present tense. then you must remember 4 things-first you must change the pronoun. pronouns are I you we us me my he they, right. you have a list you have to go and learn it off by heart so that you know how to change it. the second thing is the tense of the sentence must not change. you don't change it from is to was. if it is is-it can-or if you have a am in the sentence, it may change to is. it will be the same tense-it won't be another tense. right, if it's present indefinite-it stays present indefinite, you don't change it to past indefinite. the third thing is-don't change time words and phrases. if you get a word such as this, here and these in a sentence you won't change it. it will stay like that. right! let's look on page 25. I want you to start at the top in the blue block. read first the direct speech sentence he says we laugh at them-he said they laughed at them. all of you together</p> <p>LL : ((all read together))</p> <p>T : when you thank somebody-just have a look at the top there-just remember not to say he says thank you. you must say he thanks him-not says he thanks you. do you understand that? the same with congratulations-and be careful when it's a command or an order-at the bottom of that page-it says sit down! don't sit! it's an order, a command, you're telling him something-um-ordering him to do something, so then you don't-they say he says sit down. you must use the introductory verb that shows it's an order or command. also take note of what happens to yes and no, you don't say he says no or he says yes, you use a verb in the place of</p>				

<p>no, right, let's have a look at the exercise. some people do not like animals, Jack is like that. he doesn't hate dogs, but he prefers them to sleep in the garden. I agree-a dog is certainly not my best friend. now they say you must change it by starting with Mary-Jane says that some people-let me just get my classlist again. Michelle-how will you change it?</p> <p>L1 : Mary Jane says that some people do not like animals</p> <p>T : nothing changes, that's right, go on</p>				
<p>L1 : <u>Jack</u> says that some-that-Jack=</p> <p>T : who says that?</p>	rs	T	T PS	Q
<p>L1 : Kevin says-that Jack <u>doesn't like=</u></p> <p>T : what happens to the tense of the sentence?</p>	rs	T	T PO	Q
<p>LL : stays the same</p> <p>T : stays the same, but now is and doesn't is the same thing, the same tense-but you can't change a is to a doesn't-right-.....,</p>				
<p>L1 : <u>Kevin says Jack doesn't hate dogs but he prefers=</u></p> <p>T : what about that first sentence-Jack is like that? in that speech bubble</p>	ct	T	T PS	Q
<p>L1 : Kevin says that Jack is like that. he doesn't hate dogs, but he prefers them to sleep in the garden</p> <p>T : nothing changes right. go on...</p>			T	*Ac
<p>L1 : their mother says that she agrees-a dog is certainly not her best friend</p> <p>T : very good, so what did she change here? I became...?</p>				
<p>LL : she</p> <p>T : why didn't it become him?</p>				
<p>LL : ((unint))</p> <p>T : one at a time-yes-at the back there?</p>				
<p>L2?: ((unint))</p> <p>T : right, so? and what happened to agree?, what happened to agree?..., Karin?</p>				
<p>L3 : uh-she <u>put</u> <u>a s</u></p> <p>T : because the I became a she it must get an s and then it stays like that and my changes to-?</p>	agr art	T	T PO	I I *Expl Q
<p>LL : her</p> <p>T : her because it is a pronoun, right, let's go to the next one-um-what's your name again?</p>				
<p>L4 : Vanessa</p> <p>T : Vanessa, just read it to us as it is there-the direct speech</p>				
<p>L4 : is it difficult to train an animal to live in one's home, Andre wants to know. no it isn't too difficult, it is almost like bringing up children. it depends on how talented and clever the original animal is- the individual animal is, his uncle replies. I am against teaching animals tricks but that doesn't mean your dog cannot be taught to be useful around the house. some dogs fetch and carry things for their owners. others guard their owners' property.</p>				

don't you agree that a dog is good fun? yes, I love playing with Baron

T : yes-um-Talitha-start and then you change it to reported speech. tell me-will you do it in present tense or past tense?

L5 : um-present tense

T : how do you know?

L5 : -because he say is it difficult-

T : no-what must you look at to know whether to do it in present tense reported speech or whether to do it in past tense?

L6?: um-they say Andre wants to know-

T : yes, the introductory verb-Andre wants to know. that tells you it must be present tense, all right, start...,,...

L5: Andre wants to know if it is difficult to train an animal to live in one's home.

T : right, go on

L5 : um-he replies that it isn't too difficult=

T : the no-can't you just throw it away?-

L5 : it must-no madam-mustn't it change to does not.

T : no-look at the previous question-which verb did you use there?-doesn't or isn't? you must answer in the same way..., yes?-it says is it difficult to train-so what will that now become? his uncle replies..., what? help her quickly anybody. yes?

L8?: it is not too difficult

T : no-just one negative verb I want there

T+L: /yes?/not/-

T : who said not here? did you put something in front of that not?

L9 : no

T : it can't just be a not

L10? isn't

T : isn't? right, so his uncle replies it isn't-then you repeat it isn't too difficult-all right-go on

L5 : it is almost like bringing up children

T : yes-go on

L5 : his uncle replies it depends on how talented and clever the individual animal is

T : no it's not necessary to start-if it stays the statement-to start with his uncle replies every time. you can just go on- right-go on

L5 : I am against teaching animals tricks but that doesn't mean that your-that your dog cannot be taught to be useful around the house

T : now be careful there, you've got a I-you've got a your, those are pronouns which you have to change...,,...

L5 : he is against teaching animal tricks-but that doesn't mean-that...,,..., that your dog cannot be taught to be useful around the house

agr				I
rs			T	Neg
	T		T	Aq
			PO	
			T	*Ac
rs				
	T		T	Q
rs				
	T		T	Neg+At
			T	Aq
			T	C
			T	Aq
			T	T
rs				
	T		T+T	Neg+C
			T	Q
			T	Neg
			PO	
			T	*Ac
			T	Expl
			T	*Ac
	T		T	Neg
			T	Expl
pn				D
pn				
	T		T	At
			T	Expl
			PS	
pn				

T : yes? what do you want to say?			T	T
L11? I think it must-um-but that doesn't mean that his dog cannot be taught to be useful around the house		PO	PO	
L12? madam?				
T : yes?				
L12: um-your-um-doesn't it change to the- <u>they</u> <u>their</u> -	pn		PS	
T : our to their-but your can change to something else. our changes to their-and you said his dog-and she said it can stay your, which one is it?		T	T	Expl
			T	C
L13? <u>they</u>	pn			
T : no, it can't be they-definitely not		T	T	Neg
L14? <u>my</u> dog	pn			
T : okay, quickly in your group-discuss that pronoun quickly-see what sounds the best in your group-what should it be?		T	T	T
LL : ((unint))				
T : I'll read to you what you wrote in your books-you said I can be he/she-you can be he/she/they/we/I-we can be they-our can be their-us can be them-they can be they-he/she can be he/she/me can be him/her-my can be his/her-				
L15? madam what is ((unint))?				
T : so you didn't write down a your				
L : madam what is you?				
T : you can become he/she/they/we/I and sometimes it can stay the same as well. it depends on your sentence-it must make sense when you read it				
LL : ((unint))				
T : have you decided what should it be?				
LL : ((unint))				
T : are you ready? do you think you have the answer? group 2-yes?				
LL : ((unint))				
T : she-yes? what would you think?				
L : we think it should be <u>one's</u> dog	pn			
T : one's dog?		T	T	L
L : yes				
T : can't change to one's-definitely not-yes?			T+T	Neg+T
L : it must be <u>someone's</u> dog	pn		PO	
T : no, it can't change into someone-yes? you say his dog?		T	T+T	Neg+T
L : we say-um-				
L : your stays				
L : he doesn't mean Andre's dog			PO	
T : you mean-it doesn't mean-that it's Andre's dog				
L : I'm getting it out of the sentence				
T : so you say Andre's dog				
L : <u>ja</u>	L1			I
T : but-is he talking about A's dog?			T	Q
LL : no//ha ha//huh			PO	
T : see-be careful-yes? what do you say?			T+T	At+T
L : it can be his dog or-your dog			PO	
T : right, there are 2 that you can choose from-his or your				*Ac
LL : //your//your//				

T : which one?				
LL : your				
T : I think when you read it he is not talking about a specific person's dog, so you'll have to keep the your as it is here. right- go on-finish that one				
L5 : some dogs fetch and carry for their owners				
T : go on				
L5 : <u>other guards</u> their owners'property	-s			
T : others guard or guards?		T	T	Q
L5 : others guard-			PS	
T : right-guard			T	*Ac
L5 : -their owners'property- <u>don't you agree that your dog is good fun?</u>	rs			
T : right-now-the last sentence is a different type of sentence-it is not just a statement- so it's a question-so you must put in a new introductory verb that shows it's a question....,...., yes?		T	T	Expl
L5 : He <u>ask</u> if he agrees that a dog is good fun	agr			
T : he asks-just read it slowly-read in your books again		T	T	Pv
L5 : he <u>asked</u> if he	t			
<u>agree</u> if he agrees that a dog is good fun	rs	PS	PS	I
T : that he <u>agrees</u> that a dog is good fun-right- see if the type of sentence changes you have to put in a new introductory verb, because the previous sentences we said-his uncle replies-or says-you can say there-right-go on with the last part-yes I love-				
L5 : he replies-that he <u>does love</u> playing with Baron	rs			
T : he replies that he does-end there and go on		T	T	R+ch Expl
L5 : that he <u>does love playing</u> -	rs			
T : no!-just he does-in the place of the yes you put a does and then you stop-then you must go on with the next part-yes?		T	T	Neg Expl
L5 : he replies that he does....,....,				
T : -and says-			T	Pv
L5 : and says that-and says he loves playing with Baron				
T : he loves playing with Baron-right-number b..., Corne. come and see me soon Margaret says-only if you promise to lock up that wolf you keep as a watchdog Robert replies....,				
L6 : okay, Margaret says- <u>come and see soon?</u>	rs			
T : be careful here-you'll have to put in another verb here-that you don't have....,....,....,		T	T	At Expl
L6 : Margaret says that ...,				
L2 : -she-			PO	
L6 : -that she-um-Margaret says that....,....,				
T : um-come and see me soon-uh-do you think it is just a statement or does she tell him something?			T	Q
LL : tells//she tells him something			PO	
T : it's almost like a command here-right!-it's not just saying it-just making an ordinary statement-so I would start with-um-Margaret-				

give you says there but if you start with says then you must put in the word must-all right-but if you could take away the word says and put in tells-what would you say?				
L6 : Margaret <u>tell</u> Bennie to come and <u>see soon</u>	agr pn			I
T : to come and see her soon-right-put in a must-how will you do it then?		T	T T	Pv Q
L6 : Margaret says <u>they</u> must come and see her soon	pn		PS	
T : what did you say?-before must?-what did you put in?-they? or that?		T	T	L
L6 : they			PS	
T : but she's talking to one boy-you can't put in they			T	Expl
L6 : he			PS	
T : he what?			T	Aq
L6 : he-um-must come and <u>see soon</u> -her soon	pn	PS	PS	
T : her soon-right-or you can say Margaret says Robert must come and see her soon-okay-go on there			T	*Ac
L6 : only if you promise to lock up that-wolf you keep as a watch dog-um-Robert replies that if she <u>promise</u> to lock up that wolf she <u>keep</u> as a watchdog?	agr agr			D I
L7 : hu-uh		PO		
T : yes?-what will you say?			T	T
L7 : Robert replies that only if she promises to lock up that wolf that <u>they</u> keep as a watchdog	pn		PO	
T : you is not they		T	T	C
LL : she//she				
L : she keeps-as <u>their</u> watchdog	art			I
T : yes-because it can't be they-plural-because he's talking to Margaret here. that must be she-do you agree with that?			T	*Ac
LL : yes				
T : right-let's have a look at the next one-why do you always watch the monkeys in the zoo Charles? June wants to know-do you perhaps laugh because you recognise yourself in their antics? thank you for the compliment says Charles-perhaps you are right-some animals are only too human-Jeanette.....,.....,				
L7 : must I say in.....,				
T : indirect speech, yes,.....,				
L7 : <u>....</u> wants to know-	pn			
T : who wants to know?		T	T	Q
L7 : -June-			PS	
T : June wants to know, right				
L7 : -why Charles always <u>watch</u> the monkeys in the zoo-	agr			
T : why..., Charles always <u>watch</u> ?-like that? <u>watch</u> she says..., what do you say?		T	T	R-ch+e T
L : watches			PO	
T : watches! because it must stay in the present tense and it must get an -es because it is only one person..., read it again			T	R-ch+e *Expl
L7 : June wants to know..., why Charles <u>....</u> , watches the monkeys in the zoo.	adv			
T : always watches..., right, go on		T	T	Pv

L7 : <u>do you perhaps laugh because</u> [ji:] <u>recognise yourself in their antics?</u>	pr			I
T : you must put in a new introductory verb now, you can't just go on, you must show that it's a question....., yes? help her quickly		T	T	Expl
L : she <u>ask</u> if..., she <u>asked</u> if he perhaps laughed because he <u>recognise</u> himself in their antics	agr t agr		T	T
T : right, the verbs, there's something wrong with your verbs now..., yes? help her		T	T	T
L : <u>does</u> he perhaps laugh because he..., <u>recognise</u> himself in their antics	rs agr		T	T
T : if you say and asks..., you can't use does, you must put in a if..., and asks if ..., then you can't have a does there..., yes?		T	T	Expl
L : the laugh must be laughs			T	T
T : it must get an s..., and, what about the other verb, recognise?			PO	
LL ((unint))		T	T	*Ac
T : also an s, right, so then it will be..., and asks if he perhaps laughs because he recognises..., yourself becomes himself..., in their antics, right, go on with that last part..., thank you			T	Q
L7 : ((unint))			PO	
T : thank you for the compliment says Charles..., L7 : Charles says <u>thanks</u> for the compliment	rs		T	*Ac
T : now be careful....., yes?		T	T+T	At+T
L : Charles thanks him for the compliment			PO	
T : Charles <u>thanks</u> him for the compliment and says..., go on from there			T	R-ch
L7 : perhaps you are right, some animals- perhaps <u>he</u> -.....,	pn			
T : now think about the you..., who is the you he's talking to?		T	T	At
L7 : she			T	Q
L : June			PS	
T : June..., so it's a girl - so you will change to what?			T	Expl
LL : she/she			T	Aq
T : no..., Jeanette?				
L7 : perhaps she's right				
T : she - then the are will become an is, right - go on...,			T	*Ac
L7 : some animals are only-too human				
T : so nothing changes there..., it stays like that..., right, the next one - do you often help with the household chores? Sue wants to know, yes, my mom makes me - Ruth replies, do you have many responsibilities, she asks..., no, my mom doesn't expect me to help at all, Christi- nette?.....,				
L8 : Sue wants to know if Ruth often helps with the household chores...,				
T : very good, go on				

L8 : Ruth replies that
her mother makes her

T : in the place of the yes there must be
a verb there...,..., yes?

L8 : she does

T : she **does**-yes-Ruth replies she does-
her mom makes her, go on from there

L8 : um-and she asks-if-Sue-um-um- has many
responsibilities

T : very good, right

L8 : Sue replies that she doesn't, her mother
doesn't...,...,

T : yes, that's right

L8 : Sue replies that she doesn't, her mom
doesn't expect her to help at all

T : yes, she doesn't,
her mom doesn't expect
her to help at all...,..., right, now-
in your book...

rs

T

T

C

PS

T

*R

DISCOURSE	CATEGORY OF ERROR	BY WHOM IS ERROR INITIATED?	BY WHOM IS ERROR TREATED?	TYPE OF CORRECTIVE REACTION
<p>L1 : Mrs Hattingh and fellow..., pupils..., today we are going to debate about the important matter whether 16-year-olds should be allowed to have drivers licences, our first speaker for it is Tanya...,</p> <p>L2 : I think it will be alright if we get licences at <u>a</u> earlier age, because then our parents needn't worry about taking us to friends or the movies..., they can have their own <u>life</u> and we can have ours</p> <p>L1 : thank you..., the first speaker against is-what's your name-Mariska?..., Mariza?</p> <p>L3 : Marizka</p> <p>L1 : Mariska</p> <p>L3 : in America-at the age of 16-you're allowed to have a licence, I think that's very irresponsible because-if you're 16 and you're involved in a fa-fatal accident-you committed murder-and for a child of 16-that's just too much responsibility- <u>to climb in a car</u> <u>is to pick up-a knife-is</u> the same as to pick up a knife-you must know-if you run with it-and you fall-it can kill-and the same if you drive and you don't drive <u>responsible-irresponsible-</u> at 16 you're still in school-so you've got a lot of friends-they drink-they drive-well? -you drink-you drive-involved <u>in accident-</u> you kill. I don't think at 16 you're responsible enough to drive a car</p> <p>L1 : thank you, Mariska-Nadia-you're our next speaker</p> <p>L4 : um-Madam-I was closing the windows yesterday so I thought the topic is-should 16 year olds have a driver's licence</p> <p>T : it is</p> <p>L4 : oh!-all right-I think-um-every person-who is serious enough-to have a licence-will also have the responsibility <u>required driving a car-</u> um-I think that if the government wants to set limits-they have to make a law-that everybody above the age of 65 years shouldn't have a licence-instead of the stupid law that 16 year olds may not have</p>	<p>art</p> <p>pl</p> <p>L1 ct</p> <p>adv adv</p> <p>art</p> <p>inf</p>	<p>PS</p> <p>PS</p>	<p>I</p> <p>I</p> <p>I</p> <p>I</p> <p>I</p> <p>I</p> <p>I</p>	<p>I</p> <p>I</p> <p>I</p> <p>I</p> <p>I</p> <p>I</p> <p>I</p>

L1 : thank you very much-who's our next speaker?-I didn't get that name				
L5 : Erika				
L1 : Erika-sorry-Erika. what's your opinion <u>of</u> this?	prep			I
L5 : I think children under 16 shouldn't have licences-they're irresponsible-cause many accidents-accidents are fa-could be fatal-um-would you be a responsible 16 year old killing a little boy-I (...) - I personally (...) -16 year olds are only interested in friends-and they're not responsible- I personally think 16 year olds mustn't have <u>a licence</u>	pl			I
L1 : thank you, now that we've heard 4 pupils' statements about <u>should we have drivers' licence or not</u> - what do you other people think about this topic? (...) anyone? Madeleen?	wo			I
L6 : I have an opinion-I think they should have a drive-no-I think-um-they-um-shouldn't be allowed to have a drivers' licence under 18-um- because I feel that statistics have shown that most are caused <u>under</u> people- um-(...) people under twenty eight-twenty one	prep			I
L1 : ok-thank you- <u>anyone</u> <u>have</u> something-um-to want to [<u>comment</u>] <u>to</u> Madeleen's words?-OK-Leoné...	? agr p prep			I I I I
L7 : well-what's the difference between 18 years and 16 years?-they all-party a lot				
LL : ((ha ha ha))				
L3 : ok-um-um-miss-no-ja-it's miss-hu?				
LL : ((ha ha ha ha))				
T : she isn't married-as far as my knowledge goes-				
L3 : miss <u>cheerleader</u> - <u>nee wag</u> -	v L1	PS		I
LL : ((ha ha)) <u>chairlady</u> -			PO	
L3 : chairlady-ok-if you're 18-you're more responsible-you're older-you have seen life-you're in the hard cruel world-you know-you've gotta fight for your rights and all that stuff- you think before you <u>climb into a car</u> .	L1			I
L1 : yes-you may speak-				
L8 : miss <u>cheerperson</u> -um-	v			
LL : ((hahahaha))- <u>chairlady</u>		PO	PO	
L1 : quite a variety-go on				
L8 : all of us <u>heard</u> that students' driving-they drink and they-uh- have fun together-most probably they overload their cars also.	t			I
LL : umhmm				
L1 : you again-yes?				
L3 : uh- <u>cheerlady</u> -	v			
L4 : cheerlady/cheerlady		PO		
L3 : ok-say you're 21-you can cope if you kill somebody because <u>you've more matured</u> -	wo			I

you've grown-your body and <u>mental</u> - hopefully you're not so <u>rebel</u> anymore-what'd you call it-rebel	v adj			I
LL : ((hahahaha))		PS		
L4 : <u>rebel</u>	adj			
L3 : rebel-ja-then you're				
T : rebellious!		T	T	Ir
L3 : oh!-rebellious-				
LL : ((hahaha))				
L3 : difficult word				
LL : ((haha))				
L1 thank you-yes?				
L9 : I think that-um-even if you're 18 and you kill somebody in <u>a</u> accident-um-you can cope with it-if-um-if it's <u>a</u> accident-no matter what age you are and you kill somebody-I don't think you can cope with it much <u>easy</u> - but if you commit murder-I think it's-you can handle it- <u>there's</u> a lot of people who-um-if they kill somebody- then-um-they won't get behind the wheels again.	art art adv th			I I I I
L1 : thank you-yes?				
L10: when you're 16 years [<u>old</u>] drink-or boy-drinking and driving an <u>a</u> 18 year [<u>old</u>] or other-because its your responsibility-if you really want to have a licence that if they catch you-it's over-you don't have your licence anymore. That's your own [<u>fault</u>]-so what's the difference?	p p p			I I I
L1 : ok?				
L12: what about persons older than the age of 16 or 18-say maybe 30 years-and they drink and drive and they may get involved in-um-fatal accidents?				
L4 : yes/uh				
L1 : um-ok-yes				
L11: like she said just now-when you're 18-you usually go to university and then you still drink and drive-so what's the difference if you are 16 and you can also drink and drive with older friends-so-there's no difference!				
L1 : right. yes?				
L3 : ok-the difference between 16 and 18 is 2-years-				
L4 : 2 years				
L3 : ok-then-				
L1 : you should be speaking through me, Nadia				
L4 : oh-sorry				
L3 : -the difference between 16 and 30 is also <u>24</u> years-24 years-that's a big difference-because in 24 years you <u>are</u> wiser and more mature and are thinking for yourself-parents (...)	ct t			I I
L1 : just a minute-ok-you may speak				
L6 : um-if you're 21 years [<u>old</u>] and [<u>older</u>]-um-you're	p p			I I

more responsible and you know what will happen to you if you cause an accident-so?			
L1 : yes?			
L1 : well that isn't a very realistic life-so-			
LL : ((haha))			
L : if you're 16 you will still know what will happen if you get into an accident-so-if you're 18 or 21-so what!			
LL : ag/haha/no!			
L1 : do you want to <u>commint</u> Madeleen	p		I
L6 : no, ((haha))			
L1 : ok-yes-you wanted to say something, Leané?			
L7 : you all of you are saying-ja-when you're 18 you're out of school, but I have so many guy friends that <u>is</u> 18 before they're out of school-just wanna say that-	agr		I
LL : ((hahaha))//chairlady!			
L1 : yes?			
L7 : they're studying and I promise you-they're very (...) friends			
LL : excuse me!			
L7 : <u>can</u> I say something to her?	aux		I
L4 : yes-you may			
LL : ((haha))			
L7 : your birthday is the 3rd of January-			
L1 : hey:!			
L7 : how old are you?			
L4 : you may-say to all-(...)			
L7 : ok-say its older-if your birthday is the 3rd of January-how old are you in matric?-the whole year you're 18 so you can have your driver's licence but still-when you're still in school-that's not different!			
LL : ((haha))/hmhm?/			
L1 : yes?-does anyone have something to say:? ((haha))			
LL : ((haha))			
T : when they're silent-you ask somebody			
L1 : may I-ask anybody?			
T : Anybody-			
L1 : um-			
T : -that hasn't spoken yet			
L1 : Karen! ((haha)) what do yóu say about this?			
L13: most of the people I know are 16 already and they all can drive. our moms and fathers don't want-11 o'clock they must be home-and then we want to party-so-when we have our drivers' <u>licence-</u> we can bring ourselves back home. so-2 [<u>o'clock</u>] - 3 [<u>o'clock</u>]-we can go home-and our-um-parents don't have to worry	pl p p		I I I
LL : ((haha))			
L1 : thank you. ok Karen			
L14: um-I just want to say something-if you are 16 you can have a motorbike if you have a licence-			

ok? um-Madeleen?

T : thank you, miss chairlady!

LL : ((hahaha))

L6 : you can only-um-if you're-um-you-um-can't lift somebody else-you can't have a friend with you, but only when you're 18-then you can take a friend with you on a motorbike

L1 : yes, Tanya

L19: sorry, but-um-Estelle-I think that was a bit ridiculous to say, because I'm taller than my mother and she's been driving all her life-

LL : ((hahaha))

L19: -she can see where she's going

LL : ((hahaha))
(...)(...)(...)

T : ok-you may let them vote

L1 : anyone-ok Tanya

L15: I think our parents will be more pleased to take us to places and I think we should take advantage of our parents to take us to places for two more years

L1 : yes-, Elsie?

L20: the same as Tanya said-your mom will be pleased more more pleased to take you because she will know where you are-

LL : uh//ya

L21: -if you have your own car-she won't know and you will get in trouble more easy

L1 : Nelie?

L22: I just want to (noise) what Karin said-

L1 : yes

L22: -if your mother [tɔld]-
if my mother [tɔld]
me to come home 11 o'clock and I-say I'm late and come half past eleven-then she's worried and-and if I come home-3 or 2 o'clock-my dad will kill me-

LL : ((haha))

L1 : thank you-ok-yes Amorette

L11: that's what I said there just now-if you had a car and you can stay out late and your parents will worry about you-it's the same as a motorbike-then you can go around driving when you're sixteen-and they will still not know where you are

L1 : good. yes? ok-you may speak

L3 : ok-say your parents buy you a motorbike-it's a bit of a thing-get out of my hair?-cause if they buy you a motorbike-then they tell you ok you can drive him wherever you want-whenver you wanted to?

L16: it's your own responsibility to get home when they say you've gotta get home-and if-when you're eighteen-you can do that with a car

L1 : ok-yes Karin?

L14: I just want to say-what if she doesn't buy you a motorcar?-do you buy your own motorcar?-what

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L22:	if she can't lend the car <u>for</u> you? like Amorette said-if you're a girl and you're sixteen-you won't stay-you won't ride alone on the motorbike till 3 o'clock in the morning it's too-d-dangerous	prep			I
L1 :	so you're saying-um-the girl will herself realise that it's too dangerous?				
L22:	ja	L1			I
L1 :	ok				
L7 :	but still in my-when I'm sixteen-I have a car or when I'm eighteen I have a car-if my mom says I <u>had</u> to be home at eleven-I'll be home at eleven-whether I have a car or not	rs			I
L1 :	ja, ok-yes Erika?				
L5 :	<u>you</u> will get home-but there's other boys- and girls-who won't get home-and they will get their <u>mom</u> very worried	th pl			I I
L1 :	ok-uh-yes				
L11:	if you go to a party and your parents can't take you-and go to take you back home-you will obviously go with friends who have got a car-so why don't you have your own car and you can go home when it's <u>your</u> time and not their's				
L1 :	um-Madeleen				
L6 :	I just want to say something about-um-what Karin said-she said why do you wanna-um-motorbike when you can have a car-but why do you-um-she-um-I <u>say other words</u> -because-um-with a motorbike-the petrol- <u>is not so expensive as the car</u> -and- that's better-hmm. I think so	L1 comp			I I I
L1 :	ok-yes, Nadia?				
L4 :	I think there's always <u>this</u> people-children-that <u>wouldn't</u> listen to their parents if they have their own car-or not. so-if <u>you</u> have your own car-um-your parents-um-trust you-and I think parents don't give-um-children permission to drive if they don't trust <u>you</u> - so I think it is the children that-um- <u>is</u> ... (noise)	th agr sup pn agr			I I I I I
LL :	((hahaha))				
L1 :	yes?				
L13 :	my parents <u>personally</u> they-um-if I get on a bike I'm dead, but they allow me to drive my own car-I have my own car-they <u>allowed</u> me to drive <u>where ever</u> I want to-and nothing has <u>yet</u> happened to me. well-if you're on a motorbike and get in an accident you're dead. you don't have a chance	adv t wo			I I I
LL :	uh//ja//hahaha				
L6 :	if you get in a car-and it's a <u>a</u> accident- <u>you also can be dead</u> -so-what's the difference?	art wo			I I
LL :	ja/dead and dead/one's dead and.../haha				

L1 : please-I said you speak through me-not to each other-yes?				
L : but-um-in the car there's stuff around your ((unint)) it's you and the car- (noise)				
L1 : yes, Tanya?				
L15: <u>in</u> a motorbike you have a helmet but in your car?- nothing	prep			I
L4 : seatbelts				
LL : ja/seatbelts/seatbelts/um				
L15: yes but-do you use them?				
LL : no/no/uh				
L15 : uh				
L1 : uh/ha-ok?				
L3 : on a motorbike-getting on a motorbike-it's just you-there's nothing around you-				
L1 : ok				
L3 : -but when you have a car there's something around you-if you go and get into a crash-there's something around you that can-like protect you (bell rings)				
LL : of course/yes				
L1 : you're our final speaker				
LL : (noise) ((haha)) (...?)				
L1 : let's here what she <u>want</u> to say-please-and then we'll vote	agr			I
L6 : but <u>in</u> a motorbike only I will get killed and in a car your friends are with you and-but more than one will be killed-your friends and you	prep			I
L1 : thank you for everyone who participated-and now we'll vote-please-you know-you should just vote once-ok?- everyone who's for this statement-raise your hands				
LL : ((hahaha))				
L1 : ok-and everyone who's against it?(...)(...)				
L1 : allright-um-what do you call it?-um-at the end- <u>the-what?</u>	v	PS		
T : results?			T	Pv
L1 : the results-the results-just by one hand- <u>is</u> for the statement	agr			I
LL : yesohoo/haha/wow!				
T : goodbye!				
LL : Bye madam				

3 :	was			PS	
T :	one-so it's was-yes?			T	Expl
L3 :	her mother replied <u>Anne-Anne</u> what was the matter and asked-	rs			
T :	do you agree with that people?		T	T	T
LL :	no/uhuh/yes/hm				
T :	remember this is a conversation between Anne and her mother-keep it natural-you won't say- um-her mother says-her mother replied Anne- because she says-Anne! what's the matter?- you won't say her mother replied-Anne-Karen?			T	CExpl
L4 :	um-Anne greeted her mother and her mother immediately wanted to know-what the matter was and where she was				
T :	yes-that's better-that's a natural conversation-Anne greeted her mother-and her mother immediately wanted to know what the matter was-and where-she was-Carissa?			T	*Ac
L5 :	sir-shouldn't it be-wanted to know what was the matter<			T	*R
T :	yes-that's only another word order-but-it's fine(...) go on Carissa?				
L5 :	she replied that her mother <u>needn't worry</u> and that she was in London and that she could afford that call	rs			
T :	uh-wait a minute-don't worry-she replied that her mother?-		T	T	At
L4 :	um-Anne comforted her mother and told her not to worry-and that she was in London			T	P
T :	good-Anne comforted her mother-that's a better introductory verb-Anne comforted her mother-and said that she-what did you say, Karen?-			PO	
L4 :	and told her mother not to worry				
T :	and told her mother not to worry-that's better- yes-I agree with that--she was in London-um- Anel-go on				
L6 :	she was fine and she could afford that call				
T :	she was fine and she could afford that call- Tanya				
L :	she told her mom that <u>Marge and she</u> had-had both landed jobs-and that they were leaving for Wales the following day	wo			
T :	good-just tell me-do you agree with Marge and she?		T	T	Q
LL :	she and/she and Marge			T	T
T :	she and Marge			PO	
L7 :	yes			T	Pv
T :	you only put-use it that way-Marge and I-when it's you and another person-you put yourself last-but it's she and Marge-had-both-landed jobs and they were leaving for Wales the following day-or the next day-Henriëtte?			T	Expl
L8 :	she <u>met</u> a wonderful man and-	rs			

T : she met?-		T	T	Aq
LL : she <u>had</u> met			PO	
T : she had met a wonderful man			T	*R
L8 : <u>her</u> name is Michael-	pn			I
<u>which</u> was a tour guide-and that	pn			I
<u>will be</u> -seeing him-and that	rs			D
<u>she</u>	pn			D
<u>will</u> be seeing in Wales	rs			
T : what's wrong with it? (...)(...) what's wrong		T	T	T
with what she just said? (...)(...)(...)(...)				
come on- there's something wrong-she said-they			T	R-ch
<u>will be</u> seeing him in Wales				
L : would be			PO	
T : Would be!			T	*R
there cannot be a present tense verb!			T	*Expl
he <u>was</u> a tour guide and they		T	T	Pv
<u>would be</u> seeing him in Wales(...) Naudene?			T	R-ch
L9 : <u>her mother-her mother-replied</u> that they were	ct			
<u>very well</u>				
T : no-		T	T	Neg
what about-how are you and dad?			T	Aq
L9 : she asked-how-her dad and mom <u>was</u>	agr			
T : dad and mom-how many people?		T	T	C
L9 : two				
T : why was then?			T	Q
L9 : were-			PS	
T : she asked how her dad and Mom were-yes-anything			T	*R
else? (...)(...)				
L : sir-I said she wanted to know?				
T : yes-she wanted to know is also fine-Marlize				
Rust?				
L10: her mother replied-that-um-they were-very well				
and-that she had posted-a thick letter to Anne				
T : good-to Anne-or to her-is also fine-uh-Annesta?				
L2 : her mother asked if someone would forward it to				
Wales				
T : her mother asked if someone would forward it to				
Wales-Adri?				
L11: Anne replied and said yes and that she would				
<u>asked</u> their landlord	inf			
T : <u>not asked-</u>		T	T	Neg
remember-after would only a column 1 verb			T	Expl
T : good-Anne replied-yes-she would ask -their				
landlord-um-Karien?				
L12: Anne said that she <u>had</u>	rs			
to ring off then-				
T : no!(...)		T	T	Neg
that I'll-			T	At
that ll-what is that?(...)(...)			T	Q
L12: would that she <u>would</u>	rs		PS	
T : good!				
L12: <u>to</u> ring off then and	t			D
<u>tell</u> her mom to give her love to her dad	t			D
T : Yes-			T	Ac
Anne said that she would have to ring off		T	T	R+ch
then and				

<p>asked her mom to give her love to her dad-uh-Lindi?</p>		T	T	R+ch
<p>L13: her mother said that she would and thanked her for phoning?</p>				
<p>T : yes-thanked her for phoning-and the rest of the sentence?</p>				
<p>L13: she <u>said</u> that she had to look after herself</p>	wc			
<p>T : yes</p>				
<p>T : yes-she had to look after herself-but do you think she said is the best choice of introductory verb?(...)(...) what can we say instead of she said?(...)(...)</p>		T	T T T	*Ac Q T
<p>L : she <u>says</u></p>	t		PO	
<p>T : no</p>		T	T	Neg
<p>-we are busy with past tense introductory verbs-</p>			T	Expl
<p>she said(...)(...)(...)</p>			T	Pv
<p>look at the sentence-her mother thanked her and</p>			T	At
<p>then she said-do look after yourself. imagine</p>				
<p>your mother-this is a typical mother-sentence-</p>			T	C
<p>what tone of voice will your mother have-use-</p>				
<p>when she says that to you(...) Will it be an</p>			T	C
<p>emotionless statement-do look after yourself-</p>				
<p>or-um-won't she say do look after yourself-with</p>				
<p>love-in her voice to tell you that-um-she cares</p>				
<p>about you?</p>				
<p>LL : uh/ja/hm</p>				
<p>T : how will you then show that-feeling-in your</p>			T	Q
<p>introductory verb? remember we said a sentence</p>			T	Expl
<p>like sit down-gets an introductory verb like-he</p>				
<p>orders him to sit down-or he commands him-now-</p>				
<p>do that with the last part of this</p>				
<p>sentence(...)(...) Karen?</p>				
<p>L4 : um-her mother thanked her-um-for phoning-and-</p>				
<p>um-she-um-asked her to look after herself</p>			PO	
<p>T : yes-asked will do-but there are even better</p>			T	C
<p>words-like-um-for example-requested, reminded</p>			T	
<p>or even-um-begged(...)(...) good-well-I didn't</p>				
<p>want to tell you this before we did this</p>				
<p>exercise-but-eh-I got this from a std 9 text</p>				
<p>book-I wanted to see how you-um-cope with it-</p>				
<p>and I am quite impressed-you made a few</p>				
<p>mistakes-but-that's normal-I didn't do as much</p>				
<p>explaining as I thought I would. well done!</p>				

DISCOURSE	CATEGORY OF ERROR	BY WHOM IS ERROR INITIATED?	BY WHOM IS ERROR TREATED?	TYPE OF CORRECTIVE REACTION
<p>T : good morning fellow members LL : good morning sir T : make yourselves-at home-feel welcome- LL : thank you/I don't feel at home/with pleasure/I am T : fellow members of-Nocsa L : what? L : Nocsa? L : South African ... T : National- L : Olympic of the South Africa T : -Olympic- L : Olympia of South Africa L : Olympia of South Africa T : Corporation-of-South Africa-right-we have assembled-come together here this morning-to discuss a very important event that is going to be happen-that's going to happen in the future of South Africa-in the history of South-Africa-right and what would that be? L : the Olympic- L : the Olympic Games that are to be held in Cape Town T : yes-and in what year? LL : 2004/2004 T : 2004-right-so-Cape Town won the bid for 2004 Olympics-now we-the different subcommittees-are going to discuss-um-the different problems we are going to face-what-will-be-done in preparation for these Olympics-not what must-what will be done-doesn't matter how we're gonna do it-but it will be done-right-now-give each subcommittee a worksheet-which I'd like you all to go and discuss-and we'll assemble afterwards again-if you hand out the worksheets-right-this is the 1st subcommittee-2nd subcommittee-3rd subcommittee- L : fourth T : -fourth-fifth subcommittee-right-now what I'd like you to do-I have an example here- L : shht T : -what will be done-in preparation?-may be you can write that-at the top of your worksheet-</p>				

what will-will be done-it doesn't matter how this is going to happen-right-what will be done-more accommodation will be needed-or used-by the athletes-right-so you-I think all of you write that-accommodation or housing

L : must we write it in pen?

T : -if you write it in pen I want each subcommittee to come and report when we assemble again-right-then you draw a line here-if there's something that is related to this because of more accommodation or housing-something else will be needed-or something else will be built-right-so you have these different parts-do it in this way-so you all discuss that-I'll give you a few words-built-what will be built-what will be repaired-what will be installed

L : Moet ons hierdie woorde skryf?

T : no-these are words you can use-so off you go and discuss-what will be done?

L : with the accommodation or with anything?

T : no-with anything-everything that's gonna happen-there's gonna be more athletes-there's gonna be more spectators-there's gonna be a lot of activity and how are you going to accommodate all those people? right-all subcommittees work together-please

L : is South Africa been chosen?

T : not yet-not yet-but if South Africa is chosen-then Cape Town-it's gonna be Cape Town. right(...)

LL : weet jy wat né.../It's gonna/well-/OK

T : we've got a few speakers of Chinese in the cla-in-in-in the committee-and a few speakers of Portuguese-so we use the international language English-which everybody can understand-so committee members please use the language English-right - do you all understand what you have to do? is there a subcommittee that does not know?-write the first one down more accommodation/housing will be needed by the athletes-

LL : talking/haha/discussing

T : right-subcommittee number 5-I want one suggestion from you-what will be done?-what will be done?-the first one?-more what?

L : OK-um-if you have the housing-more security will be needed

T : right-more security. subcommittee-number 2-

L : kom, Marlize

T : right-more security will be needed-number 2?

L : sir-um-people like doctors and(...) would be employed

T : doctors?-what did you say?

L : medical staff

T : medical staff-right-medics-medics will be

L1

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L1

T

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T

R+ch

employed-right-subcommittee number 4?

L : um-seats, loud speakers and a big screen will be [instolt]

T : installing more seats-loud speakers-will be installed-what else?

L : and a big screen?

T : right-a big screen etc.-right-number 3?

L : more flights will be arranged and more cars must be arranged-will be arranged-to be hired

T : what was the first one?

L : uh-more flights will be arranged

T : more flights-yes-more flights will be arranged-right-what else?-group number 1-1?
I need one suggestion

L : a emblem will be designed and internationally advertised so that we can advertise for sponsors

T : aha-a emblem will be designed for sponsorship. right-is there anything else that groups have to add-I don't have enough space to write it down-so if there's something else-group number 5-let's start-5, 4, subcommittee 3 is next then 2-then 1

L : there must be a big screen as well

T : right-the big screen installed-let's say that goes with loudspeakers and microphones-big screen right-

L : ((unint))

T : right-people-for people to feed them-we need-um-firstly-we need some beverages sold like cold drinks and snackbars and cafés-that kind of thing

L : more restaurants

T : right-more restaurants-this group?

L : um-fundraises will be held-um-to-raise money

T : fundraises-for-for-money-finances-problem with finances-this group?

L : sporting equipment will be bought and upgraded according to Olympic standards

T : right- sporting equipment must be upgraded to-according to Olympic standards-they must see that everything is repaired-and tracks added in tip top shape-right

L : sir-we have to choose a theme for the-um-

T : a theme-a theme will be chosen-right-most probable-yes?-what about the media? you have all left the media out

L : uh/oh

T : what about the media-you have to accommodate them-you have to lay cables-millions of cables for all the media from all over the world

LL : ((unint))

T : restrooms for the athlete's ladies-that kind of thing-what else would be needed?-restrooms, toilet facilities-bathroom facilities-right-

P

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art

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what else? any other suggestion from a sub-committee? do you think you're covered everything?

LL : yes/ja/no sir

T : no!-think of something else. have you mentioned all yours? basically?

L : recreation

T : recreation right-we must keep the athletes busy-they must have something to do-so recreation activities will be organised-

L : they will have to print more tickets

T : they will definitely print more tickets-

L : posters

T : right-more posters-tickets will be printed-posters will be drawn up-right

L : prizes-of things-will go up

T : I am sure that prizes-prices-sorry prices of tickets-will go-go sky-high-prizes-prices of tickets will be raised

L : um-transport-um-for athletes of other sports-so they can compete

T : so vehicles has to be - will be hired - definitely will be hired

L : more parking space will be needed

T : that's an important thing-parking space-more parking space will be needed-so they would have to enlarge parking areas and-of course-what will have to be done then?

L : damage to their houses

T : no-more traffic officers will have to be employed-

L : traffic lights

T : -and lights and security

L : um-we will arrange tours for the athletes to see-um-South Africa

T : more tours-right-more tours-right-that goes with the recreational activities-that will be arranged-more tours-maybe to see the country-will be arranged

L : um-tents for the ((unint)) and commentators

T : what for them?

L : tents

T : tents-tents-for shade-right-now what I'd like you to do-for each of those different suggestions we need-whose gonna pay for it-who's gonna install it-right-so you suggest someone-who's gonna maybe donate it-who will pay for it-right-who will sponsor it. maybe the government or someone will subsidize some of the activities

LL : ((discussion))

T : do all the subcommittee members have their workbooks here?

L : workbooks?

LL : yes, language/yes/uh

T : yes-that's right-take out the workbook-and then

wc/p

T

T

R-ch

do this part-take your group's-take your
group's suggestions-and then-say who's gonna
donate things-who's gonna pay for it-

L : must we write it all over now?

T : yes-I want to do the sentences

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LESSON 8 :

DISCOURSE	CATEGORY OF ERROR	BY WHOM IS ERROR INITIATED?	BY WHOM IS ERROR TREATED?	TYPE OF CORRECTIVE REACTION
<p>T : right-this morning I want you to make us tea- someone's gonna make tea-who can't make tea?</p> <p>LL : ((haha))</p> <p>T : who can't make tea?</p> <p>L1 : me sir</p> <p>T : why can't you make tea, Adele?</p> <p>L1 : I don't like it</p> <p>L1 : are we going to drink it?</p> <p>T : no:-it's you're gonna pretended to make tea. let's see-who's gonna make tea this morning? (...) now-I'm gonna ask-Edelene</p> <p>LL : ((haha))</p> <p>T : Edelene-you come here-and you demonstrate-all that you do-tell us what you do as you do it- this is the tea-there are some bags in here already-right-here are some teabags in-tea here-this is the milk-this one's the sugar. there's your cup.</p> <p>L : sir-I don't wanna go</p> <p>T : Edelene-quickly go(...)(...) OK-you go second. who wants to go? Selma-do you want to go? ok Selma.</p> <p>L3 : while water is boiling-I-uh-wait for it-then I put the sugar in-</p> <p>T : yes?</p> <p>L3 : then I put the milk in-</p> <p>T : yes?</p> <p>L3 : the water-um-is in the tea</p> <p>T : yes-there is the teabag then-you pour water- right-who has another method of making tea? who doesn't do it the same way as she does? Edelene-do you want to go now? do you do it differently than she do?</p> <p>L2 : no</p> <p>T : do you do it the same?</p> <p>L2 : yes</p> <p>T : uh-who wants-uh-Cornelia-you go-tell me how you make tea - do you do it differently than she does?</p> <p>L4 : yes-I think so</p> <p>T : OK-let's listen</p> <p>L4 : right-so you boil the water-</p> <p>T : yes?</p> <p>L4 : you take the sugar-put it in-allright-</p> <p>LL : ((haha))</p>				

L4 : then you take a teabag and you put in two-				
T : yes?				
L4 : then-allright-then you take your boiling water when it boils-when it is finished-	L1			I
put it in your-where the teabags <u>is</u> -allright-	agr			I
then pour it into your cup-				
LL : ((haha))				
L4 : then you stir it-allright?				
T : yes?				
L4 : then you put your milk in-and then you stir it again-right-and then you drink it				
T : right-someone else?-Adele-you have another method?				
L5 : my tea always <u>taste</u> bad-	agr			I
I don't know why...,				
T : OK-so you tried-have you tried making tea?				
L? : yes, sir!				
T : right-let's ask...				
LL : me sir!//I want to				
T : no, we'll ask someone who doesn't have a hand up. Corné? come and demonstrate how you make tea. say what you do as you go along...,				
L6 : OK first you put in the sugar				
T : right..., how much?				
L6 : two-I drink two..., allright, then you take the <u>teaspoon</u> and pour in the tea-no-leave the tea- spoon alone-then you pour in tea=	ct	PS	PS	
L? : no-you don't	L1			
L6 : =omtrent till here				
T : up till there		T	T	Pv
L6 : OK-up till there-then you stir it				
LL : ((unint))				
T : OK-let's listen...,...,	P			
L6 : then you [<u>pʊə</u>] in the milk		PO	PO	
LL : pour//pour				
L6 : pour				
T : right, Corné				
L6 : and then you stir it again				
LL : wow//so many times				
T : who makes her tea differently?				
LL : me//I do				
T : I'm gonna ask Hannie-Hannie?				
L7 : I'll teach you how to make tea nicely.				
T : good-lets hear				
L : first you pour in the milk...,				
LL : Ja//that's nice//no				
L7 : OK-how <u>many</u> sugar do you like?	m/m			I
T : two-two, please				
L7 : two-ok..., then, how much milk do you like?..., till there?...,				
L? : you already <u>pour</u> in the milk	t			I
L7 : then you pour in the tea-and then you [<u>stəʊ</u>] it	p			I
T : OK-now who does it the same as Hannie? is there a different method? so you always pour the sugar first, then tea and then milk?				
L? : no				
T : anyone else				

LL : tea milk sugar//tea sugar milk				
T : tell me Hannie-why do you do it the way around that you do it?				
L7 : then it's nice and milky				
L8 : sir, I want to tell you				
T : OK				
L8 : if you pour hot water and sugar first, the sugar melts-then the milk				
L? ja-that's right	L1			I
L? sir-first the sugar and then the milk-if you stir it and <u>drink it is sweet</u>	pn			I
L? : Nesquick				
LL : ((haha))				
L? : if you use a teabag-you can't <u>first</u> put the milk in, because you must <u>put</u> the water in first	wo wc			I I
T : yes-I understand, but...,				
L? sir, English people actually <u>pours</u> in the milk first	-s			I
LL : no//they don't//not pour the milk				
T : OK-Chantal				
L9 : sir-if you use a teapot-you put in the teabag and then the water				
T : yes-I understand-now why do you do it? have you ever wondered about things you do? Why do you do a specific thing? What have you wondered about?				
L? : nothing				
T : Have you ever wondered why your knee bends forward? Why can't it bend backwards?				
L : then I will walk backwards				
T : I want you to think of other things we can wonder about				
L : ((unint))				
T : right, let's read this poem - The Centipede a centipede washappy quite until a frog in fun said-pray-which leg comes after which?... , this raised her mind to such a pitch-she lay distracted in ditch-considering-how to run				
T : what is this poem about? Vanessa				
L : about a centipede that-um...,				
T : that?				
L : <u>that can't come up</u>	L1			I
T : right. you looked at the picture but you didn't listen to the poem itself				
L : everything looks so natural to you..., until you ask the question how				
T : yes. then start thinking about certain things. right-maybe you get distracted as well when you start thinking about things you usually do				
L : ja				
T : OK-what is a centipede? Yolandie?				
L : <u>Duisendpoot</u>	L1/v			
T : no, it's not. who else says it's that?... ,... , there is a difference between a centipede and a millipede? milli means a thousand-centipede...?		T	T T T PO	I/Neg Expl C P
LL : hundred				
T : right. centipede is a flat worm, while your				

millipede is round. right. um..., a centipede was happy quite-what does that mean?

- L : quite happy
T : quite happy-just change the word order-until a frog in fun said-pray-which leg comes after which. who of you know what that pray means? Tanya?
L : he says a prayer
T : no
L : tell me
T : yes-please tell me-please tell me-please I ask from you which leg comes after which-right this raised her mind to such a pitch-raised-her mind to such a pitch-what is a pitch of something?
L : top part
T : not necessarily-but also the intensity-you get someone with a low-pitched voice or a high-pitched voice-degree or intensity-right-that raised her mind? what is raised?
L : lift it up-um-made it ((unint))
T : lift it up-or-activated-aroused her mind to such a pitch-that she lay distracted in a ditch-what is a ditch? Rozelle?
L : like a... um-hole
T : like a hole in the ground, right-but it's not downwards it's wide-right-a ditch and **dis-tracted**-who knows what that means?
L : your attention is taken from you
L : confused
T : confused-if you are distracted by the person next to you your attention is taken away-or your mind-you don't concentrate-unsettled-unnerved-**considering**-
L : considering how to run
T : yes, but what does consider mean? do you know it
L : thinking about it
T : thinking about it-when you think about it. right-please answer those questions in your book and we will mark them on Monday.

v

T

T
PO
T

Neg
*Ac

DISCOURSE	CATEGORY OF ERROR	BY WHOM IS ERROR INITIATED?	BY WHOM IS ERROR TREATED?	TYPE OF CORRECTIVE REACTION
<p>T : good morning LL : good morning, madam! T : look at this transparent. at the first paragraph you have to rewrite the whole paragraph from singular to plural. Michelle, will you do the first one? L1 : the young men with the long hair <u>is</u> going to approach those young women sitting on the sand in their bikinis, aren't they? T : the young men is? L1 : are T : good T : how do we write men? L1 : m-e-n T : and those young... later in the sentence? L1 : y-o-u-n-g T : y-o-u-n-g? L1 : yes madam. y-o-u-n-g T : oh! no wonder I don't understand. I want you to spell the word after young. L1 : oh, you want me to spell women? w-o-m-e-n T : that's correct. ...those young women sitting in...? L1 : ...their bikinis. T : and the tag? L1 : ...aren't they? T : yes. ...aren't they? she said in their bikinis. how do we write their? L2 : t-h-e-i-r T : yes. t-h-e-i-r. Mariska, will you do number b, please? L3 : number b? T : yes, number b. L3 : um...,...,uh..., T : do it now L3 : the boys..., T : yes. the boys...? L3 : the boys <u>says</u>... T : says? why says? L3 : the boy <u>said</u>... No, say! T : why say and not says? L3 : <u>because it is has</u> T : the word has has nothing to do with it. why is it correct to say the boys say... and not the boys says?</p>	agr	T	T PS	R-ch+e
<p>L3 : the boys <u>says</u>... T : says? why says? L3 : the boy <u>said</u>... No, say! T : why say and not says? L3 : <u>because it is has</u> T : the word has has nothing to do with it. why is it correct to say the boys say... and not the boys says?</p>	-S t ct	T PS T	T+T PS T PS T	R-ch+e+Q Aq Aq

L3 : it is more than one boy.				
T : wonderful! thank you! go on.				
L3 : the boys say that they...				
T : yes...				
L3 : ...has...				
T : boys-singular or plural?				
L3 : plural				
T : so..., has or have?				
L3 : have				
T : yes-go on...,				
L3 : ... bought ...				
T : yes...,				
L3 : ... have bought <u>her</u>	pl	T	T	Q
T : plural?				
L3 : I beg your pardon, madam?			T	Aq
T : what is the plural of her?			T	Aq
L : I don't know, madam			T	At
T : Listen, Mariska! I bought her a rose. I want to say I bought roses for more than one girl. which word should I use?			T	CExpl
L3 : I don't know, madam			T	Aq
T : come one, Mariska! instead of saying: "I bought her a rose", how will you say that you bought some for more than one person? for ...?			T	At
L3 : them			T	Aq
T : yes! I bought them a rose! now, a rose becomes...?			PS	
L3 : roses			T	Q
T : this rose?			PS	
L3 : <u>that</u> rose	pl		T	Q
T : no! this means it is here, close to you. that indicates that it is away from you, removed. but both are singular. so what do you think is the plural of this?		T	T	Neg
L3 : these			T	CExpl
T : yes! go on			T	Aq
L3 : ... these roses and that they ...			PS	
T : yes...			T	*Ac
L3 : ... have borrowed <u>a pin</u>	pl			
T : a pin?		T	T	R-ch+e
what is the plural of a pin?			T	Aq
L3 : pins			PS	
T : pins. go on, Mariska! you seem to need a lot of exercise				
L3 : they say that they have noticed <u>a change</u>	pl			
T : a change?		T	T	R-ch+e
L3 : changes			PS	
T : yes...				
L3 : ... in the girls behaviour				
T : how do you write that girls?				
L3 : g-i-r-l-s				
T : and the apostrophe?				
L3 : I don't have it there				
T : but in that sentence something belongs to that girl				
L3 : <u>maybe the apostrophe falls away</u>	ct			

<p>T : no it does not fall away. how should that word be written?</p> <p>L2 : girls + apostrophe + s</p> <p>T : ((writes word on board)) like this?</p> <p>LL : yes! yes!</p> <p>T : Jolandie?</p> <p>L4 : no! girls + apostrophe, without the other -s</p> <p>T : ((writes word on board)) like this?</p> <p>L4 : yes!</p> <p>T : yes! like this. words ending in -s in the plural such as girls, teams, schools etc take an apostrophe only. don't add another -s after the apostrophe, for example the medals of the teams will be the teams' medals. good! the next paragraph please Leone. now it is a different story-from plural back to singular</p>		T	T T	Neg Aq
<p>L5 : <u>her heart</u>...</p> <p>T : no! our hearts?</p> <p>L5 : my heart is like <u>a</u> apple tree...</p> <p>T : like...?</p> <p>L5 : an apple tree</p> <p>T : yes! go on</p> <p>L5 : ...that is bent with fruit</p> <p>T : that is bent with fruit or which is bent with fruit. both are correct. number b, please Mariana</p>	pl art	T T	T T PS T PS T PS	Neg Q Q *Ac
<p>L6 : my heart feels as young and fresh as green <u>leaves</u>. no, as a green leaf</p> <p>T : as a green leaf. how do you write this leaf?</p> <p>L6 : l-e-a-v-e</p> <p>T : Jolandie?</p> <p>L4 : l-e-a-f</p> <p>T : leaf. that's another rule. when you change it to plural, the -f in words such as leaf becomes a -v and you add -es afterwards</p> <p>T : Lizelle, the next one?</p> <p>L7 : I will love that man all my life</p> <p>T : I will love that man all...</p> <p>L7 : shouldn't it be I shall, madam?</p> <p>T : both are correct. it depends how serious this person is. if you want to stress a fact you say I shall. I will or shall love that man all?</p> <p>L7 : ... my life</p> <p>T : ... all my life. how do we spell that life, Yolandi?</p> <p>L8 : l-i-e-v-e</p> <p>T : I beg your pardon? l-i-e...?</p> <p>L8 : l-e..., no,..., l-i... l-i-v-e</p> <p>T : it seems as if we should learn the alphabet first l-i-v-e?</p> <p>L8 : l-i-f-e</p> <p>T : yes! l-i-f-e. the first one is a verb. Yolanda, you live your life. the next paragraph, please, Natasha?</p>	pl	PS	PS	

L9 : what must I do madam?				
T : plural to singular				
L9 : oh-I compete with <u>our</u> age groups	pl	T	T	R-ch+e
T : our age groups-			T	Q
is that singular or plural?			PO	
LL : plural//still plural			T	Q
T : so, Natasha, then it's wrong-what should it be?				
L9 : my age group...,			T	*Ac
T : yes-go on	agr			
L9 : which pupil get the highest mark...		T	T	T
T : Vernadette-do you agree with her?			PO	
L10: no, madam			I	Q
T : why not?			PO	
L10: which pupil gets			T	Aq
T : why gets and not get, Natasha?			PS	
L9: it is singular?			T	*Ac
T : yes-good..., go on, Marilette				
L11: which athlete runs the fastest track event				
T : welldone-go on, please, Theresa				
L12: which boys-boy has-have-has the most attractive	pl	PS	PS	
girlfriend	agr	PS	PS	
T : yes-go on...,				
L12: which school wins the trophy				
T : how do you spell trophy?				
L12: t-r-o-p-h-i-e				
T : no-you don't know that spelling rule				
LL : h-y//h-e-y//i only				
T : yes-Marilette-what did you say?-spell the word				
L11: t-r-o-p-h-e-y				
T : yes ((bell))				

LESSON 10 :

DISCOURSE	CATEGORY OF ERROR	BY WHOM IS ERROR INITIATED?	BY WHOM IS ERROR TREATED?	TYPE OF CORRECTIVE REACTION
<p>T : well, when I marked your paragraphs last week I noticed that quite a few of you are confused with when to use a or an. I thought it was general knowledge, but let see-</p> <p>T : Here we have a list of words on the board..., do we say a apple or an apple?</p> <p>LL : an apple</p> <p>T : a song or an song?</p> <p>LL : a song</p> <p>T : a song. the next one?</p> <p>LL : a nice apple</p> <p>T : why a, Jackie?</p> <p>L1 : because it's nice</p> <p>T : Leoné?</p> <p>T : we look at the n and not the a. so it is a nice apple. the next one-a or an.</p> <p>LL : a hour//an hour</p> <p>T : why an hour, Marijke?</p> <p>L5 : because the h sounds like o</p> <p>LL : you pronounce it funny//but h is no vowel//it has a vowel sound</p> <p>T : it has a vowel sound. you have to listen to the sound. it doesn't start with a vowel if you look at the word written there, but when you say it you don't say [hour] you say our.</p> <p>LL : hour//our</p> <p>T : so because the sound is one of those vowels, it gets an</p> <p>T : exciting book?</p> <p>L? : an exciting book</p> <p>T : an exciting book. e is a vowel sound. if you have this word</p> <p>LL : a//uniform//an// a uniform//it doesn't have a vowel sound</p> <p>T : who says a uniform?</p> <p>LL : me//I do</p> <p>T : who says an uniform?</p> <p>LL : I think it is <u>an uniform</u></p> <p>T : some of you did not vote. don't you have an opinion?</p> <p>L? : <u>an uniform</u></p> <p>T : do you agree about that last one? on Saturdays she works as...</p>	<p>art</p> <p>art</p>			<p>I</p> <p>I</p>

<p>L3 : <u>A</u> usherette T : why do you say a, Lynora? L3 : because you don't hear the u LL : how do you say that word madam//pronounce that word for us madam T : [ret] what does that tell you? LL : an usherette//you don't hear a...//an usherette T : Anne-Marie..., a or an usherette? L10: I don't know T : come on Anne-Marie..., L10: an usherette T : why an usherette? L10: because it's a vowel sound T : it's a vowel sound! yes! what does this tell you? if you don't know how to say the word usherette? L? you won't know the answer T : you won't know if it is a or an. that's why pronunciation is so important. good. number c, d and e in your books, please</p>	art	T	T	Q
			T+T PO T+T	C+Q T+Q
			T PO T PS	P Aq
			T T	R-ch Q
			PO T T	R+ch Expl

SUMMARY

The problem investigated in this study is how oral errors are treated in the ESL classroom. It is hypothesized that most teachers do not treat oral errors, although there is a variety of methods they may employ to do so. According to many researchers, teachers also ought to allow pupils to correct their own errors.

The aims of this study are therefore to determine whether oral errors are treated and, if they are, which type of error is treated most/less frequently, and which type of oral error treatment is preferred by teachers. The extent of treatment by pupils themselves is also investigated.

The literature survey covers the relations between oral errors in the L1 and the L2, the significance of oral L2 errors, as well as the nature and causes of these errors. Researchers have opposing views on the treatment of L2 learners' oral errors, and these different views are dealt with. Various different frameworks employed in the analysis of oral errors are also discussed.

The empirical investigation is based on the analysis of ten lessons by teachers of two Std. 7 classes. These lessons were analysed according to a specific framework and the results revealed that most oral errors were ignored by the teachers. The three categories of error which were ignored most were

errors in agreement, pronunciation, and tense. However, a promising result emanating from this study was that, although teachers ignored most errors, the second and third most popular methods of error treatment were questions and transfer. Both these methods leave room for the treatment of errors by pupils themselves.

KEYWORDS

error treatment, oral errors, error analysis, interlanguage errors.

OPSOMMING

Die probleem wat in hierdie studie ondersoek word is die wyse waarop mondelinge foute in Engels Tweede Taal hanteer word in die klaskamer. Die uitgangspunt in die studie is dat die meeste onderwysers nie alle mondelinge foute behandel nie, alhoewel daar 'n wye verskeidenheid metodes bestaan om dit te kan doen. Volgens talle navorsers moet onderwysers leerlinge ook toelaat om hul eie foute te korrigeer.

Die doelstellings van die studie is dus om te bepaal of mondelinge foute behandel word of nie, en indien hulle wel behandel word, watter tipe foute die meeste/minste behandel word, asook watter behandelingsmetode deur onderwysers verkies word. Die mate waartoe leerlinge self hul foute behandel word ook ondersoek.

Die literere oorsig dek die verhouding tussen mondelinge foute in die eerste en tweede taal, die belangrikheid van hierdie foute, asook die kenmerke en oorsake daarvan. Navorsers huldig kontrasterende menings oor die behandeling van mondelinge foute, en hierdie menings word bespreek. Verskillende raamwerke wat gebruik word in die ontleding van mondelinge foute word ook bespreek.

Die empiriese navorsing is gebaseer op die ontleding van tien lesse van die onderwysers van twee standerd sewe klasse. Hierdie lesse is ontleed aan die hand van 'n spesifieke raamwerk en die resultate het aangedui dat die meeste mondelinge foute deur onderwysers geignoreer word. Die drie kategoriee wat die meeste geignoreer word is foute in ooreenkoms ('agreement'), uitspraak en tydsuitdrukking ('tenses'). Alhoewel die onderwysers die meeste foute geignoreer het, is die tweede en derde gewildste metode vir die behandeling van mondelinge foute vraagstelling en oordrag na 'n ander leerling. Albei hierdie metodes stel leerlinge in staat om hul eie foute te korrigeer.

SLEUTELWOORDE

behandeling van foute, mondelinge foute, foutontleding, intertaaloute.