

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**WRITING ERRORS OF THE TEACHER TRAINEE AND THEIR IMPACT
ON PEDAGOGY- A CASE STUDY OF ADA COLLEGE OF EDUCATION**

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**A thesis in the Department of Applied Linguistics, Faculty of Foreign
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**of the requirements for the award of degree of
Master of Philosophy
(Teaching English as a Second Language)
in the University of Education, Winneba**

AUGUST, 2020

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, Edward Tetteh Abaya-Teye declare that except for quotations and references made to other people's works which have been duly cited and acknowledged, this research work is the result of my own work and that it has not been submitted either in part or whole for any other degree.

Signature.....

Date.....

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the presentation of this research work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of research work as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

SUPERVISOR'S NAME: Dr. Rebecca Atchoi Akpanglo-Nartey

Signature.....

...

Date.....

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my dear mother, Madam Cecilia Asibi Yidana, for her encouragement and support throughout my entire life.



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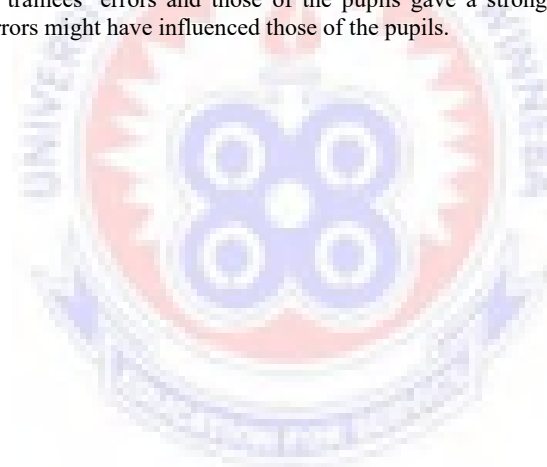
ABBREVIATIONS

TL	TARGET ANGUAGE
L1	FIRST LANGUAGE
L2	SECOND LANGUAGE
MT	MOTHER TONGUE
ESL	ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
EFL	ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE
SLA	SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION
CA	CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS
EA	ERROR ANALYSIS



ABSTRACT

This study investigates the writing errors of teacher trainees of Ada College of Education in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana, identifies the causes of these errors and assesses the impact of these errors on teaching and learning. To help guide this study, two theoretical frameworks were adopted- the Error Analysis theory and the Input Hypothesis Model. A qualitative research approach was used and the design adopted was case study. A population sample of 35 final year teacher trainees on practicum out of a student population 345 was used for the studies. In addition, 14 mentors of the trainees and 4 language tutors participated in the research. The purposive sampling technique was used. In order to unearth the writing errors of the trainees, two sets of exercises were given- a take-home essay and an error identification test. The pupils' exercise books were also scrutinised to find out if there were any slippages of the trainees' errors in the pupils' output. These tools were further supported by observation of trainees and pupils in the classroom during lesson delivery and an interview with mentors and tutors. The results confirmed the existence of trainee errors relating to tense, concord, expression, spelling, pronoun, preposition and letter case. It also came out that the errors emanated from interlingual, intralingual and other sources. The similarities between the trainees' errors and those of the pupils gave a strong indication that the trainees' errors might have influenced those of the pupils.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This study investigates the writing errors of 35 final year teacher trainees of Ada College of Education offering the 3-year Diploma in Basic Education programme. It also identifies the probable causes of the trainees' errors and the impact of these errors on teaching and learning. In addition, it offers recommendations to stakeholders on how the challenge can be resolved. Finally, it suggests for future research some pertinent areas which this project could not address.

This chapter discusses the background to the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the objectives of the study, the research questions, and significance of the study, delimitation, limitation and the organisation of study.

1.1 Background of the Study

English language is the world's most spoken language. It is the common means of communication between the people of different nations. The role of English language in the scheme of things in the world today makes it quite imperative for one to acquire it if one really wants to function in society. It is the language of commerce, law and business. It is the lingua franca of many nations, including Ghana, and serves as the medium of instruction in schools.

1.1.1 Introduction and Development of English in Ghana

Ghana is a multilingual society with about 50 languages (Dakubu, 1996). The major languages in Ghana are Akan, Nzema, Ga, Dagaare and Dagbani. The official language in Ghana is English which gained root in the 16th century and has expanded to this present time.

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In Ghana, the English language was brought in and developed as a result of the contact situation with the British merchants who came to the shores of the then Gold Coast to trade in the sixteenth century. Communication between the merchants and the indigenes became a challenge as there was no common medium of communication between them. To help facilitate their business, it became very necessary to train some local people who would serve as interpreters. This gave rise to a form of English which Boadi (1994, p. 53) branded as “Mercantile English” with limited potential of becoming “the precursor of educated English varieties used in West Africa.”

The British, after acquiring the forts and castles of the Europeans who had come earlier, introduced a more structured form of English teaching in the castles (Sackey, 1997). Sackey attributes the survival of the English schools, particularly those in Cape Coast, into the colonial era to the effort of Philip Quaicoe who gave his students lessons in reading, writing and the study of the Bible. Apart from Philip Quaicoe, the consolidation of the English language in the country was significantly facilitated by the colonial and missionary policy. Special mention is made of Reverend Denny who assumed position as the school master in the Cape Coast Castle in 1924. He championed the exclusive use of English in the school and exacted penalty for any breaches of his stance. The missionaries, along similar lines, considered the use of English as very essential for their missionary work and ensured the use of English, especially in the Wesleyan school. The passage of the ordinances of 1822 and 1887 introduced financial assistance to the English schools by way of grant and established a system for schools founded by both the missionaries and private individuals. It was the stance of the leadership in the Colonial Office in Britain that government should not encourage the use of the indigenous languages and the reports indicate that schools that used the indigenous languages as medium of instruction could not qualify for financial support.

The Phelps Stokes report (1920), however, advocated the use of the indigenous languages at the lower elementary schools and, where there were linguistic heterogeneity, a common language of African origin could be used (Sackey, 1997). According to Sackey, the Jeffrey 1951 study group commissioned by the Colonial Office, nonetheless, opposed it indicating that it was untenable to take a position that the literacy levels of children would be enhanced when taught to read and write in vernacular when there was no empirical evidence to support such a claim.

From 1925 to 1951, after the Phelps-Stokes report, Ghanaian language was used as a medium of instruction for the first three years of primary education. From 1951 to 1956, however, Ghanaian language was used for just the first year of primary education. From 1957, when Ghana gained its independence under its first president, to 1966 when the first president (Dr. Kwame Nkrumah) was overthrown, Ghanaian language was not used at all. From 1967 to 1969, Ghanaian language was used in the first year of primary education and from 1970 to 2002, it was used for the first three years of primary education (Owu-Ewie, 2006). The current language policy promulgated in 2002 makes English the medium of instruction from primary one to the university level.

It is interesting to note how chequered the language policies have been over the centuries as to which medium of instruction is most suitable for the lower primary level. In spite of the concrete evidence available that using Ghanaian language as medium of instruction enhances the acquisition of English language at the primary level, most post-independence policies of government tended to toe the line of the colonial administration and failed to advance the needed funding for the development of the indigenous languages..

1.1.2 Role of English in Ghana

Ghana is linguistically heterogeneous and, according to Dakubu (1996), has over fifty different languages. The English language has come to stay as a result of our colonial experience. It is the lingua franca, a denominator that binds and gives us identity as a people. It is the language of administration and the medium of instruction in our schools. In fact, the role of English in the Ghanaian society is so crucial that it is the pivot around which other subjects revolve. This fact is buttressed by the second aim of the Ministry of Education Syllabus for JHS (2007) which stipulates that it is to help the pupil to “*attain high proficiency in English to help him/her in the study of other subjects and the study of English at higher levels*”. As a requirement for admission into our tertiary institutions, one needs to pass with credit in English in the West Africa Senior Secondary Certificate Examination. It is the language of law, business and all formal engagements. It is a language of socialization and the language of the media.

Unfortunately, however, a large chunk of the number of students we churn out of our second cycle schools either fail or come out with mediocre performance in English.

1.1.3 The Nature of English in Our Schools Currently

In Ghana today, English is taught as a subject from the kindergarten to the lower primary level. From the upper primary through the Junior High School to the Senior High School, however, English is the medium of instruction. The rationale for teaching English at the Junior High School has been aptly captured in a sentence: “Success in education at all levels depends, to a large extent, on the individual’s proficiency in English”. CRDD (2007, p.11)

At the Senior High School (SHS) level, one of the reasons for teaching English is “to improve the communicative competence of students and to give them confidence to

communicate, raise the student's level of proficiency in English usage and their ability to communicate with other users of English" CRDD (2007, p.11). These clearly demonstrate the premium Ghana places on the teaching and learning of English.

In spite of the high premium the country places on the English language, however, concerns have been raised by the citizenry about falling standards in English in Ghana. The elderly recall with nostalgia the good quality of English in the country in the 1940s and the 1950s. They claim people who completed elementary school in those days, unlike leavers of second cycle and tertiary institutions today, could speak and write impeccable British English. This fact is further corroborated by Professor Abena Dophyne, the then President of the Ghana English Studies Association (GESA) at the 1996 conference held at the University of Education. In her address, Professor Dophyne had this to say:

... we, as members of GESA, are particularly concerned or should be concerned about the general complaint, from teachers and non-teachers alike, about the general decline in both the productive and receptive communicative skills in English at all levels of our educational system, including the universities. People often point out that the level of competence in English of Middle School leavers in the 1950s is much higher than that of many secondary school leavers in present day Ghana, a fact which seems to be so obvious that nobody even bothers to question the basis for such comments. What is even more disturbing is the fact that a similar decline in communicative skills among young educated people can also be observed in their use of Ghanaian languages (cited in Dakubu, 1997, pp. 4-5)

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In a speech delivered on behalf of the then Minister of Education (Mr. Harry Sawyer) Professor De Heer Amissah (the then Executive Secretary of National Council for Tertiary Education) had this to say:

Since English is the language of instruction in all institutions beyond the earliest primary years, a good knowledge of that language is essential for academic advancement, and for success in the more lucrative professions and occupations after graduation ... Unfortunately, it seems that some of our students are not quite as confident in English as we would wish ... we had occasion to lament the woeful performance of the Senior Secondary School candidates in English. Before that, we were hearing frequent complaints of falling standards of English in the country generally (Dakubu, 1997, p.2).

Mr. Sawyer vaguely attributed the poor performance of students to teachers: "It should be obvious that the level of English language performance among students... cannot easily be higher than the level of performance of their teachers..." (cited in Dakubu, 1997, p. 2)

On the teachers' front, the falling standards of English has sparked controversies as to which category of teachers are to blame for the phenomenon. This fact is buttressed by Boadi (1971, p.56) when he says:

There is a general demand from all quarters for improvement in the standard of written and spoken English in the schools and universities. University teachers, finding their freshmen insufficiently equipped to understand and write English at the level required for advanced work, blame the low standard on secondary schools. Teachers in secondary

schools, on the other hand, admit that something radically wrong is happening to the teaching and learning of English, and that is adversely affecting standards at all levels. But they see the cause of all this in the handling of the subject in the primary schools.

With the teacher now standing accused, the quality of teachers produced in our teacher training institution has been called to question. Teacher trainees carry a lot of writing challenges (Agor, 2003) and these need the attention of all stake-holders to fashion out ways of addressing the challenge.

1.2 Statement of Problem

Students in the Ghanaian Colleges of Education perform unsatisfactorily in English in their end of semester examinations even though they are admitted with a minimum of a Credit pass in English in the West Africa Secondary School Certificate Examination (WASSCE). This is apparently due to their inability to express themselves well in writing. Most students agree that they are unable to write well because they do not read. Others believe English is learnt only in the classroom and therefore make no attempt to learn it on their own. Though they write, they use deviant linguistic features which are not acceptable in the formal context. Students exhibit a myriad of challenges in their writings that include issues relating to concord, spelling and punctuation, very limited stock of vocabulary, poor paragraph development, inappropriate use of articles and prepositions, and wrong use of words and expression.

Stake-holders in Education generally agree that the standard of writing among students in our educational institutions, including Ada College of Education, has fallen. A lot of research has been conducted (Yankson, 1994; Agor, 2003; Anyidoho, 2002) into investigating the writing errors of students but very little has been done in the area of

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teacher education in Ghana. No research has been found by the researcher on writing errors of teacher trainees and how these errors impact on teaching and learning in Ghana. This research therefore seeks to fill-in this gap. It is hoped that the recommendations that come out of this research will be considered by policy makers and implemented to address the challenge.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

This research is intended to unearth the writing errors of the teacher trainee of Ada College of Education and attempt to trace the possible causes of these errors. It is also intended to ascertain the impact of the trainees' writing errors on teaching and learning. The outcome of the study and the recommendations thereon are expected to give insight into the depth of the challenge and how it could be addressed.

1.4 Research Objectives

The main objectives of this study are to:

1. Identify the writing errors of teacher trainees of Ada College of Education.
2. Identify the causes of these errors.
3. Ascertain the impact of teacher trainees' errors on teaching and learning.

1.5 Research Questions

The following questions form the basis of this research work:

1. What are the writing errors that teacher trainees of Ada College of Education make?
2. What are the causes of these errors?
3. What impact do these errors have on teaching and learning?

1.6 Significance of the Study

This research will help sensitize teachers of English on how to handle the writing errors that students make by identifying the source of the problem. By tackling the problem from the root, students will be motivated to write error-free essays. The findings of this research will also enable the teacher to find an antidote to the problem by employing more innovative ways and strategies to motivate their pupils to write effectively. This will further guide curriculum planners to know what to incorporate into the curriculum to help minimize students' errors.

1.7 Delimitation

The study was limited to only teacher trainees in the third year of the Diploma in Basic Education programme at the Ada college of Education. Attention was focused on thirty-five trainees on practicum selected from the seven basic schools located within Ada-Foah and its catchment areas. These were the D/A Basic School, Presby. Basic School, R/C Basic School, Methodist Basic School, Azizanya Basic School, Totimekope D/A Basic School and Ocanseykope D/A Basic School. The study was also limited to the writing errors of the teacher trainees with respect to tense, concord, spelling, pronoun, preposition and expression.

1.8 Limitation

The greatest challenge of the study was time constraints. The researcher would have wished he had enough time to expand the scope of his work to include other colleges of education but time could not allow him to do so. In view of this, the researcher settled on only one college of education- Ada College of Education.

Another hurdle was the inability of researcher to gain easy access to the participants due to some other school activities such as sporting competitions and preparation for

Independence Day Celebration. This challenge was resolved by engaging the participants during the break time and soon after school.

1.9 Organisation of the Study

This project is presented in five chapters. Chapter One consists of the background of the study, the statement of problem, the purpose of the study, the research objectives, the research questions, the significance of the study, the delimitation of study and the limitation of the study.

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Chapter two deals with the review of related literature on the topic. It discusses the theoretical frameworks that underpin the study. It also discusses other works that have been done in the area error analysis with particular focus on writing errors.

Chapter three discusses the methodology used in the research work. It takes a look at the research design and approach, the population, sample and sampling techniques, the research instruments and the procedure for data analysis.

Chapter four analyses the data collected, discusses them extensively and comes out with findings in line with the research questions.

Chapter five gives a summary of the study. It also makes recommendations for stakeholders in education for consideration.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on how the topic has been discussed in some selected works such as Corder (1974), Richards (ed.) (1974), Ellis (1985), Anyidoho (2002), Agor (2003), Nimako (2008), Nel and Muller (2010) among others. As part of the literature review, two theoretical frameworks namely- Error Analysis theory and Input Hypothesis Theory- which guided this study have been discussed in detail. An attempt has been made to examine the distinction between an Error and a Mistake. This chapter also looks at the broad issue of sources of errors and critically examines the Contrastive Analysis (C.A) assertion that the L1 is the sole source or prime cause of errors in foreign language learning. Pedagogy and error correction are also given some attention.

2.1 Theoretical Frameworks

This study seeks to identify the writing errors of teacher trainees and their impact on teaching and learning with a special focus on Ada College of Education. To be able to do this effectively, the most appropriate and time-tested framework must be chosen to guide the study. The theoretical frameworks upon which this study is grounded are the Error Analysis (EA) theory and the Input Hypothesis Theory. Error Analysis (EA) is a Second language Acquisition (SLA) theory that involves the identification, collection, classification and explanation of learners' linguistic errors in order to understand the reason(s) for their occurrences and to help in addressing them (Corder, 1974; Selinker, 1972).

2.1.1. Background to the theory of Error Analysis

Preceding the 1960s, the Contrastive Analysis (CA) theory, which toed along the lines of the behaviourist, was what was in vogue in the area of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). First proposed by Lado (1957), contrastive analysis (CA) juxtaposes the learners' first language (L1) with the second language (L2) in order to identify their similarities and differences. It was believed then that wherever similarities existed in the structure of the first language (L1) and that of the second language (L2), the second language was easier to learn. On the other hand, wherever there were differences in the structures of the first language (L1) and the second (L2), the second language was difficult to learn because the first language interfered with the second language. According to Al-Kreshah (2016), the main objective of Contrastive Analysis (CA) was to predict the main areas of differences between the L1 and the L2.

Contrastive Analysis (CA), had its challenges. One major challenge was that it made misleading predictions. According to Whitman and Jackson (1972), 2500 Japanese speakers, in an experiment, were tested on the syntactic level of English and the results, compared with the predictions, differed markedly. It did not cater for errors that were not caused by L1 interference.

The Error Analysis Theory championed by some scholars (Corder, 1967; Selinker, 1970) emerged as a reaction to the contrastive analysis theory. It shifted the focus to the actual errors committed by L2 learners rather than the hitherto prediction of potential errors proffered by Contrastive Analysis.

EA offers good scientific and pedagogical orientation and broadly touches on linguistic and cognitive processes. EA is of immense importance when it comes to classroom research (Brown, 1994) and provides a sound basis for systematically analysing L2

learners' errors and making determination on areas that need reinforcement by the teacher (Corder, 1974).

James (1998, p. 1) says EA is "the process of determining the incidence, nature, cause and consequences of unsuccessful language". Schaumann and Stenson (1976, p. 4) explain that error analysis is "to explain and analyse why one aspect of the target grammar has not been adequately acquired whilst a second language is learnt without difficulty."

2.1.1.1 Stages of Error Analysis

Ellis (1994, p. 48) identifies four successive steps through which Error Analysis (EA) is carried out. These stages are: (1) "collection of a sample of learner language, (2) identification of errors, (3) description of errors, and (4) explanation of errors". Below are the explanations of these stages of error analysis.

I. Collection of a Sample of Learner Language

This involves the collection of samples of learners' speech or writings. Researchers, however, vary in their choice of data collection methods. According to this stage, learners' errors are influenced by a number of important factors which, according to Ellis (1994, p. 49), are significant in "collecting a well-defined sample of learner language so that clear statements can be made regarding what kinds of errors the learners produce and under what conditions".

II. Identification of Errors

For one to be able to identify an error, it is important for him or her to be able to draw a distinction between an error and a mistake. Al-Khresheh (2016) explains that if the L2 learner uses a certain form of structure or rule correctly and later deviates from it, then it can be classified as a mistake. On the other hand, if the L2 learner uses the wrong form consistently without using the right form, then it can be classified as an error. Another way in checking whether a structure is a mistake or an error is by asking an L2 learner to correct his/her deviant utterance. If he/she is unable to, then the deviations are errors, but where he/she is successful, then they are definitely mistakes. The identification of an error is different from explaining what an error is. For one to be able to identify errors in utterances of Second Language learners, Corder (1981 in Al-Khresheh, 2016) provides a common model to be used. The model indicates that, "every sentence is to be regarded as idiosyncratic until shown to be otherwise" (p.21). The model also makes good distinction between what he calls 'overt' and 'covert' errors. If a sentence is ill-formed in terms of TL rules, it has been regarded as 'overtly idiosyncratic' whilst the sentence that is superficially well-formed but does not mean what the learner intends has been regarded as 'covertly idiosyncratic'. Corder (1978, p. 56) states that, "to identify the presence and nature of an error, an interpretation of the learner's utterance is necessary". It could be understood that Corder wants to indicate the importance of interpretation of learners' utterances. Such an interpretation might reveal then main differences between 'what a learner wants to say' and 'what a learner has said'. Corder's model shows that literal translation can be a probable indicator of other FL learners' errors which might be attributed to interference from their own mother tongue (MT). Identifying FL/L2 learners' errors is fundamental for determining the standard against which a particular item that is considered erroneous. Brown (2000), Ellis (1994) and Corder (1981 cited in Al-Tamimi 2006, p.39) "consider any deviation

from what a native speaker would produce, as an error". Therefore, an error can be any choice by the language learners which strays from its proper application as would be expected from a typical, knowledgeable, indigenous speaker of the language being learnt. Appropriate elucidation of the inaccuracies can commence when faults are recognised

III. Description of Errors

After the error identification stage, the next stage is the description of errors. The description of FL errors is a sine qua non for a good explanation of errors. According to Al-Khreshah (2016), the description of errors helps in serving three major purposes. The first purpose is to expound all that is unstated instinctively in order to substantiate an individual's instinct. The second stage may serve as a prerequisite for counting the learner's errors. Finally, the third purpose is to create categories and subcategories of errors which may invariably help in the development of a comprehensive taxonomy of L2 errors. According to Corder (1973), FL learners' errors can be classified by way of the differences between their utterances and the reconstructed version. By this token, errors are classified into four categories namely omission, selection, addition and 'misordering' of some elements. In offering further explanation, Ellis (1997) asserts omission occurs when a student leaves a required item of an utterance out of a sentence he or she has constructed. Selection error occurs when the wrong element is chosen whilst addition occurs when unnecessary elements are added to the construction. Finally, 'misordering' occurs when elements are placed at the wrong position in the sentence. According to Ellis (1997:p.23), "classifying errors in these ways can help us to diagnose learners' learning problems at any stage of their development and to plot how changes in error patterns occur over time".

Erdogan (2005, p. 264 cited in Al-Khresheh, 2016), clarifies the above-mentioned categories with the following examples:

Omission

Morphological omission: *'A strange thing happen to me yesterday'.

Syntactical omission: *'Must say also the names?'

Addition

In morphology: *'The books is here.'

In syntax: *'The London'

In lexicon: *'I stayed there during five years ago.'

Selection

In morphology: *'My friend is oldest than me.'

In syntax: *'I want that he comes here.'

Ordering:

In pronunciation: *'fignisicant' for 'significant'; * 'prulal' for 'plural'

In morphology: *'get upping' for 'getting up'

In syntax *'He is a dear to me friend.'

In lexicon *'key car' for 'car key'

It is important to note that "An error may vary in magnitude. It can include a phoneme, a morpheme, a word, a sentence or even a paragraph" (Brown, 2000 cited in Erdogan, 2005).

IV. Explanation of Errors

The explanation stage, which is the ultimate objective of the EA theory, explains the errors made by the SL learner. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) maintain that the explanation of errors includes the determination of their sources in order to account for

why they are made. Sanal (2007) opines that, in order to arrive at some effective remedial measures, it is important for the analyst to identify the mechanism that triggers each type of error. Ellis (1994) also says the explanation of errors takes into account an attempt to establish the processes that are responsible for acquisition. Ellis further explains the psycholinguistic sources of L2 learners' errors which he classifies under errors of performance and errors of competence. In Ellis' view, errors of competence can be caused by wrongful application of the rules of the target language whereas errors of performance are the result of committing mistakes persistently in the use of language. Generally, there are two major linguistic sources of FL/L2 learners' errors. These are interlingual and intralingual errors. Interlingual errors are the result of L1 interference in the TL whilst intralingual errors are the result of challenges within the target language itself. These affect FL/L2 acquisition negatively (Richards, 1974; James, 1996; Brown, 2000).

2.1.2 Comprehensible Input

The second theoretical framework underpinning this study is the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis which is one of the five hypotheses of Second Language Acquisition put forth by Krashen (1982). Krashen is by far the most prominent and persistent proponent of the Input Hypothesis Model for Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Krashen observes that one can acquire language by understanding input which is a little beyond his or her current level of acquired competence. According to Krashen's hypothesis model, progressive speaking cannot be acquired directly and that it develops when acquirers build up their competence through meaningful input. Learners migrate from the current level of competence (i) to the next stage ($i+1$) (where ' $i+1$ ' may represent a block of structures). These structures which are above the learners' current level of competence are understood through context and knowledge in addition to the learners'

existing competence. In Krashen's (1985) view, the various factors that boost second language acquisition are only effective when they lead to comprehensible input. This is corroborated by Ellis (1999) who opines that acquisition is promoted when the input to which learners are exposed is made comprehensible.

i. The Acquisition – Learning Hypothesis

The Acquisition- Learning dichotomy is seen by linguists and teachers as the most influential and significant among the five hypothesis in Krashen's theory. In Krashen's view, there are two independent systems of language performance- 'the acquired system and 'the learned system. The acquired system is realised through a subconscious process which is similar to the process children go through when they acquire their first language. This demands meaningful interaction in the target language, a form of natural communication in which the interlocutors focus on the communicative act and not on the form of their utterances. According to Schutz (2007), the 'learned system' or 'learning' is the product of formal instruction and it involves a conscious process which leads to conscious knowledge about the language as exemplified by the knowledge of grammatical rules. In this regard, a deductive approach in a teacher-centred setting results in 'learning' while an inductive approach in a student-centred setting results in 'acquisition'. Krashen, according to Schutz (2007), places more premium on acquisition than on learning.

ii. The Monitor Hypothesis

The Monitor hypothesis explains the relationship between acquisition and learning and defines the influence of learning on acquisition. The monitoring function presents itself as the result of the learned grammar. The acquisition system, according to Krashen (in Schutz, 2007), is the utterance initiator while the learning system acts as the monitor or

editor. The monitor performs a planning, editing and correcting function when some three specific conditions are met:

- The second language learners have sufficient time at their disposal.
- They focus on form or think about correctness, and
- They know the rule.

The monitor plays a minor role as it is only used to correct deviations from normal speech and to give speech a good outlook. With regard to monitor use, Krashen (in Schutz, 2007) identifies three variations among language learners. He makes three distinctions among the users of the monitor and these include those who use their monitor all the time (over-users); those learners who have either not learned or prefer not to use their learned knowledge (under-users); and the learners who use their monitor appropriately (optimal users). He suggests that, usually, extroverts are under-users while introverts and perfectionists are over-users. He opines that lack of self-confidence is frequently associated with the over-use of the monitor.

iii. The Affective Filter Hypothesis

Krashen suggests that a number of affective variables play a facilitative, but non-causal, role in second language acquisition. Among these variables are: motivation, self-confidence, anxiety and personality traits. It is Krashen's view that learners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, low level of anxiety and extroversion are in better stead to succeed in second language acquisition. On the other hand, low motivation, low self-esteem, anxiety, introversion and inhibition raise the affective filter and form a 'mental block' that impedes the use of comprehensible input used for acquisition. This means that, when the filter is 'up', it prevents language acquisition. Positive affect is, however, necessary even though it is insufficient on its own to enable acquisition to take place.

2.2 Definition of Writing

Writing is a skill and, like other skills, it has to be acquired. Writing is important in conveying ideas, giving instructions, sharing and preserving knowledge and so on. Writing is not just about using correct spelling, organizing words and ideas and following grammar, it is much more than that. It requires special skills to be able to convey the intended meaning to the reader. Writing is variously described by linguists. Widdowson (1978) describes writing as the use of the visual medium to manifest the graphological and grammatical system of the language.

Flower (1985), in an interesting comment on the skills of reading and writing, describes 'reading' as the transferring of 'symbol' into 'thought' and 'writing' as the transferring of 'thought' into 'symbol'.

Lindemann (1987) calls writing an economic power because it creates impressions, adverse or otherwise, in one's professional field. In addition, it is a social necessity because it is an established form of communication. No transaction is considered official until it is done in writing. According to Irmscher (1979), writing is important for personal development because it requires concentration, focus and discipline to represent thoughts in a graphic form.

Sommer (1989) says, "Writing is a way of learning other subjects; it can be used in every discipline as a strategy for teaching and learning". In the words of Byrne (1979), writing comprises the use of graphic symbols or letters to form words which are arranged in a particular order and linked together to form sentences. It is essentially a reflective activity that requires enough time to think about the topic area and to organize background knowledge. So, the practising of writing is extremely important.

Murray (1973) opines that writing is a skill which is important (in college and after college) in a complex and changing society. More people are needed who can write, who can order, communicate information and experience. Writing for many students is the skill which can unlock the language arts.

In Peacock's (1986) view, writing is a struggle to compose ideas in the head and construct a visible and tangible form out of the models and images that are stored and organized in the mind. In this regard, Raimes (1984) opines that teaching writing helps to reinforce the grammatical structures, idioms, vocabulary, etc., which are taught to learners. Teaching writing also helps the learners to be adventurous and creative.

Hedge (1988) feels that writing is not just the act of planning everything ahead of time and then putting it on paper, but a means for thinking, a method of developing ideas and fleshing them out on paper. Writing is not just communicating a message by putting it on paper, but it is a means to think effectively, use words, improve ideas etc.

From the definitions above, the writers all agree that writing is a very important skill that needs deep thinking processes to achieve. Once a person achieves good writing skills, it opens the door to self-development as one can then communicate effectively by putting his or ideas on paper for others to read. In view of this, writing must be given special attention by educators to enable learners acquire the skill to enable them function effectively in a global society where literacy is increasingly becoming a tool for survival.

2.2.1 The Importance of Writing

Bacon (1989) rightly says, "Reading makes a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man". Writing is an important medium and it is used for different

purposes. Writing performs many functions in a person's day to day life in different areas like academic, official, media, social, cultural and personal settings. According to Nirmala (2013), writing is important for the following reasons:

- i. It aids communication. For the educated, communication, to a major extent, is carried on through the medium of writing –personal correspondence, telegrams, circulars, reports, memos, minutes of meetings, instructions, email messages, assessment reports, project reports etc. Knowing how to write is important because it helps to access journals, magazines, books, bills, letters, etc.
- ii. It is essential for academic and occupational purposes. With regard to the growing importance of English, there is a greater need to learn to write in English for academic and occupational purposes. In the field of education, writing plays a dominant role for writing projects, assignments, examinations etc. In the Indian educational system, for example, assessing academic abilities is closely linked with proficiency in writing. In fact, writing is the only medium through which learners are assessed in schools, colleges and universities. Written tests are administered, even for job placements. Writing virtually has become the tool for survival today. Certain jobs related to writing (content writing, technical writing, editing, etc.) are the highly paid jobs in India today.
- iii. Writing also facilitates the reinforcement of other language skills like reading, grammar and vocabulary as they are employed in the act of writing. Reading for additional information strengthens writing skills. Reading for specific purposes strengthens vocabulary. Focusing on teaching writing is important to facilitate all the needs of the learners inside the classroom as well as in their day-to-day life. Writing is, therefore, an invaluable linguistic skill that cannot be

overlooked in this current era of globalisation. Stake-holders of education must ensure that nobody is left out in the quest to achieve literacy for all citizens.

2.3 Perceptions about Errors

Errors are part of life and, depending on the environment in which an error occurs, it might cause a lot of embarrassment to both the errant on one side and the people around him or her. Within an organization, errors may cause stress, engender performance issues and create a negative climate (Demirdag, 2015).

According to Rasmussen (1982), errors may manifest in many situations including moments of decision making, problem solving, delivering a speech or making a judgement.

Steuer and Dresel (2011) are of the view that teachers' attitude towards errors can possibly affect how learners develop ideas on how to learn from their mistakes. It, therefore, behoves on teachers to create the enabling environment to engender confidence in their students to learn from their mistakes. Making error are, after all, part of the learning process.

In Dweck's (1986) view, teachers' misconceptions about their own errors have the tendency to escalate students' failure rate due to students' development of maladaptive patterns of dealing with their mistakes. These patterns may have dire consequences on the students' academic performance and generate repugnance towards the subject and learning in general.

2.4 Difference between Error and Mistake

Errors are distinct from mistakes. According to Norrish (1983), an error refers to systematic deviation due to the fact that the learner has not learnt something and

consistently gets it wrong. This means that people commit linguistic errors when learning of rules governing a language has not occurred. A person who commits an error cannot correct himself because he has not learnt the system.

A mistake, on the other hand, is a deviation from a learnt system. According to Al-Khreshah (2016), if the L2 learner uses a certain form of structure or rule correctly and later deviates from it, then it can be classified as a mistake. A person who commits a mistake can self-correct himself when he is prompted.

2.5 Sources of Errors

The sources of errors have been identified as interlingual, intralingual and developmental Kaweera (2013) states that intralingual errors are errors that occur in the language-learning process due to insufficient knowledge acquisition. This type of error is not caused by native language interference but by ineffective language learning traits such as the wrong application of rules and the unconsciousness of the limitations of rules (Richard, 1971).

Richard (1971) sees interlingual error as a type of error that is caused by native language interference in the target language due to learners' application of their native language elements in the spoken or written performances in the target language. Learners of English as second language (ESL) inevitably carry some of their native into the target language and this might occur in any of the various linguistic parts of the language such as phonology, morphology, grammar, syntax, lexis or semantics (Ellis, 2008).

Tracing of errors has been given serious attention by linguist as the establishment of the source of errors could greatly help to find an antidote to them. However, there has not been unanimity among linguists on how to classify such errors. Ellis (1985) traces

the sources of error to mother-tongue (L1) interference, over-generalization, fossilization, transfer of training, and inconsistencies in the target language. Richard (1995), however, identifies errors such as interference errors, transfer errors and intralingual errors. Social media, interaction among students and the general public provide example for discussion in this section. Nimako (2008 cited in Yeboah, 2014) and Safo Adu 2009 cited in Yeboah 2014) give gamut of examples of these errors.

2.5.1 Mother-tongue interference

There is considerable empirical evidence that indicates that although interference from students' native language is the major source of phonological errors, interference errors are only one of many types of errors found in the lexicon, syntax, morphology, and orthography of students' utterances in the target language (Hendrickson 1987: p. 356).

According to Dulay et. al. (1982: p.164) errors originating from contrastive features of L1 and L2 can be looked upon as two major types:

2.5.1.1 Developmental errors

Developmental errors are produced by L2 learners and are similar to those committed by children learning their mother tongue. Extensive empirical evidence have established that the sequence of stages in L2 learning is very similar to L1 acquisition. This assertion is corroborated by Littlewood (1988:p. 43) who says, "... we can ... see that the typical second language sequence shares a number of common features with the sequence observed in the first language learners."

Dwelling on the nature of developmental errors, Dulay et al. (1982) argue that if the characteristics common to L1 and L2 could be identified and the theoretical inference

that has been drawn from the large repertoire of L1 research data may equally be applicable to L2 acquisition theory as well. They further argue that since children acquiring a first language have not enjoyed the benefit learning a previous language, the errors they make cannot possibly be due to any interference from another language. It follows, therefore, that when second language learners make such errors, it should be reasonable to assume that mental mechanisms underlying general language development have come into play, not the rules and structures of the learner's native language (Ibid). In effect, some errors produced by L2 learners are similar to those produced by L1 learners and such errors only reflect the stages of development in the process of learning. Littlewood (1988, pp. 42-43 in Parupalli Srinasa Rao, 2018), following the framework of Cancino et al. (1978), illustrates the four stages of development in the learning of negative sentence formation in English by American-Spanish learners of English. Illustrated below are the four stages:

- Stage 1: They no have water.
 I no sing it.
- Stage 2: He don't like it.
 I don't can explain.
- Stage 3: You can't tell her.
 Somebody is not coming in.
- Stage 4: It doesn't spin.
 We didn't have a study period.

The above stages clearly show that even the native English children also pass through these stages and produce similar developmental errors.

2.5.1.2 Interlingual Errors

These are errors that are caused by the interference of the mother tongue of the learners. Dulay et al. (1982) give the following examples of interlingual errors made by a Spanish learner of English.

- e.g. The man skinny (for 'the skinny man')
- (source: Spanish word order: el hombre flaq)
- Dog eat it. (for 'The dog ate it.')

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(Source: Spanish word order; EL petro lo comio.)

2.5.1.3 Other Errors:

These include errors which could be interpreted either as developmental or Interlingual (Dulay, et al., 1982)

- e.g. I no have car.
- She do angry

These errors are like:

She have hungry or She hungry, if the source is Spanish structure; or they could be developmental errors.

2.5.1.4 Communicative Errors

Research studies relating to communicative errors are very few. Burt and Kiparsky (1972) and Burt (1975) have done important studies in this area. Dulay, Burt and Kiparsky et al report:

that errors which significantly hinder communication (in the sense that they cause the listener or reader to misunderstand the message or to consider the sentence incomprehensible) are of a certain type, while those that do not hinder communication are of another type (Dulay et al. 1982: 191).

According to Burt and Kiparsky, those errors which hinder communication are 'global errors' and those which do not affect communication are 'local errors'. The following are examples cited by Dulay et al. (Op. cit).

a) Global errors:

- I. "English language use many people." (for 'The English language is used by many people').
- II. "Not take this bus we late for school."
(for 'If we do not take this bus, we will be late for school')
- III. "He started to go to school since he studied very hard."
(for 'He started going to school because he studied very had')

These sentences illustrate global errors because it is difficult to interpret their meaning.

b) Local errors:

These errors do not impede communication but are ungrammatical or wrong in relation to one or two elements in the sentence. The following are examples:

- a) Why we like each other?
- b) Why like we each other?

The distinction between global and local errors was made by Burt and Kiparsky on the basis that the native speakers' perceptions about the data of errors presented to them are in a mixed form. In general, sentences consisting of global errors were rated by the native speakers as "un-English" while those with local errors were considered to be grammatically wrong.

Implications and Suggestions

- a. Errors should be treated as indispensable and natural part of learning.
- b. It has been established that errors provide feedback to the teacher so that he can make his teaching more effective and meaningful.

On the Ghanaian front, Yeboah (2014) agrees with Duley et al. (1982) that there are some features of the child's L1 which he/she internalizes before going to school. These include phonological, lexical and syntactic features of the child's L1 which he/she invariably transfers, whether consciously or unconsciously, to the new language (L2) that he or she learns. The degree of transfer, however, is dependent upon the level of education of the user of the language and the stage of his or her interlanguage development. Some examples of L1 interference may be seen in the following sentences as cited Yeboah (2014):

1. My salary for September has not come.
2. Please! cut me some wine.
3. I am going to come.
4. Take care, please!

The above sentences are deviations from the target language (L2). The native language structures that are not found in the target language acquisition data are, obviously,

reflected in the above examples, which pose semantic challenges in the L2. The correct renditions of these sentences should be:

1. My salary for September has not been paid.
2. Please! Serve me some wine.
3. I am going, but I will be back in a jiffy.
4. Take care, please!

At the phonological level, Yeboah (2014) illustrates extensively the challenges that the Ghanaian student faces in articulating some sounds in English. These pronunciation difficulties have the tendency of causing errors in spelling. According to Yeboah, one often hears marked differences in terms of pronunciation of some English words among West African speakers of English mainly due to L1 interference. He cites examples of certain English vowel sounds that do not exist in phonological inventories of most West African vernaculars. These sounds include /æ/, the sound found in words like “man” /mæn/, “cat” /kæt/, “bank” /bænk/ and the schwa /ə/, the weak, unstressed English vowel sound which occurs in words like “annoyed” /ənɔɪd/, “against” /əgeɪnst/ and also the sound transcribed with an inverted “v” which is found in words like “bucket” /bʌkɪt/ “cupboard” /kʌpbɔ:d/ “butter” /bʌtə/. In situations like these, according to Yeboah, the West African speaker of English is tempted to substitute these English vowels sounds with closer sounds available in his/her mother tongue. With regard to consonants, according to Yeboah, tonal languages like the Akan dialect do not sometimes permit consonantal clusters either at the initial, medial or final positions of words. The Akan learner of English is, therefore, tempted to introduce an intervening vowel sound into such consonantal clusters when he comes across words which contain them. An example is a word like; “street”/stri:t/ which has CCCVC structure. The Akan second language learner of English is likely to pronounce the word as /sɪtri:t/ by

introducing an intervening vowel sound in-between the cluster. Phonological errors such as this which are strong signals of L1 interference are likely to lead to wrong spellings. If students are introduced to the correct pronunciation by the teacher, these errors would not occur.

2.5.2 Language loyalty

Language loyalty is another source of L1 interference. Language is culture-tied, thus learning a new language involves some kind of identification on the part of the learner with members of that new culture. To speak exactly like a native speaker demands a surrender of part of one's identity. This view is corroborated by Cook (1978) who views one's native language as an important factor in one's sense of identity as an individual and as a member of a group. Learning a new language, therefore, means adopting a new identity. However, language loyalty is built into our system in one form or the other and this explains why people do not give up their mother tongues easily. Therefore, the L2 learner's loyalty to the mother tongue serves as a psychological block which prevents him from surrendering part of his cultural personality (Yeboah, 2014). Yeboah observes:

The Akans, for example, we say; "Abaa no kura me" which literally means, "The stick is holding me." This syntactic structure is sometimes transferred into the L2 usage. As a teacher, I have heard and supervised basic school teachers who have stood in front of their children and consciously or unconsciously said; "Children, what is holding me?" instead of "Children, what am I holding?". This error arises because the Akan dialect permits such a construction and therefore the learner is not prepared to surrender part of his identity. To make progress in

the L2, there is the need to surrender ones loyalty to his language in order to learn the new language.

2.5.3 Communal Pull

Communal pull is another source of error. This type of error does not emanate from the c-classroom. According to Yeboah (2014), second language learners are often exposed to a plethora of incorrect language samples from different sources outside the classroom which they copy. For example, the language of the media such as the radio, television and newspapers, are most the time ridden with errors which second language learners pick. Research has shown that if the learner is continually exposed to wrong pronunciations on the local or national radio and the television, he is likely to accept these mispronunciations and copy them as the correct forms. A learner who always sees in the print media or hears from his teachers or pastors and lecturers some deviant utterances such as “Is somebody hearing me?”, “Should in case”, “It will tantamount to” and so on, will be drawn by the communal pull to use such deviant structures thinking that they are accepted forms, unless corrected. Yeboah also asserts that Pidgin English spoken in the community can also be a cause of errors. This means that a learner who lives in a language community where pidgin is in vogue or serves as the people’s lingua-franca is likely to speak Pidgin English.

2.5.4 Perception -blind Spots.

This refers to the inability of the L2 learner’s auditory perception of the new sounds heard in the target language. This occurs because the L2 Learner has been conditioned by his mother tongue sound system and therefore regards as relevant only the sound features of his L1. In such a situation, he will disregard L2 sound features which are not distinctive in his L1. In Ghana, According to Yeboah (2014), most L2 learners of

English cannot produce the dental sounds as found in words like; “think” /θɪŋk/ “bath” /bɑ:θ/ “another” /ənʌðə/ “father” /fɑ:ðə/. Similarly, the palato-alveolar sounds /dʒ/ and /tʃ/ and the palatal sound /j/ pose great difficulty for Akan second language learners. This is the reason why words such as; “university” /ju:nɪvərsɪti/ “judge” /dʒʌdʒ/ and “church” /tʃɜ:tʃ/ are very often mispronounced leading to wrong spellings. This, he claims, is because these sounds are not part of the Akan orthography. Yeboah asserts that an unguided L2 learner may not even know that he has heard the wrong sound. Such a learner needs to be systematically de-conditioned to enable him have auditory perception of the correct phonological structures of the new language and this will require the efficiency of an experienced and competent teacher. This does not, however, mean that after the learner’s receptive experience has been developed he can speak acceptable English when he is left on his own. We should be cautious of Broughton’s (1978: p.18) assertion that “however good a listener may be at listening and understanding, it need not follow that he will speak well. A discrimination ear does not always produce a fluent tongue. There has to be training in the productive skill of speech as well”.

2.5.5 Induced error

Induced errors is also known as transfer of training. This type of errors are caused by misleading teaching examples. Teachers, sometimes, unconditionally, explain a rule without highlighting the exceptions or the intended message they would want to convey. Richard et al. (2002) provides an example that occurs at the level of teaching prepositions “at” where the teacher may hold up a box and particularly say “I am looking at the box”, the students may understand that “at” means “under”, they may

later utter “the cat is at the table” instead of “the cat is under the table.” Teachers therefore need to be very cautious of the way they present their lessons to avoid sending signals that may be misconstrued by the learner.

2.5.6 Over-generalization (Ignorance of rule Restriction)

Overgeneralization is a kind of error that occurs in linguistics when the speaker applies a grammatical rule in cases where it does not apply. According to Richard et al (2002), this type of errors caused “by extension of target language rules to inappropriate context.” (P.185). This kind of errors are mostly committed while dealing with regular and irregular verbs, as well as the application of plural forms. For example, “tooth” becomes “tooths” rather than “teeth” and “he goes” becomes “he goed” rather than “went”. Ignorance of the construction rules of the L2, the formation of false hypothesis, ignorance of selection restriction rules and incomplete application of the target language rules are the ingredients that that give rise to overgeneralisation. These types of errors are inevitable because language learning is a creative developmental process.

2.5.7 Fossilization

Han (2004: p. 23) explains that there is no single definition of fossilization. However, she explicates that most researchers seem to agree that it “involves premature cessation of development in defiance of optimal learning conditions” and that “fossilizable structures are persistent over time, against any environmental influences, including consistent natural exposure to the target language and pedagogic interventions.” It is her firm belief that fossilization occurs locally, that is, only in parts of the interlanguage system as opposed to globally, that is, to the entire interlanguage system. Moreover, it is an observable process rather than a product. Han adds that, for adult learners, the

major causes of fossilization are maturational constraints and the influence of the learner's native language.

2.5.8 Inconsistencies in the Target Language.

This can be looked at in two areas; the orthography vis-à-vis the phonetic system and the syntax of the L2. The English language orthography does not always give clues to the pronunciation of words and this can be a source of confusion for the L2 learner, resulting in errors. According to Yeboah (2014), in many West African languages, there is almost one-to-one relationship between letter and sound. This is to say that the orthography of West African languages is more phonetic than English which is sometimes quite illogical. The phonetic differences between the two orthographical systems, according to Yeboah, are sometimes the cause of graphological and phonological confusion which are seen in the writing of West African learners of English. He cites an example of the sound /k/ which assumes various pronunciations as in: “King”/Kin/ “Knife” / natf/ and “knight” /nat/. Also, if the syntax of the target language does not lend itself to clear rules as in English, the L2 learner in an attempt to understand certain phenomena can create false hypotheses which will result in errors.

2.5.9 Influence of Computer or Technology

The introduction of computer-based technology into our education system has made teaching and learning easier. However, this has brought in its wake a form of language on social media which is not acceptable in formal writing. The „computer language“ has affected many second language learners especially in the area of written communication. For example, a mobile phone advertisement culled from the Daily Guide newspaper of Thursday, April, 2011:10 reads; “One 4 all offers a more convenient and flexible way to top up your mobile credit on your network.” When

students read this type of information which is in the print media, they tend to copy because they see it as a correct form.

2.6 Review of Literature on Writing Errors

Several research works have been done in the area of error analysis, some with very striking revelations. Agor (2003) takes a critical look at the English concord problems in the writing of Ghanaian Teacher-Trainees in Teacher Training Colleges in Ghana, now referred to as Colleges of Education. The researcher employed varied range of data gathering techniques to collect data from a random population of 150 trainees. The findings of this study came out with incontrovertible evidence that suggests that, even at post-secondary level where learners are expected to have appreciable command over the English language, second language learners of English lack sufficient knowledge of the rudiments of the English language. The subjects lacked both the explicit and implicit knowledge of the rules of concord in English and, this, obviously, spells out dire repercussion for future education in Ghana since the models themselves (future teachers) are so deficient in terms of competence. This damning revelation is corroborated by a government white paper on the report of the Education Reform Review Committee (2004:) which indicates that “there has been almost unanimous agreement that under the latest reforms, public education in Ghana has failed to meet expectations in terms of its coverage, quality, equitableness and economic utility.” This is a situation that needs urgent attention from all stake-holders of education in Ghana

Similarly, Sermsook, Liamnitr, and Pochokorn (2017) examined the language errors in writing of 26 English major students who enrolled for the Writing II course in a Thai university and explored the sources of their errors. The study focused mainly on sentences as the researcher found that errors in Thai EFL students’ sentences might lead

to miscommunication. After collecting and analysing the writing of the 26 second year English major students, the results showed the following frequently committed errors: punctuation, articles, subject-verb agreement, spelling, capitalization, and fragment. Interlingual and intralingual interferences, limited knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary, and carelessness of the students were found to be the major sources of the errors.

In the same vein but on a broader scale, Yankson (1994) analysed the errors made by students of two universities- University of Cape Coast in Ghana and University of Nigeria, Nsuka campus. Yankson identified some common errors made by the students which included concord-related errors and complex noun phrase-related errors. He identified the source of the errors as “intralingual” and “developmental” in nature. According to Yankson (1994:p.2), “intralingual errors” refer to errors that are committed due to the learner’s partial knowledge of data of the target language while “developmental errors” refer to errors that are typical of all second language learners.

Similarly, Wu and Gaza (2014) also explored the major writing problems of five Grade 6 learners of English (EFL) by analysing the nature and distribution of their writing errors. They also ascertained the possible factors that cause errors in their English through email communication. They analysed learners’ writing samples and classified learners’ errors under grammatical, lexical, semantic, mechanics, and word order types of errors. The result of the research indicated that participants made more interlingual/transfer errors than intralingual/developmental errors. While they recognized the students’ use of the L2 rules, habits and patterns in the second language writing, they expressed concern about the intralingual errors of the learners. They blamed the intralingual errors of students on overgeneralization and partial exposure to

the target language. The inclusion of some internet linguistic features in learners' writing was another source of the problem.

In her attempt to draw the attention of stakeholders of education to the problem of poor standard of English among students in Ghana, Edu-Buando (1996) presented a report on the study of error patterns in the written essays of Senior High School students in the Central Region of Ghana. The researcher identified quite a number of errors, both systematic and recurrent, which she put into categories of spelling, concord, preposition, vocabulary and expression, article and other errors. The study proceeded to examine the effects of gender, length of stay in school and the type of school on the general level of proficiency in English of students in Senior High Schools. According to Edu-Buando, the purpose of her study was to draw the attention of teachers of English, policy makers of education, and even students to the problem of poor standard and to recommend appropriate ways of attending to the problem.

Phuket (2015), however, explored the major sources of errors that occurred in the writing of EFL students and investigated the types of errors and the linguistic level that presented these errors. He obtained and analysed data from forty narrative essays composed by 40 Thai university students. The result of the research analysis revealed that twenty-two types of errors were committed in the essays composed by Thai EFL students. These included the following: wrong verb tense; wrong verb form; pronouns (omission, addition or wrong choice); inappropriate use of pronouns; prepositions (omission, addition or wrong choice); articles; nouns; adjective (position and comparison); conjunctions; infinitive and gerund; subject-verb agreement; sentence fragment; translated word from Thai; word choice; confusion of sense relations; collocation; question mark; comma; full stop; capitalization; and spelling. However,

the most frequently occurring errors were translated words from Thai, word choice, verb tense, preposition and comma. These errors were traced to interlingual and intralingual sources.

In addition, some researchers employed Error Analysis to examine the error types in Taiwanese EFL students' English writings. For example, Horney (1998 cited in Chen, 2006) investigated compositions written by 80 Taiwanese EFL students. The results revealed that errors in the use of articles had the highest error percentage (11%). Both errors in the use of prepositions and errors in the use of verbs had the same error rate of 9% and were considered the second highest error percentage. By contrasting Mandarin and English, the researcher confirmed that L1 related errors were the largest proportion of the total errors.

Anyidoho (2002) asserts that the mode of assessing the level of students proficiency in English based on external examination results must be done away with if we really want to avoid the challenges that come with it. In his study of the writing of final year students of the University of Ghana, he detected deviant forms of students' writing which he classified under the following headings: concord, word choice, omission, preposition, punctuation and spelling error. To ensure the students' deviant sentences were indeed errors and not mistakes, the researcher gave the students another opportunity at a later date to go over the scripts to correct their deviant sentences. Ostensibly, if the deviant sentences were mistakes, the students would be able to correct them; however, if they were errors, they would not be able to recognize them in order to correct them due to their inadequate knowledge of the English language.

In addition to the previous studies conducted in this respect, Lee's (2001) research also revealed that learners' errors mostly resulted from L1 transfer. His study was to identify

and classify errors by analysing medical students' writing, especially their formal and informal letters. Twenty-five sophomore medical students in a class of 35 were the participants of his study. They were given six topics to write about throughout the semester. Finally, the study revealed that approximately one-fourth of errors (26%) of these participants resulted from L1 transfer. Other major errors included wrong words (16%), prepositions (15%), and articles (14%).

Nimako (2008) also presents an interesting outcome in his research in the area of error analysis. After several years of research, he compiles and analyses a number of errors identified in some articles that have been published by educated Ghanaians in newspapers, magazines, bulletins and books as well as speeches heard on radio and television. The revelations from the study indicate that the errors committed were due to non-observance of syntactic and semantic rules of the English language. He does not, however, discount the role of mother tongue interference in the errors committed.

In another study, Khodabande (2007) identifies and classifies Iranian EFL students' chief difficulties in their writing. In doing so, 58 male and female graduate students of English were asked to take part in her research. They were given a test which included thirty Persian and thirty English headlines and were asked to translate them. All the students' translations were analysed in order to investigate possible cross-linguistic problems in translating headlines. The results of the research established that the graduate students had grammatical and lexical errors in their headlines. Most local errors were caused by misuse and omission of prepositions, articles, auxiliaries, lack of subject-verb agreement, and faulty lexical choice. As a whole, the findings from the participants' translations analysis were in line with the idea that native language

interference is surely the most immediately noticeable source of error (Brown, 1994) from the translation of native language to the target one.

There may still be other factors, causes and sources for error in the case of each individual learner. Therefore, it is desirable that every teacher develops his own methods of identifying and correcting his students' errors. But the basic point projected in this paper remains valid: Error Analysis is a very useful tool for effective teaching, particularly the teaching of English as a second or foreign language in non-Anglophone countries.

2.6.1 The Search for Teaching and Learning

The importance of obtaining the right pedagogy that will meet the needs of the practitioner and the students in a given situation makes self-study and research come in handy as a tool for practitioners. According to researchers (Bullough & Gitlin, 2001; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993; Fecho & Allen, 2003; Lagemann, 2000), one of the most important developments in advancing a more nuanced understanding of the work of teaching has been the practitioner inquiry movement, which helps in the search for a way to account for the complexity of pedagogy in education research.

Practitioner inquiry (in surfacing pedagogic work) exposes the idiosyncrasies and tacit understandings of educating others and, in education, seeks to generate knowledge based on the immediate relationships between students and teachers, and the broader implications of local cultures, schools, and communities (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009). This has generated interest and adoption by many in teacher education to enable

prospective teachers become life-long inquirers about the nature of teaching by researching and reflecting on and about practice. In this way, practitioner inquiry blurs the line between practitioner and researcher. Based on their wealth of experience, Munby & Russell (1994) posit that practitioner inquiry systematically explores local contexts as sites for inquiry. Initiating this kind of research in education produces an account of teaching and learning from the inside (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993), opening up new ways of knowing and understanding the multifaceted and complex work of teaching.

Grossman and McDonald (2008) call for teacher education to reconnect with the rich resources of education research and believe that practitioner inquiry in higher education, which usually takes the form of self-study research, can help shed light on the complex and interactive nature of pedagogy in teacher education. Self-study research affords teacher educators the chance to systematically explore the nature and practice of teaching teachers, providing a critical perspective on the practices and structures of teacher education. The aims of self-study research are twofold: personal and professional growth (Cole & Knowles, 1998; Samaras, 2002). To Loughran (2004, p. 9), self-study research seeks to explore questions of practice that are “individually important and also of broader interest to the teacher education community”. Providing an important methodological and epistemic pathway to understand pedagogy, self-study research is considered by Zeichner (1999) as the “single most significant development ever in the field of teacher education research” (p. 8).

Drawing on a range of qualitative modes of inquiry to theorize, collect, analyse, and represent findings, self-study research addresses a host of substantive issues in teacher education such as becoming a teacher educator (Cuenca, 2010), making tacit

understandings of teaching explicit (Berry & Crowe, 2006), or enacting programme reforms in teacher education (Cochran-Smith, et al., 1999; Zollers, et al., 2000). Most self-study research is grounded in the belief that teacher knowledge is never fixed or finalized, but always in a state of becoming better, thus worthy of investigation, exploration, and refinement. As Bullough and Pinnegar (2001) contend, “the aim of self-study research is to provoke, challenge, and illuminate rather than confirm and settle” (p. 20). Self-study research also serves to illuminate the “living contradiction” (Whitehead, 1989 cited in Cuenca, 2010) between teaching philosophy and actual practice. By encouraging reflection on the role and responsibility of teaching teachers, self-study research promotes situated inquiry about practitioners’ assumptions about knowledge and reality (LaBoskey, 2004). Dinkelman (2003) believes that, overall, the practical outcome of self-study research runs a gamut from helping teacher educators re-theorize the foundations of their work, to the simple “realization that a ‘look’ given to a student in class discussion can be threatening” (p. 18). Epistemologically, self-study research is grounded in the postmodern understanding that self cannot be separated from research or practice (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2004; Cole & Knowles, 2000). Given that in a pedagogical relationship, separation between pedagogue and pedagogy is also indistinguishable; self-study research provides a natural pathway to explore and develop a deeper understanding of the deliberative and immediate reasoning that drives pedagogy in teacher education. In other words, self-study provides a formalized vehicle to surface the oft-muted or altogether ignored relational dimensions of pedagogy in teacher education research. Because teaching teachers requires “enacting practices that are sensitive and responsive to the affective needs, issues, and concerns in teaching and learning about teaching” (Loughran, 2006, p. 175),

pedagogy in teacher education demands no less artistry, and contains no less mystery and complexity as any other facet of teaching.

2.7 Pedagogy- Definition

Pedagogy in educational parlance has gained popularity as a substitute for methods of instruction or techniques of teaching (Loughran, 2006; van Manen, 1999). Grounded in part on the misunderstanding that teaching is a technical activity, this instrumental understanding of pedagogy tends to rationalize and reduce the work of teaching to a universally applicable skill set. Consequently, the scientific pursuit of pedagogy often overlooks the intimate choices and interactions that ultimately constitute instruction. However, considering that teaching is a situated and reflexive activity requiring teachers' judgment in apprehending events of practice (Grimmett & MacKinnon, 1992), it is worth noting that curricular and instructional decisions that are made are as much a part of pedagogy as the outwardly visible method or approach ultimately taken.

Etymologically, the term "pedagogue" refers not to a teacher, but a slave who cared for and accompanied a student to and from school (van Manen, 1994). From this perspective, pedagogy as the actions of pedagogues implies an inter-individual relationship, based on the concern of one for another. Applying this relational understanding of pedagogy in the domain of education, teachers stand in pedagogical relation to students. Placed in a position to lead students toward academic and personal growth, the very nature of teaching and pedagogic action is animated by continuous discernment and constant determination. In this sense, the "why" and "what" of pedagogy are fused together by the nature of the relationship between a teacher and student. (Cuenca, 2010)

The term “pedagogy” has been variously defined by experts. The following are some of the definitions:

- i. “The function or work of teaching: the art or science of teaching education instructional methods” (DEEEWR, 2009a, p.42).
- ii. ...the instructional strategies that allow learning to take place. It refers to the interactive process between teacher/practitioner and learner and it is also applied to include the provision of some aspects of the learning environment, and the actions of the family and community” (Siraj-Blatchford, et al (2002, p.10).
- iii. “Pedagogy is about learning, teaching and development influenced by the cultural, social and political values we have for children...and underpinned by strong theoretical and practical base (Education Scotland, 2005, p.9).
- iv. Pedagogy is inherent in any action that “organizes someone’s experience as well as organize that someone to experience the world in a particular way” (Segall, 2004, p.494).
- v. Loughran (2008) defines pedagogy in teacher education as “knowledge of teaching about teaching and a knowledge of learning about teaching and how the two influence one another in the pedagogic episodes that teacher educators create to offer students of teaching experiences that might inform their developing views of practice” (p. 1180).

From the above definitions, it is reckoned that pedagogy is about teaching, learning, instruction strategies (methods) backed by strong theoretical base.

In his review and critique of SLA traditions and trends, Ellis (1998) identifies much of the effort as either theoretical or pedagogical. He advocates for a model in which communication between teachers and researchers could take the form of any of the

three types of pedagogy- research informing pedagogy, research informed pedagogy or research and pedagogy interacting to address theoretical and practical concerns. He reiterated the last form as very important. The applicability of any SLA theory by pedagogy is only possible provided it is relevant to it (Ellis, 1995). In other words, the goals of the theory must be compatible with the aims of teaching.

Similarly, Brumfit (1995), in a discourse on teacher professionalism and research relating to British educational policy on the need for integrating global SLA research with local observations, suggests that for classroom practice descriptions to be significant, there is the need to consider some common variables in different teaching contexts. Rather than focusing on fragmented projects, Brumfit advocates that educational research needs a systematic programme and suggests three strands of investigation (Brumfit, 1995, pp. 39-40). The first must describe classroom practice for events, attitudes and policies to be spelt out. The second ought to follow up to explain what was found in the first phase: drawing on the data gathered, theory needs to construct models to be able to adequately structure that knowledge. Finally, the third must ensure that studies directed at the pedagogical processes ought to extract what needs to take place in education from what is happening there. These approaches, Brumfit avers, will enable empirical research to establish the programme orientation.

Larsen-Freeman (1991) stresses that, to arrive at any conclusion in this respect, it is essential to study the learner of the language. Based on her review of research relating to differential success of acquiring a second language (L2), she launches a critique on findings on variables pertaining to learner age, learner aptitude, attitude and motivation, personality, cognitive issues and learner strategies and calls for future research and language education to corroborate findings and test the following hypotheses: learning

is a gradual process; it is not linear; unless learners are prepared to proceed to a new phase of learning, no long term acquisition takes place.

2.7.1 Second Language Writing/ What Makes a Successful Essay?

According to Crossley, Roscoe and McNanara (2014 in Cheung, 2016), in their study on how writers can write good essays, successful essays cannot be determined by one set of parameter: a gamut of profiles are needed to define it. This assertion is in line with Crossley, et al., (2011) who assert that some successful writers compose longer essays with more infrequent vocabulary (Ferrari McNamara, Crossley, & Roscoe, 2013). Ferrari, Bouffard, & Rainville (1998) also add that successful writers make fewer grammatical, spelling, and punctuation errors. The hallmark of other successful writers includes the production of essays with more syntactically complex sentences (Crossley, et al., 2011) and with a better control of text cohesion (Crossley, et al., 2014).

In order to teach writing effectively, Cheung (2016) asserts that teachers must be explicitly cognizant of the skills and processes that are involved. This view treats writing as a profession, a qualification to be attained with discipline and hard work, rather than an innate ability or subconscious habit. Indeed, “even in one’s native language, learning to write is something like learning a second language ...” (Leki, 1992, p.10 cited in Cheung, 2016). She concludes that future research and language education will need to corroborate findings and test such hypotheses as the following: learning is a gradual process; it is not linear; unless learners are ready to proceed to new phases of learning, no long-term acquisition takes place. In a discussion of instructed SLA research, Larsen Freeman and Long (1991) call attention to the need to study the ways in which instruction affects SLA. For this process to be studied, they suggest that linguistic input sequence and frequency should be operationalized, together with those

tasks that learners are exposed to in the classroom. By studying these variables, SLA theory can integrate action research findings initiated by the teacher (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991, p. 327), a proposal similar to that made by Ellis (1995; 1998)

2.7.2 Effects of Poor Teacher Language Input on Language Acquisition

In dealing with the Impact of Teachers' Limited English Proficiency on English as a Second Language Learners in South Africa, Nel and Muller (2010), in their research, studied the portfolios of seventeen teachers enrolled for the Advanced Certificate for Education (ACE) - Inclusive Education course in 2008 in Unisa. These portfolios were randomly selected from 100 portfolios received from the ACE Inclusive Education Teachers' Data which were collected from these portfolios through the examination of these portfolios which included learner support lessons and learner evidence. Part of the qualification for ACE: Inclusive Education requires practical work in which the teacher identifies a group (2-5) of ESL learners who are in the same grade (between Grades 3-5), speak the same mother tongue, come from the same home backgrounds and whose English is on approximately the same level. The student teacher was also required to compile practical evidence of the following:

- Parent-teacher interview questionnaire.
- Initial assessment of learners' written English language.
- Error analysis of written work.
- Eight learner support lessons based on the error analysis.
- Examples of learners' written work.
- Final assessment of learners' written work during the eight support lessons.

After examining the context of the portfolios to identify both teachers' and learners' written errors, these errors were compared and analysed to determine the extent to which the teachers' language transference influenced their learners' written language.

A general tendency of learners' errors was noticed after the seventeenth portfolio. After the collection of the data, the researcher followed the route described by Stander (2001 cited in Nel & Muller, 2010) who identified substantial similarities in portfolios which led the conclusion that teachers' L2 forms are transferred to ESL learners' language forms and reflect the teachers' poor language proficiency. The researcher, drawing on the services of an expert from the Department of English, was able to identify and categorise errors made by the learners' and the student-teachers to match the similarities of errors made by the learners and their teachers.

The findings of the research indicate that teachers made basic errors in relation to grammar, incorrect use of tense, and concord and spelling errors. This was really the case for all teachers. The influence of L1 on L2 learning was evident as shown in the following examples:

1. Phonological errors occur when L2 learners are taught incorrect sounds, stress and intonation pattern, faulty pronunciation by L2 teachers, which are transferred from L1 to L2.
2. Wrong spelling errors are modelled by L2 teachers and L2 learners learn the wrong spellings.
3. L1 transfer takes place on the syntactic level (modelled) by the teacher, for example, the use of the progressive verb tense.
4. Overgeneralization as a result of intralingual transfer (modelled by the teacher) where a rule is applied in L2 where it is unnecessary.
5. Grammatical error (omission error) such as the omission of the infinitive form occur. The use of preposition, for instance, is a problem for the Sepede speaker as prepositions do not exist in the Sepede language.

6. There is confusion in the use of gender words “he” and “she” as the Zulu language has no equivalent gender words.
7. The teacher does not know the past participle which should be used with the past perfect and the present perfect tense and uses the past tense form of the verb instead: for example, “One of them was went home”.

Richard (2010) postulates that language proficiency does not only play a role in enhancing teaching skills but also strengthens the teachers’ teaching ability and sense of adequate legitimacy. Al-Matuwa and Kilaina (1989), on their part, also observe that, if teachers do not have the practical command of the target language, their poor knowledge of the English sound system, grammar, vocabulary, poor communication skills, they will fail in performing effectively. The relationship between the L2 input from the teacher and its role in L2 acquisition as well as the importance of the teachers’ correct knowledge of English to give corrective feedback to learners, therefore, are a pointer to the fact that the teachers’ language proficiency can play a vital role in the child’s acquisition of L2. Littlewood (2007) and Carless (2006) corroborate this fact in their study of secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia. Focusing on the teachers’ lack of confidence in communication activities in English, they found out that teachers themselves felt their own proficiency was not sufficient to engage in communication or deal with students’ unforeseen needs.

In another development, Malik (1996) attributes the poor performance of students to unqualified or untrained teachers. In his study of high secondary level in Pakistan, he came out with findings that indicate that teachers’ lack of knowledge and training contributed to Pakistani students’ poor English proficiency. In the study he assessed the qualification of teachers and the outcome of examination results of students. The

teachers' performances in the classroom by way of lesson delivery, however, were not assessed.

Similarly, Khan and Mahmood (2010) explore the effect of teachers' academic qualification vis-a-vis their students L2 performance in examination at the secondary level in Punjab, Pakistan. The findings indicate that most teachers are not qualified or competent enough to teach English efficiently and this, invariably, causes poor results in English. Students who were taught by trained and qualified teachers performed better in the examinations. The high failure rate of students at the high secondary and tertiary level is, therefore, attributable to the unqualified or untrained teachers.

2.7.3 Teacher Self-Efficacy as Contribution to Quality Input

The self-efficacy of teachers is said to be associated with positive outcomes regarding the promotion of students' learning, motivation, and achievement. Again, a body of research has established that there is a relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and factors including job satisfaction. Research (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni, & Steca, 2003) indicates that there is a relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and factors including job commitment and job satisfaction. In spite of the fact that evidence exists demonstrating an association between teachers' self-efficacy and student and teacher outcomes, how self-efficacy is related to teachers' job satisfaction remains largely unknown.

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) agree with Wolters and Daugherty(2007) that teachers' self-efficacy is one of the most important factors affecting teachers' job satisfaction during their challenging teaching years. These challenges, according to Spickard, Gabbe, and Christensen (2002), negatively influence teachers' motivation and job satisfaction.

2.7.3.1 Implication of Teachers' Self-Efficacy to Education

Teacher efficacy has a number of important implications for education. These include the following:

- A teacher's efficacy brings about desired outcomes for student engagement and learning (Bandura, 1977). This means self-efficacy has the capability of making instructional strategies more meaningful by engaging all students in learning activities. Researchers (Moore & Esselman, 1992) have indicated that teachers' sense of self-efficacy is related to positive student outcomes such as achievement.
- Teachers' self-efficacy has a relationship with students' behaviour in the classroom (Allinder, 1994). Research indicates that self-efficacy has a lot of benefits for teachers. Teachers, who have high levels of self-efficacy are more open to new ideas, exhibit greater levels of planning and organization, tend to experiment new teaching strategies with their students, and have clear goals with higher levels of aspiration (Allinder, 1994; Guskey, 1988; Stein & Wang, 1988).
- Greater efficacy beliefs encourage teachers to be more resilient and be less critical of students who make errors (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Teachers with greater self-efficacy have greater desires for teaching and are more likely to continue staying in teaching position (Soodak & Podell, 1993) as there is the tendency of them writing fewer numbers of discipline referrals due to having successful classroom management (Demirdag, 2015).
- Self-efficacy allows individuals to initiate their capabilities in order to successfully carry out a particular mission. People may be successful in

education, health, business, and sports when they obtain high levels of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

- Though teachers' self-efficacy is a strong indicator of their capabilities, it also plays an important role in shaping behaviour and achievement of students. Researchers (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001 and Demirdag, 2015) suggest that self-efficacy has an effect on both students' motivation and teachers' teaching strategies.

2.7.4 Error Correction as Reinforcement of Teacher Input

Over the decades, quite a considerable number of teachers and students have assumed that the correction of writing error of SLA learners is very beneficial (Ho, 2008; Lee, 2005). However, in recent years, this issue has sparked a lot of controversies among theorists of SLA, some of whom have questioned the benefits of the so-called correction views held. Investigations conducted by researchers (Cohen & Robbins, 1976; Hendrickson, 1979) in the 1970s, however, passed a damning judgement on the implementation process. In the 1980s when it re-evaluated, it came to light that the error correction programme had been greatly undermined and considered to be of little value (Hudson, 2001). Hudson indicates that the linguistic theory of Universal Grammar, as found in the work of Noam Chomsky, made grammar and correction seem irrelevant because "grammar competence develops 'naturally' according to an innate programme" and this was taken to imply that correction was unnecessary (Hudson, 2001, cited in Alroe, 2003). Stephen Krashen, using these views as a springboard, incorporated them into his SLA theory in the 1980's. He opined that competence (in Chomsky's sense) in a second language was acquired implicitly and only by means of

comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982). Grammar instruction and, consequently, correction could only be useful in learning about language but had nothing to do with its acquisition.

Krashen's theory began to face serious challenges from the mid-1990s both in terms of pedagogy and research. According to Swain and Lapkin (1995 cited in Alroe 2003), in French immersion schools in Canada, native English speakers had been receiving heavy amounts of input for more than 10 years and, even though they developed native speaker-like competence with respect to comprehension, their productive skills were found to be deficient compared to native French speakers. This was contrary to Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis which implied that after years of immersion in a French linguistic environment where they are exposed to massive amounts of high quality input, students should be able to speak and write the language at a near native level. Though Krashen attempted to review his stance suggesting that tapes and films could be used to address the problem, Swain (2005), who reported the problem, dissented and suggested it was a deficiency of output, not input, that was the cause of the problem. She went on further to advise that output errors (divergence from L2 target forms) should be corrected.

In California, Scarcella (1996, p. 136) who re-evaluated the impact of Krahen's work concluded that it had been harmful. Her observations were that ESL students in California had received vast amounts of input but "this did not lead to the development of the basic features of English". In addition, she asserted that the lack of correction was a factor that engendered students' inability to process the academic English they encounter in their tertiary study. In a like manner, Ferris (2002 cited in Alroe, 2003), another California based instructor, intimated that the very reason that she and other

teachers were confronted with students who obviously needed error correction when the dominant theory of the time was against it forced her to re-evaluate the research and then publish a defence of correction. However, Professor Truscott came to the defence of Krashen in his publications. His focus was on the practice of error correction in written text (Truscott, 1990). He followed this up with several other papers on error correction (Truscott, 1999a, 2004, 2007, and 2009) including another critiqued oral correction (Truscott, 1999b). He also rejected the Noticing Hypothesis (Truscott, 1998) and specified the errors that teachers ought to correct if they ignored his prohibition and persisted with error correction (Truscott, 2001).

Truscott's papers were so designed with impressive forensic skill that sought to put a powerful counter argument to those who wanted to go back to more explicit instruction including error correction. Interestingly, Truscott's papers were situated in a different context from Krashen's. While Truscott's papers originated in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context, Krashen's assertion that L2 acquisition proceeded only with provision of comprehensible input might only, theoretically, be applicable to young learners in an English as a Second Language (ESL) context. If Primary Linguistic Data (PLD) is available in sufficient quantity in an EFL context like Taiwan, where students speak Mandarin or Taiwanese at home and study English for only three or four hours a week, the assertion that they could acquire English in the same manner as they did their L1 was a bold one.

2.7.5 Using Socio-cognitive Approach to Writing

There are a number of approaches to teaching academic writing to children at upper primary, secondary and at the tertiary-level, but the cognitive and genre theories are common approaches to teaching ESL writing courses. However, the cognitive approach

to teaching writing pays particular attention to idea generation and planning strategies. This approach neglects socio-cultural factors such as the target readers' possible reaction to texts (Hyland, 2002). The genre approach to teaching writing focuses on rhetorical moves and organization structure (Sawyer & Watson, 1989), rather than the thinking processes that are involved in the enactment of the discourse moves (Chandrasegaran, 2013). The students' creativity may be inhibited if the genre approach is prescribed due to its nature (Hyland, 2002).

Motivated by the limitations of cognitive and genre approaches to writing pedagogy, Chandrasegaran (2013) opines that the socio-cognitive approach to writing, which takes into account the socio-cultural contexts, thinking processes in enacting each genre practice, and reader expectations, can be used to address the shortcomings of the cognitive and genre approaches. Several studies conducted have revealed that the use of the socio-cognitive approach to teaching writing has positive results in improving the students' writing. This is exemplified by Graham, Harris, & Mason (2005) who submit that struggling students in the third-grade in the United States, who were explicitly taught the thinking processes and the structure of genres, wrote "longer, more complete, and qualitatively better" L2 narratives and persuasive writing (p. 234). This is the result of the self-regulatory thinking processes embedded in the three-step planning strategies "Pick my ideas; Organize my notes; Write and say more" (p. 217), with peer support and collaboration in the planning stage. With explicit teaching of genre and a socio-cultural approach to writing, Chandrasegaran and Yeo (2006) found that Secondary Three (i.e., ninth-grade) students in Singapore showed marked improvement in writing narratives in terms of setting the rhetorical goal. In studies conducted recently, Chandrasegaran

(2013) and Chandrasegaran, Kong, and Chua (2007) found that third year secondary (i.e., ninth-grade) students in a Singapore school showed much improvement in expository writing. Through the teachers' guided class discussions and explicit teaching of thinking processes in the enactment of genre practices, the students heightened their awareness of the social context of the texts, as well as reader and writer roles. They also showed remarkable improvements in discourse moves such as stating and elaborating claims as well as countering opposing views.

The thinking processes embedded in knowledge transformation are essential in implementing the socio-cognitive approach to writing. These thinking processes relate to how students plan, organize, write, and revise their essays. They help determine what information should be included in the essay in order to fit the macro rhetorical goal. Once the different pieces of information are determined, presenting them in a coherent form is a challenge to many students during the writing process.

Dzameshie (1997) is, however, of the view that the communicative approach to teaching English as a second language should be employed by teachers in their lessons. In his study, "Towards a Communicative Approach to Teaching English as a Second language in Ghana", he attempts to resolve the crucial question "What should be the primary goal of teachers who teach English as a second language in Ghana?" The researcher avers that the current approach in ESL pedagogy in Ghana that sees language as grammar rather than as a means of communication is moribund and must give way to a more effective communicative, skill-oriented approach, whose ultimate goal should not only equip the learner with grammatical competence but also with adequate communicative competence in the language which will enable (ESL) learners to

communicate in socio-culturally appropriate ways in English with both native and non-native users of English. The findings in this study indicate that teachers view language primarily as a means of communication rather than as grammar. In view of this, Dzameshie (1997) asserts that because of the dominant role that English plays in Ghana, it is absolutely necessary to adopt a communicative approach in ESL in Ghana.

In examining the Process Approach to the teaching and writing of composition in Senior High Schools (SHS), however, Darko (2009) decries the inability of most students to write appreciably despite the role of writing in Ghana today and the world in general. The researcher amply supports his assertion with the Chief Examiner's Reports on SHS English language papers from 2001 up to 2006, which confirmed wrong spelling, faulty construction, misuse of tenses and misplaced punctuation as students' weaknesses. He is of the conviction that the process approach to writing should be experimented on pilot basis in some Senior High Schools as the starting point in the writing programme.

In conclusion, various studies relating to this current study have been reviewed. Error analysis, input hypothesis, sources of error, pedagogy, some approaches to writing and error correction have been dealt with here.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

Research methodology is the general approach a researcher takes in carrying out a research project (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). Research methodology is very essential to all researchers because it constitutes the framework that guides the conduct of any research. The research methodology for this study will enable the researcher obtain credible data for the attainment of the research objectives.

This section deals the research design, the sample size, the population, the sampling and sampling technique and the research instrument and data collection plan.

3.1 Research Design

Research design refers to the framework and technique employed by a researcher to enable him rope in the necessary research methods that ensure a successful research. The design for this project is case study. A case study is a thorough study of a particular research problem. It limits a broad field of research into one or few researchable examples. The researcher chose this design enable him focus on the writing errors on the teacher trainee of Ada College of Education. The researcher also employed the qualitative approach to research in his work. Creswell (2003) sees qualitative research

as an unfolding model that occurs in a natural setting that enables the researcher to develop a level of detail from high involvement in the actual experience. Qualitative research has an advantage in that it helps the researcher in the development of new ideas and facilitate his study of new phenomena in great detail and understanding (Trochim, 2006). The researcher chose this approach to enable him unearth the writing errors of teacher trainees of Ada College of Education, identify their causes and assess their impact on teaching and learning.

3.2 Population of the Sampling

Brink (1996) and Bless & Higson-Smith (2008) submit that a population is a complete set of events, people or things on which the focus of the research falls and in which the researcher has an interest and about which the researcher wants to determine some characteristics. The population used for this research work was made up of teacher trainees of Ada College of Education. The target population for the study was made up of thirty-five (35) third year students of Ada College of Education who were sampled out of a total third year student population of 345, 14 mentors and 4 tutors. The selected trainees were students who had enrolled on the Diploma in Basic Education programme and were in their final year. They were made up of 19 females and 16 males with ages ranging from 21 years to 25years and were assigned to do their practicum in seven basic schools within Ada-Foah and its environs. The third year trainees were chosen for the research because they had completed the course work relating to English and had done on-campus teaching practice and had been assigned to schools to do their one-year practicum. This would also afford the researcher the opportunity to find out what sort of errors they continued to make in their writing, trace the causes of these errors and ascertain if the errors they made actually had any impact on teaching and learning.

The mentors were trained teachers in the various schools who had been given special training to supervise and mentor the teacher trainees for one year to prepare them adequately for the world of work as professional teachers. Two mentors, one from the primary and the other from the JHS, were selected from each of the seven participating schools in the research. The mentors had ages between 27 years and 45 years with teaching experience ranging from 3 years to 15 years. Out of the number, 9 were holders of Diploma in Basic Education certificates whilst the remaining 5 had first degrees.

The 4 tutors selected were language tutors of Ada College of Education and had teaching experience ranging from 19 to 27 years and had taught at the college level between 5 and 12 years. Each of the tutors has ever had the opportunity of teaching the trainee participants.

3.3 Sampling Technique

The purposive sampling technique was used in selecting the location of the research-Ada-Foah. The purposive sampling technique was used due to time constraint and cost implication as the students were scattered across three districts for their practicum namely; Ada East and Ada West in the Greater Accra Region, and Central Tongu in the Volta Region. In view of this, seven -basic schools in closer proximity to the college were chosen. These included the following basic schools in Ada-Foah: D/A Basic School, Presby. Basic School, Methodist Basic School, Catholic Basic School, Azizanya D/A Basic School, Totimekope D/A Basic School and Ocanseykope D/A Basic School. Purposive sampling was again used in the selection of the trainee participants. The purposive sampling technique was adopted because the trainee participants swapped the subjects they taught fortnightly. The researcher, therefore, selected participants based on those who were billed to teach English during the week

of visitation. Fourteen mentors and four tutors of English language at the Ada College of Education were also selected purposively. They were selected based on those who were readily available and willing to participate in the research

3.4 Research Instruments

Seliger and Shohamy (1989) define 'instrument' as any tool employed by a researcher to obtain information on the status of the subject before the research commences. The researcher used five instruments namely; take-home essay, test, interview and observation and the pupils' English exercise books.

3.5 Take-Home Essay

The participants were assigned an essay to write on the topic, "My First Day at College". They were to write not less than two hundred words and given up to the close of work the next day to submit. This was to give them ample time to write in the comfort of their homes without any pressure. The participants dutifully wrote the essay and presented it as scheduled. Though few wrote relatively very short essays, others wrote essays of reasonable length which was quite commendable. The essays were read through and the errors in them were underlined and assigned letters to indicate the type of error committed. For example, T- stood for tense error, C, concord error, S, spelling error and P for punctuation errors. After identifying the errors, they were counted classified according to their types. The data gathered were then put into tables to be explained.

3.5.1 Error Identification Test

A test is a way of measuring a person's ability, knowledge, or performance in a specific domain. A test is a measurement instrument designed to elicit a specific sample of an individual's behaviour. Apart from the take-home essay that was administered to the

trainees, the researcher also administered an Error Identification Test to ascertain the trainees' ability at error identification in text in the English language. The participants were given twenty-five error-ridden sentences to read and identify the errors in them. The errors in the sentences were related to tense, concord, spelling, pronoun and preposition. They were given forty minutes to write down the error in each of the sentences and indicate what the correct form should be. It was realized that the trainees could not identify most of the errors in the sentences. This was an indication that they made errors similar to those in the sentences. The data gathered were put into a table for analysis.

3.5.2 Interview

The researcher also used interview as a tool for the collection of data for his study. An interview, according to Kyale (1996, p. 174), is “a conversation with the objective of collecting information from the description of the (life-world) of the interviewee” in relation to the interpretation of the described phenomenon. In order to obtain data from the mentors and tutors of the trainees on the trainees' writing errors and their causes and their impact on teaching and learning, the researcher employed the semi-structured form of interview. This form of interview allows both the researcher and the participants to explore deeply and freely into the issues at stake. In all, fourteen mentors and four tutors were interviewed. The data from the interview were quite revealing.

3.5.3 Observation

To further obtain data, the researcher observed fourteen teacher trainees- two from each of the seven basic schools selected for the research- as they taught English language in class. The purpose of the observation was to investigate the sort of errors the trainees made in their productions- both speech and writing. Even though the study was based

Commented [KD6]: with the objective of collecting information from the ...

on writing errors, speech data could not be overlooked since the teacher's oral production also becomes a vital input to the pupil. The teacher talk input received by the pupil would eventually reflect in the pupil's output. A number of errors were found in both the teacher delivery and the questions and responses given by the pupils. Errors identified related to tense, concord, pronunciation, expression, and spelling. These were tabulated with percentages and discussed. (See Appendices B & C for the data)

3.5.4 Pupil's Exercise Books

In all, one hundred and seventy-five (175) English exercise books of the pupils were examined. Five English exercise books were sampled from each class and the marked essays scrutinized. This was to find out whether the trainees were able identify all errors in them or not. If the errors were systemic and uncorrected, then it was assumed they were similar to those that the trainees made and, hence, could not identify them. If the errors were similar, then it was possible that some of them might have been transferred from the trainees to the pupils. The errors the trainees could not identify in the pupils' exercise books related to tense, concord, letter case and spelling. The data collected were analysed and the results presented in a table and discussed.

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

An ethical procedure was followed for the collection of data for this research. Firstly, the heads and participating mentors and the teacher trainees in the selected schools were contacted, and the purpose of study was explained to them. The researcher assured them that the exercise was purely an academic one and pledged the anonymity of all the participants involved. They were assured that only the school's name would be used for the study. They were also assured that classes would not be disrupted as the essays were to be written at home and the error identification test done soon after school. The

interview with the mentors was also to be conducted when the mentors were not engaged with the pupils. Permission was then granted for the research work. The researcher, who was a tutor of Ada College of Education, received a lot of cooperation from the school authorities and the participants as the schools were partner schools of the college and benefitted from the services of the trainees who practiced there every year.

3.7 Data Analysis

Data analysis involves inspecting, cleansing, transforming, and modelling data with the goal of discovering useful information to support decision-making. Data analysis plan is the method the researcher used to analyse the data. Allison (2003) observes that data analysis plan is the roadmap to how one organizes and analyses his data. The data obtained by the researcher was analysed using error analysis method which is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by a person learning a foreign language using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics (Crystal 1987, p. 112). The data were presented in tables and textually and descriptively analysed.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF DATA, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with data collected on thirty-five teacher trainees of Ada College of Education doing their internship in seven basic schools in Ada-Foah and its environs. The data were obtained from take-home essays written by the trainees, an error identification test, observation, interview and the pupils' marked English exercise books. The data have been analysed in line with the research questions:

1. What are the writing errors that students of Ada College of Education make?
2. What are the causes of these errors?
3. What impact do these errors have on teaching and learning?

4.1 Errors Made by Teacher Trainees in their Essays

The errors analysed in student's essays included errors of tense, concord, spelling, use of preposition, punctuation, capitalization, and others. Data from their take-home essay on the topic, "My first day at college" are shown in Table 1 below. The errors identified were classified as done by Phuket (2015).

Table 1: Errors Made by Trainees in their Essays

Types of errors	Total No. of Errors	Percentage (%)
Tense	197	29.9
Concord	113	16.8
Spelling	55	8.2
Preposition	47	7.0
Punctuation	108	16.0
Letter Case	85	12.6
Others (Articles, pronouns)	68	10.1
Total	673	100

The take-home essay was administered to give the trainees enough time to work and to minimise their errors. However, the marked scripts gave a different opinion. The data showed that the use of appropriate tense was problematic for the students. From Table 1, Tense errors recorded the highest among all the errors the trainees made. There were 197 tense errors in all, representing 29.9% of the total number of error. Concord errors followed with a total of 113, representing 16.8%. The third highest number of errors were errors of preposition, with a total of 108, representing 16% of total number of errors. Use of appropriate Letter Case was the fourth type of errors committed. There were a total of 85 of such errors, representing 12.6% of the total number of errors. Other error types which included articles and pronouns recorded were 68 in number, representing 10.1%. There were 55 spelling errors out of the lot and that represented 8.2% of total number of errors. Preposition errors were up to 47 in number which, represented 7% of the total number of errors.

4.1.1 Tense Errors in Trainees' Essays

Lalande (1982, p. 140) bemoans the fact that, even though students had studied certain rules of grammar, “some students exhibit remarkable consistency: they commit the same types of error from one essay to the next”. This was the case with teacher trainees of Ada College of Education (see Appendix A for samples of trainees' essays). As regards the use of tenses, the event they wrote on happened in the past and hence the tenses ought to have reflected the past. However, the trainees vacillated between the past tense and the present tense. Examples of challenges with tense are given below:

- Eg. 1 T7: “So I *realize* that most of the teachers *have* their bungalow on campus whiles others are in town.”
- Eg. 2 T11: “... I was told on my arrival to take some of these things home because it *is* a group or hall *am* coming to sleep in.”
- E g. 3 T3: “...because it was a new environment so everything has totally changed.”
- E.g. 4 T18: “The sister below my bed also *doubles* as my school mother.”
- Eg. 5 T17: “I went round the campus to see what the college *have*.”
- Eg. 6 T25: “So they asked me to go to the female block and I *will* be given a hall called Songor hall.”

From the above examples, it is very clear that the trainees lacked adequate knowledge of grammatical rules with respect to tense sequence. Writing on an event that happened in the past, they failed to realise that the past tense of the verb was what must be used. Most of the errors made were in respect of tense sequence. Here, they failed to realise that, in compound and complex sentences, the verb tense in the first clause of a sentence must reflect in the other clause(s) in the sentence. In this case, they were writing about a past event and this must reflect in the tense of the verbs in the clauses in the sentence.

In the first example, the trainee used the present tense in the two clauses to report an event that happened in the past, which is problematic.

In another development, some of the trainees failed to realize that when the modal auxiliary and some construction are used, the bare infinitive form of the verb must follow them. There were constructions like;

e.g. 1 *"I could not *belived* myself."

e.g. 2 *"I heard my school mother *screamed, bucked, yeld* at me."

e.g. 3 *"So my short school mother helped me *packed* my things..."

In the above examples, the trainees were unaware that any verb that comes after a modal auxiliary must be in the bare infinitive form. In the second and third examples, the trainees were unaware of the rule that if a transitive verb is followed by an object, the complement that follows the object must be in the infinitive form. The above sentences should have read:

"I could not believe myself."

"I heard my... scream, bark and yell at me."

"So my short school mother helped me pack my things."

The data collected from the observation confirmed the errors made by the trainees in their essays with respect to tense. The trainees made as many as 46 errors, constituting 23.7% of the total number of error made. This is quite significant and confirms 29.9% obtained in the essay. The errors made during the observation were quite similar to what they made in their essays. This is an indication that the trainees really had serious errors with their use of tense.

4.1.2 Concord Errors in Trainees' Essays

The use of concord turned out to be problematic for the teacher trainees. They did not implement the agreement between the subject and the verb in sentences as the definition for grammatical concord (Tuurosang, 2012) indicates. According to Tuurosang, the term “agreement” is used to describe the type of grammatical changes that take place between the subject of a sentence and its verb. He maintains that a cordial relationship must exist between the subject and the main verb or the first element of the verb phrase. The rule here is that a singular subject must agree with a singular verb and a plural subject must agree with a plural verb. The following are excerpts of structures that violated the rule of concord produced by the teacher trainees:

E.g. 1 T19: *My trousers *was* very dirty after cleaning the assembly hall.

E.g. 2 T27: *The surroundings of the college *was* sandy.

There were also cases of proximity concord recorded in the essays of the students. As asserted by Quirk and Greenbaum (1987), proximity concord denotes agreement of the verb with whatever noun or pronoun which closely precedes it, sometimes in preference to agreement with the headword of the subject. In the case of the teacher trainees, they found it difficult getting the right verb whenever two subjects occurred linked by a correlative conjunction or by the coordinator ‘or’. The following are excerpts of this kind of errors made by the trainees in their essays:

e.g. 1 *I was told either my school father or the seniors *was* to guide me.

e.g. 2 *My father or my elder brothers *was* to take me to the college.

e.g. 3 *I think the pepper or the mangoes *was* the cause of my running stomach.

During the observation, similar error patterns were noted in the speech of some trainees. Though they did not make much of these errors in their writing, their speech carried

significant amount of them in their lesson delivery. 20.7% of the errors they committed were related to concord and this confirms the existence of this problem as compared to the 16% recorded in their essay. The percentage was slightly lower in their essay probably due to the fact that they had a lot of time at and resources at home to support their writing.

4.1.3 Pronoun Errors in Trainees' Essays

Some of the students did not seem to know that demonstrative pronouns are used to refer to things or events that are either closer or farther away from us in terms of time and space. For example, “this” (singular) and “these” (plural) are used to refer to things that are near us and we can see or even touch them or events that are happening currently while “that” (singular) and “those” (plural) are used in reference to things that are far away from us or events that happened in the past or are likely to happen in the distant future. Some students used the pronoun “this” instead of “that” in reference to the past in their essays. For example:

e.g. 1 “I felt very bad when I heard all **this** work was given to us.”

e.g. 2 “**This** sister was my school mother.”

Again, the trainees did not seem to know where to use the objective and subjective cases of pronouns. They wrongly used the subjective case where they had to use the objective case and vice versa. Below are some examples:

Eg. 1 T25: “The senior showed **I** and my colleagues our sweeping plots.”

E.g. 2 T31: “**Me** and my new friend decided to go to the dining hall early because we were hungry.”

In the first example, the personal pronoun that should have come after the transitive verb “showed” should have been the object ‘me’. ‘I’ is used at subject position only. In the second example, the subjective case “I” should have been used instead of “me”.

4.1.4 Preposition Errors in Trainees’ Essays

With regard to prepositions, there were instances where prepositions were either used wrongly, omitted, or were redundant. Excerpts of such situations are as follow:

Wrong use of preposition

E.g. 1 “...**at** the front of the college gate.” (Wrong use of *at* instead of *in*)

/E.g. 2 “I was afraid **about**...” (Wrong use of *about* instead of *of*)

Omission of preposition

e.g. 1 “^That day in the afternoon...” (Omission of *on* at the beginning of the sentence)

e.g. 2 “Prior^ that faithful day...” (Omission of *to* after “prior”)

Redundant use of preposition

“The Vice Principal highlighted **on** discipline. (Redundant)

In the above examples, it is obvious that trainees did know when and which preposition to use. In the first example, the trainee failed to introduce a preposition at the beginning of the sentence. In the second example, he failed to introduce the preposition ‘to’ after the word “prior”. Similar errors were noticed during the observation, 7.8 percent of the errors made during observation were prepositional errors and it confirmed the existence of the challenge as seen in the 7 percent recorded in trainees’ essay.

4.1.5 Spelling Errors in Trainees' Essays

The teacher trainees made some spelling errors in their essays. Some of the errors made included the addition of letters, omission of letters, replacement of letters and swapping of letters. In Table 2 some examples of trainees' misspelt words are presented.

Table 2: Spelling Errors Made by Trainees in their Essay

Types of error	Example	No. of Errors	Percentage (%)
Addition of letters	*newcomer	9	10.4.
Omission of letters	*Pro^petus	13	23.6
Swapping of letter position	*received	16	29.1
Replacement of letters	*dometory	11	20
Complete misspelling	*b'cos	6	11
Total no. of errors		55	100

The table above indicates that 9 errors, constituting 10.4% of total number of spelling errors, were errors committed due to the addition of letters. 13 errors, constituting 23.6, were errors made due to omission of letters; 16 errors, representing, 29.1% were due to swapping of letters; 11 errors constituting 20% were due to replacement of letters; and, finally, 6 errors, constituting 11% were due to complete misspelling.

4.1.6 Punctuation Errors in Trainees' essays

The teacher trainees made quite a number of errors with regard to punctuation. Punctuation marks were either wrongly placed or omitted.

e.g. 1 *When I arrived^ I saw a lot fresh students gathered under a tree. (Omission of comma)

e.g. 2 *The senior told me that, I should go out and collect the rubbish. (Redundant comma)

e.g. 3 *It[^]s not easy to be a first year student. (Omission of apostrophe)

e.g. 4 *When we heard the order[^] ^come out of your rooms[^] all first years[^],
we rushed out. (Omission of commas and quotations marks)

4.1.7 Letter Case Errors in the Trainees' Essay

The misuse of upper and lower cases in words was quite visible in the trainees' essays. Some proper nouns were written beginning with lower case letters. Quite a number of trainees wrote the name of the month "October" beginning with the lower case. With others, many of their words began with upper case irrespective of whether common nouns or words belonging to other word classes. Below are some excerpts from the trainees' essays:

E.g. 1 T11: College re-opened on the 3rd *october*, 2018. (October).

E.g. 2 T28: The *senior hall warden* gave us our halls where we were to stay.
(Senior Hall Warden)

E.g. 3 T6: The *vice principal* welcomed us to the college. (Vice Principal).

E.g. 4 T11: The *Senior* went and showed us our plots. (senior)

E.g.5 T25: The *Compound* was full of sand. (compound)

E.g. 6 T13: We were *Very* tired when we closed from dining. (very)

4.1.8 Article Errors made in the Essays of Trainees

Another problematic phenomenon in the teacher trainees' essays was the use of articles. There were instances where the trainees omitted articles where they were supposed to use them and used articles where they were not supposed to use them. This was a clear indication that they could not differentiate between nouns that needed articles and those that did not need articles. Below are some excerpts from their essays:

e.g. 1 *...Vice Principal addressed the gathering. (Omission)

e.g. 2 *We went to... assembly-hall for supper. (Omission)

e.g. 3 *I bought *an* iced water to drink. (Redundant)

e.g. 4 *There was *a* light in the room. (Redundant)

4.1.9 Wrong/Unclear Expressions in Trainees' Essays

There was also the challenge of wrong expression (see Appendix A for samples). Some of the trainees failed to use the right words to express themselves. Below are some examples of such wrong expressions:

*faithful day *chopbox *stillbirthed *hall of resident

*I told her not *to put her mouth into my affairs*.

*a teacher of a trained skills and professional document

4.2 Trainees' Ability at Error Identification

An error identification test was administered to teacher-trainees. The test was made up of 25 sentences with errors in them (See Appendix D for a sample). Trainees were to underline the errors they identified and write down the correct version. After marking the test, it was realized that students could not detect most of the errors in the sentences. Table 3 below is the result of the test. For each of the errors in the test, the trainees were scored based on the number of errors they identified. If a trainee was able to identify all five errors, they got five marks for that type of error.

Table 3: Trainees' Error Identification Test Results

Types of Error	Total Number of Errors	Marks Scored by Students & Frequency					Total Number of Students	
		0	1	2	3	4		5
Tense	5	3	12	5	5	7	3	35

Concord	5	0	07	13	8	7	0	35
preposition	5	12	11	8	2	2	0	35
Spelling	5	0	13	15	4	3	0	35
Pronoun	5	0	08	14	8	3	2	35

As Table 3 indicates, only 3 trainees out of 35 could identify all the five errors relating to Tense. 7 trainees identified 4 errors; 5 identified 3 errors; another 5 identified 2 errors; 12 identified 1 error; and 3 identified no error.

From the statistics, many of the trainees found it difficult identifying the errors relating to tense in the test. As many as 20 trainees, constituting 57.1% scored between 0 and 2 marks out of the 5 questions on tense. This is quite significant and is a reflection of the 29.9% tense-related errors which constituted the highest percentage of errors in the trainees' essay. The error identification test, therefore, seems to confirm the existence of the problem with the use of tense. For example, the trainees found nothing wrong with sentences like: 'The teacher said she *will* buy liquefied petroleum gas after school' and 'If you can assist me, I *would* be grateful'. This was equally visible during the classroom observation. 23.7% of the errors made by the trainees during the observation were tense-related and were similar to the errors in in their essays. (See Appendix C for details of errors committed by trainees during the observation)

As regards Concord, no trainee identified all the 5 errors; 7 identified 4 errors; 8 identified 3 errors; 13 identified 2 error; and 7 identified 1 error. No trainee scored 0 here.

The area of subject – verb agreement was problematic to the trainees and this reflected in all their productions. In their essays, for instance, 16% of the errors committed were related to subject-verb agreement and this was the second highest in terms of error density in their essays. This is further corroborated by the data gathered from the classroom observation. As high as 20.7% of the errors in the trainees’ productions were subject-verb agreement errors and were similar to those committed in their essays and the test.

The most problematic area in the error identification test was preposition. In the test, no trainee identified all the 5 errors. 2 trainees identified 4 error; 2 identified 3 errors; 8 identified 2 errors; 11 identified 1 error; and 12 identified no error.

Here, again, trainees could not identify wrong and redundant prepositions that occurred in the test. The sentences: ‘The accused was sentenced to five years imprisonment *with* hard labour’; ‘In fact, he is very good *in* Mathematics’ and ‘The teacher highlighted *on* the need for us to come early’ looked perfect to them so they could not identify the errors. In contrast to this, however, preposition recorded the least number of errors in the trainees’ essays and the data gathered from the classroom observation. Preposition errors recorded 7% and 7.8% in their essays and their productions during classroom observation respectively. This wide contrast could possibly be due to the infrequently use of the prepositions in the normal everyday speech of the trainees in the context provided by the test.

Another area where errors could not be identified by the trainees was spelling. No trainee scored all the 5 marks assigned for the identification of spelling errors; 3 trainees identified 4 spelling errors; 4 identified 3 errors; 15 identified 2 errors; and 13 identified 1 error. There was no trainee who could not identify any error. In effect, 28

out of 35 trainees scored between 0 and 2 marks (40% and below) out of 5 marks assigned to spelling. The spelling errors in sentences like: ‘The Pastor should *annoint* us to succeed’; ‘Either you or I must *appologise to* the manager today’; ‘The teacher said she will like to buy some *liquified* petroleum gas today’, were missed out on some of the students. This was, however, not the case with their essays and data gathered from the classroom observation. The density of spelling errors in the trainees’ essays constituted 8.2% of the total number of errors and this compares favourably with the data gathered from the observation which was 8.4%. The wide variation between the magnitude of errors in the error identification test and the trainees’ essays could possibly be due to the vast resources at the disposal of the trainees as they wrote their essays at home. They had their dictionaries and online resources to consult for the right spelling of words when in doubt. The spelling errors during the observation was also minimal because the lesson delivery was mostly done in speech with little writing.

The identification of wrong use of pronoun also posed a challenge to the trainees. Only 2 trainees were able to identify all the 5 pronoun errors presented to the trainings. 3 trainees were able to identify 4 errors; 8 identified 3 errors; 14 identified 2 errors; and 8 identified 1 error. No trainee scored 0.

Some students could not differentiate between personal pronouns that were used at subject position only and those that were used at object position only. Therefore, they saw nothing wrong with sentences such as: ‘My family and *me* will not worship idols’;

‘The fight is between you and I’; and ‘The woman *who* I talked to is my friend’.

4.3 Interviews with Mentors and Tutors on Trainees’ Writing Errors

In order to obtain information on the writing errors of the trainees, fourteen mentors and four tutors were interviewed. The questions of interview were in line with the

research objectives of this study and have been subsumed under the relevant objective headings in the write up.

4.3.1 Interview with Mentors and Tutors on the Types of Trainees' Writing

Errors

In an attempt to answer the first research question, the research obtained vital information in the interview conducted with the mentors. In answer to the question on the deviant linguistic forms that trainees produced in their writing, the mentors mentioned deviant forms or errors relating to spelling, concord and tenses as the most dominant forms of errors that the trainees made.

Spelling Errors

Both mentors and tutors agreed that the trainees made spelling errors. Probed further to find out the nature of spelling error that the trainees made, the following is an excerpt of what one of the mentors said:

“They most of time swap the position of letters in some words. For example, they write *recieve* and *percieve* instead of ‘receive’ and ‘perceive’ respectively. I have corrected these several times.”

Other mentors also mentioned omission and addition and replacement of letters in words as some of the spelling errors that the trainees made. They gave some examples of such misspelt words as they could recall from the trainees’ lesson notes, portfolios and writings on the chalkboard:

Omission of letters

*diarhea *forteen *occurence *suprise

Addition of letters

*pronounciation *committment *nineth *parallell

Replacement of letter

*cemetary *dependance *persue *seperate

The above types of spelling errors identified by the mentors were similar to the errors identified in the take-home essays, error identification test and during the observation.

Concord errors

Another area where significant errors were made, according to the mentors and the tutors was concord. Majority of the mentors and tutors confirmed the inability of some of the trainees to match subjects with their respective forms of verbs. Mentor 7 observed,

“Sir, some of the interns find it difficult applying the right form of the verb when dealing with two subjects joined by the coordinator “or” or the correlative conjunctions “either...or” and “neither...nor”. I can tell you in confidence that they are not alone; some of us teachers face similar challenges.”

The above claim by the mentor was quite revealing as it indicated the extent of the problem even among teachers on the field.

Others also identified concord errors in the trainees’ writing when they used constructions such as “as well as”, “together with” and so on. They asserted that the trainees often misconstrued such constructions to mean ‘and’ and follow the succeeding noun with plural verbs. This was irrespective of whether the focal subject was singular or plural. This was a clear case of their inadequate knowledge of the rules governing concord in English.

The mentors and tutors also noted that trainees made errors in respect of words that were used in singular or plural sense only. They often added the morpheme “-s” to form plural nouns out of such singular nouns and matched them with plural verbs. The same was the case of some plural nouns which they perceived as singular nouns and matched them with singular verbs. They gave examples of such nouns:

- i. Nouns used in singular sense only that trainees pluralised

Excerpt 1 *equipments *furnitures

- ii. Nouns used in plural sense only that trainees singularised

Excerpt 2 *shorts *scissors *spectacles *thanks

The types of concord errors the mentors mentioned were similar to those committed in the trainees’ take-home essays, the error identification test, and those identified during the observation and giving credence to the findings made.

Tense errors

The commission of errors in relation to tense by the trainee, according to the mentors and the tutors, was a common phenomenon. Some of the errors committed by the trainees had to do with the use the present tense of the verb to talk about past events.

Tutor 3 observed,

“In writing about the past, they begin nicely with the verb in the first sentence in the past and then follow it up with the second sentence with the verb in the present. They mix everything up.”

The mentors claimed the trainees committed error in relation to time sequence. They maintained that trainees made errors in terms of the tense of verbs in sentences that had compound and complex clauses. Here, again, they indicated that when students wrote

about the past in the mentioned clauses, the verb in the first clause was always in the past while the other clause(s) were in the present or inflected the future time. The following are excerpts of the nature of sentences which, according to the mentors and tutors, the trainees wrote:

Excerpt 1 “When I saw him, he *says* he *will* come today.”

Excerpt 2 “He said he *is* fine.”

Excerpt 3 “She told me she *will* go to Accra today.”

From the above excerpts, the verbs in italics do not match the tense of the initial verb to situate the discourse in the past.

Asked about their personal experiences in teaching English, most of them, especially those in the JHS claimed that English was not their area of specialty and felt a bit jittery if they had to teach it. Those that taught in the primary school, however, felt it was an interesting subject to teach.

As to whether they used Ghanaian language in teaching, the mentors admitted a bit of code switching when pupils found certain concepts in English very difficult to understand.

4.4 Summary

The findings from the data analysed reveal a serious challenge in the competencies of the teacher trainees in the use of the English language, be it in the oral or the written mode. The focus of this research has been the writing errors of teacher trainees and their impact on teaching and learning. Though the focus of the research has been on writing errors, it is significant to note that oral input contributes greatly to written output. In view of this, the researcher did not overlook the oral errors of both teacher trainees and the pupils.

In line with the first research objective, “What are the writing errors that teacher trainees of Ada College of Education make?”, errors identified in the study included errors relating to tense, concord, preposition (omission and redundancy), spelling, wrong use of upper and lower case, and mispronunciation which are in line with similar findings made by some researchers across the globe and in the literature reviewed under this study (Agor, 2003; Semsook, 2007; Edu-Buando, 1996; Anyidoho, 2002; Wu and Gaza, 2004, and others). This is ample evidence that English as Second Language learners commit similar errors wherever they are in the world.

4.5 Probable Causes of Trainees’ Writing Errors

The writing errors committed by the teacher trainees emanated from a probable number of sources which included interlingual and intralingual sources. This section analyses the data collected in response to research question 2 on what the causes of errors identify are.

4.5.1 Interlingual Sources

Some of the errors made by trainees could be traced to mother tongue interference. Some of the students wrote sentences in English that were literal translation from the mother tongue. Ellis (1985, p.21) maintains that,

According to the behaviorist theory, old habits get in the way of learning new habits. Therefore, in SLA situation, the grammatical apparatus programmed into the mind as the first language interferes with the smooth acquisition of the second

Ellis goes on to say that, wherever there are similarities between the structure of the L1 and the L2, second language learners make fewer errors. However, wherever there are dissimilarities, the learners make more errors. It is the dissimilarities that exist between the structures of the Ghanaian languages and the English language that give rise to some of these peculiar challenges of negative transfer which confronts the teacher trainee in his bid to acquire the target language which is English language. The challenge is even more pronounced at the phonological level.

Utterances made by some of the students during the observation are found in excerpts/examples 1 to 3 below.

Excerpt / example. 1

I told her not to *put her mouth into my affairs*.

Excerpt 2

I was *hearing* him when he spoke.

Excerpt 3

The Compound Overseer was *thick and tall*.

Excerpt 4

Sir, it is not anything but it is something.

In the excerpts above, it is clear that the expressions have semantic challenges in the English. It is possible that the trainee might have literally translated his L1 to L2 when he wanted to say, “I asked her not to meddle in my affairs” in excerpt 1, In excerpt “I heard him when he spoke” in excerpt 2 and in excerpt 3, “The Compound Overseer was stout and tall” and in excerpt 4, it should be, “Sir, it’s nothing serious”.

This situation supports Bhela’s (1999) assertion that EFL errors arise out of the word-for-word translation strategy in thinking in the mother tongue language. The above observation was further buttressed by the information gathered from the interview with

the mentors and the tutors. The mentors asserted that mother tongue interference was a major cause of the problem. The following is an excerpt from Mentor 11 who happened to be of Dangme descent:

“Sir, our mother tongue interferes with the English we speak. For example, we the Dangme people do not have the sound /ʃ/ in our language and so we replace it with /s/ in words. So, when we attempt to mention a word with the /ʃ/ sound, we replace it with /s/, and the people will write what they hear.”

Other mentors confirmed this phenomenon and asserted that it was not restricted to only the Dangme people and that other ethnic groups had their peculiar challenges. They gave an example of the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ which seem to be absent in most of the Ghanaian language and so a lot of Ghanaians replace them with /f/ and /d/ respectively in words. They gave some examples of mother tongue interference they picked from the trainees.

Table 4: Examples of Mispronounced words due to Mother Tongue Interference

Word	Correct Pronunciation	Mispronunciation by trainees
Machine	/məʃɪn/	/massɪn/
Shower	/ʃaʊə/	/sawə/
Both	/bəʊθ/	/bof/
That	/ðæt/	/dat/
Broom	/bru:m/	/blu:m/

4.5.2 Intralingual Factors

Intralingual errors are caused by the target language being learnt. The English language is a language with complex linguistic features and governed by complex rules. Learners of the language across the globe find it difficult applying the rules effectively due to their inadequate knowledge of the rules and hence produce numerous deviant forms in the usage of the language. Intralingual errors, according to Al-Kresheh (in Murtiana, 2013), encompass aspects such as overgeneralisation, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules, and false concept of hypothesising grammatical rules. Some of the errors committed by the participants in this research could be traced to intralingual factors, especially overgeneralisation and irregularities in English spelling system.

4.5.2.1 Overgeneralisation

According to Touchie (1986), overgeneralisation is “the use of one form or construction in one context and extending its application to other contexts where it should not apply.” Some students did not seem to have adequate knowledge of the rules governing the use of the English language. Wherever they did not know the rules, they tended to generalise and that gave them wrong outcomes sometimes. The following are clear excerpts of overgeneralisation from the trainees’ take home essays:

1. *The *furnitures* in the assembly hall were dirty.
2. *The Vice Principal gave us a lot of *informations* about the college.
- 3.*We received many *advices* from the College Chaplain.
4. *I *hanged* my clothes on the line. (hung)

Here, the students were not aware that some nouns do not have plural forms and hence do not require the plural forming morpheme “-s”. For instance, in excerpts 1, 2 and 3

above, the nouns “furniture”, “information” and “advice” are used in the singular sense only and do not require the plural forming morpheme “-s”. They were also unaware that a verb like ‘hang’ does not need “-ed” to form its past tense if its object is not a human being. By this token, in excerpt 4, the object of the verb is non-human and so does not require “-ed”. If the object is non-human, the verb changes to “hung” for its past tense.

During the observation, the trainees committed similar errors of overgeneralisation. The following are some excerpts:

1. *You should not allow the *sheeps* and goats to come into the compound.
2. *When we become service *personnels*, I will like to teach here again.
3. *The thief *bleeded* till he died.
4. *Yesterday, I *forbided* Simon from coming to school late today.

This point was corroborated in the interview with the mentors and the tutors who felt the trainees lacked adequate knowledge of the rules of the English language. The following is an excerpt from one of the mentors:

“We do not know all the rules governing the grammar of the English language. With the little we know, we generalise when we do not know which rules apply. And that is the situation with the interns.”

Some of the mentors buttressed this point by recalling examples of some words that the trainees often wrote wrongly.

i. Plural of nouns

Excerpt 1: *datas *sheeps *furnitures *personnels

ii. Past tense of verbs

Excerpt 2 *creeped *lied down *freezed

In excerpt 1 above, the mentors claimed the trainee operated under the notion that nouns only formed the plurals by taking on the morpheme “-s” and did not recognise that “data” was already a plural noun. The trainee, according to the mentors, did not also know that “sheep” takes on a zero morpheme to form its plural. The trainee was equally unaware that the noun “furniture” is used in the singular sense only and “personnel” was already a plural noun and did not need the morpheme “-s”.

In excerpt 2, the trainee was unaware that the verbs there do not take on the morpheme “-ed” to form their past tenses and so he generalised using the little information he had.

4.5.2.2 Errors due to Irregularities within the English spelling system

Smith (1973) identifies irregularities of the English spelling system as a cause of spelling errors. For example the vowel “ea” can be pronounced as /i:/ in the word “freak” or /ei/ as in the word “break”. These inconsistencies create confusion in the mind of ESL learners when it comes to spelling. Linguistic differences between English and the learners’ first language can also account for the spelling errors (Brown, 2000). These irregularities in the English spelling system could have accounted for the spelling errors of the trainees. The following are examples of such words such words in the trainees’ essays:

1. **persue* (confusion in the spelling of /ə:/ in ‘pursue’ and in ‘permit’)
2. **recieve* (confusion in the spelling of //i:/ in ‘receive’ and in ‘believe’)
3. **faithful day* (confusion in the spelling of /ei/ in ‘fateful and in in ‘faithful’)

4.5.3 Other Causes of Writing Error

There are other causes of writing errors which are neither due to interlingual nor intralingual factors. Some of these causes are carelessness, communal pull and influence of social media. Some of the trainees' errors are traceable to these causes.

4.5.3.1 Carelessness

Carelessness and lack of concentration on the part of learners can cause errors in their writing (Darus & Ching, 2009). Most of the time, some learners do not bother to ensure that their sentences are well-punctuated and their letter case well written. This has been the situation of teacher trainees of Ada College of Education. Most of these errors could have been avoided if they took their time to write properly. This was quite evident in their essays. The following are excerpts:

1. *When we alighted at the school gate^ I saw people in a queue.
2. *The vice principal welcomed us to the school.
3. *We reported for school on 3rd october, 2017.

This trend of carelessness was also observed during the observation even though it was very minimal. Some trainees committed these errors in the writing on the chalkboards and on their TLMs. The following are excerpts:

1. *14th February^ 2020^
2. *The volta is a big river.
3. *The hawk Caught the hen playing the drum.

4.5.3.2 Communal Pull

Some words and expressions are deviant forms of language that are coined and acquired outside the classrooms and most often appear in students' essays and speech. The

trainees' written work and speech were adorned with some of them. The following are some examples:

- *My late uncle's weed off ceremony will be next week.
- *I asked her to find a place in her heart to forgive me because I didn't mean it.
- *My father gave me enough chop money for school.
- * I told her she cannot eat her cake and have it.
- * I saw some of the seniors catching time that night.

4.5.3.3 The Influence of Social Media

The mentors also believed that the influence of social media accounted for the trainees' errors. Most of the mentors maintained that trainees learnt some of these deviant forms from social media. The following is an excerpt from one of the mentors:

“All that they are engrossed in is whatsapping and, quite often, send such deviant forms to us. Sometimes they inadvertently write these in their lesson notes and portfolios. Something must be done about it.”

Other mentors corroborated this and the following are excerpts of deviant forms they claimed the trainees wrote:

*b4 (for before) *b'cos (for because) *gud (for good)

4.6 Impact of Trainees' Writing Errors on Teaching and Learning

In answer to the third research, evidence from the research shows similar trends between the teacher-trainees' errors and those of their pupils. Richard (2015) asserts that, when teachers attempt to communicate in the target language without complete acquisition of the grammatical forms, errors arise. The errors so caused by the teachers are smoothly transferred from the teacher to the learner. It is also the case that the quantity and quality of input in the target language is known to influence all types of

learning: L1 acquisition, (Hart and Risley, 1995; Holf, 2006) and L2 development in natural or guided context (Ellis and Collins, 2007). This has been the situation with the current research. From the classroom observation and the pupils marked exercises, it cannot be gainsaid that the teacher trainees' errors impacted negatively on the output of their pupils. From the data presented, one could see a correlation between the errors made by the trainees and those made by the pupils.

4.6.1 Pupils' Errors in Relation to Teacher Trainees' Errors

In order to measure the impact of writing errors of teacher trainees on teaching and learning, the researcher took time to go through the pupils' marked exercise books to establish a correlation between the teachers' input and the pupils output. In all 175 English exercise books of the pupils were sampled and examined. This was to find out if trainees did actually identify the errors made by their pupils and corrected them. The unidentified and unmarked deviant forms were related to tense, subject-verb agreement, spelling, wrong expressions, and preposition and were very similar to the errors made by the trainees. This is a strong indication that some of the pupils' errors could have been influenced by the trainees' errors. The table below contains the data from the pupils' exercise books.

Table 5: Data on Uncorrected Errors in Pupils' Exercise Books

Types of errors	Total No. of Errors	
	Uncorrected	Percentage (%)
Tense	487	32%
Concord	384	25%
Spelling	196	12.9%
Preposition	75	4.9%

Lower and Upper Case	215	14%
Others (Articles, pronouns, etc.)	165	10.8%
Total	1522	100

From the table, uncorrected Tense Errors, which was the highest, was 487, constituting 32% of the total number of error. This was followed by Concord Errors with 384, constituting 25% of the total number of errors; Lower and Upper Case Error 215, constituting 14% of the total number of errors; Spelling Errors 196, constituting 12.9% of the total number of errors; Other Errors (articles, pronouns) 165, constituting 10.8% of the total number of errors; and, finally, Preposition Errors 75, constituting 4.9% of the total number of errors (See Appendix E samples of pupils productions)It is instructive to note that the uncorrected tense-related errors in the pupils' exercise books constituted 32% of the total number of uncorrected errors committed and was slightly higher than the 29.9% errors committed by the trainees in their take-home essays. This does not, however, indicate close parity between pupils' errors and those of the trainees. What this simply means is that, a significant part of the uncorrected tense-related errors (32%) in the pupils exercise books could possibly be due to the influence of the trainees' errors on the pupils' writing. This assumption is based on the similarities that existed between the pupils' uncorrected tense errors and those of the trainees. This is further supported by data obtained from the classroom observation which indicated that the tense errors committed by the pupils in their productions constituted 28.3% of the total number of errors as against the trainees' errors of 23.7%. Here, again, the errors of the pupils were similar to the input made available to them by the trainees. This is an indication that the trainees' errors could have influenced the errors of the pupil (see Appendix F for excerpts). The unmarked concord errors in the pupils' exercise books

(25%) is also significant as a percentage of the total number of unmarked errors in the pupils' exercise books. The trainees' concord errors of 16% is also quite significant. However, there may not be any basis to compare the two figures since the pupils' data represented only errors that the trainees could not identify. The similarities between the pupils' errors and those of trainees grants the basis to assume that the trainees' errors could have influenced the errors of the pupils. There is, however, sound basis to draw comparison between the trainees' errors and the pupils' errors during the observation. Here, the trainees' concord errors constituted 20.7% as against the pupils' concord errors of 18.1%. The higher density in the trainees' errors as against those of the pupils could be due to the fact that the trainees' input (both in speech and in writing) far exceeded the output of the pupils. However, the similarities between the trainees' errors and the errors of the pupils is a clear indication that the trainees' errors could have influenced the errors of the pupils.

As regards the spelling errors, traces of the trainees 8.2% spelling errors in their essays could be found in the 12.9% of errors that the trainees could not recognise in the pupils exercise books. This was corroborated by the mentors and the tutors who felt strongly, in the interview, that the trainees' errors were likely to have influenced the pupils' output. This was what Tutor 2 had to say:

Whatever input the teacher makes available to the pupils is likely to influence the output of the pupils. If the teacher pronounces words wrongly during dictation in class, the child is likely to spell them wrongly. In this same vein, whatever the teacher spells wrongly is likely to be replicated by the pupils. The teacher's input must always be right.

Mentor 4 also cited an instance where a trainee pronounced 'coconut' /kəukənʌt/ as /kʌkʌnʌt/ and the pupils began to pronounce it the way the trainee did until a mentor stepped in to stop it. The trainees' spellings could, to some extent, have influenced the pupils' spellings

4.7 Conclusion

Pieces of evidence from the data gathered and presented in this chapter signify a real challenge confronting the teacher trainee in his use of the English language. Though most of the mentors said the trainees were generally proficient in the use of the language, the evidence does not support that. The frequency and consistency with which some of these deviant forms were produced showed that they were not mistakes but errors (Brown, 2007). The errors committed were related to tense, concord, preposition, expression, spelling, punctuation, pronunciation and letter case usage. These errors were similar to those identified in the literature reviewed in this study (Agor, 2003; Anyidoho, 2002; Sermssook, 2007 and others). Incidentally, apart from pronunciation which does not feature in our external examinations in Ghana, all the written aspects of the English language are scrutinised and marked according to the marking scheme. Errors and mistakes made attract the deduction of marks in students' English language examination scripts right from the pre-tertiary to the tertiary level. The grades of students are likely to be affected negatively when such marks are deducted for their errors.

Interlingual (mother tongue interference) and intralingual factors, overgeneralisation, and communal pull are the possible causes of errors identified in this study. At the interlingual level, we see pronunciation (phonology) and transliteration play out strongly. This gives credence to Wilkins' assertion that "When learning a foreign

language, an individual already knows his L1 and it is this which he attempts to transfer” (Wilkins, 1972, p. 99). With regard to the intralingual causes of error, the trainees simply lacked adequate knowledge of the rules governing the use of the language. The inconsistencies that exist between the English letters and the sounds also create a lot of confusion in the minds of the learners when it comes to spelling.

Richard (2015) asserts that, when teachers attempt to communicate in the target language without complete acquisition of the grammatical forms, errors arise. The errors so caused by the teacher are smoothly transferred from the teacher to the learner. This has been the situation in this study. Evidences from the pupils’ exercise books and the classroom observation show striking similarities between some of the errors made by the trainees and the errors that the pupils made. The pupils made errors in relation to tense, concord, preposition, spellings and other errors. Though some of the pupils’ errors were similar to those of the trainees, the trainees could not be solely blamed for that, looking at the brief period that they had been with the pupils. The regular teachers of the pupils as well as the unwholesome language picked in the community could also account for the challenge. However, it cannot be gainsaid that the teacher plays a significant role in all of these and the trainees’ errors could have contributed in a way influenced the pupils output. These corroborate the studies done by Nel and Muller (2010), Malik (1996) and Khan and Khan and Mahmood (2010) who link the poor learner output to lack of teacher proficiency in the use of the English language, unqualified and untrained teachers, and teachers academic qualification respectively. The teacher is the model in the class and, if the model lacks proficiency in the use of the language he teaches, the pupil might suffer the negative consequences of the wrong teacher input in future.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter summarizes the findings of the research which provides answers to the research questions:

Commented [KD7]: Rervise

1. What are the writing errors that teacher trainees of Ada College of Education make?
2. What are the causes of these errors?
3. What impact do these errors have on teaching and learning?

The chapter also gives the conclusion of the study and offers recommendations to stakeholders of education in Ghana. This study has brought to the fore the challenges facing the teacher trainee with regard to writing. The errors that trainees commit in their writing are, undoubtedly, high and, as the study has revealed, these errors are transferable as input to the pupils they teach which may reflect in their output. This calls for serious attention of all stake-holders of education to help stem the tide. The

study discovered a number of writing errors teacher trainees commit. It also identifies some possible causes of the errors and the likely impact these errors have on teaching and learning.

5.1 Summary of Findings on the Types of Writing Errors of Trainees

In order to unearth the types of writing errors the trainees committed, the research gave the students a take-home essay on the topic 'My first day at college'. The essays were written and presented the next day after school. These were marked and the errors identified and classified following the steps prescribed by Corder (1974). To find out if the trainees could really identify errors in sentences, an Error Identification Test was administered. This was made up of 25 questions, each with an error in it. They were given 50 minutes to do the test. The results of the test were also analysed. The following are the types of errors that teacher trainees of Ada College of Education committed in their writing:

5.1.1 Summary of Tense Errors of the Teacher Trainees

The highest group of errors committed by the teacher trainees was tense errors. This reflected so much in their take-home essays. The trainees were unable to write correct sentences where sequencing of tense was involved. In their construction of compound and complex sentences, they had the tendency of varying the tenses of the clauses in the sentences. For example, in writing about the past, instead of choosing verbs that reflected the past in all clauses within the sentences, they often chose the past for one clause and the present or future time in the other. They also vacillated between the past and present tenses in an essay where all verbs were supposed to be predominantly in the past. This worrying situation also reflected in their inability to identify similar errors

in the Error Identification Test administered to them. The classroom observation and the interview with the mentors and the tutors confirmed this phenomenon.

5.1.2 Summary of Concord Errors of the Teacher Trainees

The next group of errors in the trainees' writing was related to concord. Here, the trainees were unable to match their subjects with their respect verb forms in terms of number. In this regard, they erroneously matched singular subjects with plural verbs and vice versa. This challenge was very visible in their choice of verb to match two subjects joined by the coordinator 'or' or the correlative conjunction 'either... or' and 'neither...nor'. The trainees also found it difficult to identify the right verb that comes after a subject followed by expressions such as; 'as well as', 'together with' and so on. The trainees also had a challenge choosing the right verb form that comes after a relative pronoun has been used in a sentence. All these challenges manifested in their take-home essays and the error identification test and were corroborated by the class observation and the interview with the mentors and tutors.

5.1.3 Summary of Pronoun Errors of the Teacher Trainees

Another problematic area in the trainees writing was the right use of some pronouns. They were unable to fathom where to place subjective and objective pronouns. Though this did not reflect much in their essays, it was very apparent in the error identification test administered to them. They could not identify the wrong use of pronoun case in the test administered to them.

The trainees made fewer spelling errors in their take-home essays. This was ostensibly due to the fact that they had enough time at home where they had resources such as the dictionary and mobile phones to check the right spelling of words. In contrast to this, however, the trainees could not identify the wrong spelling of some words in the error

identification test. The mentors and tutors also confirmed the existence of the challenge in the trainees writing.

5.1.4 Summary of Prepositional Errors of the Teacher Trainees

The next group of errors committed by the trainees were prepositional errors. Instances of the use of wrong prepositions, redundant prepositions and omission of prepositions were identified in the trainees' essays. The trainees could also not identify wrong use of prepositions in the error identification test administered to them.

5.1.5 Summary of Letter Case Errors of the Teacher Trainees

The trainees also committed errors relating to case of letters in their essays. They used the upper and lower cases where they need not use them. For instance, the initial letters of some proper nouns were written in the lower case while the initial letters of some common nouns were written in the upper case. This was problematic. Very little of this challenge was, however, exhibited during the observation.

Commented [KD8]: the case of the letters...

5.5.6 Summary of Wrong/Unclear Expressions of the Teacher Trainee

The use of wrong and unclear expressions was another challenge of the trainees. In some instances, the expressions were direct vernacular translations into English. There were also instances where the trainees used expressions that did not make any meaning at all. These were exhibited in the trainees' essays and during the classroom observation.

5.2 Summary of Probable Causes of Trainees' Writing Errors

The trainees' errors were traced to a number of causes. These included interlingual, intralingual and other factors. The interlingual causes of errors are mainly mother-

tongue interference in the L2. It was observed that the articulation of some speech sounds in the L2 which are not in the L1 posed a lot of challenge to the trainees. What they did was to use closer variants in the Ghanaian vernacular in place of the L2 sounds

5.2.1 Interlingual Causes of Trainees' Writing Errors

The interlingual (L1) interference in the L2 identified in the trainees' use of some vernacular translations in their writing. This was possibly due to inability to find the appropriate expressions in the English language due to their lack of mastery of the English language. The wrong articulation of some English sounds might have accounted for some of their spelling errors.

5.2.2 Intralingual Causes of Trainees' Writing Errors

Intralingual causes of errors come about as a result of inconsistencies within the L2 itself. Some of the writing errors committed by the trainees could plausibly be traced to intralingual causes. This cause of errors was identified in the trainees' essays when they tried to overgeneralise due to their inadequate knowledge of the rules of the language. Another intralingual cause of errors manifested in the spelling in the writing of the trainees. This was due to the irregularities in the spelling system of the English language. The confusion arose due to the fact that some similar sounds in the English language could be represented by different letters of the English alphabet.

5.2.3 Communal Pull as a Cause of Trainees' Writing Errors

Another cause of the trainees' writing errors was due to communal pull. This type of error is neither caused by interlingual nor intralingual factors; it is caused outside the classroom where the society comes out with some coinages which are non-English but used in the English context locally. Some of these coinages such as 'chopbox', 'chopmoney' and others appeared the trainees' essays.

5.2.4 The Influence of Social Media as a Cause of the Trainees' Writing Errors

Social media influence was another cause of the trainees' writing errors. Social media make use of expressions, terminologies and spellings which are not acceptable in formal writing. These deviant structures, however, found their way into the trainees' essays, which was quite problematic.

5.3 The Impact of Teacher Trainees' Writing Errors on Teaching and Learning

To ascertain the impact of the trainees' writing errors on teaching and lesson, the researcher scrutinized the pupils' marked English exercise books to find out if some wrong linguistic structure had been left unmarked. The consistency of such unmarked structures could indicate that the trainees did not recognise them as errors and could possibly be in the linguistic repertoire of the trainees. Some of the unmarked errors in the pupils' exercise books were similar to those of the trainees. It is the submission of the researcher that, though the trainee could not be entirely blamed for the errors of the pupils, some of these deviant structures could have been passed on from the trainees to the pupils. This was further corroborated during the classroom observation where the errors the trainees made both in speech and writing seemed to bear some semblance in the speech of the pupils.

5.4 General Observations in Class

The researcher observed quite a number of issues that need to be discussed here. Among the issues are the following;

1. Though the trainees used a motley of methods in teaching their lessons, there was very little done with regard to the communicative approach to teaching. The use

of activities such as role play, pair work, group work and so on which could expose the pupils to the natural use of the English language was absent. This defeats the objective of the syllabus that requires teachers to employ this method in the teaching. The trainees did much of the talking.

2. There was the lack of English textbooks for the pupils. The mentors claimed the curriculum materials had been changed and supplies of textbooks to schools had not been done yet. This put a lot of strain on the trainees as they had to write short passages on the board
3. Large class sizes did not also allow the trainees to attend to the individual needs of the pupils they taught.
4. Some of the classrooms were not well-illuminated. This might have some health implications to the pupils.

5.5 Recommendations

1. Only teachers with specialty in English must be allowed to teach English in the basic school. This will ensure that the right forms of the English language are imparted to the pupils.
2. Special attention must be paid to the teaching of grammar for students to learn or acquire the rule governing the use of the English language.
3. Well-equipped language laboratories must be established in the teacher training institutions. This, when done, will help to resolve some of the interlingual challenges of teacher trainees.
4. An online resource centre manned by experts be established where teachers can easily log in to seek assistance whenever they need support in their teaching.
5. In-service training must be organized for the teachers of English to update them on current trends in the teaching of the language.

6. Special clinics be organised for teachers of English who have severe challenges in teaching certain aspects of the language.

Special attention must be paid to the nature of teacher education in the teacher training institutions in the country. Teachers of English engaged in these institutions must have sound footing on content and pedagogy.

5.6 Suggestion for future research

1. Future research must expand the scope of this study to cover other teacher training institutions so that the results could be generalized.
2. Future research must also take a critical look at how teacher trainees' errors could be corrected curtail the transfer of teacher error to the pupils.

5.7 Conclusion

It is clear now that the concerns expressed by a section of the populace about the poor standard of English among graduates from our institutions of learning is not a farce; it is very real. In line with the first of objective of the study, the identified writing errors of teacher trainees of Ada College of Education related to tense, concord, pronoun, spelling, preposition, article and expression. These manifested in the trainees' essays, the Error Identification Test, and corroborated by the class observation and the interview. This corroborates the findings in the studies reviewed in the literature (Agor, 2003; Anyidoho; Sermsook, et.al. 2017). What is peculiar about this study is that the participants were teacher trainees who had less than six months to get into the world of work. The implication of this is that, if immediate steps are not taken to remedy the situation before their recruitment, they are likely to carry these deviant forms into the classroom.

With regard to the second objective, the causes of the errors were traceable to interlingual, intralingual and other factors. The interlingual factors were the cause of the direct translation of L1 expressions into the English language. The pronunciation challenges of the trainees were also largely due to interlingual factors. The intralingual factors, on the other hand, resulted in overgeneralisation and spelling errors due to irregularities in the English spelling system. Other factors, which were neither due to interlingual or intralingual causes, were the influence of social media and errors emanating from communal pull. Similar causes of errors were identified by researchers (Yankah, 1994; Yeboah, 2014; Phuket, 2015 and others) in the literature reviewed under this study.

The third objective sought to find out the impact of the trainees' errors on teaching and learning. The findings from the research indicate that the pupils made similar errors as the trainees. Evidence from the pupils' marked exercise books and the classroom observation showed that the pupils made similar errors as their teachers (the trainees). From the study, it is clear that the trainees' errors might have influenced their pupils' output. The findings corroborate similar findings made by Nel and Muller (2010), Khan and Mahmood (2010), Malik (1996) and others in the literature reviewed under this study.

The findings of this research expose the enormity of the challenge of the ESL teacher in Ghana. It is pertinent to note that the course content for the Diploma in Basic Education programme is similar to the CRDD (2007) syllabus for the basic schools in Ghana. Both course materials deal extensively with tenses, concord, prepositions, pronouns, and articles. It is therefore disheartening that the trainees who had all gone through basic school, Senior High School and completed their course work on English

in the College of Education should still be grappling with issues of competency in the English language. This calls for serious stakeholder engagements and heavy investment in ESL research in the area of teacher education in Ghana to find a panacea to inherent problems of the ESL teacher. Until this is done, the blame game as to which category of teachers is responsible for the falling standard of English in our schools (as stated by Boadi, 1971), will continue.



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MY FIRST DAY AT COLLEGE ^{Appendix} _{Tr. 3}

Getting admission into Ada College of Education was a dream come true.

Early in the morning of Wednesday 3rd October, 2018, my father, a taxi driver, took me to the Ashiaman main station to board an Ada vehicle. It is my first time travelling to Ada alone, so I was alert till arrival around 10 o'clock am. I could not believe myself.

On campus, some Seniors helped me with my things and took me to the Senior Hall Warden for registration. I was assigned to Songor Hall. The Senior below my bed also doubles as my school mother. ~~She~~ After parking she took me around the compound.

^{SP} The school had a serene environment because of its closeness to the sea. The buildings was neatly painted and most of them had flower beds. I realise most of the teachers have their bungalows on campus while others are in town. Rice and Stew was served for lunch but it didn't taste nice. It then dawn on me I was in a new environment and not home.

The day went by smoothly with less activity.

APPENDIX A



Traine 5

My First Day At College

It was Second of October, 2017 around 3 o'clock pm when I arrived at Ada College of Education. When I entered the campus, I was surprised on seeing some of the students working. Some were scrubbing, others were weeding and scooping bathed water. I was thinking that College is a tertiary institution and as such, students don't work, but it was a different thing altogether.

When I arrived, I was directed to go to the Senior hall master so that, he will assign me to a hall. He asked me to join the lorlorvor hall, so he directed me to the lorlorvor Mistress. When I got there, she asked me to lorlorvor room two. After that, I came back to my father to say my last goodbye. It was a sad moment for me because that was my first time staying away from my parents. My dad left and I was taken to my room. There I was given a school mother who will take Care of me.

Also, my School mother helped me with packing and laying of my bed. After bathing that evening, she spent some time with me to help me to know the daily routine in the College. She told me that all first years are suppose to wake up at 5 o'clock am and take their bath. After which they will work

APPENDIX Trainee 8

My First Day At College

At dawn, on 3rd October, 2018, I had text message that I have gained admission at Ada College of Education to do a 3 years Diploma in Education. I didn't believed myself. Early that morning, I packed my things and left Ashiaman to Ada.

The vehicle I took drove me straight to campus. A senior introduced me to the hall warden. The senior and the hall warden were discussing about my ball, so when I enquire what it was is, the senior said I shouldn't put my mouth in their affairs. Later

I am told my hall of residence is Songhor, but the dormitory is full up so I will be house in another dormitory temporary for the meantime.

I decided to go round the compound for sight seeing. I realize that most of the teachers have their bungalow on campus while others are in towns.

At launch time, me and my friend went to the school canteen to eat. Me ate rice and beef stew and my friend eat jollof. The food was very nice. I had to sleep on a banked bed and the sister below my bed who doubles as the hall prefect ask me to be her school mother.

There was a statue in front of one building, when I asked, I was told that the statue was the founder and the first principal of the college and there was the office of the principal and any principal who come to the college uses that office.

I was very happy on that day because things that I have not seen before, I saw them.

Appendix Traynee 11

MY FIRST DAY AT COLLEGE

My first day of entering college was on 2nd October 2017. I arrived at 1:00 ~~pm~~ noon. A lot of people came and they were registering new comers. I couldn't enjoy the weather because it was a new environment. So everything has totally changed. Though I was facing challenges with the atmosphere, I was very happy to see myself in college for the first in my life because, it was not everybody who had the opportunity to come to college.

I went round the campus to see what the college have. I saw the administration block, Science laboratory, student dormitories, Assembly just to mention a few. I so realise that most of the lecturers have their bungalow on campus while others are in the town.

There was a statue in front of one building. When I asked, I was told that the statue was the founder and the first principal of the college and there was the office of the principal and any principal who come to the college uses that office.

* I was very happy on that day because things that I have not seen before, I saw them.

MY FIRST DAY AT COLLEGE

APPENDIX C

Teresa IS

I ^Iam filled with excitement as I travelled from Akropong in the Eastern region to Ada for further studies. I have gained admission to Ada College of Education to pursue a 3 years programme in Diploma in Basic Education.

upon arrival, I realised the school had beautiful structures and the compound was very neat. The place is very sandy and I later realised it was closed to the beach. because it was a new environment, everything has totally changed.

I reported at the administration for my registration and afterwards I was told the seniors was to guide me. I was giving a hall and my school mother was very nice to me.

Later in the day, ^Pme and my school mother decided to go to the dining hall early for supper becos we are hungry. After supper I decided to go to bed early becos I was tired from the long journey.



NAME : AZZ-

~~AZZ~~

APPENDIX Trainee 17

MY FIRST DAY AT COLLEGE

It was Second of October, 2017 around 3:0'clock pm when I arrived at Ada College of Education. When I entered the Campus, I was surprised on seeing some of the students working. Some were scrubbing, others were weeding and scooping bathed water. I was thinking that College is a tertiary institution and as such, students don't work, but it was a different thing altogether.

When I arrived, I was directed to go to the Senior hall master so that he will assign me to a hall. He asked me to join the Lorlorvor hall, so he directed me to the Lorlorvor Mistress. When I got there, she asked me to Lorlorvor room two. After that, I came back to my father to say my last goodbye. It was a sad moment for me because that was my first time staying away from my parents. My dad left and I was taken to my room. There I was given a school mother who will take care of me.

Also, my school mother helped me with packing and laying of my bed. After bathing that evening, she spent some time with me to help me to know the daily routine in the college. She told me that all first years are supposed to wake up at 5:0'clock am and take their bath. After which they will work before going to class.

Moreover, when it was 4:0'clock, they rang the bell for dinning, when I went for dinning, I met Mary who became my best friend. After dinning, I came back to my room and my school mother asked me to rest because the next day we will have an orientation, so I slept.

However, my first day at college was not happy.

because I didn't know anyone by then, but I Coped and I have now adjusted to the changes. I still remember my first day at College and will never forget.

Appendix Training 25

My First Day At College

My first day of entering College was on 2nd October 2017. I arrived at 1:00 noon. A lot of people came and they registering new comers. I couldn't enjoy the weather because it was a new environment. So everything has totally changed. Though I was facing challenges with the atmosphere, I was very happy to see myself in College for the first in my life because, it was not everybody who had the opportunity to come to College.

I went round the campus to see what the College have. I saw the administration block, Science laboratory, Student dormitories, Assembly just to mention a few. I so realise that most of the lecturers have their bungalow on campus while others are in the town.

There was a statue in front of one building, when I asked, I was told that the statue was the founder and the first principal of the College and there was the office of the principal and any principal who came to the College uses that office.

I was very happy on that day because things that I have not seen before, I saw them.

APPENDIX B

Table: Types and Frequency of Errors Made by Pupils in the Classes

Observed

CLASSE S OBSERV ED	TYPES OF ERROR					
	TENSE	CONCORD (NO.)	PRONUNCJAT ION (NO.)	PREPOSITI ON (NO.)	OTHE RS	TOTA L (NO.)
AP	11	8	14	3	5	41
BP	08	5	17	1	7	38
CP	12	7	16	0	4	39
DP	10	6	15	3	6	40
EP	09	8	13	3	4	37
FP	07	6	14	0	5	32
GP	10	9	11	1	5	36
HP	11	7	13	1	3	35
IP	13	5	12	0	5	35
JP	10	6	11	2	4	33
KP	12	7	13	2	4	38
LP	11	8	15	1	5	40
MP	12	6	13	1	4	36
NP	11	6	15	2	4	38

TOTAL	147 (28.3%)	94 (18.1%)	192 (37.4%)	20 (3.9%)	66 (12.7%)	519 (100%)
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APPENDIX C

**Table Details of the Types and Frequency of Errors Made by
Trainees during Observation**

TEACHER TRAINEES	TYPES OF ERROR AND FREQUENCY					
	TENSE	CONC O.	SPEL L.	PRONUNCJ AT	PREPOSITIO N	TOTAL
A	3	2	2	6	2	15
B	5	3	-	2	2	12
C	1	2	1	5	1	10
D	4	3	-	6	2	15
E	1	-	-	4	-	05
F	3	3	2	6	2	16
G	5	3	2	5	2	17
H	1	-	-	5	-	06
I	3	4	2	3	-	12
J	4	2	-	6	2	14
k	5	3	1	4	-	13
L	2	3	2	5	-	12
M	4	5	1	6	1	17
N	5	4	2	4	-	15

TOTAL	46 (25.7%))	37 (20.7%)	15 (8.4%)	67 (37.4%)	14 (7.8%)	179
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APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR MENTORS AND TUTORS

Section A: Information on teachers/mentors

1. How old are you, sir/madam?
2. What professional qualification do you hold?
3. For how long have you been teaching as a professional teacher?
4. Have you ever taught as untrained teacher and for how long?
5. For how long have you taught in your current school?

Section B: Questions on Teacher Trainees' Writing Errors

6. How often do you observe the lessons of the teacher trainees under you?
7. Do trainees exude confidence in class?
8. How do you assess the performance of teacher trainees in the teaching of English?
9. How do you assess their proficiency in the use both spoken and written English in class?
10. What are some of the errors/mistakes that trainees make in the use of both spoken and written English?
11. Are these errors/mistakes more pronounced in their spoken language or written language?
12. How often do you go through their portfolios to inspect their lesson notes and mark and mark their Teaching Practice (TP) Journals?
13. What are some of errors/mistakes (if any) you find in the materials in (7) above?
14. Do you detect some errors/mistakes in them in relation to the use of language in class?
15. Do you correct these error/mistakes and discuss them with the trainees?
16. How do the trainees react to such corrections
17. Do the trainees sometimes repeat such error/mistakes after correction?
18. What do you do if these errors/mistakes are so repetitive even after correcting the trainees?

Section C: Sources of Error:

19. How will explain the cause(s) of these error/mistakes?
20. Which of these errors do you think are interlingual?
21. Which of the errors do you consider intralingual?

Section D: Impact of Trainees Errors on Teaching and Learning

22. How often do you go through pupils' exercise books marked by trainees?
23. Are there some errors in there that go unnoticed that you would like to talk about?
24. How different are these error from what pupils make?
25. How are trainees' errors likely to affect the learners?

APPENDIX E

Error Identification Test

Read the following sentences carefully and identify any error(s) in them (if any)

1. The accused was sentenced to five years imprisonment with hard labour.
2. In fact, he is very good in Mathematics.
3. The teacher highlighted on the need for us to come early.
4. The items comprise of five books and ten pens.
5. She entered into the kitchen as soon as she smelt the aroma.
6. The debate is between you and I.
7. You and me will have to contribute to the fund.
8. The woman who I talked to was my friend.
9. My family and me will never worship idols.
10. The pastor should pray for we the college students to succeed.
11. Either you or I is to work with the manager today.
12. Sweater is one of the garments that is worn when the weather is cold.
13. The crises in Asia is not ending now.
14. One-third of the apples has been eaten.
15. The teacher, together with his students, are to abide by the rules.
16. The man said he will marry me.
17. I would be grateful if you can assist me pay my fees.
18. My mother hanged her clothes in the wardrobe.
19. The wind blowed my money away yesterday.
20. My hand freezed when I held the ice for some time.
21. The teacher bought some liquified petroleum gas this morning.
22. You need to appologise to your mother.
23. The flood victims recieved a lot of relief supplies.
24. The pleasures in heaven supercede those we have on earth.
25. The old man was buried at the royal cemetary.

APPENDIX F

Some Errors Made by Pupils in their Productions

Tense Errors

The pupils equally made similar errors as the trainees and some of these went uncorrected. Most these errors had to do with sequence of tense. Examples of these are as follow;

*Madam, yesterday you said you *will* bring us toffees today. (would)

*Sir, last week, you said you *will* not do the test this week. (would)

*Madam, you said I *can* tell my father to bring you fish. (could)

*Sir, when I went home late, my *says* he *will* beat. (would)

Concord Errors

The pupils, here again, made similar errors many of which went uncorrected. The following are some examples of the errors:

*Korkor's teeth *is* rotten. (are)

*The pains *has* reduced. (have)

*My eyes *is* paining me. (are)

*Jeans *is* worn by guys. (are)

*Five minutes *are* too much for me to walk home. (is)

Prepositions Errors The pupils made some errors with the use of prepositions even though they were very few. The following are some examples of the errors that the pupils made which were similar to those that the trainees made:

*I am angry *at* you. (with)

*My father jumped *inside* the water to catch the fish. (into)

*I can walk *to* home, it's not far. (It is redundant)

*I was born *on* December. (in)

*We discussed *about* my future career. (It is redundant)

Wrong Expression

During the observation process, the pupils made some errors in their speech that went uncorrected. The following are examples of the errors made:

*Sir, I will go some.

*She has plenty pens.

*Is it your concern?

*My head is paining me.

*I am remembering you about the toffees you promised.

