

## **UNIVERSITI PUTRA MALAYSIA**

SPELLING ERRORS OF ARAB ESL AND EFL SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS AND THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARDS SPELLING AND WRITING

## **BANDAR MOHAMMADSAEED A. ALSOBHI**

FBMK 2017 36



## SPELLING ERRORS OF ARAB ESL AND EFL SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS AND THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARDS SPELLING AND WRITING



**BANDAR MOHAMMADSAEED A. ALSOBHI** 

Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia, in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

April 2017

## COPYRIGHT

All material contained within the thesis, including without limitation text, logos, icons, photographs and all other artwork, is copyright material of Universiti Putra Malaysia unless otherwise stated. Use may be made of any material contained within the thesis for non-commercial purposes from the copyright holder. Commercial use of material may only be made with the express, prior, written permission of Universiti Putra Malaysia.

Copyright © Universiti Putra Malaysia



## **DEDICATION**

This thesis is dedicated to my beloved and marvellous parents in Saudi Arabia; their love, inspiration and fervent prayers gave me the determination and power to complete this work. Also, I lovingly dedicate this thesis to my beloved wife, Nawf, without whose great encouragement and utmost care my PhD journey might still be incomplete. This work is also dedicated to my four children, Shomookh, Yusuf, Saud and Hoor, who have made me more enthusiastic than I could have ever imagined. I love you to the moon and back.



Abstract of thesis presented to the Senate of Universiti Putra Malaysia in fulfillment of the requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

## SPELLING ERRORS OF ARAB ESL AND EFL SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS AND THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARDS SPELLING AND WRITING

By

## **BANDAR MOHAMMADSAEED A. ALSOBHI**

**UP** April 2017

# Chairman: Sabariah Md Rashid, PhDFaculty: Modern Languages and Communication

English spelling has been described as troublesome because it lacks correspondence between its phonemes and graphemes. This makes Arab learners commit serious spelling errors while writing. The current study compares the types and causes of spelling errors made by Arab secondary school students across two contexts, ESL context in Malaysia and EFL context in Saudi Arabia. It also aims at identifying the relationship between the students' attitude towards spelling and writing as well as examines the relationship between writing ability and spelling accuracy among the Arab students.

The study adopted a mixed-method approach in order to acquire a deep understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. The participants of the study included 140 Arab secondary school students and four English language teachers from both contexts. The study involved quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. Whilst the quantitative data of the study was gathered via three instruments, namely, a spelling test, free composition and survey questionnaire, the qualitative data was gathered via face-to-face interviews with English school teachers who were teaching the Arab students in both contexts. As far as data analysis is concerned, the descriptive statistics was carried out to analyse the quantitative data, which were computed and interpreted by means of the SPSS whereas thematic analysis and inductive coding were used to analyse the qualitative data gathered from the interviews. The students' types of spelling errors were categorised based on Cook's (1999) classification of errors whereas the likely causes of spelling errors were inferred from the students' spelling tests and the English teachers' interviews.



The findings of the study indicate that the total number of spelling errors committed by the Arab students in Malaysia was smaller than their counterparts' in Saudi Arabia. Moreover, errors of substitution represented the highest percentage of errors in both contexts. Accordingly, the likely causes of spelling errors were attributed to the irregularity of English spelling, the students' limited knowledge of spelling rules and mother tongue interference as well as other non-linguistic factors. The findings also indicate that the Arab students in both contexts have positive attitude towards English spelling and writing. The findings also indicate that there was a significant positive correlation between the attitudes towards spelling and writing among the Arab students in Malaysia, but no significant correlation between the two variables in the Saudi context. The findings also revealed a positive correlation between spelling accuracy and writing ability among the Arab students in Malaysia but no significant correlation among their counterparts in Saudi Arabia. The study concludes that Arab learners in both contexts find English spelling difficult and perplexing. The study recommends that formal spelling instruction should be integrated with writing and reading lessons in the curriculum in order to overcome the students' spelling deficiency, which in turn, would facilitate the enhancement of ESL/EFL writing.

Abstrak tesis yang dikemukakan kepada Senat Universiti Putra Malaysia sebagai memenuhi keperluan untuk Ijazah Doktor Falsafah

## KESALAHAN EJAAN DALAM KALANGAN PELAJAR SEKOLAH MENENGAH ESL DAN EFL ARAB DAN SIKAP MEREKA TERHADAP EJAAN DAN PENULISAN

Oleh

#### **BANDAR MOHAMMADSAEED A. ALSOBHI**

April 2017

Pengerusi : Sabariah Md Rashid, PhD Fakulti : Bahasa Moden dan Komunikasi

Ejaan bahasa Inggeris telah dikenal pasti sebagai sesuatu yang menyusahkan kerana ia mempunyai kurang kesepadanan antara fonemnya dan grafemnya. Perkara ini menyebabkan pelajar Arab melakukan kesalahan ejaan yang serius dalam penulisan mereka. Oleh sebab itu, kajian ini membandingkan jenis dan penyebab kesalahan ejaan yang dilakukan oleh pelajar sekolah menengah Arab merentasi dua konteks, iaitu konteks ESL di Malaysia dan konteks EFL di Arab Saudi. Kajian ini juga bertujuan untuk mengenal pasti hubungan antara sikap pelajar tersebut terhadap ejaan dan penulisan di samping meneliti hubungan antara kebolehan penulisan dan ketepatan ejaan dalam kalangan pelajar Arab.

Kajian ini menerima pakai pendekatan kaedah campuran bagi mendapatkan pemahaman yang mendalam mengenai fenomena yang dikaji. Responden kajian ini, termasuk 140 pelajar sekolah menengah Arab dan empat guru Bahasa Inggeris dari kedua-dua konteks. Kajian ini melibatkan kaedah pengumpulan data kuantitatif dan kualitatif. Data kuantitatif dalam kajian ini telah dikumpul melalui tiga instrumen, iaitu, ujian ejaan, karangan bebas dan soal selidik tinjauan, manakala data kualitatif telah dikumpul melalui temu bual bersemuka dengan guru Bahasa Inggeris yang mengajar pelajar Arab dalam kedua-dua konteks. Dari segi analisis data, statistik deskriptif telah dijalankan bagi menggunakan cara SPSS, manakala analisis tematik dan koding induktif telah digunakan bagi menganalisis data kualitatif yang dikumpulkan dari temu bual. Jenis kesalahan ejaan pelajar telah dikategorikan berdasarkan klasifikasi kesalahan ejaan Cook (1999) manakala penyebab kesalahan bahasa yang mungkin terjadi telah dikenal pasti mengikut pengkategorian Al Jayousi (2011).



Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa jumlah bilangan kesalahan ejaan yang dilakukan oleh pelajar Arab di Malaysia adalah lebih kecil berbanding dengan rakan mereka di Arab Saudi. Lebih-lebih lagi, kesalahan penggantian mewakili peratusan yang paling tinggi dalam kedua-dua konteks. Sewajarnya, faktor yang mungkin menyebabkan kesalahan ejaan dikesan sebagai ketaksamaan ejaan bahasa Inggeris, pengetahuan pelajar yang terhad mengenai peraturan ejaan dan bahasa ibunda serta faktor bukan linguistik yang lain. Dapatan juga menunjukkan bahawa pelajar Arab dalam kedua-dua konteks mempunyai sikap yang positif terhadap ejaan dan penulisan bahasa Inggeris. Dapatan juga menunjukkan bahawa terdapat korelasi positif yang signifikan antara sikap terhadap ejaan dan penulisan dalam kalangan pelajar Arab di Malaysia, tetapi tidak terdapat korelasi positif yang signifikan antara kedua-dua pemboleh ubah dalam konteks di Arab Saudi. Dapatan juga memperlihatkan korelasi positif antara ketepatan ejaan dan kebolehan penulisan dalam kalangan pelajar Arab di Malaysia tetapi tidak terdapat korelasi yang signifikan dalam kalangan rakan mereka di Arab Saudi. Kajian ini, oleh itu, mencadangkan supaya pengajaran formal mengenai ejaan harus diintegrasikan dengan penulisan dan pelajaran bacaan dalam kurikulum yang baharu bagi mengatasi kesilapan ejaan pelajar.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In the name of Allah, the Most Gracious, the Most Merciful. I thank Allah, the Almighty, for providing me the strength, patience and perseverance in writing and producing this thesis. Hence, it is a pleasure to offer my sincere thanks to those who made this thesis a reality since it would never have become so without their constant assistance and support.

First and foremost, I would like to express my deeply felt indebtedness and gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Sabariah Md Rashid, Senior Lecturer in the Department of English Language/Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication for her expert guidance, continuous academic advice, valuable suggestions and constant feedback without which this thesis would have never been achievable. I greatly appreciate every amount of effort Dr. Sabariah has exerted to make my PhD research see the light of day. In fact, I consider myself extremely fortunate for being one of her postgraduate students. Dr. Sabariah's profound knowledge, continuous encouragement and infinite patience have made her an exemplary character of an academic supervisor.

Secondly, I would like to express my full appreciation and special gratitude to my first supervisor, Professor Chan Swee Heng, whose academic advice and on-going support assisted me to lay the foundation stone of this research before she had retired. I owe Prof. Chan a debt of gratitude for the generous efforts she exerted to make this thesis a reality.

I also extend my sincere thanks to Professor Ain Nadzimah Abdullah, my first cosupervisor, for her enthusiastic support and considerable encouragement. I consider myself extremely lucky to have a co-supervisor who devoted constant attention to my academic work, and who responded to my questions and enquiries so promptly. Prof. Ain's thorough knowledge, expert advice and constructive comments helped me considerably to complete this thesis.

I would also like to acknowledge Dr. Ramiza binti Darmi, my second co-supervisor for her patience and guidance during the whole period of the study especially in the writing process. I do appreciate Dr. Ramiz's immediate feedback and helpful suggestions which always put me on the right track.

I also would like to extend my grateful thanks to the experts Professor Awwad Ahmad Al-Harbi and Dr. Zaky Abuellif whose Arabic accurate translation enabled the respondents to understand the items of the attitude questionnaire easily and clearly.

My sincere thanks also go to the respondents, English teachers and students, who participated actively during the data collection process. I highly appreciate their invaluable assistance and patience.

Dr. Abed Shahooth Khalaf, I greatly appreciate your excellent assistance and tremendous supports during my PhD journey. I will never forget your valuable advice and the insightful discussions we had together.

Finally, I also would like to express my deep sense of gratitude to everyone who has encouraged me throughout my research journey.



I certify that a Thesis Examination Committee has met on 28 April 2017 to conduct the final examination of Bandar Mohammadsaeed A. Alsobhi on his thesis entitled "Spelling Errors of Arab ESL and EFL Secondary School Students and their Attitudes Towards Spelling and Writing" in accordance with the Universities and University Colleges Act 1971 and the Constitution of the Universiti Putra Malaysia [P.U.(A) 106] 15 March 1998. The Committee recommends that the student be awarded the Doctor of Philosophy.

Members of the Thesis Examination Committee were as follows:

#### Vahid Nimehchisalem, PhD

Senior Lecturer Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication Universiti Putra Malaysia (Chairman)

## Helen Tan, PhD

Senior Lecturer Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication Universiti Putra Malaysia (Internal Examiner)

#### Afida binti Mohamad Ali, PhD

Senior Lecturer Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication Universiti Putra Malaysia (Internal Examiner)

## Abdul-Fattah Abu-Ssaydeh, PhD

Professor University of Sharjah United Arab Emirates (External Examiner)

**NOR AINI AB. SHUKOR, PhD** Professor and Deputy Dean School of Graduate Studies Universiti Putra Malaysia

Date: 4 September 2017

This thesis was submitted to the Senate of the Universiti Putra Malaysia and has been accepted as fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. The members of the Supervisory Committee were as follows:

## Sabariah Md Rashid, PhD

Senior Lecturer Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication Universiti Putra Malaysia (Chairman)

## Ain Nadzimah bt Abdullah, PhD

Associate Professor Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication Universiti Putra Malaysia (Member)

## Ramiza bt Darmi, PhD

Senior Lecturer Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication Universiti Putra Malaysia (Member)

## **ROBIAH BINTI YUNUS, PhD**

Professor and Dean School of Graduate Studies Universiti Putra Malaysia

Date:

## **Declaration by graduate student**

I hereby confirm that:

- this thesis is my original work;
- quotations, illustrations and citations have been duly referenced;
- this thesis has not been submitted previously or concurrently for any other degree at any institutions;
- intellectual property from the thesis and copyright of thesis are fully-owned by Universiti Putra Malaysia, as according to the Universiti Putra Malaysia (Research) Rules 2012;
- written permission must be obtained from supervisor and the office of Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Research and innovation) before thesis is published (in the form of written, printed or in electronic form) including books, journals, modules, proceedings, popular writings, seminar papers, manuscripts, posters, reports, lecture notes, learning modules or any other materials as stated in the Universiti Putra Malaysia (Research) Rules 2012;
- there is no plagiarism or data falsification/fabrication in the thesis, and scholarly integrity is upheld as according to the Universiti Putra Malaysia (Graduate Studies) Rules 2003 (Revision 2012-2013) and the Universiti Putra Malaysia (Research) Rules 2012. The thesis has undergone plagiarism detection software

Signature: \_\_\_\_

\_ Date: \_

Name and Matric No: Bandar Mohammadsaeed A. Alsobhi, GS38139

## **Declaration by Members of Supervisory Committee**

This is to confirm that:

- the research conducted and the writing of this thesis was under our supervision;
- supervision responsibilities as stated in the Universiti Putra Malaysia (Graduate Studies) Rules 2003 (Revision 2012-2013) were adhered to.

Signature:	
Name of Chairman	
of Supervisory	
Committee:	Dr. Sabariah Md Rashid
Committee.	DI. Sabaman Mu Kashiu
Signature:	
Name of Member	
of Supervisory	
Committee:	Associate Professor Dr. Ain Nadzimah bt Abdullah
Signature:	
Signature:	
Name of Member	
Name of Member of Supervisory	
Name of Member	Dr. Ramiza bt Darmi
Name of Member of Supervisory	Dr. Ramiza bt Darmi

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

ABS ACF APP DEC LIST LIST	ROVAL CLARAT F OF TA F OF FIC F OF AP	ION BLES	i iii v vii ix xv xviii xix xx
CHA	APT <mark>ER</mark>		
	INTR 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.4 1.4 1.5 1.6 1.7 1.8 1.9 1.10 1.11 REVI	<b>RODUCTION</b> Background of the Study         Writing Systems         1.2.1       English Writing System         1.2.2       Arabic Writing System         Spelling: Definition and Importance         1.3.1       Developmental Stages of Spelling         1.3.2       Essential Components of Spelling         1.3.2       Essential Components of Spelling         1.3.2       Essential Components of Spelling         1.3.2.1       Phonological Awareness         1.3.2.2       Morphological Awareness         1.3.2.3       Orthographic Awareness         1.3.2.4       Semantic Awareness         1.3.2.5       Etymological Awareness         1.3.2.6       Visual Memory         Common Spelling Rules in English       1.4.1         1.4.1       The -s Inflectional Ending         1.4.2       The -ed Inflectional Ending         1.4.3       Silent Letters         Statement of the Problem       Objectives of the Study         Research Questions       Significance of the Study         Theoretical Framework of the Study       Definitions of Terms         Organisation of the Study       Definitions of the Study	$ \begin{array}{c} 1\\ 1\\ 2\\ 3\\ 6\\ 7\\ 9\\ 10\\ 11\\ 11\\ 14\\ 15\\ 15\\ 16\\ 16\\ 16\\ 16\\ 17\\ 17\\ 18\\ 18\\ 21\\ 21\\ 21\\ 21\\ 21\\ 22\\ 22\\ 23\\ 25\\ 25\\ 25\\ 25\\ 25\\ 25\\ 25\\ 25\\ 25\\ 25$
	2.1 2.2 2.3	Introduction The Model of the Study Contrastive Analysis: A Historical Perspective 2.3.1 Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) 2.3.2 The Three Versions of the CA 2.3.3 Criticisms of the Contrastive Approach	25 25 26 27 29 32

	2.4	Error Analysis	33
		2.4.1 The Difference between Errors and Mistakes	34
		2.4.2 Stages of a Learner's Errors	36
		2.4.3 Significance of Learners' Errors	36
		2.4.4 Procedures of Error Analysis	38
		2.4.4.1 Collection of a Sample of Learner	39
		Language	
		2.4.4.2 Identification of Learners' Errors	39
		2.4.4.3 Description of Learners' Errors	40
		2.4.4.4 Explanation of Learners' Errors	44
		2.4.5 The Limitations of Error Analysis	49
	2.5	Interlanguage Hypothesis	51
		2.5.1 Interlanguage Cognitive Processes	52
		2.5.2 The Phenomenon of Fossilisation	53
	2.6	Concluding Remarks on the Three Approaches (CA, EA and	55
		IL)	
	2.7	Previous Studies on Spelling Errors	56
		2.7.1 Error Analysis Studies in the Arab World	57
		2.7.2 Error Analysis Studies in Asia	60
		2.7.3 Error Analysis Studies in Europe	61
		2.7.4 Error Analysis Studies in Africa	62
	2.8	Concluding Remarks on Previous Studies	62
	2.9	Writing Skills	63
	• • •	2.9.1 The Purpose of Writing Skill	64
	2.10	Students' Attitude towards Spelling and Writing	67
		2.10.1 Studies on Students' Attitude towards English Spelling	69
		2.10.2 Studies on Students' Attitude towards English	70
		Writing	
		2.10.3 Studies on Spelling and Writing Relationship	71
	2.11	Summary of the Chapter	72
3	RES	EARCH METHODOLOGY	73
	3.1	Introduction	73
	3.2	Research Design	73
	3.3	Locations of the Study	75
	3.4	Population and Sampling Procedures	76
		3.4.1 Student-Participants in the SSKL	76
		3.4.2 Student-Participants in NSSJ	77
		3.4.3 Teacher-Participants in the SSKL	77
		3.4.4 Teacher-Participants in NSSJ	78
	3.5	Data Collection Methods	78
		3.5.1 Administration of the Instruments	79
		3.5.2 Spelling Test	80
		3.5.3 Writing Test	81
		3.5.4 Students' Attitude Questionnaire	82
	26	3.5.5 Teachers' Semi-structure Interviews	83 84
	3.6	Validity and Reliability of Instruments	84 85
		3.6.1 The Questionnaire in the SSKL	85

	3.6.2	The Questionnaire in the NSSJ	88
3.	7 Pilot St	tudy	91
3.	8 Ethical	Considerations	92
3.	9 Data A	nalysis	93
	3.9.1	Analysis of the Quantitative Data	93
	3.9.2	Analysis of the Qualitative Data	94
3.		ary of the Chapter	96
4 D		ND DISCUSSIONS	07
		AND DISCUSSIONS	97
4.			97
4.	<b>v</b> 1	of Spelling Errors	97
	4.2.1	Types of Spelling Errors Made by Arab ESL	97
	1.2.2	Students' in Malaysia	100
	4.2.2	Types of Spelling Errors Made by Arab EFL	103
	122	Students in Saudi Arabia	100
	4.2.3	Comparison of Types of Spelling Errors in Both	109
		Contexts	110
4.		le Causes of Spelling Errors Made by Arab Students	110
	4.3.1	Possible Causes of Spelling Errors Made by Arab	110
		Students in Malaysia	
		4.3.1.1 The Irregularity of English Spelling	111
		4.3.1.2 Students' Limited Knowledge of Spelling	117
		Rules	
		4.3.1.3 Mother Tongue Interference	119
	4.3.2	Possible Causes of Spelling Errors Made by Arab	121
		Students in Saudi Arabia	100
		4.3.2.1 The Irregularity of English Spelling	122
		4.3.2.2 Students' Limited Knowledge of Spelling	129
		Rules	101
		4.3.2.3 Mother Tongue Interference	131
		4.3.2.4 Absence of Spelling from Curriculum	133
		4.3.2.5 Difficulty of the Current Textbooks for Students	133
		4.3.2.6 Lack of Exposure to English	135
		4.3.2.7 Students' Lack of Motivation	136
	4.3.3	Comparison of Causes of Spelling Errors in ESL	136
	4.5.5	and EFL Contexts	150
4.	A Attitud	le towards Spelling and Writing by Arab Students	139
4.	4.4.1	Attitudes towards Spelling of Arab Students in	140
	4.4.1	Malaysia	140
	4.4.2	Attitude towards Writing of Arab Students in	141
		Malaysia	
	4.4.3	Attitudes towards Spelling of Arab Students in	142
		Saudi Arabia.	
	4.4.4	Attitudes towards Writing of Arab Students in	143
		Saudi Arabia	
	4.4.5	Comparison of Attitudes towards Spelling and	144
		Writing in Both Contexts	

	4.5	Relationship between Attitudes towards Spelling and 1 Writing	146
		4.5.1 Relationship between Attitude towards Spelling and 1 Writing in Malaysia	146
		<b>č</b>	147
		4.5.3 Comparison of Spelling and Writing Attitudes in 1 Both Contexts	147
	4.6	Relationship between Spelling Accuracy and Writing Ability	148
		4.6.1 Arab Students' Spelling Accuracy and Writing 1 Ability Relationship in Malaysia	149
		4.6.2 Arab Students' Spelling Accuracy and Writing 1 Ability Relationship in Saudi Arabia	149
		4.6.3 Comparison of Arab Students' Spelling Accuracy 1 and Writing Ability in Both Contexts	150
5	SUM	MARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 1	153
	5.1	Introduction 1	153
	5.2	Summary of the Study	153
	5.3	Main Findings of the Study	154
	5.4	Implications of the Study	159
	5.5	Contribution of the Study	160
	5.6	Limitations of the Study and Recommendations	161
	5.7	Summary 1	162
REFE	RENC	TES 1	163
APPE			183
			236
			237

C

## LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1.1	'Mapping options' for selected examples for English words	4
1.2	Examples of English Inflectional Prefixes	12
1.3	English Inflectional Suffixes	13
1.4	Examples of English Derivational Suffixes	13
2.1	Levels of Difficulty	30
2.2	Definitions of Error Analysis	34
2.3	A Sample Linguistic Category Taxonomy	41
2.4	Classification of Learners' Errors	42
2.5	A Sample of Learners' Grammatical Errors	43
2.6	A Summary of the Causes of Learner Errors	47
2.7	The Main Causes of Fossilization	54
2.8	The Six Essential Components of Writing	66
2.9	The Writing Purposes in the Current Study	67
3.1	Student-Participants' Basic Information	77
3.2	Teachers-Participants' Basic Information	78
3.3	Research Questions and Instruments	79
3.4	A Sample of TEEP Analytic Scale	81
3.5	Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for the scales N= 70	85
3.6	Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for the Scales	86
3.7	Pearson Correlation Coefficient between Questions and Scores	87
3.8	Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for the scale N= 70	89
3.9	Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for the Scales	89

3.10	Pearson Correlation Coefficient between Questions and Scores	90
4.1	The Five Most Commonly Misspelt Words by Type	100
4.2	The Five Highest Misspelt Words	102
4.3	The Lowest Five Misspelt Words	103
4.4	The Five Most Commonly Misspelt Words by Type	105
4.5	The Five Highest Misspelt Words	107
4.6	The Lowest Five Misspelt Words	108
4.7	Errors Caused by Phoneme-grapheme Inconsistency	113
4.8	Errors Caused by Confusing Homophones	115
4.9	Errors Caused by Silent Letters	116
4.10	Errors Caused by Double Consonants	117
4.11	Errors Caused by Limited Knowledge of Spelling Rules	118
4.12	Errors Caused by Mother Tongue Interference	120
4.13	Errors Caused by Phoneme-Grapheme Inconsistency	125
4.14	Errors Caused by Silent Letters	127
4.15	Errors Caused by Confusing Homophones	128
4.16	Errors Caused by Double Consonants	129
4.17	Errors Caused by Limited Knowledge of Spelling Rules	130
4.18	Errors Caused by Mother Tongue Interference	132
4.19	A Comparison of Possible Causes of Spelling Errors in both Contexts	137
4.20	A Comparison of the External Factors of Spelling Errors	138
4.21	The Three Highest Means of Students' Attitudes towards Spelling	140
4.22	The Highest Means of Student's Attitude towards Writing	141

4.23	The Three Highest Means of Students' Attitudes towards Spelling	143
4.24	The Highest Means of the Student's Attitude towards Writing	144
4.25	Students' Attitudes towards Spelling and Writing in both Contexts	145
4.26	Spelling & Writing Attitude Relationship	146
4.27	Spelling & Writing Attitude Relationship	147
4.28	Comparison of Spelling and Writing Attitudes in both Contexts	148
4.29	Spelling Accuracy & Writing Ability Relationship	149
4.30	Spelling Accuracy & Writing Ability Relationship	150
4.31	Relationship between Spelling Accuracy & Writing Ability	150
4.32	Group Statistics	151
4.33	Independent Samples Test	152

 $\bigcirc$ 

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1.1	The Essential Components for Spelling Skill	10
1.2	The Theoretical Framework of the Study	22
2.1	The Conceptual Framework of the Study	26
2.2	Procedures of Error Analysis	38
2.3	A Diagram of Interlanguage	51
3.1	The Mixed Methods Research Design	74
3.2	The Students' Attitudes towards Spelling and Writing	82
4.1	Number and Types of Spelling Errors	99
4.2	Number and Types of Spelling Errors	104
4.3	Arab Students' Types of Spelling Errors in both Contexts	109
4.4	Possible Causes of Spelling Errors	110
4.5	Errors Caused by Irregularity of English Spelling	112
4.6	Possible Causes of Spelling Errors	122
4.7	Errors Caused by Irregularity of English Spelling	123

## LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix		Page
А	Location of The Study –SSKL / NSSJ	183
В	Sound-Spelling Correspondences in English	185
С	Consent Forms	190
D	Student's Spelling And Writing Tests	194
Е	Writing Assessment Scoring Guide	196
F	Students' Questionnaire	197
G	Teacher's Interview Guide	199
Н	Students' Types of Spelling Errors	200
Ι	Teachers' Interviews	219
J	Attitudes Towards Spelling And Writing	226
K	Samples From the Written Tests	230
L	The Committee of Experts	232
М	The Raters' Biodata	233
Ν	Student's Biodata	235

(G)

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SSKL	Saudi School in Kuala Lumpur
NSSJ	Al-Nahrawan Secondary School in Jeddah
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
CA	Contrastive Analysis
EA	Error Analysis
IL	Interlanguage
САН	Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
SWST	Single Word Spelling Test
MSA	Modern Standard Arabic

#### **CHAPTER ONE**

## **INTRODUCTION**

Even the best speller has moments of uncertainty and may fail on some occasions to retrieve the right spelling. But what is particularly challenging is the case of the poor spellers who cannot do precisely that which the good speller does so effortlessly. –Uta Frith: Handbook of Spelling, 1994

## **1.1 Background of the Study**

Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is given a high priority due to its prominent role in promoting human life. Accordingly, the Kingdom devotes special attention to make education become more effective and to meet the religious, economic and social needs of the country. Thus, the Saudi government aims at promoting good citizens who serve the community as a whole and keep pace with the global development. From the education development point of view, nowadays there are over twenty-five universities established across the Kingdom in which the students can major in any of the various academic specialisations available and obtain the first degree. In addition, Saudi students can be awarded scholarships in different disciplines needed in the country provided that they fulfil the requirements set out by the Ministry of Education. Over the past ten years, more than eighteen thousand students benefited from King Abdullah Scholarship Program. The Program enables the Saudi applicants join international universities in more than twenty countries such as the USA, Britain, Germany, Canada, Malaysia and Singapore (Ministry of Education).

The Ministry of Education receives larger budget allocations and gets more generous support than ever before. Consequently, more schools and academies have been established within Saudi Arabia and abroad. For example, there are twenty Saudi schools located in a number of countries such as Malaysia, Turkey, Germany, India and Pakistan which accommodate students from kindergarten through the 12<sup>th</sup> grade (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia, Washington D.C.; Al-Sobhi, 2013). These schools are under the supervision of both the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Education, and their main aims are to serve the Saudis who work, study or live abroad, to spread Islam and to establish strong relationships with other countries (General Directorate of Saudi Schools Abroad, 1984).

In line with the educational development in Saudi Arabia, English receives a special attention and has strong presence as a foreign language taught in the Saudi educational system. Accordingly, the Saudi students study English for a total of nine years starting from grade four to grade twelve. Throughout these grades, the students



take four 45-mintue periods of English instruction per week. The great significance that English has among other subjects can be clearly seen in the recent English curricula which were implemented in 2011. The Ministry of Education introduced three different series of English textbooks for the three levels of education, which are the primary, intermediate and secondary in order to improve the students' language proficiency. As far as English curriculum is concerned, students from grade four to grade six follow a series called *Smart Class* whereas those in intermediate level study *Full Blast* and finally *Traveller* is taught in secondary level. These curricula are aimed at developing the students' use of English language skills in a communicative way. Apart from that, they also broaden the students' intercultural awareness which does not only enable them understand their own culture better but also the other cultures around the world (Mitchell and Malkogianni, 2011). The new series also improves and integrates all the language skills through a variety of communicative tasks which develop the students' way of thinking and enhance their language ability.

Being the most commonly spoken language in the world, English plays an important role in developing the world's education and business. For this reason, it is given a high priority in the education curriculum in Arab countries. For example, students who acquire high proficiency of English will be able to get an excellent chance to join local or international universities. In spite of all the efforts given to English as a foreign language learnt in universities, schools and institutions, Arab students still encounter a number of problems while learning writing skills in general and spelling skill in particular. Most of the spelling difficulties which the students encounter are due to their little knowledge of the English writing system, i.e. the specific rules used in writing. Studies carried out by Al-Jarf (2008) revealed that the Saudi students showed serious spelling difficulty especially at the phonological and morphological levels. She concluded that the majority of the participants were transferring Arabic spelling system into English which led to different spelling errors. Besides, spelling is normally ignored and not given any importance in the language courses which led to poor spelling (Al-Jarf, 2010). In spite of the early introduction of English in the Saudi schools, the students still encounter enormous difficulties in spelling especially in vowel representation and silent letters (El-Dakhs & Mitchell, 2011). In order to overcome spelling difficulties, it would be important to understand the nature of English orthography, including some key concepts about the English writing system.

## 1.2 Writing Systems

Although the word 'writing' conveys versatile senses, the context can help the audience determine the exact meaning referred to (Rogers, 2005). For example, *writing* can mean handwriting: *Your writing is very neat*. It can also refer to style, i.e. the way and manner which people use to express themselves in a written form: *Alan's writing has improved after taking some courses in literature*. Writing also refers to any language writing system: *English writing goes from left to right*. Coulmas, (2003, p.1) defines writing as 'a system of recording language by means of visible or tactile marks which relate in a systematic way to units of speech.' As

far as writing system type is concerned, it can be described as either logographic, syllabic, alphabetic or consonantal (Finegan, 2008). Logographic writing system represents words and morphemes through graphic signs instead of sounds or syllables such as Chinese characters. Written symbols such as <%> 'percentage', <\$> 'dollar' and <3> 'three' are also logographic. Unlike logographic forms, the other three types are phonographic because of the grapheme-phoneme relationship (Scholfiled, 1994). A writing system is called syllabic if it employs a set of symbols representing the pronunciation of a syllable such as Tamil in India whereas it is described as alphabetic when a set of graphic units represents distinctive sounds, i.e. phonemes such as English (Finegan, 2008). In addition, consonantal writing system like Arabic is graphically represented by consonants and vowels which can be indicated by diacritical marks. (Coulmas, 2003). On the other hand, Cook and Bassetti (2005) point out that the writing rules include five essential components: letter alphabet, writing direction, punctuation, orthographic constraints and soundto-letter correspondence. In the context of the current study undertaken, it is important to discuss these components in terms of two writing systems: English and Arabic.

## 1.2.1 English Writing System

English uses Roman alphabet in writing and has twenty-six letters. They are written from left to right and represented in either upper-case, such as <A B C> or lowercase, such as <a b c>. It has forty-four contrastive sounds divided into two main categories: twenty vowels and twenty-four consonants (Dalmolin, 2009). Furthermore, punctuation, including word spaces, is considered important in writing convention for the English language. It is used for two primary purposes: to indicate grammatical features, e.g. the apostrophe indicates ownership, as in Mary's car is new or to show features of spoken language such as pausing or intonation, for example, If I were you, I would study harder (Cook, 2004). In addition, the English writing system is made up of graphemes, which are small written units considered as the written representation of phonemes (Harris & Hodges, 1995). A grapheme may be single (known as a graph) such as or double (called a diagraph) like <ph>, <sh>, . Single and double graphemes are called simple graphemes. Compound graphemes, on the other hand, are simple graphemes doubled, such as <gg>, <tt>, or <ck> in words like <luggage>, <letter> and <kick> (Birch, 2014). To illustrate, a word like <fish> consists of three graphemes <f>, <i> and <sh> whereas the word <speak> has only four graphemes <s>, <p>, <ea> and <k>. In writing, the position of graphemes follows certain rules and does not occur arbitrarily. In order to avoid confusion, scholars of linguistics refer to words or letters inside angle brackets <> as graphemes whereas single diagonal slashes / / are used to represent phonemes. Joshi and Carreker (2009) state that

There are some rules or constraints in English orthography that govern grapheme sequences, position, and usage. For example, the sequence skr does not occur within a syllable; ck does not appear in the initial position of

words; v and j do not occur in the final position of words; and j, y, v, and w rarely or never double in English. (p.150).

Unfortunately, the notable lack of connection between sounds and letters makes English spelling inconsistent and unpredictable, therefore, students encounter serious difficulty due to this spelling irregularity (Nassaji, 2007; Dehham & Mohmmed 2008).

Finally, Cook and Bassetti (2005) describe the rules which combine sounds and letters and vice versa as grapheme-phoneme correspondence rules (see Table 1.1 below for an example). For instance, the grapheme  $\langle f \rangle$  has only one phoneme whereas the phoneme  $\langle f \rangle$  can have different graphemes  $\langle f \rangle fake$ ,  $\langle ph \rangle phone$ ,  $\langle ff \rangle buff$ , and rough $\langle gh \rangle$  (Carney, 1994). Conversely, the phoneme  $\langle a \rangle$  has four graphemes  $\langle a, ai, al, au \rangle$  as in *fat*, *plaid*, *half* and *laugh* respectively. For a complete list of sound-to-spelling correspondences see (Appendix B:i).

	Grapheme-phone Correspondence	me s		Phoneme-grap Corresponde	
Grapheme	Phonemic options	Example	Phoneme	Graphemic options	Example
<f></f>	/f/	fake	/f/	< f > < ph > < ff > < gh >	fake phone buff rough
<a></a>	/eɪ/ /ɑː/ /iː/ /e/ /aɪ / /əʊ/ /əː/ /ə/ /uː/	fake arm eat many aisle coat all canal beauty	/ei/	$\begin{array}{c} \langle a-e\rangle \\ \langle a\rangle \\ \langle ai\rangle \\ \langle aie\rangle \\ \langle aigh\rangle \\ \langle au-e\rangle \\ \langle ay\rangle \\ \langle c\rangle \\ \langle ca\rangle \\ \langle ce\rangle \\ \langle cei\rangle \\ \langle cei\rangle \\ \langle ceigh\rangle \\ \langle ce\rangle \\ \langle cey\rangle \end{array}$	fake angle aid aide straight gauge way cafe break vein weigh beret they
<k> <e></e></k>	/k/ silent silent	fake knee fake	/k/	<k> <c> <cc> <ch> <ch> <ck> <ck> <cq> <cq></cq></cq></ck></ck></ch></ch></cc></c></k>	fake arc occupy echo back acquire bouquet
	/eə/ /i:/ /e/ /aɪ / /ə/	there feel and eye angel			

Table 1.1 : 'Mapping options' for selected examples for English words

Note: From "A Survey of English Spelling" By Carney 1994, p.17 Routledge.

In addition to what has been said, there are different levels of phonological transparency (also referred to as 'orthographic depth') which describes the writing system as either phonologically transparent or opaque based on the connection between spoken and written forms (Bassetti, 2012). Accordingly, a language in which sounds and letters considerably correspond, is described as transparent whereas a language in which sounds and letters vary greatly is said to be opaque. However, the degree of transparency and opaqueness relatively varies from one writing system to another according to the type of the writing system used such as alphabetic, syllabic, consonantal or morphemic (Cook & Bassetti, 2005). Because of the lack of one-to-one correspondence between sounds and letters in English, its writing system is commonly considered phonologically opaque par excellence (Birch, 2014). English is alphabetic, i.e. one symbol represents one sound, either a consonant or a vowel (Birch, 2014). She states

English spelling violates the alphabetic principle in that there are fewer letters than needed to represent the sounds of English. Some letters are not needed: c, q, or x could be substituted by other letters: s, k, or ks ... English spelling is often considered chaotic or inconsistent; it is most certainly highly complex. (p.27)

On the other hand, the way in which English words are spelt or read is considered challenging especially to those who use a completely different writing system such as Arab learners. This sound-letter inconsistency negatively affects both spelling and reading and makes learners commit many serious errors in spelling. Bassetti (2012, p.450) also emphasized that

The level of phonological transparency of an alphabetic writing system affects reading and spelling. Users of phonologically opaque alphabetic writing systems rely more in whole-word units for reading and spelling ... and readers of transparent alphabetic writing systems rely more on grapheme-morpheme conversions for reading and phoneme-grapheme conversions for spelling.

As far as spelling is concerned, Al-Jabri (2003) revealed that substitution is the most common type of spelling error Omani learners make. Al-Mezeini (2009) asserted that 55% of the spelling errors in his Omani learners' writing are of sound-based nature. Al zuoud and Kabilan (2013) also showed in their study that the largest type of error committed by Jordanian English language students is substitution which is based on the relationship between sounds and written symbols. For example, sounds such as /p/ and /v/ are usually replaced with /b/ and /f/. Similarly, Dehham and Mohmmed (2008) found out that the complex correspondence between sounds and letters is the most difficult aspect of English spelling for the Iraqi EFL learners. It is worth mentioning that English vowels exhibit a greater difficulty than consonants, especially for learners of a phonetic language with a limited number of vowel sounds like Arabic (Al-Najjar, 2012).



Up to this point, much attention was given to the nature of the English writing system and how it works. The discussion was followed up by some previous studies which revealed that English orthography was problematic and illogical to the Arab learners especially in terms of the relationship between English sounds and letters. This discussion leads us to shed light on the nature of Arabic language writing system since these two languages, English and Arabic, came into existence from different origins.

## 1.2.2 Arabic Writing System

Arabic is a Semitic language originated in the Arabian Peninsula and gained its high reputation with the spread of Islam (Coulmas, 2003). It is the first language of about 206 million people spread mostly in the Middle East and North Africa (Allaith, 2009). Today, a large number of non-Arab Muslims around the world are eager to learn Arabic because it is the language of the Holy Qur'an, the Muslims' sacred book. Arabic has 28 letters written from right to left. Its writing system is consonantal, i.e. it relies more heavily on consonants than vowels. Generally speaking, Semitic languages share two common features. First, they involve diacritics which demonstrate different ways consonants and vowels are articulated based on their context and grammatical structure. These signs can be mostly seen in literary texts, school textbooks and above all in the versions of the Holy Qur'an, while the latter is rarely written or seen without these diacritical marks. It is worth noting that words written with diacritics 'called marked' are by far more accurate in terms of reading than those unmarked words. Thus, textbooks which are designed for Arab children and novice readers are fully provided with diacritical marks to specify the correct pronunciation of the written words. However, adults and advanced learners generally depend on the context or their previous knowledge to deduce the unseen diacritics (Abu-Rabia & Siegel, 1995). Second, words of Semitic origins are derived from one root usually made of three consonants which carry the meaning (Jensen, 1969; Allaith, 2009). For example, an Arabic learner can derive and inflect many words with different referents from the root کتب <ktb>/kataba/ (he wrote) such as book, writer, writing, written, office, library and so forth. The derivational and inflectional processes which Arabic words go through establish a high connection between Arabic semantic and formal similarities among Arabic words (Link & Caramazza, 1994). That is to say, all the words which are derived from one root are semantically and formally related to the root and to each other as well. In the above-mentioned example, the words *book*, *writer*, *writing*, *written*, office, library are semantically associated with each other.



In writing, letters of Arabic are connected to one another to form words, and they take different shapes based on their position in a word: initial, medial, final or independent (Habash, 2010). It is worth mentioning that the Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) is the official written language of the Arab World, and the language which is primarily used in media and education. Thus, dialectal Arabic which is used for communication is not stressed here because it considerably differs from the Standard Arabic. Arabic dialects 'are primarily spoken not written [they are not] taught in schools or even standardised although there is a rich popular dialect culture of

folktales, songs, movies, and TV shows' (Habash, 2010, p.1). It is widely believed among the Arab speakers that mastering MSA reflects how educated and knowledgeable the individual is. Therefore, it is 'a mark of prestige, education and social standing' (Ryding, 2011, p.485). Compared with English, Arabic sounds considerably correspond to letters. That is to say, there is almost a match between the graphs and sounds in Arabic, while English has no match in most cases which makes its spelling irregular (Abdul Ameer & Altaie, 2010; Link & Caramazza, 1994). Because of this irregularity, most Arab learners fail to spell out English words successfully. Thus, Arab learners should have basic knowledge of the English orthography skills in order minimize their spelling errors.

## **1.3 Spelling: Definitions and Importance**

Researchers and linguists have arrived at different definitions of the concept of spelling. For example, Graham and Miller (1979, p.2) describe spelling as 'the ability to recognize, recall, reproduce or obtain orally or in written form the correct sequence of letters in words.' On the other hand, Hodges (1984, p.1) considers spelling 'as a process of converting oral language to visual form by placing graphic symbols on some writing surface.' On the other hand, Lennox and Siegel (1994, p.93) view spelling as a process that 'involves integration of several skills including knowledge of phonological representation, grammatical and semantic knowledge as well as formulation of analogies with words in visual memory. In the same vein, Mesmah (2012, p.15) refers to spelling as the ability to produce words, orally or in a written format, by placing the letters of these words in an accurate sequence.' In addition, Staden (2010, p.1) offers a more comprehensive definition and describes spelling as 'a complex written language skill that draws upon a number of language abilities including phonological and visual skills, awareness of morphological structures and semantic relationships as well as knowledge of spelling rules.' It can be concluded from the previous definitions that correct spelling is a written or spoken product developed by a series of stages based on the learner's knowledge of the interrelated linguistic levels and visual memory skills as well.

There are a number of cogent reasons for learning to spell words accurately. One is that correct spelling makes the reader understand the written message clearly. Writing a text with incorrect spelling leads to unsuccessful communication between the writer and the audience. Thus, writers should have good competency in spelling in order to convey their written messages vividly and avoid distraction. Okyere (1990, p.1) asserts that

spelling is an essential skill for students to master because it allows for the clear expression of thought in written form. It is one of the important tool skills in written communication and an essential component of a total language arts curriculum.

In spoken language, a speaker who mispronounces words cannot be properly understood by listeners. Likewise, a writer whose words are written inadequately



may confuse the reader. It is worth noting that in a conversation, a listener has the opportunity to comment or request more clarification to get a clearer message because verbal mistakes can be corrected immediately. On the contrary, writing in general does not allow instant corrective feedback, instead, it receives a delayed response such as correcting the students' writing tasks (Ellis, 2009). Secondly, research has shown that there is a mutual relationship between spelling and reading. In other words, reading fluency requires two kinds of knowledge: spelling-to-sound correspondences and spelling and pronunciation of particular words (Gough & Wren, 2009). As a process, learning how to read a word necessitates readers to look at the spelling, pronounce the word, differentiate between the sounds and recognize how letters correspond to the sounds in that word (Ehri, 2005). Furthermore, Moats (2005, p.12) points out that 'spelling and reading build and rely on the same mental representation of a word, and knowing the spelling of a word makes the representation of it sturdy and accessible for fluent reading.' Thus, readers who understand English orthographic rules such as knowing that /f/ is represented differently in words like *cliff*, *phone* and *enough* are described as competent readers, and vice versa.

Thirdly, spelling demonstrates the writer's sound knowledge and efficient spelling creates a good impression about his academic proficiency. Parker (1991, p.46) points out that 'good spelling is regarded as the mark of a well-educated person, and because of this, it can affect a child's future opportunities and choices in life.' For example, a job applicant whose writing is full of mistakes may lose the opportunity to be a successful candidate. On the other hand, Warda (2005, p.2) asserts that 'spelling affects academic performance and grades since individuals with low spelling confidence and skills not only write less and more plainly, but may simply not be empowered to adequately express their knowledge in various subject areas.' For instance, an IELTS test taker is expected to have a lower band if he produces many noticeable mistakes in listening, reading and writing tasks, which include poor spelling that affects the overall score. For this reason, test candidates are required to practice well to avoid misspelt words especially the high frequency ones such as *beautiful, tomorrow, sciences, experience, beginning, remember*, etc. (Fry, 2000).

Because of the importance of spelling, teachers usually allocate a specific amount of time to teach the students the spelling rules, especially in primary schools, by providing them with different activities to enhance their word knowledge. In these activities, students can be exposed to the high frequency words through which the teacher concentrates on the key areas of spelling such as letters sequence in a word, the relationship between sounds and letters, spelling patterns, words with silent letters, and so forth. To illustrate the point, a teacher can implement different strategies such as sound patterns to facilitate spelling and makes it easy to remember. Rhyming pairs of words like *fan - ran*, *light - right*, *kind - mind*, *game - name*, *talk - walk* and so on are examples of sound patterns. The knowledge of spelling patterns enables the students learn more than one word at a time, and this encourages the students to learn spelling correctly and increases their confidence (Antenucci et al., 2011). Finally, for many years, a number of countries around the world such as the USA, Australia, Canada and India had sponsored a competition called *Spelling Bee* 

in which the participants are asked to spell out words with different levels of difficulty. The main purpose of this competition is to develop the students' spelling proficiency, expand their vocabulary and increase correct English usage that help them in their daily life (Duhon et al., 2001). Realising the role of spelling and word knowledge for the Arab students, local schools such as the Saudi School in Kuala Lumpur (SSKL) have been conducting a *Spelling Bee* as well for the primary level since 2012. As a preparation stage, the students are given a list of high-frequency words to practice within a two-month period, and then they are orally tested in different rounds of the competition. Upon giving an incorrect spelling of a word, the speller immediately drops out of the competition. In the final round, the qualifying spellers are asked to spell out words of different levels of difficulty. The judges declare the winner after he/she spells out all the words accurately.

It can be concluded from what has been said that learning to spell English words correctly is of great salience because it is part and parcel of people's everyday written communication and efficient spelling is a mark of language competence which leaves a mark on the status of language user. In addition, accurate spelling is also an indicator for learners' reading proficiency. In his study, Johnson (2013, p.13) concluded that

children who are good readers are often good spellers because spelling and reading are so closely related [and] spelling instruction improves reading performance. It is shown that students who improve in spelling instruction, also improve in writing fluency and reading word-attack skills. These findings show that spelling instruction can boost overall reading performance. If students have a higher knowledge of spelling, they are able to make more sense of the words that they are reading.

## 1.3.1 Developmental Stages of Spelling

In 1982, Gentry revealed that spelling is a product that passes through some sequential stages, and learners do not just learn how to spell words by memorising them, but rather they spell with an understanding of the implicit rules of the English spelling system. Despite the fact that these stages have a sequential pattern of development, it is important to remember that spelling ability improves over time, and a range in spelling proficiency should be expected at any age (Gentry, 2000; Fay, 2004). Gentry, (1982) categorized five stages which children go thorough while learning how to spell. First, children begin with a precommunicative stage through which they write letters randomly to represent a word. The letters are scribbled and drawn with no connection to the sounds of the word, e.g. RTAT for eighty. This stage is followed by a *semiphonetic stage* when children start to learn writing a letter or a group of letters based on sounds. They write the first and/or the last letter of the target word, e.g. a initial for eighty. During the phonetic stage, children write the letters as they sound e.g. ate for the initial sound in eighty. At this stage, children can represent almost a complete letter-sound correspondence. Later, at the *transitional stage*, the spelling visually resembles the correct form of the word, and the child perceives certain English spelling rules such as the use of diagraph patterns, e.g. <qu>, <st>,

 $\bigcirc$ 

<ea>, <ai> and silent letters. As a result, he may write *eightee* for *eighty*. Finally, over a long period of practice and instruction of the English orthography system, the child writes the *correct spelling* of the word. Mesmah (2012) adds that

The correct speller also accurately spells prefixes, suffixes, contractions, and compound words. He recognizes misspellings and uses alternative spellings to correct the mistakes. The correct speller also accurately spells prefixes, suffixes. Spellers in the correct stage also accumulate a large inventory of learned words. (p.31)

In essence, during the early stages of spelling development, children make a number of errors due to their lack of knowledge of English phonology, morphology and orthography. For instance, they omit some silent consonants <nee> for <knee>, misspell some suffixes <bodi> instead of <body> or misrepresent sounds <kar> for <car>. Each of the stages above as they move towards the correct spelling, is characterized by observations of spelling errors (Fay, 2004). Accordingly, the learner's errors are expected to progressively decline once his spelling competence gradually develops and his awareness of the spelling components rises.

## **1.3.2 Essential Components for Spelling**

The previous section has shown that learning to spell is a process developed through certain underlying linguistic knowledge rather than a mere memorization effort. Thus, learners need to understand the spelling patterns that apply to a large number of words in order to spell the words correctly (Templeton, 2004). In order to be a good speller, a learner needs to be aware of the six essential spelling components (see Figure 1.1) which are integrated from many aspects of a language. These six aspects are synthesized from the previous studies conducted by (Gillon, 2004; Carlisle 1995; Lawrence, 2008; Rathvon, 2004; Apel, 2011; Antenucci, 2011).



Figure 1.1 : The Essential Components for Spelling Skill

Linguists such as (Chomsky and Halle, 1968; Langacker, 1973; Ehri, 1980) suggested that every lexicon has different identities, namely, phonology, syntax, semantics and orthography. Accordingly, a word is comprised of certain sounds, carries a grammatical function, and has a specific dictionary definition. Besides its letters are sequenced and has systematic relationships to the phonological properties. Ehri (1980) noted that when words are read or written correctly their orthographic images are synthesized with the above-mentioned identities. That is to say, the word's phonological, syntactic and semantic identities are integrated together to form single units in the lexical memory.

## 1.3.2.1 Phonological Awareness

It refers to the learner's ability to identify and use the sound structures of a language. Gillon, (2004) determines three levels of phonological awareness in which a word can be broken down into smaller units: syllable, onset-rime and phoneme. First, the syllable level requires knowing that words are divided into syllables and each syllable contains a vowel sound such as *pen-cil* and *sand-wich*. These vowel sounds are normally either stressed or unstressed. For example, in the words above the first syllables (pen - sand) are stressed whereas the last ones (cil - wich) are not. Moreover, Onset and rime demonstrate the way in which single syllable words can be divided into a beginning sound unit known as onset and a rime unit containing the vowel and what follows it. In the word *think*, *th* is the onset of the syllable and *ink* is the rime. The awareness of onset and rime is usually recognized by rhyming words (Gillon, 2004) such as hill - fill and name - same. Finally, the phonemic awareness is third level of phonological awareness in words are segmented into phonemes - the smallest distinctive sound units. To illustrate, the word pen has three different phonemes /p/, /e/ and /n/. Changing one of these phonemes produces another word with a different meaning. For example, if the first phoneme is changed from /p/ to /t/or /h/, the words ten and hen would be heard. Griffith (1991) concluded that phonological awareness helps to create correct spellings, and children having high phonemic awareness skills are better spellers than those having low phonemic awareness skills in both first and third grades. Apel et al. (2004) asserted that the child phonemic awareness is a strong predictor of the early childhood spelling ability. It is worth noting that exposing learners of English to homophones, words with identical pronunciation but different written forms and meanings such as meet/meat and write/right, raises their phonological awareness decreases the complexity of English spelling. Because English homophonous words create difficulty in spelling and may affect comprehension especially when there is insufficient context, learning to spell correctly should not be neglected while learning the language. Besides, the students should be aware of the English morphological system as it helps them understand how word formation works.

## 1.3.2.2 Morphological Awareness

Morphology is defined as the study of internal word structure, i.e. the morpheme. A morpheme is the smallest constituent of a word that carries meaning. Carlisle (1995, p.194) refers to the morphological awareness as the learner's 'conscious awareness

of the morphemic structure of words and the ability to reflect on and manipulate that structure.' It also refers to the learner's ability to realise how affixes, i.e. prefixes and suffixes are added to the base word and what modifications are undergone while attaching these affixes (Apel et al., 2004). Prefixes are added to the beginning of words and serve to change their meanings (see Table 1.2) but they very rarely change the word class except the derivational prefix {en-} as in *en*circle, *en*rich and *en*force. However, there are a number of inflectional prefixes which alter the word's meaning. For example, prefixes like {a-, anti-, un-, dis-} express negation whereas {infra-, sub-, trans-, re-} describe direction (Nagy et al., 2009). Notice that curly brackets { } indicate morphemes.

Prefixes	Meanings	Examples
{a-}	not	abnormal
{anti-}	against	antibiotic
{un-}	not	unhappy
{dis-}	opposite	disapprove
{inter-}	between	international
{mal-}	wrong, bad	maltreat
{micro-}	small	microscope
{ex-}	former	ex-president
{co-}	together	cooperation

 Table 1.2 : Examples of English Inflectional Prefixes

Suffixes, on the other hand, are either inflectional or derivational. Inflectional suffixes are added to the end of words to indicate grammatical categories such as plural (*books*), person (*reads*), tense (*studied*) and possession (*Sam's*). In English, there are eight inflectional suffixes as shown in Table 1.3. These suffixes are essential for the construction of grammatical sentences. For example, the subject and verb must agree in person and number. This means that singular subjects demand plural singular verbs, e.g. *The boy is playing football* and plural subjects demand plural verbs, e.g. *The boys are playing football*. Accordingly, the plural and person suffixes are syntactically related (Plag, 2003).
Suffixes	Examples	Functions	Word categories
1. {-s pl.}	students	- plural number	noun
2. {-s ps. }	student's	- singular possessive	
3. {-s 3rd}	plays	- present 3 <sup>rd</sup> person singular	
4. {-ING vb}	playing	- present participle	verb
5. {-D pt}	played	- past tense	
6. {-D pp}	played	- past participle	
7. {-ER cp}	taller	- comparative	adjective
8. {-EST sp}	tallest	- superlative	

#### Table 1.3 : English Inflectional Suffixes

Note. Adapted from 'Inflectional Morphology,' by E. Finegan, 2008,

Language: Its Structure and Use, p. 55. Copyright Thomson Wadsworth.

In addition, derivational suffixes (as illustrated in table 1.4) are attached to the base form to create a new word category. For instance, one can derive many word classes from the word *beauty* like *beautify*, *beautiful* and *beautifully*.

Suffixes	Examples	Word categories
{-age} {-ation} {-dom}	coverage education kingdom	noun
{-en} {-ify} {-ise}	broaden certify organise	verb
{-ful} {-less} {-ous}	careful useless delicious	adjective
{-ly}slowly{-wards}inwards{-wise}clockwise		adverb

 Table 1.4 : Examples of English Derivational Suffixes

 $\bigcirc$ 

Understanding the morphological changes enhances the learner's ability to spell out words correctly and facilities his reading comprehension. Lawrence (2008) noted that morphological awareness plays an important role in the spelling of base, inflected, and derived words. O'Sullivan (2007, p.29) also observed that the 'children's awareness of word structures and their meanings, including suffixes and prefixes, played an increasing role in their ability to make the right choices when spelling.' In addition, the learners' morphological awareness includes learning spelling patterns such as careful, graceful and thankful which end with the suffix {ful} or they learn through common spelling generalisations like: if a word ends in y preceded by a vowel letter (a-e-i-o-u), add -s or -ed such as plays and played. If the final -y is preceded by a consonant letter, change the -y to -i then add -es or -ed as in studies and studied. It is worth mentioning again that English is said to have a low degree of phonemic-graphemic correspondence. For instance, the two inflectional morphemes: the verbal past-tense {-ed} and the plural {-s} represent different allomorphs, i.e. have different pronunciations as in <called>, <walked>, <waited> and <books>, <dogs>, <dishes>. Because of such inconsistent letter-sound relationships, Arab learners of English who are expected to spell words like <waited> and <dogs> correctly would have problems and may produce them as waitid and dogz. Thus, developing morphological awareness marks a noticeable progress towards becoming a competent speller, that is to say, the learners' spelling proficiency increases when they know how new words are formed by attaching prefixes and suffixes to the base form. In spite of its importance, Westwood (2008) pointed out in his study that many teachers ignore teaching children about morphemes and word structure. Hurry et al. (2005) revealed that only 3 out of 17 teachers could even define a morpheme. They concluded that teachers' negligence of instructing morphological fundamental rules creates a serious problem in spelling ability.

#### 1.3.2.3 Orthographic Awareness

Earlier, the researcher has discussed the prominent role of phonology and morphology in increasing the learners' spelling knowledge. The correspondence between the above-mentioned linguistic aspects is the main concern of orthography. To differentiate between spelling and orthography, Sebba (2007, p.11) wrote 'I am spelling the words of this sentence according to the orthography of English using the Roman writing system.' He described spelling as a set of conventions for writing words whereas orthography is the application of those conventions. Orthography is also described as the 'system of printed symbols for representing the speech sounds in a written language which includes uppercase and lowercase letters, numeral and punctuation marks' (Rathvon, 2004, p.92). Orthographic knowledge helps learners recognize the rules on which letters are sequenced in a word. For example, English words never begin with double consonants, and consonant digraphs such as <ng> or <nk> are never shown in the word-initial position, but can normally appear in the medial and final positions in words like <sing>, <singing>, <linked> and <link>. Additionally, orthographic awareness is the learner's ability to recognise the one-toone correspondence between graphemes and phonemes, and vice versa. Ehri (1998) pointed out that orthographic awareness 'provides a powerful mnemonic system that bonds the written forms of specific words to their pronunciation in memory' (p. -15).

Because English spelling lacks grapheme-phoneme correspondence (see Table 1.1), it is frequently described as illogical and inconsistent. For example, words containing <ough> such as in <tough>, <thought>, <through>, <although>, <cough>, <plough> and <hiccough> are pronounced differently. Another example of an unpredictable pronunciation is the grapheme <oo> which indicates different sounds as in <book>,

<soon>, <door> and <blood> whereas the phoneme /u:/ can have different graphemes such as <ue, oe, ew, ough, o, oo, ou, wo, uo, u> as in <blue>, <shoe>, <flew>, <through>, <to>, <too>, <soup><two>, <you> and <flu> (Bell, 2009). As noted, orthographic depth is considered an influential factor which affects the spelling of language learners. To illustrate, Arabic is said to have a transparent orthography, i.e. each phoneme is orthographically represented by only one grapheme. For this reason, Arab learners find it difficult to spell English words which contain silent or double consonants such as <light>, <take>, <sitting> and <stopped>. Durgunoğlu et al. (2002) revealed that learners whose first language is highly transparent may use the sound-to-letter strategy to spell English words, which may cause spelling errors. Bancha (2013, p.12) added that 'errors on inflectional endings are meaningful as they give different meanings to the words, and it is impossible to add those inflected words accurately without linguistic knowledge'.

#### 1.3.2.4 Semantic Awareness

In order to spell words correctly learners should acquire some semantic knowledge besides the other linguistic elements viz phonology, morphology and orthography. Semantics is defined as the study of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences (Yule, 2010). Accordingly, semantic awareness is the learner's ability to realize the effect of spelling on word meaning or vice versa (Apel, 2011), i.e. spelling the target word incorrectly leads to a different meaning. Thus, a learner is required to select the right spelling for the right context in order to avoid spelling errors. In spelling, context plays a significant role in selecting the correct word, especially those words which look or sound alike, namely, homophones and homographs. Exposing learners of English to homophones, words with identical pronunciation but different written forms and meanings such as meet/meat and write/right, raises their linguistic awareness and decreases the complexity of English spelling. Because English homophonous words create difficulty to spell or comprehend especially when context is minimal, they should not be neglected while learning. Similarly, homographs, words with similar spelling but different pronunciation and meaning such as minute/minute and close/close, should be emphasized to enhance the learner's spelling and reading proficiency.

#### 1.3.2.5 Etymological Awareness

The word etymology refers to the scientific study of word origin. According to Durkin (2009), it is concerned with investigating and tracing of word history. Antenucci et al. (2011) pointed out that etymological knowledge includes six components. First, words that are borrowed from other languages such as *aster* in <astronaut> from Greek which means *star* and *centum* in <century>from Latin which means hundred. Second, acronyms, i.e. an abbreviation made up from the initial letters of words or phrases and pronounced as one word as in *NATO* (North Atlantic Treaty Organization). Besides, etymology includes neologism, i.e. new words and terms coined after an invention such as *nylon* and *Internet*. Also, blended words such as *gasoline* and *brunch* or words that are derived from names of people and places as *diesel* and *America* are considered parts of etymology. Etymology also



focuses on the origin of trade names such as *Gillette* and *Jacuzzi*. As for spelling, etymology answers the learner's puzzling questions concerning the way in which some English words are written such as the silent consonants as in *psychology*, *light*, *know* etc. Being aware of how these words exist in English broadens the learner's understanding of spelling conventions and helps him/her in writing errorless words.

### 1.3.2.6 Visual Memory

In addition to the language related features mentioned that affect spelling visual information also plays a significant role in deciding whether a word is written, correctly or not. The appearance of the word helps learners compare the new word with a similar word stored previously (Mpiti, 2012). Andrews and Scarratt (1996) observed that good spelling reflects an effective lexical storage in memory in which the word image is stored in the learner's mind and is recognized immediately by sight and written spontaneously. For example, learners can easily remember the spelling of words like friend, because, open, juice and starts as they respectively contain the implicit familiar words, namely, end, use, pen, ice and arts. Hendrickson (1967) stated that

As the child learns to visualize he learns to look and observe. He learns to see, listen, and know more. He learns to see more in less time. He learns the visual ability of substituting symbols for experiences, and he learns symbol manipulation as a visual activity which, when adequately learned, produces a good writer, good reader, and a good speller. When he can visualize a word, he can spell it, regardless of how it sounds. (p.42)

Moseley (1997) asserted that children greatly depend on the visual characteristics of a word after the phonetic stage. Researchers like Singelton, (1997); Medwell et al., (2007) and Westwood, (2008) revealed that visual imagery enhances the learner's spelling performance and helps learners spell out English irregular words better. Westwood (2008) added that the common LOOK-SAY-COVER-WRITE-CHECK spelling strategy activates the learner's visual imagery and helps him store the important words in memory. Ehri (1980, p.334) concluded that 'orthographic images ensure identification and production of printed words' therefore words can be read fluently and spelled out correctly.

## 1.4 Common Spelling Rules in English

As mentioned previously, English spelling has a reputation of being unmanageable because it does not show a high degree of correspondence between its phonemes and graphemes. For example, the phoneme /f/ can be represented differently in words like *fat*, *cliff*, *phone* and *enough*. Similarly, the sound /i:/ can be written with various forms as in *me*, *see*, *sea*, *key*, *field*, *pizza* and *receive*. On the contrary, one grapheme can have several phonemes. For instance, <c> can have various pronunciations such as *car*, *center*, *special* and *cello*. Likewise, the letter <k> is silent in *know* but pronounced in *key*. In spite of this inconsistency, there are some spelling rules which

can lower the possibility of spelling errors and guide foreign learners of English to the correct spelling (Carney, 1994; Alkhuli, 1997; Seaton, 2001; Ott, 2007; Upward and Davidson, 2011; Al-Najjar, 2012). The following summary of the most common spelling rules in English concerning the –s and –ed inflectional endings as well as the common English silent letters adapted from (Alkhuli, 2004).

## **1.4.1** The –s Inflectional Ending

The inflectional suffix <s> includes plurality, possessive, 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular presenttense and contraction. Here are the pronunciation and spelling rules for inserting final <s>:

- 1. If  $\langle s \rangle$  comes after the voiceless non-sibilant sounds /p, k, t, f,  $\theta$ /, it is pronounced /s/ as in *lips*, *books*, *hats*, *roofs* and *months*.
- 2. If <s> comes after the voiced consonant sounds /b, d, g, v, m, n, ŋ, l, r /, it is pronounced /z/ as in *cabs*, words, bags, gloves, dreams, fans, songs, walls and *doors*. This includes all the vowel sounds, e.g. *days*, keys, cows, toes, pies and boys.
- 3. If  $\langle s \rangle$  comes after a hissing sound, i.e. a sibilant or affricate consonants  $\langle s, x, z, \int, 3, t \int, d3 \rangle$ , it is pronounced  $\langle 12 \rangle$  as in *buses*, *foxes*, *prizes*, *dishes*, *garages*, *churches* and *bridges*.
- 4. If <y> is final and preceded by a consonant, change <y> to <i> and add <-s> as in *study/studies*, *cry/cries* and *apply/applies*. However, if it is preceded by a vowel, <y> remains unchanged, e.g. *play/plays*, *destroy/destroys*.

## **1.4.2 The –ed Inflectional Ending**

The inflectional suffix <ed> involves the regular past tense and the past participle of the verb. The following are the pronunciation and spelling rules for adding <ed>:

- 1. If <d> comes after voiced consonant sounds /b, g, v, ð, z, d3, m, n, ŋ, l, r, /, it is pronounced /d/ as in *robbed*, *hugged*, *loved*, *breathed*, *amazed*, *damaged*, *claimed*, *cleaned*, *called* and *offered*. This includes all the vowel sounds like *played*, *continued*, *followed*, *died and enjoyed*.
- 2. If  $\langle d \rangle$  comes after the voiceless consonant sounds /p, k, f, s,  $\int$ , t $\int$ , x/, it is pronounced /t/ as in *stopped*, *walked*, *laughed*, *missed*, *washed*, *watched* and *fixed*.
- 3. If <d> comes after /d, t/, it is pronounced /Id/ as in *studied*, *needed* and *heated*.
- Double the final consonant and add <-ed> if the verb has two syllables with stress on the second syllable, e.g. *admit/admitted*, *prefer/preferred*, *occur/occurred*. However, words with <ss> ending are exceptions, e.g. *confess/confessed*, *depress/depressed*.
- 5. If <y> is final and preceded by a consonant, change <y> to <i> and add <ed> as in *study/studied*, *cry/cried* and *apply/applied*. However, if it is preceded by a vowel, <y> remains unchanged, e.g. *play/played*, *destroy/destroyed*.

## 1.4.3 Silent Letters

Silent letters are those letters which are seen but not heard. Here are a few selected spelling rules for silent letters, and for a complete list see (Appendix B: ii). It is worth mentioning that the students' spelling test (see Appendix D: i) contains a number of words with silent letters, e.g. *night, writing, knew, environment, halves, because, adventure, treasure, favourite, bridge* and *responsible*.

- 1. Unlike Arabic, double consonants in English are pronounced as one phoneme, e.g. *apple, rubber, summer, letter, winner, connect* and *miss*.
- 2. If <mb> is final, <b> is silent as in *comb*, *lamb*, *limb*, *tomb* and *plumb*.
- 3. In words like *made*, *gene*, *fine*, *hope* and *cute* the final <e> is silent. However, it is a marker to distinguish the phonetic value, i.e. it changes the short vowels in *mad*, *gen*, *fin*, *hop* and *cut* to long ones. In other words, it makes the vowel say its alphabet name <a,e,i,o,u>. This rule is called the magic <e>. However, there are some exceptions to this rule in which the word ends in silent <e> but the short vowel remains unchanged as in *were*, *come*, *some*, *love*, *live*, *give*, *done*, *gone* and *have*.
- 4. In few English words, <h> is silent as in *exhibit*, *ghost*, *heir*, *honest*, *honour*, *hour*, *rhinoceros*, *rhyme rhythm* and *vehicle*, otherwise it is pronounced as in *home*, *honey*, *hope* etc.
- 5. If  $\langle k \rangle$  is initial before  $\langle n \rangle$ , it is often zero, e.g. *knew*, *knee*, *knife*, *knight*, *knob*, and *knot*.
- 6. If <l> is before a consonant and after a vowel is often zero as in half, walk, talk, chalk, could, should, palm, calm, and salmon. However, <l> is pronounced in other words like build, fault, assault, false malt, solve and falcon.
- 7. If <st> is medial, it is often silent as in *castle*, *fasten*, *hasten*, *listen* and *whistle*.
- 8. In a few English words, if <w> is initial before <h>, it is sometimes silent as in *who, whom, whole, whose.* However, in other English words <w> is pronounced as in *what, wheel, when, which, whip,* and *why.*
- 9. If  $\langle w \rangle$  is initial before  $\langle r \rangle$ , it is rendered silent as in *write*, *wreck*, *wrench*, and *wring*.

# **1.5** Statement of the Problem

Throughout my sixteen years of teaching English language in different high schools in Saudi Arabia, I noticed that the majority of the Saudi students generally lack the basic writing skills that would enable them to express themselves easily, and they also lack the ability to spell simple English words correctly.

In 2011, I started teaching English in the Saudi School in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, which includes Arab students studying in an ESL environment. Although the school uses Arabic as a medium of instruction, the Arab students receive greater exposure to English language than their counterparts in Saudi Arabia. In fact, English is a strong second language in Kuala Lumpur, and is considered as the second important

language after Bahasa Malaysia (Thirusanku & Yunus, 2014). Accordingly, Arab students can practice English on a daily basis outside school, e.g. in restaurants, malls, hospitals, train stations and so forth. It is worth mentioning that English as a second language (ESL) is spoken in countries where English is an important and usually official language, but not the main language of the country. Malaysia, Nigeria, India, and the Philippines are examples of countries in which English is said to be spoken and used as a second language (Thirusanku & Yunus, 2012).

In a multilingual city like Kuala Lumpur where English is spoken and written as an active second language, the Arab school students are expected to acquire a reasonably high level of writing skills especially in spelling. Unlike in the ESL context, English in Saudi Arabia is taught as a merely school subject and is not used in everyday life.

Although much research has been conducted discussing the difficulties related to English spelling and writing skills in the Middle East, there is a paucity in studies comparing the spelling ability of the Arab school students in two different ESL/EFL contexts, i.e. Malaysia and Saudi Arabia. Accordingly, this study aims at comparing the students' spelling errors among the Arab students across two environments specifically Kuala Lumpur and Jeddah. It attempts to trace the types of errors the Arab students commit in spelling and their causes. Furthermore, it identifies the relationship between the attitudes towards spelling and writing among the Arab students. Finally, this study also identifies the relationship between writing ability and spelling accuracy among the Arab students in the two above-mentioned contexts.

Ecological problems that affect spelling in English are found fundamentally in certain major differences between Arabic and English orthographic systems. As a result, this creates a number of problems for an Arab student who is learning how to write words in English. To begin with, unlike the English script which is written from left to right with upper and lower cases, Arabic is written from right to left and has no upper and lower case distinction (Smith, 2001). In addition, Arabic words are composed of connected letters and provided with diacritics to indicate the morphological and phonological features (Link & Caramazza, 1994). On the contrary, diacritical marks rarely appear in the English script except in a few borrowed words from other foreign languages such as café, naïve, résumé, hôtel which are words borrowed from French (Garner, 2000). However, Garner added that the usage of such marks has considerably declined in today's English writing style. Moreover, unless they are handwritten in a cursive style, English letters are normally written in an unconnected way to represent a word. In addition to what has been said, Arabic is a phonetic-based language whereas English is not. That is to say, Arabic words are written as they are pronounced. In contrast, in English there is no one-toone correspondence between sounds and letters. Because of such a mismatch, a learner of English cannot be sure how a new word heard by him can be spelt (Sethi & Dhamija, 2010). The /k/ sound, for example, is spelt differently in words like kite, car, occasion, back, chemistry, quarter whereas /k/ is not pronounced in words like know and knot. Besides, words such as comb, light, receipt and sign are not expected to be pronounced and spelt out correctly by an Arab learner as they contain silent sounds. Furthermore, Arab learners have a problem in differentiating between /b/ and /p/, /f/ and /v/ and /tf/ and /f/ because in Arabic consonant sounds like /p/ and /v/ and /tf/ do not exist so the learners are expected to mispronounce and misspell words like *park*, *van* and *choose* with *bark*, *fan* and *shoes*.

As a result of many features that can be attributed to interlanguage problems, spelling as a skill is found to be difficult for many Arab students learning English. Spelling problems have persisted and warrants further investigation. Previous studies have been done on Arab students in an EFL environment where English is used as a foreign language. That is to say, English is learnt merely as a school subject. Alzuoud and Kiblan (2013, p.156) revealed that

Arab students face many difficulties when they write, especially in spelling. They cannot express their ideas, because they cannot spell words correctly. [Also,] there is a problem with the Arab students in writing and spelling in particular, where they have difficulties in spelling and pronunciation of the word, because of the difference between Arabic and English.

Abu-Rabia and Taha (2004) also studied the English spelling errors made by Arabic speaking students in grade 1-9, and concluded that phonological spelling errors predominated in all grades and represented 50% of total errors. In addition, Al-Saudi (2013) revealed that Jordanian students misspell English words because of the irregularities of English spelling rules besides confusion in words such as cot, coat and *caught*. The numerous studies which analysed learners' spelling errors helped researchers understand the main causes of committing spelling errors as well as the major challenges which face EFL learners while they spell out English words. However, environment could influence learning. In this study, the Arab students study English in an ESL environment where English is very much used in communication especially in an urban area where they reside. As such this is seen as a gap in which language use can be studied in order to contribute to the state of knowledge about spelling development constrained by environment. Furthermore, there are no comparative studies that have been conducted on Arab students living in an ESL and an EFL contexts related to spelling errors and writing performance, which has been a major concern among many Arab researchers in the field of Applied Linguistics in recent years (Al-Jarf, 2010; Ahmad, 2013; Alhaisoni et al., 2015; Hameed, 2016).

# 1.6 **Objectives of the Study**

The three primary objectives of this study are:

- 1. To compare the spelling types and causes of errors made by Arab secondary school students across two environments, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia.
- 2. To identify the relationship between attitude towards spelling and writing among the Arab students.
- 3. To identify the relationship between writing ability and spelling accuracy among the Arab students.

# 1.7 Research Questions

The five research questions for this study are:

- RQ1: What types of spelling errors do Arab secondary school students in Malaysia and in Saudi Arabia make when they write in English?
- RQ2: What are the causes that explain the Arab students' incorrect spelling?
- RQ3: What are the Arab secondary school students' attitude towards spelling and writing across the two groups?
- RQ4: What is the relationship between attitude towards spelling and writing among the Arab students?
- RQ5: What is the relationship between writing ability and spelling accuracy among the Arab students?

## **1.8** Significance of the Study

In second language acquisition (SLA), investigating learner's errors is considered important from three perspectives. First, identifying errors enables researchers understand the nature of these errors and their causes while learning development takes place. Accordingly, the findings of this study can be used as a reference for those who are interested in conducting a study on error analysis in general and English spelling errors in particular. In addition, it is a procedure that can help learners discover the rules of the target language. The study is also beneficial for teachers, material developers and curriculum designers as it helps them find better teaching strategies and techniques to treat these errors while preparing and designing the curriculum (Corder, 1981). He emphasised that

... a good understanding of the nature of error is necessary before a systematic means of eradicating them could be found [also] a study of learners' errors is part of the systematic study of the learners' language which is itself necessary to an understanding of the process of second language acquisition. (p.10).

Thus, the researcher hopes that the findings from this study contributes to the field of applied linguistics in respect of learning English in a context where it is actively spoken as a second language, where a large number of Arab students live for a period of time. Besides, the study hopes to help English teachers in general and EFL/ESL teachers in particular to have a deeper understanding of the difficulties the students encounter in learning English spelling.

In addition, the study gives insights into the different types of errors made in light also of the students' own language. The findings will give empirical data relevant to contrastive analysis to two linguistic systems. The minute descriptions of the errors made will prioritise the spelling problems faced thus providing opportunities for a more systematic treatment of the errors which will have significant pedagogical implications for teachers and textbooks or material writers.

## 1.9 Theoretical Framework of the Study

The theoretical framework of the study comprises three prevailing approaches (see Figure 1.2) to the study of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) since the middle of the twentieth century: Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis and Interlanguage.



Figure 1.2 : The Theoretical Framework of the Study

## 1.10 Definitions of Terms

This section attempts to provide the definitions of the important terms that were employed in this research.

#### **Spelling Errors**

According to Ferris (2011, p.3), errors are 'morphological, syntactic, and lexical forms that deviate from rules of the target language, violating the expectations of literate adult native speakers.' In the context of this study, a spelling error refers to any misrepresentation of English words resulted from the Arab secondary school students' unawareness of phonological, orthographic and morphological knowledge.

#### **Error Analysis**

It is a systemic process through which a researcher collects samples of learner written or spoken language identifies and describes the error in these samples and classifies them according to their hypothesized causes and finally, evaluates their seriousness (Ellis, 1985). In this study, only the written work is examined for spelling errors.

#### Saudi School in Kuala Lumpur (SSKL)

A school which was founded in 1990 in Kuala Lumpur (see Appendix A) and supervised by both the Saudi Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Education (Al-Sobhi, 2013). It accommodates students from different Arab and non-Arab countries e.g. the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Yemen, Iraq and Syria with non-Arab minorities such as Malaysians and Singaporeans from kindergarten through the 12<sup>th</sup> grade. Al-Sobhi added that the primary goals of establishing the school are to serve the Saudi citizens who work, study or live outside the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, to preach Islam and to build strong relationship with Malaysia. In this research, only secondary school students are involved.

#### Al-Nahrawan Secondary School in Jeddah (NSSJ)

A public secondary school found in 1990 in Jeddah. It teaches over 450 students hailing from different Arab countries including Saudi Arabia, Syria, Egypt, Sudan and Yemen. Most of them were born and raised in Jeddah (see Appendix A).

### **1.11** Organisation of the Study

This study is divided into five major chapters. The first introductory chapter sets the stage and tone of the study. It establishes the focus of the paper and the basic framework and background in which the study is situated. It sheds light on the major differences and similarities between English and Arabic writing systems. It also gives a comprehensive picture about spelling including its components and developmental stages. Throughout the chapter, definitions and important concepts used in the study are explained. Most importantly, this chapter grounds the research questions that guide the study, also highlighting the importance as well as the significance of the study. Briefly, the chapter provides an overview of the problem that the study addresses.

The review of related literature constitutes the second chapter which discusses the prevailing theories on the concept of error analysis. It provides an overview of previous studies on the subject matter, as well as introducing the prominent theorists behind these studies. A comparative description of the similarities and contrasts between relevant aspects of the Arabic and English languages will also be provided. Lastly, the researcher highlights the existing gaps in the literature, as a way to link the present study to the existing literature.

The third chapter outlines the research methodology. In this section, the focus is on the primary research instruments and procedures used in the collection and analysis of data, as well as the selection of texts and participants for the study. Following this, the empirical data gathered during the research are coded and analysed, and the final findings of the study will be discussed in the fourth chapter. Finally, the researcher summarizes and concludes the research and offers some recommendations for further research in Chapter Five.

#### REFERENCES

- Abdul Ameer, A. & Altaie, A. (2010). *Homonym in English and Arabic: A Contrastive Study*. University of Babylon, Iraq.
- Abdul Rahman, N. S. (2008). A Practical Guide to Interviewing in Educational *Research*. Centre for Teaching and Learning, IIUM.
- Abu-Rabia, S., & Siegel, L. (1995). Different orthographies different context effect: The Effects of Arabic sentence context in skilled and poor readers. Reading Psychology: An International Quarterly, 16, 1–17.
- Abu-Rabia, S. &Taha, H. (2006). *Phonological errors predominate in Arabic spelling errors across grades* 1 9. Journal of Psycholinguistics Research, 35, 167-188.
- Abu-Rabia, S. & Sammour R. (2013). Spelling Errors' Analysis of Regular and Dyslexic Bilingual Arabic-English Students. Open Journal of Modern Linguistics. Vol.3, No.1, 58-68.
- Abu-Ras, A. S. (2002). *Investigating the application of the communicative approach in the Saudi context* (Makkah Region). Unpublished master thesis. Umm Al-Qura University, KSA.
- Ahmad, M. E. (2013). Errors of English Language Committed by Sudanese Students at Secondary Schools in Khartoum Locality. Postgraduate Diploma in Education. Open University of Sudan.
- Albalawi, F. S. (2016). Analytical Study of the Most Common Spelling Errors among Saudi Female Learners of English: Causes and Remedies. Asian Journal of Educational Research. Vol. 4, No.3.
- Albalawi, M. J. (2016). The Academic Writing Performance and Spelling Errors of English as Foreign Language Students at Tabuk University: A Case of the Introductory Year Students. Asian Journal of Social Sciences, Arts and Humanities Vol. 4, No. 1.
- Al-Bereiki, S. & Al-Mekhlafi, A. M. (2016). Spelling Errors of Omani EFL Students: Causes and Remedies. Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research. Volume 3, Issue 7, pp. 20-46. The General Directorate of Saudi School Abroad, (1984).
- Alhaisoni, E. Al-Zuoud, M. and Gaudel, D. (2015). Analysis of Spelling Errors of Saudi Beginner Learners of English Enrolled in an Intensive English Language Program. Canadian Center of Science and Education. Vol 8, No 3.

- Alhamlan, S. (2013). *EFL Curriculum and Needs Analysis: An Evaluative Study*. King Saud University, the KSA. MA TESOL.
- Al-Jabri, F. M. (2003). Common English Spelling Difficulties of Omani Learners. Oman, Batinah. North Region.
- Al-Jarf, R. (2008). Sources of Spelling Errors in EFL Arab College Students. Saudi Arabia: King Saud University.
- Al-Jarf, R. (2008). *Phonological and Orthographic Problems in EFL College Spelling*. First Regional Conference on English Language Teaching and Literature (ELTL1) at Islamic Azad University, Iran.
- Al-Jarf, R. (2010). *Spelling Error Corpora in EFL*. Sino-US English Teaching.7(1): 73.
- Al Jayousi, M. T. (2011). Spelling Errors of Arab Students: Types, Causes, and Teachers Responses. Master's thesis, American University of Sharjah.
- Al-Karaki, E. (2005). An Analysis of Spelling Errors Made by School Students in Al-Karak Directorate of Education. Unpublished thesis, Mu'tah University.
- Alkhuli, M. A. (1997). Comparative linguistics: English and Arabic, Amman: Dar Al-Falah.
- Alkhuli, M. A. (2004). English Grammar: Morphology. Amman: Dar Al-Falah.
- Allaith, Z. A. A. (2009). Analysis of Spelling Performance in English among Students Whose First Language is Arabic. Master's thesis, Texas A&M University.
- Al-Mansour, N. & Al-Shorman, R. (2014). *The Effect of an Extensive Reading Program on the Writing Performance of Saudi EFL University Students.* International Journal of Linguistics. Vol. 6, No. 2.
- Al-Mezeini, H. S. (2009). *Does Teaching Spelling Rules Make a Difference*? Oman, Batinah North Region.
- Al-Najjar, R. A. (2012). An Evaluation of Pronunciation Teaching Content of English for Palestine 10 and Related Teachers' Competency Level in Light of Current Instructional Perspectives. Master's thesis, The Islamic University, Gaza.
- Al-Saudi, J. (2013). Error Analysis and Spelling Mistakes of EFL Learners at Tafila Technical University: A Case Study. Frontiers of Language and Teaching,
- Al-Saadat, A. I. (2004). Investigating the Relationship of Reading and Writing Abilities in the English Language Program at King Faisal University. Scientific Journal of KFU. Vol. 5 No.1 1425.

- Alsaawi A. (2015). Spelling Errors Made by Arab Students of English. International Journal of Linguistics, Vol. 7, No. 5.
- Al-Seghayer, K. (2014). The Four Most Common Constraints Affecting English Teaching in Saudi Arabia. International Journal of English Linguistics; Vol. 4, No. 5.
- Alshayee, A. M. (2106). Exploring Arab ESL Students' Perceptions on Integrating Social Networking Websites into English Writing Classrooms. Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) Volume.7 Number.3.
- Al-Sobhi, B. (2013). Teaching English Speaking Skills to the Arab Students in the Saudi School in Kuala Lumpur: Problems and Solutions. Master's thesis, IIUM.
- Alzuoud, K. & Kabilan, M. (2013). *Investigating Jordanian EFL Students' Spelling Errors at Tertiary Level.* International Journal of Linguistics.
- Andrew, D., Pedersen, P. & McEvoy C. (2011). Research Method and Design in Sport Management. Champaign, IL. Human Kinetics.
- Andrews, S. & Scarrat, D. (1996). What comes after phonological awareness? Using lexical experts to investigate orthographic processes in reading. Australian Journal of Psychology, 48, 3, 141-148.
- Antenucci, R., et al (2011). Spelling: from beginning to proficiency. A spelling resource for planning, teaching, assessing and reporting on progress. The State of South Australia, Department of Education and Children's Services.
- Apel, K. (2011). Atom and Aave Creating Better Spellers and Readers. School of Communication Science and Disorders. The Florida State University.
- Apel, K., Masterson, J. & Niessen, N. (2004). *Spelling Assessment Frameworks*. In Handbook of Language and Literacy: Development and Disorders pp 644-646.
- Ary, D., Jacob, L.C., Sorensen, C. & Razavieh, A. (2010). Introduction to Research in Education. (8<sup>th</sup>edn.). Wadsword Cengage Learning, Canada.
- Asgari, A. (2012). Affective Factors in Second Language Writing Ability Attrition among English as Foreign Language Learners. PhD thesis, UPM, Malaysia.
- Awasthi, J. R. (1995). A linguistic analysis of errors committed by Nepali learners of English. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Hyderabad – India.

Baker, C. (1992). Attitudes and Language. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

- Bakker, A. & Eerde, D. (2013). An Introduction to Design-based Research an Example from Statistics Education. In Bikner-Ahsbahs, A., Knipping, C. & Presmeg N. (Eds.), Doing qualitative research: methodology and methods in mathematics education. New York: Springer.
- Bahloul, M. (2007). Spelling errors of Arab learners: Evidence of intergraphic mapping. In C. Coombe & L. Barlow (Eds). Language Teacher Research in The Middle East, (pp. 41-51). Mattoon, Ill: United Graphics, Inc.
- Baloch, S. (2013). L1 (Arabic) Interference in Learning L2 (English): An Analysis of English Spelling Used by Arabic Speakers at Undergraduate Level - A Case Study. European Scientific Journal, Vol.9, No.16
- Bancha, W. (2013). What Causes Spelling Errors of the Thai EFL Students. ARECLS, 2013, Vol.10, 107-129.
- Bartram, A. (2010). Attitudes to Modern Foreign Language Learning: Insights from Comparative Education. Continuum International Publishing Group. NZ.
- Bassetti, B. (2012) Bilingualism and Writing Systems. In T. K. Bhatia and W. C. Ritchie (eds.). The handbook of bilingualism and multilingualism (pp. 649-670). Second edition. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Bebout, L. (1985). An error analysis of misspellings made by learners of English as a first and as a second language. Journal of Psycholinguistic Research; 14, 569-593.
- Beebe, L. M. (1985). *Input: Choosing the Right Stuff*. En. Gass, S. Y. Madden (Eds.), Input in Second Language Acquisition. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Bell, M. (2009), Rules and Exceptions of English Spelling, Cambridge, Pegasus.
- Bennett-Kastor, T. (2014). Spelling Abilities of University Students in Developmental Writing Classes. Journal of College Reading and Learning.
- Birch, B. M. (2014). *English L2 Reading: Getting to the Bottom*. Third edition ESL & Applied Linguistics Professional Series.
- Bootchuy, T. (2008). An Analysis of Errors in Academic English Writing by a Group of First-Year Thai Majoring in English. Kasetsart University, Thailand. Master's.
- Boras, J. (2003). Spelling Development: A Comparative Study of Adult Learners and Grade Seven Children. Master Thesis. University of Lethbridge. Canada. Z.
- Bordens, K. & Horowitz, I. (2008). Social Psychology. Freeload Press. 3rd Ed. USA.
- Botley, S. & Dillah, D. (2007). *Investigating Spelling Errors in a Malaysian Learner Corpus*. Malaysian Journal of ELT Research, Vol. 3, pp. 74-93.

- Bowen, H. (2011). Spelling it out! Accounting for Spelling Difficulties for Arab Learners of English. Retrieved on 5<sup>th</sup> March, 2015 from http://marifa.hct.ac.ae/.
- Brace, I. (2004). *Questionnaire Design: How to Plan, Structure and Write Survey Material for Effective Market Research*. Datamatics Technologies Ltd, Mumbai, India.
- Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006). *Using thematic analysis in psychology*. Qualitative Research in Psychology. 3, 77-101.
- Brink, H. (1993). Validity and Reliability in Qualitative Research. SA Society of Nurse Researchers' Workshop. Conference Paper.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. (4<sup>th</sup> Ed). Addison Wesley, New York: Longman.
- Brown. H. D. (2007). Principles of Language Learning and Teaching (5<sup>th</sup> Ed). Addison Wesley, New York: Longman.
- Bruning, R. & Horn, C. (2000). *Developing Motivation to Write*. Educational Psychologist, 35 (1). Pp. 25-37.
- Burt, M. & Kiparsky, C. (1972). The Gooficon: A Repair Manual for English. Newbury House.
- Carlisle, J. F. (1995). Morphological awareness and early reading achievement. In L. B.Feldm an (Ed.), Morphological aspects of language processing (p194). Hillsdale.
- Carney, E. (1994). A Survey of English Spelling. Published in the USA and Canada by Routledge Inc.
- Carroll, S. (2001) Input and Evidence: The Raw Material of Second Language Acquisition. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Chomsky, N. (1959). A Review of B. F. Skinner's 'Verbal Behavior' Language 35, 1:26.
- Chomsky, N. & Halle, M. (1968). *The Sound Pattern of English*. New York: Harper and Row.

Chomsky, N. (1986) Knowledge of Language. New York, Praeger.

Choudhury, R. (2011). A Critical Study of Spelling Mistakes Done by The Arab Students published in The Linguistic Research in India and Abroad (Vol-II) ISBN NO.978-3-8465-0100-9.

- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2005). *Research Methods in Education*. 6<sup>th</sup> Ed.
- Cohen, D. & Crabtree, B. (2007). *Qualitative Research Guidelines Project*. Retrieved on August 6<sup>th</sup> 2015 from http://www.qualres.org/HomeSemi-3629.html.
- Cook, V. (2004). The English Writing System. London: Edward Arnold.
- Cook, V. and Bassetti, B. (2005). Second Language Writing Systems. Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Cook, V. J. (1999). *Teaching spelling*. Retrieved March 17, 2015 from www.essex.ac.uk/~vcook
- Corder, S. P. (1971) Idiosyncratic Dialects and Error Analysis. In J.C. Richards (ed.) (1974) Error Analysis: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition. London: Longman, pp. 158–171.
- Corder, S.P. (1973). *Introducing Applied Linguistics*. Harmondsworth, UK: Penguin Books Ltd.
- Corder, S.P. (1978) Language-learner Language. In J.C. Richards (ed.) Understanding Second and Foreign Language Learning (pp. 71–93). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Corder, S.P. (1981). Error Analysis and Interlanguage. Oxford University Press.
- Coskun, L. (2014). The Girls are Better at Language Learning: A Comparative Approach. Journal of Educational and Social Research. MCSER Publishing, Rome-Italy.
- Coulmas, F. (2003). Writing Systems: An introduction to their linguistics analysis. Cambridge University Press.
- Crawford, I. M. (1997). Marketing Research and Information Systems.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). Educational Research: Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research, (4<sup>th</sup>edn). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice-Hall.
- Creswell, J. W. & Clark, P. V. L. (2011). *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crookes, G. and Schmidt, R. (1991). *Motivation: Reopening the research agenda*. *Language Learning*. 41: 470-480.
- Crystal, D. (2010). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*. Cambridge University Press.

- Crystal, D. (2008). A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics. (5th Ed.). London: Blackwell.
- Dalmolin, H. (2009). *The New English Grammar: With Phonetics, Morphology and Syntax.* Tate Publishing & Enterprises, LLC. USA.
- Darus, S. & Ching K. H. (2009). Common Errors in Written English Essays of Form One Chinese Students: A Case Study. European Journal of Social Sciences – Volume 10, Number 2.
- Dehham, S. H. and Mohmmad, W. M. (2008). *Iraqi EFL Learners' Performance in English Spelling*. College of Education – University of Babylon
- DeKeyser, R. (2000). The Robustness of Critical Period Effects in Second Language Acquisition. Studies in Second Language Acquisition 22, 499–533.
- Denzin, N. & Lincoln, Y. (1994). Handbook of Qualitative Research. (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed). California: Sage Publication, Inc.
- Dhivyadeepa, E. (2015). Sampling Techniques in Educational Research. Laxmi Book Publication. 1<sup>st</sup> Edition.
- Donovan, M. (2013). 10 Core Practices for Better Writing. Read More and Write Better. Retrieved on 12<sup>th</sup> May 2015 from http://www.writingforward.com/.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2011). Research Methods in Applied Linguistics. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. and Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and Researching Motivation*. 2nd Edition. Pearson Education Limited.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1994). *Motivation and motivating in foreign language classroom*. The Modern Language Journal, v. 78, pp. 273-284.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2010). Researching motivation: From integrativeness to the ideal L2 self. In S. Hunston & D. Oakey (Eds.), Introducing applied linguistics: Concepts and skills (pp.74-83). London: Routledge.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Questionnaires in Second Language Research: Construction, Administration, and Processing. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. The USA.
- Duhon, G. M., et al (2001). *Developing Literacy Skills across the Curriculum:* Practical Approaches, Creative Models, Strategies, and Resources. Edwin Mellen Press.
- Dulay, H., & Burt, M. (1974). Error and strategies in child second language acquisition. TESOL Quarterly, 8, 129-138.

Dulay, H., Burt, M. & Krashen, S. (1982). Language Two. Oxford University Press.

- Durgunoğlu, A.Y., Mir, M. & Arino-Marti, S. (2002). The relationship between Bilingual Children's Reading and Writing in Their two Languages. In S. Ransdell & M.L. Barbier (Eds). Psycholinguistic Approaches to Understanding Second-Language Writing. (pp. 81-100). Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Kluwer.
- Durkin, P. (2009). The Oxford Guide to Etymology. Oxford University Press.
- Ehri, L. C. (2005). *Learning to Read Words: Theory, Findings, and Issues*. Scientific Studies of Reading, 9(2), 167–188.
- Ehri L. C. (1980). *The Development of Orthographic Images*. In Frith, U. (1980) Cognitive Process of Spelling p334.
- El-Dakhs, D. and Mitchell A. (2011). Spelling Error Analysis among EFL High-School Graduates. Retrieved on 3 Nov 2013 from http://www.ksaalt.org/
- El-Koumi, A. (1997). *Exploring the reading-writing relationship in NES and EFL students*. Faculty of Education in Suez, Suez Canal University.
- Ellis, R. (1985). Understanding Second Language Acquisition. Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2009). *Corrective Feedback and Teacher Development*. L2 Journal, 1(1), 3-18.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1997). Second Language Acquisition. Oxford Introduction to Language Study. Series Editor H. G. Widdowson.
- Ellis, R. (1988). The Effects of Linguistic Environment on the Second Language Acquisition of Grammatical Rules. Applied Linguistics 10:281-302.
- Elnour, I. A. (2014). An Analysis of Errors Made by Sudanese University Students in Written Production. Unpublished PhD thesis, Sudan University of Science and Technology.
- Ferris, D. R. (2011). *Treatment of Error in Second Language Student Writing*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.
- Fisiak, J. (1981). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Finegan, E. (2008). Language Structure and Its Use. 5<sup>th</sup> Edition. Thomson Wadsworth, the USA

- Fragman, A. (2015). Qualitative Analysis of Spelling Errors in Arabic among Bedouin Elementary School Pupils. International Journal of Linguistics ISSN 1948-5425 2015, Vol. 7, No. 1
- Fraenkel, J., Wallen, N. & Hyun, H. (2012). *How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education*. The McGraw-Hill Company Inc. the USA.
- Fry, E. (2000). 1000 Instant Words, the Most Common Words for Teaching Writing, Reading and Spelling. Laguna Beach Educational Books, the USA.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). Social Psychology and Second Language Learning. The Role of Attitude and Motivation. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, R. C., Smythe, P. C., Clément, R., & Gliksman, L. (1976). Second language learning: A social psychological perspective. Canadian Modern Language Review, 32(3), 198-213.
- Gardner, R.C., & Lambert, W.E. (1972) Attitudes and motivation: Second language learning. Newbury House.
- Garner, B. A. (2000). *The Oxford Dictionary of American Usage and Style*. Oxford University Press.
- Gass, S. & Mackey, A. (2012). *Research Methods in Second Language Acquisition: A Practical Guide.* Wiley-Blackwell. 1<sup>st</sup> Ed.
- Gentry, J. R. (1982). An Analysis of Developmental Spelling in GNYS AT WRK, An. Reading Teacher. Volume 36, number 2, November, 192-200.
- Gentry, J.R. (2000). A Retrospective on Invented Spelling and a Look Forward. The Reading Teacher, 54 (3).
- Gillett, A., Hammond, A. & Martala, M. (2009). Successful Academic Writing. Pearson Education Limited
- Gillon, G.T. (2004). *Phonological Awareness from Research to Practice*. The Guilford Press. New York.
- Goodrick, D. (2014). *Comparative Case Studies, Methodological Briefs*: Impact Evaluation 9, UNICEF Office of Research, Florence.
- Gough, P.B. and Wren, S.A. (2009). *The Decomposition of Decoding*. In C. Hulme and R. Joshi (Eds.), Reading and Spelling; Development and Disorders (pp. 19-32). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Graham, S. & Miller, L. (1979). Spelling Research and Practice: A Unified Approach. Focus on Exceptional Children.

- Graham, S. & Harris, K. R. (1989). A components analysis of cognitive strategies instruction: Effects on learning disabled students' compositions and selfefficacy. Journal of Educational Psychology, 81 (1989), pp. 353–361.
- Graham, S. (1999). Handwriting and spelling instruction for students with learning disabilities: A review. Learning Disability Quarterly, 22, 78–98.
- Graham, S., Harris, K. R., & Chorzempa, B. F. (2002). Contribution of Spelling Instruction to the Spelling, Writing, and Reading of Poor Spellers. Journal of Educational Psychology, 94 (4), 669-686.
- Graham, S., Berninger, V. & Fan, W. (2007). *The Structural Relationship between Writing Attitude and Writing Achievement in First and Third Grade Students*. Contemporary Educational Psychology. Vol 32, Issue 3. Pp 516-536.
- Graham, S., & Santangelo, T. (2014). Does spelling instruction make students better spellers, readers, and writers? A meta-analytic review. Reading and Writing, 27, 1703–1743.
- Grauberg, W. (1997). *The Elements of Foreign Language Teaching*. Modern Languages in Practice: 7.
- Gravetter, F. & Forzano, L. (2015). *Research Methods for the Behavioral Sciences*. 5<sup>th</sup> Ed.
- Grbich, C. (2007). *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Introduction*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Greene, J., Caracelli, V. & Graham, W. (1989). Toward a Conceptual Framework for Mixed-Method Evaluation Designs. Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis. 11, (3).
- Griffith, P.L. (1991). Phonemic awareness helps first graders invent spellings and third graders remember correct spellings. Journal of Reading Behavior, 23, 215.
- Gubaily, M. (2012). *Challenges of Teaching and Learning Spoken English in Yemen*. Retrieved on March 15<sup>th</sup> 2016 from www.ijsst.com.
- Habash, N. Y. (2010). *Introduction to Arabic Natural Language Processing*. Morgan and Claypool publishers series.
- Haggan, M. (1993). Actual and Self-perceived Spelling Accuracy in Kuwaiti EFL Students: Some Practical and Theoretical Implications. TESL Canada Journal/Revue TESL Du Canada Vol. 10. No.2. S
- Hameed, P. F. (2016). A Study of the Spelling Errors committed by Students of English in Saudi Arabia: Exploration and Remedial Measures. Advances in Language and Literacy Studies. Vol. 7 No. 1.

- Han, Z-H. (2004). Fossilization in Adult Second Language Acquisition. Series Editor: David Singleton, Trinity College, Dublin, Ireland.
- Han, Z-H. & Selinker, L. (2001) *Second Language Instruction and Fossilization*. Presentation at the 35<sup>th</sup> International TESOL Annual Convention, St Louis.
- Han, Z. & Tarone, E. (2014). Interlanguage Forty years later. Language Learning and Language Teaching, the USA.
- Harris, T. and Hodges, R. (1995). *The Literacy Dictionary: The Vocabulary of Reading and Writing*. Newark, DE: International *Reading* Association.
- Hashemian, M. & Heidari, A. (2013). *The Relationship between L2 Learners' Motivation/Attitude and Success in L2 Writing.* Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences. Vol 70 - pp. 476 - 489.
- Hatch, J. A. (2002). *Doing Qualitative Research in Education Settings*. Albany, New York: State University of New York Press.
- Hendrickson, H. (1967). Spelling: A Visual Skill. A discussion of visual imagery and the manipulation of visual symbols as basic skills in the ability to spell. Rafael, CA: Academic Therapy Publication.
- Hesse-Biber, S. (2010). *Mixed Methods Research: Merging Theory with Practice*. New York: Guilford Publications.
- Higgs, T. and Clifford, R. (1982) *The Push toward Communication*. In T. Higgs (ed.) Curriculum, Competence, and the Foreign Language Teacher (p57). Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook.
- Hodges, R. (1984) *Spelling*. Eric Digest. ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills. ED250695.
- Hogue, A. (2007). *First Steps in Academic Writing*. The Longman Academic Writing Series, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed Pearson Education ESL.
- Ijaz, M., Mahmood, M. A. and Ameer, A. (2104). A Corpus Based Study of the Errors Committed by Pakistani Learners of English at Graduation Level. Journal of Education and Practice. Vol.5, No.24.
- James, C. (1998). Errors in Language Learning and Use: Exploring Error Analysis.
- Jdetawy, L. (2011). Problems Encountered by Arab EFL Learners, LANGUAGE IN INDIA, 11 (3). Retrieved on 10<sup>th</sup> March 2015 from http://languageinindia.com
- Jensen, J. (1969). Signs, symbols, and script. New York: George Allen & Unwin, Ltd.

Jim, A.P. (2010). Writing Skill in Second Language. New York: Pearson Education.

- Johnson, M. M. (2013). The Relationship between Spelling Ability and Reading Fluency and Comprehension in Elementary Students. Master's thesis, Northern Michigan University. Retrieved on 25<sup>th</sup> May 2015 from https://www.nmu.edu/education.
- Johnson, R. B., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Turner, L. A. (2007). Toward a Definition of Mixed Methods Research. Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1(2), 112– 133.
- Joshi, M. and Carreker, S. (2009). Spelling Development, assessment and *instruction*. In Reid, G. (2009). Routledge Companion to Dyslexia.
- Kamnoetsin, T. (2014). Social Media Use: A Critical Analysis of Facebook's Impact on Collegiate EFL Students' English Writing in Thailand. Seton Hall University Dissertations and Theses (ETDs). Paper 2059. PhD thesis.
- Kandel, S., & Perret, C. (2015). *How does the interaction between spelling and motor processes build up during writing acquisition?* Cognition, 136, 325–336.
- Kasper, G. (1982) *Teaching-induced Aspects of Interlanguage Discourse*. Studies in Second Language Acquisition 4, 99–113.
- Keshavarz, M. H. (2003). Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis. Rahnama Publications Tehran.
- Khan, I. A. (2011). Learning Difficulties in English: Diagnosis and Pedagogy in Saudi Arabia. Retrieved on March 10<sup>th</sup> 2015 from International Research Journal. http://interesjournal.org/.
- Khan, I. (2011). An analysis of learning barriers: The Saudi Arabian context. International Education Studies, 4 (1) 242-247.
- Kitao, S. C. & Kitao K. (1996). *Testing Writing*. Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC). Doshisha Women's College and Doshisha University. Kyoto, Japan.
- Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*. (2<sup>nd</sup> Revised Ed.). New Age International (P) Limited Publishers.
- Kotula, A. W., Tivnan, T., & Aguilar, C. M. (2014). *Students' Voices: The Relationship between Attitudes and Writing Outcomes for Fourth and Fifth Graders.* Waltham, MA: Education Development Center, Inc.
- Krishnamurthy, S., Jairos, K., Alexandra, T., Bronwen, B. (2010). An Analysis of English Errors Made by Polytechnic of Namibia Students. Journal of Language and Communication, Vol. 4, No. 2

- Lado, R. (1977) *Linguistics across Cultures*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Lahad, A. M. (2007). Identifying Errors made by EFL College Students in Dictation. Al-Mustansiriyah University College of Basic Education, Iraq. J. OF COL. OF B.ED. No. 52.
- Langacker, R. W. (1973). Language and its Structure. N. Y.: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Lawrence, J. M. (2008). Differences in Morphological Awareness Skills between Children with Phonological Impairment and Children with Typical Development. Florida State University
- Leable, V. (2014). The Relationship between Writing Attitude and Spelling Capabilities in Fourth- and Fifth-Grade Students. Master's thesis. University of Wisconsin-River Falls.
- Lennox, C. and Siegel, L. S. (1994). *The Role of Phonological and Orthographic Processes in Learning to Spell*. In G.D. A. Brown & N. C. Ellis. (Eds.), Handbook of *Spelling*: Theory, Process and Intervention.
- Letsoela, PM. & Ntsane, M. (2015) Analysis of Spelling Errors among National University of Lesotho Undergraduates Students. Annals of Modern Education. Vol 7. Retrieved on 30 April from http://www.ajol.info/index.
- Lightbown, P. and Spada, N. (1999). *How Languages are Learned?* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lincoln, Y.S. & Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Link, K. and Caramazza, A. (1994). Orthographic Structure and Spelling Process: A Comparison of Different Codes. In G.D. A. Brown & N. C. Ellis. (Eds.), Handbook of Spelling: Theory, Process and Intervention.
- Liton, H. (2012). *Developing EFL teaching and learning practices in Saudi colleges: A review*. International Journal of Instruction, 5(2), 129-152.
- Littlewood, W. (1984). Foreign and Second Language Learning: Language Acquisition Research and Its Implications for the Classroom. Cambridge University Press.
- Long, M. (2003) Stabilization and Fossilization in Interlanguage Development. In C. Doughty and M. Long (eds) Handbook of Second Language Acquisition (pp. 487–536). Oxford: Blackwell.

- López Castillejos, W. (2009). Error Analysis in a Learner Corpus. What Are the Learners' Strategies? Retrieved on 14<sup>th</sup> September 2014 from http://www.corpus4u.org/forum.
- Mahmoud, A. A. (2015). The Most Common Spelling Errors Arab Students from Grades 6-9 Make in Their Learning of English. US-China Foreign Language, Vol. 13, No. 3, 201-215.
- Mangal, S. K. & Mangal S. (2013). *Research Methodology in Behavioural Sciences*. PHI Learning Private Limited. Delhi, India.
- McCutcheon, D., & Stull, S. (2015). Morphological awareness and children's writing: Accuracy, error, and invention. Reading and Writing, 28, 271–289.
- McMillan, K. & Weyers, J. (2010). *How to Write Essays and Assignments*. Pearson Education Limited.
- Medwell, J., et al (2007). Primary English Knowledge and Understanding. Great Britain, Cromwell Press Ltd.
- Meer, S. H. (2011). The Four Different Types of Writing Styles: Expository, Descriptive, Persuasive, and Narrative. Retrieved on 19<sup>th</sup> September 2015. http://hubpages.com/literature/Four-Types-of-Writing.
- Ministry of Higher Education. Retrieved on 20<sup>th</sup> January 2014 from http://www.mohe.gov.sa/en/aboutus/Pages/default.aspx.
- Mitchell, H.Q. & Malkogianni, M. (2011). Traveller 5 Student's Book, English Language. KSA-Edition. MM Publication, United Kingdom.
- Mitchell, R. and Myles, M. (2004). Second Language Learning Theories. New York: Hodder Arnold.
- Miyazoe, T., & Anderson, T. (2010). Learning outcomes and students' perceptions of online writing: Simultaneous implementation of a forum, blog, and wiki in an EFL blended learning setting. System, 38(2), 185-199
- Moats, L. C. (2005). How Spelling Supports Reading. American Educator, Winter.
- Morse, J. M. (2004). *Sampling in Qualitative Research* in Lewis, M. S. et al The Sage Encyclopedia of Social Science Research Methods.
- Moseley, D. (1989) *How lack of confidence in spelling affects children's written expression*. Educational Psychology in Practice, 5(1), 42–46.
- Moseley, D. (1997). Assessment of spelling and related aspects of written expression. In J.R. Beech & C. Singleton (Eds) The Psychological assessment of reading. London: Routledge.

- Mourtaga, K. (2011). Insufficient Language Exposure and Learning Difficulties: A Case of the Palestinian Learners in Gaza Strip. The Online Educational Research Journal. Retreived on 11<sup>th</sup>, March, 2015 from www.oerg.org.
- Mpiti, T. (2012). The nature of spelling errors of Grade three isiXhosa background learners in English First Additional Language. Master's thesis, University of Fort Hare.
- Nagy, W. E., et al (2009). *Structural Analysis: Some Guidelines for Instruction*. In Reading Language and Literacy: Instruction for the Twenty-first Century. Routledge.
- Nassaji, H. (2007) The Development of Spelling and Orthographic Knowledge in English as an L2: A longitudinal Case Study. Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics. Vol 10, No. 1
- Nemser, N. (1971). Approximate Systems of Foreign Language Learners. IRAL, Vol. 9, No. 2. 115-124.
- Nickel, G. (1971). *Papers in Contrastive Linguistics*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (2003). *Practical English Language Teaching*. Singapore: Mc Graw Hill Education.
- Nzama, M. V. (2010). Error Analysis: A Study of Errors Committed by IsiZulu Speaking Learners of English in Selected Schools. University of Zululand, South Africa. Master's of thesis.
- Oller, J. W. & Ziahossieny, S. M. (1970). The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis and Spelling Errors in Language Learning. Vol 20.
- Olness, R. (2005). *The Reading-Writing Connection* in Using Literature to Enhance Writing Instruction. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Okyere, B. A. (1990) Effects of Self-Correction on the Acquisition, Maintenance and Generalization of the Written Spelling of Elementary School Children. Unpublished PhD. Thesis, Ohio State University.
- O'Sullivan, O. and Thomas, A. (2007). *Understanding Spelling*. Published in the USA and Canada by Routledge.
- Parker, R. (1991). *Spelling at home*. In V. Nicoll & L. Wilkie (Eds). Literacy at home and school. Rozell, NSW: Primary English Teaching Association.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods* (3<sup>rd</sup>Edn.) Sage Publication Inc., Thousand Oaks, California.

- Plag, I. (2003). Word-Formation in English. Cambridge: Cambridge. University Press.
- Plann, S. (1977). *Acquiring a Second Language in an Immersion Classroom*. On TESOL. Washington DC.
- Politzer, R. Ramirez, A. (1973). An Error Analysis of Spoken English of Mexican-American Pupils in a Bilingual School and a Monolingual School, Language Learning, 123:1.
- Powell, G. (1998). What is the Role of Transfer in Interlanguage? Department of Linguistics and Modern English Language, Lancaster University. Retrieved on 20<sup>th</sup> February 2016 from www.ling.lancs.ac.uk/groups/crile/workingpapers.
- Protopapas, A., Fakou A., Drakopoulou, S. Skaloumbakas, C. Mouzaki, A. (2012). What do spelling errors tell us? Classification and analysis of errors made by Greek schoolchildren with and without dyslexia. Greece, Athens.
- Rabab'ah, G. (2003). Communication Problems Facing Arab Learners of English: TEFL Web Journal. Retrieved on March, 11<sup>th</sup>, 2015 from www.jllonline.co.uk/journal.
- Rahman, M. & Alhaisoni, E. (2013). *Teaching English in Saudi Arabia: Prospects and Challenges*. Academic Research International. Vol 4, No 1.
- Rankin, J., Bruning, R., Timme, V. & Katkanant, C. (1993). Is Writing Affected By Spelling Performance and Beliefs about Spelling? Applied Cognitive Psychology, Vol. 7,155-169.
- Rankin, J., Bruning, R. & Timme, V. (1994). The Development of Beliefs about Spelling and Their Relationship to Spelling Performance. Applied Cognitive Psychology, Vol. 8,213-232.
- Rathvon, N. (2004). *Early Reading Assessment a Practitioner's Handbook*. Guilford Press, the U.S.A.
- Rhoades, K. & Madaus, G. (2003). *Errors in Standardised Tests: A Systematic Problem*. National Board on Educational Testing and Public Policy. Lynch School of Education, Boston.

Reid, G. (2009). Dyslexia, a Practitioner's Handbook. 4th Edition. Wiley-Black.

Richards, J. C. (1974). Errors Analysis Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition. Applied Linguistics and Language Study. Longman Group Limited, London.

- Richards, J. & Sampson, G. (1974). *The Study of Learner English*. In *Errors Analysis Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition*. Applied Linguistics and Language Study. Longman Group Limited, London. pp. 6-8.
- Richards, J. C. & Schmidt, R. (2010). Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics. (4<sup>th</sup> Ed). Pearson Education Limited.
- Rogers, H. (2005). Writing Systems: A Linguistic Approach. Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia, Washington, DC. Retrieved on 24<sup>th</sup> January 2014 from http://www.saudiembassy.net/
- Rukundo, A. & Magambo J., (2010). Effective Test Administration in Schools: Principles & Good Practices for Test Administrators in Uganda. African Journal of Teacher Education. Volume 1 No. 1.
- Saville-Troike, M. (2006). Introducing Second Language Acquisition. Cambridge Introduction to Language and Linguistics. Cambridge University Press.
- Sacre, L. and Masterson, J. (2000) *Single Word Spelling Test (SWST)*. nfer Nelson Publishing Company. London.
- Schachter, J. (1974). An error in error analysis. Language Learning, 24, 205-214.
- Seaton, A. (2001). Understanding Spelling: Making Sense of the Rules, Exceptions, and Word Formation. Learners Publishing Pte Led.
- Sebba, M. (2007). Spelling and Society: The culture and politics of orthography around the world. Cambridge University Press.
- Selinker, L. & Gass, S. (2008). Second Language Acquisition: An introductory course. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Selinker, L. (1992). Rediscovering Interlanguage. London: Longman.
- Selinker, L. (1972), *Interlanguage*. International Review of Applied Linguistics, 10, 209–231.
- Selinker, L. & Lamendella, J. (1978). Two Perspectives on Fossilisation in Interlanguage Learning. Interlanguage Studies. Bulletin, 3: 143–91.
- Seno, A. (2009). *An Error Analysis in English Spelling*. Faculty of Letters: English Department. Undergraduate Thesis. Gunadarma University, Jakarta.
- Sercombe, P. (2000). Learner Language and the Consideration of Idiosyncrasies by students of English as a second or foreign language in the context of Brunei Darulsalam. In A.M.

- Sethi, J. and Dhamija, P.V. (2010). A Course in Phonetics and Spoken English, 2nd ed., PHI Learning, New Delhi.
- Shah, S., Hussain, M., & Nassef, O. (2013). Factors impacting EFL Teaching: An exploratory study in the Saudi Arabian Context. Arab World English Journal, 4 (3), 104-123.
- Sharma, V. K. (2015). How do Productive Skills of Saudi Students Affect EFL Learning and Teaching. Asian Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences (AJHSS) Volume 3, Issue-2.
- Shehdeh, F. S. (2010). Challenges of teaching English in the Arab world: Why can't EFL programs deliver as expected? Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 2, 3600-3604.
- Shell, D. F., Murphy, C. C. and Bruning, R. H. (1989). Self-efficacy and outcome expectancy mechanisms in reading and writing achievement. Journal of Educational Psychology, pp. 81-100.
- Shih, R. C. (2011). Can Web 2.0 Technology Assist College Students in Learning English Writing? Integrating "Facebook" and Peer Assessment with Blended Learning. Australasian Journal of Educational Technology.
- Smith, B. (2001). Arabic Learners. In M. Swan & B. Smith (Eds.) Learner English: A Teacher's Guide to Interference and Other Problems. (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Spolsky. U. 1979. Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, Interlanguage and Other Useful Fads. The Modern Language Journal. C3-.5-6, 250-57.
- Sridhar, S. (1980). Contractive Analysis, Error Analysis and Interlanguage: Three Phases of one Goal. "Readings on English as a second Language. Croft, K. (ed) Cambridge. Massachusetts: Winthrop publisher.
- Staden, A. V. (2010). Improving the Spelling Ability of Grade 3 Learners through Visual Imaging Teaching Strategies. Per Linguam, A Journal for Language Learning.
- Stenson, N. (1975) *Induced errors*. In J. Schumann and N. Stenson (eds) New Frontiers in Second Language Learning (p54). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Subhi, S. N. & Yasin, M. S. (2015). *Investigating Study of an English Spelling Errors: A Sample of Iraqi students in Malaysia*. International Journal of Education and Research. Vol. 3 No 6.
- Swalameh, M. H. M. (2013). Error Analysis of Written English Essays: the Case of Students of the Preparatory Year in Saudi Arabia. English for Specific Purposes World. Vol.14.

- Takahashi, S. (1996). *Pragmatic Transferability*. Studies in Second Language Acquisition. 18, 189–223.
- Tarone, E. (2003, March) *Language Play and Fossilization*. Panelist presentation at the 2003 AAAL Annual Conference, Arlington, Virginia.
- Taylor, G. (1986). Errors and Explanations. Applied Linguistics 7:144-66. In Ellis, R. (1994). The Study of Second Language Acquisition. Oxford University Press.
- Teijlingen E., Hundley, V. (2001). *The Importance of Pilot Studies*. Social Research Update. Department of Sociology University of Surrey, United Kingdom.
- Thambi, F. S. J. (2014). Orthographic Errors Committed by Sophomore Students: A Linguistic Analysis. Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences MCSER Publishing, Rome-Italy. Vol 5, No. 23
- Thirusanku, J., & Yunus, M. M. (2012). *The Many Faces of Malaysian English*. International Scholarly Research Network, 14.
- Thirusanku, J. & Yunus, M. M. (2014). *Status of English in Malaysia*. Asian Social Science; Vol. 10, No. 14.
- Tomasello, M. and Herron, C. (1988) Down the Garden Path: Inducing and Correcting Overgeneralization Errors in the Foreign Language Classroom. Applied Psycholinguistics 9, 237–46.
- Tsai, J. (2006). *Connecting Reading and Writing in College EFL Courses*. The Internet TESL Journal, Vol. XII, No. 12.
- Unal, E. & Iseri, K. (2012). Analysis of the Relationship between Reading and Writing Attitudes of Teacher Candidates and Their Academic Achievements through the Structural Equation Model. Elementary Education Online, 11(4), 1066-1076.
- Upward, C. and Davidson, G. (2011). *The History of English Spelling*. A John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, Publication.
- Vahdatinejad, S. (2008). Students' Error Analysis and Attitude towards Teacher Feedback Using a Selected Software: A Case Study. Unpublished Master's thesis. UKM, Malaysia.
- Valette, R. (1991) *Proficiency and the Prevention of Fossilization* an editorial. Modern Language Journal 75 (3), 326–8.
- VanPatten, B. & Benati, A. G. (2010). *Key Terms in Second Language Acquisition*. London: Continuum International Publishing Group

- Vigil, N. and Oller, J. (1976) Rule Fossilization: Atentative Model. Language Learning. 26 (2), 281–95.
- Wang, X. (2015). *Empowerment on Chinese Police Force's Role in Social Service*. Springer Heidelberg New York.
- Warda, R. (2005) *Research based Tutoring of English Spelling*. Retrieved on 15<sup>th</sup> May 2015 from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED492137.pdf.
- Wei, X. (2008). Implication of IL Fossilization in Second Language Acquisition. English Language Teaching: Vol 1, No 1. Retrieved on March 15<sup>th</sup> 2016 from http://www.ccsenet.org/journal.
- Weir, C. J. (1990). Communicative Language Testing. NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Weireesh, S. (1991). *How to Analyze Interlanguage*. Journal of Psychology & Education.9 (1), 13 -22.
- Wells, J. C. (2008). Longman Pronunciation Dictionary. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited. 3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.
- Young, R. (1988). Variation and the Interlanguage Hypothesis. Studies in Second Language Acquisition. Studies in Second Language Acquisition.
- Yule, G. (2010). The Study Language of Language. Cambridge University Press.
- Zampieri, M. and Amorim, R. C. (2014). Between Sound and Spelling: Combining Phonetics and Clustering Algorithms to Improve Target Word Recovery. In Advances in Natural Language Processing. 9th International Conference, Warsaw, Poland.
- Zawahreh, F. A. S. (2012). Applied Error Analysis of Written Production of English Essays of Tenth Grade Students in Ajloun Schools, Jordan. International Journal of Learning and Development. Vol. 2, No. 2.
- Zhang, Q. & Wang, J. (2010). Application of Functional Equivalence Theory in English Translation of Chinese Idioms. Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 1, No. 6, pp. 880-888.
- Zoghi, M., Kazemi, S. and Kalani, A. (2013). *The Effect of Gender on Language Learning*. Journal of Novel Applied Sciences.

## LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

- Alsobhi, B. (2013). Teaching English Speaking Skills to the Arab Students in the Saudi School in Kuala Lumpur: Problems and Solutions. *Master's thesis, IIUM*.
- Alsobhi, B., Rashid, S. M., Nadzimah, A. and Darmi, R. (2017). Arab ESL Secondary School Students' Spelling Errors. *International Journal of Education & Literacy Studies. Vol 5, No 3.*





# **UNIVERSITI PUTRA MALAYSIA**

# STATUS CONFIRMATION FOR THESIS / PROJECT REPORT AND COPYRIGHT

# ACADEMIC SESSION :

# **TITLE OF THESIS / PROJECT REPORT :**

SPELLING ERRORS OF ARAB ESL AND EFL SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS AND THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARDS SPELLING AND WRITING

# NAME OF STUDENT: BANDAR MOHAMMADSAEED A. ALSOBHI

I acknowledge that the copyright and other intellectual property in the thesis/project report belonged to Universiti Putra Malaysia and I agree to allow this thesis/project report to be placed at the library under the following terms:

- 1. This thesis/project report is the property of Universiti Putra Malaysia.
- 2. The library of Universiti Putra Malaysia has the right to make copies for educational purposes only.
- 3. The library of Universiti Putra Malaysia is allowed to make copies of this thesis for academic exchange.

I declare that this thesis is classified as :

\*Please tick (V)



RESTRICTED

**OPEN ACCESS** 

(Contain confidential information under Official Secret Act 1972).

(Contains restricted information as specified by the organization/institution where research was done).

I agree that my thesis/project report to be published as hard copy or online open access.

This thesis is submitted for :

PATENT

Embargo from		until	
	(date)		(date)

Approved by:

(Signature of Student) New IC No/ Passport No.:

(Signature of Chairman of Supervisory Committee) Name:

Date :

Date :

[Note : If the thesis is CONFIDENTIAL or RESTRICTED, please attach with the letter from the organization/institution with period and reasons for confidentially or restricted.]