Full Length Research Paper

An appraisal of students' errors in English compositions: Implications for the Open and Distance Learning classroom

Iyere Theodore

National Open University of Nigeria, Lagos, Nigeria.

Accepted 11 October, 2013

This paper reports the findings of an investigation of lexical errors in the Open and Distance Learning students' essays at the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN). The study made use of tagged sample essays to find out the frequency and types of lexical errors in different registers of guided writing administered to randomly selected 300 and 400 level students undergoing the B.A English programme in the university. These categories of students were selected because the university regulation stipulates that all their examinations have to be manually written. The findings of the study reveal that ODL students in the B.A English programme in NOUN committed lexical choice errors more than lexical form errors. Lexical choice includes individual and combined choice of lexical items. Lexical form involves derivational and spelling errors. There are broadly two kinds of errors including interlingual and intralingual errors. Transfer errors mean a failure to keep a conceptual separation between L1 and L2. They represent interlingual errors. Transfer errors are different for each L1-L2 pair, while intralingual errors are the result of inadequate knowledge of the second language. The study postulates that simplification and over generalization errors might be made by any language learner based on low L2 proficiency. It then concludes that lexical errors are a natural and a necessary phenomenon in language teaching and learning and they benefit learners immensely, especially as they will try to avoid committing such errors in subsequent writings. Indeed, teachers should not prevent students from making errors but should always find ways to identify and correct them in the ODL classroom.

Key words: Lexical errors, Open and Distance Learning, L1-L2 proficiency, language teaching, pedagogical techniques.

INTRODUCTION

There are over 90 universities in Nigeria with more than 2.000.000 students enrolled in these universities. Of these students, less than 100,000 are registered in the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) which is the largest of the universities that provide distance education in the country.

Open and Distance Learning is the combination of online learning (e-learning) and other distance education delivery methods. It is the introduction, utilisation and application of ICT to enhance Open and Distance education thus implementing open and distance learning policies in order to make learning activities more flexible and enable these learning activities to be distributed among many learning venues. It is an amalgam of two approaches to different forms of education that focus on expanding access to learning. It is a sort of blended and

E-mail: theodoreiyere@yahoo.co.uk.

distributed learning, which incorporate elements of tutor mediated and self-directed and resource-based learning process.

The pedagogical shifts from face-to-face traditional way of teaching or even the traditional distance education (called correspondence education) to on-line education is what Open and Distance Learning is all about. It represents significant changes in the assumptions on which teachers, learners and support staff go about their business and to the technological infrastructure and skill base that support the moves.

This type of education is characterised by two factors: its philosophy and its use of technology. The Open and Distance Learning Philosophy aims at removing barriers to education allowing students to study what they want, when they want and where they want. In summing up the Open and Distance Learning Philosophy, it aims at increasing educational access and increasing educational choice of students.

English is the main emphasis - as regards the language used for writing the course materials used by the students of NOUN. As a programme of study being run in NOUN, the B.A English course is often tested in examinations (at the 300 and 400 levels) using the 'Penon-Paper' technique. For the first two years of the programme, the method of examination testing is the eexam platform. Students therefore have to prepare to write essay answers at the 300 and 400 levels of the programme. Our experiences of marking students answer scripts show that the students concentrate on memorizing information contained in their course materials for purposes of reproducing same in the written examination. Their answers therefore tend to display an average knowledge of textbook content while lacking imagination, creativity or good communication skills. In the case of English acquisition, many of the students regard the language as a compulsory subject rather than as a communication tool and lack motivation in learning it well. Their instrumental motivation of learning English as an examination subject together with their rote-learning strategy, tend to decrease their willingness to explore and use English outside the ODL classroom.

Motivational factors in language learning

Motivation in language learning has always correlated highly with success in language learning. Conversely, serious difficulties in language learning affect motivation adversely. A distinction commonly made is between intrinsic and instrumental motivation. 'Intrinsic motivation' means a desire to learn the language while 'instrumental motivation' refers to more practical reasons for language learning like getting a job or passing an examination (Richards, 1998). 'Strategies associated with instrumental motivation focus on achieving a goal and on the literal aspects of a task and requirements of the syllabus'

(p.307). Some studies have found that it is intrinsic motivation which correlates highest with success in language learning. Lin and Detaramani (1998) showed that the lower the intrinsic motivation, the more there was a feeling of being forced to learn, the lower was English attainment.

Besides motivational factors, other factors that may affect language learning include consecutive trial and error learning. It has been observed in many research studies that children's acquisition of the first language is easy and almost effortless but they always find problems and make mistakes when learning a second language. Based on the experience of learning the first language, it is always beneficial to analyze the influence of the first language on the second language acquisition, which may ultimately facilitate the teaching and learning processes. As stated by Corder (1981), 'efficient language teaching must work with, rather than against, natural processes, facilitate and expedite rather than impede learning' (p.77).

In fact, second language acquisition is a developmental process, in which the learners are inevitably making errors which should be treated as an integral part of learning (Dulay, 1982; Gorbet, 1979). Corder (1981) even believes that learners' errors should be categorized and analyzed, and the psychological process of how learners commit such errors should be studied. Error analysis therefore plays an indispensable role in understanding second language acquisition.

Among various language skills, efficient retrieval of vocabulary is of vital importance in timed writing examinations. Therefore, this study is mainly concerned with analyzing lexical errors occurring in the written samples of ODL students' examination answers in the NOUN, and aims at throwing a spotlight on both the theoretical development and practical teaching methodology in the area of error analysis.

LITERATURE REVIEW

It is useful for students to master the specific features of the English lexical system when learning English as a second language. Two main categories can be found in the lexical characteristics of English. They are the lexical form and lexical meaning (Robinett 1978, p. 113-127). This study will be based on these two lexical characteristics to investigate the lexical error in ODL students' essay answers in the 300 and 400 level B.A. English examinations.

Studies of second language acquisition

Two levels of second language behaviour for the students should be emphasized: firstly, to be able to write grammatical sentences with confidence, and secondly, to

be able to express their own meaning in the writing (Rivers, 1972, p.13-17). The lexicon is the major meaning-carrying element in language and that is why its acquisition is an integral part of learning a second language

Lexical learning is an on-going process (McNeill, 1990, p. 141). Lexicon acquisition is also a "mental discipline with memorization of vocabulary lists" (Robinett, 1978, p.162) under traditional teaching method. Both first and second language learning attach great importance to vocabulary leaning for a number of years within the language teaching programme. The format of the mental lexicon is different from L1 to L2. The relative stability of responses to word association is indicated in monolinguals, but not found in L2 learners. Meanwhile, the second language mental lexicon is only different from the first language lexicon as the former has a far smaller amount of words and "does not (yet) need the sophisticated storage and retrieval faculty of the L1 mental lexicon" (McNeill. 1990, p. 143).

According to Ellis and Tomlinson (1980), second language lexicon acquisition is related to the students' ability to recognize vocabulary. Active and passive vocabularies come from different levels of recognizing the lexicon. On one hand, learners' passive vocabulary includes the total number of lexical items that they can understand correctly. A new lexical item seldom accumulated straightly into the learners' passive vocabulary, but it usually passes a transition stage of partial understanding. Students increase their understanding for a new word when they read the word more often. On the other hand, students' active vocabulary consists of the total number of lexical items that they can accurately use in speech and writing. McNeill (1990) also agreed that the "receptive control" of words recognizing a word gained by students is earlier than the "active control" of the vocabulary items being able to use the word (McNeill, 1990, p.142). Therefore, many lexical items never come to the part of the productive capacity and left in the part of receptive competence. However, both the receptive and productive lexical items do not include specialized vocabularies which are used for a particular job or profession.

Learners are encouraged to learn together with the job or profession itself. For example, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or Scientific and Technical English (STE) are connected to the specialised lexical items with various professional or technical fields (Robinett, 1978, p. 132).

Second language acquisition also involves many interrelated factors. Dulay et al. (1982) identify four broad features of the environment which may affect not only the rate but also the quality of second language acquisition. They are the naturalness of language, the learner's role in communication, the availability of concrete referents to clarify meaning, and the target language models.

Whether a language environment is natural depends on

where the focus of communication is. If the speaker's focus is on the content of the message communicated, the language environment is natural. Studies show that second language learners in a natural language environment where the focus is on communication achieve overall better results than those who study in a formal environment where the focus is on acquiring linguistic rules. Spolsky (1989) claims that second language learner needs opportunities to 'match his own knowledge with that of native speakers' (p.169). An ideal situation for learning a second language is therefore a total immersion situation or a real-life situation (Hall, 1973).

Concept of errors

Error Analysis owes its place as a scientific method in linguistics to the postulations of S.P. Corder. Interestingly, before Corder, linguists observed learners' errors, divided them into categories, tried to see which ones were common and which were not, but not much attention was drawn to their role in second language acquisition. It was Corder who showed to whom information about errors would be helpful (teachers, researchers, and students) and how.

Corder, in his article "The significance of learners' errors", introduced some major concepts which are presented below:

- 1) The learner determines what the input is. The teacher may present a linguistic form, but this is not necessarily the input, but simply what is available to be learned. 2) Keeping the above point in mind, learners' needs should be considered when teachers/linguists plan their syllabuses. Hitherto, syllabuses were based on theories and not so much on learners' needs.
- 3) Mager (1962) postulated that the learners' built-in syllabus is more efficient than the teacher's syllabus, and Corder reaffirmed that if such a built-in syllabus exists, then learners' errors would confirm its existence and would be systematic.
- 4) The distinction between systematic and non-systematic errors was introduced by Corder. Unsystematic errors occur in one's native language; He calls these "mistakes" and states that they are not significant to the process of language learning. He also keeps the term "errors" for the systematic ones, which occur in a second language.
- 5) Learners' errors show the teacher a student's progress; they show the researcher how a language is acquired and the strategies the learner uses, while they show the learner how he/she can learn from these errors.
 6) When a learner has made an error, the most efficient way to teach him/her the correct form is not by simply giving it to him/her, but by letting him/her discover it and test different hypotheses.

7) Many errors are as a result of transfers of the learner's native language. Corder claims that possession of one's native language is facilitative. Errors in this case are not inhibitory, but rather evidence of one's learning strategies.

The above postulations played a significant role in linguistic research, and in particular in the approach linguists took towards errors.

Mistakes versus errors

All students make mistakes, even when we are using our mother tongue. Ellis and Tomlinson (1980, p. 259) defined an error as "when a language learner unconsciously breaks the unwritten rules of the target language as a result of faulty learning, he makes an error." After a careful observation of ODL students in NOUN, it was discovered that the reason why the ODL students commit errors is habitual and systematic. They are affected by peers, the mass media and a personal unwillingness to regularly communicate in correct, intelligible and functional English.

The classification between errors and mistakes is hardly identified. According to Ellis and Tomlinson (1980, p. 259), if students usually use a lexical item correctly but get it wrong once, it is obviously a mistake. On the other hand, when the students use the same vocabulary wrongly then they are almost certainly making errors. However, in the present study, mistakes and errors would not be differentiated; that is all mistakes will be counted as errors. Although in everyday life the term "mistake" and "error" may sometimes be used interchangeably especially when they are referring to the same language phenomenon; there are still differences in meaning between the two terminologies. While a mistake can be self-corrected and thus not a consistent language phenomenon in learner performance, error is necessarily a more persistent and consistent phenomenon in L2 performance since the occurrence of errors accompanies his development of L2 proficiency. The more proficient he is, the less frequent the errors he will make. However, the frequency of mistakes and errors any L2 learner will make as his L2 proficiency improves is hardly predictable. Error is of utmost importance when marking students' writing.

Teachers are intent to begin their markings with issues concerning errors (Harris 1997; Kline 1996; Greenbaum et al., 1981; Bamberg, 1981). Their holistic impressions and judgments of students' compositions are always connected to the errors. They usually remain more spaces for marking and correcting the errors. Meanwhile, teachers focus on the surface errors in the writing of students. Haswell (1988, p.479-494) has defined eight surface errors, such as:

1. Misinformation of possessives: mistakenly add or does

not add an apostrophe after nouns or pronouns

- 2. Faulty predication: when main verb(s) do not agree in number with the subjects
- 3. Faulty pronoun reference: when the pronoun and the reference in its immediate antecedent do not agree in the number or gender
- 4. Faulty syntactic parallelism: when different grammatical classes, for example noun and adjective are put together
- 5. Wrong punctuation of final free modifiers: when final modifiers are preceded by no punctuation, a semicolon, or a full stop
- 6. Sentence fragments: when grammatically dependent fragments are punctuated as a complete sentence
- 7. Common splices: when two dependent clauses are linked only by a comma or by no punctuation
- 8. Misspellings: spelling errors

According to Connors and Lunsford (1988, p.400-401), there are more than forty items of "formal errors" and "mechanical errors" that can be identified in students' writing. All the formal error items are divided into a more detailed one when comparing with the "eight surface errors". This however, depends on relatively more error patterns and the patterns of how the teacher marks the errors. They also postulated that two factors determine how language teachers mark errors: how serious or annoying the error is perceived to be at a given time for both teacher and student, and how difficult it is to mark or explain. Interestingly, many language teachers do not necessarily mark every single error in the students' written work.

Many teachers and researchers treat errors as the most important factor in language learning, since they believe that error reduction leads to improvement (Bright and McGregor, 1970; Broughton et al., 1988). After teachers mark the error, their students correct it. From this trial and error experience, the more error they made, the more they would learn.

Category of errors investigated

According to Engber (1995, p.145-146), lexical errors are more likely to be investigated because of lexical item acquisition which implies that the learners understand both its meaning and form. This study is based on the lexical errors applied in Engber's research, including lexical choices and forms. Lexical choice includes individual and combined forms of lexical items error. Individual lexical items error mean single lexical item were selected wrongly, that is semantically unrelated or closed. Errors concerning combined lexical items also represent multiple lexical items. Those that included two or more lexical items and phrases were selected. Lexical forms involve derivational and spelling errors. Derivational errors are caused by incorrect lexical form between different word classes. Therefore, spelling errors include

words which may not be phonetically related, semantically irrelevant, and terribly distorted in the written work presented for assessment.

METHODOLOGY

This study adopts a corpus-based approach to investigate the frequency and classification of lexical errors in groups of ODL students in the National Open University of Nigeria. Corpus-based approach looks at spoken or written data found in everyday life (Biber et al., 1998). It aims at enhancing our understanding of second-language acquisition, collecting data for the other perspectives on lexical errors, such as inter-language and non-standard target lexis.

Subjects

The subjects for this study were randomly selected 300 and 400 level students undergoing the B.A English programme in the university. These categories of students were selected because the university regulation stipulates that all their examinations have to be manually written.

Twenty students from the Ikeja study centre in Lagos were selected for the study. No emphasis was placed on gender.

Data collection

The data for investigating the lexical errors were the examination answer scripts for the ENG 314 (Public Speaking) and ENG 411 (English for Specific Purposes) 2012 first semester examinations conducted by the university. We assume that the students were highly motivated to write and submit good answers having prepared for the examinations.

Data analysis

For the sample essay analysis, this study focused on the investigation of students' writing which were submitted as answers to examination questions. The study specifically compared the lexical errors in the essay answers written by students who come from two groups (300 level and 400level). Five subjects were selected in one group with high proficiency in English, and the other group of five subjects with lower proficiency. They were all categorized based on the various marks they scored in the examination. The study also focused on four types of lexical errors. With reference to Engber (1995, p.146), lexical errors are divided into two main categories: lexical choice and lexical form. Lexical choice includes individual and combined lexical items, while lexical form involves derivational errors and spelling errors.

RESULTS

Findings of lexical errors

The sum of lexical errors was determined by counting errors in each sample composition presented in the students' answers and adding all the errors together. Distribution of different lexical errors is plotted as a circle chart in the findings. Besides, the percentage of lexical

error (%LE) is defined as the ratio of the total numbers of lexical error per sample essays to the sum of words per sample essays written by the same subject (Engber, 1995, p.147).

Considering the prediction for the findings, we observed that the majority of lexical error will be the errors of choice because it is more complex than the errors of lexical form. Meanwhile, this error is difficult to avoid even with the aid of dictionaries, because it is concerned with the students' own knowledge of lexical items. When suitable lexical items cannot be thought of, the students would be unable to find suitable ones even with the aid of dictionaries.

Table 1 provides the lexical error counts and percentage per student. Overall, it is obvious from Table 1 that the group of subjects with high proficiency in English and high scores in the examination committed far fewer lexical errors than the other group with lower proficiency in English and subsequent low scores in the examinations. Moreover, we also observed that the total lexical errors decreased nearly by half in percentage for the group of subjects with high proficiency in English. The total error deduction in finding is close to the prediction for total error counts from the two groups.

If we compare the mean of percentage for the total lexical errors found, we observed a slightly more complex pattern in the group of subjects with high proficiency in English. There is a relatively wide range of values in percentage for the total lexical errors from 1.34 to 3.81% among these subjects with high proficiency in English. The percentage of total lexical errors remained at around 4% for the group of subjects with lower proficiency in English.

However, from the comparison of different lexical error types, we found only one count difference between the two groups for the mean of derivational error counts. On the other hand, the mean, percentage of the individual lexical item error, combined lexical error and spelling error reveal the persistence of making more errors by the group of subjects with lower proficiency in English.

Findings of lexical errors across registers

Six different registers were collected from the two groups of subjects. Sample essay answers that required the students to discuss an issue, analyze or explain a concept, or even define and argue about a topic. The percentage of total lexical errors found exceeds 3% among the three registers. This obviously indicates a relatively high lexical error rate. These findings are similar to the prediction. The reason may be that the subjects did not get sufficient time to proof read their answers before submitting them. On the other hand, the percentages of total lexical errors decrease to around 2% for both the discursive and descriptive essay answers. The subjects may have found these questions easy to tackle during the

Table 1. Lexical error counts and percentage.

Group	Subject	Total number of words	Total lexical errors	Individual lexical items errors	Combined lexical items errors	Derivationa I errors	Spelling errors
	1	1494	35 (2.34)	10 (28.57)	10 (28.57)	7 (20.00)	8 (22.86)
High	2	2094	28 (1.34)	10 (35.71)	9 (32.14)	7 (25.00)	2 (7.14)
proficiency in	3	1525	31 (2.03)	12 (38.71)	8 (25.81)	8 (25.81)	3 (9.68)
English	4	1471	56 (3.81)	12 (21.43)	13 (23.21)	17 (30.36)	14 (25.00)
	5	1662	26 (1.56)	5 (19.23)	6 (23.08)	5 (19.23)	10 (38.46)
Mean		1649	35 (2.13)	10 (27.84)	9 (26.14)	9 (25.00)	7 (21.02)
Lower Proficiency in English	6	1070	51 (4.77)	18 (35.29)	20 (39.22)	5 (9.80)	8 (15.69)
	7	885	41 (4.63)	18 (43.90)	7 (17.07)	8 (19.51)	8 (19.51)
	8	1255	55 (4.38)	18 (32.73)	19 (34.55)	8 (14.55)	10 (18.18)
	9	1392	65 (4.67)	16 (24.62)	27 (41.54)	9 (13.85)	13 (20.00)
	10	1426	58 (4.07)	12 (20.69)	12 (20.69)	18 (31.03)	16 (27.59)
Mean		1206	54 (4.48)	16 (30.37)	17 (31.48)	10 (17.78)	11 (20.37)

Numbers in brackets () are the lexical error percentage and the others are the counts.

examination.

Errors are certainly of value and are important to the learning process. Thus teachers should feel delighted that students make errors of different types. This is because errors are the evidence of the learners' creativity. Secondly, they also present evidence for teachers to identify the progress of learners. Meanwhile, the learners' problem solving skills are activated through the errors they sometimes make. Errors are therefore, valuable information for teachers since they help teachers select which kinds of teaching materials and techniques are useful for their learners.

Spelling errors (SP)

These categories of errors were found a great deal in the essay answers of many of the students. The spelling of English words is difficult as the ability to spell is systematically developed across the years, and this happens only after a number of different kinds of encounters with words. There are four stages of encounters. Firstly, with the pronunciations of words, that is, phonological encounters. Secondly, visual encounters, the looks of words on paper. Thirdly, kinesthetic encounters which represent the feel of words as the hand moves to form them in writing. Finally, semantic encounters which indicate the meanings of words as they take their places in the contexts of sentences (Shaughnessy, 1977, p.161). Therefore, students commit spelling errors easily. Besides, spelling errors are also caused when the pronunciation of words are not helpful to its spelling (Greenbaum and Nelson, 2002, p. 246). Even if a speaker were to speak English in such a way as to voice every vowel and consonant and then to transcribe every sound with a letter that represented that sound, not only would his speech be tediously exact but he would still have problems with spelling, because of the unpredictability within orthographic system itself.

In the course of the study, it was observed that many of the subjects could not spell English words like 'pneumonia', 'pronunciation', 'committee', 'assessment', 'continuous' and 'conscience'. All of these contain either silent letters or even double consonants – which tend to pose serious aural comprehension to the students.

It is important to mention that one major limitation of this investigation is related to the convenience sampling method used in the study with all the subjects from the same study centre – Ikeja, Lagos. Therefore the results are not necessarily representative of the whole population of ODL students of the National Open University of Nigeria – nationwide.

Conclusion

Language acquisition is such a complicated phenomenon that no single approach or theory can truly explain it conclusively. While some methods are more effective in determining an aspect of second language acquisition, other aspects are not easily revealed. Those who are particularly interested in L1 interference may still seek the help of contrastive analysis to resolve many unanswered questions. The interference of L1 is undeniable in that some concepts are entrenched in our native language and the interpretation of such concept in L2 is inevitably

related to L1.

Comparing and contrasting L1 and L2 can therefore serve as an anticipatory platform to predict and avoid errors in L2. It gives invaluable insights onto second language acquisition in terms of the effects of mother tongue interference. Preventative measures can be outlined and implemented. But since contrastive analysis cannot predict all the errors learners are likely to make, it fails to facilitate the full understanding of second language acquisition process. Other areas like the strategies learners are adopting are dealt with by error analysis. Error analyses make use of the actual errors learners committed and look into the strategies used that are related to the source of errors. It explains the phenomena in which some strategies are more likely to invoke errors and thus gives implications to effective pedagogy. Nonetheless, it is important to note that learners learn regardless of how and when the materials are presented to them. According to Dakin (1969), it may be true that learners' strategy of learning is totally or partially independent of the methods by which he is being taught. And instead of looking at learner errors to determine what strategies invoke such errors, it is even more constructive and positive to look at the strategies adopted by successful language learners. Systematic case study of successful learner characteristics and strategies is certainly another popular trend implementing measures in second language acquisition. Subsequently, transfer is one major factor shaping the learners' interlanguage competence and performance. The learner can apply things they know about the mother tongue successfully and productively to the learning of any language. However, some of this transfer tends to be negative.

REFERENCES

- Aborisade P (2003). An analysis of Some Discourse Features in Biological Science Research Reports: Implications for EST Course. ELTT: A J. Teachers English Communication Skills, 2(2): 7-13.
- Adelabu B, Fadimu T (2004). An Examination of Written English Errors Among First Year Undergraduates in a Nigerian University ELTT. J. Teachers English Communication Skills, 3(1): 54-61.
- Adogwa TO (1992). A Comparative Study of Grammatical and Discourse Errors of Senior Secondary Three and First Year Undergraduate Students Unpublished M.Ed in TESL Dissertation Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria.
- Akeredolu-Ale B (2005). Remedying some Basic Pronunciation Errors through Perception and Production Drills: A Teacher' ELTT: A J. Teachers of English and Communication Skills, 4(1): 51-59.
- Bartholomae D (1980). The Study of Error. College Composition and Communication, 31(3): 253-269.
- Biber D, Conrad M, Reppen R (1998). Corpus Linguistics: Investigating Language Structure and Use. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

- Biggs J (1995). Motivating Learning. In J. Biggs and D. Watkins (Ed.) ClassroomLearning: Educational Psychology for the Asian Teacher. Singapore: Prentice Hall, 82-102.
- Bodunde HA (2005). Students' Perception on Effective Teaching and Learning of English and Communication Skills: An Approach to Needs Analysis. ELTT: A J. for Teachers of English and Communication Skills,4(2): 21- 28.
- Bodunde HA (2008). School Location and Proficiency in Oral English. ASSET Series C, 3(1): 80-85.
- Bodunde HA, Olanipekun FA (2009). Peer Critiquing as an Effective Strategy for Teaching Writing. Afr. Res. Rev. 3(5): 386-472.
- Bright JA, McGregor GP (1970). Teaching English as a Second Language:Theory and techniques for the secondary stage. London: Longman.
- Broughton G, Brumfit C, Flavell R, Hill P, Pincas A (1988). Teaching English as a Foreign Language. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul Press.
- Connors RJ, Lunsford AA (1988). Frequency of Formal Errors in Current College Writing, or Ma and Pa Kettle Do Research. College Composition Commun. 39(4):395-409.
- Corder SP (1971). Idiosyncratic Dialects and Error Analysis. IRAL, 9:147-160.
- Dakin J (1969). The Teaching of Reading. In H. Fraser and W.R. O'Donnell (eds.), *Applied Linguistics and the Teaching of English*. London: Longman., 107-111.
- Dulay HC, Burt MK, Krashen S (1982). Language two. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Engber CA (1995). The Relation of Lexical Proficiency to the Quality of ESL Compositions. J. Second Lang. Writing 4(2):139-155.
- Gorbet F (1979). 'To err is human': Error analysis and child language acquisition. ELT J. 34: 22-28.
- Greenbaum S, Nelson G (2002). An Introduction to English Grammar. Harlow: Longman.
- Harclau (2002). The Role of Writing in Classroom Second Language Acquisition. J. Second Language Writing, (4):329-350.
- Haswell RH (1988). Error and Change in College Student Writing.
- Written Communication, 5(4): 479-499.

 Jacobs GM, Crutis A, Braine G, Huang SY (1998). Feedback on Student Writing: Talking the Middel Path. J. Second Language
- Writing 7(3):307-317.

 Kroll B (2003). Exploring the Dynamics of Second Language Writing.

 Britain: Cambridge University Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. & Long, M.H. (1991). An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research. London: Longman.
- Laufer B (1991). The Development of L2 Lexis in the Expression of Advanced Learner. The Modern Language J. 75(iv): 440-448.
- Lee I (1997). In the Classroom Peer Reviews in a Hong Kong Tertiary Classroom. TESL Canada J. 15(1):58-69.
- Lee I (1998). Writing in the Hong Kong Secondary Classroom: Teachers' Beliefs and Practices. HKJAL 3(1):61-76.
- Lee I (2003). L2 Writing Teachers' Perspectives, Practises and Problems, Regarding Error Feedback. Assessing Writing 8:216-237.
- Lee I, Lee M, Ng R (1994). Fun after Hours: Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary School. Hong Kong: Education Department, Institute of Lanaguage in Education.
- Lin A, Detaramani C (1998). By Carrot and by Rod: Extrinsic motivation and English attainment of tertiary students in Hong Kong. In M. Pennington (Ed.), Language in Hong Kong at century's end. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Rivers P (1972). The restless generation: A crisis in mobility. Pp.13-17. Shaughnessy MP (1977). Errors and Expectations: A Guide for the Teacher of Basic Writing. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Spolsky B (1989).Conditions for second language learning Oxford: Oxford University Press.